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ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS AND EMPLOYEE

PERFORMANCES: A REVIEW AND THEORTICAL

MODEL

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SCHOOL OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

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TITLE PAGE

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A RESEARCH PROJECT PRESENTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT, UNIVERSITY OF NIGERIA, ENUGU CAMPUS IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION (MBA)

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CERTIFICATION

I, ENEH IFEOMA .S, a post graduate student of the department of management with registration number PG/MBA/08/53057 has satisfactorily completed the requirement for the course and research work for the Master in Business Administration.

The work embodied in this project is original and has not been submitted in part or fill by any other Diploma or degree of this or any other university.

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Supervisor   Head of Department

DEDICATION

This research work is dedicated to God Almighty and to my lovely Husband for his financial support and otherwise, my children Chibueze, Chuka and Ebubechukwu and my mother Mrs. Patience Chibuzor Eneh, for her direction and prayers.

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ABSTRACT

Organizational Policies (OP) refers to the influence activities organizational members resort to in order to maximize their interest and goals in the work place. This paper has two main goals: (1) to review major studies which have discussed op in the recent years and thereby (2) to propose a theoretical model for the relationship between op and employee performance. While so far most studies have concentrated on op's negative outcomes, this paper argues that, under certain conditions op may have positive effects valuable born to organizations and their members. The models used a contingency approach which is in much contingency with Ferris and Kacmars (1992) recommendation of a more balance perspective toward organizational powers. In this research work, we have used both primary and secondary data. It is an evaluative research design within depth analysis on the modus operandi of organizational politics in both industrial and service sector. Organizational Politics queues from the politics of daily experience as the desire to acquire power over others. Powers itself is the ability to influence others to do something whether or not the followers likes it. In the organization, it takes many forms, but not with the bickering that follow political officers, but with the scheming that lead themselves to the quest to outwit the incumbent occupant of a post. In practice, it looks very virulent, and so, unattractive. However, to the enterprise it gives room for competition which midwives innovations. Such as atmosphere cannot be said to be antagonistic. So, to an outsider, organizational politics is a dirty game, but to the company, it has inherent advantages.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Organizational Politics [OP] represents a unique domain of interpersonal relations in the workplace. Its main characteristics are the readiness of people to use power in their efforts others and secure their interests, or alternatively avoid negative outcomes within the organization (Bozeman, Perrwe, Kacmar, Hochwarter, & Brymer, 1996). As such, OP has become during the past decade a topic of prime importance in the management literature. In the late 1950s Lasswell claimed that politics is important since it represents the secret of %Who gets what, when, and how+in a social system (Lasswell, 1958).

However, until the 1970s, policies in organizations received little or no attention. Only with the recognition that, as in the national arena. Organizations too have to deal with conflicts, resource sharing processes, and power struggles among their members and units, op began to attract growing attention. In the late 1970s some studies established a theoretical framework for the inquiry of policies at the workplace (Mayes a& Allen, 1977); Bacharach & Lawier, 1980; Pfeffer, 1981; Mintzberg, 1983). Drawing on these studies, Pfeffer (1992) argued that organizations, particularly large ones, are like governments in that

they are fundamentally political entitles: To understand them one need to understand organizational policies, just as to understand governments one needs to understand governmental policies.

1.2   STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Organizational policies are a complex, pervasive and sometimes even phenomenon. Its ambiguity derives from two distinct factors. Politics is sometimes misjudged and considered as synonymous with power perhaps since both are significant factors of human behaviour which affect ones ability to accomplish and secure goals and interests in a social system.

Moreover, there is some confusion concerning proximate term which very often arise together when politics and especially organizational politics is discussed leg conflict, influence, force, authority, power etc.

1.3   OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

To determine how the activities of employees encourage employee relations, to examine the way activities of management and employees affect promotion in an enterprise, to evaluate the effects of the activities of employees and management on discipline, to access the extent activities of employees and management affects grapevine relations, to

evaluate how organizational structure affects organizational politics in an organization, to analyze the impact of employee and management activities on public relations.

1.4   RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Question 1:   How do the activities of employees and management encourage employee relations?

Question 2:   What effects have the activities of employees and management on promotions in an enterprise.

Question 3:   To What extent do activities of employees and management affect disciplinary

Question 4:   Procedures in an organization.

Question 5:   What could be concluded on the effect of the activities of employee and management on grapevine relations?

Question 6:   How does organizational structure affect organizational politics in an organization?

Question7:   How do public relations affect organizational politics?

1.5   THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Organizational Politics is an area that some people dread some uniformed managers yet everybody seems involved. A study on the topic

is, therefore, desirable to explain to people what the mechanisms of the topic are, so as to appreciate.

Management of any organization would find this rather very interesting so as to know how best to relate with the employees.

The employee themselves would discover that the guidelines of organizational politics as stipulated in this research are helpful in relating with one another.

1.6   SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study covers the entire sphere of organizational Politics. In other words, it is a global study, being not a case study researcher work.

However, we decided to select two manufacturing and two service outfits in Enugu for a closer study, for inferential conclusions.

1.7   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The limitations of the study exists in such areas as the time period involved for the execution implementation of the research difficulties encountered in obtaining most of the necessary data/information needed for the study, as well as transportation and some other logistic problems.

1.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS

Organizational Politics as defined by researchers is declined as ways to get ahead in an organization (Wallace & Szilagyi, 1982:181), as dynamic processes of influence that produce organizationally relevant outcomes beyond the simple performance of job tasks.

1.8.1 Grapevine is unofficial source of information

1.8.2 Legitimacy is the act of acquiring power legally

1.8.3 Synergy is the act of achieving goals through groups action in an organization.

1.8.4 Political behaviour is perceived as a fight response to different conflicts or to a decline inside organization.

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CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0   INTRODUCTION

Organization theory encompasses a broad spectrum of management as well as sociological concepts. One aspect of organization theory is that of politics and the associated behaviors and reaction that individuals and groups experience by working in a political environment. This literature review explores concepts associated with organizational politics from its recognition and emergence in the literature to more recent research explorations regarding perceptions, and mitigating work place factors. The review includes an explanation of the **1)** origination of the concept in the literature, **2)** definitional struggles surrounding the concept, **3)** perceptions of organizational politics including antecedents and consequences of political environment. The goal of the literature review is to establish a foundational understanding of politics in the work environment as well as a familiarity with the current literary discourse.

In addition to the literature review on organizational politics, an abbreviated discussion of rhetoric and dialectic focusing on Aristotle's theory of ethos, logos, and pathos is provided well as comments regarding the concepts of power. Finally, the concepts of organizational

politics, rhetorical theory, and power are related to the emerging role of the employee performance.

2.1 ORIGINATION OF POLITICS IN THE LITERATURE

The literature discourse regarding organizational politics began in the 1970s with a focus on aspects of power and bureaucracy in the work place specifically focused on management and leadership (Drory & Romm, 1988). Mint berg (1985) acknowledges that the topic received only fragmented exposure in the literature prior to the 1980s and associated the phenomenon primarily with conflict. The initial literary explorations attempted to justify its existence and relevance and struggle with defining the experience (Drory &Romm, 1988). Like the unseen elephant in the living room, one knows it is there, even though, it is difficult to describe and define. The researchers attempts to define and quantify the felt but intangible environmental phenomenon were journeys into the realm of the unknown and followed the roots of the early employee performance view of management.

The human relations movement forged new inquiry into the discourse regarding human behavior in the work place. As early as 1938, Chester Barnard described the organization as a social structure integrating traditional management and behavioral science applications (De Simone & Harris, 1998).While social scientists explored human behavior, motivation, and need fulfillment in relationship to work,

management late 1970's and early 1980's the social sciences met head on with organizational management methods. The term human resource development was embraced by the American Society for Training and Development in 1980 forming the marriage between the worker and the work place. This union gave momentum to the discourse on organizational behavior with the publication of numerous articles and books on the subject.

The label "Organizational Politics" found its way into the literature and textbooks on organizational behavior in 1983 in publications by Robbins, Hellrigel, Solcum and Woodman (Drory & Romm, 1988). Notwithstanding the mention, organizational politics remained relatively undefined. Mintzberg (1985) couples politics with influence when the writes that "politics may be considered to constitute one among a number of systems of influence in the organization– the other (include) authority, ideology, and expertise may be described as Legitimate in some sense." Drory and Romm (1988) posit:

> Considerable disagreement exists among the writers with regard to the definition of the term. Beyond the relatively wide agreement that political behavior involves attempt at influencing others there is a wide differencing others there is a wide difference with regard to the purpose, the means and the circumstances which distinguish political from non-political organizational behavior.

Once the concept received a label even though undefined, it was ripe turf for grounded theory and hypotheses. The literary dialogue continued with the struggle to define the playing field.

2.2   THE EVOLUTION OF THE DEFINITION

Organizational scientists have offered various definitions of politics incorporating elements of behavior that are formal and informal, sanctioned and non-sanctioned, focused on the use of power and influence decision making. Others link it to the dysfunctional characteristics of organizations (Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick, & Mayers, 1979).

Mintzberg (1983) refers to Politics as ‰individual or group behaviors that is informal, ostensibly parochial, typically divisive, and above all, in the technical sense, illegitimate- sanctioned neither by formal authority, accepted ideology, nor certified expertise (p.172). A definition that captures an important nuance is ‰mpression management+ which isolates a tactics of ingratiation or social engineering as a means to employ political influence (Gardener & martinko, 1988, p, 322). Impression management as defined by schlenker (1980) is ‰he conscious or unconscious attempt to control images that are projected in real or imagined social interactions+

Mintzberg (1985) linked political conflict in his discussion of the political arena in organizations, - intensity, pervasiveness, and duration or (stability). These variables were associated with four forms of the political arena: confrontation, shaky alliance, politicized organization, and complete political arena, mintzberg hypothesized that organizations are thrust into and out all four forms of the political arena or systems of influence He identified thirteen political %games+ played to %counter resistance, build a power base, defeat a rival or change the organization+ (P.134). these identified political games formed three types of impetus that give rise to political arena change in fundamental condition of the organization, 2) break down in established order of power, 3) major pressure from influencer(s) to realign a coalition or change the configuration, His hypothesis centered on the belief that conflict must be controlled and contained or the organization would succumb to influential political pressures.

Mintzberg (1985) also held that the political arena on organizations has a functional role. He believed,1) a system of politics in organizations is necessary to correct certain deficiencies and dysfuntions,2) leadership could be enhanced by bringing the strongest member of the organization into positions of authority in a somewhat Darwinian manner,3) politics promotes a full debate of issues,4) polities promotes necessary organizational change blocked by legitimate systems of influence,5)

politics can facilitate decision . making ,6) politics causes a realignment of coalitions and a shift in power,7) politics speeds up the death of a spent organization. Mintzberg's dispassionate epistle on the political arena of organization promotes a balanced viewpoint. However, he reveals an incomplete understanding of the phenomenon, when he writes, %while this author is not personally enthusiastic about organizational politics and has no desire to live in a political arenaõ he dose accept its purpose in a society of organizations+ (p153). At this early stage in the literary discourse, politics is heavily linked with open conflict originating either externally or internally to the organization

Dory and roman (1988) offer seven concepts as key elements in defining organizational politics: 1) behavioral means consisting of three including formal, informal, and legal, 2) acting against the prganization,3) power attainment,4) conflict,5) concealed motive.

The three types of behavioral means are divided into formally sanctioned political behavior, informal or non-sanctioned behavior, and illegal behavior. using the terms prescribed, discretionary, or illegal to depict the three type, Dory and Romm articulate the differences by suggesting that prescribe behaviors fall within the realm of the acceptable, discretionary behaviors are informal, acceptable but non-sanctioned, and illegal behaviors are prohibited within the organizañ, acting against the organization includes behaviors that go against the

formal organizational goals and interests although, Drory and Romm (1988) admit that this aspect of the definition id controversial. Power attainment is considered by many as a central characteristic of organizational politics ‰o the extent that the two concepts are sometimes used interchangeably+(Drory & Romm, 1988, p.166). Conflict surfaces in their definition and is suggested to be a state that exists between parties involved in organizational politics the concealed motive element of the definition is described as a ‰major characteristic often accompanying political behaviour (p.167). They continue, ‰The true motive is concealed because the actor believes that it is unacceptable, and a false but acceptable motive is presented instead+(p. 167).

In a more recent study by Drory and Romm (1990), they suggest that there is no common, basic definition that captures the entire complexity of organizational politics. Out of a desire to pin down the phenomenon, the literature captured an evolution of definitions moving from the specific to more general explanations of behaviors affecting the organization which might be either formal (sanctioned) or informal (non-sanctioned).

Parker, Dipboye, and Jackson (1995) point to Ferrisqwork which describes Politics as an ‰ntentional social influence process in which behavior us strategically designed to maximize short-term or long-term self interests+ (p.892). This definition allows for both functional and

dysfunctional outcomes for individuals, groups, or organizations. Consensus building is a type of political behavior which may allow beneficial decisions to be made. However, dysfunctional political behaviour may also be encompassed in this definition in the form of self-serving policies which have a long-term negative effect on the organization.

The dissection of the concept in an attempt to arrive at a common definition continues in recent literature. Zanzi (2001) offers that "while previous organizational research has been concerned primarily with either a general definition of politics that considers both positive and negative aspects of politics or a specific definition that focuses solely on negative political behaviors" (p. 246). He sought to integrate the definitions and explored the positive and the negative political tactics that people actually employ at work. Like Zanzi's, recent explorations by researchers focus more on the perceptions and impact of the phenomenon than on the definition.

2.3   PERCEPTIONS OF POLITICAL INFLUENCE

Possibly as a result of the definitional debate, research on organizational politics shifted to employee perceptions including measurement and mitigating factors of a political environment. Robbins (1983) concluded that all behavior in organizations is political. However, Drory and Romm found in a 1988 study that organizational politics is

more associated with informal that with formal or illegal behaviors. In fact, the Drory and Romm study found that employees perception of politics are dependent upon circumstances and that as circumstances or elements of a situation vary so do perceptions regarding the politics. Departing from previous definitions that include lists of political characteristics including power, control, hidden motives, Drory and Romm posit that organizational politics is dependent upon a set of circumstances that employees may perceive as political. Drory and Romm work proposes an if A and B relationship between behavior and politics. Meaning if A in relationship to B creates a perception of organizational politics, than absent the condition A, the resulting behavior, B may or may not be considered as politically charged. The study concludes that perception of politics is shaped by a set of circumstances that are defined by the employee.

Much of the work related to the perception of organization politics revolves around the research of Ferris, Russ, and Fandt (1989) who developed a subjective framework of organizational politics which posits that workers perceiving high levels of organizational politics are dissatisfied with their jobs. They also claimed that workers who are lower in the hierarchy and have an external locus of control experience the organization as more political.

Ferris and Kacmar (1992) embraced an earlier work by Gandz and Murray (1980) who suggested that %ather than exclusively an objective state, it is appropriate to construe organizational politics is a subjective experience and, thus as a state of mind+ (p. 94). Ferris and Kacmar focused o the %ognitive evaluation and subjective experience of those behaviors and events occurring in the work environment that seem to constitute politics perception that formed a relationship between organizational, between organizational, environmental, and personal factors that influence job involvement, job anxiety, job satisfaction, and withdrawal from the organization. They proposed that perceptions or organizational politics defer in direct relationship to ones position in hierarchical. An employee at a lower level perceives more politics than those higher in the organization. Additional, they proposed that organizations that are more centrally controlled are inherently more political.

Ferris and Kacmar conducted two separate studies to determine antecedents of organizational politics perceptions. In the first study, they found that feedback, job autonomy, skill variety, and opportunity for promotion correlated with perceptions of organizational politics. Additionally, they found that age, sex or supervisory status did not correlate positively with perceptions of politics. In the second study, they found that relationship with supervisor, work group cohesion, and

opportunity for promotion all were statistically significant for predicting negative relationships with organizational politics perceptions. Interestingly, Ferris and Kacmar found that work group cohesion accounted for the largest variance in job satisfaction. They concluded that,

> Organizational politics perceptions play a role in employee job dissatisfaction, and more specifically, that it is the coworker and clique (political) behaviour of politics perceptions that seems to explain this role. This makes sense in light of the critical role coworkers play in influencing employee definition and interpretation of work environmental stimuli (p. 111).

Ferris and Kacmar's study advanced the research regarding the perceptions of organizational politics by providing correlations to supervisory and coworker behaviour as well as opportunity for promotion. In their concluding statements, they offer a mitigating caution.

> Most people perceive only the dark side of politics, and indeed there is a dark side, characterized by destructive opportunism and dysfunctional game playing. However, politics can be positive as well, for organizations and for individuals… .politics is essential to the effective functioning of organizations. Individuals who become proficient at playing politics may realize greater job and career-related rewards. In fact, in the present research, organizational

politics perceptions were associated with higher (not lower) job involvement (p.113).

These two studies by Ferris and Kacmar provide insight into employeesq perceptions of organizational politics. Following their research, Drory conducted further inquiry into the perception of politics.

Drory (1993) designed the Political Climate Scale for use in a study of 200 employees. He hypothesized that two factors impact oneq perception of organizational politics: satisfaction with superior and satisfaction with co-workers. His rationale was that,

Employees, who have to sources of organizational power and status, are in a position to take advantage of the political game and to gain a greater share of organizational benefits than they formally deserve. Consequently, they may not consider OP as necessarily undesirable or detrimental to their own interests. Low status employees, on the other hand, who are likely to feel disadvantaged in a prevailing political climate, Their attitude toward their work situation is therefore more likely to be negatively affected (p.63).

Droryq results supported his hypothesis.

Parker, Dipboye, and Jackson (1995) launched a study using Ferris framework of organizational politics which includes perceptions of employees in relationship to levels of hierarchy, locus of control, and

satisfaction levels. The primary focus of their study surrounded the notion of trust and its correlation to the perception of politics. Specifically, they hypothesized that,

> Trust may moderate the extent to which organizational politics is related to positive or negative attitudes. Respondents who are high on trust are less likely to perceive politics as a threat than those who have a low level of trust… .participants who have a high level of trust do not perceive a need for political action and are consequently less likely to engage in politics than those with lower levels of trust. When participants with high levels of trust engage in politics, they are more likely to engage in legitimate, constructive political behavior than those with low levels of trust (p. 897-898).

Surprisingly, their hypothesis was not supported by the research. In fact, they found support for Ferris' claims that certain types of job and work qualities influenced perceptions of politics. Ferris' research found that job promotion possibilities affected one's perception of negative politics. Parker et al. found that, "respondents perceived fewer politics to the extent that they believed that there were career development opportunities, rewards and recognition for good performance, and cooperation among work groups" (p. 908). Additionally, they found that the strongest correlate of the perception of politics existed in the element of intergroup cooperation. This little studied variable had a surprisingly

powerful relationship to the perception of organizational politics. They suggest that this finding provides important managerial direction to help reduce the negative effects of organizational politics. By providing opportunities to reward cooperation and integrative organizational structures, managers may mitigate the negative impact of organizational politics.

The work by Parker, Dipboye and Jackson (1995) also suggests several important contribute actions related to employeesqperception of organizational politics. Employee perceptions of the organization as political were associated with lower levels of overall satisfaction; believing that the organization does not value high work standards, challenging work, and integrity; evaluations of senior management as ineffective; perceiving that the organization does not support innovation; and, believing that employees are not loyal to the organization.

O. Connor and Morrison (2001) studied both situation and dispositional predictors of perceptions of organizational politics. They found like Ferris, Russ and Fandt (1998) that,

> Job autonomy, formalization, and organizational climate were negatively correlated with perceptions of political activity. Male and female employees were more likely to perceive their organization as political if they (a) occupied lower hierarchical levels within the organization, (b) saw themselves as possessing low levels of job

autonomy, (c) believed that workplace was low in formalization, and (d) negatively evaluated the climate of their organization (p.307).

Additionally, they found that two dispositional variables impact perception of politics.

Both external locus of control and Machiavellianism were correlated positively with perception of organizational politics. Specifically male and female employees who evidenced greater levels of Machiavellianism and a more external (or less internal) work locus of control tended to view their organizations as more political (p.307).

The most powerful finding that emerged from OqConnor and Morrison study was the relationship between organizational climate and the perception of politics. %This variable may be an important determinant of whether an employee views his or her workplace as political+(p.309).

An aspect of the organizational climate is teamwork. Valle and Witt (2001) analyzed the correlation of organizational politics and teamwork. They hypothesized that %individual perceptions on job satisfaction+ (p.379). Working from the framework proposed by Ferris et al (1989), Valle and Witt studied 355 white-collar employees of a private sector, customer-service organization in the eastern United States. Using Kacmar and Ferrisqperceptions of organizational Politics Scale (POPS)

(1991), they assessed the perception of the value of teamwork within the organization. They found that,

> The relationship between policies perception and job satisfaction was stronger among employees reporting low levels of teamwork importance than among individuals reporting high levels of teamwork importance. Teamwork importance was relevant to job satisfaction only when employees perceived average to high levels of organizational politics (p.385).

This study demonstrated that the effects of teamwork importance on organizational politics were statically significant even when control features of gender, ethnic minority status, tenure, and supervisory status were included.

Valle and Witt (2001) conclude that organizational politics subsumes all forms of influence in organizations and includes both positive and negative connotations. Influence, they comment, derives much of the correlation with organizational politics.

The concept of influence is intricately associated with organizational policies (Valle & Waitt, 2001). In fact, a common denominator of many of the definitions discussed earlier in this chapter incorporate the element of influence (include list of researchers and dates). Therefore, it is both appropriate and instructive to examine the

concept of influences as found in rhetorical theory. An exploration of the rhetorical concept of influence rounds out this literature review.

2.4   RHETORIC AND DIALECTIC ACCORDING TO ARISTOTLE

Aristotle defines rhetoric as %the faculty of discovering the possible means of persuasion in reference to any subject whatever+ (Rhet. 12.1, 1355b26-27). Aristotle reserved rhetoric to describe the art of persuasive speech making which employs ethos (character of the speaker), logos (argument), and pathos (creating emotion in the listeners). Aristotle describes a similar but different form of communication art as dialectic. Dialectic is used to describe the practice and theory of conversion and employs the use of logos (Krabbe, 2000). He delineates the differences between rhetoric and dialectic on the basis speaker/audience interactivity, scope, and scale. Simple stated, rhetoric is reserved for speeches delivered to groups in a continuous flow while dialectic is an even exchange between two actors. More importantly, though, he distinguishes rhetoric as solely persuasive-a means by which to arrive at single-mindedness regarding an issue through the use of ethos, pathos, and logos. Conversely, dialectic is a means of cooperative inquiry employing the art of questioning and logos to arrive at truth and knowledge. Both rhetoric and dialectic may share a common goal of persuasion by fostering arguments on both sides of an issue.

The possibility of arguing both sides of an issue by employing artful rhetoric or dialectic open up the possibility of misuse known as sophistry. Krabbe (2000) describes the situation.

One could deliberately argue for the wrong side of an issue (even though Aristotle says we should not do so). Hence there is a black rhetoric besides the white rhetoric that Aristotle recommends. In dialectic the situation is not different, only here the black side is known by a special name: sophistry (p.209).

At the heart of Aristotle's concept of rhetoric is ethos or character. Arguably, although not delineated by Aristotle, ethos is also quite relevant in dialectic since sophistry seemingly might involve an absence of character. To fully appreciate Aristotle's concepts of rhetoric and the dialectic, one must understand the concept of character. The origins of Aristotle's view of character may have been influenced by Homer's Iliad.

Kennedy (1998) argues that Homer's Iliad was an important catalyst for later theories of persuasion. "Some techniques of rhetorical theory are already evident in the speeches of the Homeric poems to such a degree that later antiquity found formal rhetoric everywhere in Homer" (p. 35). Since Greeks and Romans learned to read by way of the Homeric poems, Kennedy asserts that "The attitude toward speech in the Iliad strongly influenced the conception of the orator in Greco-Roman civilization" (p.10). Aristotle's thoughts on persuasion were formed, in

part, by Homer, Karp (1994) states that "Homer was a forerunner of, If not an influence on, later explicitly philosophic formulations of theories of persuasion (in particular, those of Plato and Aristotle" (p. 34). The concepts contained in the Iliad contributed to Aristotle's development of truth, justice, and persuasion, while the Iliad may have influenced the notion of ethos, there are important distinctions between the later views of ethos held of Aristotle and those that articulated in the Iliad.

Frobish (2003) contrasts the concept of Aristotle's ethos and Homer's view of ethos as described in the Iliad.

Although Aristotle suggests the universality of ethos as a factor in all persuasion, his theory is focused most specifically upon establishing the appearance of trustworthiness before an audience that did not know the speakers by reputation or personal contact. Therefore, external factors such as one's authority or prestige were typically nonexistent or inconsequential to those speaking. The speakers in the Iliad are kings or sons of kings, who were called forth into battle, only to find themselves engaged in uneasy dialogue with their peers. External factors become crucial to credibility and the presentation of trustworthiness in the Iliad (p. 18).

In the Iliad, character was a man acted. "His identity or character was strengthened through heroic deed or ruined by some act of cowardice"

(Frobish, 2003). Finley (1954) adds, "There was no weakness, no unheroic trait, but one, and that was cowardice and the consequent failure to pursue heroic goals." Assessment of character in the Iliad pivoted on one's ability to act in a manner deemed reasonable, trustworthy, and honorable. Traits associated with character included wisdom, courage, style or eloquence, patience, foresight, bravery, skill, honesty, circumspection, and graciousness. Regardless of status . king or pauper-character in action was considered to be a critical asset. It is one's quality of character in the Iliad that caused one to be listened to an followed into battle. Persuasiveness was impossible apart from a positive assessment of character.

Conversely, Aristotle viewed character as ascribed to a speaker "when the speech is so spoken as to make us think him credible— this kind of persuasion, like the others, should be achieved by what the speaker says, not by what people think of his character before he begins to speak" (1.2136a7-10). "Ethos then is established through discourse, according to Aristotle, when on portrays himself as having practical wisdom, good moral character, and a concern for the audience" (Frobish, 2003). This view of ethos moves away from the *action determines characters* model of the Iliad and towards the actor creates character model. The *actor creates character* model encompasses all three of Aristotle's concepts of rhetoric-logs, pathos, and ethos. An actor

using logic (logos) to arouse an audience's emotion (pathos) attempts to persuade. Once persuaded, the audience ascribes a degree of character (ethos) to the actor.

Character to Aristotle was a perception which might vary from one interaction with an audience to another. Homer's concept of character rested on one's ability to be listened to as a result of reputation. Aristotle's concept of character rested on one's ability to persuade; and is the model that formed the basis of rhetorical theory. Rhetoric as described by Aristotle is "the faculty of discovering the possible means of persuasion in reference to any subject whatever". a clear enunciation of the purpose of rhetoric.

Persuasion, in Aristotle's view, was a result of artful rhetorical facility and involved elements of style, tone and delivery. In book 3 of Rhetoric, Aristotle comments,

Delivery is of the greatest importance, but has not yet been treated by anyone. One fact, it only made its appearance late in tragedy and rhapsody….Now (delivery) is a matter of voice, as to how it should be used for each other emotion, when it should be loud and when soft and when intermediate, and how the tones… should be used, and what rhythms are adapt to each subject… But no treatise has yet been composed on this, since the matter of style itself only lately came to considered, and it seems a vulgar matter when

rightly understood. But since the whole business of rhetoric is to influence opinion, we must pay attention to delivery, not as being right, but necessaryõ . (For delivery) is of great importance owing to the [hearers lack of skill] (Johnstone, 2001).

This ancient acknowledgement of the importance of style, tone, delivery, and rhythm for the sole purpose of influencing opinion establishes the foundational elements of rhetorical theory.

The genesis of rhetorical theory is found in the early works of Homer (Frobish, 2003), read and massaged by Aristotle and taught by Plato and the Sophists. Current teachings in rhetorical theory are deeply rooted in the Ancients, especially Aristotle, who articulated the importance of the fundamentals of delivery, style, tone, the Socratic method, the appeal to emotion, the division of a speech into parts, and the interest in diction and word-choice. These concerns are %likely to have been a fundamental part of the logon techno as it was taught and practiced in the 5th century BCE+(Johnstone, 2001). The ultimate goal of the rhetorical act, according to Aristotle, is to persuade or influence in order to sway opinion. The ability to cause movement in the audiencesq opinion and thereby their behaviour, is rooted in the rhetorical convergence of ethos, logos, and pathos and is a form of power.

2.5   POWER

Latin has three words to define different types of power: auctoritas, potestas, and potentia (Hopfl, 1999). Auctoritas is a capacity to initiate and to inspire respect. Persons or organizations may have this type of power. It is likened to moral authority. Individuals with this type of power are listened, to, they provide counsel and guidance. %Understood in this way, auctoritas is indeed indispensable in any association of human beings, especially in times of crisis and disorientation+ (Hopfl, 1999, p.222). Potestas is power which is bestowed as a result of holding a particular office. The officer or the position gives one the means and the right to act. It is magisterial power. Potentia is the exercise of incentives and rewards as ±powersq which encourage compliance and dispel sanctions for noncompliance. In essence, it is the right to command or coerce through the use of incentives and rewards.

Michel Foucaultœ (1979) refers to power as a pervasive, intangible network of forces which weaves itself into our slightest gestures and most intimate utterances.

Power does not reside in things but in a network of relationships which are systematically connected. More specifically, power (hegemony) is ‰a set of practices, primarily of a discursive provenance which seeks to foreclose the indefinite possibilities of signifying elements and their relations, in determinate ways. These views of power closely

resemble Aristotle's view of rhetoric. Foucault uses terms to describe power such as force, network of relationships, gestures, utterance, discursive provenance coincide with Aristotle's rhetorical and dialectic elements of dialogue, word choice, delivery, style and pathos.

Power as viewed by Foucault departs from the Latin expressions of power moral authority, positional power, and coercive incentives and towards an interactive, dynamic, and discursive definition.

Figure 1

2.6   OP and Employee Performance: A Theoretical Model
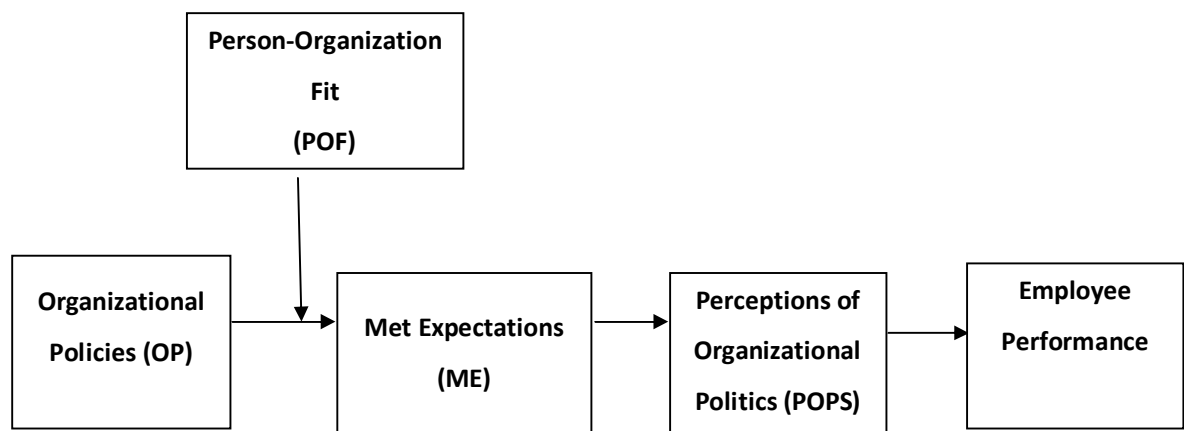
Exploring the Model: OP and Employee Performance

The research model presented in Figure 1 suggests a new theoretical framework for the explanation of the relationship between OP and employee performance involving individual as well as situational differences that facilitate success of influence attempts (Schilit & Lock, 1982). Relying on our theoretical review, we assume that OP is essential to secure varying interests and needs at the workplace. The effect of OP

on employee performance is indirect and primarily depends on the degree an employee's explanations are fulfilled. While it appears rather natural to put pressure on someone else to make her/him do wants, it is the result of such pressure that determines what one thinks not only about this person, but especially about what she/he symbolizes or represents (e.g., supervisors, subordinates, or co-workers).

For example, when an employee thinks that a salary raise is in order but this raise fails to materialize, she/he will most probably resort to some influence tactics to try and change the situation. This influence activity is a political behaviour. Yet, only the results of this behaviors will determine the employee's future attitudes towards the organizational system, as well as her/his performance. Important too is whether the results of OP are successful or not. Results that from the employee's point of view are successful create the feeling that things are going in the right-direction, and therefore, OP is perceived as positive, useful, and beneficial. On the other hand, when OP prove ineffective. It may set of outcomes, such as a feeling of dissatisfaction with one's ability to achieve one's goals, alienation. Or the perception that the organization treats one unjustly or unfairly.

The results of OP can be measured by employee's level of Met Expectations (ME). Since everyone has some expectations from one's workplace, politics is a tool through which these expectations can be

accomplished, in many ways ME expresses the effectiveness of OP. This effectiveness is the gap between what we wish to obtain and what we actually receive at the workplace. Simultaneously, the level of Met Expectations (ME) is not solely determined by one's political behavior in the organization. Basic fit between an employee and her/his work system is also important since it expresses the adjustment of personal qualifications and personality factors in a certain work arena. That is, the relationship between OP and ME is expected to be moderated by the basic fit between person and organization (POF). The fit between a person and her/his environment is crucial for the emergence of reasonable expectations which will have a reasonable chance to be met.

We also suggest that OP, ME, and POF affect employee perceptions of organizational politics (named perceptions of Organizational Politics Scale . POPS) which express employees' feelings concerning justice and fairness in the workplace (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). POPS is important for the way it reflects employees attitudes toward OP. though previous studies have already shed light on the important of POPS, its antecedents and effects on employee performance (Parker et al, 1995; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992), none of them above examined the actual effectiveness of political behaviors at the workplace or the relationship between actual political behavior and perceptions of political behavior. Theoretically, we support the important

given to POPS by Ferris and Kacmar (1992) and Kacmar and Carlson (1994). However, we also suggest discussing OP from a broader point of view, which includes the specific influence tactics used by all organizational members well as their perceptions of this behavior.

We further argue that POF have an important effect on how effective the use of OP will be. High POF improves the probability to achieve desirable results through OP implementation. One the other hand, low POF negatively effects the likelihood of desirable results of Op since a lack of basic fit between employee and her/his work environment prevents organization as well as employees from achieving effective outcomes. ME expresses the individualsqfulfilled interests and goals. ME is expected to be positively related to POF and in the long run, to have some effect on attitudes toward the organization (such as POPS), behavior intentions, and actual performance at work.

- **DEVELOPMENT OF PROPOSITIONS**

A recent study by Bozeman et al. (1996, p.3) suggested that %reactions to and consequences of political behavior in organizations may well be a function of critical boundary conditions or moderators+. This proposition implies that one should look for mediators and moderators which influence OP in different ways. The present study suggests ME, POF, and POPS as some variable which are mutually

related and thereby affect the relationship between OP and employee performances.

The concept of Met Expectations (ME) may be viewed as the discrepancy between what a person encounters on the job in the way of positive and negative experiences and what she/he expected to encounter (Wanous, Poland, Premak & Davis, 1992). Vroom (1964) realized that employees' expectations of the workplace have major effects on their motivation. Blau's expectancy theory (1964) developed this concept and argued that expectations determine intentions to stay in the organization and the level of personal contribution on behalf of the organization, and therefore they affect employees, as well as quantity and quality of other organizational outcomes. The levels of an employee's ME determine her/his perception of the work system. Expectations which are highly fulfilled lead to a more positive perception of the organization while unfulfilled expectations have an opposite, more negative effect on one's perception of the workplace.

Thus, we propose that ME might be related to employees' perception of organizational politics and through it affect general performance. In a way, ME represents the degree of success in executing influence tactics in the organization. It also has a certain theoretical relationship with trust and fairness, which were previously mentioned as correlated with OP and perception of OP (Parker et al,

1995; Kamar & Ghadially, 1989). An employee who acts politically on behalf of personal or organizational goals can either succeed or fail in her/his efforts. Success is a desirable outcome and it can contribute to greater motivation, satisfaction, and eventually intention to remain in the organization (Weitz, 1956; Schein, 1978). The results of a failure in influence attempts of any kind can cause a feeling of alienation, dissatisfaction and a negative perception of the organization, supervisors, or other people in the organizational environment. This perception is also based on the employee's feeling that the organizational decision-making processes and resource allocation systems are unfair and unjust. When an employee holds this negative attitude toward the organization for a long time, a negative perception can also spillover and affect other job domains such as productivity, attitudes toward others, and general performance.

Nevertheless, the relationship between ME and OP is not expected to be direct. Another factor that might be considered as a moderator in this context is POF. Chatman (1989) defined Person-Organization Fit (POF) as the congruence between the norms and values of organizations and the values of persons. Several studies have attempted to explore the implications of the correspondence ("fit") between an individual and her/his workplace. Some studies have concentrated on the individual's career (Holland, 1985), choosing the

right job (Hackman & Oldham, 1980), or the effect of organizational atmosphere on POF (Joyee and Slocum, 1984). Holland (1985) and Super (1957) argued that an individual's job must fit his/her self-concept. Brezt and judge (1994) noted the relationship between POF and occupational outcomes, job involvement, organizational commitment, work attitudes, and job performance. These findings suggest that those who fit are more likely to be attracted to the organization, be favourably evaluated by established organizational members, display greater work motivation, and perform better than others. All of those studies explain individual behavior, attitudes toward the organization, contribution and functionality in the workplace by a set of personal and situational factors, but only few mentions POF in relation to OP.

We argue that POF may moderate the relationship between OP and ME since a successful implementation of political behavior is, to some extent, a matter of the fit between the individual and her/his environment. A greater fit between person and organization increases the likelihood that OP, when it emerges, will end successfully. The reason for this is the establishment of a comfortable environment, which helps an employee in promoting her/his interests. When there is a substantive fit between an employee and her/his work environment conflicts are more easily overcome, resistance to one's goals is minor, and there are more communication channels one can use to promote

one¢s goals. Employees with high POF are expected to implement influence tactics (OP) in a more appropriate/effective manner since they are already familiar with the rules of the intraorganizational ‰olitical game+, adjusting to changes, understand the international balance of power, communicate effectively with others and better understand other organizational processes. When a basic fit between person, organization, and workplace is low, the likelihood of implementing successful influence tactics decreases. The logic for that is similar to the one mentioned previously. Thus, it appears that these two opposite levels of fit between a person and an organization lead to controversial organizational outcomes and employee performance.

However, we find that one must first take a closer look at the potential effect of OP, ME, and POF on the employees Perception of Organizational Politics, POPS represents the degree to which employees view their work environment as political in nature (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). Most of the behaviors which represent POPS have some negative meaning (e.g. favoritism, not merit, get people ahead, supervisor only looks as if she/he helps others, co-workers lend a hand if they get something out of it, people left because hard work was not enough to get ahead). POPS has become quite a common measure in studies dealing with political phenomenon at work during the previous years (Kacmar & Carlson, 1994; Ferris & Kacmar,

1992; Kacmar & Ferris, 1991). It examines perceptions such as (1) how much favoritism is established in the organization? (2) What is the relative power and dominance of internal influence groups in the intraorganizational game? (3) Is there fair reward sharing in the organization (do only those who work hard receive rewards?); (4) does the organization stand for a fair and just promotion policy?; (5) is there room in the organization for honest and frank people; do they really have a fair chance in influencing the decision-making process, compared with others? In other words, POPS represents the level at which the organization is perceived as unfair or unjust. When organizational fairness is high, the whole workplace appears to be less political and vice versa.

As mentioned by Ferris and Kacmar (1992), POPS is a major component of organizational politics and therefore is should be an inherent part of every exploratory model which discusses OP. whenever a political act is performed by someone in the organization. It ends in success or failure. In our opinion. POPS is largely determined by the extent to which employee use effective influence tactics and as a result successful outcomes are produced. While this claim is theoretically supported by Ferris. Russ and Fandt (1989) and Parker, Depboye and Jackson (1995) one must also consider the different levels of OP which are carried out by an individual. When the degree of political behaviour

(OP) is relatively high some major resources are invested by the influence and a considerable effort is made by her/him to fulfill goals and achieve interests. If these attempts are associated with a high between individual and organization (POF) them they are more likely to end successfully. In such a case the level of fulfilled expectations (ME) is very high and the perception of the organization as political (POPS) in a negative sense is very low. As a result the influence is rather satisfied with the outcomes of her/his efforts and feels that the whole organizational system is fair and just

When the level of OP is relatively high but POP is low, the probability to achieve necessary interest decrease. The result do not satisfy the influence, ME becomes low and therefore POPS becomes high since it represent a feeling of incapability to change in the desired way. A situation in which the degree of OP is reactively low but ME is relatively high can be explained by a basic between the individual and the organization (high POP). Sometimes when such a fit exist there is almost no need for political behavior in order to influence others in the organizational arena. People who better fit the organization will sometimes feel more satisfied with their work environment and consequently will tend to act less politically since most of their goals and interest have already been fulfilled in such a case the level of POPS will be low and the organization will be perceived as fair and just.

However, when a low degree of OP is associated with low POF. Individuals expectations will not be met (low ME), POPS is expected to be high and the individual will express her/his deep disappointment with the organizational system. This situation is the most difficult of all those disclosed, from either an individual or an organizational point of view. It represents an individual feeling of helplessness and alienation which is the result of an incapability to change things in a desired way. The sense of strong inability to influence others in order to achieve interests that are necessary for the creation of a fair exchange relationship (Blau, 1964) between individuals and organizations may cause an increase in POPS. Thus, it seems that POF function as a moderator between OP and the level of ME. High OP might enhance ME but only under the condition of high POF. When POF is low, high OP might have a clear negative effect on ME and therefore a decrease in POPS. Low OP restricts basic chances of interest fulfillment. Nevertheless, when it is associated with high POF it might represent a preliminary level of high of ME and satisfaction which does not call for any further political activity since it is simply not needed. When low OP is associated with low POF, ME is very likely to be low and hence POPS becomes high. Thus, we suggest four propositions for the relationships between OP, ME, POF, and POPS.

Proposition 1: When high OP is associated with high POF, individuals' expectations are successfully met (high ME), and the perception of the organization improves (low POPS).

Proposition 2: When high OP is associated with low POF, individuals' expectations are less likely to be met (low ME), and the perception of the organization is damaged (high POPS).

Proposition 3: When low OP is associated with high OPF, individuals' expectations are successfully met (high ME) and the perception of the organization improves (low POPS).

Proposition 4: When low OP is associated with low POF, individuals' expectations cannot be met (low ME), and the perception of the organization is damaged (high POPS).

2.7   POPS AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE

This importance of dealing with performance by a political approach is twofold: (1) it can contribute to the explanation of changes in individual and organizational performance in addition to other variables well known in management literature such as motivation, ability, skills, and other sociological and psychological facets: (2) it may contribute to the understanding of the political process inside organizations, their negative as well as positive outcomes. A recent study of Bozeman et al. (1996) argue that "given the significant implications of Op for individuals

and organizationsõ the issue of how OP affects each of parties should be interest to management scholars and practitioners alike+(p.3).

A perceptual approach that is usually taken toward the investigation of OP has tried to deal with the question of relationship between politics and employees performances. However, as mentioned earlier in this study, this approach usually views OP as a bad and unwanted phenomenon. Thus, Ferris and Kacmar (1992) and Kacmar and Carlson (1994) suggested that perceptions held by individuals toward politics in their work environment negatively influence the way they do their jobs, their feeling about the company, boss, co-workers, productivity, satisfaction, absenteeism, and intent to turnover, Ferris and Kacmar (1992) have also argued that some potential outcomes of the perception of politics inside organizations are intentions to withdraw from the organization, low job involvement, high job anxiety, and low job satisfaction.

In an earlier work of Ferris et al. (1989), three potential outcomes were mentioned in this connection: (1) withdrawal from the organization; (2) remaining a member of the organization and becoming involved in politics; and (3) remaining a member of the organization but not becoming involved in politics. Mintzberg (1983) also mentioned these options, relating them to Hirschmanç (1970) Exit, Voice, and Loyalty theory. Nevertheless, the relationship between OP and organizational

outcomes, especially at the micro level, remains unclear and no theory has yet been put forward to explain the actual mechanism of this relationship.

In line with the above, outcomes which represent actual behaviors of organizational members are absenteeism, turnover, and formal and informal performance like OCB. Absenteeism (Porter & Steers, 1973; Bycio, 1992) and turnover (Pfeiffer, 1991) are objective measures which have been found to relate negatively to job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and positively to role ambiguity, conflict and overload at work Shore & Martin, 1989); Meyer, Panunonen, Geltatly, & Goffin, 1989; Brooke & Price, 1989) and Ferris and Kacmar (1992) mentioned absenteeism and turnover as potential outcomes of POPS. Yet not many studies have examined changes in absenteeism or turnover in relation to actual political activities and influence tactics in the organization. ME, and POF. Furthermore, it seems that the mutual effect of OP, POF, ME and POPS on performance at work has not been suggested up to now in any form.

In additional to the performance measures, we suggest adding some more aspects of performance appraisal to the examination of OP outcomes, for example, we find objective evaluation of employees by their supervisors and organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) to be the most reliable and promising ones. Indeed, they are used very

frequently to test employee performance at work (Tharenou, 1993; Huselid, 1995; Organ & Ryan, 1995). Note to that of these two aspects, OCB has received considerable attention in management research during the past decade.

The concept of OCB has its roots in the work of Katz and Kahn (1966), which identified three types of behaviors required by employees for the effective functioning of an organization. These are: (1) the decision to join and remain in the organization; (2) the performance of prescribed roles in a dependable manner; and (3) the undertaking of innovative and spontaneous activities that are beyond the prescribed role requirement, the last of these was called extra-role behavior by Katz (1964) or organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) by Bateman and Organ (1983), who proposed this term to denote organizational beneficial behaviors and gestures that can neither be enforced on the basis of formal role obligations nor elicited by a contractual guarantee of compensation. According to Organ's definition, "OCB represents individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly by a contractual guarantee of compensation. According to Organ's formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988, p.4). Consequently, OCB consists of informal contributions that participants can choose to perform or withhold, regardless of considerations of sanctions or formal

incentives. OCB derives its practical importance from the premise that it represents contributions that do not in here in formal role obligations. The presumption is that many of these contributions, aggregated over time and persons, enhance organizational effectiveness (Organ & Konovsky, 1989).

OCB represents some interesting aspects of human behavior which are related to political activities and citizenship behavior outside organizations (Graharm, 1986, 1991; Cohen & Vigoda, 1996). Behaviors such as political participation, community involvement, and faith in citizenship involvement were found to correlate positively with OCB, a result that strengthens our thesis of a potential relationship between OP, POPS and organizational performance such as OCB. The logic for a relationship between POS and different facets of employee performance such as OCB. The logic for a relationship between POPS and different facts of attitudes toward equity and justice in their work environment. Adam$ (1965) equity theory as well as other empirical studies this assumption.

For example, Moorman (1991), Nichoff and Moorman (1993), and Konovsky and Pugh (1993) have related employees' perception of justice in the workplace with OCB, implying that higher OCB is related to high perception of equity, fairness and justice. Parker et al. (1995) and also Ferris and Kacmar (1992) argue that high POPD negatively affect

employeesq job satisfaction, job involvement and effectiveness and positively affects turnover rates and absenteeism. High POPS generally causes alienation and frustration among employees, which is translated to low willingness to put in effort on behalf of the organization and its collective goals. Considering this, we suggest two additional propositions.

Proposition 5: High POPS leads to high absenteeism and high turnover rates.

Proposition 6: Low POPS leads to high formal and informal performance levels (OCB).

2.8 ORGANIZATIONAL POLTICS AND POWER PLAY IN AN ORGANIZATION

In order to examine the innovative forces, it is instructive to classify a perspective on organizational power and politics within such to discuss the topic. In this section, we layout homework for thinking about power and politics. In the following section, we apply this understanding to the innovation power.

The organizational politics perspective leads us to a focus context among and between actors as the two fundamental activities of organizational life.

First is the context among and independent actors operating from different perspective/frames and as they strive to acquire, manage and control resources and determine the means/ends of doing organizational works (Baldride, 1971: and March, 1963).

Second are the struggles for collaboration among actors in performance of organizational work when the means, end for getting it done are unclear and/ he subject to dispute (Barnard, 1988; Peffer, 1981). Organizational innovation at its core is about ambiguity-it exponents some thing new.

Also it typically engages and arouses human actors who have different interests and perspectives and who stand to gain lose in different ways as a result of a particular innovation contests and struggle for collaboration are often played as part egged parcel of the innovation process. It is often play and through the exercise of power. Innovation is an interesting and such organizational process through which to examine the contributions and power and politics to organizational sanctioning and power and politics to organizational sanctioning and thus to our development of organizational destroy.

Within the organizational politics framework, power has traditionally been seen as a potential capacity to get others to do things they might otherwise not want to do and/or to resist other efforts to get one to do what they want one to do (Dahl,1957). Politics is reviewed as

enacted power, as power in action. It is goal-direction action that is self-interested and that would have existed if detected by other with different self interestsqfrost, 1987, Porter. Allen & Angle 1981). In our discussion, we power as a more multi faceted phenomenon that this national approach would suggest (Astley & Sachdeva, 1981: boulding, 1984: luckes, 1974). We view power as operating at different/levels of awareness (luke 1974). Organization politics both power action and in power of conception of creating the frame in which actions take place (frost, 1987).

The most compelling aspect of this multifaceted is that one aspect of power and politics to take place on the SURFACE of organizational life in the day-to-day contests and struggle for collaboration. Surface power politics typically deal with attempts by one or more parties to exploit (bend, exist, implement) the sales of the situation they are in to their own advantage.

The aspect of power takes place in the DEEP STRUCTURE of organizations, influencing usually in hard to detect ways not only the way the rules are framed in the first place. Such deep structure power has its origins in each struggles movements and maneuvers in day-to-day situations that settle for active the way thing concert be perceived, valued and acted out.

These social, political and historical roots of current organizational frame and actions are often forgotten or never organized by most contemporary actors. If noted at all, they are seen as %the way things are+, or rationally deprived prescriptions for behaving in organizations.

We argue for an interactive relationship between surface and deep structure power. The deep structure shapes and influences (but does not distally determine) the actions on the surface of organizations. Surface extemporary, day-to-day political action can be the impacts, direction and nation of power on deep structural influences in tomorrows source politics.   And frost (1987) for more extensive discussions of such relationship between deep and surface actions.

While deep structure is embedded and implicit, there are actors in the system that have access to, can recognize and harness this power to their advantages. One aspect of the argument is that organizational politics involves opportunity to act (current and embedded) orientation (will and skill) and intention (goals). The roles of human agents as surface actions and as intermediaries between the deep and surface structures impact the innovation process.

These features of power and politics are developed and illustrated in one case of innovation, which are presented later.

The exercise of surface power and its attendant strategies and tactics are more readily accessible, and has been the subject of much of

the academic focus on this topic. With Criozier and Friendberg (1980), Nintzbery (1983) and Frost (1987) we find it useful to examine origination politics in terms of the metaphor of frames as strategies tactical maneuver between and among actors where the rules of the games themselves can be revised for definition and redefinition as game playing process is initiated and unfolds. Political games involves attempts at manipulation and influences for outcomes which actors intend benefit themselves and/to to benefit other actors in the game are infested in the prices of innovation. The political frame metaphor provides a useful dynamic as well as a level for understanding innovation. Political game can be played out at the surface and/ or in the deep structure of the or in the deep structure of the organization.

Surface politics: Surface political games can be played in at lest three arenas. That individual, of intra-organizational groups, and between and among organizations. Individual games focus on gaining emanating and with holding the content on frame of reference in organizations which serve the players self-interest (Culbert &Mc Donough 1985). As identified in Table 1, some individual political games involve the acquisition of expansion of power within the organization while others are used to guard against any further encroachment of existing power bases. One of the examples of the expansion of power is familiar empire building of department within organizations to increase the scope and

domain of influences and authority over organizational decisions. In contrast, games such as loading rule-citing serve defensive measures to protect current power based against unwanted interlopers or power acquisition (Kanter, 1983).

Individual influences strategies of ten focuses on the manipulation of communication channels and/or information. A number of authors have noted that the choice of political strategies is often a function of an individuals self confidence, experience skills, objectives and the intended direction of influx PETER J. FROST and CAROLYN PEGRI.

ORGANIZATION POWER AND POLITICS

SURFACE	Interests unitary pluralist Radial critical	Nature of conflict Temporary can be avoided or resolved restricted conflicts repressed conflict (structural contradictions)
DEEP STRUCTURE THE POLITICAL PROCESS OF INNOVATIONS		
PRIMARY CONTROL EMPHASIS GAINS/ MAINTAINING/WITH HOLDING CONTEXT	POLITICAL CAUSES Acquisition/ expansion of power: making it mentoring, sponsorship, upward influence, empire building maintenance of existing power	

	basis: lording, rule citing appeals to high authority for support.	
CONTROLLING RESOURCES, CUSTOMES/MANAGING, TERRITORIES/MANAGING, RESTING CHANGE	Manipulative communication: impression management labeling, reasoning, assertiveness, manipulative persuasions, gate keeping, conversing up networking controlling resources/outcomes competitive control: budgeting expertise line Vs staff, rival campus, making out collaborative control negotiation bargaining coalition building, strategic candidates (developing champions) building consensus, framing perspective managing/resisting change controlling decision, premises and agendas, selective use of objective criteria.	
	Ideological control for earning/preserving sectional interest	Naturalization neutralization legitimization socialization

Studies of upward influence tactics relate to a decided preference for rational informational persuasion (overt manipulative) over less rational and sanction based strategies Ansarii and Kapour; 1987; Porter: Allen, & Angle, 1981: Schilit lacks, 1982. In this context, rational action entails openness terms of the detailed disclosure and explanation of the basis content and logical foundation of ones intended outcome (Kiprics 1980). These findings can be interpreted on those lower in organizational hierarchy (therefore not realistically having access to sanction based strategies) or as a reflection of the dominant influence of the organizational paradigm found on the fundamental premises of %ationality+ (as detailed by Brown, 1978) which limits the scope of envisioned actions.

Intra-organizational games for control of strategic contingencies can be either competitive or collaborative between individual and groups. Competitive intra-organizational games (which are most likely to emerge under conditions of resources scarcity (Roberts, 1986), emphasis the control of organizational resources and outcome. The management of organizational territory and/or the management of resistance to change of the statusquo (First 1987; Mintzberg, 1983; Morgan, 1988).

In contrast, collaborative intra-organizational games often on the identification and promotion of strategic candidatesq thing the

organizational dominant coalition to either promote or propose projects or proposal or alter organizational activities

nintzberg, 1983). Comparative research on intra organizational impetitive versus cooperative innovation implementation strategies indicates that experts persuasive and highly participative strategies are most successful (Wutt, 1988). The underling thrust of the collaborative approach to the preferred by one, which incurs high process, cost and creates logistical problems.

The political machinations of organizations of societal interest groups are very similar to those of groups within organizational politics is also on the control of resources, the expansion and protection of territory, and the management of change. At the level, however, these are greater opportunities for sectors to challenges the rules of the games and to create new rules that will serve some interest and not others and to present such actions in ways that seem rational rather than political to the unpracticed or uniformed eye. In addition to previously identified strategies, political action at this level can involve developing legislative politics and procedures, establishing legal contracts and creating interlocking board of directors.

DEEP STRUCTURE POLITICS

Inter- organizational surface games often interest the deep structure of organization, particularly when the games involve changing the rules

themselves. With the deep structure of organization, power covertly informs collective interpretative frames and individuals cognitive maps of organizational embera (Clegg, 1981). The power to set the frame is the focus of deep structure politics. Its aim is to effect ‰he systematic distortion of communication so as to maintain and enhance power relations that favour some interest groups at the expense of others+ (Frost, 1988, p42). For these reasons, deep structure power is very difficult to identify without a careful tracing of the social, historical, political origins to these frames and the rules of the current organizational game (consad, 1983; Ranson) manings &Greewood, 1980).

Deitz (1985) identifies four ways in which human agents systematically distort reality for their own benefit. These are examples of deep structure games that seem to be particularly relevant to the study of innovation

1. **NATURALIZATION:** Existing forms and privileges are trusted by interest groups (for their own benefit) as inviolate and therefore not subject to discussion, debate or change. (Deitz, 1985; Pfeiffer, 1981). For example, it is the ‰natural order+that managers manage and workers work.

2. **NEUTRALIZATION:** The particular value base of a set of positions and activities that favour one interest groups over another is

denied. Such positions are treated as value, price or as the only ones that exist. They become as matter of fact, not of choice, (Deitz, 1985). For example, power groups in organizations often utilize the rhetoric of rationality to control the rules of relevance thereby controlling both definition and content of a dominant organizational reality (Brown, 1978, Culbert &McDonough, 1985)

3. **LEGITIMIZATION:**   Highest order explanatory device such as sacrifice, loyalty, ones country, religion etc are invoked to justify and sustain the self interests of an elite in the system. Allusions to such higher power players while cloaking the real motivation and goals of the powerful. The particular game is evident in discussion and studies of intimidation, rituals concerning whittle blower (O.Day, 1974). As illustrated in the case of Morton Thiokol engineer Roger Biosjoy Whistle blower on the NASA challenges space shuttle   disaster (Boisjoly, Curtis & Mellican, 1987), the Whistle blower or reformer not only raises amoral challenge to the ethical nature of upper management decision but as a self-appointed change agent, he/she also challenges the deep structure power relations of hierarchical authority. The organizational responses to such illegitimacy of the Whistle Blower as a party to the decision making process.

4. **SOCIALIZATION:**   Actions, systems and process that serve to direct and shape the behaviours attitudes values and interpretative schemes of some players to the benefit of others (Frost, 1987; Van Maanen & Schein 1979). The process of socialization forms the basic of much work on how organizational cultures emerge, develop and function. As identified in this arena of organization theory, those in positions of power have access to adverse array of normative reward and   structural mechanisms to guide the individual and organizational learning of what they deem to be appropriate (and in appropriate) values, beliefs and behaviours (Schein, 1985).

Individual, these political strategies are most often used as defensive measures to preserve the prevailing distribution of power. In concert they operate to institutionalize existing power relations in a self perpetuating manners (Burawoy, 1970); Pfeffer, 1981). However as we noted earlier deep structure power relationships are not statistic and can be used in a proactive way to facilitate change. In that current deep structure is the derivation of past political activity, the outcomes of current political activity from the foundation of future deep structure power relations.

The interaction between the surface politics level and the deep structural level can take three forms. First some surface politics games

can be used to fend off the deep structure through cither passive resistance secrecy or confrontation. This found often in games involving manipulative communication and the control of resources and outcome second, other surface games work because they tap into the deep structure of gaining the support of powerful interest groups. The efficiency of these games, which focus on the acquisition/expansion or maintenance of power bases, is due in part to their harmony with the value of the prevailing gatekeepers and other powerful resources holders.

Thirdly, surface politics can influence and/or change the deep structure through the present day framing of perspectives by the selection of decision premises, agendas and criteria which in turn impact on the construction of the future deep structure.

2.9 HOW TO MANAGE ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS IN AN ORGANIZATION

These are three general ideas that help to interpret political behaviour, offensive, defensive, neutral.

Offensive ideas arte those aggressive and purposeful actions by which one attends to enhance his art and personal action. They include power building developing loyalties, sabotaging and exploiting others.

Defensive behaviours is defined as those behaviours that are protective which are responses to the actions of others. In other words, they are retaliatory actions against others, hence sacapegoating others, making them appear bad. They are protective behaviours that hip any blame for a job badly done on others.

Neutral political behaviours combine both offensive and defensive political behaviours through back passing. It neutralizes blame so that no one person is responsible for any bad behaviours or outcome. Decisions are taken by the committee.

In managing political behavioours, therefore, it must be borne in mind that politics cannot be eliminated from the organization.

Charles Onwutebe, (1998:10) hinted that the least to be done was to minimize dysfunctional political behaviours. He opened that standard and bureaucracies should be made to select organizational behaviours.

According to Zams Peters (1984:59) offensive political strategy of organizational politics was very much in line with the ethics of any profession. It mattered much to organization that employees make moves to improve the position of the worker which elicits high positive input to the products of the company. The works is quite right to go for a higher position by thinking our ways through innovative ideas that can outwit his opponents. Stressing that further, he said that every religious ethics is favourable to positive challenge aimed primarily not at the

occupant of the position, but not improving productivity which is always manifested in the person. He advised any management to create such enabling environment for offensive politics in any organization.

He signed on the dotted-line with both offensive and neutral political behaviours as tactics of organizational politics.

However, in mental tactics, he cautioned that care must be taken in using committee approach, as that could jeopardize the chances of detective blames, and so, anti-responsibility accounting.

Aliche Uwaoma (1992:20) never agreed with defensive political strategy as Robbins pointed out. He said that the occupant of any position who always uses defensive strategy is always careful to respond to the criticisms of others no matter how constitutive the work is. The occupant, he noted never accepts faults and never plans to improve hence is very skeptical of innovations and alien ideas to him.

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 INTRODUCTION

This research work is analyzed under the following headings: research design, sources of data, population of the study, sample and sampling distribution, validation of research instrument, reliability of the research instrument, method of data analysis.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

This is an evaluate research design, because we shall evaluate the impact organizational politics has had on many Nigerian organizations. Through the empirical analysis, we make inferential conclusions on how to improve the techniques of organizational politics.

3.2 POPULATION OF THE STUDY

The population of the study was four thousand seven hundred and eighty seven (4,787). It was distributed as follows:

Anammco Emene Enugu	1820
Emenite Emene Enugu	2125
First Bank PLC Enugu	358
Hotel Presidential Enugu	514
	4787

3.3   SAMPLES SIZE DETERMINATION

The sample size is two hundred and eighty eight (288). It was got according to Freud Williams sample size determination (1990:10).

Where   z   =   statistics   = 1.96

e   =   allowable error 5% = 0.05

p   =   proportion of success in the

population =   0.75

q   =   0.25

=   1- P = 1- 0.75 = 0.25

Therefore, n   = 1.96^2 (0.75) (0.25)

$(0.05)^2$

=   288.12

=   288

3.4   SOURCES OF DATA

To be able to conduct an evaluative research on the impact of organizational politics on many Nigerian organizations both primary and secondary data have been collected.

3.4.1 The primary data are the oral interviews, direct observations and the questionnaires distributed.

3.4.2 The secondary data are the related views of people written down.

Its pre-test survey was conducted as to the relevance of organizational policies on organizational effectiveness. Two manufacturing and two services establishments were chosen for the response needed. Twenty

(20) questionnaires were distributed, fifteen (15) said it does, representing 75% of success in the population.

3.5   VALIDATION OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The research consulted the services of experts in data analysis while others were reframed to measured what they are attended to. Finally, the supervisor of the work approved them for distribution.

3.6   RELIABILITY OF RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

The research questionnaires were administered to the respondents in bits of three. This is the split-hall technique, which the researcher employed to test the constancy of the responses overtime. Each respondent was given the same questionnaires at three different intervals. Any incongruence in response was rejected. Only constant responses were taken.

3.7   METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

The questionnaires were analyzed using simple percentage formula.

$$\frac{r \quad x \quad 100}{n \qquad 1}$$

Where

r   =   number of response in each case of the

Questionnaires, the observable.

Sample size   =   The number of returned questionnaires

Among 288 questionnaires distributed, only.

280 were returned which becomes n.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

4.1   DATA ANALYSIS

4.1.1 RESEARCH QUESTION 1

How do the activities of employees and management encourage employee relations?

This was addressed from research question 4 . 5

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE 4-5

How do you access the activities of management in relation to employees?

Table 4 Management and employee relations respondents

RESPONDENTS				RESPONSE		
(All managers)	A	B	C	D	Total	% Total
Anammco Emene Enugu	100				127	45.36
Emenite Emene Enugu	40				80	28.57
First Bank Plc Enugu	20				63	22.50
Hotel Presidential Enugu	10				10	3.57
Total	170				280	100
% Total	60.71				100	

A   =   very pliable,   B   =   Not very cordial

C   =   Erratic   D   =   Quite unfriendly

Source: Distributed Questionnaire

ANALYSIS:

Highest response came from Anammco 45.36% followed by 28.57% from Emenite, First bank 22.50%. 60. 71% said very pliable while 39.29% said not very cordinal.

So, we conclude that activities of management relations to employees are averagely pliable. So, we see that the activities of management relations to employee is averagely pliable. So, we see that activities of managers either encourage or discourage employee relations. All depends on the level of cordiality existing between the two in any organization.

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE 5

What input has the activities of employees on the achievement of objectives?

Table 5:   EMPLOYEE ACTIVITIES AND OBJECTIVES OF AN ENTERPRISE

RESPONDENTS				RESPONSE	
(All managers)	A	B	C	Total	% Total
Anammco Emene Enugu	100			100	35.71
Emenite Emene Enugu	98			98	35.00
First Bank Plc Enugu	75			75	26.79
Hotel Presidential Enugu	7			7	250
Total	280			280	100
% Total	100			100	

A   =   It encourages it   B   =   Discourages it

C   =   No impact

ANALYSIS

Highest response of 35.71% came from Anammco, Emenite 35%, First bank 26.79 and Hotel presidential 2.5%. Everybody said it encourages it.

So we conclude that activities of employee help the organization achieve objectives.

4.1.2   RESEARCH QUESTION 2

What effects have the activities of employee and management on promotions in an enterprise? This is addressed from questionnaire 6.

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE 6

To what extent do the activities employees affect promotions?

A   =   It encourages it

B   =   discourages it

C   =   No Impact

ANALYSIS

Highest response of 36.71% came from Anammco, Emenite 35%, First bank 26.79% and Hotel presidential 3.5%. Everybody said it encourages it.

So we conclude that activities of employees help the organization achieve objectives.

Table 6:   EMPLOYEE ACTIVITIES AND PROMOTIONS

RESPONDENTS					RESPONSE
(All managers)	High	Low	None	Total	% Total
Anammco Emene Enugu	60		-	95	33.93
Emenite Emene Enugu	50		-	90	32.14
First Bank Plc Enugu	40		-	75	26.79
Hotel Presidential Enugu	10		-	20	7.14
Total	160		-	280	100
% Total	57.14		-	100	

ANALYSIS:

Highest response of 33.93% came from Anammco, 32.14% from Emenite, 26.79% from First bank of Nigeria while 71.4%. came from Hotel presidential. 57.14% said high while 42.86% said low.

So, we conclude that the activities of employee both encourages and discourages promotion depending on the circumstances surrounding each establishment.

4.13   RESEARCH QUESTION 3

To what extent do activities of employee and management affect disciplinary procedures in an organization? This is addressed from research questionnaire 8-9.

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE 8

What factors affect discipline of employees?

Table 7: DISCIPLINE AND EMPLOYEES

RESPONDENTS   **RESPONSE**

	High	Low	None	Total	% Total
Anammco Emene Enugu			90	90	32.14
Emenite Emene Enugu			105	105	37.50
First Bank Plc Enugu			80	80	28.57
Hotel Presidential Enugu			5	5	1.80
Total			280	280	100
% Total			100	100	

A   =   Misconduct, B   =   Abuse of power, C = both.

ANALYSIS

37.50% came from Emenite, 32.14% came from Anammco, 28.57% from FBN and 1.80% from Hotel Presidential. Everybody said both.

So, we conclude that both misconduct and abuse of power make for discipline of employees. This in turn affects organizational politics.

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE 9

What effect has disciplinary procedures on organizational politics?

Table 8:   DISCIPLINE AND ORGANISATION POLITICS

RESPONDENTS   **RESPONSE**

(All managers)	Usual antagonistic	Aid it	No effect	Total	% Total
Anammco Emene Enugu		100		100	35.71
Emenite Emene Enugu	98			98	35.00
First Bank Plc Enugu	21	60		81	28.93
Hotel Presidential Enugu	1			1	0.36
Total	120	160	280	280	100
% Total	42.86	57.14	100	100	

ANALYSIS

35.71% of the response came from Anammco, 35% from Emenite, 28.93% from FBN while 0.36% was from Hotel presidential 57.14% said aid it while 42.86% said usually antagonistic.

So we conclude that discipline procedures induce organizational politics, management and staff may misunderstand themselves.

4.1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION 4

What could be concluded on the effect of the activities of employee and management on the grapevine relations? This was addressed from research questionnaire 10-11

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE 10

To what extent doe grapevine affect organizational politics.

Table 9:   GRAPEVINE AND ORGANISATIONAL POLITICS

RESPONDENTS   RESPONSE

(All managers)	Highly	Little	No effect	Total	% Total
Anammco Emene Enugu	100			100	35.71
Emenite Emene Enugu	80			80	28.57
First Bank Plc Enugu	80			80	28.57
Hotel Presidential Enugu	20			20	1.14
Total	280			280	100
% Total	100			100	

ANALYSIS

35.71% of the response came from Anammco. 28.57% each from Emenite and FBN respectively. While 71.14% came from Hotel Presidential. Everybody said highly.

So, we conclude that grapevine highly affects organizational politics.

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE 11

How does grapevine affect organizational politics?

Table 10: NATURE OF GRAPEVINE

RESPONDENTS   **RESPONSE**

(All managers)				Total	% Total
Anammco Emene Enugu	50	50		100	35.71
Emenite Emene Enugu	40	40		80	28.57
First Bank Plc Enugu	30	30		60	28.57
Hotel Presidential Enugu	10	10		20	7.14
Total	150	130		280	100
% Total	53.57	46.43		100	

ANALYSIS

35.71% came from Anammco, 28.57% each from Emenite and FBN while 7.14% came from Hotel presidential. 53.57% same positively while 46.43% said negatively.

So we conclude that grapevine both negatively and positively affect organizational politics.

4.1.5   RESEARCH QUESTION 5

How does organizational structure affect organizational politics in an organizational?

This was addressed by research questionnaire 12.

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE 12

What effect has organizational structure on organization politics in an organization.

Table 11: ORGANISATIONAL   STRUCTURE   AND ORGANISATIONAL POLITICS

TABLE 10: NATURE OF GRAPEVINE

RESPONDENTS   RESPONSE

(All managers)	A	B	C	Total	% Total
Anammco Emene Enugu	50	42		92	32.86
Emenite Emene Enugu	39	50		89	31.79
First Bank Plc Enugu	50	-		50	17.86
Hotel Presidential Enugu	20	39		49	17.50
% Total	56.79	43.21		100	

A = Encouraging,   B = Discouraging,   C = No effect.

ANALYSIS

32.86% of the response came from Anammco, 31.79% from Emenite, 17.86% from FBN while 19.50% came from Hotel presidential.

So we concluded that organizational structure affects organizational politics either positively or negatively. It all depends on the establishment.

4.1.6   **RESEARCH QUESTION 6**

How does public relation affect organizational politics? This is addressed from research questionnaire 13.

RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE 13

What impact has pubic relations on organizational politics.

Table 12: PUBLIC RELATIONS AND ORGANISATIONAL POLITICS

RESPONDENTS   **RESPONSE**

| (All managers)	Highly	Low	None	Total	% Total
Anammco Emene Enugu	100	42		100	35.71
Emenite Emene Enugu	96			100	34.29
First Bank Plc Enugu	40			40	14.29
Hotel Presidential Enugu	44			44	15.71
Total	280			280	100
% Total	100			100	

ANALYSIS

35.71% of the response came from Anammco, 34.29% from Emenite, 14.29% from FBN while 15.71% came from Hotel Presidential. Everybody said high.

So we concluded that public relations greatly affect organizational politics highly.

4.2 **PRESENTATION**

The responses to the questionnaire are hereby presented in the pie chart.
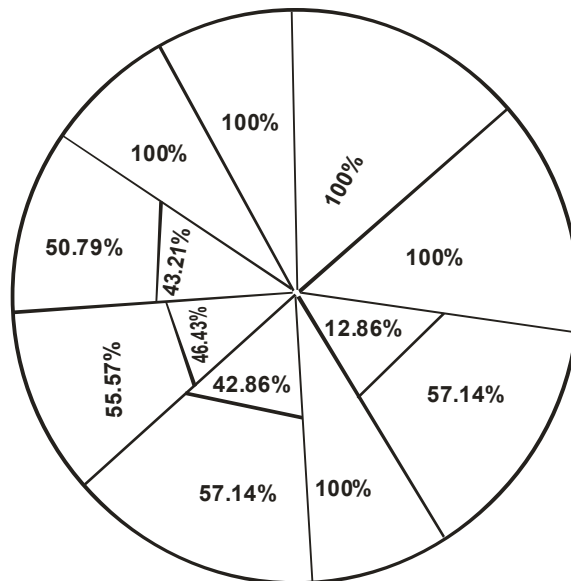
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSION OF RESULTS,

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The study discovered the following after due analysis:

❖ Activities of both employee and management in an organizational either discourage or boost organization politics.

❖ Employee activities help to achieve organizational politics.

❖ Activities of employees affect promotions in any establishment and promotions in term are affected much by organizational politics.

❖ Grapevine greatly affects organizational politics.

❖ Organizational Politics could be channeled to productive ends.

5.2 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

Organizational Politics is affected highly by the activities of employees and management alike. This expressed an intensive view by Jenny Jonah when she posted that organizational politics is a product of employee management relations. Harold Lasswell also implied the same

idea in the review when he posited that organizational politics depended much on human relations.

Organizational objectives are achieved by employees activities in any enterprises. This supported in literature review by Stephen I. Robbins in his assertion this assertion that employee maneuvering is the only criterion for management to achieve objectivity.

Employee activities highly affect promotions. This view is upheld in literature review by Albert Summit as he explained that every promotion is hinged purely on how the employee carried out his assignments.

Organizational Politics affects employee discipline. Nwoha Otanka implied this in literature review when he stated that promotion of employee as well as discipline has to do with how the employee is related to the panelist in some cases. He noted that there is element of favouristism in employee discipline.

Grapevine has a great influence on organizational politics. This is attested to in literature review by Dalton who stated that many of the actions being taken by employees in an organization are affected by grapevine.

Structure in any establishment affects the relationship, while in turn affects organizational politics. This expressed in literature review by Byrnes who explained that organizational structure is the chief determinant of organizational politics in any enterprise.

5.3 CONCLUSION

Organizational Politics is found in any organizational. It is played out by every employee consciously or unconsciously. Whether one believes in organizational politics or not, he is involved as soon as he employed in an organization. This is evidenced by the fact that he seeks for promotion through his boss. The boss judges his activities in the light of the assignment given him and completed.

This is practiced by outside association that affects the organization, like grapevine. Activities like promotions, discipline and dismissal are all affected by organizational politics. Every fact of work in an organization is affected by organizational politics. It transcends all department and cleavages in an organization.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the findings the following are recommended

❖   Activities of employee should be made to contribute to goals by harmonizing divergent views.

- ❖ Management should not see organizational politics as threats to continuity of the business, but should do everything to address the complaint of employees.

- ❖ There should be laid down steps to employee discipline and not based on sentiments.

- ❖ Grapevine should be discarded but harmonized for effectiveness.

- ❖ Organizational structure should be made to contribute positively to organizational politics.

- ❖ Rewards should be well defined.

- ❖ Steps should be taken to encourage employee training through seminars, workshops, on the job training as well as study leave.

- ❖ Management should co-opt employees in decision taking, especially in areas concerning them in order to reduce misunderstanding.

- ❖ These should be clearly defined span of control to enable managers contribute effectively to goals.

- ❖ Chain of command should be well defined to avoid clashes.

- ❖ Management by exceptions should be encouraged to make managerial efficiency.

- ❖ Responsibilities should be well assigned to avoid overlap

- ❖ Authority should match every assigned duty commensurately for every performance.

- ❖ Employees should be well motivated.

- ❖ Every organization should aim at beefing up information technology to reduce overlaboring of the workers as well as broadening the knowledge of the worker.

- ❖ Employees should be made to embrace organizational behaviour techniques in order to reduce misunderstanding.

5.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

The research would recommend that any other interested person on the topic should channel to: The prospects of organizational politics in achieving objectivity in an organization.

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QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A: PERSONAL LETTER

Dear Respondents

The questions before you are for academic documentations only. They are not any way meant to undermine your integrity nor are they for unnecessary prying into your spacey.

We are conducting academic research project on the topic: organizational politics: its processes and impacts in organizational effectiveness.

So, kindly answer to the best of your knowledge as every divulged information would be treated with utmost secrecy.

Your faithfully,

ENEH IFEOMA STELLA
PG/MBA/08/53057

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A

You are please required to tick [✓] and fill as appropriate

Sex [M]   [F]

Marital Status [M]   [S]

AGE

18 . 25   [   ]

26 . 35   [   ]

36 . 40   [   ]

41 . 45   [   ]

51 . 45   [   ]

HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION

Elementary   [   ]

Secondary   [   ]

Technical   [   ]

Graduate   [   ]

Post graduate [   ]

POSITION IN THE ORGANISATION

JNR.   [   ]

Supervisor   [   ]

Asst. MGR.   [   ]

SNR. MGR.   [   ]

Executive   [   ]

SECTION B

1. Name of your organization _____

    _____

2. What level of management cadre do you belong? _____

    _____

3. What business is the firm into _____

    _____

4. What is the size of the organization

    a)   Large scale organization

    b)   Medium scale organization

5. Does your organisation evolves organizational politics

    a)   Yes [   ]   b) No [   ]

6. Please identify key corporate objectives of your company

    a.   _____

    b.   _____

    c.   _____

    d.   _____

    e.   _____

7. What environment would you say contributed organizational politics

   a) External Environment   [   ]

   b) Internal Environment   [   ]

8. Are employees rest with the company's formed plan.

   a) Yes   [   ]   b) No   [   ]

9. How does the use of your own policies and strategies affect the employee's performance?   [   ]

   a) Positively   [   ]   b) Negatively   [   ]

10. To What extent do you feel the action of the Chief executive in the use of strategies affects employees performance?

a) Great extent   [   ]

b) Considerable   [   ]

c) Moderate extent   [   ]

d) Slight extent   [   ]

11. To what extent do organizational politics affect the employee's performance?

a) Great Extent   [   ]

b) Considerable extent   [   ]

c) Moderate extent   [   ]

d) Slight extent   [   ]