박사학위논문

The effect of perceptions of organizational politics on the mechanisms of attitudes and behaviors of employees

-Focused on the mediating effect of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, job attitudes and the moderating effect of organizational justice-

2023년

한 성 대 학 교 대 학 원

지식서비스&컨설팅학과

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심 사 위 원 　장 우 진　(인)

심 사 위 원 　안 현 철　(인)

심 사 위 원 　하 성 욱　(인)

심 사 위 원 　이 형 용　(인)

ABSTRACT

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Huh, Byungjun

Major in Management Consulting

Dept. of Knowledge Service & Consulting

The Graduate School

Hansung University

The purpose of this study was to examine the direct relationship between perceptions of organizational politics (POP) and organizational silence, organizational cynicism, job attitudes, and organizational behaviors of employees as well as the overall mechanism of the effect of these variables on behavior. To identify the overall mechanism, we conducted an empirical study using the social exchange theory approach, the social information theory approach, the emotional event theory approach, and the EVLN (Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect) model, which is a model of job dissatisfaction behavior. In the affective event theory, we expanded the emotional reactions to the variables of organizational silence and organizational cynicism, which consist of various emotions, to empirically identify the mechanism of behavior.

This study confirmed the direct influence and relationship between organizational politics, organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes in the pathway from organizational politics to employee behavior. It also identified the overall mechanism by which the perceptions of organizational politics leads to the response behavior (EVLN) of employees through organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitude.

Finally, it was found that organizational justice interacts with perceptions of organizational politics and affects both organizational silence and organizational cynicism.

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Ⅰ. Introduction

1.1 Background and Purpose of the Study

Amid the rapidly changing market environment, technological advancement is taking place and international situations such as the 4th Industrial Revolution and COVID-19 occurred, each individual company has been making various efforts to improve corporate growth and organizational performance. Accordingly, various studies are being conducted to improve work performance of employees. In order to achieve this goal, it will be important to understand the mechanisms of perception, job attitude, and behavior for individual members and organizations.

Through previous studies, it can be expected that the positive or negative perception of the organization of employees affects the formation of positive or negative job attitudes of employees, and attitudes affect the actual behavior of employees. Vakola & Bouradas (2005) stated that the perception of the workplace they perceive strongly influences an individual's attitudes and behaviors. In particular, organizational politics is prevalent within organizations (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989; Gandz & Murray, 1980), and employees' perceptions of organizational politics (POP) have been studied to affect job attitudes negatively and influence negative behaviors (C. C. Rosen, Harris, et al., 2009). Rosen, Christopher C., & Levy, Paul E. (2013) stated that politics are related to the impression that organizations are not competent or willing to fulfill their exchange obligations. R. Cropanzano et al. (1997) proposed that the workplace can be viewed as a social marketplace where individuals seek a favorable return on their investment. (C.C. Rosen et al., 2006). From this

perspective, highly political organizations are likely to have employees with low favorable work attitudes because the arbitrariness and apparent unfairness of the system undermine employees' confidence that the reward system will meet their needs (C. C. Rosen et al., 2006).

In addition, the presence of organizational politics is pervasive in the workplace. It has an impact on a range of processes related to individual and organizational effectiveness, such as the assessment of job performance, allocation of resources, distribution of compensation, and decision-making practices concerning personnel (Christopher C. Rosen & Levy, 2013). According to Lewin et al. (1936), humans respond to perceptions of facts, not facts themselves. And from this point of view, organizational politics needs to be understood as subjective experiences and objective psychological states rather than objective phenomena (Ferris et al., 2002; Davis & Gardner, 2004; Ferris et al., 2000; Vigoda-Gadotal Tud, 2010). In addition, it was said that perceptions of organizational politics (POP), rather than objective reality, generally play the most important role in influencing subsequent attitudes and behaviors (Breaux et al., 2009). Bandura (1989) suggested that people actively perceive the environment rather than being completely free from it or determined by it (Spreitzer, 1996). Therefore, it is necessary to understand the organization's behavior mechanism by studying perceptions of organizational politics (POP) that are prevalent in the organization and affect its behavior and performance.

Perceptions of organizational politics (POP) have been studied in the literature to have a negative impact on job satisfaction (Gandz & Murray, 1980; Meisler & Vigoda-Gadot, 2014), organizational commitment (Miller et al., 2008), organizational citizenship behavior (C.-H. Chang et al., 2012), a positive impact on turnover intention (C. Chang et al., 2009) and work stress (R. Cropanzano et al., 1997).

C. Chang et al. (2009) argued that employees' perceptions of selfish and illegal political activities at work consistently have a negative relationship with employees' attitudes and behaviors and that studies showing a positive relationship between organizational politics and desirable results are exceptional and are manipulated statistically. These organizational politics also have been studied to affect organizational silence and cynicism, negatively affecting the organization. Milliken et al. (2003) said that employee silence might cause stress, dissatisfaction, cynicism, and departure among employees.

Organizational silence should be studied in an organization because it is contagious, and silence on one issue can spread to silence on several other issues. In addition, this silence weakens the strength of bonds with others, and this weakened bond degrades the level of trust and reduces the likelihood of speaking on other issues (Milliken & Morrison, 2003). Silence can cause problems in managers' decisions with the loss of negative information about potential problems, and silence on critical issues can impair the organization's ability to detect errors and participate in learning (Milliken et al., 2003). The phenomenon of silence in the organization blocks the exchange of ideas between members, hindering the creation of creative results through cooperation and making it difficult to exercise collective creativity. In addition, silence becomes a common practice for organizations, blocking the path to creativity and innovation (Jahangir & Abdullah, 2017). The atmosphere of silence negatively affects organizational efficiency because it affects organizational error detection and learning ability (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005). In addition, organizational silence was found to have a negative effect on organizational citizenship behavior (Andersson & Bateman, 1997), job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Abraham, 2000; Chiaburu et al., 2013) and a positive effect on turnover intention (Hasan Tutar et al.,

2021). At the same time, high perceptions of politics can develop a cynical attitude within an organization that reduces the trust among members of the organization (Davis & Gardner, 2004). Cynicism is associated with performance degradation, interpersonal conflict, absenteeism, job turnover, and burnout (Naus et al., 2007). Chiaburu et al. (2013) suggested negative work experiences, such as organizational politics, as an antecedent that leads to cynicism. In addition, organizational silence affects cynicism (Aboramadan et al., 2020; Akar, 2019) and can magnify and reproduce cynicism among employees.

It was confirmed that perceptions of organizational politics (POP) also affect job attitudes and behavior (C.-H. Chang et al., 2012). Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) suggested that collective perceptions of situations can predict individual attitudes and have a relationship between organizational characteristics and job attitudes. The influence relationship between job attitudes and behavior can also be explained by the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991). According to the Planned Behavior Theory (TPB), attitudes lead to behavioral intentions, which in turn lead to actual behavior. Reibstein et al. (1980) said that as long as perception and behavior are interdependent, beliefs lead to emotions, and emotions lead to actions. Perception affects and is influenced by behavior at the same time.

Glasman and Albarracin (2006) examined the factors that play a role in how attitudes formed at a particular point in time influence future behavior. They discovered that attitudes are more strongly related to future behavior when they are stable over time and easier to remember.

Furthermore, they observed that attitudes are more effective in predicting future behavior when individuals have more personal experience with the object of their attitude and express their attitudes more frequently. Kraus (1995) similarly conducted a meta-analysis and found

out that an individual's attitude can influence their behavior, particularly when certain factors such as accessibility, stability, certainty, emotional-cognitive consistency, and direct experience with the attitude object are high.

From an organization's point of view, it will be essential to understand these mechanisms and predict and judge employees' behavior for organizational operation because it is necessary to induce changes in employees' perceptions and job attitudes. The organizational politics affecting job attitudes and behavior can be explained according to the cognitive judgment approach and the social influence approach. According to the traditional cognitive judgment approach to job attitude formation, the work environment is expressed as a set of abstract work characteristics, salary levels, and promotion opportunities, which employees use to evaluate their perception against a set of standards (value, desire, etc.). In addition, Salancik & Pfeffer (1978) proposed the Social Information Processing Theory as the Social Influence Approach. The difference between the approach and the cognitive judgment approach is that social information influences perception and standards (Weiss & Cropano, 1996). According to social information processing theory, an essential source of information is the individual's social environment. Thus, this perspective is called social information processing. This social environment supplies cues that people use to construct and interpret events and also provides information about what people's attitudes and opinions should be (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Organizational politics is basically defined as selfish behavior (Ferris et al., 1989; Kacmar & Baron, 1999), and the harm caused by organizational politics can lead employees to have a negative perception of the company or, from the social information processing theory, the knowledge of peers and managers' selfish political activities through direct

or indirect channels affects negative job attitudes and behavior. In addition, job attitudes and employee behavior due to organizational politics have been explained by social exchange theory (C. C. Rosen et al., 2006; C. Chang et al., 2009; Khan et al., 2019). Social exchange is an action conditioned on the compensation response of others (Blau, 1964) and implied is a two-sided, mutually contingent, and mutually rewarding process involving "deal" or simply "exchange" (Cook & Emerson, 1987).

C. C. Rosen, Chang, et al. (2009) said that when the social context is very political, organizational agents often give the impression that they can not fulfill their exchange obligations, because they are preoccupied with protecting their interests and accumulating power without interest in the impact of their actions on other members. Therefore, it will be difficult for employees to predict whether their actions will lead to compensation in the context of political work. R. Cropanzano et al. (2017) stated that there are many variations in social exchange, but most modern models of organizational behavior share the characteristics of the actor's initial treatment of the target individual, the subject's interaction with the behavior (both attitude and behavior), and relationship formation. In addition, the social exchange process begins when an organization's actor or perpetrator (usually a supervisor or colleague) treats the target individual positively or negatively, and social exchange theory predicts that the target will tend to respond interchangeably by responding with more positive and/or less negative rewards in response to positive initiation behavior.

Weiss & Cropanzano (1996) introduced the relationship between job attitudes and behavior through the Affective event theory (AET). According to the Affective event theory (AET), it is suggested the work environment creates negative and positive work events, and these work

events cause positive or negative emotions, affecting job attitudes and behavior. Emotions were rediscovered as a major influence on individual attitudes and behaviors in the workplace, and emotions were identified as a fundamental mechanism to help explain differences in organizational outcomes, including performance, leadership, group, and organizational change processes (Y. Liu et al., 2006).

Miller & Nichols (2008) found that organizational members' high perceptions of organizational politics (POP) showed a low level of justice. And according to Andrews & Kacmar's (2001) research, the work environment is perceived as unjust and unfair when an organization's decision-making process is influenced by politics rather than formal rules and regulations. Vigoda-Gadot & Talmud (2010) stated that perceptions of organizational politics (POP) are an individual's perceptions of organizational politics (POP) and mean the degree to which organizational members view their work environment as unfair, political, or unjust. In addition, organizational justice was shown to reduce the negative effect of organizational politics (Byrne, 2005). Therefore, since organizational politics is a major factor influencing fair evaluation and compensation, it is necessary to study the mutual influence relationship between organizational politics and organizational justice and the influence on employees' attitudes. Accordingly, it is also necessary to study the effect of the interaction of perceptions of organizational politics (POP) and organizational justice perceptions on organizational cynicism and silence.

Organizational politics has been studied primarily for its negative impact on employee attitudes and behaviors, with organizational silence and organizational cynicism being two of the most significant negative effects. In addition, silence in an organization undermines the efficiency of the decision-making and change process (Milliken et al., 2003), which

develops negative cynicism about the organization (Beer & Eisenstat, 2000; Pinder & Harlos, 2001). This also degrades the morale of its members. Therefore, it is necessary to study the relationship between organizational politics' influence on organizational silence and organizational cynicism. In addition, it is necessary to manage these factors by identifying the impact of organizational silence and cynicism on employees' job attitudes and the impact of these job attitudes on employees' direct behavior in an organizational context to elicit positive and constructive behavior and reduce negative behavior. Therefore, there is a need for this study in that it is necessary to establish a strategy to increase the performance and effectiveness of the organization by understanding the mechanism of organizational politics, leading to employees' perceptions, job attitudes, and behavior. Thus, this study aims to empirically investigate the relationship between employees' perceptions of organizational politics (POP) and the effects of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes on employee behavior. In addition, this study aims to identify the impact of perceptions of organizational politics (POP) on employees' response behavior (EVLN) through the mediating roles of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes.

In this study, the dominant emotions of organizational silence are fear, anger, cynicism, hopelessness, and depression (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). In addition, silence causes humiliation, anger, stress, and resentment (Knoll & Van Dick, 2013). Cynicism is associated with negative emotions such as apathy, resignation, alienation, hopelessness, distrust of others, suspicion, contempt, disillusion, and scorn (Naus et al., 2007). Furthermore, political behavior takes the form of negative influence tactics such as coercion, intimidation, demagoguery, and manipulation. The use of these tactics will generate negative emotions among those on

the losing side of a political maneuver, resulting in anger and disappointment (Drory & Meisler, 2016). Therefore, in addition to the social exchange theory and social information processing perspectives to understand the mechanisms by which perceptions of organizational politics (POP) affects employee behavior through organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes, this study extends organizational silence and organizational cynicism to emotional reactions and utilizes the theoretical framework of affective event theory (AET) to understand the mutual influence relationship and behavioral mechanisms between organizational politics and organizational silence, organizational cynicism, job attitudes, and response behavior (EVLN).

To add on, as a valuable framework for understanding employee behavior, Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect (EVLN) model proposed by Hirschman (1970) and expanded by Rusbult et al. (1982) is integrated with existing theoretical models to study employees' response behavior. In doing so, this study explains how organizational silence and cynicism, which are proximal responses to organizational politics, mediate the effects of perceptions of organizational politics (POP) on job attitudes and employees' response behavior (EVLN), which are distal outcomes of organizational politics. The purpose of this study is summarized as follows.

First, this study aims to understand the effects of perceptions of organizational politics (POP) on organizational silence and organizational cynicism among employees. Second, this study aims to identify the impact of organizational silence on organizational cynicism. Third, it aims to determine the effect of organizational silence and cynicism on job attitude. Fourth, to determine the impact of job attitudes on response behavior (EVLN). Fifth, to assess the impact of perceptions of organizational politics (POP) on job attitudes by mediating organizational

silence and organizational cynicism. Sixth, to assess the impact of perceptions of organizational politics (POP) on employees' response behavior (EVLN) by mediating organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitude. Lastly, this study aims to identify the moderating effect of perceptions of organizational politics (POP) on organizational silence and organizational cynicism through interaction with organizational justice perceptions.

1.2 Methods and Organization of the Study

This study is aimed to investigate the relationship between POP and organizational silence, organizational cynicism and job attitudes and response behavior (EVLN), and the moderating effect of organizational justice. To this end, we reviewed previous studies and theoretical backgrounds on the individual constructs of organizational politics, organizational silence, organizational cynicism, job attitudes, and response behavior (EVLN) and their relationships, constructed a research model, and set hypotheses. Then, based on the previous research, a questionnaire was constructed and conducted as an online survey for employees in actual companies.

The collected data were analyzed using SmartPLS 3.0 to evaluate the measurement model's reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. In addition, the results of the structural model were analyzed to test the basic hypotheses. This study is organized into five chapters, and the contents of each chapter are as follows. Chapter I, Introduction, describes the study's background, purpose, necessity, method, and organization. Chapter II, Theoretical Background, examines social exchange theory, social information processing theory, and affective event theory as theoretical backgrounds related to organizational politics. It also

defines the research trends and concepts of organizational politics, organizational justice, organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and response behavior (EVLN), and summarizes previous studies.

In Chapter III, research design and research methods, based on the previous studies, the research hypothesis was set, the questionnaire was constructed, and the research method was defined, including the selection of the sample and the collection of data based on the comparative analysis of the research results of previous papers on the influence relationship between organizational politics, organizational silence, cynicism, job attitude, and the response behavior (EVLN)

In Chapter IV, empirical analysis, based on the data collected through the survey, the data were reviewed using the SmartPLS 3.0 program, the measurement model was evaluated by evaluating the validity and reliability of the latent variables set in the research hypothesis, and the hypotheses were tested through the evaluation of the structural model. Then, through the discussion of the results, the implications of the empirical analysis are described, and the differences with existing studies are examined. In Chapter V, the conclusion summarizes the findings, presents the academic and practical implications of the hypothesis testing results, and finally suggests this study's limitations and future research directions.

Ⅱ. Theoretical Background

2.1 Social Exchange Perspective

"Social exchange theory is one of the most influential conceptual paradigms for understanding workplace behavior" (R. Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Social exchange, as defined by Homans (1961), refers to the exchange of activities, whether tangible or intangible, that have varying degrees of cost or reward between two or more individuals. The concept of cost is understood in terms of the activities or opportunities that the individuals have to forgo in order to engage in the exchange. With exchange theory as the basic form of social behavior, Homans proposed five core propositions in terms of rewards and punishments. The first is that behaviors that lead to positive outcomes are likely to be repeated. The second is that behaviors that have been rewarded in the past are likely to be repeated in similar situations. Third, if an action or reward has a high value to an individual, they are more likely to perform the action. Fourth, if an individual has received a particular reward frequently in the recent past, the value of that reward diminishes. Finally, the social exchange theory outlines the conditions that lead to emotional reactions in different situations. It states that people will show emotions of anger and become aggressive when they don't get what they expect. In the last proposition, Homans suggests that not only the amount of reward received or cost paid, but also the comparison of others plays an important role and that when faced with a choice between alternative behaviors, an individual will choose the behavior that he or she believes has a greater probability of increasing the value of the outcome at that time.

Blau (1964) stated that social exchange refers to the voluntary

actions of individuals motivated by the outcomes they are expected to bring and actually do bring from others. He maintained that social exchange is distinct from purely economic exchange in significant ways, with the most crucial distinction being the inclusion of unspecified obligations in social exchange. Bodla (2011) stated that social exchange is generally considered a social interaction between an employee and an organization, and one of the outcomes of this interaction is a long-term relationship between the employee and the organization.

Gouldner (1960) studied the norm of reciprocity as a basis for social exchange theory. He posited that the generalized norm of reciprocity is a moral standard that encompasses a range of actions and obligations expected to be fulfilled in response to the benefits that one has received. The norm of reciprocity not only serves to stabilize human relationships but also contributes to social stability. When both parties internalize the norm, it obligates the person who receives the benefit first to repay the benefit at some point, and it provides certainty that the person who shares his or her value first will receive the benefit in return. Thus, the norm of reciprocity can act as a "starting mechanism" that allows exchange and social relationships to occur in the first place. This norm of reciprocity is necessary because it motivates and regulates interaction (reciprocity) as a pattern of exchange and serves to inhibit the emergence of exploitative relationships due to power differentials that can undermine the power apparatus and social system (Gouldner, 1960).

Furthermore, Gouldner (1960) suggested that in its universal form, the norm of reciprocity creates two related minimum demands: a) people should help those who help them, and b) people should not hurt those who help them. According to Blau (1964), the basis of interpersonal relationships lies in reciprocity, and social exchange between individuals stems from receiving either intrinsic or extrinsic rewards. The social

exchange principle involves one person performing a favor for another with the expectation of a future reward. When people come together, the benefits of entering into exchange relationships before standard norms, goals, or role expectations are crystallized among them provide incentives for social interaction, and the exchange process serves as a mechanism for social regulation, thus facilitating the development of networks of social relationships and basic group structures (Blau, 1964).

In the social exchange model, behavior in a social sense is based on exchange. When an individual allows someone to receive a reward, he or she will feel the need to reciprocate due to social pressure and will try to minimize costs while maximizing rewards. Rewards refer to the monetary benefits or personal satisfaction derived from the social exchange. The resources exchanged can be material goods. They can also be non-material elements such as symbols of recognition, information, and prestige. Previous researchers regarded social exchange relationships as a cost-benefit relationship between two individuals. They suggested that if one party perceives that the costs of the relationship exceed the perceived benefits, they will decide to end the relationship. Social exchange theory suggests that interpersonal trust is formed between exchange partners when interpersonal obligations are established through social interactions, and these obligations are fulfilled over some time (Lai et al., 2014).

R. Cropanzano et al. (2017) identified that many of the most important topics in organizational behavior, such as organizational citizenship behavior, engagement, and justice, have been analyzed through the lens of social exchange theory. Harris et al. (2007) examined the relationship between organizational politics, job satisfaction, and turnover intention from the perspective of social exchange theory. R. Cropanzano & Mitchell (2005) reviewed the literature on social exchange relationships in work settings and found that, generally, employees can form distinct

social exchange relationships with their direct supervisors, co-workers, employing organizations, customers, and vendors, and these distinct relationships influence behavior. In particular, individuals are likely to match favors and assistance to parties with whom they have social exchange relationships because they are expected to repay the benefits they receive. In addition, R. Cropanzano & Mitchell (2005) found that perceived organizational support positively influences organizational citizenship behavior, job performance, and organizational commitment and reduces absenteeism.

Organizational politics is often perceived as unfair because it negatively affects employees. According to social exchange theory, organizational politics puts the exchange relationship at risk and runs counter to the benefits gained from it (Chinomona & Mofokeng, 2016). Furthermore, from a social exchange perspective, individuals are more likely to withdraw from a relationship if they perceive that the relationship is not beneficial to them. C.-H. Chang et al. (2009) explained the impact of organizational politics from a social exchange perspective. They argued that in highly political organizations, the environment becomes unpredictable because rewards are not objective factors but are related to relationships, power, and other things, and the unwritten principles for achieving success become variable. Consequently, employees may struggle to anticipate whether their actions will result in rewards within a political work context, which can weaken the link between performance and attaining desired outcomes. Using social exchange theory, Sun & Xia (2018) found that organizational political behavior is perceived by employees as disruptive to the employee-organization and co-worker interaction, leading to employee sabotage behaviors such as employee silence. Organizational politics negatively affects the exchange relationship between employees and the

organization and leads to the perception that the organization is unlikely to fulfill its exchange obligations. This perception is also negatively reflected in work attitudes, and employees engage in negative withdrawal behaviors to restore the balance of the exchange relationship (C. C. Rosen, Harris, et al., 2009).

2.2 Social Information Processing Perspective (SIP)

Salancik & Pfeffer (1978) introduced the social information processing approach to explaining job attitudes beyond the perspective of traditional need satisfaction and expectancy theories. According to their argument, the social information processing perspective places greater importance on situational factors and the outcomes of previous decisions rather than relying solely on individual traits and logical decision-making processes.

Salancik and Pfeffer (1978) proposed that the social information processing approach starts from the fundamental principle that individuals are adaptable and adjust their attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors based on the social environment and their past and present experiences. They argue that attitudes and desires are not innate but instead develop as individuals process information to understand their surroundings. According to social information processing models, attitudes are formed through the interpretation of relevant, reliable, and prominent information, often of a social nature. There are multiple pathways through which attitudes can be influenced. Furthermore, this model suggests that social information can shape perceptions, attitudes, and behavior (Zalesny & Ford, 1990), meaning that employees construct their perceptions and attitudes based on social cues in the workplace, which in turn influence their behavior.

The social information processing model suggests that the social

environment directly influences job attitudes through the influence of social information and pressure to conform. Sources of social information about a job can be: a) recollections of past experiences with the job or related attitudes, b) the degree to which an individual is committed to the behavior, c) the existence of social norms for the behavior, d) attributions about one's behavior such as past behavior, and e) opinions about what others think about the job (Zalesny & Ford, 1990).

The social environment in which people work plays a significant role in how they perceive and make sense of their experiences. It also provides information about what individuals' attitudes and opinions should be, and through informational social influence processes, the social environment can influence beliefs about the nature of jobs and work, appropriate attitudes, and, indeed, the needs that people should possess (Zalesny & Ford, 1990).

Social information processing (SIP) is founded on the principle that the social environment in which individuals work and live is the source of cues that employees use to interpret and create their reality. Therefore, employees respond not only to the actual workplace situations but also to a constructed reality based on social information from their surroundings. This social information may include observations of co-worker behavior, interactions with organizational representatives, and information communicated by co-workers (Thomas & Griffin, 1983; C. C. Rosen, Chang, et al., 2009). These studies have shown that individuals may have limited abilities to gather and process information when they encounter new or unclear situations. Instead, they rely on simple cues to form impressions of the situation, confirm their understanding of what is happening, and determine how they should behave. In the workplace, colleagues play a crucial role in providing these cues through their actions and words. These cues help individuals make sense of complex

situations and make decisions on how to respond (Chen et al., 2013). Therefore, colleagues' values, beliefs, and behaviors may influence employees' attitudes and behaviors.

Lu et al. (2019) suggested that servant leadership provides a powerful source of workplace information for employees to interpret events and decide how to behave, as leaders' behaviors are a powerful source of information given their power to control and influence employees' career development. They also based their study on social information processing theory, which views trust as both an outcome and a foundation of information processing. Finally, they examined how servant leadership influences employee behavior by building trust with employees.

According to Varela-Neira et al. (2018), individuals in the workplace construct their own perceptions and attitudes by interpreting the social cues present in their environment. Varela-Neira et al. (2018) conducted a study that explored the association between salespeople's POP and their level of trust in their supervisors and how this relationship affects proactive performance. Their study was based on social information processing theory principles, which suggest that social cues influence employees' perceptions and behavior in their environment. This study suggested that organizational politics can negatively impact trust between employees and supervisors, ultimately reducing active performance. Furthermore, the negative impact of organizational politics, defined as selfish behavior, can be explained by information about the selfish political activities of co-workers and managers in the social context influences employees' negative job attitudes and behaviors.

C. C. Rosen, Chang, et al. (2009) suggested that the social information processing (SIP) perspective is most relevant in explaining how organizational politics and organizational justice represent contextual information that employees consider when making certain evaluative

judgments (psychological contract violations) and subsequent employee behaviors and reactions.

2.3 Affective Event Perspective

The Affective Events Theory (AET: Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) suggests a comprehensive model for understanding the impact of work events on employees' emotional reactions, and its core is the notion that emotional experiences determine attitudes and behaviors and assumes that characteristics of the work environment are related to affective events or episodes (Rosen et al., 2009). AET emphasizes work events as the proximal causes of emotional reactions and then emphasizes the distal cause of attitudes toward work behavior. Basch & Fisher (1998) defined an affective event as an event that stimulates an evaluation and emotional response to either temporary or ongoing a work-related agent, object, or event because it is the evaluation and interpretation of the event, not the event itself, that determines the emotion experienced. According to AET, work events can cause emotional reactions that accumulate over time and affect attitudes toward the job, the organization, and commitment (Glasø et al., 2011). Basch & Fisher (1998) confirmed in their research that work events generate positive and negative emotions. These emotional reactions may include happiness, anger, or fear, and each emotion can impact work attitudes and behavior in different ways (Gaddis et al., 2004) and may be more likely in response to events people see as beneficial or harmful to their well-being (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Emotional reactions play a critical role in shaping their attitudes and behaviors toward such events in the workplace. In addition, AET proposes that information from the work environment directly impacts job satisfaction and that emotions triggered by specific events mediate the

effects of environmental features on job attitudes (Rosen et al., 2009). Perceptions of the work environment include everything related to the job, and this environment creates negative and positive events. These events (work events) trigger positive or negative emotions, which in turn affect employee performance and job satisfaction. In other words, when an individual experiences an event at work, it triggers positive or negative emotions, which affect job attitudes and behaviors. Moreover, these Attitudes can then impact workplace behavior, including absenteeism, lateness, turnover, and productivity(Glasø et al., 2011). Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) proposed task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, withdrawal/counterproductive task behavior, and organizational performance as outcomes of job attitude.

Using the framework of AET, Hao Zhao et al. (2007) argued that a psychological contract breach could be regarded as an affective event, and affective reactions, including perceived violation and distrust of management, are consequences of psychological contract breach and affective reactions mediate the effects of psychological contract breach on attitudinal and effectiveness outcomes.

From the perspective of AET, it can be explained that organizational politics as an environmental feature triggers negative affective reactions and that these negative affective reactions affect job attitudes and behaviors. Based on the AET, Y. Liu et al. (2006) argued that political behavior by oneself or others could act as work events in the form of daily hassles and uplifts. These events trigger a series of emotional responses, and as a result, emotional experiences can act as one of the key mechanisms through which organizational politics affects subsequent attitudes and behaviors.

Walter & Bruch (2009) explained the emergence of charismatic leadership behaviors using an affective event model and suggested that

there may be two causal pathways linking positive emotions and charismatic behavior. They suggested that the experience of positive emotions may enable leaders to develop creative and inspirational visions, and that positive emotional experiences may indirectly contribute to leaders' willingness to promote goals by engaging in charismatic behaviors by improving their work attitudes, that leaders' attitudes may partially mediate the relationship between positive emotions and charismatic leadership. Based on AET, Cho & Yang (2018) examined the influence of POP on anxiety and depression and the influence of these emotions on four self-determined motivations through mediation. Thiel et al. (2014) used AET to examine the impact of a leader's political tactics on procedural and distributive justice, mediated by subordinates' emotions, using the leader's political tactics as an affective event.

2.4 Perceptions of Organizational Politics (POP)

Initially, organizational political behavior was viewed as behavior that asserts itself over an organization's resource-sharing system. There were also attempts to define organizational politics in terms of conflict over policy preference, relationships of control and influence, and self-serving behavior (Mayes & Allen, 1977). Gandz & Murray (1980) argued that there is a lack of consistency in the way organizational politics is defined and that there are two groups: those who define it in a "neutral" way as the occurrence of certain forms of behavior involving the use of power or influence, and those who define it as the subjectively realized intentions of actors to engage in selfish behavior at the expense of others in the organization. Mayes & Allen (1977) defined organizational politics as the management of influence to achieve an organization's unapproved objectives or to obtain approved objectives through unapproved means of

influence. Ferris et al. (1989) and Kacmar & Baron (1999) stated that organizational politics is selfish, illegal, and often harmful to the organization or its members.

Since it was first introduced by Ferris et al. (1989), research on organizational politics has mainly been conducted using Ferris et al.'s (1989) POP model. POP is "an individual's subjective assessment of the extent to which the work environment is characterized by co-workers and supervisors who exhibit individual self-interested behavior." The impact of political behavior on an organization may be more dependent on how it is perceived by employees rather than its actual occurrence. For example, when employees perceive that organizational processes such as pay and promotions are politically influenced, it may contradict their expectations that these rewards are based on merit and performance (C. P. Parker et al., 1995). Ferris et al. (1995) argued that organizational members' perceptions of their environment influence how they understand and categorize others' actions as political or fair. This definition is consistent with Lewin et al.'s (1936) notion that individuals are largely driven by their perceptions of reality rather than their perceptions of reality. Ferris et al. (2019) argued that individuals actively manage the meaning of situations in ways that lead to desired behaviors and outcomes, as the focus is on subjective assessments and interpretations of meaning rather than on the intrinsic, objective properties of situations. Thus, they view organizational politics as essentially agentic in nature, where individuals are active creators rather than simply passive reactors. In addition, Wijewantha et al. (2020) stated that organizational politics refers to how employees in an organization perceive their work environment politically, and Landells & Albrecht (2017) noted that the perceptions created by employees could be negative or positive.

Engaging in political behavior within an organization's political

environment can lead to both beneficial and harmful consequences for both the individuals and the organization (Buchanan & Badham, 1998). Landells & Albrecht (2017) recognized that organizational politics has both positive and negative consequences at the individual and organizational level, and found that it has positive or negative effects depending on the perspective of looking at politics. They suggested that looking at politics with a "reactive" or "reluctant lens" has a negative effect at the individual and organizational level, and a positive effect when looking at politics with a "strategic" or "integrated lens." Scholars have also expanded the research to include the positive aspects of organizational politics (Hochwarter, 2012; Fedor et al, 2008).

However, many studies have also found negative emotional and cognitive effects of organizational politics, and research on the consequences of organizational politics shows that it is related to psychological health, behavioral outcomes, and attitudinal outcomes. In a meta-analysis of organizational climate, Miller et al. (2008) found that organizational politics positively influenced job stress and turnover intentions and negatively influenced job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job performance. Vigoda (2000) confirmed that organizational politics harms job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and positively affects exit and neglect. They also found a negative effect on employee performance. Ferris et al. (1989) proposed three potential responses to organizational politics: increased job anxiety, decreased job satisfaction, and organizational withdrawal. Drory (1993) confirmed the negative impact of organizational politics on job attitudes and found that the relationship between organizational politics and negative job attitudes was stronger for low-status employees than for high-status employees, thus suggesting that organizational politics has a potentially detrimental effect on low-status employees. R. Cropanzano et

al. (1997) found that organizational politics was negatively related to and negatively affected job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job involvement. C. C. Rosen et al. (2006), in the expectancy theory-based interpretation of perceptions of politics and employee work attitudes, suggest that in organizations with a high level of politics, rewards and recognition are perceived to be distributed based on factors other than job performance, and this leads to an increased level of ambiguity and uncertainty, which can negatively impact employee morale.

Organizational politics also act as a "hindrance" or threatening form of stressor, limiting an individual's belief in their ability to achieve personal and professional goals (Jeffery A. Lepine et al., 2005). Brouer et al. (2006) identified a moderating effect of political skill in the relationship between organizational politics and depressive symptoms, finding that low political skill was associated with increased levels of depressive symptoms as politics increased and that depressive symptoms decreased as political perceptions increased in highly politically skilled individuals.

Byrne et al. (2017) perceived organizational politics as a source of stress within the framework of stress and suggested that employees who perceive organizational politics negatively and evaluate it as a hindrance stressor use emotion-focused coping mechanisms of loss of engagement, narrowing of engagement, and disengagement to eliminate stress, protect themselves, and resist future attempts at influence by their supervisors.

In a meta-analysis of attitudinal, health, and behavioral outcomes of organizational politics, Bedi & Schat (2013) confirmed that organizational politics was negatively associated with organizational trust, mutual justice, procedural justice, organizational support, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, distributive justice, perceived work control, continuance commitment, and involvement. As for psychological health, organizational

politics was positively related to stress and burnout, and finally, in terms of the relationship between organizational politics and behavioral outcomes, it was negatively related to job performance and organizational citizenship behavior (at the individual and organizational levels), and positively related to turnover intentions, counterproductive work behavior, and absenteeism. Bhattarai (2021) found that organizational politics negatively affects work engagement and positively affects turnover intention. A meta-analysis by C. Chang et al. (2009) found a strong positive relationship between organizational politics and strain and turnover intentions, and a strong negative relationship with job satisfaction and affective commitment. Bozeman et al. (2001) examined that organizational politics negatively affected organizational commitment and job satisfaction and positively affected turnover intentions and job stress. They also found that job self-efficacy moderated the relationships between organizational politics, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction.

Christopher C. Rosen & Levy (2013) studied the psychological mechanisms of the relationship between organizational politics and employee outcomes and found that organizational politics positively influenced psychological contract breach and job strain and that organizational politics influenced task performance and organizational citizenship behavior through the mediation of psychological contract breach, job strain, and work attitude. They also found that politically skilled employees moderated the relationship between organizational politics and psychological contract violation and between organizational politics and job strain. R. Cropanzano et al. (2017) examined that organizational politics is positively related to psychological withdrawal and antagonistic work behavior, and negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Wijewantha et al. (2020) confirmed that

the organizational politics model shows that organizational politics directly impacts individual employees' job satisfaction, job commitment, and organizational withdrawal behaviors such as turnover and absenteeism.

Organizational politics has also been shown to affect the emotions of organizational members. Drory & Meisler (2016) suggested that organizational politics evokes frustration, fear, anger, hostility, and resentment among organizational members. These negative emotions induced by organizational politics will mediate the relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intention, job performance, and organizational citizenship behavior. That is, they found that aggressive political behaviors such as intimidation, pressure, assertiveness, and the coalition would elicit negative emotions. Hochwarter & Treadway (2003) identified that individuals' perceptions of politics, in general, interacted with their emotional dispositions to determine the degree of job dissatisfaction experienced by employees. They also validated that negative emotions interacted with political perceptions to influence job satisfaction and that individuals with high negative emotions interacted with political perceptions to have a stronger negative impact on job satisfaction.

Factors affecting organizational politics have also been studied. In studies by Ferris et al. (1989), Ferris & Kacmar (1992), Guclu Atinc et al. (2010), and Wijewantha et al. (2020), various organizational influences on organizational politics were proposed, including centralization, the degree to which control is concentrated in the upper echelons of the organization and formalization, the degree to which guidelines, rules, and standards are written and clearly expressed to employees. It was also suggested that the span of control is positively related to organizational politics. It has been recommended that as the number of employees reporting to a supervisor increases, the supervisor has less time to devote to individuals, which can create ambiguity and uncertainty in the

environment, leading to higher organizational politics. It is suggested that the hierarchical level within an organization also affects the organizational politics, as political behavior is traditionally perceived as a phenomenon of senior management or as part of the job of senior managers, and perceived procedural justice, or the perceived justice of procedures for allocating resources has also been discussed as an organizational influence on organizational politics (Guclu Atinc et al., 2010).

Furthermore, in the studies of Ferris et al. (1989), Ferris & Kacmar (1992), Guclu Atinc et al. (2010), and Wijewantha et al. (2020), job-related factors such as job autonomy, feedback, interaction with supervisors and co-workers, and advancement opportunities were proposed as job and work environment influences on organizational politics. Lack of autonomy means that employees feel powerless because they are controlled by others, which increases their POP. Employees who receive constructive feedback experience increased role clarity and control over their work environment, which leads to lower POP. In addition, advancement opportunities decrease POP. When promotion opportunities are limited, employees may engage in political behavior to secure rewards or perceive that opportunities are limited due to political characteristics (Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Guclu Atinc et al., 2010). In addition, interactions with supervisors have been described using the leader-member exchange (LMX) construct, and LMX negatively affects POP (Kacmar et al., 2007; Guclu Atinc et al., 2010; Wijewantha et al., 2020). Trust in co-workers also appears to decrease POP (C. P. Parker et al., 1995; Andrews & Kacmar, 2001). Employees' trust in their co-workers is an essential indicator of the quality of their relationships at work. When there is more trust among the employees in an organization, there tends to be a natural tendency to be more confident that co-workers will not work in ways that are harmful to each other. Conversely, when

employees in an organization begin to believe that their co-workers are untrustworthy, they tend to have negative organizational politics (Wijewantha et al., 2020; Andrews & Kacmar, 2001). Cooperation also decreases organizational politics (Andrews & Kacmar, 2001). In a cooperative work environment, there is less competition for scarce resources, and people are less likely to feel like they are acting selfishly.

Andrews & Kacmar (2001) found that centralization, formalization, co-worker cooperation, and locus of control were significantly related to organizational politics. Kacmar & Ferris (1991) and Kacmar & Carlson (1997) proposed three sub-dimensions of organizational politics: "general political behavior," "go along to get ahead," and "pay and promotion" policies. "general political behavior" relates to employees' perceptions of colleagues who engage in political activities. It has been suggested that "general political behavior" results from the development of alliances based on self-interest rather than business concerns and that membership in such alliances leads to a variety of political behaviors, including transferring scarce resources to alliance members and making policy changes primarily on their behalf (R. S. Cropanzano et al., 1995). In the absence of specific rules and policies for guidance, individuals develop selfish rules that often benefit themselves and favor the rule maker. People who are good at dealing with uncertainty and those who create and apply rules are more likely to adopt the rules they create (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991). "go along to get ahead" refers to influence tactics such as pleasing oneself by agreeing with those in power. While conflict plays a crucial role in organizational politics, there may be individuals who prefer to steer clear of confrontations and may not oppose the efforts of others to exert their influence. When working in a political environment, it can be a rational and profitable approach to move forward without acting to advance one's interests (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991). Employees know when

to be sure to comply with general policies. They realize that not only is compliance important but they can be penalized for deviation. They learn that creativity and innovation are not the keys to career advancement (R. S. Cropanzano et al., 1995). "Pay and promotion" policy refers to the extent to which politics affects the human resource function. The way an organization implements policies and human resource systems to reward and perpetuate political behavior is a "pay and promotion" policy. This system incentivizes individuals who influence behavior and penalizes those who do not, reinforcing the political culture within the organization. Such practices will result in a culture where political behavior is routine in almost all aspects of human resource decisions (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991).

Although empirical evidence has been suggested to support three dimensions of organizational politics, many researchers have also used a single set of dimensional items to measure organizational politics, with scales derived from subscales of the "general political behavior" and "go along to get ahead" scales (Albrecht, 2006). This study aims to investigate the influence of organizational politics, a secondary factor consisting of "general political behavior," "go along to get ahead," and "pay and promotion" policy.

[Table 2-1] Definition of Organizational Politics

Researchers	Definitions
Mayes & Allen(1977)	Management of influence to achieve an unauthorized purpose by the organization or to obtain an authorized purpose through unauthorized means of influence.
Ferris et al.(1989)	"The social influence process of strategically designing behavior to maximize short- or

Researchers	Definitions
	long-term self-interest at the expense of or in alignment with the interests of others."
Kacmar & Baron(1999)	An individual's behavior aimed at pursuing his or her own interests without consideration for the well-being of others or the organization.
Pfeffer & Pfeffer(1981)	Actions taken within an organization to acquire, develop, and use resources, such as power, to achieve one's preferred outcomes in situations where there is uncertainty or disagreement about choices.
Bacharach & Lawler(1998)	Efforts by individuals or groups in an organization to support or oppose the organization's strategies, policies, or practices in which they have an interest or stake.
Valle & Perrewe(2000)	Tactical influence, which is strategically goal-oriented, rational, conscious, and aimed at advancing self-interest at the expense of or in support of the interests of others.
R. S. Cropanzano et al.(1995)	Exerting direct social influence on those who can provide rewards to help promote or protect the actor's own interests.

2.5 Organizational Justice Perceptions

Organizational justice stems from employees' belief that the organization treats them fairly (Kwantes & Bond, 2019). Organizational justice encompasses the perceived justice of all social and economic exchanges and the relationship between individuals and their supervisors, co-workers, and the organization as a social system (Erdogdu, 2018). Organizational justice can be related to financial and non-financial rewards, such as fair pay and incentives, equal promotion opportunities, and performance appraisal procedures, and thus can be manifested as employees' perceptions of the extent to which management's decisions and actions are just (Yean, 2016). R. Cropanzano et al. (2007) stated that justice is a concept that is subjective and descriptive, meaning that it reflects an individual's beliefs about what is right rather than an objective truth or a set of moral rules. When it comes to organizational justice, it refers to an individual's personal evaluation of the ethical and moral nature of management actions.

In addition, R. Cropanzano et al. (2007) stated that people care about justice because, first, justice allows people to predict how they will be treated over time, and justice allows them to predict and control the outcomes they may receive from the organization. It can also be motivating because it gives people more certainty about their future benefits. Second, people want to feel valued without being taken advantage of or harmed by decision-makers, and fair treatment lets people know that the organization respects them. Third, people also care about justice because they want others to be treated morally appropriately. Employees who observe co-workers being treated unjustly are likely to experience stress, and injustice can spread ill will toward the organization through this mechanism. Van den Bos & Lind (2002)

studied why people care about justice and how justice judgments are formed and suggested that people are more affected by changes in justice when they are reminded of something that makes them uncertain. They also suggested that justice is substantial because people use fair judgments in uncertainty management processes.

The study of organizational justice began to shape the concept of justice in organizational behavior with the introduction of Adams' (1963) equity theory. Early justice theories focused on distributive justice, and according to Adams' equity theory, employees compare the effort they put in and the rewards they receive from the organization with others, and if their input and output ratios are the same or similar, they feel fair; if not, they feel unfair. When employees feel they have been treated fairly, they are motivated, and this motivation translates into positive work behaviors and attitudes, but when they feel they have been treated unfairly, they are less motivated and more likely to exhibit negative work behaviors and attitudes (Yean, 2016).

Distributive justice has been defined as the degree to which a given decision context follows the appropriate allocation norm (Colquitt, 2012). Furthermore, because distributive justice focuses on outcomes, it primarily concerns cognitive, emotional, and behavioral responses to specific outcomes. For example, when a particular outcome is perceived as unfair, it affects an individual's emotions, cognition, and eventually behavior (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

The later procedural concept was first introduced by Thibaut & Walker (1975), although it was developed in a legal setting rather than an organizational setting. They proposed two criteria for procedural justice: process control and decision control. Procedures were considered fair when disputants possessed process control, which meant that disputants could voice their concerns to influence the outcome of

decisions (Colquitt, 2012). Later, the concept of procedural justice was extended to the organizational setting by Leventhal (1976), Leventhal (1980), and Leventhal et al. (1980). Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001) suggested that because organizational procedures represent the way organizations allocate resources when a process leading to a certain outcome is perceived as unfair, a person's response will be predicted to be directed toward the organization as a whole rather than toward his or her task or specific outcome.

Colquitt et al. (2001) suggest that organizational justice can be described in terms of two types of subjective perceptions: distributive justice, which concerns the justice of the allocation of outputs, and procedural justice, which concerns the justice of the procedures used to determine the distribution or allocation of outputs.

The concept of interactional justice, which focuses on the importance of the quality of interpersonal relationships people receive when procedures are implemented, was introduced by Bies (1986). Interactional justice is related to the way management or supervisors behave toward employees and aspects of the communication process, such as politeness, honesty, and respect. It has also been argued that interactional justice is promoted when procedural details are communicated in a polite and appropriate manner and when truthful information is used to justify decisions (Colquitt, 2012). Therefore, when employees perceive interactional injustice, it can be predicted that they will react negatively toward their supervisor rather than negatively toward the organization as a whole, which is limited to cases where the source of interactional injust is believed to be the person implementing the formal procedure rather than the procedure itself (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001).

Greenberg (1993) identified two specific components of interactional justice: interpersonal justice, which refers to justice in the

decision-making process (politeness and respect for the dignity of those involved in implementing procedures or determining outcomes), and informational justice, which refers to the extent to which decision-makers provide accurate and sufficient information to members about the decision-making process and outcomes (why procedures were used in a particular way or why outcomes were distributed in a particular way). Colquitt (2001) studied the dimensions of organizational justice using four dimensions: distributive justice, procedural justice, interpersonal justice, and procedural justice.

Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001) stated that justice plays an important role in life, and people's beliefs, emotional attitudes, and behaviors are greatly influenced by whether they feel they have been treated fairly or unfairly. Organizational justice perceptions are positively related to factors such as organizational commitment (Bakhshi et al., 2009), job satisfaction (Al-Zu'bi, 2010; Bakhshi et al., 2009; Dundar & Tabancali, 2012), organizational citizenship behavior (Jafari & Bidarian, 2012; Lim & Loosemore, 2017), and employees' innovative work behavior (Akram et al., 2020) and have been found to have a negative impact on factors such as turnover intention (Fatt et al., 2010; R. J. Parker & Kohlmeyer, 2005) and counterproductive task behavior (Cohen-Charash & Spector, 2001; Donnerstein & Hatfield, 1982). R. Cropanzano et al. (2007) suggested that justice builds trust and organizational commitment, improves job performance, and develops organizational citizenship behaviors.

Some researchers suggest that justice research should focus on perceptions of overall justice because existing researchers have ignored the interdependence of distributive and procedural justice (M. L. Ambrose & Arnaud, 2005). M. Ambrose & Schminke (2009) studied the relationship between overall justice, which consists of distributive justice, procedural

justice, and interactional justice, and job satisfaction, employee attitudes such as organizational commitment, and behaviors such as turnover intention. They suggested that overall justice is more useful for studying the relative impact of justice on different organizational motivations. M. L. Ambrose et al. (2015) also suggested that investigating overall justice is better than specific aspects of justice because researchers are likely to be more interested in general justice because they often make the same predictions about other aspects of justice.

[Table 2-2] Definition of Organizational Justice

Researchers	Definition
Moorman (1991)	"Organizational justice concerns how employees judge whether they are treated fairly at work and how these judgments affect other work variables."
R. Cropanzano et al.(2007)	Justice can be seen as a fluid and contextual notion that reflects individuals' subjective beliefs about what is right, rather than an objective or universal moral principle. Organizational justice, on the other hand, is a subjective evaluation of a company's ethical and moral conduct as perceived by individuals.
Yean(2016)	Organizational justice can relate to financial and non-financial rewards, such as fair pay and incentives, equal promotion opportunities, and performance

Researchers	Definition
	appraisal procedures. Therefore, it can manifest itself as employees' perceptions of the extent to which management decisions and actions are fair.
Erdogdu(2018)	Organizational justice encompasses the perceived justice of all social and economic exchanges and the relationship of individuals to their superiors, colleagues, and the organization as a social system.

2.6 Organizational Silence

Morrison & Milliken (2000) were the first to study organizational silence in an organizational context, defining it as a "collective phenomenon" in which employees withhold their opinions about issues or concerns about the organization. Their study found that organizational silence impairs the effectiveness of the organizational decision-making and change process by limiting the diversity of information available to decision-makers. It also negatively impacts employee cognitions, attitudes, and behaviors, such as employees feeling unappreciated, lack of control, and cognitive dissonance. Furthermore, once organizational silence becomes entrenched, it is difficult to restore employee trust, and they become cynical about organizational change, and this cynicism is difficult to eliminate. Pinder & Harlos (2001) studied employee silence in response to perceived injustice and defined organizational silence as "the concealment of any form of authentic expression of an individual's

behavior, cognition, and emotional appraisal of an organizational situation from those who are perceived to be able to influence change and modification." They characterized organizational silence by dividing it into acquiescent silence, which is based on resignation, and quiescent silence, which is self-protective silence based on fear. Quiescent silence indicates that employees believe it is too risky to speak up or that the situation does not allow them to express their opinions. Acquiescent silence refers to silence because employees have given up hope that change is possible (Knoll et al., 2019). Quiescent silence is characterized by high arousal and thus connects to the broader literature on fear in the workplace. The dominant emotions of quiescent silence are fear, anger, cynicism, hopelessness, and depression; in contrast, acquiescent silence is a state of somewhat unconscious silence and a lack of conscious awareness of one's condition (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). Acquiescent silence shares the same characteristics as learned helplessness in that employees accept the situation with resignation, do not actively seek opportunities to change the status quo, and may not even recognize when such opportunities arise (Knoll et al., 2019).

Motivations for silence may include fear of being punished by one's boss for talking about issues they don't want to hear about and fear of being socially isolated by being labeled a complainer or troublemaker. It may also stem from a desire to avoid harming others or to manage and present an image to superiors strategically, and silence may occur because people do not believe their opinions are valuable and speaking up is unlikely to lead to a solution (Milliken & Morrison, 2003). Jahangir & Abdullah (2017) stated that fear is one of the main reasons that cause employees to be silent; employees feel fear of negative consequences and fear of losing their job or status after they speak up. In their study, Milliken et al. (2003) proposed five fears that play a significant role in

the decision to remain silent and suggested that the five fears are: a) being negatively labeled or seen as such, b) damaging relationships, c) retaliation or punishment, d) negative impact on others, and e) the belief that speaking up will not make a difference.

Knoll et al. (2021) noted that while addressing issues and expressing thoughts and concerns are ways of expressing oneself and can lead to improved situations at work, voice challenges the authority and judgment of others and can disrupt the smooth running of routines and groups, potentially threatening harmony and status hierarchies between related groups. There are several reasons why these potential costs of speaking up motivate people to remain silent, the first being silence in the workplace due to fear that speaking up will negatively impact their career, damage relationships, or cause them to be stigmatized by their boss or co-workers. This phenomenon is also called quiescent silence, as Pinder & Harlos (2001) proposed. The second is what Pinder & Harlos (2001) termed acquiescent silence, in which employees hide their opinions because they believe that not stating their views will not make a difference and that potential recipients will not respond or pay attention to a particular issue. In addition, there are two additional forms of silence beyond the typical types of quiescent and acquiescent silence.

Prosocial silence involves positive emotions and the intention to help others, while opportunistic silence may be driven by selfish motives such as the desire to hide knowledge or avoid additional work. Knoll & Van Dick (2013) defined opportunistic silence as the strategic withholding of work-related ideas, information, or opinions to achieve self-interest at the expense of others. However, they suggested that increased support and additional opportunities to be vocal may stimulate silent employees to reassess their situation and move from silence to voice. Dyne et al. (2003) suggested that defensive silence is an intentional and proactive

behavior to protect oneself from external threats by concealing relevant ideas, information, or opinions as a form of fear-based self-protection.

In contrast to acquiescent silence, defensive silence is more proactive, involves consideration and awareness of alternatives, and is a conscious decision to conceal ideas, information, and opinions as the best personal strategy. Dyne et al. (2003) used defensive silence as the same concept as Pinder & Harlos' (2001) quiescence silence. They expanded the concept of organizational silence to include prosocial silence, which is an active, other-oriented silence based on altruism and cooperation.

Bowen and Blackmon (2003) proposed organizational voice is heavily influenced by an individual's perception of their workgroup's attitude towards specific issues. More precisely, individuals tend to voice their opinions when they perceive support from their colleagues, whereas they choose to remain silent when they feel otherwise. In other words, voice and silence are influenced by people's perceptions of the workgroup's attitudes toward whether organizational voice or silence is desirable. In a study of teachers, according to the study by Yao et al. (2022), if teachers perceive that their leaders are not receptive to their ideas or lack trust in the organization, they are likely to feel less psychologically secure. This could result in a reluctance to freely exchange information, share ideas, or communicate their thoughts.

Previous studies have shown that organizational silence positively affects turnover intention (Elçi et al., 2014; Sarrafoğlu & Günsay, 2020) and negatively affects organizational commitment (Nikmaram et al, 2012; Fard & Karimi, 2015) and job satisfaction (Fard & Karimi, 2015). In addition, Knoll et al. (2019) found that acquiescent silence and quiescent silence had significant positive effects on depersonalization and emotional exhaustion. Yao et al. (2022) found a negative effect of organizational silence on psychological empowerment and organizational commitment.

They also found an indirect effect of organizational silence on job performance through psychological empowerment and organizational commitment. Ölçer & Coşkun (2022) identified that organizational silence negatively affects organizational creativity in a study of employees in the automotive industry. In a meta-analysis of organizational silence, Goh & Choi (2020) found that organizational silence inhibits job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behaviors, and leads to antisocial task behavior, cynicism, job stress, and turnover intentions.

Knoll & Van Dick (2013) identified that acquiescent silence and quiescent silence were negatively associated with well-being and positively associated with strain. This confirms that maintaining silence due to fear and discouragement is associated with lower well-being and higher work-related stress. They also found that acquiescent silence and quiescent silence were positively related to turnover intention. Morrison (2014) found that silence can have a psychological impact on individuals, causing them to feel humiliated, angry, and resentful, and if left unexpressed, it can block creativity and reduce productivity. Çaylak & Altuntas (2017) validated that silenced individuals experience feelings such as lack of communication, job dissatisfaction, and worthlessness, leading to anger and apathy towards the organization and its managers. They also found that silent individuals experience feelings of distress, boredom, anger, hatred, worry, disgust, and shame toward the organization they work for.

Xu Huang et al. (2003) conducted an empirical study on whether management's creation of an open atmosphere and the establishment of formal employee participation mechanisms in organizations can reduce employee silence. The study found that the climate of openness and formal employee involvement had a negative effect on employee silence

and also found a positive relationship between cultural power distance and employee silence, confirming that management practices aimed at breaking organizational silence, such as management openness and formal employee involvement, may not work to the same extent across countries.

Antecedents of organizational silence have also been studied. Ko & Han (2019) found that a hierarchical organizational structure promotes a climate of silence, but a performance-based HR system also negatively affects silence. Kim & Lee (2015) found that impersonal supervision by supervisors positively influenced organizational silence. In addition, in a meta-analysis of organizational silence, Oh et al. (2020) summarized previous research on the antecedents of organizational silence. They found that authentic leadership, emotional leadership, political skills, and organizational justice negatively influenced silence, while impersonal supervision and organizational politics positively influenced silence.

[Table 2-3] Definition of Organizational Silence

Researchers	Definitions
Morrison & Milliken(2000)	The "collective phenomenon" of hiding one's opinions about issues or concerns about the organization.
Pinder & Harlos(2001)	It is to hide from the perceived person all forms of true expression of an individual's behavior, perception, and/or emotional evaluation of an organizational situation.
Dyne et al.(2003)	Intentionally hiding work-related ideas, information, and opinions.

2.7 Organizational Cynicism

Cynicism is generally regarded as an employee attitude detrimental to organizations (Watt & Piotrowski, 2008), and cynicism is widespread and pervasive among employees (Kanter & Mirvis, 1989; Reichers et al., 1997). Organizational cynicism has been introduced as a concept that encompasses the feelings of betrayal and apathy experienced by employees due to repeatedly observing the failure of management's attempts to drive change (Wanous et al., 1994).

Dean et al. (1998) identified five main conceptualizations of cynicism: personality-based, societal/institutional, occupational, employee, and organizational change focus. These perspectives view cynicism as a negative perception toward others based on an overall view of human nature, a reaction to society's broken promises, a function of occupation or a psychological contract breach, or a response to organizational change efforts. Cynicism has been studied from various angles, including general cynicism and cynicism towards specific occupations or leaders (Wanous et al., 2000)

Organizational cynicism is characterized by a pessimistic view of one's employing organization, encompassing a belief that the organization lacks moral and ethical principles. This negative sentiment is often accompanied by critical and disparaging behavior towards the organization, aligned with the individual's negative beliefs (Dean et al., 1998). Naus et al. (2007) proposed organizational cynicism as one of Rusbult et al.'s (1988) employees' response behavior (EVLN) and proposed "organizational cynicism as a negative attitude toward the organization in which one is employed"; similar to Dean et al. (1998), they defined organizational cynicism as a) "a belief that the organization lacks integrity," b) "negative affect toward the organization," and c) "a

tendency toward disparaging and critical behavior toward the organization consistent with these beliefs and sentiments." According to Andersson (1996), many researchers have defined cynicism as an attitude of disdain, frustration, and distrust towards an object or objects, which may change according to environmental factors.

Wanous et al. (1994) defined organizational cynicism as becoming pessimistic about change due to failed attempts at change and assigning blame to those responsible for the failure to change. They also suggested that a cynical view of organizational improvement is a major obstacle to future change and is probably the result of past failures rather than an individual's propensity to be cynical. Abraham (2000) defined that organizational cynicism is "the belief that an organization lacks integrity, which, when combined with a strong negative emotional response, leads to disparaging and critical behavior."

As per Wilkerson's (2002) argument, organizational cynicism arises from employees' unsatisfactory experiences with different organizational aspects and incidents in their work life, leading to a negative assessment and expectations for future events that resemble those organizational features. This negative attitude towards the organization can hinder healthy organizational functioning, as it is linked to various attitudinal and behavioral consequences (Kwantes & Bond, 2019). In addition, a lack of faith in the integrity of the organization makes cynics less likely to engage in prosocial behaviors, including organizational defense, volunteering, and mentoring, out of a purely altruistic desire to promote organizational well-being (Abraham, 2000).

Andersson & Bateman (1997) argued that because cynicism can be directed at a specific target or generalized to multiple targets, cynicism is an attitude that involves disappointment, disillusionment, and negative emotions, as well as a lack of trust toward social customs, institutions,

ideologies, groups, or individuals. They have observed that organizational cynicism is strongly linked to a decreased desire to participate in organizational citizenship behaviors. According to Davis and Gardner (2004), cynicism is a multi-faceted attitude that comprises beliefs, emotions, and behavioral tendencies toward a particular objective. This attitude is typically accompanied by negative emotions such as contempt and anger, indicating a close association between cynicism and negative emotions.

Reichers et al. (1997) suggested ways to manage and minimize cynicism about change. First, keep people involved in decisions that affect them because they need to believe that their opinions are heard, carefully, and respectfully considered. Second, supervisors' efforts to communicate should be emphasized and rewarded, as they are the primary channel for the flow of information. Third, people should be kept informed about the need for change, issues related to the ongoing change process, and the results of the change program. Fourth, improve the effectiveness of timing because whenever people are surprised by a sudden announcement of a new program, they need information such as the need and the reason.

Fifth, keep surprises to a minimum by letting people know what's happening and why it's happening because people who are more informed and engaged are less likely to be cynical. Sixth, improve your credibility by communicating through trusted spokespeople, delivering logical, serious, and sincere messages, and repeatedly communicating through various channels. Seventh, be the first to accept responsibility for past failures and admit mistakes and take action to correct or prevent further problems. Eighth, publicize changes that have been successful because if people know of past successes, they may be more optimistic and less cynical about future change attempts. Ninth, look at change from the employee's perspective because you need to understand how

they view change and success.

The antecedents of organizational cynicism have also been studied by researchers. Yang et al. (2020) found that psychological contract violation positively influenced organizational cynicism as an antecedent of organizational cynicism. According to Connell and Waring's (2002) proposition, when employees fail to comprehend the reasoning behind proposed changes, it leads to a restructuring of their psychological contract with the organization, resulting in cynicism towards these change initiatives. Based on social information processing (SIP) theory, Wilkerson et al. (2008) found that close colleagues in an organization provide social information cues and that gossip about the organization by close colleagues positively influences employees' organizational cynicism. They also found that organizationally cynical employees' tendency to disparage the organization was consistent with their attitude-related beliefs and negative emotions. Kim, J., & Yi, R. (2007) validated that organizational rigidity, work-role conflict, and job overload increased employees' organizational cynicism. S. Kim et al. (2019) confirmed that co-worker trust and transformational leadership reduced cynicism, while job stress increased cynicism. Various other leadership styles have been studied for their impact on organizational cynicism. Elsaied (2022) found that exploitative leadership has a significant positive effect on organizational cynicism, emotional exhaustion has a significant positive effect on organizational cynicism, and emotional exhaustion fully mediates the relationship between exploitative leadership and organizational cynicism.

Jiang et al. (2017) found that employees under authoritarian leadership tend to have higher perceptions of psychological contract breach and organizational cynicism, related to employees' deviant workplace behavior. Evans et al. (2021) confirmed that ethical leadership is negatively related to organizational cynicism and that organizational

cynicism mediates the relationship between ethical leadership and the outcomes of organizational deviance and interpersonal deviance. In addition, researchers have shown that cynicism adversely affects many employees' cognitive, attitudinal, emotional, and behavioral outcomes.

Abraham (2000) noted that "the definition of organizational cynicism suggests that strong negative emotions rooted in suspicion and disillusionment can make workers dissatisfied and emotionally detached from the workplace." These negative emotions seriously affect employees' work experiences, outcomes, and organizational performance. Jonathan L. Johnson & Anne M. O'Leary-Kelly (2003) found that affective cynicism partially mediates the psychological contract breach-attitude relationship in both organizational commitment and job satisfaction, suggesting that when a contract is breached, employees' emotional reactions generalize across different targets and that such employees not only perceive the organization as lacking integrity but are also less committed to the organization and less satisfied with their work within it.

Organizational cynicism has been found to be negatively related to organizational citizenship behavior (Andersson & Bateman, 1997), job attitudes (Nafei, 2013), organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Abraham, 2000), job performance (Bang & Reio, 2017), and employee engagement (Watt & Piotrowski, 2008), and positively related to job burnout (Farjam et al., 2018), turnover intention (Ç ı nar et al., 2014), and counterproductive task behavior (Rayan et al., 2018). Wanous et al. (1994) found that organizational cynicism was negatively related to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Naseer et al. (2020) found that organizational cynicism positively influenced individual and organizational counterproductive work behaviors and also found that organizational cynicism influenced individual and organizational counterproductive work behaviors through the mediation of emotional

exhaustion. Scott & Zweig (2020) found that subordinates with high levels of organizational cynicism were less loyal to their supervisors and that loyalty mediated the relationship between cynicism and leader-member exchange (LMX), suggesting that subordinates are less likely to form high LMX with their leaders when cynical perceptions are present.

[Table 2-4] Definition of Organizational Cynicism

Researchers	Definitions
Wanous et al.(1994)	Becoming pessimistic about change due to failed change attempts and placing blame on those responsible for the failure of the change.
Dean et al.(1998)	A negative attitude toward the organization for which one is employed, consisting of a belief that the organization lacks integrity, and includes disparaging and critical behaviors toward the organization that are consistent with these beliefs and sentiments
Andersson & Bateman(1997)	General and specific attitudes that are characterized by frustration and disappointment, as well as by negative feelings and mistrust toward individuals, groups, ideologies, social customs, or institutions.
Wilkerson(2002)	A pessimistic view of an organization and its policies, practices and leadership, often stemming from a belief that these aspects are

Researchers	Definitions
	primarily designed to work against the employees' benefit.

2.8 Job Attitudes

Eagly & Chaiken (1993) described that an attitude is a psychological tendency expressed by evaluating a particular entity as favorable or unfavorable. Wagner (2020) stated that the approach to attitudes suggests that an overall evaluation of an object is closely linked to a knowledge structure that represents the beliefs, emotions, and behaviors associated with a negative attitude and that the cognitive component describes the attitude toward an object based on its attributes or characteristics, the affective component describes the emotions experienced about the attitude object. In addition, he also suggested that the behavior component refers to behavioral intentions or past experiences related to the attitude object.

Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) defined job attitudes as "an evaluation of a job that expresses feelings, beliefs, and attachments to the job" and found that overall job attitudes are quite crucial in understanding behavioral outcomes. They also noted that job attitudes are a social attitude, and an essential one at that, given that people typically devote most of their waking hours to work and their job is central to their identity. As a result, job attitudes can have significant implications and consequences. Riketta (2008) described that job attitudes represent the evaluation or personal importance of job-related objects (e.g., the organization, the work group, and the job as a whole).

Furthermore, job attitudes include not only aspects of an individual's job but also features of the organizational context surrounding the job and may be related to other social units within the organization (e.g.,

groups or teams) or the evaluation of specific policies (e.g., severance pay) (Wagner, 2020).

Job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been studied in the literature as individual outcome variables of employees' perceptions of the organization to which they belong. Riketta (2008) found that the two most frequently studied job attitudes are job satisfaction, defined as the cognitive and/or affective evaluation of a job, and affective organizational commitment, defined as the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization. However, Harris et al. (2005) argued that since affective commitment and job satisfaction are general evaluations of job experiences, it is reasonable to conceptualize and study these two attitudes as job attitudes. Ferris et al. (2002) stated that work attitude, which consists of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, is the most frequently examined outcome of organizational politics. In addition, several scholars (ChristopherC. Rosen & Levy, 2013; C. Chang et al, 2009) have conceptualized affective commitment and job satisfaction as morale and studied its impact on performance, turnover intention, counterproductive work behavior, organizational citizenship behavior, and task performance.

Job satisfaction pertains to one's position or job, whereas affective commitment refers to the entire organization. Despite this conceptual and empirical difference, job satisfaction and organizational commitment share theoretical and empirical similarities. The strong correlation between job satisfaction and affective commitment also underscores their close association. Furthermore, because job satisfaction and affective commitment are strongly correlated, and because job satisfaction and attitudinal commitment are fundamental evaluations of the respective job experiences, it is reasonable to treat them as specific reflections of general attitudes (Harrison et al., 2006). Judge et al. (2017) noted that

commitment at work shares similarities with satisfaction in that both reflect a positive or negative response to a specific object. However, commitment is characterized by a value-based evaluation rather than a hedonic consequence of interacting with an object, unlike satisfaction.

Organ & Ryan (1995) confirmed that work attitude is a strong predictor of organizational citizenship behavior and that the relationship between job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behavior is stronger than the relationship between job satisfaction and in-role performance. C. C. Rosen, Chang, et al. (2009) examined the influence of work attitudes, composed of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, on the relationship between psychological contract breach and contextual performance. C.-H. Chang et al. (2009) studied the effect of morale, which consists of job satisfaction and affective commitment, on the relationship between organizational politics and performance. Also, Christopher C. Rosen & Levy (2013) examined the mediating effect of work attitudes on the relationship between organizational politics and job behavior. Judge et al. (2017) proposed performance and productivity, organizational citizenship behavior, counterproductive behavior, and organizational effectiveness as outcomes of job attitudes.

Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) suggested social environment characteristics such as perceived social support and co-worker support and organizational practices such as leadership and organizational justice as factors affecting job attitude. In addition, they proposed job performance, task performance, creative performance, citizenship behavior, withdrawal/counterproductivity, and organizational performance as outcomes of job attitudes.

Since this study aims to identify the influence relationship between overall attitude formation and response behavior (EVLN), organizational commitment and job satisfaction are conceptualized as job attitudes.

[Table 2-5] Definition of Job Attitudes

Researchers	Definitions
Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller(2012)	Evaluations of the job that express feelings, beliefs, and attachments to the job.
Wagner(2020)	Includes not only aspects of an individual's job, but also features of the organizational context surrounding that job, and relates to other social units within the organization (e.g., groups or teams) or the evaluation of specific policies (e.g., severance pay).
Riketta(2008)	Assessment or personal importance of job-related targets (e.g., organization, workgroup, overall job)

2.8.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a pleasant or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of a job as fulfilling or promoting job values, while job dissatisfaction is an unpleasant emotional state resulting from an appraisal of a job as frustrating or preventing the achievement of job values or entailing devaluation (Locke, 1969). Job satisfaction refers to the overall evaluative judgment of one's job or job situation (Weiss, 2002). Spector (1997) suggested that job satisfaction is simply the way people feel about their jobs and various aspects of their jobs and the degree to which people like (satisfied) or dislike (dissatisfied) their jobs. Brief (1998) described that job satisfaction is "an attitude toward one's job." Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) defined job satisfaction as an

evaluative state that expresses satisfaction and positive feelings about one's job and this definition includes both cognitive (satisfaction) and affective (positive feelings) dimensions. Cranny et al. (1992) defined job satisfaction as an affective reaction to one's job and is the result of an employee's comparison of desired outcomes with actual outcomes. Hulin & Judge (2003) described job satisfaction is a multidimensional psychological response to work with cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components.

Job satisfaction is an attitude, and attitudes generally have at least two components: affective (emotions, feelings) and cognitive (beliefs, judgments, comparisons) (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

In a study of the relationship between mood and emotion at work and job satisfaction, Fisher (2000) found that real-time mood and emotion at work were related to job satisfaction. He also found that positive emotions were positively related to job satisfaction, negative emotions were negatively related, and positive emotions contributed to the prediction of overall satisfaction beyond satisfaction with one aspect.

[Table 2-6] Definition of Job Satisfaction

Researchers	Definitions
Locke(1969)	A pleasant or positive emotional state resulting from the evaluation of a job as fulfilling or promoting job values.
Cranny et al.(1992)	Affective reaction to their job, comparing incumbents' desired outcomes to their actual outcomes.
Spector(1997)	Simply the way people feel about their jobs and various aspects of their jobs,

Researchers	Definitions
	and the extent to which people like (satisfied) or dislike (dissatisfied) their jobs.
Brief(1998)	Attitude toward own job
Weiss(2002)	The overall evaluative judgment one makes about one's job or job situation.
Hulin & Judge(2003)	A multidimensional psychological response to a job, which has cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components.
Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller(2012)	An evaluative state that expresses satisfaction and positive feelings about one's job; this definition includes both cognition (satisfaction) and emotion (positive feelings).

2.8.2 Organizational Commitment

Mowday et al. (1979) proposed that organizational commitment consists of a) "a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, b) a willingness to exert considerable effort for the organization, and c) a desire to maintain a strong organizational membership." Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) defined organizational commitment as a psychological bond between an organization and an individual represented by an emotional attachment to the organization, internalization of the organization's values and goals, and a behavioral desire to make efforts to support the organization. N. J. Allen & Meyer (1990) defined organizational commitment as a multidimensional concept consisting of an employee's emotional attachment to the organization,

continuance commitment based on the cost of leaving the organization, and normative commitment, which refers to the employee's sense of obligation to remain in the organization. Farrell & Rusbult (1981) defined job commitment as related to the probability of an employee leaving the organization and includes psychological attachments unrelated to emotions. Porter et al. (1974) described it as the strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization.

[Table 2-7] Definition of Organizational Commitment

Researcher	Definitions
Porter et al.(1974)	The strength of an individual's identification and engagement with a particular organization.
Mowday et al.(1979)	"Consists of (1) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (2) a willingness to expend significant effort on behalf of the organization, and (3) a desire to maintain strong organizational membership."
Farrell & Rusbult(1981)	Psychological attachment, which is related to the likelihood of an employee leaving a job and includes non-emotional attachments.
Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller(2012)	The psychological bond between an organization and an individual represented by emotional attachment to the organization, internalization of the

Researcher	Definitions
	organization's values and goals, and a behavioral desire to make efforts to support the organization.

2.9 EVLN

Since Hirschman (1970) first conceptualized and studied the Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect (EVLN) model out of interest in how employees react to declining economic conditions, it has been applied extensively in various contexts involving a wide range of relationships. In organizational contexts, the EVLN model has been used as a helpful framework for understanding employee behaviors toward organizational commitment (Luchak, 2003), job satisfaction (Leck & Saunders, 1992) ,and psychological contract violation (Turnley & Feldman, 1999; Vantilborgh, 2015). In addition, several researchers (Leck & Saunders, 1992; Hagedoorn et al., 1999; Liljegren et al., 2008; Tucker & Turner, 2011), and the model has been modified or extended to cynicism (Naus et al., 2007) and silence (Sabino et al., 2019) by some scholars. In addition, Vantilborgh (2015) divided voice into aggressive voice and considerate voice to study the behavior of organizational members.

Akhtar et al. (2016) studied the effects of the frequency of organizational change and the impact of change on the behavior of employees through the EVLN model. Also, they studied the mediating effect of fulfilling the psychological contract. Berntson et al. (2010) studied employee behavior in response to job insecurity using the EVLN model. Si & Li (2012) verified the mediating effect of organizational commitment on the relationship between human resource management

practices and EVLN. They confirmed that affective commitment negatively affects exit, neglect, voice, and loyalty. Dolev et al. (2021) studied employee behavior toward workplace incivility using the EVLN model.

Farrell & Rusbult (1992) distinguished two dimensions of response behavior to dissatisfaction: constructive versus destructive and active versus passive, with voice and loyalty being active and constructive response behavior that make active attempts to deal with unsatisfactory conditions and exit and neglect being passive and destructive response behaviors to the problem at hand. Rusbult et al. (1988) describe exit as leaving the organization by resigning, moving, finding another job, or thinking about quitting, and voice as actively and constructively trying to improve the situation by discussing the problem with a supervisor or co-worker, taking steps to address the problem, proposing a solution, seeking help from an external agency such as a union, or blowing the whistle. It also suggests that loyalty means passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve, giving public and private support to the organization, and trusting the organization to do the right thing (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992), and neglect means passively making conditions worse through reduced interest or effort, chronic lateness or absenteeism, using company time for personal business or increasing error rates (Farrell & Rusbult, 1992).

In Hirschman's model, loyalty is positively related to speaking up, with more loyal customers being more likely to voice concerns and less likely to leave (M. Allen, 2014). However, he noted that while loyal employees can be expected to show more concern than less loyal employees, they may be less likely to voice their dissatisfaction with the company's practices because suggestions for improving existing practices and expressions of disapproval can be seen as attempts to undermine the authority of individual managers and the organization as a whole.

According to Hirshman, if some customers stop buying a company's products or some members leave the organization, they are exiting, but exiting can be difficult due to transaction costs in the job search process and environmental factors, such as the non-existence of employment opportunities, so it can be assumed that a workplace with a low turnover rate will have reduced absenteeism, but this is not always the case and employees may express their dissatisfaction with the company through absenteeism. This means that employees who are not loyal to the company may stay with the company instead of quitting. If employees speak out collectively or individually, they may contribute to improving working conditions. On the other hand, if employees are not allowed to speak up, they may act in ways that are contrary to the organization's goals. If they can not leave even though they are dissatisfied, they may act neglectfully or develop or maintain a negative attitude toward their employer. Neglect can be expressed as a negative perception of the organization, a mental disposition to distrust the actions and statements of managers, and a desire to sabotage or impede the achievement of declared goals.

Ⅲ. Research Design and Methodology

3.1 Research Model

In this study, first, the effects of POP, which are secondary factors consisting of "general political behavior," "go along to get ahead," and "pay and promotion" policy on organizational silence and organizational cynicism will be examined. Second, the effect of organizational silence on organizational cynicism will be analyzed. Third, the impact of organizational silence and organizational cynicism on job attitudes will be examined. Fourth, the effects of job attitudes on response behavior (EVLN) will be analyzed. Fifth, the mediating effects of organizational silence and organizational cynicism on the relationship between POP and job attitudes will be examined. Sixth, the mediating effects of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN) will be analyzed. Finally, the moderating effect of organizational justice on the relationship between POP and organizational silence and POP and cynicism will be examined. The research model used in this study is shown in ⟨Figure 3-1⟩.
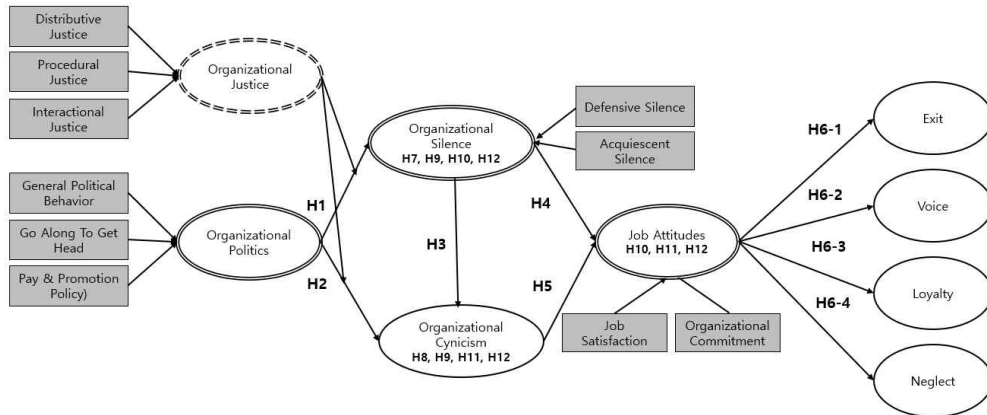
[Figure 3-1] Research Model

3.2 Hypothesis Formulation

3.2.1 POP and Organizational Silence

Liang & Wang (2016) suggested that from an individual perspective, organizational politics can cause employees' anxiety and withdrawn behavior in the workplace and enhance their sense of self-protection, eventually leading to defensive silence; on the other hand, organizational politics can affect employee satisfaction, reducing employees' interest in the organization and increasing employees' motivation not to act, leading to acquiescent silence. This study found that leader-member exchange (LMX) significantly negatively affects organizational politics and that organizational politics mediates the relationship between LMX and organizational silence. Khalid & Ahmed (2016) studied the relationship between organizational politics and employee silence and applied uncertainty management theory to explain the relationship between these variables. Uncertainty management theory (UMT) posits that in uncertain situations, individuals become more sensitive to injustice and react negatively to injustice in order to control the situation and that

individuals may indulge in unproductive work behaviors when stressed in uncertain situations such as organizational politics (Khalid & Ahmed, 2016). Among the three sub-factors of organizational politics, their study found a positive and significant relationship between "general political behaviors" and defensive silence and relational silence, and "go along to get ahead" had a strong positive influence on defensive silence and relational silence. They also found that "pay and promotion" policies were positively and significantly related to defensive silence.

Chintakananda (2013) confirmed organizational politics to be an antecedent of certain motivations for silence (self-protective, self-enhancing, and trivial silence), while Kwon & Kim (2017) and M. R. Kim & Park (2020) found organizational politics to have a positive effect on organizational silence. AL-Abrrow (2018) discovered that organizational politics significantly influenced organizational cynicism and organizational silence among public hospital employees and verified that organizational cynicism mediated the relationship between organizational politics and organizational silence. Ai-Hua et al. (2018) examined a partial mediation effect of organizational politics on the relationship between abusive supervision and employee silence. In a study of hotel workers, Moon (2022) found that organizational politics positively influenced acquiescent silence and defensive silence, and I. R. Park et al. (2022) validated that organizational politics positively influenced organizational silence and that organizational silence partially mediated the relationship between organizational politics and government performance in a study of public employees. In a study of local government employees, Jin (2021) also condirmed that organizational politics influenced turnover intention through organizational silence.

C. C. Rosen, Harris, et al. (2009) suggested that organizational politics triggers negative emotional responses in employees because it is

interpreted as a threat to self-interest. Furthermore, as the dominant emotions of organizational silence are fear, anger, cynicism, and hopelessness (Pinder & Harlos, 2001) and are associated with negative emotions (Morrison, 2014; Çaylak & Altuntas, 2017; Naus et al, 2007), so from an AET perspective, it is expected that POP will influence organizational silence, which is a negative emotional response.

Therefore, based on the previous studies, the hypothesis was established as follows.

H1: POP will have a positive effect on organizational silence.

3.2.2 POP and Organizational Cynicism

In the framework of social exchange theory and the psychological contract (Andersson, 1996), when employees' unfair treatment occurs due to organizational politics, individuals will perceive the organization to be less than truthful and in breach of contract. As a result, they may develop cynicism as a reaction to this psychological contract violation.

AL-Abrrow (2018) suggested that organizational politics will affect cynicism because employees' perceptions that decisions and procedures taken are unfair, deceptive, or self-serving to the organization can lead to cynicism, and organizational politics is a factor that hinders employees' positive organizational behavior. He also confirmed that organizational politics affect cynicism. Albrecht (2006) and Özdevecioğlu (2016) also confirmed that organizational politics affect cynicism. James & Shaw (2016) found that organizational politics positively and significantly influenced cynicism towards co-workers, immediate supervisors, and upper-level management. Davis & Gardner (2004) and Chiaburu et al. (2013) also found that organizational politics can lead to the development

of cynical attitudes. Hochwarter et al. (2004) confirmed that trait cynicism moderates the relationship between perceptions of politics and work outcomes, satisfaction, and civic behavior. Furthermore, in a study of golf course caddies, Jung et al. (2021) found that organizational politics positively influenced cynicism and turnover intention, and cynicism influenced turnover intention.

Christopher C. Rosen & Levy (2013) suggested that organizational climate is related to job strain and stress-based outcomes such as tension, fatigue, and helplessness and that organizational climate is related to psychological strain because it is a threat to employee well-being and forces employees to expend coping resources to manage interpersonal conflict. James & Shaw (2016) suggested that perceptions of politics damage the overall integrity of an organization, and therefore, everyone in the organization will be viewed with suspicion, and negative attitudes related to the conditions of the political environment will contribute to negative emotions such as contempt and distress associated with cynicism.

In addition, Dean et al. (1998) suggested that cynicism includes negative emotions (contempt, anger, etc.). Y. Liu et al. (2006) stated that at the individual level, emotions are responses to social events, and by experiencing the emotions generated by these social events, we become mentally, psychologically, and physically prepared to respond to opportunities or threats in the environment. They also noted that people experience significant emotions in the context of organizational politics, often due to the political actions of others or themselves. They argued that emotional behaviors mediate between organizational politics and attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Therefore, even when cynicism is considered from an emotional perspective, it can be suggested that POP will influence cynicism, including negative emotions. Thus, based on the previous studies, the hypothesis was established as follows.

H2: POP will have a positive effect on organizational cynicism.

3.2.3 Organizational Silence and Organizational Cynicism

Organizational silence has been identified in the literature as a key factor that positively influences cynicism (Aboramadan et al., 2020; Akar, 2019; D. Liu et al., 2009). It has also been suggested that the experience of organizational silence induces cynicism and that negative experiences with organizations may also produce attitudes of cynicism through organizational silence (Beer & Eisenstat, 2000; Pinder & Harlos, 2001).

Mousa et al. (2020) found that organizational silence positively influenced physicians' cognitive cynicism and concluded that silence partially mediated the relationship between narcissistic leadership and physicians' cognitive cynicism. Aboramadan et al. (2020) confirmed that organizational silence was positively related to behavioral cynicism. Beer & Eisenstat (2000) suggested that employee silence among empolyeess can lead to stress, cynicism, and dissatisfaction (Vakola & Bouradas, 2005). Çaylak & Altuntas (2017) found that organizational silence affected organizational cynicism, and the reasons for organizational silence increased turnover intentions along with organizational cynicism.

M. Kim and Kim (2016) conducted a meta-analysis on organizational silence and found a positive effect of organizational silence on cynicism and S.-D. Kim (2018) tested the static effects of organizational silence (defensive silence and resignation silence) on cynicism in a study of public sports facility workers and confirmed that non-regular workers perceived defensive silence and organizational cynicism to be higher than regular workers. In a study of hotel employees, Moon (2022) found that organizational silence (acquiescent

silence and defensive silence) positively influenced organizational cynicism.

Therefore, based on the previous studies, the hypothesis was established as follows.

H3: Organizational silence will have a positive effect on organizational cynicism.

3.2.4 Organizational Silence and Job Attitudes

Organizational silence can cause employees to experience feelings of being worthless, a perceived lack of control of employees, and cognitive dissonance. These factors lead to low employee commitment and organizational satisfaction (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Qazelvand & Shahtalebi (2016) suggested that the more opportunities people have to express their opinions in an organization freely, the more they will increase their commitment to the organization and, vice versa, decrease their commitment. They also found a negative relationship between organizational silence and organizational commitment.

Previous studies have confirmed that organizational silence negatively affects post-merger attitudes, which consist of job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Nikolaou et al., 2011), and also negatively affects organizational commitment (Hozouri et al., 2018; Imam & Shah, 2017; M. W. Hussain et al., 2016; Nikmaram et al., 2012), job satisfaction, and performance (Parlar Kılıç et al., 2021). In addition, Vakola & Bouradas (2005) found that organizational silence is negatively related to organizational commitment and job satisfaction, and Fard & Karimi (2015) found that organizational silence has a negative impact on organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Hao et al.'s (2022) meta-analysis of the association between antecedents of employee silence and outcome variables also showed that organizational silence (defensive

silence and ideological silence) significantly affected organizational commitment and job satisfaction. Deniz et al. (2013) also found that defensive silence influenced affective organizational commitment.

Panahi et al. (2012) confirmed that top management's attitude toward silence, supervisor's attitude toward silence, and opportunity for dialogue influence employee silence and that organizational silence negatively affects organizational commitment. In addition, Vakola & Bouradas (2005), in a study on the relationship between organizational commitment, job satisfaction and climate of silence, and employee silence, found that among the relationships between top management's attitude toward silence, supervisor's attitude toward silence, communication opportunities, and employee silence, communication opportunities were the best predictor of organizational commitment, followed by supervisor's attitude toward silence, and top management's attitude toward silence, which had a strong effect on organizational commitment. In addition, they validated that job satisfaction is most strongly influenced by supervisors' attitudes toward silence, followed by communication opportunities and top management's attitudes toward silence. They also found a negative relationship between silence and organizational commitment, and job satisfaction. This result was attributed to satisfaction with the openness of communication, and this was also attributed to trust and sharing of information, and knowledge can increase a sense of belonging and unity in an organization.

Reflecting on the AET framework, it can be assumed that positive and negative emotional responses will affect overall job satisfaction. In addition, organizational commitment is another important attitude toward the job that real-time emotional experiences can influence at work (Fisher, 2002).

Since most measures of job satisfaction appear to include both

cognitive and affective content, the affective component of job satisfaction should be influenced by both positive and negative emotional responses during work (Fisher, 2002). Fisher (2000) found that mood and positive and negative emotions during work are significantly related to overall job satisfaction. Therefore, based on the previous studies, the hypothesis was established as follows.

H4: Organizational silence will have a negative effect on job attitudes.

3.2.5 Organizational Cynicism and Job Attitudes

Cynicism has been shown to impact employees' job attitudes, such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and result in negative behavioral outcomes and reduced performance. Srivastava & Adams (2011) suggested that an individual's general emotional state can spill over into different areas of life, which can lead to satisfaction and dissatisfaction with one's job. Furthermore, since an individual's emotional reactions are linked to satisfaction with life and job, they suggested that for cynics who experience certain types of emotions, the tendency to experience negative emotions may spill over into the work domain and make them feel unhappy about their job. They empirically confirmed that cynicism negatively affects job satisfaction. Therefore, considering the negative emotional aspect of cynicism, cynicism as a negative emotional reaction and sentiment can also be understood to affect job outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In this regard, the influence relationship between emotions and attitudes has been confirmed by previous studies. Niklas & Dormann (2005) and Lan et al. (2022) confirmed that emotions and sentiments affect job satisfaction, and Li et al. (2010) found that emotions affect organizational commitment. In

addition, J. Kim & Kim (2011) found that positive emotions positively influence job satisfaction and affective commitment, and negative emotions negatively affect affective commitment. Chang (2010) showed that the cumulative effect of immediate positive or negative emotions experienced during work affects job attitude.

In addition, previous studies have shown that cynicism is associated with reduced job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Reichers et al., 1997; Wanous et al., 2000; Abraham, 2000; Nafei & Kaifi, 2013; Yim & Moses, 2016; Arabac, 2010; Zweig, 2008; Jonathan L. Johnson & Anne M. O'Leary-Kelly, 2003; Hochwarter et al., 2004) and job satisfaction and organizational commitment are negatively related to cynicism, but the turnover intention is positively related to cynicism (Chiaburu et al., 2013). Wanous et al. (1994) found that organizational change cynicism was negatively associated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

Abraham (2000) studied the relationship between five forms of cynicism (personality cynicism, social/institutional cynicism, employee cynicism, organizational change cynicism, and workplace cynicism) and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, alienation, and organizational citizenship. He found that personality cynicism, related to innate hostility, is the strongest predictor of organizational cynicism and negatively affects job satisfaction, organizational commitment, alienation, and organizational citizenship. He also found organizational change cynicism, associated with reactions to failed change efforts, pessimism about the success of future endeavors, and beliefs that change agents are lazy and incompetent, leads to job dissatisfaction and feelings of alienation due to breaching their psychological contract. In addition, employee cynicism, which is directed at large organizations, top management, and "other" actors in the workplace, affected organizational commitment. Therefore, based on the

previous studies, the hypothesis was established as follows.

> H5: Organizational cynicism will have a negative effect on job attitudes.

3.2.6 Job Attitudes and Response Behavior (EVLN)

According to previous studies, people show behavior patterns consistent with their attitudes. For example, Christopher C. Rosen & Levy (2013) and Eagly & Chaiken (1993) stated that people either support objects that are evaluated favorably or act against objects that exhibit negative attitudes (Christopher C. Rosen & Levy, 2013).

Moreover, job attitudes predict many organizational behaviors, and to achieve optimal predictions, a consensus must be maintained between the predicted attitudes and behaviors (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Previous studies confirmed that organizational commitment and job satisfaction affect positive and negative response behavior, and overall job attitudes affect positive and negative behavior.

Leck & Saunders (1992) studied the relationship between organizational loyalty and response behavior (EVLN) measured by a modified version of affective commitment developed by Mowday et al. (1979). In this study, organizational loyalty was found to have a positive relationship with voice and patience and a negative relationship with exit and neglect. They studied the relationship between various satisfactions (with work, supervisors, co-workers, pay, and promotion) and response behavior (EVLN). In their study, work satisfaction was negatively related to exit and neglect and positively related to voice. They also found that supervisory satisfaction was positively associated with voice, and pay satisfaction was negatively related to exit and patience. Still, promotion and co-worker satisfaction did not significantly affect the four response

behaviors (EVLN). Vigoda (2000) confirmed that job satisfaction and organizational commitment had a negative effect on exit and neglect.

In a study by Farrell & Rusbult (1992), the effect of job satisfaction, quality of individual alternatives, and magnitude of job investment on response behavior (EVLN) was studied. The overall level of job satisfaction was related to response behavior (EVLN), with higher levels of job satisfaction being associated with a greater tendency to respond with constructive behavior of voice and loyalty, and a decrease in destructive response behaviors of exit and neglect. Employees with excellent alternatives in the quality of individual job alternatives were more likely to respond consistently with exit or voice behavior and less likely to exhibit neglect behavior. In addition, it was studied that employees who invested more in the organization showed voice and loyalty behavior and suppressed neglect behavior. Withey & Cooper (1989) studied behavioral responses to exit costs (technology specificity, sunk costs, and investment) and voice costs, pre-satisfaction, the possibility of improvement, locus of control, organizational commitment, and better alternatives.

Turnley & Feldman (1999) found that social contract violations positively affect exit and neglect and negatively affect voice and loyalty. Si & Li (2012) verified the relationship between human resource management practices and response behavior (EVLN) and the mediating effect of organizational commitment and confirmed that affective commitment negatively affects exit and neglect, and positively affects voice and loyalty. Jordan et al. (2007) identified that job satisfaction is a high predictor of organizational citizenship behavior, a constructive behavior that benefits the organization, and C. Chang et al. (2009) found that overall job attitude negatively affects counterproductive work behavior, which is negative for the organization, and positively affects

organizational citizenship behavior, which is positive for the organization.

Ozge et al. (2021) found that job satisfaction plays an important mediating role in the relationship between job insecurity and response behavior (EVLN). In addition, they found job satisfaction increased voice and loyalty behavior and reduced exit and neglect behavior. Weiss & Cropanzano (1996) suggested that the judgment of the job closely influences certain work behavior and that this behavior is the result of the decision-making process in which the overall evaluation of the job goes into the decision. Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller (2012) suggested that since positive job attitudes affect positive behaviors such as organizational citizenship behavior and task performance, negative job attitudes will be related to a wide range of negative behaviors in the workplace and that these negative behaviors will include psychological withdrawal, absenteeism, and turnover. Therefore, it is expected that job attitudes will have a positive and constructive effect on loyalty and voice, and will have a negative effect on exit and neglect, which are negative and destructive actions. Vigoda (2000) confirmed that organizational politics hurts (job satisfaction and organizational commitment), job satisfaction has a significant negative effect on exit and neglect, and job commitment has a significant negative effect on exit. In addition, it was confirmed that employees' performance was negatively affected by POP. Accordingly, the hypothesis was established as follows.

H6: Job attitudes will affect response behavior.

H6-1: Job attitudes will have a negative effect on exit.
H6-2: Job attitudes will have a positive effect on voice.
H6-3: Job attitudes will have a positive effect on loyalty.
H6-4: Job attitudes will have a positive effect on neglect.

3.2.7 Mediating Effects of Organizational Silence, Organizational Cynicism, and Job Attitudes

By combining the hypotheses about the effects of POP on organizational silence and organizational cynicism with the hypotheses about the effects of organizational silence and organizational cynicism on job attitudes, the hypothesis can be proposed that organizational silence and organizational cynicism will mediate the relationship between POP and job attitudes in parallel and that organizational silence and organizational cynicism will sequentially mediate the relationship between POP and job attitudes.

Y. Liu et al. (2006) argued that positive and negative emotional reactions to organizational politics lead to emotional and attitudinal outcomes, including burnout, cynicism, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. C. C. Rosen, Harris, et al. (2009) argued that because employees who experience negative affective events remember the negative information when constructing their job attitudes, affective events have an impact on job satisfaction through emotion-based effects on the information they access and use to make attitude-based judgments.

Organizational silence emerges from feelings of fear and resignation (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). Dyne et al. (2003) found that silence is associated with emotions such as fear, and Edwards et al. (2009) also suggested that it is associated with fear. Kirrane et al. (2017) found that acquiescent silence was associated with anger and that anger and fear were the dominant emotions associated with defensive silence. Knoll & Van Dick (2013) also noted that shame might arise from silence due to failure to speak up about the wrongful behavior of others, and other emotions (anger, guilt, regret) have been discussed as influencing the decision to speak up or remain silent. Organizational cynicism has been

linked to feelings of betrayal, apathy (Wanous et al., 1994), and negative emotions (Dean et al., 1998) toward the organization. Dean et al. (1998) found that cynicism involves a strong emotional response, and of the nine basic emotions (interest, joy, surprise, pain, anger, disgust, contempt, fear, and humiliation), the emotional dimension of organizational cynicism includes emotions such as contempt and anger. In addition, cynics may feel distressed, disgusted, and shame. Thus, organizational silence and organizational cynicism can be said to be related to emotional responses stemming from these emotional experiences.

Based on the framework of AET, C. C. Rosen, Harris, et al. (2009) studied the role of emotions in mediating the effects of organizational politics on negative employee performance. They proposed that frustration would mediate the relationship between organizational politics and job satisfaction because job satisfaction is closely related to emotions and is often drawn from emotional experiences when constructing job attitudes with evaluative elements, and also because negative emotions are generally associated with negative job evaluations, and found that frustration partially mediated the relationship between organizational politics and job satisfaction. Furthermore, Kong & Kim (2014) found that certain emotional experiences and interaction styles in the workplace differentially affect employees' job attitudes and behaviors.

In a study of chefs working in the Seoul metropolitan area, Lee and Kim (2021) found that organizational politics positively influenced organizational cynicism, and organizational cynicism significantly influenced job commitment. In a study of service workers, H.-Y Kim (2014) found that organizational politics positively influenced organizational cynicism and organizational cynicism negatively affected organizational commitment, and verified the mediating effect of organizational cynicism on the relationship between organizational politics

and organizational commitment. In an analysis of prior research on organizational silence, Oh et al. (2020) studied organizational politics as an antecedent of organizational silence and organizational commitment and job satisfaction as outcome variables of organizational silence, and found that organizational politics positively affects organizational silence and organizational silence negatively affects organizational commitment and job satisfaction.

J. C. Park & Choi (2013) empirically verified that organizational silence positively affects organizational cynicism, and organizational silence and organizational cynicism negatively affect organizational commitment in a study of hotel employees. Shin et al. (2012) found that organizational silence (defensive silence and acquiescent silence) influenced job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and organizational cynicism negatively influenced job satisfaction and organizational commitment. They also confirmed the mediating effect of organizational cynicism on the relationship between defensive silence and job satisfaction, the partial mediating effect of organizational cynicism on the relationship between acquiescent silence and organizational commitment, and the full mediating effect of organizational cynicism on the relationship between defensive silence and organizational commitment. In a meta-analysis of the outcomes of organizational silence, Go & Cho (2020) found that organizational silence is a stronger inhibitor of organizational commitment, innovation behavior, job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behavior, in that order. Therefore, based on the previous studies, the hypothesis was established as follows.

H7: Organizational silence will mediate the relationship between POP and job attitudes.

H8: Organizational cynicism will mediate the relationship between POP and job attitudes.

H9: Organizational silence and organizational cynicism will mediate the relationship between POP and job attitudes.

In addition, by combining the above hypothesis explaining the direct relationship between POP, organizational silence, organizational cynicism, job attitude, and response behavior (EVLN), the hypothesis can be proposed that organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes mediate the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN). Suppose the theoretical path of affective event theory (AET) is extended and applied, in that case, it can be suggested that environmental characteristics (POP) affect job events, causing emotional reactions (organizational cynicism, organizational silence) and that emotional reactions influence job attitudes and behaviors. By this extended mediating chain of AET, the mechanisms that lead from POP to response behavior (EVLN) can be identified. This mediation chain includes organizational cynicism, organizational silence, and work attitudes. Therefore, it can be proposed that organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and work attitudes mediate the effects of POP on response behavior (EVLN), which are distal outcomes of POP. Christopher C. Rosen & Levy (2013) confirmed that job attitudes mediate the relationship between organizational politics and task performance, and organizational citizenship behavior, and C. C. Rosen, Chang et al. (2009) and C. C. Rosen et al. (2006) confirmed that the relationship between organizational politics and multidimensional performance, consisting of organizational citizenship behavior (individual) and organizational citizenship behavior (organizational), is mediated by morale, consisting of job satisfaction and

affective commitment. In addition, Vigoda (2000) showed that the relationship between organizational politics and work outcomes is mediated by job attitudes (organizational commitment and job satisfaction). In addition, organizational politics has been studied by many previous researchers (Miller et al., 2008; Bedi & Schat, 2013; Bozeman et al., 2001) that organizational politics has a negative impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, while job attitudes have a positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior and job performance (Jordan et al., 2007; Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012) and negatively influences negative behaviors such as turnover and absenteeism.

Weiss (2002) suggested that work experience generates emotional responses and beliefs that influence the formation of attitudes, which in turn drive behavior. Therefore, it can be proposed that job attitudes will mediate the effects of work experience on behavior and that organizational silence and organizational cynicism are related to negative emotional responses and beliefs about organizational politics. Furthermore, it can also be proposed that work attitudes connect the proximal outcomes of organizational politics, which are organizational silence and organizational cynicism, with a decrease in positive and constructive behavior and an increase in negative and destructive behavior.

From the perspective of social exchange theory, it is also possible to propose a behavioral mechanism whereby organizational politics affects employees' job attitudes, and job attitudes affect employees' behavior. In addition, from the perspective of social exchange, it can be suggested that organizational silence and organizational cynicism, which are caused by the negative effects of organizational politics, will be included in the mediation chain in the relationship between organizational politics and job attitudes.

According to social information processing theory, social information

affects perceptions and attitudes (Zalesny & Ford, 1990). Therefore, from the social information processing perspective, it can be proposed that information obtained from groups in the workplace has a sequential effect on organizational politics, job attitudes, and behaviors and that the relationship between organizational politics and job attitudes is mediated by organizational cynicism and organizational silence, which are emotional reactions toward organizational politics. Therefore, based on the previous studies, the hypothesis was established as follows.

> H10: Organizational silence and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and response behavior.

H10-1: Organizational silence and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and exit.

H10-2: Organizational silence and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and voice.

H10-3: Organizational silence and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and loyalty.

H10-4: Organizational silence and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and neglect.

> H11: Organizational cynicism and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and response behavior.

H11-1: Organizational cynicism and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and exit.

H11-2: Organizational cynicism and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and voice.

H11-3: Organizational cynicism and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and loyalty.

H11-4: Organizational cynicism and job attitudes will mediate

the relationship between POP and neglect.

> H12: Organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and response behavior.

H12-1: Organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and exit.

H12-2: Organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and voice.

H12-3: Organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and loyalty.

H12-4: Organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and neglect.

3.2.8 Moderating Effect of Organizational Justice

Higher levels of organizational politics are associated with lower levels of organizational justice perceptions (Miller & Nicols, 2008); the more perceived organizational politics, the more unfair or unjust the work environment is viewed (Vigoda-Gadot & Talmud (2010). Therefore, an interaction effect between POP and organizational justice perceptions can be expected.

Organizational justice has mostly been studied as a predictor of attitudinal and behavioral outcomes. Harris et al. (2007) examined the moderating effect of organizational justice on the relationship between POP and turnover intention, and job satisfaction. They found that the

positive relationship between turnover intention and POP is weakened when procedural justice is also high as long as distributive justice is high, and the negative relationship between POP and job satisfaction is weakened when both distributive and procedural justice is high. They suggested that regardless of the level of justice, it was suggested that organizational politics should be minimized because low turnover intention and high job satisfaction occur when organizational politics is low, and the least desirable results appear when organizational politics is high.

Erdogdu (2018) found a significant negative relationship between organizational justice and organizational cynicism and a significant negative relationship between organizational justice and organizational silence. Bernerth et al. (2007) validated that interactional justice and distributive justice were significantly negatively related to organizational cynicism, and Singh & Randhawa (2022) showed that organizational cynicism mediated the relationship between organizational politics and turnover intention in a study of the banking sector. Atikbay & Öner (2020) and Sen et al. (2021) also identified that organizational justice perceptions negatively impacted cynicism. S. Hussain & Shahzad (2021) found that distributive justice and interactional justice among organizational justice perceptions negatively impacted organizational cynicism, and psychological capital interacted with distributive justice and interactional justice among organizational justice to reduce organizational cynicism.

Pinder & Harlos (2001) suggested that employees may remain silent when they believe that the unfairness they experience stems from factors such as interpersonal abuse, a significant power differential between victim and perpetrator, or a culture dominated by unfairness. In a study of elementary school teachers, Tan (2014) found that teachers'

organizational justice perceptions were negatively related to both acquiescent and defensive silence and positively related to prosocial silence. Akar's (2018) study of educational workers and Zahed's (2015) study of tax officers and Yücekaya's (2019) study of hotel workers also showed that organizational justice negatively affects organizational silence.

In addition, Whiteside & Barclay's (2013) study found organizational justice to be a significant antecedent of organizational silence, and Erdogdu's (2018) study found organizational justice to reduce organizational silence and organizational cynicism.

In a study of university faculty, Tulubas & Celep (2012) confirmed that organizational justice perceptions (distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice) had a significant effect on silence among university faculty and confirmed the mediating effect of managerial trust on the relationship between procedural justice perceptions and silence.

There are also studies on the effects of organizational justice on individual emotions. Tepper (2000) found that organizational justice partially mediated the relationship between abusive supervision, anxiety, and emotional exhaustion. De Cremer & Van Hiel (2010) found that the emotional reactions of anger and frustration stemmed from individuals' own fairness experiences. De Cremer & Van Hiel (2010) also found that in a competitive interdependence condition, fair treatment of others resulted in higher levels of negative emotions (anger and frustration), while in a cooperative interdependence condition, unfair treatment of others resulted in higher levels of negative emotions (anger and frustration). They also confirmed that in the competitive interdependence condition, negative emotions (anger and frustration) are higher when the other party is treated fairly and one is treated unfairly, while negative emotions (anger and frustration) are lower when the other party is treated unfairly, and one is treated unfairly. Furthermore, organizational

justice affects stress (Tziner & Sharoni, 2014; Judge & Colquitt, 2004), and Cole et al. (2010) found that emotional exhaustion mediated the relationship between individuals' withdrawal reactions to distributive and interpersonal justice.

R. Cropanzano et al. (1999) studied the effects of procedural justice and its positive or negative outcomes on four emotions: happiness, pride, anger, and guilty. They argued there are significant similarities between the structure of core justice situations and the structure of specific affective events and suggested that organizational justice can be thought of as an affective event. R. Cropanzano et al. (2000) also referred to organizational justice as an affective event. Therefore, by applying the framework of AET to the relationship between organizational justice and organizational silence, and organizational cynicism, it is possible to explain that organizational justice affects organizational silence and cynicism as emotional reactions when viewed organizational justice as an affective event.

Therefore, based on the previous studies, the hypothesis was established as follows.

H13: Organizational justice will moderate the relationship between POP and organizational silence.

H14: Organizational justice will moderate the relationship between POP and organizational cynicism.

3.3 Construct Definition and Questionnaire

3.3.1 Definition of Constructs

First, the research variables used in this study are POP as an independent variable, which is composed of the sub-factors of "general political behavior," "go along to get ahead," and "pay and promotion" policy. As a moderating variable, organizational justice comprises the sub-factors of distributional justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice. Organizational cynicism is a single factor. Organizational silence is composed of defensive silence and acquiescent silence as sub-factors.

Finally, job attitudes are composed of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The dependent variable, response behavior, consisted of exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. For each variable, operational definitions were made according to the previous studies, as shown in Table 3-1, and the measurement items were reorganized according to the study.

[Table 3-1] Operational Definitions

Variables		Operational Definitions	Related Literature
POP	General political behavior	The degree to which the act of maximizing one's own interests is carried out	Kacmar & Carlson(1997)
	Go along to get ahead	Awareness of the degree to which one refrains from doing something for one's own benefit	
	Pay and promotion policy	Perception of the extent to which promotion and compensation decisions are politicized	

Variables		Operational Definitions	Related Literature
Organizational justice	Distributive justice	Perceptions of whether the organization distributes fairly to its members the results of their efforts or the outcomes they achieve based on the degree to which they contribute.	Greenberg(1990) Bies(1986), Colquitt et al.(2001)
	Procedural justice	Perception of whether decision-making processes and outcomes adhere to consistency, unbiasedness, revisability, accuracy, and representativeness.	
	Interactional justice	Perception of providing accurate information in relationships with bosses in the workplace, respecting subordinates, and treating them personally without discrimination in the decision-making process	
Organizational silence	Defensive silence	Silence based on self-protective motivations to withhold relevant thoughts, information, or opinions as a form of self-protection due to fear of anticipated negative consequences of speaking out.	Dyne et al.(2003), Pinder & Harlos (2001)
	Acquiescent silence	Silence which is chosen from the motives of resignation and submission, believing that offering ideas or opinions will not make a difference.	
Organizational cynicism		A negative attitude typified by feelings of frustration, despair, disappointment, disdain, and skepticism towards business organizations, executives, or other entities in the workplace.	Andersson(1996)

Variables		Operational Definitions	Related Literature
Job attitudes	Job satisfaction	An appraisal state that expresses satisfaction and positive feelings about one's job and involves both cognition (satisfaction) and emotion (positive feelings).	Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller(2012)
	Organizational commitment	"The psychological bond between an organization and an individual represented by emotional attachment to the organization."	Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller(2012)
Response behaviors	Exit	Actually leaving or considering a job change	Farrell(1983), Rusbult et al.(1988), Farrell & Rusbult(1992)
	Voice	Trying to improve the situation and discussing issues to improve the situation, seeking help from an external agency, and taking action to resolve problems.	
	Loyalty	"Trusting that the organization will do the right thing and hoping and waiting for the situation to improve and giving public and private support."	
	Neglect	The act of intentionally allowing the organization to deteriorate by not doing job well or making no effort.	

3.3.2 Construct of the Questionnaire

Based on previous studies, this study divided POP, organizational justice, organizational silence, organizational cynicism, job attitude, and response behavior (EVLN) into six groups and used a 5-point Likert scale. To measure POP, the first group consisted of two questions on "general political behavior," seven on the "go along to get ahead," and six on the "pay and promotion" policy. The second group measured organizational justice, consisting of questions on distributional justice, five on procedural justice, and five on interactional justice. The third group comprised five questions on defensive silence and five on acquiescent silence to measure organizational silence. The fourth group consisted of eight items to measure organizational cynicism. The fifth group consisted of five questions on job satisfaction and five questions on organizational commitment to measure job attitude. The sixth group consisted of four questions on exit behavior, seven questions on voice behavior, seven on loyalty behavior, and six on Neglect behavior to measure response behavior. Finally, demographic characteristics comprised five items, including gender, age, position, education, and occupation.

[Table 3-2] Measurement Variables and Questions

Variable	Measurement Variable		Questions	Source
Independent Variable	POP	General political behavior	2	Kacmar & Carlson(1997)
		Go along to get ahead	7	
		Pay & Promotion	6	

Variable	Measurement Variable		Questions	Source
Moderating Variable	Organizational justice	Distributive justice	5	Moorman(1991), Niehoff & Moorman(1993)
		Procedural justice	5	
		Interactional justice	5	
Mediating Variable	Organizational silence	Defensive silence	5	Dyne et al.(2003)
		Acquiescent silence	5	
	Organizational Cynicism		8	Reichers et al.(1997)
	Job attitudes	Job stisfaction	5	Judge et al.(2000). Sinval & Marôco(2020)
		Organizational commitment	5	John P. Meyer & Natalie J. Allen(1997)
Dependent Variable	Response behavior	Exit	4	Farrell(1983), Rusbult et al.(1988)
		Voice	7	
		Loyalty	7	
		Neglect	6	
Demographic questions			5	
Total number of questionnaires			91	

3.4 Data Collection and Analysis Methods

3.4.1 Data Collection

This study surveyed full-time employees of companies to investigate the impact of employees' political perceptions on their responsive behavior. A total of 380 questionnaires were collected through an online survey, and 373 questionnaires were used for the final analysis after excluding the missing data.

3.4.2 Analysis Method

This study used SmartPLS Ver.3 based on PLS (Partial Least Square), and Cronbach's α and CR (Composite Reliability) were used to check reliability. To ensure convergent validity, outer loadings and average variance extracted (AVE) were examined. Discriminant validity was evaluated using the Fornell-Lacker (1981) Criterion.

Ⅳ. Empirical Analysis

4.1 Sample Characteristics

4.1.1 General Characteristics of the Sample

The demographic characteristics of the survey participants are shown in Table 4-1 below. The survey was conducted among individuals who are presently employed full-time in companies. We collected 380 online surveys and used 373 to be used for the final analysis. The demographic characteristics of the sample are summarized in Table 4-1.

In terms of gender, 53.1% and 46.9% were male and female, respectively, and in terms of age, 20.6% were between 20 and 29 years old, 30.8% were between 30 and 39 years old, 25.2% were between 40 and 49 years old, and 23.3% were between 50 and 59 years old. In terms of education, 10.5% have a high school graduate or less, 16.1% have a college degree, 60.9% have a university degree, and 12.6% have a graduate degree. By job title, 27.6% were employees, 22.5% were assistant managers, 19.6% were managers, 9.1% were deputy general managers, 13.7% were general managers, and 7.5% were executives or above.

Lastly, in terms of job type, 10.5% were in production/technical, 15.3% were in technology development/research, 15.8% were in sales/marketing, 46.4% were in management/support, and 12.1% were other.

[Table 4-1] General Characteristics of the Sample

	Description	Frequency (people)	Rate(%)		Description	Frequency (people)	Rate(%)
G e n d e r	Male	198	53.1	J o b t i t l e	Employee	103	27.6
	Female	175	46.9		Assistant Manager	84	22.5
	Sum	373	100		Manager	73	19.6
E d u c a t i o n	High school graduate	39	10.5		Deputy General Manager	34	9.1
	College degree	60	16.1		General manager	51	13.7
	University degree	227	60.9		Executives above	28	7.5
	Graduate degree	47	12.6		Sum	373	100.0
	Sum	373	100.0	J o b t y p e	Production/ Technical	39	10.5
A g e	20-29 years old	77	20.6		R&D	57	15.3
	30-39 years old	115	30.8		Sales/ Marketing	59	15.8
	40-49 years old	94	25.2		Administration/ Support	173	46.4
	50-59 years old	87	23.3		Others	45	12.1
	Sum	373	100.0		Sum	373	100.0

4.2 Evaluation of the Measurement Model

4.2.1 Results of Reliability, Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity Analysis

SmartPLS Ver.3, based on PLS (Partial Least Square), was used to analyze reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity. Discriminant validity was evaluated by comparing the square root of the mean-variance extracted for a factor with the correlation coefficient with other factors, as shown in Table 3. The significance was evaluated as the

square root of the mean-variance extracted for the factor indicated in the diagonal column of the table exceeded the value to the left or below the variables (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). According to the analysis results, the discriminant validity was confirmed to be significant.

[Table 4-2] Discriminant Validity Analysis

Variable	Acquiescent Silence	Cynicism	Defensive Silence	Distributive Justice	Exit	GPB	GATGA	Interactional Justice	Job Satisfaction	Loyalty	Neglect	OC	Pay & Promotion	Procedural Justice	Voice
Acquiescent Silence	0.879														
Cynicism	0.371	0.838													
Defensive Silence	0.636	0.348	0.858												
Distributive Justice	−0.087	−0.454	−0.024	0.903											
Exit	0.367	0.453	0.306	−0.298	0.880										
GPB	0.235	0.457	0.274	−0.214	0.333	0.902									
GATGA	0.212	0.529	0.320	−0.288	0.294	0.538	0.828								
Interactional Justice	−0.202	−0.458	−0.181	0.568	−0.320	−0.323	−0.279	0.887							
Job Satisfaction	−0.346	−0.322	−0.254	0.521	−0.375	−0.165	−0.156	0.561	0.797						
Loyalty	0.114	−0.102	0.210	0.247	−0.081	0.020	0.150	0.192	0.224	0.850					
Neglect	0.386	0.253	0.442	0.025	0.302	0.217	0.156	0.006	−0.181	0.089	0.823				
OC	−0.268	−0.323	−0.106	0.546	−0.386	−0.100	−0.118	0.526	0.709	0.235	−0.065	0.877			
Pay & Promotion	0.261	0.530	0.225	−0.295	0.395	0.624	0.673	−0.261	−0.150	0.047	0.225	−0.086	0.826		
Procedural Justice	−0.123	−0.455	−0.059	0.632	−0.235	−0.321	−0.341	0.671	0.490	0.244	0.041	0.513	−0.300	0.853	
Voice	−0.254	−0.198	−0.176	0.459	−0.168	−0.053	−0.086	0.499	0.572	0.253	−0.043	0.613	−0.022	0.512	0.793

Notes: The diagonal values represent the square root of the average variance extracted, and the non-diagonal values represent the correlation coefficients between the variables.

In addition, variables with factor loadings below 0.7 were removed one by one according to the proposed method. For reliability analysis, Cronbach's alpha value and composite reliability (CR) value were examined. All variables except loyalty during response behavior (EVLN) had Cronbach's alpha values above the recommended level of 0.7 (Hair Jr et al., 2014). All variables had composite reliability (CR) values above 0.7, so they were considered appropriate. In the case of loyalty, Cronbach's alpha value of 0.689, which is lower than 0.7 but higher than 0.6, is an acceptable reliability level, and the composite reliability (CR) value of 0.835 are higher than the recommended level of 0.7, so there is no problem with the reliability level.

[Table 4-3] Convergent Validity and Reliability Analysis Results

Variables		Indicator	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	C.R	AVE
POP	Go along to get ahead	P_GATG2	0.782	0.908	0.929	0.686
		P_GATG3	0.825			
		P_GATG4	0.773			
		P_GATG5	0.855			
		P_GATG6	0.864			
		P_GATG7	0.864			
	General political behavior	P_GP1	0.890	0.770	0.897	0.813
		P_GP2	0.913			
	Pay & Promotion policy	P_PP1	0.811	0.907	0.928	0.683
		P_PP2	0.854			
		P_PP3	0.800			
		P_PP4	0.819			
		P_PP5	0.823			
		P_PP6	0.850			

Variables		Indicator	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	C.R	AVE
Organizational silence	Acquiescent silence	AS3	0.873	0.705	0.872	0.772
		AS4	0.885			
	Defensive silence	DS1	0.785	0.909	0.933	0.736
		DS2	0.888			
		DS3	0.852			
		DS4	0.906			
		DS5	0.852			
Organizational cynicism		Cynicism1	0.773	0.929	0.943	0.703
		Cynicism2	0.831			
		Cynicism3	0.839			
		Cynicism4	0.854			
		Cynicism5	0.848			
		Cynicism6	0.866			
		Cynicism7	0.852			
Job attitudes	Job satisfaction	JS1	0.787	0.855	0.897	0.636
		JS2	0.730			
		JS3	0.889			
		JS4	0.769			
		JS5	0.804			
	Organizational commitment	OC2	0.835	0.900	0.930	0.770
		OC3	0.840			
		OC4	0.923			
		OC5	0.908			
EVLN	Exit	Exit1	0.848	0.903	0.932	0.774
		Exit2	0.920			
		Exit3	0.864			
		Exit4	0.886			
	Voice	Voice1	0.766	0.901	0.922	0.628
		Voice2	0.779			
		Voice3	0.726			
		Voice4	0.765			
		Voice5	0.818			

Variables		Indicator	Factor Loading	Cronbach's Alpha	C.R	AVE
EVLN	Voice	Voice6	0.822	0.901	0.922	0.628
		Voice7	0.863			
	Loyalty	Loyalty1	0.974	0.689	0.835	0.723
		Loyalty2	0.704			
	Neglect	Neglect3	0.876	0.767	0.863	0.678
		Neglect4	0.780			
		Neglect6	0.811			
Organizational justice	Distributive justice	DJ1	0.889	0.943	0.957	0.815
		DJ2	0.908			
		DJ3	0.910			
		DJ4	0.911			
		DJ5	0.897			
	Procedural justice	PJ1	0.821	0.874	0.914	0.727
		PJ2	0.882			
		PJ3	0.871			
		PJ4	0.835			
	Interactional justice	IJ1	0.872	0.932	0.949	0.787
		IJ2	0.894			
		IJ3	0.895			
		IJ4	0.915			
		IJ5	0.857			

4.3 Evaluation of a Structural Model: Hypothesis Testing

4.3.1 Hypothesis Testing of the Research Model

The Hierarchical Component Model – Second-order factor research model was used in this study to test the hypotheses. The PLS structural equation model was used to analyze the influence relationship between POP, a second-order factor consisting of "general political behavior," "go

along to get ahead," and "pay and promotion" policy; organizational justice, a second-order factor consisting of distributive justice, procedural justice, and interactional justice; organizational silence, composed of defensive silence and acquiescent silence; organizational cynicism, a single dimension; and job attitude, consisting of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and response behavior (EVLN). The results of the study are summarized as follows.

4.3.1.1 Research Hypothesis Test

1) Analysis of direct effects between variables

When analyzing the direct effects between the main variables, it was found that, first, POP has a significant positive effect on organizational silence (path coefficient = 0.302, p<.01). Second, POP has a significant positive effect on organizational cynicism (path coefficient = 0.377, p <.01). Third, organizational silence has a significant positive effect on organizational cynicism (path coefficient = 0.198, p<.01). Fourth, organizational silence had a statistically significant negative effect on job attitudes (path coefficient = -0.143, p<.05). Fifth, organizational cynicism had a statistically significant negative effect on job attitudes (path coefficient = -.296, p<.01). Sixth, job attitudes had a significant negative impact on response behavior (EVLN): Exit (path coefficient = -.413, p <.01) and Neglect (path coefficient = -.134, p<.05), and a significant positive effect; Voice (path coefficient = .641, p<.01) and Loyalty (path coefficient = .250, p<.01).

[Table 4-4] Direct Effect Analysis between Main Variables

Path		Path coefficient	Mean	STDEV	T statistic	P value	Result
POP	→ Silence	0.302	0.298	0.057	5.274	0.000***	Accept
	→ Cynicism	0.377	0.378	0.050	7.515	0.000***	Accept
Silence	→ Cynicism	0.198	0.198	0.055	3.590	0.000***	Accept
	→ Job attitudes	−0.143	−0.143	0.063	2.252	0.024**	Accept
Cynicism	→ Job attitudes	−0.296	−0.297	0.053	5.563	0.000***	Accept
Job attitudes	→ Exit	−0.413	−0.414	0.051	8.079	0.000***	Accept
	→ Voice	0.641	0.640	0.039	16.411	0.000***	Accept
	→ Loyalty	0.250	0.251	0.059	4.263	0.000***	Accept
	→ Neglect	−0.134	−0.133	0.064	2.092	0.037**	Accept

(* p<.1, **p<.05, ***p<.01)

2) Analyze mediating effects between variables

Mediation and serial multiple mediating effects were tested following Baron & Kenny (1986) and Hayes (2009) methodology.

(a) The mediating effect of organizational silence on the relationship between POP and job attitudes.

Among the main variables, the mediating effect of organizational silence on the relationship between POP and job attitudes was examined. The results showed that organizational silence significantly mediates (path coefficient = −.043, p<.05) the relationship between POP and job attitudes.

[Table 4-5] Mediating Effects of Organizational Silence

Path	Path coefficient	Mean	STDEV	T statistic	P value
POP → Silence → Job attitudes	−0.043	−0.041	0.019	2.279	0.023**

(* p<.1, **p<.05, ***p<.01)

(b) The mediating effect of organizational cynicism on the relationship between POP and job attitudes

Among the main variables, it was examined whether organizational cynicism mediated the relationship between POP and job attitude. The results showed that organizational cynicism significantly mediates (path coefficient = −.112, p<.01) the relationship between POP and job attitudes.

[Table 4-6] Mediating Effects of Organizational Cynicism

Path	Path coefficient	Mean	STDEV	T statistic	P value
POP → Cynicism → Job attitudes	−0.112	−0.112	0.022	5.066	0.000***

(* p<.1, **p<.05, ***p<.01)

(c) The serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and organizational cynicism in the relationship between POP and job attitudes

Among the main variables, it was examined whether organizational silence and organizational cynicism had serial multiple mediating effects

on the relationship between POP and job attitude. It was found that organizational silence and organizational cynicism had significant serial multiple mediating effects (path coefficient = −.018, p<.01) on the relationship between POP and job attitude.

[Table 4-7] Serial Multiple Mediating Effects of Organizational Silence and Cynicism

Path	Path coefficient	Mean	STDEV	T statistic	P value
POP → Silence → Cynicism → Job attitudes	−0.018	−0.017	0.007	2.629	0.009***

(* p<.1, **p<.05, ***p<.01)

    (d) The serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior

The serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and job attitudes were analyzed on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN). The results showed that organizational silence and job attitudes had significant mediating effects on Exit (path coefficient = .018, p<.05), Voice (path coefficient = −.028, p<.05), and Loyalty (path coefficient = −.011, p<.05) among response behaviors. However, there were no serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and Neglect.

[Table 4-8] Serial Multiple Mediating Effects of Organizational Silence and Job Attitudes

Path	Path coefficient	Mean	STDEV	T statistic	P value
POP → Silence → Job attitudes → Exit	0.018	0.017	0.008	2.092	0.036**
POP → Silence → Job attitudes → Voice	−0.028	−0.026	0.012	2.256	0.024**
POP → Silence → Job attitudes → Loyalty	−0.011	−0.010	0.005	2.336	0.020**
POP → Silence → Job attitudes → Neglect	0.006	0.006	0.004	1.308	0.191

(* p<.1, **p<.05, ***p<.01)

(e) The serial multiple mediating effects of organizational cynicism and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior

The serial multiple mediating effects of organizational cynicism and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN) were examined. The results showed that organizational cynicism and job attitudes had significant mediating effects on the relationship between POP and Exit (path coefficient = .046, p<.01), Voice (path coefficient = −.072, p<.01), Loyalty (path coefficient = −.028, p<.01), and Neglect (path coefficient = . 015, p<.05).

[Table 4-9] Serial Multiple Mediating Effects of Organizational Cynicism and Job Attitudes

Path	Path coefficient	Mean	STDEV	T statistic	P value
POP → Cynicism → Job attitudes → Exit	0.046	0.046	0.012	3.897	0.000***
POP → Cynicism → Job attitudes → Voice	−0.072	−0.071	0.015	4.935	0.000***
POP → Cynicism → Job attitudes → Loyalty	−0.028	−0.028	0.009	3.107	0.002***
POP → Cynicism → Job attitudes → Neglect	0.015	0.015	0.008	1.975	0.048**

(* p<.1, **p<.05, ***p<.01)

(f) The serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitude on the relationship between POP and response behavior

The serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN) were examined. The results showed that organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes had significant serial mediating effects on the relationship between POP and Exit (path coefficient = .007, p<.01), Voice (path coefficient = −.011, p<.01), Loyalty (path coefficient = −.004, p<.05), and Neglect (path coefficient = .002, p<.1).

[Table 4-10] Serial Multiple Mediating Effects of Organizational Silence, Organizational Cynicism, and Job Attitudes

Path	Path coefficient	Mean	STDEV	T statistic	P value
POP → Silence → Cynicism → Job attitudes → Exit	0.007	0.007	0.003	2.590	0.010***
POP → Silence → Cynicism → Job attitudes → Voice	−0.011	−0.011	0.004	2.540	0.011***
POP → Silence → Cynicism → Job attitudes → Loyalty	−0.004	−0.004	0.002	2.030	0.042**
POP → Silence → Cynicism → Job attitudes → Neglect	0.002	0.002	0.001	1.687	0.092*

(* p<.1, **p<.05, ***p<.01)

3) Total Effect Analysis

(a) The total effect between POP and response behavior

The total effect between POP and response behavior (EVLN) is shown in Table 4-11. In the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN), POP has a significant total effect on Exit (path coefficient = .071, p<.01), Voice (path coefficient = −.111, p<.01), loyalty (path coefficient = −.043, p<.01), and Neglect (path coefficient = .023, p<.1).

[Table 4-11] Total Effect between POP and Response Behavior

Path	Path coefficient	Mean	STDEV	T statistic	P value
POP → Exit	0.071	0.071	0.015	4.661	0.000***
POP → Voice	−0.111	−0.109	0.016	6.707	0.000***
POP → Loyalty	−0.043	−0.043	0.011	4.003	0.000***
POP → Neglect	0.023	0.023	0.012	1.931	0.054*

(* p<.1, **p<.05, ***p<.01)

4) Analysis of moderating effects of organizational justice perceptions

(a) The moderating effect of organizational justice perceptions on the relationship between POP and organizational cynicism and between POP and organizational silence

This study examined the moderating effect of organizational justice perceptions on the relationship between POP and organizational silence and between POP and organizational cynicism. It was found that organizational justice perceptions have a moderating effect (path coefficient = .083, p<.05) on the relationship between POP and organizational cynicism. In addition, the moderating effect of organizational justice perceptions on the relationship between POP and organizational silence (path coefficient = .108, p<.05) was confirmed. Therefore, it was found that organizational justice perceptions significantly moderate organizational silence and organizational cynicism by interacting with POP.

[Table 4-12] Moderating Effects of Organizational Justice Perceptions

Path	Path coefficient	Mean	STDEV	T statistic	P value
POP*Justice -> Cynicism	0.083	0.082	0.035	2.364	0.018**
POP*Justice -> Silence	0.108	0.109	0.049	2.194	0.028**

(* p<.1, **p<.05, ***p<.01)
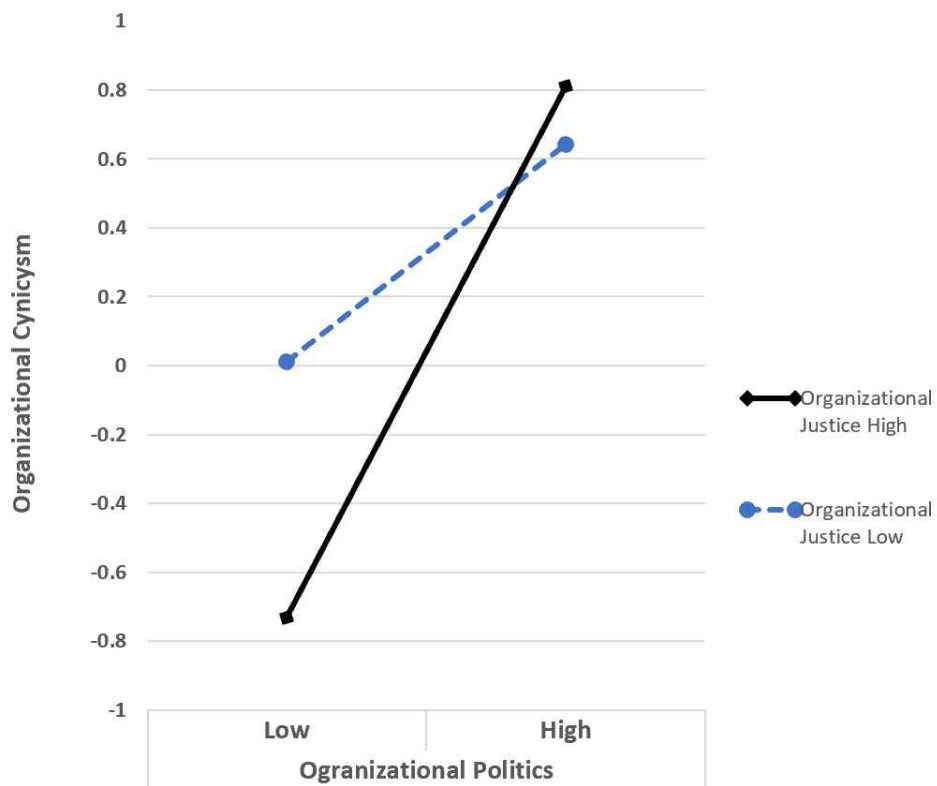
[Figure 3-2] The Interaction of POP and Organizational Justice on Organizational Cynicism
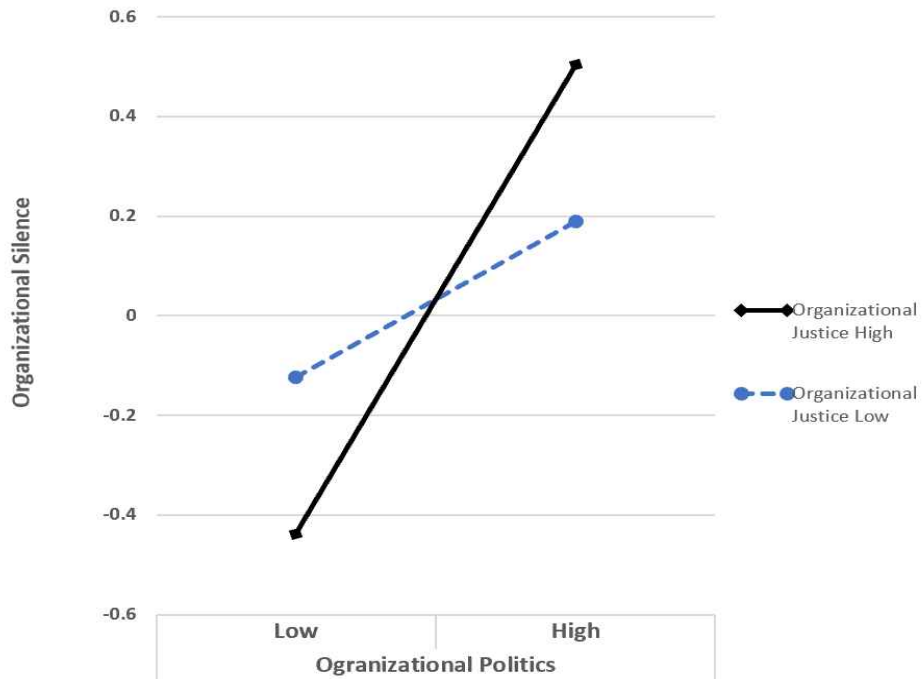
[Figure 3-3] The Interaction of POP and Organizational Justice on
Organizational Silence

(b) Size of the moderation effect

To measure the size of the moderating effect, the R^2 for the
interaction model can be compared to the R^2 for the "main effects"
model excluding the interaction construct, and the difference in R^2 is
used to assess the overall effect size f^2 for the interaction (Chin et al.,
2003). Here, 0.02, 0.15, and 0.35 have been suggested as small, medium,
and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988). Chin et al. (2003) suggested
that a small f^2 does not necessarily mean an insignificant effect, and
that small interaction effects can be meaningful under extreme conditions
of moderation.

Cohen (1988) proposed the following formula to measure the overall
effect size f^2 for an interaction.

f^2 = R^2 (interaction model) − R^2 (main effects model)/1 − R^2 (main effect model)

[Table 4-13] Size of the Moderating Effect

Path	Interaction Model		Main Effects Model		f^2
	Path coefficient	R^2	Path coefficient	R^2	
Organizational politics → Organizational silence	0.302	0.124	0.320	0.105	0.021
Organizational politics → Organizational cynicism	0.377	0.507	0.386	0.496	0.022

As shown in Table 4-13, the results of this study show that the interaction model has a path coefficient of 0.302 from POP to organizational silence, a path coefficient of 0.377 from POP to organizational cynicism, and an R^2 value of 0.124 (organizational silence) and an R^2 value of 0.507 (cynicism). In the main effect model, POP has a path coefficient of 0.320 to organizational silence and 0.386 to organizational cynicism, which is slightly higher than the interaction model, and the R^2 values are smaller than the interaction model, with an R^2 value of 0.105 (organizational silence) and an R^2 value of 0.496 (organizational cynicism).

Thus, the interaction Construction has an f^2 value of the effect size of 0.021 (organizational silence) and 0.022 (organizational cynicism). Despite the small effect sizes suggested by (Chin et al., 2003), these values are helpful in indicating that organizational justice perceptions may be a condition that interacts with POP to influence organizational cynicism and organizational silence.

4.3.2 Results of Hypothesis Testing

4.3.2.1 Summary of Hypothesis Testing Results

To achieve the objectives of this study, the hypotheses of the relationship between POP and organizational silence and the relationship between POP and organizational cynicism, which were established through the exploration of previous studies, were all accepted. In addition, the hypotheses of the relationship between organizational silence and organizational cynicism, organizational silence and job attitudes, and organizational cynicism and job attitudes were all accepted. The hypotheses of the relationship between job attitudes and response behavior (EVLN) were also accepted.

The hypotheses of the parallel and serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and organizational cynicism on the relationship between POP and job attitudes were also accepted. However, since the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and neglect behavior were not accepted, the hypotheses testing the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN) were partially accepted. But the hypotheses testing the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational cynicism and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN) were entirely accepted.

Furthermore, the hypotheses testing the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN) were all accepted.

Finally, the hypotheses that organizational justice perceptions moderate

the relationship between POP and organizational silence and between POP and organizational cynicism were all accepted.

[Table 4-14] Hypothesis Test Results

No.	Hypothesis	Result
H1	POP will have a positive effect on organizational silence.	Accept
H2	POP will have a positive effect on organizational cynicism.	Accept
H3	Organizational silence will have a positive effect on organizational cynicism.	Accept
H4	Organizational silence will have a negative effect on job attitude.	Accept
H5	Organizational cynicism will have a negative effect on job attitude.	Accept
H6	Job attitudes will affect response behaviors.	Accept
H6-1	Job attitudes will have a negative effect on exit.	Accept
H6-2	Job attitudes will have a positive effect on voice.	Accept
H6-3	Job attitudes will have a negative effect on loyalty.	Accept
H6-4	Job attitudes will have a negative effect on neglect.	Accept
H7	Organizational silence will mediate the relationship between POP and job attitudes.	Accept
H8	Organizational cynicism will mediate the relationship between POP and job attitudes.	Accept

No.	Hypothesis	Result
H9	Organizational silence and organizational cynicism will mediate the relationship between POP and job attitudes.	Accept
H10	Organizational silence and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and response behavior.	Partially Accept
H10-1	Organizational silence and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and exit.	Accept
H10-2	Organizational silence and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and voice.	Accept
H10-3	Organizational silence and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and loyalty.	Accept
H10-4	Organizational silence and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and neglect.	Reject
H11	Organizational cynicism and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and response behavior.	Accept
H11-1	Organizational cynicism and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and exit.	Accept
H11-2	Organizational cynicism and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and voice.	Accept
H11-3	Organizational cynicism and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and loyalty.	Accept
H11-4	Organizational cynicism and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and neglect.	Accept
H12	Organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and response behavior	Accept

No.	Hypothesis	Result
H12-1	Organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and exit.	Accept
H12-2	Organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and voice.	Accept
H12-3	Organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and loyalty.	Accept
H12-4	Organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes will mediate the relationship between POP and neglect.	Accept
H13	Organizational justice perceptions will moderate the relationship between POP and organizational silence.	Accept
H14	Organizational justice perceptions will moderate the relationship between POP and organizational cynicism.	Accept

4.3.3 Discussion of Hypothesis Testing Results

The purpose of this study was to identify the structural relationships between POP, organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and response behavior (EVLN) among employees and to empirically test the moderating effect of organizational justice perceptions on the relationships between POP and organizational silence and between and POP and cynicism. These findings are organized and discussed as follows.

4.3.3.1 The relationship between POP and organizational silence

Employees' POP has been shown to affect organizational silence

positively. This finding is consistent with the findings of several previous researchers, including Khalid & Ahmed (2016), AL-Abrrow (2018), Moon (2022), and I. R. Park et al. (2022). It also supports the findings of Chintakananda (2013), who found that employees' POP leads to employees' alienation, increasing their tendency to be silent. Thus, we can see that when employees perceive their work environment as political, they may react negatively to this perception, which in turn can lead to organizational silence. This organizational silence can hinder decision-making effectiveness due to the lack of feedback and timely information (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Donaghey et al., 2011). It can also lead to low job satisfaction and organizational commitment, low motivation, and high stress. Therefore, it is necessary to establish policy transparency and dialog channels to eliminate political practices.

4.3.3.2 The relationship between POP and organizational cynicism

Employees' POP has been shown to affect organizational cynicism positively. This finding is consistent with the findings of many previous researchers (James & Shaw, 2016; Albrecht, 2006; Özdevecioğlu, 2016; Jung, Koo-Young et al., 2021). This result confirms that organizational politics affects employees' cynical attitudes. Organizational politics, which is related to an individual's attribution of selfishly motivated behavior and is a personal assessment of the extent to which the work environment is characterized by co-workers and supervisors who exhibit selfish behavior (Ferris et al., 2000), imply that organizational politics influence negative organizational cynicism (Dean et al., 1998) about the employed organization that the organization lacks integrity.

Therefore, it is necessary to improve the practice of organizational politics to reduce negative feelings toward the employing organization.

4.3.3.3 The relationship between organizational silence and cynicism

Employees' organizational silence has been shown to affect organizational cynicism positively. This finding is consistent with previous studies (Aboramadan et al., 2020; Akar, 2019; D. Liu et al., 2009; Mousa et al., 2020; M. Kim & Kim, Mihwan, 2016; S.-D. Kim, 2018; Moon, 2022). In addition, Beer & Eisenstat (2000) and Pinder & Harlos (2001) suggested that the experience of organizational silence can lead to cynicism. Aboramadan et al.(2020) argued that employees who are reluctant to speak up often face negative emotional experiences such as increased levels of discontent, lack of drive, and stress, and this suggests that such employees may be more prone to developing negative emotions such as frustration and stress. They also indicated that as a way of coping with these negative emotions, some silent employees may engage in cynical behavior as a means of retaliation or to relieve their tension. It can be seen that the results of this study are in the same context as their proposals.

4.3.3.4 The relationship between organizational silence and job attitude

Employees' organizational silence has been shown to affect job attitudes negatively. This finding is consistent with the findings of Qazelvand & Shahtalebi (2016), Deniz et al. (2013), Panahi et al. (2012), and Vakola & Bouradas (2005). Poor organizational procedures and practices can be a significant cause of organizational silence.

Organizational silence is caused by fear of retaliation for raising these issues and the belief that change is not possible even if one expresses their opinion (Pinder & Harlos, 2001). Organizational silence can also

have a negative emotional impact (Knoll & Van Dick, 2013), negatively affecting employees' feelings about their jobs and their evaluation of the jobs to which they express attachment. Therefore, it is necessary to consider reducing the negative impact on employees' job attitudes and increasing their job attitudes by eliminating the factors that can cause organizational silence.

4.3.3.5 The relationship between organizational cynicism and job attitude

Employees' organizational cynicism has been shown to affect job attitudes negatively. This result is consistent with previous studies (Reichers et al., 1997; Abraham, 2000; Hochwarter et al., 2004; Nafei & Kaifi, 2013). Furthermore, Chiaburu et al. (2013) suggested that people who harbor greater levels of cynicism towards their organization are likely to experience reduced job satisfaction, and this can be attributed to the fact that their negative and distrustful outlook towards the organization might seep into their perceptions of their job, possibly using affect infusion In addition. Chiaburu et al. (2013) also suggested that people who exhibit high levels of organizational cynicism are marked by a sense of distrust and negative emotions toward the organization, and as trust is a vital factor in fostering a strong emotional connection between employees and their organization, therefore, individuals with high organizational cynicism are likely to demonstrate lower levels of commitment toward the organization. Our results are also consistent with Chiaburu et al.'s (2013) suggestion that cynicism has a negative effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Thus, our results confirm that organizational cynicism is an important variable affecting work attitudes.

4.3.3.6 The relationship between job attitudes and response behavior

Employees' job attitudes have been shown to affect their responsive behavior. In a meta-analysis of the relationship between attitudes and behavior, Kraus (1995) found that attitudes significantly predict future behavior. His study found that the correlation between attitudes and behavior tends to be higher when attitudes are generated by direct experience, when attitudes are firmly held, and when attitudes are very easily accessible from memory. In addition, Glasman & Albarracín (2006) conducted a meta-analysis and found that repeatedly expressing attitudes and directly experiencing the attitude object increased attitude accessibility and thus influenced the attitude-behavior relationship.

Job attitudes were found to positively affect voice and loyalty, and negatively affect exit and neglect. This supports the findings of Leck & Saunders (1992) and Farrell & Rusbult (1992) that job attitudes influence positive response behaviors such as voice and loyalty and negative response behaviors such as exit and neglect. It is also similar to the findings of C. Chang et al. (2009) that overall job attitude influences negative behaviors, such as counterproductive task behavior, and positive behaviors, such as organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, positive and negative job attitudes can be expected to influence employees' positive and negative behaviors. According to previous studies, social environment variables that affect job attitudes include relationships with co-workers and managers, and organizational practices such as organizational justice, which significantly impact job attitudes (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). Therefore, it is necessary to find ways to improve these factors at the organizational level to increase job attitudes.

4.3.3.7 The parallel mediating effects of organizational silence and cynicism, and the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and cynicism on the relationship between POP and job attitudes.

First, the parallel mediating effects of organizational silence and organizational cynicism in the relationship between POP and job attitudes, and serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and organizational cynicism in the relationship between POP and job attitudes were verified. It was found that organizational silence and organizational cynicism mediate parallelly the relationship between POP and job attitudes, and organizational silence and organizational cynicism serially mediate this relationship. These results suggest that employees' POP increases the respective levels of organizational silence and organizational cynicism, and that these increased levels of organizational silence and organizational cynicism negatively affect employee job attitudes. Furthermore, it can be seen that POP increases organizational silence, which increases the level of organizational cynicism, negatively affecting employees' work attitudes. This result suggests that organizational silence and cynicism may be the main factors affecting employees' negative job attitudes. These findings are consistent with the findings of Lee & Kim (2021), Ha.-Y. Kim (2014) and Oh et al. (2020). It also supports the theoretical framework of Weiss & Cropanzano's (1996) AET. It can be explained that environmental features (organizational politics) trigger negative emotional reactions, and these negative emotional reactions affect negative job attitudes.

The dominant emotions of organizational silence are fear, anger, cynicism, and despair (Pinder & Harlos, 2001), and D. Liu et al. (2009) said that the negative emotions of cynicism are consistently linked to the concept of cynicism and are accompanied by negative emotions such as

anger and contempt. Thus, when organizational silence and cynicism associated with negative emotions are applied as emotional reactions to POP, it can be explained by the same mechanism as the theoretical mechanism of AET that emotional reaction mediates the relationship between POP and job attitude.

4.3.3.8 The serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence, cynicism, and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior.

The serial multiple mediation effects of organizational silence and job attitudes, and organizational cynicism and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN) were examined.

First, organizational silence and job attitudes were found to serially mediate the relationship between POP and exit, loyalty, and voice behavior. The serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and job attitudes were not revealed on the relationship between POP and neglect behavior. Although the mediating effect of organizational silence in the relationship between POP and job attitudes was confirmed in this study, the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and neglect behavior were not confirmed. Accordingly, the hypothesis was partially adopted that organizational silence and job attitudes mediate the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN). Second, the serial multiple mediating effects of cynicism and job attitudes were verified on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN). The serial multiple mediating effects of organizational cynicism and job attitudes were found on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN). It has been confirmed that POP affects organizational cynicism, which affects

job attitudes, and that positive or negative job attitudes resulting from this affect employees' positive (voice and loyalty) and negative behavior (exit and neglect).

Applying AET's theoretical model, we can see that organizational politics as a work environment characterized by affective events influences job attitudes through emotional responses such as organizational silence and organizational cynicism, and that job attitudes, in turn, influence response behavior (EVLN).

A study by Christopher C. Rosen & Levy (2013) identified a mechanism in which organizational politics leads to organizational citizenship behavior and task performance through work attitude mediated by two dual paths of job anxiety and strain. Their study confirmed that job attitudes mediate the influence of organizational politics, psychological contract breach, and job strain on task performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Therefore, the results of this study can be seen in a similar context to the results of Christopher C. Rosen & Levy (2013) that general job attitudes link proximal outcomes of organizational politics to a reduction in behaviors that promote organizational functioning.

Third, this study also examined the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence, cynicism, and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN). The results revealed the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behaviors of exit, loyalty, voice, and neglect. Thus, the overall mechanism leading from organizational politics to behavior was identified: Organizational politics affects organizational silence, which has a dominant negative emotion, further developing the negative emotion of organizational cynicism, which negatively affects job attitude, which in

turn negatively affects constructive behaviors of voice and loyalty and positively affects destructive behavior of exit and neglect. These results show that when employees perceive that illegitimate and self-serving organizational politics are pervasive in their organizations, they fear retaliation or negative stigma for speaking up and believe that speaking up will not make a difference, which reinforces cynical attitudes such as distrust, disillusionment, and pessimism toward the organization, leading to negative job attitudes, and that the formation of negative attitudes reduces constructive behavior of loyalty and voice and reinforces negative behavior of exit and neglect.

The entire mechanism leading to behavior in organizational politics can be explained not only through the AET but also through the social information processing theory and social exchange theory.

According to social information processing theory, individuals' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors are influenced by social information, so POP through important, relevant, and reliable information in the social context will affect job attitudes negatively. Also, negative job attitudes will lead to negative behavior. Therefore, it can be explained that positive or negative response behavior, which are the distal outcomes of organizational politics, are influenced by job attitudes, and job attitudes are influenced by the proximal outcomes of organizational politics, which are organizational silence and organizational cynicism.

In addition, Clore et al. (1994) found that one of the most reliable findings regarding the interaction of emotion and cognition is the effect of emotion on evaluative judgments and that individuals can use their overt emotional response to an object as the basis for a judgment. They also found that some evaluative judgments, by definition, represent a person's emotional response to a stimulus, and that the judgment task can be simplified by assessing one's feelings toward the object.

Furthermore, the effect of mood on evaluative judgments is adjusted by the emotional impact of mood on the accessibility of valuable information, which is used to form judgments. If we assume that judgments are based on the most accessible information at the time (Higgins, 1996: Higgins, 1987), then from the perspective of social information processing theory, if organizational silence and cynicism are emotional responses to organizational politics and are assumed to be social information, the mechanisms leading to organizational politics, cynicism, organizational silence, job attitudes, and response behavior (EVLN) can be explained.

Organizational silence and cynicism can be seen as negative emotional reactions to organizational politics. They can affect employees' job attitudes by shaping their perceptions of the costs and rewards of their social exchange relationship with the organization. C. C. Rosen et al. (2006) confirmed the effect of organizational politics on performance through morale, which is represented by general employee attitudes. C.-. H. Chang et al. (2009) found that C. C. Rosen et al.'s (2006) study provided evidence that the relationship between employees' POP and their performance is mediated by morale because low morale reflects a belief that the process of reward allocation is biased and unjust. Consequently, employees with negative attitudes are less inclined to engage in behaviors that support organizational well-being, as they feel no obligation to reciprocate.

From the social exchange theory perspective, organizational silence and organizational cynicism, which are caused by the negative effects of POP, can be included in the mediation chain in the relationship between POP and job attitude, which affects employees' job attitude, and job attitudes affect employees' behavior.

In addition, the overall mechanism can be explained based on the

social exchange theory perspective as follows. POP makes it difficult for employees to predict whether their actions will lead to rewards, negatively affecting the exchange relationship between rewards and costs. This weakens employees' obligation to give back to the organization, leading them to hide opinions and ideas that could benefit the organization. It also reinforces negative and skeptical organizational cynicism, which reduces positive job attitudes. Thus, weakened job attitudes weaken constructive behaviors of voice and loyalty and reinforce destructive behaviors of exit and neglect.

Thus, it can be explained that organizational silence and organizational cynicism caused by POP affect job attitudes, which in turn affect response behavior (EVLN). Therefore, from the social exchange theory perspective, the behavioral mechanisms of POP, organizational cynicism, organizational silence, job attitude, and response behavior (EVLN) were confirmed through hypothesis testing.

4.3.3.9 The moderating effect of organizational justice perceptions

The moderating effect of organizational justice perceptions on the relationship between POP and organizational silence and between POP and organizational cynicism was examined. The results showed that organizational justice perceptions moderated the relationships between POP and organizational silence and between POP and organizational cynicism. When analyzing the interactive effects of organizational justice on the relationship between POP and organizational silence and the relationship between POP and organizational cynicism, it was found that POP has a stronger positive effect on organizational silence and organizational cynicism for those with high justice perceptions.

Conversely, POP has a weaker positive effect on organizational

silence and organizational cynicism when organizational justice perceptions are low. This can be predicted because even if an individual already perceives the organization as just, increased POP may lead them to view their current work environment as unfair and unequal (Kacmar et al., 1999).

Furthermore, as Aggarwal et al. (2022) found that POP negatively affects organizational justice perceptions, it can be explained that POP interacts with organizational justice to react more negatively to employees who perceive the organization to be fair, leading to stronger manifestations of organizational cynicism and organizational silence.

Ⅴ. Conclusions

5.1 Summary

This study attempted to investigate the effect and overall mechanism of POP, which is an important perception of the workplace in which employees work, on organizational silence, organizational cynicism, job attitude, and response behavior (EVLN). In addition, the purpose of the study was to investigate the moderating effect of organizational justice perceptions on the relationship between POP, organizational silence, and organizational cynicism.

The overall mechanism of responses and behaviors to POP was mainly reviewed using the framework of AET, social exchange theory, and social information processing theory.

Through this, the focus was on identifying the mechanism by POP, which are the crucial perceptions toward the company where employees are presently working, affect job attitudes and behavior through organizational silence and cynicism.

To this end, first, a model of the process leading from POP to response behavior (EVLN) through organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes was studied, and whether these relationships were appropriate. Second, the direct effect between variables in the relationship between POP, organizational silence, cynicism, and response behavior (EVLN) was studied. Third, the mediating effect of organizational silence and organizational cynicism was studied in the relationship between POP and job attitude. Fourth, the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes were studied in the relationship between POP and response

behavior (EVLN). Fifth, the moderating effect of organizational justice perceptions in the relationship with POP, organizational silence, and cynicism was studied.

This study set the target population of workers working in general companies in Korea. A total of 380 copies were distributed through an Internet survey, and 373 copies were recovered, excluding outliers, and used for the final analysis. Statistical analysis was performed using the SmartPLS 3.0 statistical package program.

Here's a summary of our findings.

First, employees' POP has a positive effect on organizational silence. Second, employees' POP has a positive effect on organizational cynicism. Third, organizational silence has a positive effect on cynicism. Fourth, organizational silence has a negative effect on job attitude. Fifth, organizational cynicism has a negative effect on job attitude. Sixth, employees' job attitudes affect their response behavior (EVLN). Seventh, organizational silence and cynicism were found to significantly mediate the relationship between POP and job attitudes. Eighth, organizational silence and job attitudes were found to have significant mediating effects on the relationship between POP and exit, voice, and loyalty behavior. No serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and job attitudes were found on the relationship between POP and neglect. Ninth, organizational cynicism and job attitudes were found to have significant serial multiple mediating effects on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN). Tenth, the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes on the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN) were confirmed.

Eleventh, in the relationship between POP and organizational silence, organizational justice perceptions moderated the relationship between POP and organizational silence. Twelfth, in the relationship between POP and

organizational cynicism, organizational justice perceptions moderated the relationship between POP and organizational cynicism.
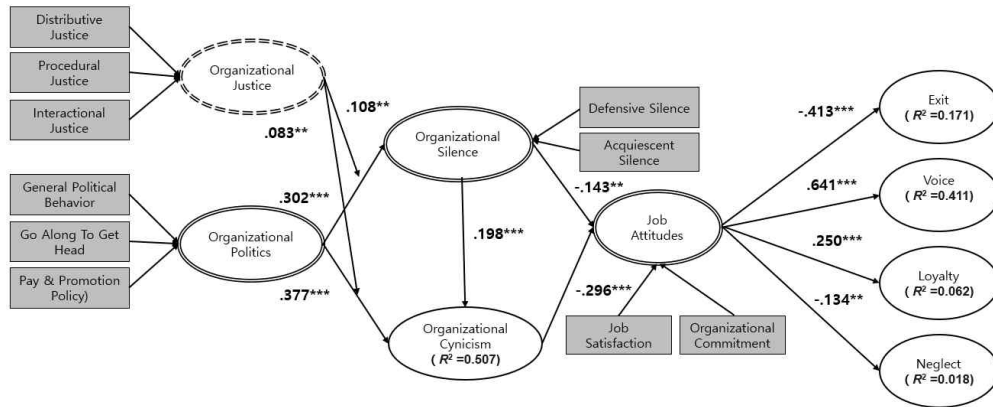
(* p<.1, **p<.05, ***p<.01)

[Figure 5-1] Results of The Research Model Analysis

5.2. Conclusions

Based on the framework of the structural framework of each AET, social exchange theory, and social information processing theory together with the framework of Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect (EVLN) model, the behavioral mechanism leading POP to employees' response behavior (EVLN) through the serial mediating role of organizational silence and organizational cynicism as emotional reactions to POP and job attitudes were identified.

Based on this empirical analysis, this study proposes the following conclusions. First, employees' POP reinforces organizational silence and organizational cynicism, extended as a variable of employees' negative emotional reactions. This finding suggests that when employees perceive that politics is pervasive in the company they work for and that politics drive each decision, they are less likely to speak up with information or

ideas that could help the organization, which makes them feel that the organization is lacking in truth and reinforces disparaging or critical behavior toward the organization. We can also see that as employees become more aware of organizational politics, emotionally, they feel the negative emotions of fear, humiliation, and anger inherent in organizational silence and the negative emotions of doubt and disillusionment inherent in cynicism. Organizational silence and cynicism, which are extended as the variables of negative emotional reaction, negatively impact employees' job attitudes. From this, we can see that when employees experience organizational silence and cynicism, they feel that the organization does not value them, and when they feel that the organization is less authentic, these negative experiences and feelings spill over into the workplace, making them feel negative about their jobs and weakening their emotional connection to the organization. Third, job attitudes reinforce positive employee behaviors and attenuate negative behaviors. People exhibit behaviors consistent with their attitudes, so positive work attitudes reinforces constructive, positive behaviors (loyalty and voice) that benefit the organization. In contrast, a negative attitude reinforces destructive, negative behaviors (exit and neglect) that harm the organization. Fourth, POP affects job attitudes by the mediation of organizational silence and organizational cynicism. We can see that higher levels of employee perception of the organization as political are associated with negative emotions, which lead to negative evaluations of the job and the organization. Thus, we can see that organizational silence and cynicism are important variables that can strengthen or weaken this relationship. Fifth, POP affects organizational silence and organizational cynicism, which are proximal outcomes of organizational politics, and these proximal outcomes of organizational politics affect employees' job attitudes. Furthermore, POP has been shown to have a positive effect on

employee exit and neglect behavior and a negative effect on voice and loyalty behavior which is the distal outcome of POP through the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence, cynicism, and job attitude. Applying the theoretical explanation provided by AET, it can be suggested that organizational politics represents work characteristics that drive affective events, employees experience negative emotions and emotional reactions (organizational silence and organizational cynicism) in response to such events, and these emotional experiences and reactions mediate the effects of affective events on the job attitudes toward organizational politics and its distal outcomes, response behavior (EVLN).

Sixth, POP and organizational justice perceptions interact to reinforce the effects of organizational silence and organizational cynicism. This result suggests that rather than POP and organizational justice perceptions interacting with each other to reduce the negative effects of organizational politics, the interaction between them reinforces the negative effects of POP, leading to greater organizational silence and cynicism; the effect of POP may offset even employees' positive organizational justice perceptions.

This study differs from previous studies in that it did not seek to validate the outcomes of negative attitudes and negative behaviors resulting from POP but rather to clarify the overall mechanism of the effect that organizational silence and cynicism accompanying emotional reactions and emotions lead to positive as well as negative behaviors of employees through job attitudes. It also differs from previous studies in that it extends our knowledge of the link between employee attitudes and behaviors toward organizational politics by shedding light on the impact of these mechanisms through social exchange theory, social information processing theory, and affective event theory frameworks. Finally, this study differs from previous studies in that understanding the mechanisms and interactions that lead from organizational politics to employee

behaviors provides insights for organizational managers to improve organizational performance and effectiveness by managing these factors.

5.3 Implications and Suggestions

5.3.1 Academic Implications

First, the theoretical implications of this study are that in the influence pathway from organizational politics to employees' response behavior (EVLN), it verified the influence relationship between POP and the proximal outcomes of organizational politics, which are organizational silence and organizational cynicism, and identified the influence of these variables on job attitudes consisting of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, and identified the influence of job attitudes on the distal outcomes of organizational politics which are voice and loyalty as constructive behaviors and exit and neglect as destructive behaviors. Second, this study is significant in that it validates the individual mediating effects of organizational silence and cynicism on the relationship between POP and employee attitudes and validates the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence and cynicism, confirming that these variables have an important mediating role between POP and employees' job attitudes. In addition, in this study, by considering the dominant negative emotions of organizational silence and cynicism and the accompanying negative emotions, these two variables were expanded to emotional responses to POP, and this relationship was explained using the theoretical framework of the AET theory. In this respect, theoretical implications can be found. In addition, the mediating effects of silence and cynicism on the relationship between POP and job attitudes have implications regarding the importance of understanding the

role of negative emotions in forming employees' job attitudes. Third, this study is significant in identifying the overall mechanism of POP's influence on employee behavior by identifying the serial multiple mediating effects of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and job attitudes in the relationship between POP and response behavior (EVLN). It is also significant that organizational silence, cynicism, and job attitudes have been identified as important variables linking organizational politics to employee behavior. Fourth, this study is significant in that it attempts to identify the overall relationship mechanism between POP and employee behavior in terms of social exchange, social information processing, and affective event theory. Fifth, as a tool to understand the mechanism of organizational politics, the EVLN model used to understand various employee behaviors was used, and there is the academic implication that this EVLN model was combined with the research framework of affective event theory, social exchange theory, and social information processing theory to identify the impact of POP on employees' response behavior (EVLN). Sixth, this study is significant in identifying the moderating role of organizational justice on the relationship between POP and cynicism and between POP and organizational silence through the interaction of organizational politics and organizational justice on organizational silence and cynicism. Seventh, it is significant that the main variables were organized into secondary factors to understand the direct influence relationship between each variable and the overall influence relationship between variables.

5.3.2 Practical Implications

This study aims to understand the impact of organizational politics on organizational silence and cynicism and the behavioral mechanisms

that lead from these variables to organizational job attitudes and behaviors, with implications for organizational management to formulate strategies and institutions to increase organizational performance and effectiveness. The practical implications of this study are as follows.

First, it was found that employees' perceptions of prevalent organizational politics in the organization as selfish, illegal, and harmful to organizational members impact organizational silence, which negatively affects employees' perceptions, job attitudes, and behaviors. This negative effect of organizational silence on work attitudes also contributes to cynicism, which has a negative effect on organizational cynicism.

Organizational politics was also found to have a direct effect on organizational cynicism. Therefore, to reduce cynicism and silence through organizational politics, it is necessary to reduce the hierarchy level in the organization, which is known to influence organizational politics, reduce supervisors' span of control, and clarify organizational guidelines and regulations by removing ambiguity and lack of clarity. Second, organizational silence and cynicism have been shown to negatively impact job attitudes that can affect organizational effectiveness. Therefore, it can be suggested that managers' attitudinal changes are needed to address managers' fear of negative feedback from employees, managers' distrust of employees, and managers' belief that they know best, which may be the cause of organizational silence, as suggested in Morrison & Milliken's (2000) study. In addition, it can also be advised that there is a need for institutional and cultural improvements that allow employees and management to communicate freely together, such as employee participation in the decision-making process and sharing the need for and progress of change, as proposed by Reichers et al. (1997) to manage organizational cynicism.

Third, since job attitudes were found to have a positive effect on

voice and loyalty behavior and a negative effect on exit and neglect behavior, it can be suggested that efforts will be needed to positively change the job attitudes of employees. Therefore, companies should provide the followings, which have been found to have a positive impact on job attitudes: offering better pay and benefits, providing career development programs for employees, involving employees in decision-making processes and organizational planning and goal-setting, enhancing camaraderie, and providing better employee supervision (Ali et al., 2015).

In addition, there is a need to promote teamwork and cooperation among employees, a high degree of autonomy in the decision-making process, and work-family balance (Alegre et al., 2016). Fourth, an overall mechanism from POP, emotional reaction, job attitudes to response behavior (EVLN) was identified in which POP positively affects organizational silence and cynicism, and increased organizational silence and cynicism negatively affect job attitude, and the negative job attitudes weaken voice and loyalty behavior and increased exit and neglect behavior. Therefore, by understanding this link between organizational politics, emotional reactions, attitudes, and behaviors, it can be suggested that organizational management should make an effort to reduce organizational politics in the workplace to reduce organizational silence and organizational cynicism, which in turn can increase positive job attitudes, ultimately leading to more positive employee behaviors and fewer negative behaviors.

According to Ferris & Kacmar (1992), political behavior occurs when high levels of uncertainty and ambiguity exist in the work environment, and higher POP is found when formalization is low. C. P. Parker et al. (1995) found that POP is lower when a) the organization provides adequate career development opportunities, b) rewards and recognition

are commensurate with performance levels, and c) there is good cooperation between work units. Furthermore, they found that political behavior decreases with increasing formalization, and the more employee involvement in the decision-making process, the less likely employees are to perceive politics. In addition, job autonomy, feedback, interaction with supervisors and co-workers, promotion opportunities, and cooperation have been shown in previous studies to influence organizational politics. Therefore, it is necessary to eliminate uncertainty and ambiguity in the work environment, provide appropriate career development opportunities, equitable compensation systems, and institutional complements to maintain cooperative relationships between departments and strengthen job autonomy, promotion opportunities, and interaction between supervisors and co-workers. In addition, since the serial mediating effects of organizational silence, organizational cynicism, and work attitude have been revealed, there are also implications for the company management level that the impact of organizational politics on negative employee behavior can be weakened by reducing organizational silence and cynicism and changing positive job attitudes in the relationship between organizational politics and employee behavior. Therefore, it is necessary to develop institutional and strategic measures to manage these variables to promote positive employee voice and loyalty behavior and reduce negative exit and neglect behavior. Fifth, organizational justice interacts with organizational politics to influence organizational silence and organizational cynicism. Since higher organizational justice perceptions interact with POP to reinforce organizational silence and cynicism, it can be interpreted that it is more important to address POP than to increase organizational justice perceptions to prevent these negative reactions. In other words, even those who have high organizational justice perceptions may have a perception that their organizational justice is wrong when

their POP increase, which increases organizational silence and organizational cynicism, which negatively affects the organization, so it can be suggested that transparent institutional improvements are needed to resolve POP.

5.3.3 Limitations and Suggestions

Although this study is significant in that it comprehensively analyzed the relationship between employees' POP, organizational justice perceptions, organizational silence, organizational cynicism, job attitudes, and response behavior, this study has several limitations.

First, it is necessary to conduct a study with a larger sample size to study the mechanisms of employees' general perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors. Second, to further understand the mechanisms of organizational politics, it is likely that the study of moderating variables that may strengthen or weaken employee behavior through interaction with organizational politics will be needed. Third, to understand the wider range of behavior of employees, it is necessary to use various expanded behavior models beyond the EVLN model of exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect. Fourth, it is necessary to identify the behavioral mechanisms leading from organizational politics to behavior by using variables other than organizational silence and organizational cynicism used in this study in the relationship between POP and job attitudes. Fifth, While this study focused on full-time employees regardless of their industry classification, future analyses will need to examine whether POP affects employees in different industries similarly.

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Appendix: Questionnaires

The effect of perceptions of organizational politics on the mechanisms of attitudes and behaviors of employees

Good afternoon.

Thank you very much for your valuable time.

The purpose of this survey is to investigate the impact of perceptions of organisational politics on the mechanisms of employee attitudes and behaviour in the workplace, with a view to examining the impact of perceptions of organisational politics on organisational silence, organisational cynicism, job attitudes and reactive behaviour.

The survey will take about 10 minutes to complete.

We hope you can spare a few minutes of your time to give us your valuable input.

We assure you that your answers will never be used for any other purpose other than research purposes and that your responses will not reveal any personal or corporate information as they will be transformed for statistical analysis.

Once again, we sincerely thank you for your time and wish your organisation all the best.

2021, May

Advisor: Hyoung-Yong Lee
Researcher : Byungjun Huh

1. Below are questions about the company you work for. For each question, please ∨ the view that best describes your opinion.

Questions	Strongly disagree ①	Disagree ②	Neutral ③	Agree ④	Strongly agree ⑤
1. My company pays fair compensation considering my stress and strains of my job.					
.2. My company pays fair compensation in light of my experience I have.					
3. My company pays fair compensation in light of the amount of effort I put forth.					
4. My company pays fair compensation considering the work I have done well.					
5. My company pays fair compensation considering my responsibilities.					
6. My company collects the accurate information necessary for decision-making.					
7. My company makes sure that all employee concerns are heard before Job decisions are made					
8. All job decisions are applied consistently across all affected employees					
9. Employees are allowed to challenge or appeal job decisions made by their managers.					
10. My company clarifies decision and provides additional information when requested by employees					
11. My boss treats me with kindness and consideration					

when decisions are made about my job.					
12. My boss shows concern for my right as employee when decisions are made about my job.					
13. My boss offers explanations that make sense to me when decisions are made about my job.					
14. My boss deals with me in a truthful manner when decisions are made about my job.					
15. My boss discusses with me the implications of the decisions when decisions are made about my job.					

II. For each statement, please ∨ the view that fits your thinking.

Questions	Strongly disagree ①	Disagree ②	Neutral ③	Agree ④	Strongly agree ⑤
1. I feel fairly satisfied with my present job					
2. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work					
3. I feel rewarded for my job.					
4. I feel that the work I do is important.					
5. I am well suited to the job I do.					
6. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.					
7. My current job has an important meaning in my life.					
8. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my					

own.					
9. I feel emotionally attached to my current organization.					
10. I feel a strong sense of belonging to my current organization.					

III. The questions below are about your organization. For each statement, please ∨ the view that best fits your thinking.

Questions	Strongly disagree ①	Disagree ②	Neutral ③	Agree ④	Strongly agree ⑤
1. Most of the programs that are supposed to solve problems around here will not do much good.					
2. Attempts to make things better around here will not produce good results.					
3. The management responsible for solving my company's problems does not seem to work hard.					
4. The people responsible for making changes around here do not have the skills needed to do their jobs.					
5. The people responsible for making improvements do not know enough about what they are doing.					
6. The people responsible for making things better around here do not care enough about their jobs.					
7. Suggestions on how to solve problems will not produce much real change.					
8. The plans for the improvement of our company					

are of little importance to me.					

IV. For each statement, please ∨ the view that fits your thinking.

Questions	Strongly disagree ①	Disagree ②	Neutral ③	Agree ④	Strongly agree ⑤
1. I don't speak up with any suggestions and ideas for change of organization because I don't want to engage in my organization					
2. I withhold my ideas for the organization even though I have a good idea because I have a mind to leave the organization					
3. I keep my ideas about solutions to problems to myself.					
4. I keep my ideas for improvement to myself because I believe I have low self-efficacy to make a difference and I don't feel competent enough to do the job.					
5. I withhold ideas about how to improve the work around here because I don't want to be engaged in my organization.					
6. I don't speak up and suggest any ideas because of fear that the result will be bad.					
7. I withhold the relevant information due to fear of the consequences after disclosing certain information.					
8. I deliberately leave out					

certain information and don't talk because I'm worried about getting in a bad position.					
9. I avoid expressing ideas for improvements as I am afraid that I will be embarrassed.					
10. I withholds my solutions to problems because I am motivated by fear that negative feedback will return					

V. The following questions relate to your work life. For each statement, please ∨ the view that best fits your thinking.

Questions	Strongly disagree ①	Disagree ②	Neutral ③	Agree ④	Strongly agree ⑤
1. I have recently spent some time looking for another job.					
2. I am thinking about moving my job to another place					
3. I often think about quitting my job					
4. During the next year I will probably look for an new job outside this company					
5. When I think of an idea that will benefit my company I make a determined effort to implement it.					
6. I will use the in-company proposal system to correct problem that arise in business					
7. I will talk to outside the company's organization (government agency, union etc) to find solution to the problem					
8. I sometimes discuss problem at work with my employer					

9. I want to suggest changes in the procedures by which work is assigned or evaluated.					
10. I want to discuss the work evaluation or feedback system with my boss.					
11. If there is a problem with the company, I will try to solve it by suggesting a change in how it manages its business.					
12. I will wait patiently hoping the problem will be solved if something goes wrong in my company					
13. I will quietly do my job and let higher ups make the decision if something goes wrong in my company					
14. I generally say good things about my company even when other people criticize it					
15. Employees should not criticize their companies.					
16. I sometimes wear hats, jackets, and badges with our company logo. (I would wear these if I had them in the company.)					
17. The people in charge of this company generally know what they're doing.					
18. I will quietly stick with my assigned job through good and bad times.					
19. Sometimes when I don't feel like working I will work slowly or make errors.					
20. Sometimes when I just don't feel like working I will					

call in sick					
21. I put less effort into my job					
22. I try to keep out of sight of my supervisor to I can talk to co-workers, take breaks or do other personal business (not work)					
23. I would show up late because I wasn't in the mood for work					
24. I would take a lot of breaks or not work as hard					

VI. The following are questions about your organization. For each statement, please ∨ the view that you think is correct.

Questions	Strongly disagree ①	Disagree ②	Neutral ③	Agree ④	Strongly agree ⑤
1. People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.					
2. There has always been an influential group in my company that no one ever crosses.					
3. Our company does not seem to raise any questions about what has already been decided.					
4. Our company has an atmosphere where Yes Man is getting ahead.					
5. Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this organization.					
6. It is best not to cause unnecessary trouble in our company.					
7. Sometimes it is easier to					

remain quiet than to fight the system.				
8. Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth.				
9. It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind.				
10. In our experience, promotion, compensation, and job placement have been politically determined in our company.				
11. In our company, promotion, compensation, and job placement were decided differently from the published policies.				
12. None of the raises I have received are consistent with the policies on how raises should be determined.				
13. The stated pay and promotion policies have nothing to do with how pay raises and promotions are determined.				
14. When it comes to pay raise and promotion decisions, policies are irrelevant.				
15. Promotions around here are not valued much because how they are determined is so political.				

VI. The following questions are about your general characteristics. Please put an ∨ in the appropriate box or write in your own words.

Questions	Contents
1. What is your gender?	① Male ② Female
2. How old are you?	① Under 30 years old ② 30 years old~39 years old ③ 40 years old~49 years old ④ 50 years old~59 years old ⑤ Over 60 years old
3. What is your position?	① Employee ② Assistant Manager ③ Manager ④ Deputy general manager ⑤ General manager ⑥ Executives above
4. What is your educational background?	① Under high school ② College degree ③ University degree ④ Over Graduate degree
5. What is your occupation?	① Production/Technical ② R&D ③ Sales/ Marketing ④ Administration/ Support

국 문 초 록

조직정치에 대한 지각이 직장인의 태도와 행동의
메커니즘에 미치는 영향
- 조직침묵, 조직냉소주의,직무태도의 매개효과와
조직공정성의 조절효과를 중심으로 -

한 성 대 학 교 대 학 원

지 식 서 비 스 & 컨 설 팅 학 과

매 니 저 먼 트 컨 설 팅 전 공

허   병   준

본 연구의 목적은 조직정치지각이 조직침묵, 조직냉소주의, 직무태도 및 조직원의 반응행동에 미치는 직접 영향관계와 이들 변수를 통해 행동에 미치는 영향에 대한 전체 메커니즘을 규명하는 것에 있다. 전체 메커니즘 규명을 위해, 사회교환이론 접근법, 사회정보처리이론 접근법, 정서적 사건이론 접근법과 직무불만족에 대한 행동 모형인 EVLN (Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect) 모형을 통해 실증적으로 연구하였다. 또한, 정서적 사건이론에서의 감정적 반응을 여러 가지 감정으로 구성된 조직침묵과 조직냉소주의라는 변수로 확장하여 행동의 메커니즘을 실증적으로 파악하였다.

본 연구를 통해 조직정치지각이 조직침묵, 조직냉소주의, 직무태도 조직원의 반응행동에 미치는 영향 관계가 확인되었다. 또한, 조직정치지각이 조직에 부정적인 조직침묵과 조직냉소주의에 영향을 미치고, 또한, 조직침묵과 조

직냉소주의가 직무 태도에 부정적 영향을 미쳐 긍정적인 반응행동이 발언과 충성에 부정적 영향을 미치고, 부정적인 반응행동인 이탈과 태만에 긍정적 영향을 미치는 행동 메커니즘이 확인되었다. 마지막으로, 조직공정성이 조직정치지각과 상호작용하여 조직침묵과 조직냉소주의에 영향을 미치는 것으로 나타났다.