Perspectives in Communication Studies

Festschrift in Honor of Prof. Dr. Ayseli Usluata

Edited by Ayşe Binay Kurultay
and Burcu Sabuncuoğlu Peksevgen

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Bibliographic Information published by the Deutsche Nationalbibliothek
The Deutsche Nationalbibliothek lists this publication in the Deutsche Nationalbibliografie; detailed bibliographic data is available in the internet at http://dnb.d-nb.de.

Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data
Names: Kurultay, Ayşe Binay, 1975- editor. | Usluata, Ayseli, honoree.
Title: Perspectives in communication studies : festschrift in honor of Prof. Dr. Ayseli Usluata / edited by Ayşe Binay Kurultay and Burcu Sabuncuoğlu Peksevgen.
Description: Frankfurt am Main ; New York : Peter Lang, [2016]
Identifiers: LCCN 2016016197 | ISBN 9783631675328
Subjects: LCSH: Communication in organizations. | Communication in management. | Business communication.
Classification: LCC HD30.3 .P4595 2016 | DDC 302.2—dc23
LC record available at https://lccn.loc.gov/2016016197

The views expressed are purely those of writers and may not in any circumstances be regarded as stating an official position of Kadir Has University, nor the Editors of the book.

ISBN 978-3-631-67532-8 (Print)
E-ISBN 978-3-653-06948-8 (E-Book)
E-ISBN 978-3-631-69614-9 (EPUB)
E-ISBN 978-3-631-69615-6 (MOBI)
DOI 10.3726/978-3-653-06948-8

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Internationaler Verlag der Wissenschaften
Frankfurt am Main 2016
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Peter Lang Edition is an Imprint of Peter Lang GmbH.

Peter Lang – Frankfurt am Main · Bern · Bruxelles · New York · Oxford · Warszawa · Wien

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This publication has been peer reviewed.

www.peterlang.com

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Personality, Values and Career Concerns as the Employee Related Antecedents of Influence/ Political Tactics in Organizations

Strategic interpersonal behavior to shape or influence impressions formed by an audience is not a new field. Plato spoke of the "stage of human life" and Shakespeare crafted the famous sentence "All the world's a stage, and all the men and women merely players" (Leary & Kowalski, 1990, p. 1). In the 20th century, Erving Goffman also followed a dramaturgical analogy in his seminal book *The Presentation of Self in Everyday Life* in which he said, "All the world is not, of course, a stage, but the crucial ways in which it isn't are not easy to specify" (Leary & Kowalski, 1990, p. 3).

Most of social life involves influencing other people and being influenced by them. Although many of us do not like to see ourselves as engaged in a continual struggle for social influence, people spend a great deal of their time trying to lead others to respond as they would like. People try to influence others through a variety of means. They may try to persuade them through reason or appeals to emotion, play upon their sympathy, provide incentives for desired behavior, shame them into compliance, or threaten them into submission. One important set of tactics for influencing other people involves self-presentational behaviors. Self-presentation (which is also called impression management) involves the process by which people attempt to control the impressions others form of them (Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Schlenker, 1980).

Self-presentation allows people to maximize their reward-cost ratio as they deal with others (Schlenker, 1980). Conveying the right impression increases the likelihood that one will obtain desired outcomes and avoid undesired outcomes. Some such outcomes are interpersonal in nature, such as approval, friendship, assistance, power, and so on. Other such outcomes are material. For example, being viewed as competent may result in a raise in salary or in better working conditions. The use of impression management in the acquisition of desired social and material outcomes has been widely studied and well documented (Schlenker, 1980; Tedeschi, 1981).

During the recent years, impression management has become an avenue of research within the organizational behavior literature as well; for instance in terms of leadership (Wayne & Green, 1993), performance evaluation (Wayne & Liden, 1995) and job interviews (Stevens & Kristof, 1995). Today's organizations

are organic structures in which individuals who have different goals continually interact and communicate with each other. Organizational political behavior is described as employees' set of behaviors towards other people in order to influence them and to attain power and resources in line with their benefits or those of their groups that represent them (Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson, 1980). Since organizations have limited resources and most of the organizational members are rivals for these resources, political behavior and the use of political tactics in organizations is inevitable (Robins, 2001).

One of the most important studies on organizational political behavior was carried out by Kipnis et al. (1980) whereby the researchers identified 370 tactics based on essays college students wrote on the topic "how to get my way." They found eight dimensions of influence: assertiveness, ingratiation, rationality, sanctions, exchange, upward appeal, blocking, and coalitions. Search of the literature consistently revealed similar influence tactics (Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl, Falbe & Youn, 1993; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

Kipnis et al.'s (1980) typology gathers together the following influence tactics: (1) *assertiveness (*using demands, threats, or persistent reminders to influence others to reach one's goals); (2) *sanctions* (using the reward and punishment systems of the organization over the target person in order to achieve one's goals); (3) *blocking* (forcing the target person in order to make him/her do what one wants by threatening him/her); (4) *upward appeal (*reaching one's goals through demanding help from the higher rank management); (5) *coalitions* (persuading the target by forming an alliance with other employees and by getting support from them in order to achieve one's goals); (6) *exchange of favors* (suggesting to give in return and/or share the benefits (favors) in the future if the target person agrees to help the agent do the task); (7) *ingratiation* (influencing the target person through compliments, and similar behaviors in line with his/her goals to gain compliance from him/her); and (8) *rationality* (persuading the target person through rational suggestions and realistic evidence). In addition to Kipnis et al.'s (1980) work, Jones and Pitman (1982) separated self-presentation (showing one's abilities and special skills as more perfect than they actually are in order to gain favorable outputs such as promotion, wage increase, etc.) from ingratiation. In later studies (eg.; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988), sanctions and blocking were left out of this taxonomy due to conceptual problems and lack of use.

The political behavior literature groups the antecedents of political tactics under the two basic headings of organizational and personal factors. Ambiguity, organizational structure, and organizational climate are the most correlated organizational variables with political behavior among others (Parker, Dipboye and Jackson,

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1995; Ferris and King, 1991). Ferris and Kacmar (1992) stated that formalization, centralization, hierarchy and span of control are antecedents of political behavior among structural factors. According to the authors, by decreasing the uncertainty level in organizations, high formalization decreases perceptions of political behavior. Gandz & Murray (1980) further stated that in hierarchical organizational structures, lower level employees' perceptions of political behavior increase since they have no control over decisions. Among various studies, organizational justice was also researched as a possible antecedent of political behavior and a positive correlation was found between dimensions of organizational justice perceptions and political behavior (Günaydın, 2001).

Among individual characteristics that are correlated to political behavior in the literature are social needs; sources of motivation; and Machiavellian personality characteristics (Barbuto, Fritz & Marx, 2002; Barbuto & Scholl, 1999; O'Conner & Morrison, 2001). Moreover, employees' career concerns, gender and their investment to their organization can also be listed as other individual antecedents (Barbuto et al., 2002; Grams & Rogers, 1990; Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003).

In literature, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, job engagement, anxiety related to the job and the intention to quit have been investigated as consequences of political behavior (Ferris and Kacmar, 1992). Moreover, studies about the relationship between political tactics and human resources decisions such as good performance evaluation results, promotion and increase in salaries can be found in literature. One of the most comprehensive studies on political tactics and human resources decisions was carried out by Higgins, Judge and Ferris (2003). In their meta-analysis, Higgins et al., analyzed 31 studies that were carried out between 1973 and 2000 and examined the relationship between influence tactics and human resources decisions such as performance evaluation, promotion and salary raise. The results show that there is a significant relationship between political tactics and performance evaluation scores. These results show that political tactics have an impact on reaching various career objectives.

Influence Tactics and Personality Traits

McCrae and Costa (1989) define personality as enduring emotional, interpersonal, experiential, attitudinal, and motivational styles that explain behavior in different situations. Whereas numerous personality traits have captured the attention of psychologists over time, there is agreement among personality researchers that the Five-Factor Model (FFM) provides a comprehensive structure for the study of personality (Wiggins & Trapnell, 1997). The five-factor model (FFM) of personality describes the basic dimensions of the normal personality. These

dimensions include: Extraversion (sociable, active, energetic), Agreeableness (cooperative, considerate, trusting), Conscientiousness (dependable, organized, persistent), Emotional Stability (calm, secure, unemotional), and Openness to Experience (imaginative, intellectual, artistically sensitive) (Mount, Barrick, Scullen & Rounds, 2005).

Individuals high in agreeableness are described as altruistic, trusting, cooperative, compliant, and "moved by others' needs" (Costa & McCrae, 1992). Regarding the use of political tactics, Graziano, Jensen-Campbell and Hair (1996) found that agreeable individuals preferred interpersonal tactics that were oriented toward conflict resolution and away from power assertion tactics. Thus, individuals scoring high on agreeableness should be less likely to employ legitimizing tactics (which hinge on asserting the authority to make a change) and also should be less likely to use pressure tactics (which include demands and interpersonal hostility). Thus,

H1: *Employees scoring high on agreeableness will be less likely to adopt political tactics that emphasize legitimizing and pressure.*

The hallmarks of conscientiousness are dutifulness, orderliness and achievement orientation. Conscientious individuals are ambitious, practical, task-focused and persistent, as well as planned, careful and organized (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Mount & Barrick, 1995). In terms of influence tactics, individuals scoring high on conscientiousness should be more likely to use rational persuasion since this tactic is consistent with a careful, practical, thorough and organized disposition. Thus,

H2: *Employees scoring high on conscientiousness will be more likely to adopt political tactics that emphasize rational persuasion.*

Extraverts are generally positive, social, energetic, joyful, and interested in other people (Watson & Clark, 1997). In addition to these trait descriptors, many conceptualizations of extraversion also include adjectives such as dominant, assertive, domineering and forceful (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Trapnell & Wiggins, 1990). Thus, in terms of influence tactics, extraverted individuals should be more likely to engage in inspirational appeal, ingratiation and personal appeal. In general, all three of these tactics require connecting with or engaging others in a positive, friendly manner, which are the behaviors of extraverts (Watson & Clark, 1997). Thus,

H3: *Employees who score high on extraversion will be more likely to adopt political tactics that emphasize ingratiation, and upward appeal.*

Emotionally stable individuals are calm and secure; while those who score low on measures of emotional stability are likely to be anxious, emotional, embarrassed and depressed (Wiggins, 1996). These descriptions of emotional stability appear

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relevant to two types of influence tactics: rational persuasion and inspirational appeal. Theoretically, people who are calm, secure and stable are more likely to use logic and rational persuasion when trying to influence others. Indeed, Morelli and Andrews (1980) found that those low in emotional stability were less likely to hold rational views in a number of respects. Thus;

H4: *Employees who score high in emotional stability will be more likely to adopt political tactics that emphasize rational persuasion.*

Individuals high in openness to experience are described as creative, inquisitive, introspective, and attentive to inner feelings (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Hofstee, DeRaad, & Goldberg, 1992). Of the Big Five traits, openness is the best predictor of artistic and scientific creativity (Feist, 1998). Inspiration is closely linked to creativity (Martindale, 1989) and it can be a tool to persuade and influence other people. Moreover, in their research on the antecedents of risk taking behavior in different realms of life, Nicholson, Soane, Fenton-O'Creevy and Willman (2005) found that overall risk taking tendency is related to a high openness to experience and extraversion. We can thus expect risky and inspirational influence tactics from the people that are high in openness to experience. However, regarding the influence tactics in this study, we could not specify a clear hypothesis for openness to experience; hence we aimed to conduct the analyses related to that dimension for exploration.

Influence Tactics and Values

The theory of basic human values defines values as desirable, trans-situational goals that vary in importance as guiding principles in people's lives (Kluckhohn, 1951; Rokeach, 1973). Schwartz and Bilsky (1987) derived ten motivationally distinct types of values from those universal requirements: self-direction, stimulation, hedonism, achievement, power, security, conformity, tradition, benevolence, and universalism. Furthermore, they organized those value types on two superordinate bipolar dimensions according to conflicts and compatibilities among them, which are: *openness to change* (self-direction, stimulation) versus *conservation* (conformity, tradition, security); and *self-enhancement* (power, achievement, hedonism) versus *self-transcendence* (universalism, benevolence).

We can briefly summarize the definitions of these ten values as follows: P*ower* is related to the importance given to social status and the desire to establish dominance over other people; *Achievement* is related to valuing success and impressing other people with one's achievements; *Hedonism* is related to seeking pleasure in life; *Stimulation* is about excitement and challenge seeking; *Self-Direction* is

related to independence of thought and action; *Universalism* is related to the preoccupation with the well-being of others and nature; *Benevolence* is related to the willingness to help others; *Tradition* is related to valuing customs and traditions; *Conformity* is about adhering to the rules of the group and society, and *Security* is related to valuing steadiness and safety of relationships and self (Hinz, Brahler, Schmidt & Albani, 2005).

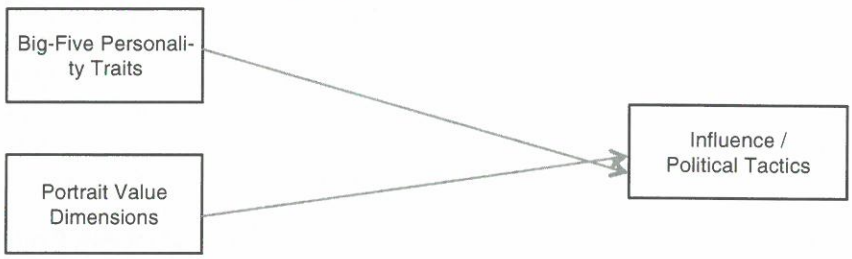
Like basic values, work values are beliefs pertaining to desirable end-states (e.g. high pay) or behavior (e.g. working with people). A commonly used differentiation in this domain is in intrinsic, extrinsic, and social **work values** (Ginzberg, Ginsburg, Axelrad, & Herma, 1951). Intrinsic **work values** refer to the degree to which employees value immaterial aspects of their jobs that allow for self-expression as important, for example, job variety and autonomy. Extrinsic **work values** refer to the degree to which employees value material or instrumental **work aspects**, such as salary and opportunity for promotion, as important. Social **work values** refer to the degree to which employees find it important to have a good **relationship** with their coworkers and supervisors.

Thus, in line with the above review, we hypothesize that among the sample of the present study:

H5: *The effects of extrinsic work values (power, achievement and hedonism) on political tactics will be stronger than those of intrinsic and social work values.*

The aim of this paper is to investigate the effects of two individual level antecedents; namely personality traits and values on the political behavior of employees. The general framework showing the research model of the study is presented below in Figure 1.

Figure 1: The theoretical research model



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Method

Participants

190 full-time employees working in different corporations in Istanbul completed the questionnaires. The mean age of the participants was 33.20 and the median age was 32; the ages ranged between 21 and 62 with a standard deviation of 8.24. The other demographic characteristics of the participants are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of the Participants

	Mean	Median	Mod	Sd	Range
Age:	33.2	32	30	8.24	41
Tenure in Company	6.14	5	1	6.10	40
Tenure in Department	6.04	5	1	6.35	40
Total Work Experience	10.16	9	2	7,38	35
Frequencies					
Gender	Female: 90	Male: 100			
Marital Status	Married: 108	Single: 82			
Education Level:	PhD: 10	Master: 37	Bachelor Degree: 81	Undergraduate: 62	
Position:	Managerial Positions: 59	Other Positions: 131			

Measures

The Big Five Inventory (BFI): 44 Item BFI was used to assess the personality characteristics of the participants according to the Big Five Model. This is a self-report inventory developed by John, Donahue, and Kentle (1991), translated and adapted into various languages. We used a 6 point scale ranging from 1 "Totally disagree" to 6 "Totally Agree". The Cronbach α coefficients calculated with this data showed that the five personality dimensions are reliably measured, with internal reliability coefficients as follows; Extraversion: .75, Conscientiousness: .77 (item 13 excluded), Neuroticism: .70 (item 34 excluded), Openness: .77 and Agreeableness: .70 (item 22 excluded).

Portrait Values Questionnaire: This questionnaire is one of the well-known questionnaires aimed to measure the personal values of the participants, which was developed by Schwartz et al. (2001). The Questionnaire contains 40 items and the participants were asked to evaluate the extend they resemble to the person described in the statement of each item with a 6 point scale ranging between 1 "not

like me at all" and 6 "very much like me". In this study, the four main dimensions overarching the 10 sub-dimensions were used for analysis as the internal reliability coefficients of the scales were taken into consideration. The internal reliability coefficients of the main dimensions for this data are as follows: Items measuring the basic values of Self-direction, Stimulation and Hedonism were included into the reliability analysis. However, 37th, 10th and 1st items were excluded as they decreased the internal reliability coefficient of the Openness to Change dimension. As a result the Cronbach α coefficient for the items measuring Openness to Change dimension was found to be .68. For determining the Cronbach α coefficients of Self-Enhancement the items of Hedonism, Achievement and Power were inserted into the analysis. As items 4 and 2 decreased the internal reliability of the scale they were counted out in the final analysis and the Cronbach α for Self-Enhancement dimension was .70 in the end. To calculate the Cronbach α for Self-Transcendence dimension, items measuring Universalism and Benevolence values were considered; and with a Cronbach α coefficient of .75 the internal reliability of the scale was found to be satisfactory. Items measuring the basic values of Security, Conformity and Tradition were reckoned to conduct the reliability analysis for Conservatism; and it revealed that these items formed a dimension with a high internal consistency of .80

Influence Tactics Questionnaire: The 28-item Influence Tactics Questionnaire was used to determine the tendency of participants to use political tactics. The items measuring the dimensions of Coalition, Self-Presentation, Ingratiation, Upward Appeal and Exchange of Favors were acquired from the Turkish version of the Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson's (1980) questionnaire that was previously used in the Turkish context. The items measuring Rationalization and Assertiveness were developed by Arıkan (2011). The participants answered each item through evaluating the statements in a 6 point scale from 1 "Totally Disagree" to 6 "Totally Agree". The Cronbach α coefficients of the six subscales were calculated and the results showed that the subscales are reliable. The reliability coefficients of the political tactics subscales are: Exchange of Favors: .93; Self Presentation: .90; Rationalization and Assertiveness: .78, Ingratiation: .84, Upward Appeal: .83, and Coalition: .82.

The Procedure

The data was gathered online, utilizing a well-known online survey service. The survey link was sent to various companies with an e-mail explaining the purpose and the target group of the study. If the employees that received the link agreed on the given information and suited the target group, they were asked to click

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on the survey link and answer all the questions. They were also requested to forward the e-mails to other employees that could satisfy the necessary qualifications of the intended target group; a Snow Ball Sampling was used.

Data Analysis

For testing the hypotheses related to the Big-Five traits, the participants were grouped into two high and low score groups by using the medians of the personality variables. Afterwards, the use of influence tactics was compared between these high score and low score groups using independent sample t-tests. To test the proposed research model, multiple regression analyses were conducted using the Stepwise method between the predictive variables (Big Five Personality Traits and Values) and the political tactics.

Results

Big Five Personality Traits and Influence Tactics

To understand the linear relationship between Big Five personality dimensions and political tactics, multiple regression analyses were conducted. The Stepwise method was preferred while conducting these analyses to find out the variables that could be represented in the linear equation.

The analyses revealed that using Exchange of Favors as a tactic was positively related to Neuroticism *(β: .302, t: 3.875, p<.01)*, and negatively related to Conscientiousness *(β: -.272, t: -3.490, p<.01) (R^2:.219, F:20.137, p<.01)*. The use of Self-Presentation was positively related to Neuroticism *(β:.243, t:2.960, p<.01)* and negatively related to Conscientiousness *(β:-.206, t:-2.513, p<.05) (R^2:.134, F:11.142, p<.05)*. Using Rational Persuasion and Assertiveness to influence supervisors was found to be positively related to Extraversion *(β:.255, t:2.941, p<.01)*, Agreeableness *(β:.253, t:2.917, p<.01)*, and Neuroticism *(β:.190, t:2.227, p<.05) (R^2:.147, F:8.220, p<.01)*. Ingratiation was found to be negatively related to Conscientiousness *(β:-.190, t:-2.310, p<.05)* and positively with Neuroticism *(β: .261, t:3.178, p:.<.01) (R^2:.136, F:11.229, p<.01)*. Moreover, a significant positive relationship was found between Neuroticism *(β:.229, t:2.837, p<.01)* and Upward Appeal *(R^2:.053, F:8.049, p<.01)*. Neuroticism *(β:.420, t:5.317, p<.01)*, and Agreeableness *(β:.173, t:2.030, p<.05)* were found to be positively related to Coalition Tactics; however Openness to Experience *(β:-.256, t:-3, 149, p<.01)* was negatively related to this tactic *(R^2:.225, F:13.876, p<.05)*. The results are presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2: The Big Five and Influence Tactics

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	R^2	F	β	t	p
Neuroticism	Exchange of Favors	.219	20.137	.302	3.875	.000
Conscientiousness				-.272	-3.490	.001
Neuroticism	Self-Presentation	.134	11.142	.243	2.960	.004
Conscientiousness				-.206	-2.513	.013
Extraversion	Rationalization and Assertiveness	.147	8.220	.255	2.941	.004
Agreeableness				.253	2.917	.004
Neuroticism				.190	2.227	
Neuroticism	Ingratiation	.136	11.229	.261	3.178	.002
Conscientiousness				-.190	-2.310	.022
Neuroticism	Upward Appeal	.053	8.049	.229	2.837	.005
Neuroticism	Coalition	.225	13.876	.420	5.317	.000
Openness				-.256	-3.149	.002
Agreeableness				.173	2.030	.044

The results of the comparison of high and low score groups of personality factors are presented below in Table 3.

Table 3: Comparison of high and low score groups of personality variables

Personality Trait	Median	Influence Tactic	t	df	p	Group	N	μ	sd
Agreeableness	4.62	Exchange of Favors	4.477	131	.000	Low	69	2.96	1.40
						High	88	2.03	1.16
		Self-Presentation	2.802	157	.006	Low	70	3.02	1.29
						High	89	2.45	1.27
		Rationalization and Assertiveness	-2.637	157	.009	Low	70	3.77	1.14
						High	89	4.27	1.25
		Upward Appeal	2.501	155	.013	Low	69	3.34	1.35
						High	88	2.79	1.36
Conscientiousness	4.50	Exchange of favors	4.477	131	.000	Low	69	2.96	1.40
						High	88	2.03	1.16
		Self-presentation	2.798	147	.000	Low	70	3.02	1.29
						High	89	2.45	1.27
		Rationalization and assertiveness	-2.637	157	.009	Low	70	3.77	1.139
						High	89	4.27	1.250
		Upward Appeal	2.501	155	.013	Low	69	3.34	1.35
						High	88	2.79	1.36

bles	R^2	F	β	t	p
's	.219	20.137	.302	3.875	.000
			-.272	-3.490	.001
	.134	11.142	.243	2.960	.004
			-.206	-2.513	.013
d	.147	8.220	.255	2.941	.004
			.253	2.917	.004
			.190	2.227	
	.136	11.229	.261	3.178	.002
			-.190	-2.310	.022
	.053	8.049	.229	2.837	.005
	.225	13.876	.420	5.317	.000
			-.256	-3.149	.002
			.173	2.030	.044

l low score groups of personality factors

ups of personality variables

	t	df	p	Group	N	μ	sd
rs	4.477	131	.000	Low	69	2.96	1.40
				High	88	2.03	1.16
	2.802	157	.006	Low	70	3.02	1.29
				High	89	2.45	1.27
	-2.637	157	.009	Low	70	3.77	1.14
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	2.501	155	.013	Low	69	3.34	1.35
				High	88	2.79	1.36
rs	4.477	131	.000	Low	69	2.96	1.40
				High	88	2.03	1.16
	2.798	147	.000	Low	70	3.02	1.29
				High	89	2.45	1.27
	-2.637	157	.009	Low	70	3.77	1.139
				High	89	4.27	1.250
	2.501	155	.013	Low	69	3.34	1.35
				High	88	2.79	1.36

Personality Trait	Median	Influence Tactic	t	df	p	Group	N	μ	sd
Extraversion	4.125	Self-Presentation	2.471	162	.015	Low	90	2.95	1.24
						High	74	2.46	1.33
		Rationalization and Assertiveness	-3.292	162	.001	Low	90	3.76	1.23
						High	74	4.37	1.13
Neuroticism	3.286	Exchange of Favors	4.439	119	.000	Low	88	2.07	1.13
						High	66	3.03	1.46
		Self-Presentation	-3.269	152	.001	Low	88	2.44	1.21
						High	66	3.11	1.32
		Ingratiation	-3.943	151	.000	Low	88	2.72	1.13
						High	65	3.48	1.25
		Upward Appeal	-2.406	151	.017	Low	88	2.84	1.43
						High	65	3.37	1.25
Openness to Experience	4.40	Exchange of Favors	3.187	150	.002	Low	85	2.71	1.38
						High	68	2.05	1.19
		Self-presentation	3.430	152	.001	Low	85	3.00	1.22
						High	69	2.30	1.31
		Rationalization and Assertiveness	-2.849	152	.005	Low	85	3.79	1.16
						High	69	4.34	1.25
		Coalition	2.788	151	.006	Low	85	3.18	1.24
						High	68	2.60	1.32

For H_1, the results of the analyses showed that the participants that score lower in the agreeableness dimension tend to use exchange of favors and self-presentation tactics more and rationalization and assertiveness less. This shows that the agreeable participants of our study did not prefer indirect ways of politicking to solve their problems rather than actually focusing on finding solutions with rational persuasion, thus H_1 was refuted. The results showed that employees higher in conscientiousness tend to use rationalization and assertiveness compared to the low score group, supporting H_2. The analyses results revealed that extraverted employees have propensities to use rationalization and assertiveness and the findings are generally in contrast to H_3. Neuroticism seems to be one of the important dimensions affecting the use of influence tactics at work. The results revealed that employees who have higher scores in neuroticism seem to be involved in political activities such as exchange of favors, self-presentation, ingratiation and upward-appeal significantly more. For rationalization and assertiveness we could not find any results supporting H_4. In terms of openness to experience, the participants scoring high in that dimension tended to use rationalization and assertiveness more and exchange of favors, self-presentation and coalition less. This is understandable from a cultural standpoint. The Turkish culture is high in

power distance (Hofstede, 1980) and thus trying to influence supervisors directly through rational persuasion and assertiveness is risky behavior; employees that have higher scores in openness to experience have a propensity to take this risk (Nicholson et al., 2005).

Values and Influence Tactics

Similar analyses were conducted to understand the relationship between values and influence tactics. Conservation affected Rationalization and Assertiveness positively *(β: .320, t:4.558, p<.01)(R^2:.102, F:20.776, p<.01)*, whilst Openness to Change was found to be positively connected with Ingratiation *(β:.182, t:2.488, p<.05). (R^2: .033, f: 6.188, p<.05).*

Table 4: Values and Influence Tactics

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables	R^2	F	β	t	p
Conservation	Rationalization and Assertiveness	.102	20.776	.320	4.558	.000
Openness to Change	Ingratiation	.033	6.188	.182	2.488	.024

The regression analyses results conveyed that political tactics were related to only two dimensions of the values this research concentrated on; that is Conservation and Openness to Change values, respectively.

According to our study results, employees who value Conservation (conformity, tradition, security) or extrinsic values seem to use direct ways of influencing their supervisors through rationalization and persuasion. Moreover, employees who endorse values related to Openness to Change (self-direction and stimulation) or intrinsic values prefer to use ingratiating influence tactics towards their supervisors. Thus, in our sample, since the effect of extrinsic values (conservation values) is significantly stronger than the effect of intrinsic values (openness to change values) on influence tactics, $\boldsymbol{H_5}$ was accepted.

Discussion

Overall, our study results point out that, those employees high in the personality factors of extraversion, conscientiousness and openness to experience tend to use rationalization and assertiveness influence tactics more in the workplace. Rationalization involves persuading the target person through rational suggestions and realistic evidence; and assertiveness is about using persistent reminders to influence others to reach one's goals. As stated, the hallmarks of conscientiousness

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are dutifulness, orderliness and achievement orientation. Extraverted individuals are generally dominant, assertive, domineering and forceful (Costa & McCrae, 1992); and those high in openness to experience are depicted as creative, inquisitive, introspective and have a propensity to take risks (Nicholson et al., 2005). Thus, it is understandable that employees who are high in these three personality dimensions will use direct influencing tactics at the workplace.

As stated previously, despite various different labels, most work researchers appear to identify the same two or three types of work values: (1) intrinsic or self-actualization values, (2) extrinsic or security or material values, (3) social or relational values (e.g. Borg, 1990; Mottaz, 1985; Pryor, 1987). These three types of work values can be viewed as conceptually parallel to three of the higher-order basic human values: intrinsic work values directly express openness to change values—the pursuit of autonomy, interest, growth, and creativity in work. Extrinsic work values express conservation values; job security and income provide workers with the requirements needed for general security and maintenance of order in their lives. Social or interpersonal work values express the pursuit of self-transcendence values; work is seen as a vehicle for positive social relations and contribution to society (Ros, Schwartz & Surkiss, 1999).

Regarding the relationship between values and influence tactics, our study results reveal that those employees endorsing Conservation or extrinsic (conformity, tradition, security) values also prefer to use rationalization and assertiveness influencing styles at work. Moreover, the employees who endorse Openness to Change or intrinsic values prefer to use ingratiating influence styles at work. Thus, the analyses revealed that, as expected, there was a stronger relationship between extrinsic values and influence tactics compared to that of intrinsic values and influence tactics.

In Turkey (Ergüder, Esmer, & Kalaycıoğlu, 1991; Imamoğlu & Karakitapoğlu Aygün, 1999), since the liberalism-oriented socioeconomic changes of the 1980s, the results of studies conducted seem to emphasize a new pathway in values involving social power, status, recognition and achievement-oriented self-enhancement. Such power and achievement-related concerns can be regarded as transitional values in a society undergoing a change from traditionalism to modernism. As stated, especially in the modern larger cities of Turkey, values seem to be in transition from conservative to self-enhancing. Our results may also reflect this transition. Even though the analyses results did not demonstrate a significant relationship between self-enhancement values and influence tactics, there was still a relationship between extrinsic values and influence tactics as expected. Our results point to a need for future studies on the changing nature of value systems in modern Turkey and how this impacts the different influencing tactics in organizations.

Limitations

All data used in this study is based on self-reports, which means that the magnitudes of the effects that we reported may have been biased due to common method variance or the wish to answer consistently (Conway, 2002).

Another limitation is the rather homogeneous sample that consists of highly educated professionals. This may have caused restriction of range in some variables. Thus, both increasing the sample size and reaching a more heterogeneous sample in future studies will strengthen the psychometric properties of potential studies in this area.

Finally, because of the present study's cross-sectional design, the causal order between personality factors, values and political behavior remains to be addressed. Carrying out longitudinal studies in the future might yield causal relationships among employees' personality factors, values and tendency to exhibit political behavior.

Conclusion

Previous research on the antecedents of influence tactics generally concentrated on organizational and situational factors. Although there are some studies conducted on the dispositional characteristics of the influencers, they are only a few in number. In this study, we aimed to focus on the dispositional characteristics of the influencers such as personality traits and values. In the literature, there are studies that aim to understand the effects of personality traits on influence tactics. However, our study adds to the current literature by exploring the effects of personality traits and values on influence tactics in a country that is going through a transition in terms of work values.

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