

Original Research Article

Antecedents of Perceived Organisational Politics and Psychological Withdrawal

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Abstract: The study is on the Antecedents of Perceived Organisational Politics and Psychological Withdrawal. The objectives of the study are to examine the antecedents of perceived organisational politics as well as to assess the relationship between POP and psychological withdrawal. Although many studies on the antecedents and consequences of POP have been reported, the antecedents and Psychological withdrawal mentioned herein was not examined previously by any study in the North East of Nigeria. To collect primary data questionnaires were developed and distributed. The collected data were analyzed using SEM-AMOS. The Findings from this study indicates that workforce diversity have positive impacts and significant relationship with POP while the need for power have negative influence on POP. Further findings show that employees who perceive politics in their work place, develop psychological withdrawal in terms of job anxiety and low organisational commitment. Conclusively understanding POP and its consequence will go a long way in reducing its negative effects on employee's performance. This study recommended that, to control the unfavorable consequences of POP, organizations must design effective policies to manage workforce diversities and relationship conflicts.

Keywords: Perceived Organisational Politics, work place, employees, policies.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

Organisational politics (OP) is an important area of human resource management and organizational behaviour. Employees are the back bone and valuable assets in an organization. Their psychological well-being is of paramount importance because the success of an organisation largely depends on how sound its human resource is (Imis, 2013). Politics has taken a centre stage of organisational dynamics, nowadays in organizations politics has become a daily activity, everyday employees and managers engage in one political behavior or the other.

Equally ,employees perception of politics can be positive or detrimental on attitudes, behavior and organisational commitment (Mishra, Sharma,& Swami, 2016) and influences employees performance (Rahman, Hussain, & Haque, 2011). Therefore, organisational politics can either be positive or negative. Positive organisational politics may provide bases for competitive advantages, especially when people are appropriately politically skilled, positive politics is mainly visible when individuals know how to use positive influential behaviour and strategies and evade negative behaviour (Cacciattolo, 2015). Other Positive

effects of organisational politics was further advanced by Cacciattolo (2015) which include carrier advancement, recognition and status, enhanced power and position, attainment of personal and organisational goals, successful accomplishment of job or policy implementation and feelings of achievement, ego, control and success. On the other hand (Schneider, 2016), sees organizational politics, as a source of stress and dissatisfaction among employees because it affects the performance of an employee at work. Thus on the other hand negative organisational politics results in decline in employee job satisfaction, unsettle work environment, decrease employee job commitment, favouritism based personnel action and job stress among others.

Highly political organizations reward employees who engage in strong influence tactics, take credit for others' work, and such employees belong to powerful coalitions and have connections with high-ranking allies. Thus, organisational politics is all about manipulating organisational policies and values to again undue advantage over others using self-serving behaviour or action (Sule, Olatunji;Amuni, Iyola Ashiru, 2015). Organisations take active steps to avoid, discourage or even eradicate negative politics in

organisational work setting. Politically affected organisations have different weaknesses in nature because the essence of politicking is deception and it leads to other outcomes in the shape of dissatisfaction, low performance, high turnover and increased anxiety (Curtis, 2003).

Nowadays, many human resource decision making are politicised especially the aspect of performance appraisal system. Employees feel that supervisors appraise performance based on personal likes and dislikes rather than on performance (Riaz, 2013). In essence, negatively politicised organizations support favouritism rather than merit to get ahead within the organisation. Changes are made in policies that only serve the interests of few individuals, not the work unit or the organisation. As a result of these it increases frustration, stress and intention to leave among employees. This study examined the antecedents of organisational politics and its consequence. The antecedents of organisational politics consist of the following variables: Job condition, centralisation, formalisation, and skill variety, age, Machiavellianism, self-monitoring, work diversity, relationship conflicts, role conflicts and need for power. However, for parsimony, this study was specific on workforce diversity and need for as an antecedent. Although there are other outcomes of OP, this study focused on low organisational commitment as an outcome of workplace politicking.

Although organisational politics is a well-researched topic, the field remain relevant in the Nigerian public service. There are reported cases of favoritism in matters related to recruitment, placement, promotion and discipline of staff. There are so many reported cases of unmerited promotion, placement, and incentives especially in many public service institutions. The Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) is one of those institutions where political games are played in the management of critical resources of the organisation such as recruitment, placement, and work related incentives. The Federal Inland Revenue Service was recently accused of secret recruitment without following due process (Idriss, 2018). The FIRS was also accused of nepotism and leaving those without influential person(s) within the organisation without work responsibilities/schedule of duties. This study seeks to test these assumptions that there is no significant relationship between workforce diversity and perceived organisational politics, there is no significant the relationship between need for power and perceived organisational politics, there is no significant relationship between POP results psychological withdrawal.

Even though there are studies conducted on POP at both the micro and macro level as well as multi-level, however, most research findings cannot be generalized because they are in western context and the

aspect of psychological withdrawal has been inadequately tested (Mishra *et al.*, 2016). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the study of the antecedent of POP mentioned here was not conducted in the Northeast Nigeria especially in the Federal Inland Revenue Service. Therefore, this study covered these gaps.

2.0 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Antecedents of organisational politics

One of the scholarly categorisation of OP's antecedents was offered by Ferris, Russ, & Fandt (1989). They organized OP's antecedents on three levels, that is the organizational level (an organization's conditions), the work environment level (job conditions and social networks) and the individual level (the dispositional and non-dispositional attributes of workers). Organizational level antecedents include centralization, formalization, hierarchical levels and spans of control. Autonomy, skill varieties, feedback and advancement opportunities constitute the antecedents at the job/environment level. Age, sex, Machiavellianism and self-monitoring were considered to be individual influences.

Mishra *et al.*, (2016) added some variables which included Workforce diversity is added as an organizational level antecedent; relationship and role conflict are added as work environment level antecedents and a need for power is added as an individual level antecedent to the Ferris *et al.*, (1989) model. The antecedents of interest to this study are Workforce diversity and need for power.

2.2 Workforce Diversity

Qasim (2017) state that keeping individual employees is one of the superior and complex problem in any sector, whether it is public service or private service. Moreover the term diversity at a time is one of the growing and expanding phenomenon in any firm. Employees who are serving as human resources play important roles in any organization or institution, particularly managing diverse work force is the most challenging accountability. He believes diversified work force brings positivity and much alternative decision choices for better goal attainment. Positive or negative workforce diversity management results in possible identified reactions to diversity such as include or exclude, to deny, to assimilate, to suppress, to isolate, to tolerate, to build relationships and to mutually adapt. Criteria of organizational approaches to diversity are consequently whether to address or to ignore diversity; whether to view diverse (cultural) backgrounds of their employees as a challenge to deal with or an asset to make use of; or whether to be reactive, defensive or proactive.

There are many ways to define diversity with the focus on various dimensions, such as gender, age, ethnicity, nationality, education, or work status.

However, Kreitz (2008) subsumed all these points by the defining diversity as any significant difference that distinguishes one individual from another, covering a wide variety of factors that might be obvious to other individuals or hidden under the surface. (Ely, R. J., & Thomas, 2001) stated that diversity is a characteristic of a group of two or more people and typically refers to demographic differences of one sort or another among group members.

The political potency and controversy surrounding diversity issues in today's society makes it difficult for agencies to know how to create appropriate and meaningful responses to diversity. Social and political discussions of diversity efforts and programs have become increasingly value-loaded and value-laden. Terms and phrases such as "political correctness," "quotas," "reverse discrimination," and "affirmative action programs" take on levels of symbolic and political meaning in the workplace that can, by their very nature, create barriers in the form of resentment and non-responsiveness toward "people of difference." Individuals who are thought to benefit from such programs are frequently stereotyped and diminished in capability. This leads to increased resentment at all levels of the organization. Most organizations, despite their stated belief in equal opportunity policies, have practices that range between inclusion and blatant discrimination (Allison, 1999).

In government organizations, workforces are highly diversified as the recruitment policies of these organizations provide least support to homosocial reproduction. In diversified workforces, those who are not similar to decision-makers form "outgroups" that are kept away from organizational resources and benefits; while those who are similar to them become members of "ingroups," who receive all the benefits of the workplace (Mishra *et al.*, 2016) "Outgroups" are generally kept in disadvantageous or least-important jobs, resulting in limiting their political skills. In light of such skill deficiencies, "outgroups" certainly cannot win political battles. On losing these battles, they perceive their work environment to be political and see themselves as suffering from a "lack of fitness" for their working environments (Mishra *et al.*, 2016).

Power and politics are inevitable part of human nature though they are among the least understood behavioural tendencies. Organizational power politics invades all actions within an organization. Power is one person's ability to permeate change on another person's way of life and actions. Using power is a valuable means to influencing and achieving intended desires and future action in others. Power is instrumental. It is a means to achieve goals other than the attainment of power itself. Power may also be expressed as one person is dependent on another (Alapo, 2018).

2.3 Need for power

Politics and power denote never-ending struggles that disarray groups and captivate them from pursuing and achieving their aims. They are nevertheless facts of life. People will fall back on the power that they have to achieve what they want. The process whereby people interact by competing to have their way when dealing with others or resolving common problems is what is involved in politics. From power in motion then, we derive politics, which is to say that politics involves the use of power (Alapo, 2018).

Power in an organisation can be formal or informal. Formal power is positional in nature such power is acquired by individuals because of their position in the organisational structures. Formal power can be either Legitimate Power, Reward Power or Coercive Power. Legitimate power is structured in terms of positions comprising the hierarchies of organizations. In other words, power in organization is organized into offices and status. These offices and status are structured hierarchically and serve as the system of extracting compliance or obedience and respect for established structures. Reward power is the power to grant or withhold tangible rewards such as pay increases, bonuses and favoured assignments and intangible rewards such as praise and respect. Coercive power is the ability to punish ranging from expressing verbal reprimands, salary cuts, suspension or dismissals (Omisore & Nweke, 2014). On the other part, Informal Power can be either Expert Power, Referent Power or Access Power. Informal power involves forms of power functioning outside established formal rules as well as authority structures. It is also based on individual roles and attributes. The expert power is derived from the special knowledge, skills and expertise possessed by someone.

Employees who have problems sometimes solicit the help of such close friends or confidants in reaching managers who are in a position to do something about such problems. In some organizations, knowing "someone" who knows "someone" can make a difference in who gets what. This study concerns with the informal power especially individual need for power and how it relates to POP (Omisore & Nweke, 2014).

Therefore, organizational politics is an elusive type of power relationship in the workplace. It represents a unique domain of interpersonal relations, characterized by the direct or indirect (active or passive) engagement of people in influence tactics and power struggles. These activities are frequently aimed at securing or maximizing personal interests or, alternatively, avoiding negative outcomes within the organization (Vigoda-Gadot, Eran and Talmud, 2010).

Thus, to give a definition to power in an organisation, Omisore and Nweke (2014) see it as the

ability of a person to influence another. The extent of this power is, however, determined, to a large extent, by the perception of the term power by the person at whom the power is directed.

Organizations are made up of both human and material resources. It is the human resource of an organization that transform or convert the material resources of the organization into finished or consumable products. In trying to transform/convert the material resource of the organization, choices have to be made. Choices as to the type or kind of product to be produced, different materials to be used in order to have the desired product, the type of machinery to be adopted for production efficiency and the financial resources to be involved and its sources. In any of these decisions, choices have to be made (Mishra *et al.*, 2016).

These decisions or choices involve some kind of politics while the person making the choices or decisions uses some power to ensure that his/her choices or decisions are accepted. Thus, the influence of power and politics in organizations presents a political analysis of intra organizational relations in which power play and politics is normal. In any organization, we look up to people/human resource for support. This accounts for the inevitability of organizational politics and power play. An understanding of organizational politics requires an analysis of power, coalitions and bargaining. The power relationship is the contest for political action and encompasses the most basic issues underlying organizational politics. In fact, survival in an organization is a political act (Omisore & Nweke, 2014).

2.4 Psychological Withdrawal

Public sector employees, much more than private sector employees, view their work environment as political in nature, and thus unfair and unjust (Vigoda-gadot & Kapun, 2005).

Organisational politics may cause an individual to detach either physically or mentally from the workplace. Therefore, whilst people may be present at the place of work, their mind could be elsewhere and may lack concentration. Studies that focus on the notion that organisational politics refers to the strategic behaviour that promotes self-interest, offer a negative image of workplace politics, and thus individuals continue to enforce their negative perspective of organisational politics (Cacciattolo, 2015).

Psychological withdrawal is the condition where an employee is physically present at the workplace but mentally absent (disengagement) (Mishra *et al.*, 2016). POP is positively related to employees' intentions to turnover. Its relationship with psychological withdrawal is stronger at public sector organizations. In the public sector, the cost of leaving an organization is very high and employees are not

ready to bear this cost. Thus, on perceiving their organization to be political, public sector employees opt to withdraw psychologically, rather than actually leave the organization (Vigoda, 2002). This study looked at psychological withdrawal in terms of job anxiety and organisational commitment.

2.4.1 Job Anxiety

Anxiety in the workplace may appear in different qualities: workplace-related posttraumatic stress or adjustment disorder, workplace-related situational fears, workplace related panic reactions, workplace-related specific and unspecific social phobia and workplace-related generalized anxiety. Most people in our society perceive their workplace as a domain of life which affects a great part of their all day lives, their feelings and thoughts – with regards to the duration of time, content and in social respect. To have a workplace is seen as important for assuring existence and also self-confidence (Muschalla, B. & Linden, 2014).

Thus events at the workplace or experiences concerning the workplace regularly have effects on the mental state of a person. Mental disorders in connection with the workplace get more and more importance in our so-called modern societies. This is especially to be seen in the context of chronic mental disorders in psychosomatic rehabilitation, namely when long durations of sick leave are occurring. Often there are severe social-medical consequences concerning (un)fitness for work and (un)employability (Muschalla, B. & Linden, 2014).

Psychological conditions that are stress-strain related and have a potential impact on the individual's behaviour not limited to the immediate work sphere (that is, in family life or other social contacts). Such reactions may reach beyond the work environment and include anxiety. For example, anxiety was defined as a psychological strain that involves feelings of tension, nervousness, worry and apprehension. Perception of the organization as an unfair or non-reciprocating environment where people do not receive honest returns and benefits for their admirable personal investments and efforts are translated into an emotional state of stress and burnout (Vigoda, 2002).

POP is a work environmental stressor, which results in the most prominent psychological strain that is job anxiety. The majority of OP scholars have studied OP's relationship with stress. The most negative effects of POP would be on employees who do not enjoy a broad safety network of social support, mutual trust with co-workers and a general foundation of solid social capital (Vigoda-Gadot, Eran & Talmud, 2010).

2.4.2 Organisational Commitment

Employee's psychological and physical attachment towards their organisation forms what is called commitment and this is the inner force that

guides a course of action towards one or more targets. It has been theorized that commitment is a multidimensional construct and that the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of commitment vary across many dimensions. Three-Component Model of Commitment. This model refers to the three forms of commitment that is affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment is explained as an emotional attachment to the organization. Continuance commitment is the perceived costs associated with leaving the organization. While normative commitment refers to the perceived obligation to remain in the organization (Chelliah, 2015).

Chelliah (2015) further added that affective commitment is an individuals' personal emotional connection with the organization and how employees feel personate and responsible, their feeling as members to the organisation and the willingness they have to continue working for the organisation. Employees who are committed on an emotional level stay with the organization because of their personal working relationship as consistent with the mission and ethics of the organization. Continuance commitment refers to a state where employees develop organizational commitment to an organization because of extrinsic rewards like the positive results obtained through the effort-free deal to identify with the goals and values of the organization. This differs from affective commitment, in which individuals remain with an organization because they want to and because they are familiar with the organization and its principles.

Normative commitment on the other hand is the work ethics and implicit responsibilities of the employees in their organizations. This can be explained as a sense of responsibility to continue working with a specific organization. The idea, internalized of responsibility and commitment, allows employees continued membership which is appreciated by a specific organization. The normative element is seen where people who consider the moral commitment with the view of remaining within a specific organization, regardless of the amount of improvement in the state of completion the organization provides to the individual over the years. Employees commitment can only be achieved with the presence of trust in leadership, honesty, job security, absences of work-related stress, chance to use skills and good pay package (Chelliah, 2015).

Organizational politics thus can distract organizational environment, especially for those who are not politically skilled and have little interest in political dynamics, which may lower their organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Organizational politics leads to job stress and anxiety which reduce their job satisfaction and organisational commitment. Organizational politics has potential to

lead to a perceived lack of fair treatment and employees may expect that their performance will not be rewarded which will leads to job dissatisfaction (Abbas, Shafique, & Ahmad, 2015).

3.0 METHODOLOGY

The study is survey research, which is also quantitative and descriptive in nature, based on large a case study design strategy. The population of study is 304 consisting of all the managers and officers of the Federal Inland Revenue Service (FIRS) in North East Nigeria. The sample size of the study is 172. The sampling technique used for the purpose of study is simple random sampling. The sample size was determined using Krejcie and Morgan (1970) sample size distribution Table. The study used structured questionnaire to collect data from the sampled employees of FIRS The study also deployed the use of two statistical software packages (IBM SPSS, V25 and SEM-AMOS) to analysed all the data collected.

3.1 Measurement Instrument

The measurement items for the constructs of this study were adapted from previous studies.

The following measurement items were adopted in designing questionnaire's to measure variables undertaken in the study:

Perception of organizational politics: POP was measured using the 8 items scale of perception of organizational politics scale (POPS) (Ferris, Gerald R and Kacmar, 1992).

Workforce diversity: to measure workforce diversity, a six -item, five-point Likert designed by (Podsiadlowski, Gröschke, Kogler, Springer, & Zee, 2013).

Need for power: to measure need for power, a six-item, five-point Likert scale was adapted from the six-item need for power assessment questionnaire Anderson and Ketner (2012).

Job anxiety: anxiety was measured on an eight-item, five-point Likert scale developed by (Muschalla and Linden, 2014) For the purpose of this study, anxiety related to jobs was considered.

Organizational commitment: to measure organizational commitment, seven item, five-point Likert scale was adapted from (Lambert, Eric G, Poaline III, E.A & Hogan, 2006).

3.2 Data Analysis

The data were collected from staff of Federal Inland Revenue Services (FIRS) from four states of North eastern Nigeria. This States are Bauchi, Borno, Gombe and Yobe. A total of one hundred and seventy two (172) questionnaires were distributed to each

branch as determined. A total number of one hundred and forty (140) questionnaires were retrieved. This indicates an approximately eighty-two percent (82%) response rate. However, only one hundred and thirty-five (135) questionnaires were found valid and useable. This response rate is considered adequate based on the argument by (Sekaran, 2003) that a response rate of 30% is acceptable for survey research.

For purpose of the study, Content and Construct validities were used. In the content validity, the researcher ask whether the content of a measure covers the full domain of the content. The validity test was carried out through Factor Analysis Using IBM SPSS Version 25. In this study, reliability test was also be carried out using IBM SPSS version 25, where all the variables were tested and their Cronbach’s Alpha Values determined. The data collected were analyzed using IBM SPSS (statistical package for social science) V.25 and IBM SEM-AMOS V.22. IBM SPSS was used to perform Preliminary analysis such as descriptive statistics of respondents and outlier detection and management. While, IBM SEM-AMOS was used to carry out multiple regression, test the Hypotheses stated.

4.0 RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Reliability Analysis

The reliability of the instrument was assessed based on Cronbach's Alpha. The reliability of the research instrument was tested using IBM SPSS version 25. The reliability of the model, refers to “the consistency between multiple measurements of a variable” (Hair, *et al.*, 2009). There are various types of reliability. Considering the data collection method, the study only focus on the internal consistency reliability to assess the consistency of response across items within a single factor through Cronbach’s Alpha statistic.

Cronbach’s Alpha statistic is the most widely measure to assess the consistency of the entire scale. It is generally agreed that the lower limit of alpha values is 0.7 even though Alpha of 0.6 is also acceptable (Nunnally, 1978; Robinson, Shaver, & Wrightsman, 1991; Hair *et al.*, 2009). Table 1 shows that all alpha values with the exception of Workforce diversity were over the lower limit for this measure. Thus, the items within a single factor are highly correlated and interchangeable.

Table 1: Results of Construct Reliability

Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach’s Alpha
Workforce Diversity	5	0.669
Need for Power	5	0.828
Influence Tactics of POP	2	0.789
Subjective Perception of POP	4	0.781
Job Anxiety of Psychological Withdrawal	5	0.849
Organisational Commitment of Psychological Withdrawal	5	0.871

Source: Researcher’s survey, 2019.

Table 2: Result of Standardized and Unstandardized Regression Estimate of Antecedent of Perception of Organisational Politics and Psychological Withdrawal Model

Constructs	R ²	Std. Beta	S.E.	C.R.	P	Result
WFD POP →		0.627	0.223	3.045	0.002	Significant
NFP POP →		-0.021	0.216	-0.153	0.878	Not Significant
POP PSW →		0.590	0.081	4.260	***	Significant
POP	.974					
PSW	.348					

***means significant at < 0.001

Source: Extracted from IBM AMOS vs 22 Output, 2019.

4.2 Relationship between Workforce Diversity and Perception of Organisational Politics

The first hypothesis (H₀₁) is stated as “there is no significant relationship between workforce diversity and perceived organisational politics.” Results of standardized and unstandardized regression weights suggested a positive and significant relationship between workforce diversity and perceived organisational politics ($\beta = 0.63, P < 0.005$). The result in Table 2 shows that when workforce diversity goes up

by 1 standard deviation, perception of organisational politics goes up by 0.63 standard deviations but with a standard error of about 0.223. While, the probability of getting a critical ratio as large as 3.045 is 0.002. In other words, the regression weight for workforce diversity in predicting perceived organisational politics is significantly different from zero at the 0.002 level (two-tailed). Based on the outputs, it can be concluded that workforce diversity has positive and significant relationship with perceived organisational politics.

Hence, H_{O1}: there is no significant relationship between workforce diversity and perceived organisational politics is rejected.

4.3 Relationship between Need for Power and Perception of Organisational Politics

The second hypothesis (H_{O2}) is stated as “there is no significant relationship between the need for power and perceived organisational politics.” The result shows that need for power has a negative and non-significant effect on perceived organisational politics ($\beta = -0.02, P > 0.005$). Results show that when need for power goes up by 1 standard deviation, perceived organisational politics goes down by -0.02 standard deviations, with a standard error of about 0.216. The probability of getting a critical ratio of -0.153 was 0.878. In other words, the regression weight for need for power in the prediction of perceived organisational politics was not significantly different from zero at the 0.05 level (two-tailed). On the other hand, need for power has a negative relationship with perceived organisational politics ($\beta = -0.02, P > 0.005$). Thus, H_{O2}: there is no significant relationship between need for power and perceived organisational politics is accepted.

4.4 Relationship between Perception of Organisational Politics and Psychological Withdrawal

The third hypothesis (H_{O3}) is stated as “the more the perceived organisational politics, the higher the psychological withdrawal.” Results in Table 2 show that there is positive and significant relationship between perceived organisational politics and psychological withdrawal. The output shows that, the R square values (R²) of 0.35, the model proposed that psychological withdrawal is measured by two dimensions (job anxiety and organisational commitment). The result shows that both job anxiety and organisational commitment have strong and positive influence on psychological withdrawal. Thus, H_{O3}: the more the perceived organisational politics, the higher the psychological withdrawal is accepted. POP explain PSW by 35 percent. This shows that there are other constructs not identified in this study that will account for the remaining 65 percent to explain PSW.

4.5 DISCUSSION

The study found a positive and significant relationship between workforce diversity and perceived organisational politics. Diversity among employees and managers in organisation in terms of gender, ethnicity, religion, race, professional background and tribes create groups within the organisation because people with similar background usually form cliques and always try to manipulate policies and other employees in order to gain undue advantages. The strong group will be favoured more than the weaker group making them feel at disadvantage and therefore perceive their workplace as political. The result from this study is in consistent with the study of POP by Mishra *et al.*, (2016) where they found the antecedents of workforce diversity (the

organizational level), as having a significant and a positive impact on POP.

Power struggle and influence tactics by managers and other employees has always been a source of political games in organizations. Contrary to many studies, the results from this study show that need for power has a negative and non-significant impact on POP. Need for power was hypothesized to have no relationship to POP. The results has supported the presumption. This study contradicts the study of (Pfeffer, 1981; Mishra *et al.*, 2016) who found that to influence the processes and outcomes for one’s own benefit one needs power, and to gain power people behave politically. Both the two authors found a positive relationship between need for power and POP.

The result of this study which found a negative relationship shows that respondents in this study do not see individual need for power and influence processes displayed by co-workers as political. Most employees in FIRS are after their pay/other benefits rather than power struggle. This submission can be further justified by the characteristics of the respondents in the study. It can be concluded that almost 70% of the respondents are officers and graduates from Universities and Polytechnics, but they are also considered as junior staff in FIRS, who focus more on their welfare than power struggle. Another possible explanation is the cultural variation, the respondents of other studies are mostly in the western context, while this study is carried in Nigeria where the work environment differs.

5.0 CONCLUSION

This study used the Just World Theory to examine the antecedent and outcome of POP. The important of understanding the negative effect of POP on employees and organisational performance cannot be over emphasized. It is therefore, very important to know the cause and effect of politics in organisation. Managers would have to identify and manage influence tactics and political behaviour within the organisation. If not the result of negative politics in organisation will be detrimental to the system as a whole. Conclusively when employees perceive their workplace as a place where political games are played to get ahead, they normally reduce their commitment and job anxiety will set in among workers which will also affects employee commitment.

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