



UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS

This is a repository copy of *Voice for oneself: Self-interested voice and its antecedents and consequences*.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper:
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/167814/>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Duan, J, Xu, Y, Wang, X et al. (2 more authors) (2021) Voice for oneself: Self-interested voice and its antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 94 (1). pp. 1-28. ISSN 0007-1269

<https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12334>

© 2020 The British Psychological Society. This is the peer reviewed version of the following article: Duan, J, Xu, Y, Wang, X et al. (2 more authors) (2020) Voice for oneself: Self-interested voice and its antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, which has been published in final form at <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12334>. This article may be used for non-commercial purposes in accordance with Wiley Terms and Conditions for Use of Self-Archived Versions.

Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk
<https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/>

a

Title: Voice for oneself: Self-interested voice and its antecedents and consequences

Short title: Perceived Organizational Politics and Self-interested Voice

Jinyun Duan¹, Yue Xu*², Xiaotian Wang³, Chia-Huei Wu⁴, and Ying Wang⁵

¹ School of Psychology and Cognitive Science, East China Normal University, Shanghai, China

² International Business School Suzhou, Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University, Suzhou, China

³ School of Psychology and Cognitive Science, East China Normal University, Shanghai, China

⁴ Business School, University of Leeds, Leeds, UK

⁵ School of Management, RMIT University, Melbourne, Australia.

*Corresponding author information: Yue Xu, International Business School Suzhou, Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University, 111 Renai Road, Suzhou, 215123, P. R. China (Mob: +86(0)512-81889099, Email: Yue.Xu@xjtlu.edu.cn).

Voice for oneself: Self-interested voice and its antecedents and consequences

Abstract

The aim of this study is to introduce a concept of self-interested voice, or voluntarily expressed ideas, solutions, or concerns related to workplace issues that affect the voicer's personal interests. Three studies were conducted. In the scale development study, we developed and validated a new measure of self-interested voice with a sample of 36 researchers for content validity and a sample of 362 employees for factorial and discriminant validity. In Study 1, we examined the antecedents and motivational pathways of self-interested voice. We proposed that perceived organizational politics (POP) can promote self-serving cognition, especially among those high in Machiavellian personality, and thus lead to self-interested voice. Our hypotheses were supported by results from time-lagged survey data from 262 employees and 117 supervisors in China. In Study 2, we extended the model by including the outcomes of self-interested voice. Using another Chinese sample (282 employees matched with 105 direct supervisors), we replicated the findings of Study 1 and additionally found that self-interested voice was negatively related to supervisors' liking and suggested salary increases of the employees but not task performance and promotability. The implications for employee voice research are discussed.

Keywords:

self-interested voice, perceived organizational politics, self-serving cognition,

Machiavellian personality

Practitioner points

- ✓ Employees can send their voice concerning ideas, solutions, or concerns related to workplace issues that affect their personal interests.
- ✓ Perceived organizational politics (POP) is an important trigger of employee self-interested voice, especially among those high in Machiavellian personality. It is vital for managers to monitor the politicking climate in the workplace to reduce employees' self-interested voice at work.
- ✓ While employees are likely to engage in self-interested voice to protect their interests when perceiving organizational politics, such behaviour will lead to negative reactions from supervisors, such as lower supervisor liking and more hesitation in suggesting salary increases.

Voice for oneself: Self-interested voice and its antecedents and consequences

Introduction

Employees' voice behaviour, which refers to the informal and discretionary communications initiated by employees in raising ideas, suggestions, and concerns for the purpose of bringing about improvement or change, has received substantial research attention over the past decade (see Bashshur & Oc, 2015; Morrison, 2011, 2014; Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012 for reviews). Given the voluntary and change-oriented nature of voice, it has been broadly recognized and discussed as a particular type of proactive behaviour that can positively impact a wide range of individual and organizational outcomes (e.g. Parker & Collins, 2010).

Although scholarly understanding of employee voice has recently advanced significantly, with fine-grained differentiations about different voice behaviours being identified, this line of research has mostly focused on the "how" of voice, i.e. the different forms of voice that employees can display at work (e.g. Liang, Farh, & Farh, 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003). In contrast, little research has taken the foci of voice into consideration to understand the targets that voice behaviour aims to impact. This gap needs to be bridged since, as has been shown in the proactivity literature, proactive behaviours can be directed at different foci; for example, pro-organization (directed at the organization), prosocial (directed at colleagues), and pro-self (directed at facilitating the achievement of one's personal or career goals) foci are underpinned by different antecedents and have different implications on outcomes (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Since voice has been primarily conceptualized as a proactive behaviour that is directed at benefitting organizations and that is prosocial in nature (e.g. Grant & Ashford, 2008; LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Morrison, 2014), pro-organization voice (see e.g. Bashshur & Oc, 2015; Morrison, 2011, 2014; Klaas et al., 2012 for reviews) and prosocial voice (Liu et al., 2015) have received much attention in voice research. In contrast, pro-self voice has not been properly studied, despite the recognition that voice can be underpinned by self-serving purposes (e.g. Klaas et al., 2012; Morrison, 2014) and, more broadly, that employees do engage in discretionary, non-prescribed behaviours at work to benefit themselves (e.g. Bolino, 1999; Hui, Lam, & Law, 2000; Yun, Takeuchi, & Liu, 2007). Hence, understanding this unique voice behaviour enables us to provide a more refined understanding of different voice behaviours at work. Moreover, as we articulate in detail later, pro-self voice as a new and distinct concept speaks to and extends existing literature on organizational politics, as it is a behaviour that is “strategically designed to maximize short-term or long-term self-interest” (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989, p. 145). Although the political function of voice behaviours in pursuing self-interest has been recognized (Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002; Klaas et al., 2012), a dedicated focus on this specific political behaviour remains lacking. As such, investigating employees’ pro-self voice not only extends the scope of voice behaviour but also enriches our understanding of organizational politics, especially in terms of employees’ political actions (Ferris, Ellen, Mcallister, & Maher, 2019).

In this research, we first proposed the new concept, self-interested voice (SIV), defined as employees' voice behaviours on issues or subjects that are relevant to their own interests, and conducted a scale development study to establish its validity. We then conducted two focal studies to unpack its antecedents, psychological mechanisms, and implications on work-related outcomes. We argue that SIV is more likely to arise in an organizational context featuring a higher level of organizational politics. This context poses high uncertainty, with blurred boundaries and rules, which leaves room for discretionary behaviour (e.g. Ferris, et al., 2019; Hochwarter, Ellen, & Ferris, 2014), and contains scarce resources and competing interests, which can jeopardize individuals' resources and cause self-serving interest (e.g. Ferris, et al., 2002). Therefore, this context likely induces self-serving proactive behaviours, since these behaviours can be a viable strategy for protecting oneself, accumulating resources, and gaining control in an uncertain and threatening environment (e.g. Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009; Lawong, McAllister, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2018; Sun & Chen, 2017). We propose that perceived organizational politics (POP; Ferris, Harrell-Cook, & Dulebohn, 2000) will activate employees' self-serving cognition and subsequently lead to more SIV behaviours. Moreover, we expect different individual responses to such a political context, with self-interested cognition and voice behaviours more likely to occur among individuals with high Machiavellian personality, given these individuals' tendency to manipulate their environment for personal gain (e.g. Christie & Geis, 1970; Dalton & Radtke, 2013). Finally, we investigate how employees' SIV, once observed, will lead to supervisor-rated outcomes. Figure 1 presents our research model.

Our series of studies contributes to the voice literature by unpacking the voice behaviour with a specific focus on self, a missing piece in this line of investigation, and thus offers a more expansive view of voice behaviour. In addition to identifying this specific voice behaviour, by comprehensively studying its psychological mechanism, including the antecedents and consequences, we provide evidence on when, how, and for whom such behaviour is more likely to occur, as well as its important implications for employees and organizations. Our studies also advance the organizational politics literature, by identifying SIV as a distinct and new form of political behaviour that employees are likely to employ when facing organizational politics. Our focus directly responds to the call from Ferris et al. (2019), who in a recent review highlighted the need to expand the conceptualization of political behaviours, including understanding how proactive behaviours such as voice can be incorporated in light of their political potential.

Theoretical background

Conceptualizing of SIV

Since the proposition of employee voice as an important behaviour in changing one's work context for the better (e.g. Hirschman, 1970), scholarly interest in this concept has burgeoned, especially over the last three decades. It has now been well recognized that voice is a particularly complex concept that comes with multiple dimensions (e.g. Klaas et al., 2012; Morrison, 2011 for reviews). A number of frameworks have been developed to offer a nuanced understanding about voice when it is conceptualized as an informal, discretionary behaviour (e.g. Liang, et al., 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff,

2014; Van Dyne et al., 2003). While these discussions have greatly advanced our understanding of the multiple forms of voice, the key assumption underlying these studies, as well as the broader voice literature in general, is that the targets of impact of voice behaviour concern organizations or work groups. Voice has primarily been conceptualized as benefitting organizations, such as by raising suggestions to improve work practices, directing managers' attention to issues that need addressing, and correcting problems to avoid potential harm to organizations, among others (e.g. LePine & Van Dyne, 1998; Liang et al., 2012; Van Dyne et al., 2003).

Little attention has been paid to voice behaviours that are intended to benefit individuals themselves, despite the recognition that the self can be a valid focus of voice, just like the other foci. As people tend to “focus on, process, recognize, and retrieve self-relevant [over] self-irrelevant information” (Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994, p. 224), it is reasonable to see employees to be concerned with issues relevant to their interests at work and to voice for themselves. As defined by Bashshur and Oc (2015), voice behaviours are enacted by employees with the intent to “improve the current functioning of the organization, group, or individual” (p. 1531). Thus, an individual can be an important target for employee voice. That the self is an important target of benefit has also been recognized in the broader proactivity literature. For example, Belschak and Den Hartog (2010) conceptualized the three “foci” of proactivity: pro-organization, prosocial, and pro-self; they then empirically demonstrated that the different foci of proactivity come with different antecedents and outcomes. In sum, understanding the target of impact for proactivity, or “foci”, represents a crucial line of investigation.

In this study, we bring this foci perspective into studying voice and propose the concept of SIV to capture employees' voice behaviours on issues or subjects that are relevant to their own interests. Similar to existing voice constructs (e.g. Hirschman, 1970; Morrison, 2011; Van Dyne et al., 2003; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998), SIV is discretionary and purposeful by nature, and is change-oriented by influencing work environments through communication. In a departure from existing voice constructs, however, it specifically is targeted at benefitting oneself and concerns personal interests when voicing. Of note, our approach is to directly capture voice behaviour targeting issues, procedures, or practices that are relevant to one's personal interests, instead of conceptualizing self-interest as a motive behind voice behaviour (e.g. Klaas et al., 2012; Morrison, 2011 for reviews). Furthermore, our conceptualization of SIV renders it capable of mapping well onto organizational political behaviour, which is "self-interested, goal-directed", and refers to "the strategic and planned intentionality of the behaviour to achieve goals that are important to the self" (Ferris et al., 2019, p. 308). In this sense, SIV can be regarded as a new and specific form of organizational political behaviour, enabling us to broaden the scope of political behaviours – an important research direction highlighted by Ferris et al. (2019). Having articulated the conceptualization of SIV, we now turn to its antecedents and motivational mechanisms, drawing on the organizational politics lens.

Antecedent and psychological mechanism towards SIV

Although SIV may occur in all organizational contexts, we suggest that, as it is an innate human nature (e.g., Miller, 1999), this behaviour is more likely to occur in contexts that

pose greater threats to resource loss, which cause people to become self-focused to protect their interests. Following this idea, we propose that POP will activate employees' self-serving cognition and thus SIV. We also propose that this mechanism is more prominent for those with a high Machiavellian personality since they are more sensitive to POP.

Perceived organizational politics and self-serving cognition

POP refers to employees' subjective perceptions of the extent of self-interested or political activities being pervasive at the workplace (Ferris et al., 2000). A high-POP environment often poses great uncertainty, with blurred boundaries and rules, which leaves room for discretionary behaviour such as voice (Ferris et al., 2002, 2019; Hochwarter et al., 2014). Ferris et al. (2002), for instance, by building on Hirschman's (1970) work, suggested two ways for employees to react towards a highly political environment – exit or voice: they either flee from this stressful environment or engage in voice to alter or manage the work settings to achieve own career success. Apparently, voice appears the more viable approach for those choosing to stay (Mayes & Ganster, 1988). Hochwarter et al.'s (2014) empirical study showed that voice behaviour is undertaken in a highly political context since it renders employees a better sense of control and reduces the stress associated with uncertainty.

A high-POP context is conducive to self-interested behaviours, possibly through the activation of self-serving cognition – a cognitive state of self-concern (e.g. Mitchell, Baer, Ambrose, Folger, & Palmer, 2018). In organizations with high POP, employees often consider their organizational decisions to deviate from formal structures and

procedures, and observe the environment to be marked by a great extent of self-serving activities among colleagues (Ferris et al., 2000; Ferris et al., 2002; Hall, Hochwarter, Ferris, & Bowen, 2004). On the one hand, such a perception likely alerts employees to an opportunity to obtain more resources since the uncertainty and ambiguity caused by organizational politics can create power vacuums that invite individuals to gain resources as they wish. As human beings are inherently concerned with themselves, they have an automatic tendency to engage in behaviours that can gain resources for their own benefits (Cropanzano, Goldman, & Folger, 2005). Hence, the murky environment in a high-POP context provides employees who are eager for resources with more opportunities to achieve self-serving purposes (Ferris et al., 2002). On the other hand, POP may also induce a threat of resource losses since employees may worry that the rewards for their accomplishments (e.g. pay incentives or recognition) and opportunities for career development (e.g. promotion or taking important tasks) may be affected by others' political actions if they do not do anything. This concern over potential resource loss can further heighten one's self-serving cognition (e.g. Mitchell et al., 2018; Murnighan, Cantelon, & Elyashiv, 2001; Schwartz, 1986; Wang & Murnighan, 2011).

An enhanced state of self-serving cognition will further motivate employees to engage in self-interested behaviours to maximize their personal benefits and minimize the threats (e.g. Mitchell et al., 2018). We particularly expect SIV behaviour to be a consequence since this type of proactive behaviour can help employees shape their work environment and regain clarity and control (Ferris et al., 2002, 2019; Hochwarter

et al., 2014) while engaging in an influential political tactic that can remedy an unfavourable situation and protect their benefits (Treadway, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Ferris, 2005). In summation, we theorize that POP creates a self-serving cognitive state, which further leads to SIV behaviours.

Hypothesis 1: POP is positively associated with self-serving cognition, which in turn is positively associated with employees' SIV. Self-serving cognition mediates the association between POP and employees' SIV.

The moderating role of Machiavellian personality

Employees vary in their reactions to POP (e.g. Ferris et al., 1996), which thus warrants the need to take individual differences into account. In this study, we focus on the Machiavellian personality, a dark-side personal attribute that features manipulation and deception, desire for status and control, and a distrust of others (e.g. Christie & Geis, 1970; Dahling, Whitaker, & Levy, 2009). Employees with more highly Machiavellian personalities (high Machs) have stronger self-interested motives and are more likely to engage in self-interested behaviours, such as unethical behaviours (O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012), counterproductive work behaviours (Belschak, Muhammad, & Den Hartog, 2018), and deviant behaviours (Zagenczyk, Restubog, Kiewitz, Kiazad, & Tang, 2014). As a personal trait that is highly related to political and self-serving tendencies (Christie & Geis, 1970), Machiavellian personality has been theoretically tied to organizational politics, and should thus impact employees' reactions towards POP (Dahling et al., 2009; Ferris et al., 2002).

In a politically charged environment, where employees are likely to perceive threats to their resources (Ferris et al., 2000), high Machs' desire for manipulation and personal benefits and their "catch the ball before the bound" mindset will be elicited (Greenbaum, Hill, Mawritz, & Quade, 2017). This is the case because high Machs are inherently eager to maximize personal benefits by all possible means (Jones & Paulhus, 2009) and sensitive to situational cues that indicate the necessity and convenience to be self-interested (Kuyumcu & Dahling, 2014). In contrast, employees with low Machiavellian personality (low Machs) do not have a strong innate tendency to seek personal benefits and seem to care less about power and status (Dahling et al., 2009). Therefore, compared to high Machs, low Machs are less likely to be as attuned, and to react as sensitively, to POP. They tend to follow universal moral standards (Kessler et al., 2010) and are less likely to maximize personal benefits without considering the interests of others (Nagin, Rebitzer, Sanders, & Taylor, 2002), even though they may be harmed in highly political environments. Therefore, we expect low Machs to be less affected than high Machs by the POP environment, and propose:

Hypothesis 2: Machiavellian personality moderates the positive relationship between POP and self-serving cognition such that the relationship is stronger (i.e. more positive) when the Machiavellian personality is high.

By integrating the mediation pathway in Hypothesis 1 and the moderating effect in Hypothesis 2, we also propose a moderated mediation process.

Hypothesis 3: Machiavellian personality moderates the indirect effect of POP on SIV via self-serving cognition such that the indirect effect is stronger (i.e. more positive) when the Machiavellian personality is high.

The consequences of SIV behaviour

We now turn to the consequences of SIV. We focus on supervisor-rated outcomes because supervisors are usually the target of employee voice in the organization because of their influence on employees' work activities (e.g. tasks and access to resources) and benefits (e.g. rewards, performance evaluations, and promotion opportunities) (e.g. Fuller, Marler, Hester, & Otondo, 2015; Seibert, Kraimer, & Crant, 2001; Weiss & Morrison, 2019). When employees have concerns about and intend to make changes to their work duties, resources, and benefits, speaking to their supervisors appears to be the most direct and meaningful approach. In this study, we focus on four outcomes reported by supervisors: task performance, liking, promotability, and suggested salary increment, providing a comprehensive coverage of the impact of SIV by uncovering its relationships with supervisors' evaluations of employees' work accomplishment, interpersonal preference, and career prospects. These variables are key indicators of work and career success that greatly concern employees (e.g. Huang, Xu, Huang, & Liu, 2018; Milliken, Morrison, & Hewlin, 2003; Seibert et al., 2001).

In general, we expect a negative relationship between SIV and supervisor-rated outcomes. Although the traditional understanding of voice indicates its benefits to individuals, teams, and organizations because of its contributions to work practices improvement (see Bashshur & Oc, 2015; Morrison, 2011, 2014; Klaas et al., 2012 for

reviews), we expect SIV to have different consequences since supervisors likely attribute these behaviours as driven by self-interest and accordingly develop negative perceptions towards employees who express them. Existing research on proactivity provides evidence to support this speculation, showing that supervisors prefer employees' proactive behaviours to be less self-serving. For instance, the feedback-seeking literature suggests that, when leaders observe subordinates' feedback-seeking behaviour as driven by the intention to benefit themselves (e.g. to enhance their image or manipulate others' impressions), they are less likely to perceive such proactivity as positive and tend to give lower performance evaluations (e.g. Dahling, O'Malley, & Chau, 2015; Lam, Huang, & Snape, 2007). As such, we expect a negative association between SIV behaviour and task performance as rated by supervisors. In addition, when employees demonstrate SIV behaviour, their supervisors likely perceive that voice as selfish and mercenary, which could undermine a balanced social exchange relationship in organizations (O'Boyle et al., 2012). Therefore, supervisors likely regard these employees as undesirable partners for social exchange, hence reducing liking towards them. Following the same notion, performing SIV behaviour can also undermine the likelihood of supervisors recommending promotion and salary increases, as supervisors may be hesitant to reward such behaviour and provide more resources to those who are less likely to reciprocate in turn.

Hypothesis 4: SIV is negatively related to supervisor ratings of employees' a) task performance, b) liking by leaders, c) promotability and d) suggested salary increases.

The present studies

We conducted three field studies to validate the new construct of SIV and comprehensively test our hypotheses. In the scale development study, we developed and validated the measure of SIV, including testing its construct validity and discriminant validity with other related voice constructs. In Study 1, we tested the indirect effect of POP on SIV via self-serving cognition, as well as the moderating effect of Machiavellian personality (Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3). In Study 2, we replicated the findings from Study 1 (Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3) while strengthening its results by controlling for alternative mechanisms. Moreover, we explored how SIV was related to various outcomes (i.e. supervisor-rated task performance, liking, promotability, and suggested salary increment; Hypotheses 4a, 4b, 4c, and 4d).

Scale development study

Item generation for SIV

In developing the SIV measure, we used item stems from two voice measures: “constructive voice”, from Maynes and Podsakoff (2014), and “speaking up”, from Liu, Zhu, and Yang (2010), to draw on a wider range of items and adapted them to reflect voice actions for pursuing self-interests. We used stems reflecting promotive form of voice to capture the core conceptualization of voice (e.g. Detert & Burris, 2007; Van Dyne & LePine, 1998) and the proactive nature of political behaviour (Ferris et al., 2019). Our review of items across these two measures led to the selection of eight items in total for adaptation into SIV items. Specifically, we adapted all five items of constructive voice from Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) and three items of speaking up

from Liu et al. (2010). These eight items have stems that capture generic voice behaviour, rendering them capable of being easily adapted to measure voice for pursuing personal interests. For example, the item “frequently makes suggestions about how to improve work methods or practices” was adapted to “frequently make suggestions about how to do things to fit my interests” for measuring SIV. All items are presented in Table 1. We did not adapt the other six items from Liu et al. (2010), either because the item stem did not lend itself to be relevant for SIV (e.g. “If his or her supervisor made mistakes in his or her work, this person would point them out and help the supervisor correct them”) or because those items contained redundant information that had already been captured by items from the Maynes and Podsakoff (2014) measure.

Content validity

We conducted a content validity study with 36 researchers in organizational behaviour/industrial and organizational psychology disciplines (mean age = 32 years, SD = 6.18 years, 41.67% male, either having PhD or currently pursuing PhD study in these disciplines). Following the sorting method for content validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1991), we asked participants to map items measuring five voice constructs: SIV and constructive voice, defensive voice, supportive voice, and destructive voice from Maynes and Podsakoff (2014), onto the definitions of the five constructs. The substantive validity coefficients of those items ranged from 0.81 to 0.94, demonstrating the content validity of SIV items.

Discriminant validity

We used a number of existing voice measures to assess the discriminant validity. We included supportive voice (i.e. voice to support certain policies, programmes, objectives, procedures), constructive voice (i.e. voice to effect positive change to the work context), defensive voice (i.e. voice to oppose change), and destructive voice (i.e. voice that was hurtful, critical, or debasing opinions), following Maynes and Podsakoff (2014). Each voice form was measured by five items. We included promotive (voicing for improving work practices) and prohibitive voices (voicing for prohibiting practices that may harm organizations), following Liang et al. (2012), with each dimension measured by five items. We also used prosocial (voicing by offering suggestions and expressing solutions), acquiescent (voicing by agreeing with the group), and defensive voices (voicing by shifting attention for self-protection), following Van Dyne et al. (2003), with each voice measured by five items. All measures were translated into Chinese and then back-translated into English by a panel of bilingual experts, following the procedures advocated by Brislin (1980). We used five-point scales ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” on all measures.

Sample and procedure

We sent out 500 online questionnaires to a pool of full-time employees supported by Wenjuanxing (the Chinese equivalent of Amazon Mechanical Turk) and received responses from 388 employees (response rate = 77.6%). After removing observations with missing data, we obtained 362 valid responses (effective rate = 93.3%). Of the final sample, 46.7% were male, with an average age of 32.35 years (SD = 6.83) and an average organizational tenure of 9 years (SD = 7.38); 71.2% of participants had a

college degree or above. With the final sample, the reliability of SIV was 0.89 and ranged from 0.81 to 0.93 for all other voice measures (for detailed Cronbach's alphas, please see Table 2).

Results

To ensure the robustness of our results, we randomly divided the sample in half so that we could use Sample A (n = 181) for exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and Sample B (n = 181) for confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). With Sample A, we conducted EFA with a principal axis factoring estimator with promax rotation for all SIV items and used the eigenvalues-greater-than-1 criterion. The results showed that one factor emerged and explained 51.38% of the variance, and this factor was formed on the basis of strong factor loadings (see Table 1 for factor loadings). We then conducted a CFA with Sample B to validate the one-factor model, and obtained a good model fit ($\chi^2 (20) = 39.72, \chi^2/df = 1.99, CFI = 0.96, TLI = 0.95, SRMR = 0.04, RMESA = 0.07$; see Table 1 for factor loadings). The results from the EFA and CFA indicate that SIV has satisfactory factorial validity.

Insert Table 1 about here

We further assessed the discriminant validity of SIV with other voice constructs using the whole sample (n = 362). Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for all measures. The intercorrelations between SIV and the other voice constructs ranged from 0.01 to 0.41; these low to moderate correlations provide support for SIV as a distinct voice construct. We also conducted a series of CFAs to provide further evidence on the discriminant validity for SIV. As shown in Table 3, for each of the

abovementioned existing voice measures, we assessed whether a model positing SIV as a distinct factor from existing voice factors is superior to models in which SIV was merged with other voice factors. Our results demonstrate that the models in which SIV was posited as an independent factor fitted the data much better than alternative models, further showing the uniqueness of SIV from existing voice constructs.

Insert Tables 2 & 3 about here

Study 1

Methods

Sample and procedure

We carried out three waves of data collection with 15 organizations in manufacturing industries in eastern China. With the help of HR managers, we approached employees and their direct leaders in these companies, and 350 employees and 138 leaders agreed to participate. In Wave 1, we invited employees to report demographic details, POP and Machiavellian personality. In Wave 2 (five weeks later), employees who offered usable data were then asked to report their self-serving cognition. In Wave 3 (five weeks thereafter), those employees' direct leaders were invited to rate each employee's SIV behaviour. We ultimately obtained 262 matched samples (from 117 leaders and 262 subordinates; each leader rated 2.24 employees on average; employees' response rate = 74.9%, leaders' response rate = 84.8%). Data were matched by the last four digits of employees' mobile phone numbers, which was information reported in both the employee survey and the leader survey (according to the organizations' norms, the leaders in these organizations knew each subordinate's phone number). To ensure data

confidentiality, all respondents returned completed surveys in sealed envelopes and mailed them directly to the research team. Among the 262 employees, 50.8% were male, the average age was 30.18 years ($SD = 6.65$), and the average length of time with their leader was 2.98 years ($SD = 2.82$). Among the 117 leaders, 73.4% were male, their average age was 36.25 years ($SD = 7.41$), and their average organizational tenure was 4.54 years ($SD = 3.59$).

Measures

The same translation procedure as the scale development study was applied and the same five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree) was used.

Employees' POP was measured using the 15-item scale developed by Kacmar and Carlson (1997), with an example item being "Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this organization" ($\alpha = 0.72$). *Machiavellian personality* was measured by the 16-item scale developed by Dahling et al. (2009), with an example item being "I am willing to be unethical if I believe it will help me succeed" ($\alpha = 0.92$). *Self-serving cognition* was measured using Mitchell et al.'s (2018) four-item scale, with an example item being "I am preoccupied with enhancing benefits for myself at work" ($\alpha = 0.85$). *SIV* was measured by the eight-item scale we developed in the scale development study ($\alpha = 0.94$). Regarding control variables, given that demographic variables may affect voice behaviours (Duan, Li, Xu, & Wu, 2017; Tangirala, Kamdar, Venkataramani, & Parke, 2013), we controlled for employees' gender, age, and length of time with their leader; we also controlled for leaders' gender, age, and tenure since those variables might impact leaders' ratings.

We conducted confirmatory factor analyses to examine the distinctiveness of the study variables. We applied item parcelling on items for POP and Machiavellian personality by using the mean scores of their facets, given the large number of items in these two measures. This approach can mitigate the challenges associated with large numbers of items relative to the sample size (e.g. Little, Cunningham, Shahar, & Widaman, 2002). A four-factor model with all four study variables (POP, Machiavellian personality, self-serving cognition, and SIV) as independent factors yielded a good fit ($\chi^2/df = 2.70$, $CFI = 0.92$, $TLI = 0.90$, $RMSEA = 0.08$, $SRMR = 0.05$) and was superior to the alternative models (see Table 4).

Insert Table 4 about here

Results

The descriptive statistics are presented in Table 5. All constructs were conceptualized and measured at the individual level, except for SIV, for which each supervisor rated several subordinates. A one-way random analysis of the variance of SIV showed that the variances at the supervisor level were significant ($F(116, 261) = 2.83$, $p < 0.001$). ICC(1) for SIV was 0.38, which is greater than the median value of 0.12 across the studies reviewed by James (1982). We therefore employed a complex model using Mplus by considering the random variance effect from the supervisor level and the correlated structure of the data (Foo, Uy, & Baron, 2009; Liu et al., 2015; Wu, Liu, Kwan, & Lee, 2016) and specified a path model to test our hypotheses.

As shown in Table 6, POP and self-serving cognition significantly predicted SIV ($B = 0.45$, $S.E. = 0.13$, $p < 0.001$; $B = 0.40$, $S.E. = 0.08$, $p < 0.001$). However, the

relationship between POP and self-serving cognition was not significant ($B = 0.09$, $S.E. = 0.10$, $n.s.$), and neither was the indirect effect ($estimate = 0.04$, $S.E. = 0.04$, $95\% CI = [-0.04, 0.11]$). Hypothesis 1 was not supported.

We found that the interaction term between POP and Machiavellian personality (using mean-centred scores) significantly predicted self-serving cognition ($B = 0.18$, $S.E. = 0.04$, $p < 0.001$). A simple slope analysis showed that POP had a stronger association with self-serving cognition when Machiavellian personality was higher (one SD above the mean, $B = 0.22$, $S.E. = 0.10$, $95\% CI = [0.02, 0.42]$) than when it was lower (one SD below the mean, $B = -0.05$, $S.E. = 0.10$, $95\% CI = [-0.25, 0.16]$). The difference between these two slopes was significant ($B = 0.27$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $95\% CI = [0.16, 0.37]$; see Figure 2), supporting Hypothesis 2.

To test the overall moderated mediation model (Hypothesis 3), we carried out moderated path analysis using Mplus to calculate the indirect effect at conditional values of Machiavellian personality. The indirect effect from POP to SIV via self-serving cognition was stronger for high Machiavellian personality ($estimate = 0.09$, $S.E. = 0.04$, $95\% CI = [0.01, 0.17]$) than for low Machiavellian personality ($estimate = -0.02$, $S.E. = 0.04$, $95\% CI = [-0.10, 0.07]$). The difference between these two conditional indirect effects was significant ($estimate = 0.11$, $S.E. = 0.03$, $95\% CI = [0.05, 0.17]$). Hypothesis 3 was thus supported.

Insert Tables 5 and 6 and Figure 2 about here

Study 2

Methods

Sample and procedure

We carried out a three-wave data collection procedure with 16 organizations in the manufacturing and service industries in China. The data collection procedure was similar to Study 1, and a total of 389 employees and 152 direct supervisors agreed to participate. In Wave 1, 389 employees participated and were asked to report their demographics, POP, and Machiavellian personality. In Wave 2 (four weeks later), we asked employees who provided valid responses to report self-serving cognition, emotional exhaustion, and affective organizational commitment – the latter two were collected for the purpose of ruling out alternative mechanisms, as explained later. Also in Wave 2, these employees' leaders were asked to rate the employees' SIV behaviour. In Wave 3 (four weeks thereafter), these leaders were again asked to rate each employee's task performance, promotability, and suggested salary increment, along with their liking of these employees. We finally obtained 282 matched samples (105 leaders and 282 subordinates; each leader rated 2.69 employees on average; employees' response rate = 72.5%, leaders' response rate = 69.1%). Of the 282 employees, 50.7% were male, the average age was 32.53 years (SD = 6.99), and the average length of time with their direct leader was 4.14 years (SD = 5.06). Of the matched leaders, 66.3% were male, their average age was 40.74 years (SD = 7.44), and their average organizational tenure was 12.52 years (SD = 8.80).

Measures

POP ($\alpha = 0.77$), self-serving cognition ($\alpha = 0.83$), Machiavellian personality ($\alpha = 0.92$), and SIV ($\alpha = 0.92$) were measured using the same scales as in Study 1.

For the supervisor-rated outcomes, *task performance* was assessed by the five-item scale adopted from Methot, Lepine, Podsakoff, and Christian (2015), which was originally developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). An example item was “Meets formal performance requirements of the job” ($\alpha = 0.89$). *Promotability* was assessed by the three-item scale adopted from Huang et al. (2018). An example item was “If a position were available, I would recommend this person for a promotion” ($\alpha = 0.88$). *Suggested salary increment* was measured by adopting the three items for promotability, with an example being “I would recommend this person for a salary increment” ($\alpha = 0.90$). *Liking* was measured by the four-item scale developed by Wayne and Ferris (1990). An example item was “Supervising this subordinate is a pleasure” ($\alpha = 0.89$).

To identify whether self-serving cognition uniquely translates the effect from POP to SIV, we included two control variables in this study beyond demographic variables: emotional exhaustion and affective organizational commitment. These two variables have been well investigated as mediators linking POP with its outcomes (e.g. Chang et al., 2009; Cropanzano, Howes, Grandey, & Toth, 1997; Sun & Chen, 2017), since they respectively account for the potential influences of POP from a resource depletion perspective and an organizational attachment perspective. In brief, POP can lead to emotional exhaustion because, as a work stressor, it is likely to threaten or cause a depletion of the valued resources that employees possess (Sun & Chen, 2017; Treadway et al., 2005), which may prevent employees from engaging in SIV – an energy-consuming behaviour influencing others. POP can also lower affective organizational commitment because the unfairness and injustice embedded in the

political environment will harm the attachment that employees have to their organizations (Cropanzano et al., 1997), and this decreased engagement can demotivate employees to engage in SIV. *Emotional exhaustion* was measured using a three-item scale adapted from Watkins et al., (2012), with an example item being “I feel emotionally drained from my work” ($\alpha = 0.89$). *Affective organizational commitment* was measured by an eight-item scale developed by Meyer and Allen (1984), with an example item being “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization” ($\alpha = 0.87$).

Confirmatory factor analyses showed that the hypothesized eight-factor model (POP, Machiavellian personality, self-serving cognition, SIV, task performance, liking, promotability, and suggested salary increment, with POP and Machiavellian personality item-parcelled based on their facets, which is the same as Study 1) fitted the data well ($\chi^2/df = 1.96$, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.90, RMSEA = 0.05, SRMR = 0.06) and was superior to alternative models (see Table 7).

Insert Table 7 about here

Results

The descriptive statistics and correlations for the study variables are presented in Table 8. As in Study 1, we conducted path analysis for the hypothesized relationships using the complex model in Mplus 7.4. Table 9 presents the results from the overall path analysis. In line with our expectations, after the demographic variables, emotional exhaustion, and affective organizational commitment were controlled for, POP was positively related to self-serving cognition ($B = 0.28$, $S.E. = 0.10$, $p < 0.01$), which in

turn was positively related to SIV ($B = 0.21$, $S.E. = 0.08$, $p < 0.01$). The indirect effect of POP on SIV via self-serving cognition was 0.06 (95% CI = [0.01, 0.11]), supporting Hypothesis 1.

Insert Tables 8 & 9 about here

We also observed that the interaction term of POP and Machiavellian personality was significant in predicting self-serving cognition ($B = 0.21$, $S.E. = 0.07$, $p < 0.01$, Table 9). The interaction pattern, presented in Figure 4, shows that the positive relationship between POP and self-serving cognition was stronger among those with high Machiavellian personality (with 1 SD above the mean: $B = 0.44$, $S.E. = 0.11$, 95% CI = [0.23, 0.66]) than among those with low Machiavellian personality (with 1 SD below the mean: $B = 0.11$, $S.E. = 0.12$, 95% CI = [-0.13, 0.34]). The difference between these two slopes was significant ($B = 0.33$, $S.E. = 0.12$, 95% CI = [0.11, 0.56]), supporting Hypothesis 2.

Insert Figure 4 about here

For the moderated mediation model (Hypothesis 3), we calculated the indirect effect for conditional values of Machiavellian personality. The indirect effect from POP to SIV via self-serving cognition was stronger when Machiavellian personality was high ($estimate = 0.09$, $S.E. = 0.04$, 95% CI = [0.02, 0.17]) than when it was low ($estimate = 0.02$, $S.E. = 0.03$, 95% CI = [-0.03, 0.07]). The difference between these two conditional indirect effects was significant ($estimate = 0.07$, $S.E. = 0.03$, 95% CI = [0.01, 0.14]), supporting Hypothesis 3.

As for the outcomes, we found SIV was negatively related to supervisor-rated liking ($B = -0.23$, $S.E. = 0.08$, $p < 0.01$) and suggested salary increment ($B = -0.14$, $S.E. = 0.07$, $p < 0.05$) but was not related to task performance ($B = -0.09$, $S.E. = 0.05$, $n.s.$) and promotability ($B = -0.05$, $S.E. = 0.07$, $n.s.$), after all other variables were controlled for. These results support Hypotheses 4b and 4d but not Hypothesis 4a and 4c. We also examined the moderation effect of Machiavellian personality on the association between SIV and the four outcomes and did not find significant effects.

Discussion

In this research we proposed a new concept of SIV and validated a measurement for it. In the two focal studies of its antecedents, mechanism, and outcomes, we found that POP promotes one's self-serving cognition, especially for those high in Machiavellian personality, and thus SIV. SIV, in turn, was negatively related to supervisors' ratings. When supervisors observed SIV, they reduced their liking towards these employees and were less likely to recommend them for salary increases.

Our study enriches the current voice literature by studying a unique, unexplored voice behaviour that is directed at benefitting oneself. Although attempts to expand the concept of voice have been effectively undertaken, such discussions have centred on the different "forms" of voice, such as by understanding voice in its supportive and challenging forms or assessing voice with positive or negative implications (e.g. Burris, 2012; Liang et al., 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Van Dyne et al., 2003). In contrast, the different foci, or targets of impact, of voice behaviour have rarely been considered. This may be due to the assumption that voice is primarily targeted at organizations or

work groups. However, it is important to recognize that voice can be targeted at benefitting not just organizations and teams but also individuals themselves (Bashshur & Oc, 2015; Fuller, Barnett, Hester, Relyea, & Frey, 2007). Our empirical results in the scale development study revealed that SIV behaviour was correlated with various existing forms of voice at a low to moderate level, providing support to its uniqueness as a voice behaviour.

Second, our study generates great insights into organizational contexts that are conducive to this unique type of voice behaviour and provides an examination of the psychological mechanism underlying this relationship. We found that SIV is more likely to occur in highly political organizations (high POP) since such an uncertain, political work environment can both provide employees with potential opportunities to gain extra resources and pose a great threat to employees' existing resources, thereby heightening their self-serving cognition and further motivating them to engage in actions to protect or enhance their interests. This finding supports the idea that voice can be a proactive reaction towards a political environment (Ferris et al., 2002; Klaas et al., 2012). The positive relationship between POP and SIV also brings a new insight into voice research. Previous studies on using voice for constructive changes have shown that employees are less likely to speak up to improve organizations when they are under stress and uncertainty. For instance, Ng and Feldman (2012) suggested in their meta-analysis that using voice for constructive changes tends to be reduced in highly stressful organizational contexts. A recent empirical study by Li, Liang, and Farh (in press) found that POP was negatively related to both promotive and prohibitive

voices, two forms of voice for organizational benefits. Our study shows that, however, when studying voice from a self-interested perspective, a different picture emerged. In a high-POP context, employees may actually engage in more SIV as a potential self-protective strategy. This finding again shows the value of understanding voice behaviour that comes with a focus that is different from the pro-organization and prosocial foci.

After further extending the psychological mechanism of SIV, we demonstrated that the individual characteristic of Machiavellian personality appeared to be an important boundary condition in the relationship between POP and self-serving cognition. Our findings suggest that highly Machiavellian individuals tend to be more sensitive to situational cues, and thus are more likely to engage in self-serving cognition and behaviours when a situation activates their manipulative, self-serving tendency. Our findings support the proposition that “those high in Mach are not always deceitful and exploitive but instead disregard moral standards only when it is convenient and when engaging in such behaviour is expected to result in personal gain” (Greenbaum et al., 2017, p. 586). We suggest that the political organizational climate can be an important context that activates this personality, beyond those activators that have been studied such as abusive supervision (Greenbaum et al., 2017) and leader Machiavellianism (Belschak et al., 2018). Moreover, by linking Machiavellian personality to POP, we respond to the call (Dahling et al., 2009) to better understand the role of Machiavellian personality in the relationship between POP and its outcomes.

Finally, by linking SIV to supervisor-rated outcomes, we found a general trend of negative relationship on all outcomes, suggesting that, when the self-interested behaviours are observed by others, SIV can result in negative consequences. Specifically, SIV was negatively associated with liking and suggested salary increment but not task performance and promotability. This finding first suggests that SIV can bring negative outcomes such as reduced liking by supervisors and less access to the resources governed by supervisors such as suggested salary increases. The null finding on task performance possibly reflects that when supervisors evaluate employees' task performance, they will consider other factors such as performance criteria and do not solely based their judgment on employees' engagement in SIV. Similarly, the null finding on promotability could reflect that a judgment of promotability will not solely be based on employees' engagement in SIV but also structural or organizational factors such as promotion criteria, policies and practices. Overall, our findings suggest that, while high-Mach individuals tend to engage in SIV to achieve personal gains, this actually results in negative consequences for them when their self-interested behaviours are observed by others (e.g. by supervisors in our study). We believe that more research is needed to unpack the puzzle of individuals' motives and actions for pursuing self-interest and the resulting consequences.

Our studies also advance research on organizational politics. It has been recognized that, while substantial research has already been conducted in this domain, a unified understanding of what political behaviour entails is still broadly lacking. More specifically, as highlighted by Ferris et al. (2019, p. 308), "political behaviour is a

complex and nuanced construct, which likely comprises multiple dimensions”. This indicates that the current conceptualization and operationalization of political behaviours, which has been represented as influence tactics (e.g. Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988), impression management (e.g. Bolino & Turnley, 2003), or general political behaviours (Sun & Chen, 2017), are too limited to comprehensively capture the nuance of this broad concept. Ferris et al. (2019, p. 310) called for more research endeavours to expand the conceptualization “to include a broader spectrum of political actions”, with one possible avenue being incorporating behavioural constructs that come with a more neutral definition and unlocking their political potential, with proactive behaviours such as voice being an example. Our study directly responds to this call by studying how voice behaviour can be adopted as a political behaviour that benefits individuals, providing conceptual and empirical extensions to the organizational politics literature and offering an innovative and important synergy between this line of research and the voice literature.

Practically speaking, our findings highlight that both employees and managers need to develop a better understanding of SIV, a type of voice behaviour that is distinct from other types. While other voice behaviours – those targeted at others and at organizations – can be beneficial to organizations and thus need to be facilitated, SIV behaviours may be the opposite. Employees need to be conscious of the negative consequences of such voice behaviours and minimize engagement with them, while managers need to effectively identify and manage this particular type of voice so that its negative impact does not encroach on teams and organizations. Our findings also

suggest that SIV behaviours are more prevalent in organizations with high levels of political climate, a context in which employees are impelled to focus on themselves and to protect their resources by engaging in SIV. This is likely to cause more politics in organizations and create a negative spiral. It is thus imperative that organizations attempt to reduce organizational politics, such as by establishing a fair and equitable reward system (Byrne, 2005), or inviting employees to participate in organizations' decision-making (Witt, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2000), with the aim of creating a transparent and just culture that is less likely to breed SIV behaviours. Our study also demonstrates that a political context can especially mobilize employees with high Machiavellian personalities, who readily manipulate a political environment and engage in greater SIV behaviours. To address this, organizations need to be cautious in personnel selection practices to screen out highly Machiavellian individuals. Managers and organizations also need to be cautious in managing performance and rewarding these individuals to avoid such personalities being further cultivated through internal practices.

Our time-lagged design cannot allow us to rule out the possibility of reverse and reciprocal causality, especially concerning the antecedents and outcomes of SIV. Also, we did not measure all variables every time to capture the dynamic change between variables. We relied on supervisors' ratings of SIV when studying its psychological mechanisms and outcomes. While this approach is in line with previous research on voice that collected supervisor or observer ratings (e.g. Liang et al., 2012; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014), such an approach lends itself to the potential effects of observers'

attributions (Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009). We believe that supervisor attribution is an important angle to unpack supervisors' perceptions and psychological processes when interpreting employees' voice behaviour and should be investigated further. Finally, by focusing on self-serving cognition as the mediator, our study may overlook other important, non-cognitive mechanisms that underlie the relationship between POP and SIV. It is possible that POP can also elicit other psychological processes, such as an emotional pathway (e.g. Albrecht, 2006; Rosen, Harris, & Kacmar, 2009). Future studies can also consider exploring moderating factors that attenuate, rather than strengthen, the impact of POP on SIV behaviours to identify effective intervention strategies. For example, ethical leadership may attenuate the impact of POP as employees may be less likely to worry about whether their interests and benefits will be undermined if they perceive the leader and the management to be fair.

Conclusions

Our research brings in the pro-self perspective to the voice literature and provides researchers and managers with a new understanding of how social context and individual attributes may shape employees' cognition and behaviours towards benefitting themselves. We argue that SIV can be regarded as a specific form of organizational political behaviour, offering an angle to understand employees' behaviour in responding to a political work environment.

References

- Albrecht, S. (2006). Organizational politics: Affective reactions, cognitive assessments and their influence on organizational commitment and cynicism toward change. In E. Vigoda-Gadot & A. Drory (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational politics* (pp. 230–252). Northampton, MA: Edward Elgar; <https://doi.org/10.4337/9781847201874.00022>
- Anderson, J. C., & Gerbing, D. W. (1991). Predicting the performance of measures in a confirmatory factor analysis with a pretest assessment of their substantive validities. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 732–740. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.76.5.732>
- Bashshur, M. R., & Oc, B. (2015). When voice matters: A multilevel review of the impact of voice in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 41, 1530–1554. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314558302>
- Belschak, F. D., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2010). Pro-self, prosocial, and pro-organizational foci of proactive behaviour: Differential antecedents and consequences. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 83, 475–498. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317909X439208>
- Belschak, F. D., Muhammad, R. S., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2018). Birds of a feather can butt heads: When Machiavellian employees work with Machiavellian leaders. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 151, 613–626. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3251-2>

- Bolino, M. C. (1999). Citizenship and impression management: Good soldiers or good actors? *Academy of Management Review*, 24, 82–98.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/259038>
- Bolino, M. C., & Turnley, W. H. (2003). More than one way to make an impression: Exploring profiles of impression management. *Journal of Management*, 29, 141–160. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(02\)00212-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(02)00212-X)
- Brislin, R. W. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In H. C. Triandis & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology: Vol. 2. Methodology* (pp. 349–444). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.
- Burris, E. R. (2012). The risks and rewards of speaking up: Managerial responses to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55, 851–875.
<https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0562>
- Byrne, Z. S. (2005). Fairness reduces the negative effects of organizational politics on turnover intentions, citizenship behavior and job performance. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 20, 175–200. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-005-8258-0>
- Chang, C. H., Rosen, C. C., & Levy, P. E. (2009). The relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and employee attitudes, strain, and behavior: A meta-analytic examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52, 779–801.
<https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2009.43670894>
- Christie, R., & Geis, F. (1970). *Studies in Machiavellianism*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

- Cropanzano, R., Goldman, B., & Folger, R. (2005). Self-interest: Defining and understanding a human motive. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *26*, 985–991. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.353>
- Cropanzano, R., Howes, J. C., Grandey, A. A., & Toth, P. (1997). The relationship of organizational politics and support to work behaviors, attitudes, and stress. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *18*, 159–180. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1099-1379\(199703\)18:23.0.CO;2-D](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1099-1379(199703)18:23.0.CO;2-D)
- Dahling, J., O'Malley, A. L., & Chau, S. L. (2015). Effects of feedback motives on inquiry and performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, *30*, 199–215. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-12-2012-0409>
- Dahling, J. J., Whitaker, B. G., & Levy, P. E. (2009). The development and validation of a new Machiavellianism scale. *Journal of Management*, *35*, 219–257. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308318618>
- Dalton, D., & Radtke, R. R. (2013). The joint effects of Machiavellianism and ethical environment on whistle-blowing. *Journal of Business Ethics*, *117*, 153–172. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-012-1517-x>
- Detert, J. R., & Burris, E. R. (2007). Leadership behavior and employee voice: Is the door really open? *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*, 869–884. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2007.26279183>
- Duan, J., Li, C., Xu, Y., & Wu, C. H. (2017). Transformational leadership and employee voice behavior: A Pygmalion mechanism. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *38*, 650–670. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2157>

- Dutton, J. E., Dukerich, J. M., & Harquail, C. V. (1994). Organizational images and member identification. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39, 239–263. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2393235>
- Ferris, G. R., Adams, G., Kolodinsky, R. W., Hochwarter, W. A., & Ammeter, A. P. (2002). Perceptions of organizational politics: Theory and research directions. In F. J. Yammarino & F. Dansereau (Eds.), *Research in multi-level issues, Volume 1: The many faces of multi-level issues* (pp. 179–254). Oxford: JAI Press.
- Ferris, G. R., Ellen, B. P., III, McCallister, C. P., & Maher, L. P. (2019). Reorganizing organizational politics research: A review of the literature and identification of future research directions. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology & Organizational Behavior*, 6, 299–323. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-012218-015221>
- Ferris, G. R., Frink, D. D., Galang, M. C., Zhou, J., Kacmar, K. M., & Howard, J. L. (1996). Perceptions of organizational politics: Prediction, stress-related implications, and outcomes. *Human Relations*, 49, 233–266. <https://doi.org/10.1177/001872679604900206>
- Ferris, G. R., Harrell-Cook, G., & Dulebohn, J. H. (2000). Organizational politics: The nature of the relationship between politics perceptions and political behavior. In S. B. Bacharach & E. J. Lawler (Eds.), *Research in the Sociology of Organizations* (pp. 89–130). Stamford, CT: JAI Press.

- Ferris, G. R., Russ, G. S., & Fandt, P. M. (1989). Politics in organizations. In R. A. Giacalone & P. Rosenfield (Eds.), *Impression management in the organization* (pp. 143–170). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Foo, M. D., Uy, M. A., & Baron, R. A. (2009). How do feelings influence effort? An empirical study of entrepreneurs' affect and venture effort. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 94*, 1086–1094. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015599>
- Fuller, B., Marler, L. E., Hester, K., & Otondo, R. F. (2015). Leader reactions to follower proactive behavior: Giving credit when credit is due. *Human Relations, 68*, 879–898. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726714548235>
- Fuller, J. B., Barnett, T., Hester, K., Relyea, C., & Frey, L. (2007). An exploratory examination of voice behavior from an impression management perspective. *Journal of Managerial Issues, 19*(1), 134–151. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1471-244X-7-11>
- Grant, A. M., & Ashford, S. J. (2008). The dynamics of proactivity at work. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 28*, 3–34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2008.04.002>
- Grant, A. M., Parker, S. K., & Collins, C. G. (2009). Getting credit for proactive behavior: Supervisor reactions depend on what you value and how you feel. *Personnel Psychology, 62*, 31–55. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2008.01128.x>
- Greenbaum, R. L., Hill, A., Mawritz, M. B., & Quade, M. J. (2017). Employee Machiavellianism to unethical behavior: The role of abusive supervision as a trait

- activator. *Journal of Management*, 43, 585–609.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206314535434>
- Hall, A. T., Hochwarter, W. A., Ferris, G. R., & Bowen, M. G. (2004). The dark side of politics in organizations. In R. W. Griffin & A. O’Leary-Kelly (Eds.), *The dark side of organizational behavior* (pp. 237–261). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Hirschman, A. O. (1970). *Exit, voice, and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organizations, and states*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Hochwarter, W. A., Ellen, B. P., III, & Ferris, G. R. (2014). Examining the interactive effects of accountability, politics, and voice. *Career Development International*, 19, 358–380. <https://doi.org/10.1108/CDI-01-2014-0012>
- Huang, X., Xu, E., Huang, L., & Liu, W. (2018). Nonlinear consequences of promotive and prohibitive voice for managers’ responses: The roles of voice frequency and LMX. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 103, 1101–1120.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000326>
- Hui, C., Lam, S. S. K., & Law, K. K. S. (2000). Instrumental values of organizational citizenship behavior for promotion: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85, 822–828. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.85.5.822>
- James, L. R. (1982). Aggregation bias in estimates of perceptual agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67, 219–229. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.67.2.219>
- Jones, D. N., & Paulhus, D. L. (2009). Machiavellianism. In M. R. Leary & R. H. Hoyle (Eds.), *Individual differences in social behavior* (pp. 93–108). New York: Guilford.

- Kacmar, K. M., & Carlson, D. (1997). Further validation of the Perceptions of Politics Scale (POPS): A multiple sample investigation. *Journal of Management*, 23, 627–658. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(97\)90019-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(97)90019-2)
- Kessler, S. R., Bandelli, A. C., Spector, P. E., Borman, W. C., Nelson, C. E., & Penney, L. M. (2010). Re-examining Machiavelli: A three-dimensional model of Machiavellianism in the workplace. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 40, 1868–1896. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2010.00643.x>
- Kipnis, D., & Schmidt, S. M. (1988). Upward-influence styles: Relationship with performance evaluations, salary, and stress. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 33, 528–542. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2392642>
- Klaas, B. S., Olson-Buchanan, J. B., & Ward, A.-K. (2012). The determinants of alternative forms of workplace voice: An integrative perspective. *Journal of Management*, 38, 314–345. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311423823>
- Kuyumcu, D., & Dahling, J. J. (2014). Constraints for some, opportunities for others? Interactive and indirect effects of Machiavellianism and organizational constraints on task performance ratings. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 29, 301–310. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10869-013-9314-9>
- Lam, W., Huang, X., & Snape, E. D. (2007). Feedback-seeking behavior and leader-member exchange: Do supervisor-attributed motives matter? *Academy of Management Journal*, 50, 348–363. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2007.24634440>
- Lawong, D., McAllister, C., Ferris, G. R., & Hochwarter, W. (2018). Mitigating influence of transcendence on politics perceptions' negative effects. *Journal of*

Managerial Psychology, 33, 176–195. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JMP-09-2017-0337>

LePine, J. A., & Van Dyne, L. (1998). Predicting voice behavior in work groups. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 853–868. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.83.6.853>

Li, C., Liang, J., & Farh, J. L. (in press). Speaking up when water is murky: An uncertainty-based model linking perceived organizational politics to employee voice. *Journal of Management*. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206318798025>

Liang, J., Farh, C. I., & Farh, J. L. (2012). Psychological antecedents of promotive and prohibitive voice: A two-wave examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55, 71–92. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.0176>

Little, T. D., Cunningham, W. A., Shahar, G., & Widaman, K. F. (2002). To parcel or not to parcel: Exploring the question, weighing the merits. *Structural Equation Modeling*, 9, 151–173. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15328007SEM0902_1

Liu, J., Lee, C., Hui, C., Kwan, H. K., & Wu, L. (2013). Idiosyncratic deals and employee outcomes: The mediating roles of social exchange and self-enhancement and the moderating role of individualism. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98, 832–840. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0032571>

Liu, W., Tangirala, S., Lam, W., Chen, Z., Jia, R. T., & Huang, X. (2015). How and when peers' positive mood influences employees' voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100, 976–989. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0038066>

- Liu, W., Zhu, R., & Yang, Y. (2010). I warn you because I like you: Voice behavior, employee identifications, and transformational leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21, 189–202. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.10.014>
- Mayes, B. T., & Ganster, D. C. (1988). Exit and voice: A test of hypotheses based on fight/flight responses to job stress. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 9, 199–216. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.4030090302>
- Maynes, T. D., & Podsakoff, P. M. (2014). Speaking more broadly: An examination of the nature, antecedents, and consequences of an expanded set of employee voice behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99, 87–112. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0034284>
- Methot, J. R., Lepine, J. A., Podsakoff, N. P., & Christian, J. S. (2015). Are workplace friendships a mixed blessing? exploring tradeoffs of multiplex relationships and their associations with job performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 69, 311–355. <https://doi.org/10.1111/peps.12109>
- Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1984). Testing the “side-bet theory” of organizational commitment: Some methodological considerations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69, 372–378. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.69.3.372>
- Miller, D. T. (1999). The norm of self-interest. *American Psychologist*, 54, 1053–1060. <https://doi.org/10.1037//0003-066X.54.12.1053>
- Milliken, F. J., Morrison, E. W., & Hewlin, P. F. (2003). An exploratory study of employee silence: Issues that employees don’t communicate upward and why.

Journal of Management Studies, 40, 1453–1476. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6486.00387>

Mitchell, M. S., Baer, M. D., Ambrose, M. L., Folger, R., & Palmer, N. F. (2018). Cheating under pressure: A self-protection model of workplace cheating behavior.

Journal of Applied Psychology, 103, 54–73. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000254>

Morrison, E. W. (2011). Employee voice behavior: Integration and directions for future research. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 5, 373–412.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/19416520.2011.574506>

Morrison, E. W. (2014). Employee voice and silence. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 1, 173–197.

<https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-031413-091328>

Murnighan, J. K., Cantelon, D. A., & Elyashiv, T. (2001). Bounded personal ethics and the tap dance of real estate agency. In J. Wagner, J. Bartunek, & K. Elsbach (Eds.), *Advances in qualitative organizational research* (Vol. 3, pp. 1–40). New York: JAI Press.

Nagin, D. S., Rebitzer, J. B., Sanders, S., & Taylor, L. J. (2002). Monitoring, motivation, and management: The determinants of opportunistic behavior in a field experiment.

American Economic Review, 92, 850–873.

<https://doi.org/10.1257/00028280260344498>

Ng, T. W., & Feldman, D. C. (2012). Employee voice behavior: A meta-analytic test of the conservation of resources framework. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*,

33, 216–234. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.754>

- O'Boyle, E. H., Forsyth, D. R., Banks, G. C., & McDaniel, M. A. (2012). A meta-analysis of the dark triad and work behavior: A social exchange perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(3), 557–579. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0025679>
- Parker, S. K., & Collins, C. G. (2010). Taking stock: Integrating and differentiating multiple proactive behaviors. *Journal of Management, 36*, 633–662. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206308321554>
- Rosen, C. C., Harris, K. J., & Kacmar, K. M. (2009). The emotional implications of organizational politics: A process model. *Human Relations, 62*, 27–57. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726708099836>
- Schwartz, B. (1986). *The battle for human nature*. New York: Norton.
- Seibert, S. E., Kraimer, M. L., & Crant, J. M. (2001). What do proactive people do? A longitudinal model linking proactive personality and career success. *Personnel Psychology, 54*, 845–874. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2001.tb00234.x>
- Sun, S., & Chen, H. (2017). Is political behavior a viable coping strategy to perceived organizational politics? Unveiling the underlying resource dynamics. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 102*, 1471–1482. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000239>
- Tangirala, S., Kamdar, D., Venkataramani, V., & Parke, M. R. (2013). Doing right versus getting ahead: The effects of duty and achievement orientations on employees' voice. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*, 1040–1050. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0033855>
- Treadway, D. C., Ferris, G. R., Hochwarter, W., Perrewé, P., Witt, L. A., & Goodman, J. M. (2005). The role of age in the perceptions of politics—job performance

- relationship: A three-study constructive replication. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 872–881. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.5.872>
- Treadway, D. C., Hochwarter, W. A., Kacmar, C. J., & Ferris, G. R. (2005). Political will, political skill, and political behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 229–245. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.310>
- Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Botero, I. C. (2003). Conceptualizing employee silence and employee voice as multidimensional constructs. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40, 1359–1392. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-6486.00384>
- Van Dyne, L., & LePine, J. A. (1998). Helping and voice extra-role behaviors: Evidence of construct and predictive validity. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41, 108–119. <https://doi.org/10.5465/256902>
- Wang, L., & Murnighan, J. K. (2011). On greed. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 5, 279–316. <https://doi.org/10.5465/19416520.2011.588822>
- Watkins, M. B., Ren, R., Boswell, W. R., Umphress, E. E., Triana, M. D., & Zardkoohi, A. (2012). Your work is interfering with our life! The influence of a significant other on employee job search activity. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 85, 531–538. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8325.2011.02050.x>
- Wayne, S. J., & Ferris, G. R. (1990). Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: A laboratory experiment and field study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 487–499. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.75.5.487>

- Weiss, M., & Morrison, E. W. (2019). Speaking up and moving up: How voice can enhance employees' social status. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *40*, 5–19. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2262>
- Williams, L. J., & Anderson, S. E. (1991). Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management*, *17*, 601–617. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639101700305>
- Witt, L. A., Andrews, M. C., & Kacmar, K. M. (2000). The role of participation in decision-making in the organizational politics-job satisfaction relationship. *Human Relations*, *53*, 341–358. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726700533003>
- Wu, C. H., Liu, J., Kwan, H. K., & Lee, C. (2016). Why and when workplace ostracism inhibits organizational citizenship behaviors: An organizational identification perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*, 362–378. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000063>
- Yun, S., Takeuchi, R., & Liu, W. (2007). Employee self-enhancement motives and job performance behaviors: Investigating the moderating effects of employee role ambiguity and managerial perceptions of employee commitment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *92*, 745–756. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.3.745>
- Zagenczyk, T. J., Restubog, S. L. D., Kiewitz, C., Kiazad, K., & Tang, R. L. (2014). Psychological contracts as a mediator between Machiavellianism and employee citizenship and deviant behaviors. *Journal of Management*, *40*, 1098–1122. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311415420>

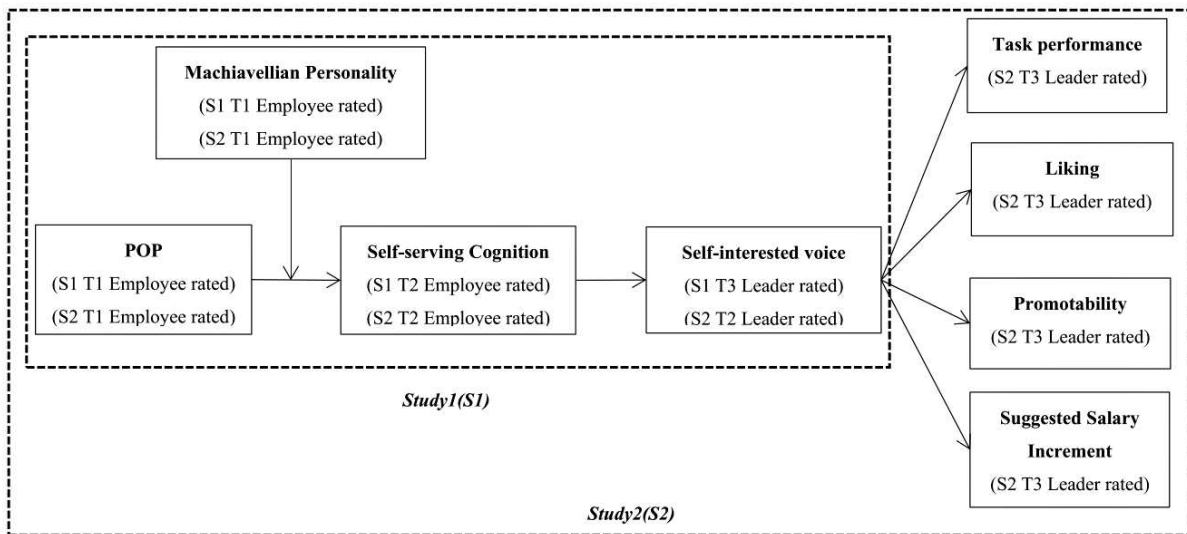


Figure 1. Research model

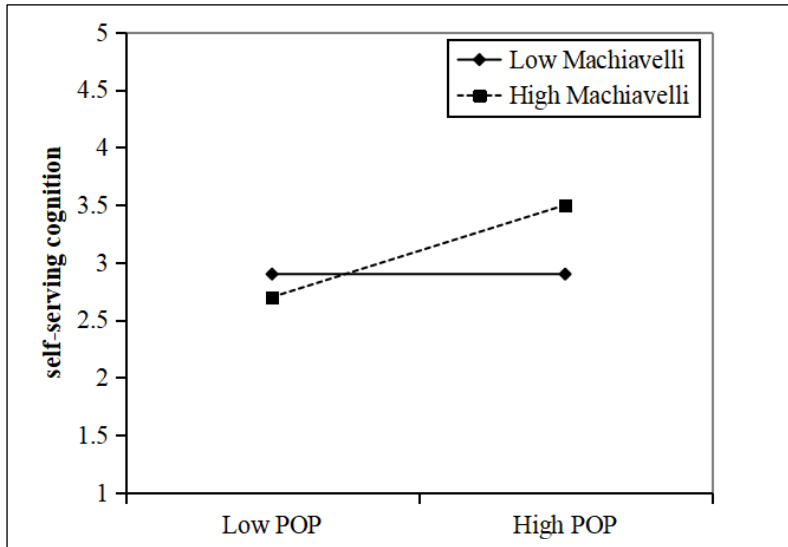


Figure 2. Moderation effect of Machiavellian personality on the relationship between POP and self-serving cognition (Study 1)

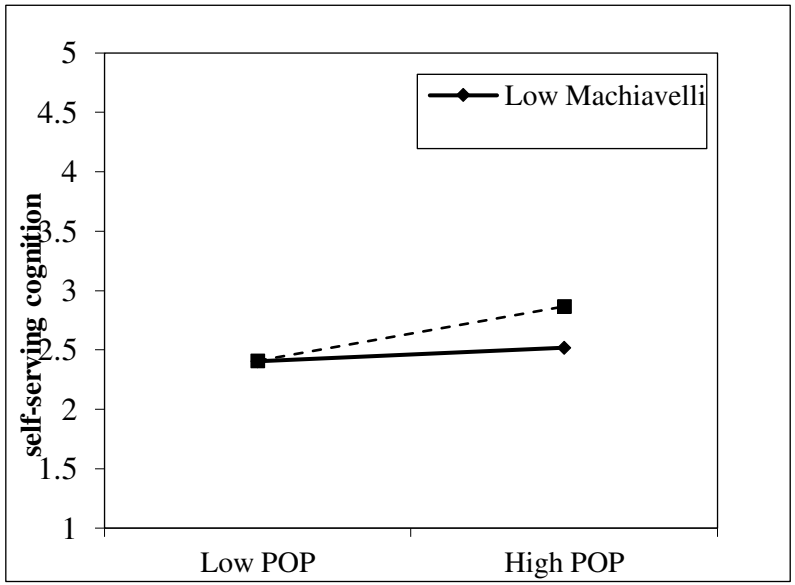


Figure 3. Moderation effect of Machiavellian personality on the relationship between POP and self-serving cognition (Study 2)

Table 1. Pattern matrix of the factor analysis

Measurement items	Factor loading	Factor loading
	(EFA)	(CFA)
SIV1 I develop and make recommendations to the leader concerning issues that affect my interests.	0.642	0.575
SIV2 I speak up and influence the leader regarding issues that affect my interests.	0.639	0.526
SIV3 I communicate to the leader about my opinions only on issues relevant to my interests.	0.625	0.593
SIV4 I frequently make suggestions about how to do things to fit my interests.	0.797	0.788
SIV5 I often speak up with suggestions to work projects in order to make my benefit from it.	0.747	0.710
SIV6 I often speak up about how to solve work-related problems from my end.	0.746	0.793
SIV7 I frequently make suggestions to the leader about how to change work methods or practices to fit my interests.	0.777	0.825
SIV8 I regularly propose ideas to the leader for pursuing my interests.	0.740	0.807

Table 2. Means, SD, correlations among variables in scale development study (n = 362)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Gender	0.53	.50														
2 Age	32.35	6.83	-.03													
3 Org. tenure	9.00	7.38	-.06	.87***												
4 Education	2.50	1.12	.08	-.10	-.12*											
5 SIV	2.02	.72	-.03	-.13*	-.17**	.18***	(.89)									
6 Defensive [†]	1.66	.78	-.08	-.11*	-.13*	.02	.41***	(.91)								
7 Destructive	1.40	.67	-.08	-.13*	-.13*	-.03	.39***	.64***	(.93)							
8 Constructive	3.48	.83	-.12*	.13*	.12*	.05	.08	-.10	-.16**	(.91)						
9 Supportive	3.58	.87	-.06	.06	.05	.21***	.01	-.21**	-.24***	.48***	(.93)					
10 Promotive	3.55	.79	-.14**	.22***	.21***	.12*	.01	-.11*	-.20***	.63***	.52***	(.93)				
11 Prohibitive	3.33	.83	-.14**	.19***	.22***	-.21***	-.03	-.09	-.12*	.50***	.36***	.66***	(.89)			
12 Prosocial	3.52	.65	-.18**	.10*	.12*	.16**	.02	-.05	-.14**	.52***	.43***	.66***	.49***	(.81)		
13 Acquiescent	2.98	.78	.09	-.05	-.15**	.04	.10	.17**	.15**	-.11*	-.10	-.08	-.10	.04	(.84)	
14 Defensive [‡]	2.41	.88	.14**	-.08	-.11*	.01	.17**	.34***	.35***	-.31***	-.33***	-.28***	-.27***	-.20***	.57***	(.91)

Notes: n = 362. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. Education: 1 = high school and below, 2 = college, 3 = university degree, 4 = master's degree and above. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

[†] Defensive voice from Maynes and Podsakoff (2014); [‡] defensive voice from Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003).

Table 3. Confirmatory factor analysis for scale development study (n = 362)

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA
Five-factor (SIV, supportive, destructive, constructive, defensive [†])	631.11	340	1.86	0.94	0.94	0.05	0.05
Four-factor (SIV + constructive, supportive, destructive, defensive [†])	1536.41	344	4.47	0.77	0.75	0.15	0.10
Four-factor (SIV + supportive, constructive, destructive, defensive [†])	1733.67	344	5.04	0.73	0.70	0.16	0.11
Four-factor (SIV + destructive, supportive, constructive, defensive [†])	1350.88	344	3.93	0.81	0.79	0.11	0.09
Four-factor (SIV + defensive, [†] supportive, destructive, constructive)	1280.59	344	3.72	0.82	0.80	0.10	0.09
Four-factor (SIV, prosocial, acquiescent, defensive [‡])	506.53	224	2.26	0.91	0.90	0.07	0.06
Three-factor (SIV + prosocial, acquiescent, defensive [‡])	969.48	227	4.27	0.77	0.75	0.12	0.10
Three-factor (SIV + acquiescent, prosocial, defensive [‡])	1091.08	227	4.81	0.74	0.71	0.15	0.10
Three-factor (SIV+ defensive, [‡] prosocial, acquiescent)	1490.91	227	6.57	0.61	0.57	0.17	0.12
Three-factor (SIV, promotive, prohibitive)	283.573	132	2.15	0.95	0.94	0.06	0.06
Two-factor (SIV + promotive, prohibitive)	1518.68	134	11.33	0.56	0.50	0.25	0.17
Two-factor (SIV + prohibitive, promotive)	1181.63	134	8.82	0.67	0.62	0.24	0.15

Notes: + = combination of variables; [†] defensive voice from Maynes and Podsakoff (2014); [‡] defensive voice from Van Dyne, Ang, and Botero (2003).

Table 4. Confirmatory factor analysis for Study 1 (n = 262)

Model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$
Four-factor model	394.23	146	2.70	0.92	0.90	0.05	0.08	
Three-factor model [†]	578.91	149	3.89	0.86	0.84	0.12	0.11	$\Delta\chi^2(3) = 184.68^{***}$
Three-factor model [‡]	408.14	149	2.74	0.90	0.90	0.06	0.08	$\Delta\chi^2(3) = 13.91^{**}$
Three-factor model [§]	793.32	149	5.32	0.79	0.76	0.10	0.13	$\Delta\chi^2(3) = 399.09^{***}$
Two-factor model [¶]	1040.01	151	6.89	0.71	0.67	0.16	0.15	$\Delta\chi^2(5) = 645.78^{***}$
One-factor model ^α	1358.63	152	8.94	0.60	0.55	0.15	0.17	$\Delta\chi^2(6) = 964.40^{***}$

Notes: Four-factor model includes perceived organizational politics (POP), self-serving cognition, SIV and Machiavellian personality.

[†] Combined POP and self-serving cognition into one factor; [‡] combined POP and Machiavellian personality into one factor; [§] combined SIV and self-serving cognition into one factor; [¶] combined POP, Machiavellian personality and self-serving cognition into one factor; ^α combined all variables into one factor.

Table 5. Means, SD, correlations among variables in Study 1 (n = 262)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1 Leader gender	0.26	0.44										
2 Leader age	36.25	7.41	.09									
3 Leader tenure	4.54	3.59	.16*	.60***								
4 Employee gender	0.49	0.50	.21**	.04	-.06							
5 Employee age	30.18	6.65	.12	.36***	.11	.11						
6 Work tenure with leader	2.98	2.82	-.09	.32***	.20**	.03	.54***					
7 POP	2.70	0.51	.18**	.08	-.09	.24***	.15*	.03	<i>(.72)</i>			
8 Machiavellian personality	2.18	0.74	.07	-.13*	-.20**	.10	.06	-.05	.56***	<i>(.92)</i>		
9 Self-serving cognition	3.12	0.80	.05	.11	.12	-.06	-.07	-.05	.12	.19**	<i>(.85)</i>	
10 SIV	2.38	0.94	-.11	-.07	-.01	.00	-.02	-.06	.24***	.34***	.35***	<i>(.94)</i>

Notes: M = mean, SD = standard deviation. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$. Cronbach's alpha in italics. POP = Perceived organizational politics.

Table 6. Results of complex model-based path analysis for Study 1 (n = 262)

	Self-serving cognition	SIV
<i>Intercept</i>	2.28(.37) ^{***}	.43(.58)
Leader gender	.07(.12)	-.41(.18) [*]
Leader age	.02(.01)	-.02(.01)
Leader tenure	.02(.02)	.03(.02)
Employee gender	-.07(.09)	.02(.11)
Employee age	-.01(.02)	.01(.01)
Work tenure with leader	-.01(.02)	-.02(.01)
POP	.09(.10)	.45(.13) ^{***}
Mach	.11(.09)	
POP × Mach	.18(.04) ^{***}	
Self-serving cognition		.40(.08) ^{***}
<i>R</i> ²	.14	.22

Notes: Unstandardized coefficients are reported. Standard errors in parentheses. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. POP = perceived organizational politics, Mach = Machiavellian personality.

All results came from a path model that included all variables: controls, predictors, mediator, moderator, interaction term, and dependent variables. ^{***} $p < 0.001$, ^{**} $p < 0.01$, ^{*} $p < 0.05$.

Table 7. Confirmatory factor analysis for Study 2 (n = 282)

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	SRMR	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$
Eight-factor model	976.73	499	1.96	0.91	0.90	0.06	0.05	
Seven-factor model [†]	998.76	506	1.97	0.90	0.89	0.06	0.06	$\Delta\chi^2(7) = 22.03^{**}$
Seven-factor model [‡]	1121.06	506	2.22	0.88	0.88	0.07	0.07	$\Delta\chi^2(7) = 144.33^{***}$
Seven-factor model [§]	1084.82	506	2.14	0.89	0.88	0.06	0.06	$\Delta\chi^2(7) = 108.09^{***}$
Seven-factor model [¶]	1620.23	506	3.20	0.80	0.77	0.13	0.09	$\Delta\chi^2(7) = 643.50^{***}$
Seven-factor model ^α	1159.25	506	2.29	0.88	0.87	0.06	0.07	$\Delta\chi^2(7) = 182.52^{***}$
Seven-factor model ^β	1163.14	506	2.30	0.88	0.87	0.06	0.07	$\Delta\chi^2(7) = 186.41^{***}$
Six-factor model ^γ	1309.95	512	2.56	0.85	0.84	0.07	0.07	$\Delta\chi^2(13) = 333.22^{***}$
Six-factor model ^δ	1801.52	512	3.52	0.76	0.74	0.10	0.10	$\Delta\chi^2(13) = 824.79^{***}$
Six-factor model ^ε	1272.73	512	2.49	0.86	0.85	0.06	0.07	$\Delta\chi^2(13) = 296.00^{***}$
Five-factor model ^ζ	1985.50	517	3.84	0.73	0.71	0.10	0.10	$\Delta\chi^2(18) = 1008.77^{***}$
One-factor model ^η	4216.87	527	8.00	0.32	0.28	0.19	0.16	$\Delta\chi^2(28) = 3240.14^{***}$

Notes: Eight-factor model includes perceived organizational politics (POP), self-serving cognition, SIV, Machiavellian personality (Mach), promotability, suggested salary increment, task performance, and liking.

[†] Combined POP and Mach into one factor; [‡] combined POP and self-serving cognition into one factor; [§] combined promotability and suggested salary increment into one factor; [¶] combined promotability and task performance into one factor; ^α combined promotability and liking into one factor; ^β combined suggested salary increment and liking into one factor; ^γ combined POP, Mach, and self-serving cognition into one factor; ^δ combined promotability, suggested salary increment, and task performance into one factor; ^ε combined promotability, suggested salary increment, and liking into one factor; ^ζ combined promotability, suggested salary increment, task performance, and liking into one factor; ^η combined all variables into one factor.

*** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$.

Table 8. Means, SD, correlations among variables in Study 2 (n = 282)

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	
1 Leader gender	0.34	0.47																	
2 Leader age	40.74	7.44	-.06																
3 Leader tenure	12.52	8.80	-.16**	.61***															
4 Employee gender	0.49	0.50	.05	-.01	-.02														
5 Employee age	32.53	6.99	-.14*	.33***	.32***	-.01													
6 Work tenure with leader	4.14	5.06	-.14*	.28***	.46***	-.01	.38***												
7 POP	2.95	0.51	.03	-.15*	-.15*	-.08	.01	-.13*	<i>(.77)</i>										
8 Machiavellian personality	2.49	0.75	.01	-.22***	-.14*	-.05	-.11	-.11	.54***	<i>(.92)</i>									
9 Self-serving cognition	3.16	0.74	.16**	-.26***	-.21***	-.03	-.14*	-.24***	.34***	.32***	<i>(.83)</i>								
10 SIV	2.27	0.90	-.19**	-.26***	-.40***	-.06	-.15*	-.26***	.29***	.43***	.33***	<i>(.92)</i>							
11 Promotability	3.33	0.88	-.06	-.08	-.08	-.11	-.13*	-.06	-.12*	-.20**	-.04	-.06	<i>(.88)</i>						
12 Suggested salary increase	3.48	0.84	-.08	-.07	-.06	-.08	-.07	-.01	-.15*	-.24**	-.05	-.14*	.73***	<i>(.90)</i>					
13 Liking	3.47	0.81	-.08	-.05	-.07	.01	-.02	.02	-.10	-.29***	-.04	-.22***	.68***	.71***	<i>(.89)</i>				
14 Task performance	3.66	0.76	-.11	-.06	.04	.02	.02	.07	-.28***	-.27***	-.15**	-.21**	.50***	.47***	.49***	<i>(.89)</i>			
15 Emotional exhaustion	2.76	0.99	.17**	-.03	-.05	-.00	-.05	-.10	.26***	-.29***	.21***	.20**	-.17**	-.16*	-.23***	-.29***	<i>(.89)</i>		
16 Affective commitment	3.29	0.70	-.07	-.06	.05	-.04	-.04	.00	-.13*	-.12*	.00	-.10	.21**	.16*	.23***	.19**	-.25***	<i>(.87)</i>	

Note: M = mean, SD = Standard deviation. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. *** $p < 0.001$, ** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$. Cronbach's alpha in italics. POP = perceived organizational politics.

Table 9. Results of complex model-based path analysis for Study 2 (n = 282)

	Self-serving cognition	SIV	Liking	Promotability	Suggested salary increment	Task performance
<i>Intercept</i>	2.26(.56) ^{***}	1.14(.57) [*]	3.75(.55) ^{***}	4.26 (.61) ^{***}	4.64 (.63) ^{***}	5.39 (.61) ^{***}
Leader gender	.20(.09) [*]	-.18(.13)	-.05(.12)	-.08(.13)	-.09(.12)	-.06(.11)
Leader age	-.02(.01) [*]	.00(.01)	.00(.01)	-.00(.01)	-.00(.01)	-.02(.01) [*]
Leader tenure	.00(.01)	-.03(.01)	-.02(.01)	-.01(.01)	-.01(.01)	.00(.01)
Employee gender	-.00(.08)	-.10(.10)	-.01(.09)	-.21(.10) [*]	-.15(.10)	-.00(.09)
Employee age	-.00(.01)	.00(.01)	.00(.01)	-.01(.01)	-.01(.01)	.01(.01)
Work tenure with leader	-.02(.01) [*]	-.01(.01)	.01(.01)	-.00(.01)	.00(.01)	.00(.01)
Emotional exhaustion	.07(.06)	.07(.07)	-.12(.05) [*]	-.09(.06)	-.06(.05)	-.14(.05) ^{**}
Affective commitment	.05(.07)	-.05(.07)	.20(.06) ^{***}	.20(.07) ^{**}	.12(.08)	.11(.05)
POP	.28(.10) ^{**}	.27(.12) [*]	-.01(.13)	-.13(.12)	-.17(.11)	-.29(.09) ^{**}
Mach	.11(.07)					
POP × Mach	.21(.07) ^{**}					
Self-serving cognition		.21(.08) ^{**}	.06(.08)	-.02(.09)	.02(.07)	-.04(.06)
SIV			-.23(.08) ^{**}	-.05(.07)	-.14(.07) [*]	-.09(.05)
<i>R</i> ²	.24	.28	.14	.10	.09	.17

Note: Unstandardized coefficients are reported. Standard errors in parentheses. Gender: 0 = male, 1 = female. POP = perceived organizational politics, Mach = Machiavellian personality.

All results came from a path model that included all variables: controls, predictors, mediator, moderator, interaction term, and dependent variables. ^{***} $p < 0.001$, ^{**} $p < 0.01$, ^{*} $p < 0.05$.