# Perception of Organizational Politics and Impression Management Behaviors: A Tourism Industry Perspective

## **Ozgur Devrim Yilmaz**

Assistant Prof. Dr.
Dokuz Eylul University
Faculty of Business
Department of Tourism Management
Kaynaklar Campus
35160 Buca- Izmir
Turkey

#### **Abstract**

The main purpose of this study was to examine the probable effects of perception of politics on impression management behaviors of hotel employees in Izmir, Turkey. For this study, a total number of 205 usable questionnaires were collected from employees working in five star hotels in Izmir city center. The hypothesized relationships were tested using SPSS 17 version. The results indicated that organizational politics perception of employees was an important determinant of impression management behaviors. This research is thought to make useful contributions to the current knowledge base by investigating the direct effect of perception of organizational politics on impression management behaviors since it is predicted that politics perception of employees have potential to paralyze the organizational climate and can affect the relationship both between employees and between employees and managers.

**Keywords:** Organizational politics, perception of politics, impression management, tourism industry, lodging sector

#### Introduction

For about four decades it can be seen that organizational politics (OP) seems to enjoy popularity in researches as the subject has received a great deal of attention from both scholars and practitioners in business management. To date, several researches (Drory & Romm, 1990; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992;) have shown that political behavior is high in organizations where rules and policies are not clearly defined and/or where even no rules exist. In this case individuals feel that to attain a better position in the organizations and to foster self-interest they should develop and follow their own rules and policies.

As Gandz & Murray (1980) and Hochwarter, et al., (2003) suggested the political environment at work can affect employees in different ways ranging from extremely beneficial to enormously harmful. Therefore the importance of OP lies in its potential consequences and effects on work outcomes. For that reason OP should be stated in terms of what it truly represents and this is why perception of politics (POP) should also be taken into account as a measure of OP in academic researches. Till today, several researchers (Poon, 2003; Andrews, Witt & Kacmar, 2003; Vigoda, 2000) have given importance to the investigation of OP phenomenon and its definition and in general the subject is thought to have a negative connotation since most researchers (Kacmar, et al., 1999; Vigoda, 2000; Poon, 2004) suggested the negative outcomes and impacts of POP especially in complex business environments. Furthermore, conducted studies in POP (Ferris, et al., 1996; Kacmar & Ferris, 1989) revealed that there was a strong positive relationship between POP and turnover intentions and a negative relationship between POP and job satisfaction (Kacmar, et al., 1999). Moreover, examining POP is important because OP ought to be conceived of as a subjective evaluation rather than an objective one and this is why POP affect individuals' reactions (Aryee, Chen & Budhwar, 2004). Moreover, Rosen, Levy & Hall (2006) and Chang, Rosen & Levy (2009) suggested that work environments can also be accepted as social marketplaces where individuals engage in transactional investments to secure favorable returns as tangible or intangible rewards.

At this juncture the main reason and the main argument of this study can be claimed to emerge from Gardner & Martinko's (1988) statement as individuals attempt to control their images to the others and engage in impression management (IM) behaviors in order to either maximize expected rewards or minimize expected punishments. Like POP, IM could also be seen to have a negative meaning in the literature since most IM behaviors are emphasized as carrying self-serving thoughts or aims of individuals. IM can be defined briefly as a process through which people seek to influence others to attain a specific goal (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997; Bolino & Turnley, 1999). Ellis, et al. (2002) stated that IM manifests itself in many behaviors such as the use of verbal statements or in nonverbal behaviors and it is obvious that images which have positive values are preferred and negatively valued images are avoided (Gardner & Martinko, 1988) especially in working environments. Additionally, Wayne & Liden (1995), Bolino & Turnley (2003), Zivnuska, et al., (2004) and Bolino, et al., (2006) suggested that there is a direct relationship between IM behaviors and performance appraisals, Similarly, Judge & Bretz (1994) and Judge, et al., (1995) emphasized the effect of IM and political influence behavior on career success. Results of these studies proved that individuals engage in IM behaviors in order to achieve some selfserving goals and then it can be supposed that POP could also affect IM behaviors in work environments if the employees lobby higher-ups for better job assignments or promotion and/or go through improper channels to attain self-interest.

Therefore, it is important to continue to discover the effects of POP and IM behaviors, as it is likely that organizational climates will always be full of politics and political games. The logic behind choosing hotel employees as the population of this study was that most studies were conducted in other industries rather than tourism and as an important component of service industry tourism enterprises were generally neglected in several areas of research. Certainly, all organizations need to revisit their policies to minimize political practices. However, when compared to other industries, for hospitality operations it is even more important since their business success depends more on behaviors and attitudes of employees. For that reason this research was aimed at exploring the probable impacts of POP on IM behaviors of employees working in lodging enterprises.

## 1. Review of Literature

## 1.1 Organizational Politics and Politics Perception

Organizational politics persists to be recognized as a significant dimension of organizational functioning. Ferris, Russ & Fandt (1989) defined OP as behaviors strategically designed to maximize self interests and this definition reflects a generally negative image of OP in the eye of most individuals. Mitzberg (1985) suggested that OP reflect illegitimate force-relations between organization's members and Gandz & Murray (1980) found that employees usually consider politics to be an unfair, evil and irrational behavior. Several other studies (Medison, et al., 1980; Block, 1988; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Drory, 1993; Vigoda, 2000) have focused on 'perceptions of organizational politics' where organizational politics is conceptualized negatively and its relationship with unfavorable individual and organizational outcomes is demonstrated. From different definitions in the literature one can understand that political behaviors in the working environment are actions which are aimed at achieving one's personal goals (Poon, 2004) and are not officially approved by an organization. Political behaviors can include going through improper channels to attain self-interest, back-stabbing, ingratiation, bypassing the chain of command to gain approval, lobbying higher-ups for better job assignments or promotion or not sharing necessary information with other employees.

Herein, it is vital to emphasize that although similar kinds of political behaviors can be mostly overlooked by the organization, these behaviors are not absolutely prohibited in the organizations. In other words, the existence of political behaviors which are theoretically opposite to organizational policies can increase perceptions of politics (POP) of the employees. Andrews, Witt & Kacmar (2003) suggested that it is the main reason why OP should be examined by asking employees about their perceptions of these behaviors. It should also be stated here that there can be employees who do not participate in OP since they do not view the political environment as an opportunity. For these employees the political environment of the organization can actually result in low levels of organizational commitment and job satisfaction and high absenteeism and intention to quit rates. OP is often linked with negative terms as cunning, manipulation, gaining favor by adulators or achievement of goals in improper ways.

This is why several studies have examined the effects of POP on employee performance (Ferris, et al., 1996; Kumar & Ghadially, 1989, Vigoda, 2000), organizational stress (Gilmore, et al., 1996; Cropanzano, et al., 1997; Drory, 1993), intention to quit the job (Cropazano, et al., 1997, Ferris, et al., 1989; Kacmar, et al., 1999; Randall, et al., 1999; Valle & Perrewé, 2000), organizational climate (Liu, Liu & Wu, 2010; O'Connor & Morrison, 2001), turnover and favoritism (Daskin & Tezer, 2012), perceived organizational support (Hochwarter, et al., 2003).

On the other hand, also called political games, political activities in organizations can take many forms. Mintzberg (1985) identified thirteen behaviors as expertise, alliance building, rival camps and strategic candidates etc. whereas Allen, et al., (1979) suggested that political behaviors (tactics) can be examined under 8 different categories as; (1) blaming or attacking others, (2) use of information, (3) impression management, (4) support building for ideas, (5) ingratiation, (6) power coalitions, (7) associating with the influential and (8) creating obligations. By the help of this categorization one can easily understand that organizational politics involve both reactive and proactive behaviors. The tactics can be reactive, proactive or both at the same time depending upon the situation. It is important to note that impression management is sometimes considered to be a kind of political behavior in studies. This tactic is supposed to be predominantly proactive and it is especially designed to promote self-interest. A particularly best-known image-building tactic is taking of credit for the good ideas of someone else however impression management can also include general appearance, drawing attention to successes, creating the appearance of being on the inside of important activities or developing a reputation of being liked.

Although counted under the heading of political tactics, in this study IM behavior is believed to be more than a political tactic and it is thought that politics perceptions is an antecedent of IM behaviors.

## 1.2 Impression Management

Impression management (IM) theory - introduced by Goffman in 1950s and then rooted in dramaturgical and symbolic interactionist sociology theory (Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984) – describes efforts by an individual (an actor, person engaging in IM behavior) in order to change, protect or create an image held by others (an audience, group interacting with the actor) (Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997; Bolino, et al., 2008). From the individual point of view, IM can be referred to as self-presentation since individuals attempt to control their images to the audience. Keeping in mind that the aim for the actor here is to control an impression on the audience, one can easily understand that IM behaviors are inevitable and have vital importance in organizations. There can be many reasons to engage in IM however, Schniederjans, Cao & Schniederjans (2013) suggested that maximizing expected rewards and/or minimizing expected punishments are the main motives of these behaviors.

Different frameworks -such as direct-indirect tactics, assertive-defensive tactics- have been used by researchers (Jones & Pittman, 1982; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984; Bozeman & Kacmar, 1997) to conceptualize IM; however Wayne & Ferris's conceptualization (1990) is probably the most widely used one in empirical work. Wayne & Ferris (1990) classified IM strategies in three parts named as supervisor-focused, self-focused and job focused strategies. Supervisor-focused tactics can be shortly summarized as ingratiatory or favor-rendering behaviors of employees. Individuals who employ such tactics may compliment and praise their supervisors and they try to be seen as helpful, considerate and kind. Secondly, self-focused tactics involve behaviors which are designed to make individuals look like polite, hardworking and dedicated employees. Individuals who employ these tactics tend to work especially hard when others are looking. Finally, job-focused tactics involve self-promotive behaviors and are designed to make employees appear more competent at their job. However, it is vital to note here that individuals do not always exercise the same tactic in every situation and likewise different individuals may possibly use different strategies when faced with similar situations.

Several researches have addressed the direct effect of IM tactics on work outcomes such as career success (Judge & Bretz, 1994; Judge, et al., 1995), performance appraisal (Bolino, et al., 2006; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Bolino & Turnley, 2003, Zivnuska, et al., 2004), job performance (Cheng, Chiu & Tzeng, 2013), performance rating (Wayne & Liden, 1995) and selection interviews (Baron, 1986; Kacmar, Delery & Ferris, 1992; Wade & Kinicki, 1997). Although these studies have demonstrated the effects of IM behaviors on different subjects, it can be recognized that IM has been examined as an independent variable, rather than dependent. In other words, to date, it can be seen that most empirical work on IM has focused either on how individual factors affect the use of specific IM behaviors or how IM tactics influence job outcomes.

Moreover, it can be observed that previous research has especially addressed the influence of IM behaviors in other industries rather than tourism however when compared to other industries, one can understand that this subject is more serious in hospitality operations where behaviors and attitudes play the biggest role in the success of the organization.

Additionally, the relationship between an individual's POP and his/her attempt to use IM behavior has not been yet investigated in tourism industry. Therefore, the current study was conducted in hospitality operations and in the research IM behaviors were taken into account as a dependent variable whereas POP was the independent variable.

## 1.3 The Need for a Tourism Industry Perspective

Due to being a labor-intensive industry, people are accepted to be the most important asset in tourism. Therefore, organizations and managers in the tourism industry should spend much effort in recruiting and maintaining a competent, well-motivated and committed workforce which is a must for offering a high-quality service to the demanding tourism customers.

In general, tourism and especially hospitality operations has often struggled with some negative perceptions about employment conditions and practices because of the characteristics as low wages, poor career structures, seasonality, high labor-turnovers and shift patterns. When this status of work and the importance of labor are considered, it can be seen that researches in employee-related issues should be practiced more in literature. Moreover, it is widely known and approved that the success in tourism depends largely on employees. In other words, how these employees are recruited, managed, trained, motivated and/or rewarded through their career development play a vital role in every organization in the tourism industry.

The role that employees play in tourism requires more attention especially on issues related to organizational behavior. Although the number of researches conducted in tourism industry has increased in the past two decades, there are still some niches in the related literature. Within an industry which is characterized by diversity of organizations and employees, this study is concentrated on hotel employees as it is difficult to consider all types of organizations and jobs in detail.

The hotel business is one of the most competitive businesses in the world and for the success it is important to make sure that each employee enjoys working in the hotel and that they do their jobs in effective and efficient ways. Perhaps the most important thing for managers in hotel business is to implement clear plans, procedures and practices for promotion, wages, working hours of the employees. Furthermore, managers should also be careful about creating and sustaining a trust climate in the organization where all employees are treated in the same way through their career development. As in every organization, hotels can sometimes be political arenas where a number of employees are playing political games and get unmerited job opportunities although some others are waiting for fair practices and are not taking place in such games. There are many different and unacceptable organizational behavior subjects of employees as power games, deviance, mobbing, revenge intention and so forth but in the current study only political behavior and impression management behavior are taken into account. Nevertheless, it is necessary to note here that these negative behaviors are also difficult to study as most individuals do not give sincere and honest answers especially if they are in their working environment.

## 2. Research Methodology

## 2.1 Scale and Data Analysis

The survey instrument used in the study was composed of three main parts. The first part was related to perceived organizational politics (POP). POP was measured by using 6 items developed by Kacmar & Carlson (1997). The second part included 24 questions that related to impression management behaviors (IM). For the measurement of IM, 24-items scale developed by Wayne & Ferris (1990) was chosen. As mentioned before in this scale IM was identified as having three dimensions and was aimed at measuring the extent to which individuals employ the three different types of IM as (a) supervisor-focused, (b) self-focused and (c) job-focused behaviors. POP and IM items used a 5-point Likert-type scale that ranged from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". The last part was made up of demographic questions including; gender, age, and work experience.

Data analyses for this study comprised descriptive analyses, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), correlation analyses and regression analyses. The collected data were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The study as well tested the hypothesized relationships utilizing several tests. In this study it is aimed to find out the relationship between the employees' perceived organizational politics (POP) and impression management behaviors (IM). In this context the research model was designed as shown in Figure 1 and the hypotheses were developed as following:

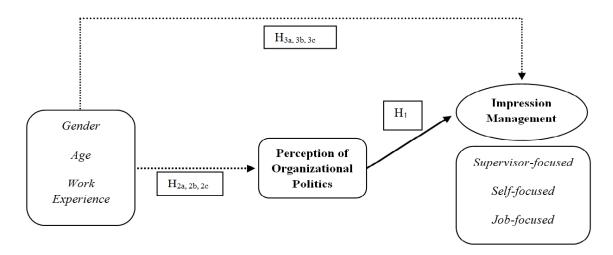


Figure 1: The Research Model

H<sub>1</sub>: POP is positively related to IM behaviors.

 $H_{2a-2b-2c}$ : There is a difference between gender (2a), age (2b), and work experience (2c) of the employees and POP.

 $H_{3a-3b-3c}$ : There is a difference between gender (3a), age (3b) and work experience (2c) of the employees and IM.

## 2.2 Sample and Data Collection

The pre-test questionnaire was subjected to a random sample of 50 hotel employees. The data used in this article was then collected from 10 hotels in Izmir, Turkey. Due to the lack of consistent data regarding the size of the target population (the exact total number of hotel employees) it was considered to be statistically infinite.

The research was conducted with the permission of hotel managers; however it was impossible to collect data from all employees working in selected hotels. The questionnaire was provided by human resource departments of the hotels to the employees. The employees were also informed about the study's purpose in this process. From each participating hotel approximately 15-20 questionnaires were collected. Out of 350 questionnaires distributed to hotels, 205 of them returned thus the response rate was calculated as 59%.

## 2.3 Results

Among the 205 respondents, 112 respondents (54.6%) were female and 93 respondents (45.4%) were male. 44.8% of the respondents were aged between 26-31 years. The majority (41.9%) of the respondents had average work experience of 1-5 years. The profile of the respondents can be summarized as in Table 1.

**Table 1: The Profile of the Respondents** 

Variable	Sample	Percentage
	(N= )	(%)
Gender		
Female	112	54.6
Male	93	45.4
Age		
20-25	14	6.8
26-31	92	44.8
32-37	67	32.6
38-45	22	10.7
46 and above	10	5,1
Work experience		
Less than 1 year	53	26,3
1-5 years	86	41,9
6-10 years	54	26,3
11-15 years	12	5.5
16 years and above	0	

On the other hand the reliability of POP scale was measured to be 0. 82 and the reliability of IM scale was 0.79. Furthermore, to examine the factor structure of the IM scale confirmatory factor analysis was used and eight items were deleted because of their unacceptable loadings on specified factors (p<0.001). The remaining 16 items indicated that each of the IM items loaded significantly onto its specified factor. The items, factor loadings and Cronbach's alpha for the scales were provided in Table 2.

**Table 2: Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis** 

Constructs		Factor	Reliability				
	f Politics (POP) – Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling	loadings	0.00				
-		0.80					
Adequacy: .8		.843					
	The system has been planned and implemented autocratically on the						
	basis of single mind decision making rather than participative style that						
	includes teamwork and sharing	01.4	-				
	There has always been an influential group of staff in this organization	.814					
	that no one ever crosses	707	-				
	Management put their self-interest into the allocation of resources and	.787	0.00				
	uses my company's resources for their own purposes		0.80				
	Some groups in this organization attempt to build themselves up by	.796					
	tearing others down	1					
	Since I have worked in this organization, I have never seen the pay and	.802					
	promotion policies applied politically (R)						
	Management monopolizes the ideas, practices, activities and success of	.814					
	the staff performance in some instances						
-	Management (IM) - Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling		0.79				
Adequacy: .8		1					
	Do personal favors for my supervisor	.834					
<b>Supervisor-</b>	Take an interest in my immediate supervisor's personal life	.822					
focused	Praise my immediate supervisor on his/her accomplishments	.774	0.00				
behaviors	Offer to do something for my supervisor which I was not required to do;	.796	0.80				
	that is, I did it as a personal favor for him/her						
	Compliment my immediate supervisor on his/her dress or appearance	.807					
	Try to be polite when interacting with your supervisor	.784					
Self-	Try to be a friendly person when interacting with your supervisor	.711					
focused	Try to act as a 'model' employee by, for example, never taking longer	.765	0.72				
behaviors	than the established time for lunch						
	Work hard when you know the results will be seen by your supervisor	.748					
	Try to make a positive event that I am responsible for appear better than	.824					
	it actually is						
	Play up the value of a positive event that I have taken credit for	.798					
	Try to take responsibility for positive events, even when I am not solely	.804					
Job-	responsible						
focused	Try to make a negative event that I am responsible for not appear as	.791	0.76				
behaviors	severe as it actually is to my supervisor						
	Arrive at work early in order to look good in front of my supervisor	.743					
	Agree with my supervisor's major opinions outwardly even when I	.733					
	disagree inwardly						
	Work late at the office so that my supervisor will see my working late	.747					
	and think I am a hard worker						

A correlation analysis was then conducted to find out the relationship between perception of organizational politics and impression management behaviors. The mean value was ranged from 2.95 to 3.74 and the standard deviation from 1.29 to 2.01. The findings of the correlation analysis (Table 3) suggested that a strong positive correlation was found between the independent and dependant variables which mean IM behavior was positively correlated with POP. (r=0.851 and p<0.01). According to results  $H_1$  was accepted.

Mean	SD	Cronbach's	Correlations					
		α	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.67	1.29	0.80	1					
3.74	1.43	0.79	0.851**	1				
3.62	1.67	0.80	0.809**	0.743**	1			
2.95	2.01	0.72	0.714**	0.647**	0.617*	1		
2.99	1.75	0.76	0.608*	0.594*	0.529*	0.617*	1	
	3.67 3.74 3.62 2.95	3.67 1.29 3.74 1.43 3.62 1.67 2.95 2.01	α       3.67     1.29     0.80       3.74     1.43     0.79       3.62     1.67     0.80       2.95     2.01     0.72	α     1       3.67     1.29     0.80     1       3.74     1.43     0.79     0.851**       3.62     1.67     0.80     0.809**       2.95     2.01     0.72     0.714**	α     1     2       3.67     1.29     0.80     1       3.74     1.43     0.79     0.851***     1       3.62     1.67     0.80     0.809**     0.743**       2.95     2.01     0.72     0.714**     0.647**	α     1     2     3       3.67     1.29     0.80     1     2     3       3.74     1.43     0.79     0.851***     1       3.62     1.67     0.80     0.809***     0.743***     1       2.95     2.01     0.72     0.714***     0.647***     0.617**	α     1     2     3     4       3.67     1.29     0.80     1     3.74     1.43     0.79     0.851***     1       3.62     1.67     0.80     0.809**     0.743***     1       2.95     2.01     0.72     0.714**     0.647**     0.617*     1	α     1     2     3     4     5       3.67     1.29     0.80     1     3     4     5       3.74     1.43     0.79     0.851***     1     1       3.62     1.67     0.80     0.809***     0.743***     1       2.95     2.01     0.72     0.714***     0.647***     0.617**     1

**Table 3: Correlations among the Study Variables** 

Moreover, the relationship between POP and different dimensions of IM was also examined through this correlation analysis. A strong and positive relationship was found between three IM dimensions and POP (r=0.809; r=0.714 and p=0.001; r=0.608 and p=0.005).

On the other hand t-test and anova test were conducted to analyze the significant differences firstly in participants' perceptions of organizational politics and then impression management behaviors according to their demographic characteristics as gender, age and work experience. T-test was applied to analyze the difference in participants' POP and IM behavior in relation to their gender and anova test was conducted to see the difference in participants' POP and IM behavior in relation to their age and work experience. The results can be observed in Table 4 for t-test and Table 5 for anova test.

Table 4: T-Test Results Indicating the Differences in Participants' POP and IM in Relation to Gender

Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	P
POP	Female	112	3.8623	.25873	.641	.000
	Male	93	3.2456	.41257	.583	
Gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	P
IM	Female	112	4.0171	.12574	.472	.000
	Male	93	3.1144	.18952	.522	

T-test result demonstrated that there is a significant difference between POP and gender (p=.000). Therefore  $H_{2a}$  was accepted. The mean difference between groups was 0.6167 and this indicated that female employees perceived organizational politics more than males. Similarly, t-test result indicated that there is also a significant difference between IM and gender (p=.000). The mean difference between groups was 0.9027 and according to the differences females were to display more IM behaviors than males.  $H_{3a}$  was then supported.

Table 5: Anova Test Results Indicating the Differences in Participants' POP and IM in Relation to Age and Work Experience

Age		N	F	P	Age	N	F	P
	20-25	14				14		
	26-31	92				92		
POP	23-37	67	3.142	.001	IM	67	4.425	.214
	38-45	22				22		
	46 and more	10				10		
Work Experience		N	F	P	Work Experience	N		
	Less than 1 year	53				53		
	1-5 years	86				86	2.423	.000
POP	6-10 years	54	4.103	4.103 <b>.001</b>	IM	54		
	11-15 years	12				12		
	16 years and more	0				0		

<sup>\*</sup> Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level.

<sup>\*\*</sup> Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level.

On the other hand according to anova test results a difference was detected between POP and age of the participants (F=3.142 and p=0.001). The Tukey Test was also carried out to analyze the differences between groups. The figures suggested that those who were between 32-37 ages having the highest POP than other age groups ( $H_{2b}$  was supported). Another test conducted for any difference in the participants' POP according to their work experiences suggested that those who have worked for more than 6 years have perceived higher levels of POP than those who have worked in the organization for less than 1 year. (F=4.103 and p=0.001). So,  $H_{2c}$  was supported. No significant difference was detected between IM and age of the participants ( $H_{3b}$  was rejected). On the other hand a difference was also detected between IM and work experience (F=2.423 and p=0.000). The figures suggested that those who had 6-10 years of experience have higher levels of IM than other employees ( $H_{3c}$  was supported).

Moreover a regression analysis was conducted and the  $R^2$  values were used in order to find out what percentage of total change in the dependent variable was due to the independent variable dimensions. The determination factor was found to be  $R^2$ : 0.622 which showed that 62% of IM was dependent on POP. The results of the regression analysis can be summarized as in Table 6.

Independent variable	Dependent variable							
Perception of		Impression Management						
organizational	β	$\beta$ t Sig. F $R^2$						
politics	.437	8.465**	0.000	11.429**	0.622			

**Table 6: Regression Analysis** 

## Discussion & Conclusion

In the competitive work environment some employees may believe that they have limitations in their career opportunities as wages, training, promotion and so forth. For this reason, when career chances are thought to be limited, employees may tend to participate in political behaviors. Previous researches have also supported this contention. Some authors (Poon, 3003; Daskin & Arasli, 2011) agree that employees will tend to display more political behaviors when they encounter limited resources in work life as involving in different forms of political games within an organization is believed to be one of the most successful strategies to get more from the limited pool of opportunities. Similarly, considerable research has also suggested the same reasons for the use of IM behaviors in organizational settings.

Although a link between organizational politics and IM has been created in few studies, there has been little empirical data on this point and moreover IM behavior has been generally thought of as a dimension of political behavior within the organizations. The main objective of this study was to find out the relationship between employees' POP and IM behaviors in tourism industry. IM and its effectiveness may vary across situations. In this study it is found that the use of IM can also be influenced by individuals' POP. The current study demonstrated that POP is indeed an important predictor of IM behaviors of employees. Moreover, the results suggest that not all forms of IM are equally related to POP. In other words, it can be claimed that individuals who engage in supervisor-focused tactics of IM were more affected by POP than the ones who engage in job-focused tactics.

Furthermore, the results of this study suggested that female employees perceived organizational politics more than males. The same results are also valid for impression management behaviors. Another significant result of the current study was that employees who were between 32-37 ages had the highest POP than other age groups. The ones who have worked for more than 6 years also perceived higher levels of politics than others. There were no difference between age of the participants and IM behaviors; however, it is found that those having 6-10 years of experience have participated more in IM. The hypothesis supported and not supported in the study can be summarized as in Table 7.

<sup>\*\*</sup>p<0.01

$H_1$ :	POP is positively related to IM behaviors.	Supported
H <sub>2a:</sub>	There is a difference between gender of the employees and POP.	Supported
H <sub>2b:</sub>	There is a difference between age of the employees and POP.	Supported
H <sub>2c:</sub>	There is a difference between work experience of the employees and POP.	Supported
$H_{3a:}$	There is a difference between gender of the employees and IM.	Supported
H <sub>3b:</sub>	There is a difference between age of the employees and IM.	Not supported
H <sub>3c:</sub>	There is a difference between work experience of the employees and IM.	Supported

**Table 7: Summary of Hypothesis Results** 

Managers should be aware of these unwanted behaviors and establish procedures to control the unfair practices in promotion, pay rises, fringe benefits and training activities caused by IM and OP.

Given the importance of organizational politics and impression management behaviors in hospitality industry, it is obvious that these subjects need to be investigated more extensively with different drivers and effects on other subjects. For further researches the relationship between OP and IM behaviors and their joint influence on organizational outcomes should be investigated in different organizations in tourism industry. Another useful direction for future research would be to examine potential moderators and mediators to the basic model outlined in this study.

Finally, additional work is needed to better understand the conceptual overlap between OP and IM issues. Indeed, in some cases it is not clear where political behavior ends and impression management behavior begins. Last but not the least, the difference between some political behaviors and IM behaviors are also needed to be explained elaborately. One certain example to this complicatedness can be the difference between associating with the manager politically and favor-rendering behaviors in the supervisor-focused tactics.

## References

- Allen, R.W., Madison, D.L. Porter, L.W. Renwick, P.A. & Mayes, B.T. (1979). Organizational politics: Tactics and Characteristics of Its Actors. California Management Review, 22(1), 77-83.
- Andrews, M.C., Witt, L.A. & Kacmar, K.M. (2003). The interactive effect of organizational politics and exchange ideology on manager ratings of retention. Journal of Vocational Behavior, *62*, 357-369.
- Aryee, S., Chen, Z.X. & Budhwar, P.S. (2004). Exchange fairness and employee performance: An examination of the relationship between organizational politics and procedural justice. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 94, 1-14.
- Baron, R.A. (1986). Self-presentation in job interviews: where there can be "too much of the good thing." Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 16, 16–28.
- Block, P. (1988). The empowered manager: Positive political skills at work. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bolino, M.C. & Turnley, W.H. (2003). Counternormative impression management, likeability, and performance rating: The use of intimidation in an organizational setting. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24 (2), 237–250.
- Bolino, M.C. & Turnley, W.H. (1999). Measuring impression management in organizations: a scale development based on the Jones and Pittman taxonomy. Organizational Research Methods, 2 (2), 187–206.
- Bolino, M.C., Kacmar, K.M., Turnley, W.H. & Gilstrap, J.B. (2008). A multi-level review of impression management motives and behaviors, Journal of Management, 34, 1080–1109.
- Bolino, M.C., Varela, J.A., Bande, B. & Turnley, W.H. (2006). The impact of impression management tactics on supervisor ratings of organizational citizenship behaviour, Journal of Organizational Behavior, 27 (3), 281–297.
- Bozeman, D.P., & Kacmar, K.M. (1997). A cybernetic model of impression management processes in organizations. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 69, 9–30.
- Chang, D., Rosen, C., & Levy, P. (2009). The relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and employee attitudes, strain, and behavior: A metaanalytic examination. Academy of Management Journal, 52, 779–801.
- Cheng, J-W., Chiu, W-L., & Tzeng, G-H. (2013). Do impression management tactics and/or supervisor-subordinate guanxi matter? Knowledge-Based System, 40, 123-133.

- 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, 15-180.
- Daskin, M. & Arasli, H. (2011). Organizational Politics Game behind the Front Door. Lambert Academic Publishing.
- Daskin, M. & Tezer, M. (2012). Organizational politics and turnover: An empirical research from hospitality industry. Tourism: An International Interdisciplinary Journal, 60(3), 273-291.
- Drory, A. (1993). Perceived political climate and job attitudes. Organizational Studies, 14, 59–71.
- Drory, A., & Romm, T. (1990). The definition of organizational politics: A review. Human Relations, 43, 1133-1154.
- Ellis, A.P., West, B.J., Ryan, A.M., & DeShon, R.P. (2002). The use of impression management tactics in structured interviews: a function of question type? Journal of Applied Psychology. 87 (6), 1200–1208.
- Ferris, G.R., & Kacmar, K.M. (1992). Perceptions of organizational politics. Journal of Management, 18, 93–116.
- Ferris, G.R., Russ, G.S., & Fandt, P.M. (1989). Politics in organizations. In R. A. Giacalone & P. Rosenfeld (Eds.), Impression management in the organization (pp. 143–170). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ferris, G.R., Fedor, D., Chachere, J.G. & Pondy, L. (1989). Myht and politics in organizational contexts. Group and Organizational Studies, 14, 88-103.
- Ferris, G.R., Frink, D.D., Bhawuk, D.P., Zhou, J. & Gilmore, D.C. (1996). Reactions of diverse groups to politics in the workplace. Journal of Management, 22, 23-44.
- Gandz, J., & Murray, V.V. (1980). The experience of workplace politics. Academy of Management Journal, 23, 237–251.
- Gardner, W.L. & Martinko, M.J. (1988). Impression management in organizations, Journal of Management, 14, 321–338.
- Gilmore, D.C., Ferris, G.R., Dulebohn, J.H., & Harrell-Cook, G. (1996). Organizational politics and employee attendance. Group and Organizational Management, 21, 481-494.
- Hochwarter, W.A., Kacmar, C., Perrewe, P.L. & Johnson, D. (2003). Perceived organizational support as a mediator of the relationship between politics perceptions and work outcomes. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 63, 438–456
- Jones, E.E., & Pittman, T.S. (1982). Toward a general theory of strategic self-presentation. In J. Suls (Ed.), Psychological perspectives on the self (pp. 231–263). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Judge, T.A. & Bretz, R.D. (1994). Political influence behaviour and career success, Journal of Management, 20 (1), 43–65.
- Judge, T.A., Cable, D.M., Boudreau, J.W. & Bretz, R.D. (1995). An empirical investigation of the predicators of executive career success. Personnel Psychology, 48 (3), 485–519.
- Kacmar, K.M., & Carlson, D.S. (1997). Further validation of the perceptions of politics scale (POPS): A multiple sample investigation. Journal of Management, 23 (5), 627–658.
- Kacmar, K.M. & Ferris, G.R. (1989). Theoretical and methodological considerations in the age-job satisfaction relationship. Journal of Applied Psychology, 74, 201-7.
- Kacmar, K.M., Bozeman, D.P., Carlson, D.S. & Anthony, W.P. (1999). An examination of the perceptions of organizational politics model: Replication and extension. Human Relations, 52(3), 383-416.
- Kacmar, K.M., Delery, J.E., & Ferris, G.R. (1992). Differential effectiveness of applicant impression management tactics on employment interview decisions. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 22 (16), 1250–1272.
- Kumar, P., & Ghadially, R. (1989). Organizational politics and its effects on members of organizations. Human Relations, 42, 305–314.
- Liu, Y., Liu, J., & Wu, L. (2010). Are you willing and able? Roles of motivation, power, and politics in career growth. Journal of Management, 36 (6), 1432–1460.
- Medison, L.M., Allen, R.W., Porter, L.W., Renwick, P.A., & Mayes, B.T. (1980). Organizational politics: An exploration of managers' perceptions. Human Relations, 33, 79–100.
- Mintzberg, H. (1985). The organization as political arena. Journal of Management Studies, 22, 133-154.
- O'Connor, W.E., & Morrison, T.G. (2001). A comparison of situational and dispositional predictors of perceptions of organizational politics. The Journal of Psychology, 135 (3), 301–312.
- Poon, J.M.L. (2003). Situational antecedents and outcomes of organizational politics perceptions. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 18, 138-155.

- Poon, J.M.L. (2004). Effects of performance appraisal politics on job satisfaction and turnover intention. Personal Review, *33*(3), 322-334.
- Randall, M.L., Cropanzano, R., Borman, C.A. & Birjulin, A. (1999). Organizational politics and organizational support as predictors of work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 20, 159-174.
- Rosen, C., Levy, P., & Hall, R. (2006). Placing perceptions of politics in the context of the feedback environment, employee attitudes, and job performance. The Journal of Applied Psychology, 91, 211–220.
- Schniederjans, D., Cao, E.S. & Schniederjans, M. (2013). Enhancing financial performance with social media: An impression management perspective. Decision Support Systems, 55, 911-918.
- Tedeschi, J.T., & Melburg, V. (1984). Impression management and influence in the organization. In S. B. Bacharach, & E. J. Lawler (Eds.), Research in the sociology of organizations (Vol. 3, pp. 31–58). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Valle, M. & Perrewe, P.L. (2000). Do politics perceptions relate to political behaviors? Tests of an implicit assumption and expanded model. Human Relations, 53, 359-386.
- Vigoda, E. (2000). The relationship between organizational politics, job attitudes, and work outcomes: Exploration and implications for the public sector. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 57, 326-347.
- Wade, K.J., & Kinicki, A.J. (1997). Subjective applicant qualifications and interpersonal attraction as mediators within a process model of interview selection decisions. Journal of Vocational Behavior, 50, 23–40.
- 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.
- Wayne, S.J. & Liden, R.C. (1995). Effects of impression management on performance ratings: a longitudinal study. Academy of Management Journal, 38 (1), 232–260.
- Zivnuska,S., Kacmar, K.M. Witt, L.A. Carlson, D.S. & Bratton, K. (2004). Interactive effects of impression management and organizational politics on job performance. Journal of Organizational Behavior, 25 (5), 27–64.