IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, LEADERSHIP AND PERSONALITY ON WORK OUTCOMES: MODERATING ROLE OF PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL POLITICS

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NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF PSYCHOLOGY

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QUAID-I- AZAM UNIVERSITY

2019

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A dissertation submitted to

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NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF PSYCHOLOGY

Center of Excellence

QUAID-I- AZAM UNIVERSITY ISLAMABAD

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the

DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

PSYCHOLOGY

2019

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List of Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Explanation
POP	Perceived organizational politics
POS	Perceived organizational support
ILOC	Internal locus of control
TL	Transformational leadership
AC	Affective commitment
NC	Normative commitment
IRB	In-role job performance
OCB	Organizational citizenship behavior
OCBI	Organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals
OCBO	Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization
TOI	Turnover intention

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

In the name of Allah whose mercy I seek. His blessings have no limits. This is His refuge I seek for. This is only His recognition and acknowledgement I seek for. He is the Omnipotent and all the strengths and powers belong to Him. All my feelings of gratitude and thankfulness belong to Him. All the praise belongs to Him who provided us with a figure to inspire with and follow to. I owe my inspiration and sense of being deriving from His messenger Muhammad (Peace be upon Him). I owe Him all my good deeds and seek to follow His footsteps.

I owe a limitless amount of gratitude to my father and my mother for the identity that I enjoy today. Their prayers and constant motivation has pushed me to accomplish this challenging goal. Along with my parent, I owe the fulfilment of this task to my teacher, my mentor, my inspiration and my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Anila Kamal. She has always been a hope, a ray of light, a source of motivation during the course of this tiring and nerve taking task. This is her love, care, guidance and constant motivation that made me able to accomplish this difficult task peacefully. I find no other one than her who deserves my humble acknowledgement and recognition in achieving this important milestone of my life. I dedicate my dissertation to her inspirational self. In my professional career, wherever I stand today, her mentoring role holds a key position.

I also owe a great deal of gratitude to my wife who provided her unconditional support, love, care and concern during the course of all my life's happy, sad and difficult times. Her sleepless nights, in taking care of me while working on this task, hold a special place in my heart. I also owe a great deal of gratitude to my beloved friend Mr. Adnan Adil who had always been there to help me whenever I demanded him to be. I am also deeply thankful to Maheen Khan and Sidrah Shaheen for helping me and supporting me in all my research work. I find them a valuable asset of my life. I also feel debted to Dr. Jamil A. Malik and for his help whenever I asked him to. I am also thankful to all those university teachers who participated in this research to make it a significant contribution in research as well as applied domains of knowledge.

IMRAN

Abstract

The present study was aimed at investigating the moderating role of perceived organizational politics between perceived organizational support, transformational leadership and internal locus of control with their attitudinal and behavior work outcomes among university teachers in Pakistan. This study also explored the relationship of gender, job status, educational sector, educational level and geographic location with perceived organizational politics, perceived organizational support, transformational leadership, internal locus of control, affective organizational commitment, normative organizational commitment, in-role job performance (self-reported), organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals, organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, turnover intention and occupational stress among university teachers in Pakistan.

This study was divided into three phases. First phase of this study was aimed at adapting the scales used in this study. It included tryout, expert opinion and committee approach. Second phase of the study was comprised of the pilot study. Finally, third phase of the current study was comprised of the main study to test all the proposed relationships among the variables of this study. Sample of the pilot study included 138 university teachers while main study included 450 university teachers from Islamabad (Capital), Punjab, Sindh and Balochistan provinces. Descriptive analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, correlational analysis, multiple regression analysis, t-test and one way ANOVA were computed to measure the proposed relationships in the study. Correlational analysis showed perceived organizational politics to have a significant relationship with perceived organizational support, transformational leadership, affective and normative organizational commitment, in-role job performance (self-reported), organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, turnover intention and occupational stress among university teachers in Pakistan. Perceived organizational support and transformational leadership were shown to have significant relationship with affective and normative organizational commitment, in-role job performance (self-reported), organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, turnover intention and occupational stress among university teachers in Pakistan. Moderation analysis showed perceived organization politics only moderated the relationship of perceived organizational support with affective organizational commitment and in-role job performance (self-reported) among university teachers in Pakistan. Perceived organizational

politics moderated the relationship of transformational leadership with affective organizational commitment, in-role job performance (self-reported), turnover intention and occupational stress among university teachers in Pakistan. While, perceived organizational politics only moderated the relationship of internal locus of control with affective organizational commitment among university teachers in Pakistan. It is worth mentioning that usually perceived organizational politics was not found to moderate as predicted, while it moderated in only a few of the proposed relationships..

It is also worth mentioning that all the scales used in this study are self-report measures. Analysis for the relationship of gender, geographic location, job status, educational sector and educational qualification with the study variables, limitations, suggestions and implications of the study are also discussed in detail. Suggestions for future research endeavors and implications of the current study for university teachers in Pakistan have also been discussed.

INTRODUCTION

In this era of free market economy and trade, it is very important for the organizations to equip themselves with the current needs and challenges of the free market and open competition. Organizations, unable to change their rules, regulations, policies, work environment and management style in accordance with the current market needs, are destined to be out of the competition, meaning that they are out of the market. The maxim "nothing is permanent except change" is perfectly at work in today's fast changing economies and work environment.

The phenomenon of globalization has created more challenges to the developing countries like Pakistan where institutions need lot more to improve in terms of infrastructure development and employee development to meet the global standards of competence. In the wake of fast changing global work environment and challenges, organizations in the countries like Pakistan are also in transitional phase to meet these global market demands. A decade ago, government has established an institution named "Higher Education Commission of Pakistan" to facilitate universities across the country to improve their quality standards in accordance with the international standards. Scholarships are being awarded to encourage students to acquire higher education. At the same time, faculty members, university teachers, are being awarded research grants and salary incentives to encourage them to improve their skills and knowledge to meet the global market demands. Before the establishment of higher education commission of Pakistan, all across Pakistan, universities were regulated by a federally administered body named University grants commission of Pakistan. That body was only involved into providing financial grants to the universities. While higher education commission of Pakistan, apart from

providing financial grants, is involved in setting and evaluating quality standards for education and research in the universities.

In today's globally competitive work environment, the most important aim of any organization is to capitalize on its employees' as well as its organizational performance and outcomes. Therefore, all the progressive organizations pay special attention to the well-being of its employees, so that their employees could exert maximum effort to achieve organizational goals and objectives. For achieving employees' maximized performance, organizations adopt many strategies to augment positive work related attitudes and behaviors in their employees. In this dire scenario of open competition, the first and foremost priority of any organization is to equip itself with the most skilled and knowledgeable workforce. The nurseries to provide business organizations with such a skilled and knowledgeable workforce are educational institutions. Among educational institutions, higher educational institutions are that pivotal point where such transfer of skilled and knowledgeable workforce takes place. Therefore, it becomes fundamentally important to develop and keep investing in these institutions/organizations, so that they can cope and go along with the fast changing needs and demands of the market.

Higher educational institutions, universities, serve multi-dimensional purpose. First, they develop such a skilled and knowledgeable human resource that serves market needs. On the other hand, they also serve the purpose of satisfying society's intellectual needs. Simultaneously, they also contribute in providing human resource needed to run the statecraft. For these contributions, these higher educational institutions hold the position of brain to the body of any state, society or economy. Furthermore, if we assume university as a body, its faculty members or teachers hold the position of brain to this body. Universities, like any other educational institution,

are identified with its teaching staff. The development and success of any university is linked to development of its faculty members.

Where the phenomenon of globalizations has affected all the spheres of life, it has also shed its traces on educational institutions across the globe. Universities are now involved in student exchange and faculty development programs to keep pace with the global trends and demands. Now teachers in the universities are not left with peace and calm, as the pressure to fulfill the ever changing market demands has put them on a constant struggle to equip their knowledge and expertise in accordance with the global standards and trends. Like other business organizations, university teachers are also faced with the same job demands and pressures to maximize their knowledge, expertise and performance.

Along with these job demands, they are also faced with many barriers that hinder their performance as well as their certain job related attitudes and behavior. One of such barriers is perceived organizational politics. In general, perceived organizational politics gives birth to a number of negative job attitudes and behaviors. It also negatively affects certain positive job attitudes and behaviors. When teacher perceive their work environment to be highly political their dedication and involvement with the job is decreased due to the reason that they expect unfair treatment in terms of reward distribution. Their commitment and loyalty with such a university also decreases where they do not experience fairness in exchange relations as well as exchange structures (Butt, Imran, Shah, & Jabbar, 2013). They tend to leave such organization in order to find an alternative place where their contributions are fairly rewarded and recognized (Bodla & Danish, 2009).

From organizational perspective, to increase teachers' effectiveness in performing their job duties, organizations need to be supportive of their social,

economic as well as psychological needs. Among a number of positive strategies adopted to enhance teachers' work performance, one such strategy is perceived organizational support. When employees believe that their organization is fulfilling their needs and concerned about their welfare, their perceived in-role job performance and commitment with organization is increased (Arshadi & Hayavi, 2013; Uçar & Ötken, 2010; Hassan & Hassan, 2015). Their intention to leave the organization also decreases along with their occupational stress due to the fact that they expect fair treatment in terms of social exchange in the organization (Madden, Mathias, & Madden, 2015; Khurshid & Anjum, 2012).

From a management perspective, if managers or supervisors (head of departments in university setting) adopt transformational leadership style in dealing with their colleagues or subordinates, it would help increase employee as well as organizational productivity. Transformational leadership style infuses inspiration and motivation among teachers to identify with their leader and follow his/her footsteps in achieving organizational goals. When they find that their innovative and creative ideas are being encouraged by the management, their performance and satisfaction with the job increases (Ekaningsih, 2014). This encouragement also results into increased commitment with the organization (Kim, 2013; Chan & Mak, 2014). When employees receive individualized consideration from their head of the department, their sense of obligation to reciprocate through citizenship behavior (helping others apart from one's formal organizational obligation) also increases (Dust, Resick, & Mawritz, 2014). Transformational leadership style also helps in reducing the negative job related attitudes and behaviors, for example occupational stress and turnover intention among employees (Caillier, 2014; Ram & Prabhakar, 2010).

Internal locus of control, from personality perspective, is the variable that imparts a sense of control on expected job outcomes. People with internal locus of control have an inherent tendency and natural inclination toward believing that their effort and performance will result into desired reward as well as job outcomes. Employees who have internal locus of control are more committed to their organization and tend to be more satisfied with their job due to the fact that they perceive their work environment to be a place where they hold control over their effort's desired outcome (Chhabra, 2013). Similarly, they are more prone to actively deal with and resist stressful situations (Gaus, 2014). As they believe their desired job outcome to be related to their performance, they are better in performance than people with external locus of control (Chang & Huang, 2011).

To understand employee behavior and organizational dynamics, three levels or categories are devised for factors or variables that affect an employee's work behaviors and attitudes. First category includes personality traits of the university teachers that influence their work behavior. Second category includes management related factors that influence teachers' performance, while third category includes organization related factors that affect teachers' work attitudes and behaviors. This study chose one variable or factor from each of these three categories or levels that influence university teachers' work attitudes and behavior. From the first category, internal locus of control has been selected to investigate its impact on university teachers' certain work related attitudes and behaviors. From the second category, transformational leadership style has been selected to see its impact on certain employee behaviors and attitudes. And from the third category or level, the influence of perceived organizational support on teachers' certain work related attitudes and behaviors was selected in this study for exploration in Pakistani context. This study

assumed that perceived organizational support, transformational leadership style and internal locus of control shall positively contribute to university teachers' work related attitudes and behaviors.

More importantly, to all the positive contributions of the three predictor variables (perceived organizational support, internal locus of control and transformational leadership style), the detrimental effect of perceived organizational politics was made to be the main focus of this study. If employees perceived their organizations to be highly political, such a negative perception, where resources and all the benefits are not perceived to be distributed fairly, imparts a very damaging impact on work attitudes and behaviors of employees. The main purpose of the current study is to provide evidence, how perceived organizational politics neutralizes or diminishes the positive role of transformational leadership style, perceived organizational support and the strategies or roles adopted by the organization to develop and improve its employees' positive work attitudes and behaviors culminating into increased organizational as well as individual performance. Similarly, this study is also aimed at discovering or exploring the negative and deleterious role of perceived organizational politics in affecting the positive and valuable role of internal locus of control on certain work outcomes. It is also assumed that perceived organizational politics shall negatively influence the relation of transformational leadership style, internal locus of control and perceived organizational support with normative organizational commitment, affective organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, occupational stress, turnover intention, in-role job performance (self-perceived) and organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals such that it will weaken their relationship. It is assumed that when employees perceive their work environment to be highly political, their

negative evaluation or perception of unfairness shall decrease the intensity of influence for transformational leadership, internal locus of control and perceived organizational support on above mentioned work outcomes.

The current study is aimed at exploring perceived organizational politics' moderating role in transformational leadership, internal locus of control and perceived organizational support's relation to their positive behavioral and attitudinal outcomes among university teachers. Positive behavioral and attitudinal outcomes of perceived organizational support (individual's believe that his or her organization fulfills his or her needs), transformational leadership and internal locus of control include normative organizational commitment (when employee moral feels indebted to remain loyal to his or her organization), affective organizational commitment (identification with and emotional attachment to the organization), organizational citizenship behavior toward individual (discretionary prosocial behavior directed toward other employees), organizational citizenship behavior toward organization (discretionary prosocial behavior directed toward the organization), employees' perceived in-role job performance (self-report measure of task performance), occupational stress and turnover intention. Furthermore, this study shall also investigate the relationship of gender, education, educational sector, job status and geographic location with perceived organizational politics, perceived organizational support, transformational leadership, internal locus of control, affective organizational commitment, normative organizational commitment, in-role job performance (self-rated), organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, turnover intention, occupational stress and organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals among university teachers.

Before we discus and define the variables of this study, it is needed that we understand the concept of power and its relationship to the political behavior in the organization. Similarly, the concept of power is also very vital and relevant to the leadership literature as leaders use power to achieve their desired goals.

Power and its Sources

According to Bass and Stogdill (1990) power is the capacity of a person to influence the behavior of the other person in accordance with his/her desires. Accordingly, there exists a potential for power where one person is dependent on the other person. But, having power does not mean that one can impose it on others. Perhaps the dependency function of power is its most important aspect that makes power able to be exercised. More a person has dependence on the other, more the power lies with that other person. Dependence of a person is based on the alternatives perceived by him/her and the value that he/she puts on the alternative sources that the powerful person controls. If a person controls things that you desire, he has power over you. If you are working in an organization where your job bonuses, promotion and other work related facilities are dependent upon the approval of your manager, you can easily recognize the power that your manager/supervisor holds over you. You are dependent on him/her for getting your job benefits. But once you are promoted or transferred to some other department, his/her power is significantly reduced or lost.

Yukl (2004) identified two general categories of the sources of power, formal source of power and informal source of power.

Formal sources of power.

An individual's position in the organization provides the base for his/her formal power. It can evolve from his/her ability to reward, to coerce or from the formal authority.

1. Reward Power. People's compliance for the sake of producing positive job outcomes provide is the manifestation of reward power. If a person allocates rewards that are perceived to be valuable by others, he/she will have power over them (Ward, 2001). These rewards can be nonfinancial (e.g., interesting work assignments, preferred work shift, friendly colleagues, preferred sales territories, promotions and recognition) as well as financial (e.g., pay raises, bonuses and pay rates).

2. Coercive Power. If the employees fear that their non-compliance will result into negative outcomes, this fear provides the base for coercive power. It rests on the exercise or threat to exercise punishment. For example, it may include controlling the basic safety and physiological needs of the employees, suspension, dismissal or demotion etc. A manager is exercising coercive power, at the organizational level, if he/she suspends, dismisses or demotes a subordinate, assuming that the subordinate values his/her job. If a manager/supervisor treats his/her subordinate that the subordinate feels embarrassing or the manager assigns the subordinate with unpleasant activities, that manager holds coercive power over his/her subordinate. Withholding of key information can also pave the way for coercive power to be used. Employees' knowledge or information that other employees need can make others dependent upon them.

3. Legitimate Power. In formal organizations or groups, the most common way to get access to one or more bases of power is through legitimate power. A person positioned at some structural position in the organization has the formal authority to use and control organizational resources. Legitimate power, in its scope and application, is broader than reward and coercive power. Dependent employees in the exchange network accept the authority of the person who is formally placed on some position of control. The concept of hierarchy is so closely associated with power

that people infer leaders as powerful as people see longer lines of hierarchy in the organizational charts. People perceive the person at a higher place in the organizational as a more powerful executive (Giessner & Schubert, 2007).

Personal sources of power.

Most of the productive and competent employees are very influential although they have no formal power, neither they are managers. They influence others through their unique characteristics, personal power. Personal power is considered to have two power bases (expert power and referent power).

1. Expert Power. In expert power, people influence others as a result of their knowledge, special skills and expertise. In order to achieve goals, we increasingly depend on the experts as our jobs become more specialized. Most of us follow a psychologist's advice while dealing with psychological problems. Similarly, tax accountants, industrial psychologists, computer specialists and other specialists use their power as a result of their expertise in their respective fields.

2. Referent Power. Identification with the person, having desirable personal characteristics and resources provides the base for referent power. If employees respect, like and admire their manager, he/she can wield power over them because they want to satisfy him/her. To endorse products in commercials, celebrities are paid huge amounts of money due to their referent power. Some people, without any leadership position, influence others due to their emotional appeals, likability and charismatic dynamism (their referent power).

When people engage into collective action, forming coalitions, power will be exercised. People want to reach to a position from where they could earn rewards, influence others and advance their careers. In organizations, when employees

transform their power (ability to influence) into action, they are described as being involved into organizational politics (Mintzberg, 1985).

Perceived Organizational Politics

People with excellent political skills have the latent or inherent ability to make use of their power bases more successfully. These political behaviors benefit the individual involved in, but leave a very damaging impact on organizational functioning. Perceived organizational politics (POP) holds a central position in this research where negative implications of politics on certain behavioral as well as attitudinal job outcomes will be explored.

Collectivity starts when two or more than two people bind together to form a group or institution. Whenever collectivity is formed, people inevitably try to influence one another. When such influence tactics are perceived as political by the other group members, certain negative behavioral as well as attitudinal work outcomes are inevitable to grow out. As discussed earlier that higher educational institutions play are very vital role in shaping societies and in the development of economy, it is very important to study and control the negative implications POP in university settings. If teachers perceive their university environment as political, where rewards are allocated unfairly and politically, the quality of their organizational and task related behaviors will suffer adversely. This study chose university teachers as its sample to validate the assumption that university teachers are also negatively affected with the deleterious effects of POP in the same fashion as other organizational work employees are affected.

According to Badham (2010), practice of power is considered as politics and this practice of power in the organization is described to be organizational politics. Scholars in behavioral science and the general public has paid considerable attention

to organizational politics, believing it to be one of the most important topics for research. Careful inspection of the literature in the past two decades divides researchers into two categories investigating organizational politics from two different angles or perspectives. One group of researchers has dedicated their time and energies in studying the factors resulting into political behavior and some forms of individual as well as organizational outcomes of political behavior. This group of researcher practically ignored the role of perceptions in studying organizational politics. Their inquest was lacking systematic understanding or comprehension of employees' perception of organizational politics. Factors that contribute in developing employees' perception about their organizations as highly political in nature, and the attitudinal as well as behavioral outcomes of such perception were completely ignored in their research endeavors.

Afterwards, the second group of researcher dedicated their attention in exploring and studying POP, its antecedents and its implication to work related behaviors and attitudes (Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, & Ammeter, 2002). This later perspective is made to be the major focus of this study in the sense that, instead of political behavior, POP and its negative consequences have been chosen as the main study variable. Furthermore, Emerson's (1972) theory of social exchange also proposed that value assigned to exchange outcomes and resources varies from person to person. Different employees perceive exchange resources differently. His theory also argued that employee's power is determined through the control he/she has over the resources valued by the others. When we describe politics as power in action, it implies the use of those valued resources in one's own interest and benefit. Whenever employees perceive an imbalance in exchange relations, in terms of resource distribution, they respond in different ways to attain balance in exchange

relations. Employees' reaction to different situational demands depends upon their perception of that situation. This is also another reason to ignore political behavior and study POP.

A number of researchers have claimed that groups or individuals act in their own self-interest in organizational politics, and these acts are, most of the time, against organizational goals and objectives (Bacharach & Lawler, 1998; Cropanzano, Kacmar, & Bozeman, 1995; Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989). Additionally, according to Ferris et al. (1989), when there exists a difference in organizational and individual interests, when one entity, individual or group, possesses advantages over the other (e.g., authority, expertise, influence and power), organizational politics is the result.

According to Mintzberg (1983, p. 172), organizational politics is "individual or group behavior that is informal, ostensibly parochial, typically divisive, and above all in a technical sense, illegitimate, sanctioned neither by formal authority, accepted ideology, nor certified expertise (although it may exploit any one of those)". According to this definition, since organizations do not formally permit political activities, such activities put groups and individuals, with different agendas, against one another. These activities play a divisive role in the organization when individuals strive for their personal agendas and goals that are in contradiction to organizational objectives and goals (Ferris, Frink, Gilmore, & Kacmar, 1994).

At this point of discussion, it is needed that we differentiate organizational politics from its perception (POP). In comparison to organizational politics, defined earlier, studying the extent to which political behavior is perceived to be persistent in decision making process and the process of resource allocation within the organization is referred to as POP. This distinction between POP and organizational politics has its roots in the researches that examined organizational and individual

antecedent factors contributing to employees' POP and political behavior in the organizations. Instead of actual political behavior, the works of Ferris et al. (1989), Porter (1976), Gandz and Murray (1980), and Lewin (1936) emphasized on making POP to be the variable of interest in research. Ferris et al. (1989) put emphasis on the fact that "organizational politics is a subjective perception, but not necessarily an objective reality (p. 157)". This argument is based on Lewin (1936) and Porter's (1976) premise that even if the individuals misrepresent the actual events by perceiving decision making process and organizational activities to be politically influenced, individual's view of reality is based on his/her perception, whereas individual's behavioral and cognitive responses are based on this perception.

Although POP has been among the most popular research topics for last three decades, the attempts to define this construct started only one and half decade ago when Ferris, Harrell-Cook and Dulebohn (2000) commented that POP "involves an individual's attribution to behaviors of self-serving intent, and his/her subjective evaluation about the extent to which the work environment is characterized by co-workers and supervisors who demonstrate such self-serving behavior" (p. 90). This definition of POP entails that individual's subjective feelings are reflected in their perceptions regarding prevalence of organizational politics.

Theoretical development. Gandz and Murray's (1980) research paved the way for future researches and it also significantly contributed to the literature of POP. First, they argued that individual's perceptions will prove to be more accurate measure for organizational politics. Secondly, they also identified that organizational characteristics, individual traits and employee's job responsibilities, together, influence the development of employee's POP. Lastly, they studied various

organizational processes to match specific organizational functions and activities (e.g., pay, hiring, transfer and promotions) with employee's POP.

Extending Gandz and Murray's (1980) work, Ferris et al. (1989) suggested a very comprehensive framework to study employees' POP, its antecedent factors, and its behavioral and attitudinal work outcomes. This model, with group or departmental, organizational, individual level and dyadic attributes contributing to the development of an employee's perception of organizational politics, was considered as a multi-level model. When employees develop the perception of their organization to be highly political, this perception, consequently, influence them to adopt certain behaviors and attitudes related to their work environment.

Ferris et al.'s (1989) model of POP theorized three categories of antecedent factors that influence employees to development perception of organizational politics. These three categories included personal influences, work environment or job influences and organizational influences. Personal influencing factors included four personal attributes of an employee (self-monitoring, Machiavellianism, gender and age). Model included six job or work environment related influencing factors (advancement opportunities, interaction with coworkers, interaction with supervisors, feedback, skill variety and job autonomy). Organizational influences, in the model, included four factors (span of control, hierarchical level, formalization and centralization).

This theoretical framework, by Ferris et al. (1989), also proposed certain behavioral and attitudinal work outcomes when employees develop perception of their organization to be political. This model proposed some directly affected work related behavioral and attitudinal outcomes and some indirectly affected work outcomes. It proposes that POP directly influences employees' job involvement, organizational

withdrawal behaviors (e.g., absenteeism and turnover) and job satisfaction. This model also predicted some indirect linkages between POP and work outcomes. They proposed that employees' understanding about their perceived control in the work environment and the nature of political process moderates the relationship of POP with its attitudinal as well as behavioral work outcomes.

Revised model of perceived organizational politics. Most of the subsequent work on theory development or research regarding employees' perception of organizational politics, has revolved around partially or fully testing Ferris et al.'s (1989) model. Some of the researchers added some more moderating factors, outcomes variables and antecedent factors into this model. In 2002, Ferris, Adams, Kolodinsky, Hochwarter, and Ammeter revised and extended Ferris et al.'s (1989) POP model after critically evaluating and examining the updated empirical research evidence that focused on testing the theory of political perceptions.

Organizational influences. Although, in their review, Ferris et al. (2002) conceptualized politics as a perceptual phenomenon that works at individual level, they also acknowledged that political activity is potentially influenced by factors at organizational level. Hence, in their revised model, they maintained organizational influences as important components in developing political perceptions.

Hierarchical level, formalization and centralization were maintained as proposed in Ferris et al.'s (1989) model. On the contrary, span of control was excluded from the revised model because its relationship with POP could not find consistent literature support (Kacmar & Ferris, 1992). In its place, organizational size was included into the category of organizational influences based on the idea that increased organizational size increases level of ambiguity among organizational members (Fedor, Ferris, Harrell-Cook & Russ, 1998). Because, to keep all the

organizational members fully informed and involved in their work, larger organizations fail to fulfill the communication requirements needed to its employees. Consequently, employees use their own strategies and plans to get some semblance or impression the reality. To deal with absence of information, in such situations, the most frequently used tactic that employees use is their involvement in organizational politics.

Job/Work environment influences. Revised model of Ferris et al. (2002) maintained interaction with supervisor, interaction with co-worker, feedback and advancement opportunities in developing perception of politics into the category of job/work environment influences, based on empirical research support. Accountability, participation/involvement, person-organization fit and career development opportunities were new addition into this category in the revised model. Parker, Dipboye, and Jackson (1995) noted that absence of opportunities for career development blurs the path between acquisition of work skills and success, pushing employees to perceive their organization to be highly political. If the organization does not care or put value to its employees' career growth or employees do not find a formal career development program in their workplace, they take the responsibility into their own hands for developing their career. They get involved into politics, even, if it is needed to protect their interests and goals.

Accountability is another variable, in this revised model, which accounts for employees' POP. Ferris et al. (1997) found employees to use influence tactics if they find their work performance to be held accountable by the authorities, extending their influence tactics to politicking at work. According to Frink and Klimoski (1998), when employees find their work behaviors and their outcomes to be closely observed and analyzed, they need to be viewed, in the eyes of authorities, as more worthy and

capable of organizational rewards. For organization's decision makers to view their efforts favorably, they may get actively involved into politics.

The extent to which work environment and employees are in congruence to each other will have a positive influence in decreasing employees' POP. Vigoda (2000) found that when the employees perceive a misfit between them and their employing organization, they view their organizational environment to be more political. Most probably, employees experience ambiguity when they perceive an imbalance between organization's core values and employee goals. When there exist a high person-organization fit, employees pay more attention to effort and job related behaviors because they perceive their work performance to be directly related to their job outcomes. In contrast, if employees perceive that a dissonance or conflict exist between their organizational goals and individual needs, they will prefer to engage in self-serving activities that are aimed at securing their desired outcomes. For this reason, Ferris et al. (2002) included person-organization fit into their revised model of POP, as a factor in the category of work/environment influence.

Ferris et al. (2002) included employee's participation or involvement into work/environment influences based on number of researches showing that employees' involvement positively affect their work attitudes and performance (Bush & Spangler, 1990; Miller & Monge, 1986; Steel & Lloyd, 1988). Lawler (1986) reported that more involved employees will have more at hand organizational information in comparison to those who are less involved in their job. Based on Frone, Russell, and Cooper's (1995) assumption that employees' involvement reduces ambiguity due their access to organizational information, it is presumed that employees who are more involved in their job will perceive their organization as less political.

Overall, compelling research evidences confirms that job/work environment and organizational influences are the factors that effectively predict employees' POP. In their nature, factors of work environment and organizational influence hold the ability to extricate and influence each other. However, as this study is aimed at focusing specifically POP, we will not discuss, explicitly, the possible relationship between the groups of variables.

Personal influences. Research, in general, has validated the direct relationship between POP and Machiavellianism (Valle & Perrewe, 2000), as theorized in the original model proposed by (Ferris et al., 1989), therefore it was maintained in the revised POP model. Moreover, Ferris et al. (2002) argued that employee's tendency to view his/her work environment as positive or negative will influence his perception of organizational politics. According to Watson, Clark, and Tellegen (1988), people with higher positive affect are more involved and enthusiastic in their social surroundings. As a result, increased level of activity at workplace is expected to reduce much of the ambiguity at workplace due to employee's involvement, as discussed earlier. Hochwarter, Kiewitz, Castro, Perrewé, and Ferris (2003) also reported an inverse relationship between positive affectivity and POP. In contrast, people with higher level of negative affect tend to have feelings of distrust and anger. Schaubroeck, Gangsters, and Kemmerer (1996) attributed negative affect as trait anxiety. Consequently, Jex and Beehr (1991) contended that perception of organizational politics, as a stressor, provokes anxious responses among employees. Based on these assumptions, Ferris et al. (2002) predicted a positive relationship between POP and negative affectivity.

Outcomes or consequences. Organizational withdrawal, anxiety/tension and job satisfaction were also retained in the revised model as outcomes of organizational

politics. According to Kacmar and Baron (1999) these variables received a considerable amount of empirical support in their relationship to perception of politics at workplace. Conversely, job involvement was excluded from the revised POP model as it lacked empirical support for its relationship with POP. Additionally, trust, justice reactions, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), political behaviors, job performance and organizational cynicism were included into the revised model as outcome variables, based on updated research literature.

Moderators of the antecedents-POP relationships. In their previous model, Ferris et al. (1989), included demographic factors into the category of personal influencing factors, considered as the direct predictors of POP. However, the revised POP model changed their position from being direct predictors to category of moderators affecting the relationship of personal, job/work and organizational variables and POP. This repositioning of the demographic variables as moderators in the revised model is based on the meta-analysis conducted by Stepanski, Kershaw, and Arkakelian (2000) that reported demographic variables such as organizational tenure, gender, age and race to have no direct effect on employees' POP.

Moderators of POP-outcomes relationships. Based on Stepanski et al.'s (2000) meta-analysis, the demographic variables discussed above were also placed into the category of moderators that affect POP's relationship with its negative job related behavioral and attitudinal consequences. Additionally, Ferris et al. (2002) revised model included tolerance for ambiguity, task self-efficacy and generalized self-efficacy as the potential moderating variables that influence the relationship of POP with its work outcomes and they placed these variables into the category of personality factors. Moderating role of perceived control and understanding in

influencing the relationship of POP with its negative behavioral or attitudinal work outcomes was also retained in the revised model.

In the current study, all the outcome variables (turnover intention, normative commitment, self-perceived in-role job performance, affective commitment and OCB), were chosen from the revised POP model (Ferris et al., 2002), except occupational stress. Introduction of occupational stress as a potential outcome of POP may contribute to the further extension of POP model in the context of university teachers. Along with work demands, social expectations put an extra pressure on university teachers. Therefore, occupational stress holds an important role in university teacher's work related behaviors and attitudes.

The purpose of explaining POP, based on Ferris et al.'s (2002) model, is to provide the best illustrated and comprehensible account of information regarding this construct. As discussed earlier, majority of the research enterprise has revolved around testing this model, partially or in totality. This research has chosen to study POP from a different angle. Where almost all the earlier researches were restricted in their scope within the domain of POP model (Ferris et al., 2002), the current study chose to explore the deleterious contribution of POP, as moderator, into the relationship of employees' internal locus of control (personality variable), transformational leadership style (management level variable) and perceived organizational support (organizational level variable) with normative commitment, affective commitment, OCB, turnover intention, self-perceived in-role job performance and occupational stress among university teachers.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) reflects employees' awareness and recognition of their organization as valuing their contributions and taking care of their well-being. Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986, p. 504) defined POS as "employees' global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being". This definition implies to the provision of both tangible and intangible rewards for the employees, addressing their social, biological and psychological needs. If universities treat their faculty members as supportive to their needs and job demands, their performance, citizenship behavior and commitment to the organization is increased and their occupational stress along with intention to leave the institution is also decreased. The deleterious impact of POP is also decreased as a result of teachers' perception about their institution as supportive to their needs.

Research in exploring manager or supervisor's concern about the commitment of their subordinates to the organizational goals and organization's commitment to its employees paved the way for future researchers to further explore POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The organization serves an important role in fulfilling its employees' socio-emotional needs. It shows respect and care (intangible rewards) and provides wages and health benefits (tangible rewards) to its employees. In this way, organizations help their employees meet their need for affiliation, approval and esteem. Organization's this high regard to its employees communicate a message that organization will provide reward to those who put more effort in their work. According to Eisenberger et al. (1986), employees reciprocate to the regard and recognition given to them by the organization.

Generally, employees in the organization appraise the behavior or conduct of organization's various representatives towards them. Employees also appraise the conduct of the organization toward them. Perception of organizational support varies across employees. Some employees might base their perception of their organization to be supportive on the provision of tangible rewards in carrying out their task (e.g., financial help). Others may perceive their organizations to be supportive if they are provided with space and opportunity to progress and work in the area of their own interest. Furthermore, some employees are uneasy and concerned with some organizational and its environmental barriers (e.g., certain rules, policies, working conditions, culture) that limit the chances of their desired job outcomes. Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, and Lynch (1999) contended that employees want to reciprocate to the organization, perceiving their employing organization to be highly supportive in recognizing and fulfilling their needs. They reciprocate through their positive work behaviors and attitudes that result into increased organizational performance.

Theory of organizational support. According to Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) theory of organizational support, employees' tendency to attribute humanlike characteristics to their organization pave the way for the development of POS. Levinson (1965) reported that manager or supervisor's action are not attributed to their personal motives, but rather they are mostly viewed as indication of organization's intent. According to Levinson (1965), for their personification, organizations provide support to their managers or supervisors with financial, moral and legal authority. The power that manager exercise over its subordinates and organizational norms, culture and policies that provide continuity to prescribed roles also help organizations in building their image. On the bases of this organizational personification, employees

perceive their manager's unfavorable or favorable treatment as an indication of organizational disfavor or favor to them.

Social exchange theorists (Blau, 1964; Cotterell, Eisenberger, & Speicher, 1992; Eisenberger, Cotterell, & Marvel, 1987; Gouldner, 1960) argue that, in an exchange relation, dependent partners perceive received resources as more valuable when they are based on donor's discretionary choice. For such voluntary support, employees perceive that donor truly respect and values them. Therefore, organization's favorable job conditions and rewards (e.g., influence in organizational decision making, job enrichment, promotions and pay etc.) contribute positively in the development of POS if the employees believe organizational actions as voluntary, as opposed to some external pressure (e.g., governmental safety and health policies or employee union etc.) (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Shore & Shore, 1995). As managers are perceived as organizational agents, any favorable treatment received from the manager shall contribute to employees POS. Eisenberger, Stinglhamber, Vandenberghe, Sucharski, and Rhoades (2002) contends that strength of this relationship is reliant on the extent to which organization is identified with the manager by the employees, rather than attributing manager's actions to his/her personal characteristics.

Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) organizational support theory also deals with the underlying process in POS's consequences. First, reciprocity norm encourages employees' felt obligation to help the organization in achieving its goals and to take into account welfare of the organization. Second, respect, approval and care, indicative of POS, fulfill employee's socio-emotional needs, leading them to make their role status and organizational membership as part of their social identity. Third, POS strengthens employees' expectations and belief that their organization recognizes

their needs and contributions. They also believe that organization will recognize and reward their good performance (performance-reward expectancies). These processes contribute favorably to both organization (reduced turnover, increased AC and IRB) and the employees (heightened positive mood, increased job satisfaction and reduced job stress).

Combining organizational support theory and social exchange theory, discussed earlier, this study proposes that if universities get successful in making their faculty members perceive their employing institutions to be highly supportive, it would shed a positive effect on their work related behaviors and attitudes. It is assumed that higher level of POS will increase university teachers' normative and AC to the organization, their IRB (self-perceived) and their citizenship behavior, while it would reduce their turnover intention and occupational stress. Additionally, higher POP is also supposed to weaken the positive effects of POS on university teachers' work related behaviors and attitudes.

Transformational Leadership

Leadership is the variable that has received explosion of interest among researchers. Every day we read stories in the newspapers about successful leaders as well as significant leadership failures. Generally the heroes of the stories are most of the times in the limelight (e.g., chief executive officers of a business organization, national statesmen or politicians, generals and admirals or directors of health care and government agencies). But sometimes, an ordinary citizen also becomes the hero of the story, who shows consistency in his/her leadership in organizing things, needed to accomplish a task. Therefore, leadership should not be believed to be the territory of people who stand at the top. It can take place by any individual and at all levels. If

truth be told, it is the primary task of a leader to instill leadership in his/her subordinates. Bass and Riggio (2006) contended that the heart of transformational leadership's paradigm is this idea. The fundamental principles for effective leadership are extracted from this theory and these principles are broadly applicable to a number of life segments (e.g., issues of social change, class, sports, family and work). Like any other organization, if management in the universities adopt transformational leadership style, it will help in enhancing its teachers' positive work related behaviors and attitudes. Additionally, this leadership style will also reduce the negative implications of POP on teachers' job related behaviors and attitudes.

Transformational leadership is a paradigm that has gained widespread attention among researchers and theorists. According to Burns (1978), leadership is either transformational or it can be transactional. He conceptualized that transactional leaders lead through the process of social exchange. Burns also conceived politicians to be an example of transactional leadership. They exchange subsidizations for jobs in return of votes or campaign contributions etc. Similarly, transactional leaders bargain financial benefits to their employees for their performance and productivity or they refuse to offer rewards to their employees when they decrease their performance and productivity. On the other hand, transformational leaders, according to Burns (1978), motivate and inspire their subordinates to develop their own capacity of leadership in achieving extraordinary job outcomes. They develop and grow their subordinates into leaders by empowering them and aligning their goals and objectives with the goals and objectives of the leader, the group and the organization. While, in two other studies Bass (1985, 1998a) demonstrated that transformational leadership can motivate employees to go beyond their level of expected performance. It also increases employee commitment to the organization as well as his/her work group and

also move them toward higher job satisfaction. When teachers feel empowered and motivated, their performance will increase resultantly.

Although a number of earlier researches (Bass, 1985; Boyd, 1988; Curphy, 1992; Longshore, 1988; Yammarino & Bass, 1990a) demonstrated that transformational leadership is more effective in military setting, a relatively recent research conducted by Avolio and Yammarino (2002) reported transformational leadership to be effective in every other organizational sector or work setting. A brief account of information is needed about the history of transformational leadership and its roots, before reviewing the components of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership's historical background. Sociologists, political scientists as well as historians have long acknowledged a leadership role that goes afar the limits of social exchange that takes place between subordinates and their leader. Weber's (1947) epitomization of charisma is an example of this kind. However, in studying leadership, economists and psychologists showed support to the concept of conditional reinforcement, to offer a compensation or reward to get a desired behavior. Homans (1950) noted that leadership is essentially based on exchange relationship. A number of researches (Avolio & Bass, 1991; Podsakoff & Schriescheim, 1985) demonstrated that under most of the circumstances, contingency management is convincingly considered to be more effective. Additionally, Levinson (1980) suggested passive management-by-exception and active management-by-exception to be ineffective acts of leadership because if a leader limits his/her responsibility to punish the subordinate for failure and to reward for subordinate's compliance, the employee will feel like a jackass. To increase subordinate's commitment and engagement in his/her task, leader must recognize his/her

subordinate's sense of self-worth. This additional attribute distinguishes transformational leadership from transactional leadership.

Transformational leaders instill motivation into their to the extent that they perform more than their own expectation and intention. Leaders set more challenging performance standards for their employees and usually achieve higher performance by the employees. Employees are more satisfied and committed under transformational leaders. Moreover, transformational leaders pay special attention to their employees' personal development and their individual needs that help employees to build their own leadership capacity.

In some ways, transformational leadership is the expansion or extension of transactional leadership. The focus of transactional leaders is the exchange or transaction taking place between followers, leaders and colleagues. Leader's this exchange or transaction with others is based on the negotiation between leader and them. Employees are communicated what is required from them, and at the same time, rewards and conditions are also specified that others will receive on fulfilling those requirements. Transformational leaders, on the other hand, inspire their employees to commit shared goals and vision for a unit or organization. They put challenges before them to innovatively solve them and they also develop capacity for leadership in their employees through mentoring, coaching, and provision of support and challenge.

Earlier perspectives on leadership in social sciences focused on the polarity or dichotomy of participative (people-oriented) leadership versus directive (task-oriented) leadership. Transformational leadership involves both participative as well as directive leadership styles. Although there is much in common between charismatic and transformational leadership, transformational leadership involves charisma as its

integral part. In contrast to Weber's (1947) limited view of charismatic leadership, the modern concept holds a broader view or perspective of charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House & Shamir, 1993) that shares a lot with transformational leadership.

A number of researchers have conducted factor analytic studies to identify the components of transformational leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1997; Bass, 1985; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Howell & Avolio, 1993) and identified four components of transformational leadership. These four components include idealized influence (where followers consider their leaders as their role models), inspirational motivation (where subordinates follow their leaders out of inspiration), intellectual stimulation (where leaders intellectually stimulate employee creativity and innovation) and individualized consideration (where leaders recognized individual differences and pay needed attention and consideration to each employee). Description of these components is discussed below.

Idealized Influence (II). Transformational leaders act in such an inspirational way that their subordinates follow them considering them to be their role models. They are trusted, respected and admired among subordinates. Employees try to emulate them in order to identify with them. Their followers believe them to be reliable, determined and extraordinarily capable. Therefore, idealized influence embodies two aspects: leader's actions and the attributes that are attached to them by their subordinates and other colleagues. Additionally, leaders who hold idealized influence on their followers are consistent and are always ready to take risks. They show high moral and ethical standards of conduct and can be trusted for doing things rightly.

Inspirational Motivation (IM). Transformational leaders inspire and motivate the people around them by providing them with meaning and challenge for their task. They encourage team spirit that results into optimism and enthusiasm among their followers. They enable their followers to envision a bright future. They clearly communicate expectations to their followers and engage them in demonstrating commitment to the shared vision and goals. Inspirational motivation and idealized influence together form inspirational-charismatic leadership. According to Bass and Avolio (1993a) and House (1977), this charismatic-inspirational leadership is not different from the behaviors that charismatic leadership theory describes.

Intellectual Stimulation (IS). By reframing problems, dealing with old situations in innovative and creative ways, and questioning old assumptions, transformational leaders stimulate their subordinates to act creatively and innovatively. If employees commit mistake, they are not criticized publically and they are encouraged to be creative. Creative solutions and new ideas are asked for while involving employees in finding solutions and addressing problems. By ensuring that employees will not face criticism or discouragement in creating new ideas, even if they are in opposition to leader's ideas, subordinates are encouraged to explore and attempt new approaches.

Individualized Consideration (IC). Acting as mentor or coach, transformational leaders proactively attend each employee's need for growth and achievement. One after the other, each employee is developed to his/her higher levels of potential. In a supportive work environment, whenever new learning opportunities are developed, individualized consideration comes into action. In terms of desires and needs, individual differences among employees are acknowledged (e.g., some employees are provided with autonomy, some need encouragement, some need fair

work standards). In terms of communication, two-way exchange pattern is encouraged between leader and employees. Leader routinely visits workplaces and personally interacts with the employees. He/she is aware of employee's individual concerns and remembers all the previous conversations with this/her employees. The leader assigns tasks to his/her employees as mean to develop them. To ensure that employees need additional support and direction, leaders monitor the delegated tasks and employees do not feel as if they are being checked.

Transformational leadership's effectiveness. A growing number of research evidence demonstrated transformational leadership to be more effective in comparison to transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is not undesirable in all the situations. In some situations, it can be more effective. Similarly, active management-by-exception and passive management-by-exception style of leadership can be effective certain work conditions. However, Bass (1985) suggested a complementary relationship between transactional leadership style and transformational leadership style. In predicting employees' performance as well as job satisfaction, transformational leadership is assumed to supplement or add to transactional leadership. This leadership style affects positively to employees performance or other job outcomes than transactional leadership. There are plenty of researches proving the augmentation effect of transformational leadership (Elenkov, 2002; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Waldman, Bass, & Yammarino, 1990). All these researches confirm a basic point that Bass (1985) emphasized in his theory of leadership. He emphasized that transactional leadership provides broad base for leaders to be effective, but it can only achieve employees' greater amount of satisfaction, effectiveness and effort only when transformational leadership augments it. Finally, Avolio and Howell (1992) reported that transactional leadership is also

augmented by transformational leadership in predicting employees' level of creativity, risk taking and innovation.

According to Emerson's (1972) notion of exchange networks, different actors put their combined effort to produce some joint outcome that benefit all the actors involved in the joint effort in productive exchange (e.g. team work). In university setting, transformational leaders also develop exchange structures based on productive exchange while involving their faculty members in joint decision making process to achieve some shared goal or objective. Based on this assumption, it is presumed that transformational leadership will enhance teachers' normative and affective commitment, their self-perceived in-role job performance as well as their organizational citizenship behavior. It also will reduce their occupational stress and turnover intention by engaging them in decision making and communicating them a sense of self-worth and responsibility. Furthermore, teachers' perception of organizational politics in their university setting is supposed to weaken the positive contributions of transformational leadership in teachers' work related behaviors and attitudes. Transformational leadership style was selected for this study because the latest trend in exploring leadership styles and their implications is focused on transformational leadership among majority of the researchers.

Internal Locus of Control

Rotter (1966), based on his social learning theory, developed the concept of external versus internal control of reinforcements. He noted that critical role of gratification, reward or reinforcement, in learning and application of knowledge and skills, is universally acknowledged among social scientists. However, some people may perceive an event as a reinforcement or reward while others may react

and perceive differently to the same event. According to Rotter (1966, p. 1), "one of the determinants of this reaction is the degree to which the individual perceives that the reward is contingent upon his own behavior or attributes versus the degree to which he feels the reward is controlled by forces outside of himself".

Rotter (1966) further illustrated that when a person does not believe in a predictive role of his/her behavior or action for the reward or reinforcement that follows it, he/she will attribute the reward as result of fate, chance or luck (a belief in external control). On the other hand, if a person attributes reward or reinforcement to be contingent upon his/her personal attributes or action, that person holds a belief in internal control.

People believing themselves to have control over their exchange outcomes through their own skills, efforts and abilities are labeled as having internal locus of control (ILOC). Contrary to this, people believing their exchange outcomes as dependent upon external forces (e.g., powerful others, fate or chance) or the people who believe that exchange outcomes cannot be predicted due to many intricacies in their environment are regarded as having external locus of control (externals). People are placed across a continuum from very high ILOC to very high external locus of control. According to Araromi (2010), people with ILOC more actively seek knowledge and information concerning their environment. To be good in performance and other work related behaviors, it is very important that one knows well about his/her work environment and its dynamics. Teachers with ILOC are assumed to be more committed to their task and the organization because they perceive their desired job outcomes and rewards in their control. Their quality and involvement in their work will also increase with their sense of perceived control.

Marsh and Weary (1995) contended that people's interpretation of the events leaves an enduring impact on their psychological state of well-being. If they perceive that their future outcomes are not under their control, they are least likely to put effort in solving their problems. Such maladaptive behaviors can have far reaching and serious implications. This gravity of such maladaptive behaviors has pushed many social psychologists to trace the far reaching effects of ILOC on the social world and its origin. That is the reason that a number of psychological theories revolve around the concept of control. Seligman's (1975) theories of learned helplessness and his probability analysis of control, Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory, Rotter's (1954) social learning theory and Weiner's (1985) attributional analysis of emotion and motivation revolve around the central theme of control.

The concept of control is mostly eloquently defined by Seligman (1975). He contended that if a person's deliberate responses leaves an effect on his/her desired behavioral outcomes; he/she controls the event. On the opposite, if a person's deliberate responses leaves no effect on his/her desired behavioral outcomes; he/she holds not controls over the event. For example, if a university teacher does not get promotion despite of his/her utmost effort, he/she lacks control over his/her environment. On the other hand, if a teacher receives quarterly bonus in response to his/her good performance, he/she enjoys control over his/her work environment.

Seligman (1975) used a mathematical approach to explain his analysis of control. He asserted that controllability is a result of two parameters. Of these two parameters, the first parameter is related to the likelihood of the occurrence of an event as a result of some voluntary action (e.g., quarterly bonus as a result of performance). The second parameter is related to the likelihood of the occurrence of an event in the absence of respective voluntary action (e.g., no bonus over bad

performance). In reference to the two parameters, Seligman (1975) suggested that an event is controllable when its occurrence is equally likely, in the presence of a voluntary action and in the absence of that voluntary action. For example, when a teacher is rewarded every time (100 percent of the cases) with quarterly bonus if he/she performs good, getting reward is 100 percent controllable.

However, when there exists a lack of contingency between voluntary behaviors and their desired outcomes, loss of control is the outcome. This loss of control can lead to cognitive, emotional as well as motivational deficits. According to Seligman (1975), such cognitive, emotional as well as motivational deficits can contribute to learned helplessness. When employees start expecting that such experiences of uncontrollability will continue to occur in future, this expectancy may develop depression or learned helplessness in them.

In certain situations, however, a quite different psychological state can result among individuals in response to lack of control, known as reactance. According to Wortman and Brehm (1975), people increase their performance and motivation, as an initial response to uncontrollable job outcomes, in an effort to regain control. Although the impact of reactance is very limited in its scope, Wortman and Brehm (1975) theorized that the state of helplessness is likely to appear if employees perceive uncontrollable experience, in a continuous manner, to arise. Similarly, if a university teacher feels that he/she lack control over his/her job outcomes, he/she may put more effort to get control over the environment to get the desired end. This increased effort may result into more citizenship behavior and IRB among university teachers.

The concept of controllability holds a fundamental place in Weiner's (1985) attributional analysis of emotion and motivation while evaluating interpersonal

actions. He postulated that reactions of the observer to actors, experiencing need for help, sickness or failure, are largely based on his/her perceived controllability over the causes of those events. If he/she attributes failure to controllable causes (e.g., actor's lack of interest or lack of effort), he/she will tend to have reduced willingness to help and increased anger. On the contrary, if the observer attributes failure to uncontrollable causes (e.g., failure due to lack of ability), he/she will show increased willingness to help and reduced anger to the actor, that may result into increased citizenship behavior among teachers about their colleagues in the university.

Bandura (1986) examined the role or contribution of individual's self-efficacy beliefs in his/her task accomplishment. He postulated that people's striving to achieve a particular goal, their attempt to perform a specific task, or whether they will take on a certain activity or not is dependent upon their self-belief (self-efficacy) in performing those actions. In other words, if people hold the belief that they control their future outcomes, they will try to exercise that control in order to achieve their desired outcome. The attainability or unattainability of the desired outcome is not as important as the perception of control. It is this perceived control that determines whether one will put his/her effort to achieve it or not. For example, if a teacher believes that he/she can meet an extremely difficult goal, he/she will put his/her effort to achieve that goal even if the odds are against him/her. In contrast, a teacher will not put his/her effort in achieving a target if he/she does not believe that achievement of that goal is in his/her control, even though he/she has ability to meet the target. That is why locus of control holds central position in Bandura's (1986) self-efficacy theory.

Locus of control has an important relevance to our daily lives. Internals holds a more adaptive perspective for their environment. They believe that their personal abilities and hard work will help them in achieving their desired work outcomes. This

positive approach makes them able to succeed in future endeavors and meet challenges. Albeit one's desired job outcomes may not be related to their actions, the belief about the control on job outcomes positively affects one's psychological well-being. For this reason, people with sense of personal responsibility in achieving their future goals, aspirations and thoughts are much more skillful and proficient in dealing with their social environment. With this theme of control in mind, the present study aims at exploring the assumption that ILOC will lead to positive job outcomes among university teachers.

Affective and Normative Organizational Commitment

In the field of organizational behavior, organizational commitment holds a very important place. According to Batemen and Strasser (1984, p. 95-96), organizational commitment is studied due to the reason related to "(a) attitudinal, affective, and cognitive constructs such as job satisfaction; (b) employee behaviors and performance effectiveness; (c) personal characteristics of the employee such as age, job tenure; and (d) characteristics of the employee's job and role, such as responsibility". According to Jex and Britt (2008), earlier researchers focused on figuring out the concept of organizational commitment while current researchers are exploring this construct through two different approaches. One approach focuses on commitment related behaviors while other approach focuses on commitment related attitudes.

Besides feelings of dissatisfaction or satisfaction with the job, employees also develop feelings of attachment with the organization as well as commitment to the organization they work for. It can be argued that, like dissatisfaction and satisfaction, employee's propensity to develop organizational commitment or

attachment can trace far beyond the workplace (Jex, 2002). For instance, through marriage or other forms of relationship, people get committed or attached to each other. Some people devotedly commit themselves to the activities such as political ideology or party, institutions like school and exercising. Having such a heavy baggage or rich history of commitments, it can be easily expected that employees will also develop their feelings of attachment or commitment with their employing organization.

In general, organizational commitment is reflected through the level of employees', working in an organization, devotion to their organization, their likelihood of maintaining its membership and their willingness to work on employing organization's behalf (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982). In this general definition, one can note that affective commitment and behavioral commitment are distinguishable. Commitment includes, both, employee's behavioral tendencies and feeling toward the employing organization.

The concept of organizational commitment was further refined and advanced by Meyer and Allen (1991). They figured out three bases of employee's commitment to his/her organization. They contended that employees may develop commitment to their organization for different reasons and each reason amount to a distinctive form of commitment. They postulated a three-component model of organizational commitment that included affective organizational commitment (employee's emotional attachment with the organization), continuance organizational commitment (employee's commitment with the organization due to lack of choice alternatives) and normative organizational commitment (commitment with the organization due to obligation).

According to Meyer and Allen (1991, p. 67), "affective organizational commitment (AC) refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization, whereas normative organizational commitment (NC) reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment (where employees morally feels compelled to remain in the organization)". On the contrary, continuance commitment is based on employee's comparison between his/her relative investments in the organization and the relative costs linked with exploration of alternative job opportunities in another organization. Majority of the researchers in organizational psychology have focused on AC and a few researchers have also explored NC due to the reason that these two constructs have their roots in psychological factors whereas continuance commitment is more related to economic factors. For this reason, this study shall particularly focus on NC and AC of the university teachers in Pakistani job environment.

Besides multiple sources of commitment, employees may develop commitment within the employing organization at different levels or they may also develop commitment to some outside group. For example, a teacher may develop his/her commitment toward leader of his/her working group, toward his/her work group or toward the organization as a whole. Some employees feel committed to the profession they belong to. For example, a teacher who works for a university may be more committed to the teaching profession than his/her employing organization.

Development of affective and normative commitment. Organizational commitment is very complex construct and it is very difficult to identify what determines employee's organizational commitment. Majority of the researchers have resolved this issue by examining the bases of commitment that were proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991). One might logically suppose, for AC, that employees feel

affectively committed when they develop a perception that their employing organization is fairly treating them and being supportive to their needs (Meyer & Allen, 1991). If truth be told, AC has been found to be positively related with the variables such as procedural justice and POS (Jex, 2002). Another factor that may play its role in developing AC is employees' perception about the organization as a source of reward. Meyer and Allen (1997) demonstrated AC to be positively related with perceived competence, job autonomy, participative decision making and job scope. In another way, these findings can be interpreted as, employee's development of AC is based on their perception about their employing organization as a place where they feel worthy.

Some researchers have explained AC through retrospective sense making and behavioral commitment. Put differently, as a retrospective mechanism, to justify their effort expended on organizational behalf and their tenure in the employing organization, employees develop a sense of AC. This explanation of AC through retrospective mechanism is consistent with Salancik and Pfeffer's (1978) theory of social information processing.

In comparison to AC, not much is known about the factors contributing to the development of NC. Meyer and Allen (1997) contended that nature of employee's transactions with the employing organization and his/her personal characteristics may influence the development of normative development. Individuals may differ, at a personal level, whether their employing organization emphasized the development of a strong sense of moral obligation and loyalty to their employer at employees' earlier stage of organizational socialization.

Possibly the most potent factor in developing NC is the manner in which organizations treat their employees. According to Schein (1980), an implicit

agreement (a psychological contract) exists between employees and their organization when they join the organization. This psychological contract represents what employees perceive as a reasonable treatment as organizational members. When employees perceive their employing organization as holding and honoring its part in the psychological contract, it can be assumed that NC will be at its highest level. In collectivist cultures like Pakistan, where conformity and compliance with the social group, group cohesion and social obligations are encouraged and projected as value structures, this variable of NC seems quite relevant and worth exploring. That is the reason this variables has been selected in the current study to determine its relevance in the context of a collectivist culture.

It is assumed, in the current study, that POS and transformational leadership will enhance AC and NC among university teachers. Whereas, POP is assumed to reduce these positive job outcomes among university teachers. Furthermore, POP is also assumed to weaken the positive relationship of POS and transformational leadership with AC and NC among university teachers.

In-Role Job Performance (Self-perceived)

Among all the work related and organizational variables, self-perceived in-role job performance (IRB) is the most important one. For any organization, first and foremost priority is to increase its employees' IRB. All the work related attitudes and behaviors ultimately culminate into employee's performance on the job. If the employee holds positive work related attitudes and behaviors, his/her performance on the job will increase resultantly. Similarly, his/her negative work related attitudes and behaviors will ultimately hinder his/her performance at work. Keeping in view this significance of this variable, this study also chose to investigate teachers' self-

perceived IRB in relation to POP, transformational leadership, ILOC and POS in university settings.

On a general level, Jex and Britt (2008, p. 96) defined IRB as "all the behaviors employees engage in while at work". However, this description of job performance is very vague. Many of the behaviors that employees display at work are not related to their job description. Generally speaking, IRB is attributed to employee's level of achievement or performance at work.

Definitions of IRB vary in their scope, ranging from qualitative to quantitative and specifics to general aspects of performance. According to Jex and Britt (2008), initially, researchers were very hopeful in defining and measuring IRB but soon they realized that it was not an easy process to determine aspects of a job and job demands. Today, researchers are agreed upon the fact that IRB is a complex set of interacting variables that are related to the employee, the different dimensions of the work environment and the job (Milkovich, Gerhart, and Hannon, 1991).

Campbell (1990) defined IRB as behaviors in which an employee gets engaged while he/she is at work. However, he went one step ahead in stating that, these behaviors could be counted into the domain of IRB if they contribute into achieving organizational goals. This definition is definitely more specific and precise in comparison to general definitions of IRB. This definition confines IRB only to those behaviors that directly linked to task performance.

According to Campbell (1990), while determining IRB, one must distinguish it from some related constructs such as utility, productivity and effectiveness. When we evaluate the results of some employee's IRB, we are basically measuring his/her job effectiveness. This distinction between the two constructs is very important because an individual's job effectiveness cannot be measured through his/her job performance

only. For example, a person can be receiving poor performance evaluations despite his/her engagement in a number of productive organizational behaviors due errors in performance rating or because he/she is disliked by the evaluator.

Productivity is very closely linked to job effectiveness and job performance but it differs from the two variables due to the reason that productivity involves the cost of getting a desired level of performance or effectiveness. For instance, in a given year, two sales persons may receive equal amount of commission through equal level of their performance. However, if one of these two sales person has achieved this level of performance at a lesser cost in comparison to other salesperson, he/she will be considered as more productive. Often used interchangeably, a term closely related to employee productivity is employee efficiency. Where productivity is cost related, efficiency is time related. If an employee achieves his/her desired level of performance in a given time period, he/she is considered as an efficient employee.

Finally, the given value of productivity, effectiveness or performance is referred to as utility. Although, at surface value, this definition of utility seems superfluous along with the explanation of job effectiveness, discussed earlier, but these two constructs are different in their nature and scope. For example, in some prestigious universities, research productivity holds more value than teaching performance. As a result, an employee with less job experience and high research productivity may hold higher value in the university than the other employee having more job experience and less research productivity.

At surface value, it may appear trivial to distinguish among job utility, job efficiency, job productivity, job effectiveness and job performance. On the contrary, if one is interested in evaluating and predicting an employee's job performance, these distinctions hold great importance. According to Jex (1998), a number of researches

in the field of organizational psychology claim to predict employee's job performance while actually they are predicting employee's job productivity or effectiveness. In comparison to productivity or effectiveness, usually employees hold more control over their job performance. That is the reason that mostly studies fail to distinguish among employees while evaluating their performance. This gap may result into wrong conclusions in identifying the determinants of employees' performance differences.

Milkovich et al. (1991) claimed that historically researchers have used three different approaches in defining the dimensions of employee's IRB. Researchers have defined job performance as a function of outcomes, behaviors or personal traits. Since outcomes and behaviors are easier and more objective to measure than personal traits, the majority of researchers have attempted to define and explain job performance through these two approaches (Hersen, 2004). Job performance is believed to be the result of a series of behaviors from an employee's perspective. Cardy (as cited in Jex & Britt, 2008) suggested that job performance includes the task performed on daily basis. Following this approach, Campbell (1990, 1994) developed an influential model of measuring employee's job performance. According to Jex and Britt (2008, p. 99), "this model included following eight aspects or dimensions of job performance to measure: (1) management/administration, (2) job-specific task proficiency (behavior related to core tasks of the job), (3) non-job-specific task proficiency (general work behavior), (4) demonstrating effort (level of commitment to core tasks), (5) written and oral communication task proficiency, (6) facilitating peer and team performance, (7) supervision/leadership, and (8) maintaining personal discipline".

Looking deep into each dimension of Campbell's IRB model, it appears clearly that all these dimensions are not necessarily relevant to all types of jobs. In actual fact, Campbell (1990) purported that among eight dimensions, only three dimensions

(maintenance of personal discipline, demonstrating effort and core task proficiency) are to be considered as major job performance dimensions for all jobs. This model still has a functional value because it provides researchers with a common standard for exploring job performance across jobs. This model holds tremendous value in understanding and predicting general components of IRB.

In the current study, teachers' self-perception about their in-role job performance (self-rated) has been chosen instead of actual in-role job performance (supervisor rated). At the initial stage of this research, in the pilot study, both self-rated and supervisor rated measures of in-role job performance shall be used to see whether both the measures mutually correlate. If both the measures mutually correlate, it may help in inferring sound conclusions from in-role job performance's self-rated measure in the main study. The reason for using only in-role job performance's self-rated measure in the main study is the large sample size where it is not feasible or convenient to collect supervisor reports. In this study, it is assumed that POS and transformational leadership will enhance teachers' IRB in university setting, whereas, POP is assumed to reduce these positive job outcomes among university teachers. Furthermore, POP is also assumed to weaken the positive relationship of POS, ILOC and transformational leadership with IRB among university teachers.

Organizational Citizenship Behavior

All humans are considered as social animals. They cannot live a life in isolation. Belongingness is considered as one of the basic needs of all humans. Like social settings, employees also show pro-social behaviors in their work environment as well. Such pro-social behaviors are referred to as citizenship behavior. People provide support not only to their colleagues but also to their employing organization

as a token of gratitude or reciprocation. This pro-social or citizenship behavior is related to one's personal satisfaction or peace of mind at work. Employees support one another so that they can create a healthy and positive work environment. As teaching profession is expected to be high in morality and inspiration, it is expected that teachers will show more citizenship behavior toward their colleagues as well as their employing organization. This study shall investigate the factors that enhance and decrease OCB among university teachers.

From a general perspective, OCB involves those employee behaviors that are not formally rewarded or the behaviors not considered to be the part of one's formal job description (e.g., being considerate to others or helping a colleague when he/she is absent). Although such behaviors are not included in terms of office, yet they increase group and organizational effectiveness (George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Katz & Kahn, 1978; Podsakoff, Ahearne, & MacKenzie, 1997).

OCB is defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization (Organ, 1988, p. 4)". OCB goes beyond those performance standards that an organization requires in a formal job description. Moreover, in order to promote welfare of the organization, work group or the colleagues, an employee goes beyond the minimum role demands that an organization expects in OCB (Lovell et al. 1999).

Researches into exploring the construct of OCB began in late 1970s with the work of Organ (1977). From the beginning, a distinction has been made between two aspects of OCB: altruism (helping others) and general compliance (to do what is expected of a good employee) (Bateman & Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Later on, this concept went through a number of transformations. Five

dimensions of OCB were identified by Organ (1977, 1994). These five dimensions included sportsmanship (not to complain about trivial matters), courtesy (to consult others before taking any action), conscientiousness (compliance with norms), civic virtue (keep pace with important matters within the organization) and Altruism (helping others). Later on, Organ (1997) further squeezed OCB to three domains: conscientiousness, courtesy and helping.

On the other hand, Williams and Anderson (1991) came up with a different view regarding the dimensionality of OCB. They confined Organ's five dimensions into two dimensions of OCB. One dimension (OCBI) included employee behaviors that are directed toward specific organizational members such as altruism and courtesy, while the other dimension (OCBO) included employee behaviors directed toward benefiting the organization such as civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness. The present study takes into account Williams and Anderson's (1991) perspective, as it seems more comprehensive and concise.

Citizenship Behaviors Directed Toward Individuals. Citizenship behaviors directed toward individuals (OCBI) involves behaviors that directly benefit specific organizational members and, in so doing, indirectly benefit the organization because employee's performance contributes to organizational performance (Lee & Allen, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bacharach (2000) defined this dimension of OCB as helping others, in their work-related tasks, out of your own free will. Currently, majority of the researchers follow definition of Williams and Anderson's (1991) regarding OCBI.

Citizenship behaviors directed towards the organization. According to Williams and Anderson (1991), Citizenship behaviors directed toward organization (OCBO) refers to the voluntary behaviors directed toward the organization (e.g.,

volunteering for committees or attending some conference on behalf of the employing organization). These behaviors do not directly benefit other organizational members. According to Podsakoff et al. (2000), OCBO is employee's organizational compliance due to the reason that an employee internalizes company policies and rules in it.

After conducting confirmatory factor analysis, Cho and Oh (2015) demonstrated OCBI and OCBI as distinct constructs with distinct antecedent factors. Lee and Allen (2002) also proposed OCBI and OCBO as distinct constructs and through confirmatory factor analysis provided empirical evidence to support the notion that two factor model was preferable than one factor model of OCB.

Based on these findings, the present study chose to study these dimensions of OCB as distinct constructs. It is assumed that POS and transformational leadership will enhance university teachers' OCBI as well as OCBO, whereas POP is assumed to reduce these positive job outcomes among university teachers. Furthermore, POP is also assumed to weaken the positive relationship of POS, ILOC and transformational leadership with OCBI and OCBO among university teachers.

Turnover Intention

Organizations, like universities, dedicate a significant amount of money in recruiting, selecting and training its employees to meet the organizational demands effectively. As mentioned earlier, it is the age of globalization and free market economy. This environment also throws temptations upon skilled employees to switch their job freely if they find a better alternative opportunity. So, it becomes a very vital and a grave matter of concern for the universities to retain their skilled knowledgeable and productive faculty members, in order to survive in an environment of open competition.

Intent to turnover is not as explicit as the actual turnover is and it is an immediate antecedent of actual employee turnover. Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2002, p. 1), defined turnover intention (TOI) as "the (subjective) probability that an individual will change his or her job within a certain time period". A number of studies have explored the relationship between employees' turnover intention and his/her actual turnover behavior (e.g., Hom & Griffeth 1991; Mobley, 1977). As the intention to leave an organization increases, the chances of actual turnover are also expected to increase. According to Mobley, Griffeth, Hand, and Meglino, (1979), an individual's evaluation and perception of the job alternatives are referred to as turnover intention.

As employees pass most of their daytime at their workplace, it is very important for the employer to make the work environment favorable for his/her employees so that they can put their best into organizational efficiency and productivity. As there is a huge cost associated with employees while recruiting, selecting and training them, organizations cannot afford to lose their skilled and trained workforce. In order to secure its investment on the employees, any organization's primary focus becomes the retention of its skilled workforce. To do so, organizations apply different retention strategies for its employees to remain member of the organization for a longer period of time. It is also discouraging and demotivating for other employees to see their colleagues leave the organization (Kaur, Mohindru, & Pankaj, 2013).

Employee turnover refers to the change in labor force or workforce in a given time period. Explained in other way, it is a measure of extent to which new employees join an organization and old employees leave the organization in a given time period. Price and Mueller (1981) categorized turnover into involuntary

turnover and voluntary turnover. When an employee is forced to leave by the organization, it is referred to as involuntary turnover. Whereas, when employees leave the organization with their own free will, it is referred to as voluntary turnover. McShane and Williams (1993) noted that voluntary turnover is more detrimental to the organization than involuntary turnover. For a number of reason, employees could voluntarily leave the organization such as low satisfaction with the employer and the job, limited growth and promotion opportunities, a better alternative opportunity in some other organization or organization's resistance to restructuring and change. Hence, it becomes very important for the higher educational institutions to develop such a healthy and positive work environment where faculty members feel more satisfied and committed with their job as well as the organization. Otherwise, universities are deemed to lose their skilled and productive faculty member due to unhealthy work environment.

According to Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action, the relationship between employee's behavior or action and his/her attitude is mediated by his/her behavioral intention. It implies that the occurrence of an employee's behavior is dependent upon his intentions. Whether an employee will leave the organization (turnover behavior) or not depends upon his or her intentions to leave the organization (turnover intention) and this intention to leave the parent organization is linked to employee's appraisal of her/his work environment and the organizational behavior toward him/her. Turnover intention, on the other hand, may be defined as employee's intention to leave the organization. It is a complex phenomenon contributed by a number of factors.

Keeping in view, the above mentioned social exchange framework, it is assumed in the current study that when university teachers will appraise their

organization to be supportive and the management or leadership to be transformational, their intent to leave the organization will decrease. On the other hand, if they perceive their work environment to be highly political (where exchange relations are not based on fair treatment), their intention to leave the organization will increase. Furthermore, POP is also assumed to weaken the negative relationship of POS, ILOC and transformational leadership with turnover intention among university teachers.

Occupational Stress

The topic of occupational or job stress has attracted a great deal of research focusing on employee's mental and physical health (Beehr, 1995; Hofman & Tetrick, 2003; Jex, 1998). It is also a topic that has drawn great deal of attention from popular media. In spite of this focus, the history of scientific inquiry regarding this variable is not very long. Additionally, in spite of the considerable development that took place over the past few decades, still there is lot to be explored about the effects of stress on employee's well-being and health.

Aldred (1994), Ivancevich and Matteson (1980), Matteson and Ivancevich (1987) and Mulcahy (1991) have provided an ample amount of research evidence demonstrating that consistent exposure of employees to stressful working condition is deleterious to both employees as well as organizational effectiveness. It is assumed that stress plays an important role in leaving negative impact on employee outcomes such as reduced productivity, more on-the-job accidents, higher rates of turnover and absenteeism and increased healthcare costs.

Workers' increasing claims for health related hazards due to occupational stress provide another indication for its harmful effects (DeFrank & Ivancevich, 1998,

National Council on Compensation Insurance, 1988; Jex & Britt, 2008). In the past, organizations used to give compensation to their employees for only physical injuries that were cause by some physical stimulus or event. However, along with physical injuries, the legitimacy of psychological injuries caused by work environment's some stressful aspect (e.g., an overly demanding supervisor) is getting recognition among employing organizations.

Impact of occupational stress on the society is also worth noting. It is not possible for a person, experiencing constant work stress, to effectively perform his/her other roles such as community member, neighbor, parent and wife/husband. Although economic costs may not have any direct link with a person's failure to effectively perform these roles, but in the long run, it may leave its negative impact on the society. Thus, occupational stress poses a real and important threat to individuals, organizations, and society.

According to Beehr and Franz (1987), most of the researches on occupational stress have been conducted by organizational psychologists but a deep examination into the literature of occupational stress demonstrates that nurses, epidemiologists, labor economists, engineering psychologists and physicians have also paid their contribution into the perusal of the occupational stress. Viewing occupational stress from an interdisciplinary perspective, Beehr and Franz (1987) identified four different approaches to study occupational stress among researchers: (1) counseling and clinical approach, (2) medical approach, (3) approach of engineering psychology and (4) organizational psychology's approach.

To the proponents of counseling/clinical approach, it is more important to study the deleterious effects of stressful work environment on employees' mental health (e.g., anxiety and depression etc.). The main focus of this approach is on

treatment than on research. Beehr et al. (2001) pointed out that, instead of studying the root causes of occupational stress, the adherents of this approach are more inclined or interested in developing strategies or treatments to deal with stress related symptoms. As expected, the people trained in counseling and clinical psychology dominate this approach.

The distinctive feature of medical approach is its focus on employee illness and health affected by occupational stress. Viewing from this perspective, factors constituting a stressful work environment are believed to be pathogenic agents that create disease conditions. Not surprisingly, this approach is dominated by physicians or the people who have some training in other health related fields such as public health, nursing, health education etc. (Beehr & Franz, 1987).

The proponents of engineering psychology restrict themselves to the exploration of those causes of stress that are related to employee's physical work environment such as design of employee's workplace, pace of work or work schedules. As proponents of engineering psychology (also known as human factor) studies the relationship between employee and his/her physical work environment, it is not surprising that they are more interested in studying the physical work environment as a potential source of occupational stress. Beehr and Franz (1987) pointed out another distinctive characteristic of engineering psychology that it places more emphasis on implications of occupational stress that are performance-related.

There are number of distinctive features that characterize organizational psychology's approach to occupational stress. This approach places more emphasis on the psychosocial sources of occupational stress. It points out toward two important attributes of stress according to organizational psychologist's perspective. First, this approach places more emphasis on employee's cognitive appraisal of his/her work

environment to perceive it as stressful. Secondly, the proponents of this approach are more interested in studying the causes of employees' stress that stem from their interaction with others. Another distinctive attribute of this approach lies in the fact that, along with studying social causes of occupational stress, researchers are also keen in studying the individual and organizational implications (outcomes) of occupational stress (Beehr & Franz, 1987).

In past recent years, occupational health psychology has come up as an umbrella covering all these four approaches to occupational stress (Barling & Griffiths, 2003). It is a new interdisciplinary filed aimed at enhancing well-being, safety and health of employees, using theories and methods of psychology. It is also worth noting that, though considered as only one dimension of occupational health psychology, occupational stress holds a very key importance because of its deleterious effect on employee's safety and health. This study follows this occupational health psychology's perspective to occupational stress among university teachers.

For a long time, occupational stress researchers have struggled with and adopted a unique terminology. The term stress in itself has evoked a lot of controversy. Although it can be explained in many ways, researchers have inclined to follow stimulus-response or stimulus, response definition of stress. A stimulus definition considers stress some force working upon the employee. Whereas, response definition considers stress as an employee's reaction to stressful work environment.

In stimulus-response definition, the term stress is only used to represent the process through which employee's working conditions may adversely affect him/her. In place of using the term stress and employee's response or something in his/her work environment, it represents those aspects of employee's work environment that

require him/her to respond adaptively. For example, one might notice that, in his/her job, an employee appears to face a number of stressors.

The other term related to stimulus-response definition is strain. It represents employee's multitude of maladaptive reactions in response to stressors. For example, an employee may show a great amount of strain in response to long working hours. According to Jex and Britt (2008), occupational stress researchers place stress into three categories: physical, psychological and behavioral.

Psychological strain refers to employee's emotional or affective response to a stressor such as depression, hostility, frustration and anxiety ((Heinisch & Jex, 1997; Motowidlo, Packard, & Manning, 1986; Spector, Dwyer, & Jex, 1988). Physical strain represents an employee's reaction that is related to his/her physical well-being and health. According to Ganster and Schaubroeck (1991), because of the increasing healthcare costs, it has attracted a considerable amount of research. Methods used to measure physical strain include self-reported physical symptoms, assessment of physiological indexes and diagnosed disease conditions (Frese, 1985; Spector & Jex, 1998; Fried, Rowland, & Ferris, 1984; Schaubroeck & Merritt, 1997; Sales & House, 1971). Among the three categories, mentioned above, behavioral strains have received the least amount of research. Campbell (1990) attributed it to the reason that it is difficult to obtain behavioral index and the understanding about different forms of organizational behavior is also lacking in research community. There are number of behavioral strains that have been investigated by occupational stress researchers such as impaired job performance, substance abuse, turnover and absenteeism (Jex & Britt, 2008). This study focuses on assessing stress in terms of psychological strain among university teachers.

Keeping in view, the above mentioned social exchange framework, it is assumed in the current study that when university teachers appraise their organization to be supportive and the management or leadership to be transformational, their occupational stress will decrease. On the other hand, if they perceive their work environment to be highly political (where exchange relations are based on unfair treatment), their occupational stress will increase. Furthermore, POP is also assumed to weaken the negative relationship of POS and transformational leadership with occupational stress among university teachers.

After reviewing the literature to know how different scholars and researchers have explained the constructs or variables of this study, it is equally important to see how different researchers have investigated the relationships among these study variables in different organizational settings. Majority of the researches have focused corporate private sector while ignoring the educational sector regarding implications of the above mentioned constructs in higher educational work environment.

Perceived Organizational Politics and Outcome Variables

Every individual as well as the whole organization is affected by power, politics and influence tactics. A number of studies have tested the relationship of POP with a number of work outcomes in different work settings (Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewé, & Johnson, 2003; Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, 2006). Kacmar et al. (1999) and Valle and Perrewé (2000) reported a positive relationship of POP with turnover intention and occupational stress. All these studies examined direct relationship of POP with its negative work outcomes. It is need of the hour to explore the relationship of POP with other job outcomes mediated or moderated through some other variables.

Contrary to all this, the current study chose to study the more deleterious effect of POP as moderator.

When employee believes that his/her work setting is highly political, where he/she does not see a fair treatment with regard to his/her job input, his/her affective relation to the organization is lost along with her or his obligation to reciprocate. When exchange relations are based on favoritism and self-interest, imbalance is the outcome. Employees do not feel any obligation to remain with the organization when they find themselves to be unable to receive their due share in exchange relations. Similarly, employees only internalize those organizational values that are perceived as fair and equitable. They start identifying with those organizational values, resulting into identification with the organizational goals and values. When they find their work environment to be unfair and imbalanced in exchange relations, they neither prefer to identify with nor to develop emotional attachment with such organization. Their affective as well as NC with the organization is decreased when they perceive their work environment to be highly political.

Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, and Topolnytsky (2002), in their meta-analytic study, concluded that when employees perceive their organization to be fair in dealing with its workforce, their affective and NC is increased. Similar findings were also reported by a number of other researchers regarding negative relationship of POP with NC and AC (Butt, Imran, Shah, & Jabbar, 2013; Donald, Bertha, & Lucia, 2016; Ferris et al., 2002; Karatepe, 2013; Kimura, 2013; Randall, Cropanzano, Borman, & Birjulin, 1999; Vigoda, 2000). Similarly, Boehman (2006) also demonstrated that employees' POP reduces their normative as well as their AC to their employing organization. Furthermore, Bukhari and Kamal (2015) also demonstrated a negative

relationship between POP and AC among employees of banks and telecommunication organizations in Pakistan.

Employees' IRB is dependent upon a multitude of factors related to their work environment. Among those influencing factor, POP is an important and crucial factor. When employees develop a perception that their job input is not expected to receive a fair and just amount of reward, their motivation to work hard decreases. When they find their exchange relations, at micro as well as macro-level, to be unjust and unfair, their in-role performance (self-perceived) is decreased because they perceive other unrelated factors, like favoritism, to be linked to the onset on reward. There are number of researches that have provided evidence for the negative relationship of POP with employees' IRB (Byrne, 2005; Ferris et al., 2002; Randall et al, 1999; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Zivnuska, Kacmar, Witt, Carlson, & Bratton, 2004). Similarly, Vigoda (2000) also reported a negative relationship between employees' IRB and their perception of organizational politics. He attributed employees' poor IRB to dysfunctional aspect of POP. Furthermore, Chang et al. (2009) also provided evidence for the converse relationship between POP and employees' IRB in their meta-analytic study. Although majority of the researchers have measured employees' in-role job performance through supervisor ratings, a number of researchers (Arshadi & Hayavi, 2013; Guan et al., 2014; Rahman, Hussain, & Haque, 2011; Sumathi, Kamalanabhan, & Thenmozhi, 2013) have also measured in-role job performance through self-report measure.

When employees perceive their organization as fair in providing equal opportunity for growth and development, they find such an environment to be very humane and modest. Such an environment reinforces selfless and prosocial behaviors and attitudes. OCB is one of those behaviors where employees come out

of their job description to give support to their colleagues as well as the organization. Contrary to it, when employees find their work environment to be highly selfish, unjust and personal goal oriented, they avoid to indulge into any kind of prosocial behavior. They find their exchange relations to be imbalanced and unjust. Their citizenship behavior in the organization is decreased when they perceive their work environment to be highly political. A number of researchers have provided a considerable amount of evidence for a negative relationship between POP and OCB (Afshardoust, Feizabadi, Zakizadeh & Abdolhoseyni, 2013; Ferris et al., 2002; Karatepe, 2013; Mensah, 2013; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Witt, Kacmar, Carlson & Zivnuska, 2002). Similarly, Bodla, Afza and Danish (2014) provided empirical support to the notion that employees' citizenship behavior toward the organization is decreased when they perceive their organization to be highly political. Their study sample involved employees from the industrial sector organizations in Pakistan. Similarly, Randall, et al. (1999) also provided support to the notion that employees' citizenship behavior toward other employees in the organization and their citizenship behavior toward the organization is decreased when they perceive their organization to be highly political. Furthermore, Khwaja and Ahmad (2013) also investigated the relationship of POP with organizational citizenship among employees working in different diplomatic missions in Pakistan. Their research finding also provided support to the converse relationship of OCB with POP.

In an organization, when organizational employees do not see any chance of growth and development in their employing organization, when they find a lack of balance in their exchange relations at micro as well as macro organizational level, they start looking for some other alternative opportunity. Their commitment

with the employing organization is decreased. When they perceive their work environment to be unjust and unfair in treating their needs and potentials, they tend to leave that employing organization in order to find an environment where their potentials are fairly recognized, acknowledged and treated. A large number of researchers have come up with evidences to demonstrate a positive relationship between employees' intention to leave their organization and their POP (Bodla & Danish, 2009; Bozeman et al., 2001; Byrne, 2005; Ferris et al., 2002; Harris, Andrews, & Kacmar, 2007; Karatepe, 2013; Meisler & Vigoda-Gadot, Miller, Rutherford, & Kolodinsky, 2008; 2014; Poon, 2004; Ram & Prabhakar, 2010; Valle & Perrewe, 2000). Similarly, Javed, Abrar, Bashir, and Shabir (2014) and Harris et al. (2007) also reported similar findings to support the notion that employees' intention to leave the organization increases when they believe that their work setting happen to be highly political. Moreover, Abbas et al., (2012) also conducted a study on diverse sample from banks, telecommunication organization, textile manufacturing firms and government ministries in Pakistan to investigate the relationship between employees' turnover intention and their perception of organizational politics. Their findings also demonstrated a positive relationship between POP and turnover intention.

People invest their energies, time and abilities in anticipation of a fair reward and recognition. They expect their organization to reciprocate in a fair way. They also expect their organization to support and facilitate them in performing their task and responsibilities. When they believe that their parent organization is unsupportive and inconsiderate to their socio-emotional along with other basic needs and challenges in performing their tasks, they feel an unwanted amount of strain and stress. When they perceive their work environment to be

unfair and unjust in acknowledging and rewarding their job input, they feel more stress. There are many researchers who have demonstrated empirical support to the notion that employees' occupational stress is increased when they perceive their work environment to be highly political (Bozeman et al., 2001; Chang et al., 2009; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Harris et al., 2007; Valle & Perrewe, 2000; Vigoda, 2002; Vigoda & Kapun, 2005; Vigoda-Gadot & Talmud, 2010). Similarly, Ram and Prabhakar (2010) also showed similar results to support the proposition that employees' perception about their employing organization as highly political increases their occupational stress. Moreover, Miller et al. (2008) also demonstrated a positive relationship between occupational stress and POP in their meta-analysis.

Keeping in view the above mentioned theory and literature, the current study proposed POP to be negatively related to employees' AC and NC, their IRB, their OCBO and OCBI among university teachers. Contrary to that, POP was proposed to have a positive relationship with employees' occupational stress and their turnover intention among university teachers.

From a social exchange perspective, according to Molm (2006), actor is the one who exchanges. It can be community groups working as a unit, a single person, some peculiar entity (club or a friend) or occupants of some position in a structure that are interchangeable (e.g., a manager or CEO). Almost all the social exchange theorists agree on the assumption that actors are self-centered and selfish. They have a tendency to make sure that their positively valued rewards have increased and negatively valued consequences have decreased. These actors only differ in their approach to achieve their desired ends. Some of the actors follow rational actor model (based in microeconomics). In rational actor model, actors consciously make comparisons between potential cost and benefits and make cognitive choices to

maximize their performance outcomes. Macy (1990) described rational actor models as forward looking models of the actor. Based on this social exchange perspective, it is assumed that when employees rationally make cost and benefit analysis in a highly political environment, their conscious comparison of unfairness and favoritism leaves negative impact on their work behavior and attitudes. As a result, their motivation to become a productive worker will decrease. All the positive work related behaviors and attitudes will be undesirably affected due to higher POP, despite positive measures put forth on the part of organization or the management. Based on this assumption, it is proposed that perceived organizational politics shall weaken or neutralize the positive contribution of ILOC, POS and transformational leadership in employees' working behaviors and attitudes.

Perceived organizational support and Outcome variables

During the last three decades, POS has received attention from a large number of researchers in the fields of management and organizational psychology. POS ensue number of positive job behaviors and attitudes, even if this perception is developed due to human resource practices or healthy work conditions. It helps in increasing employees' normative and AC, OCB and IRB. It also helps in decreasing employees' occupational stress and turnover intention.

When employees perceive that their organization is fulfilling their needs and expectations, they tend to reciprocate this exchange with positive job attitudes. When they find their organization to be considerate and taking care of their welfare needs, they develop an affective bonding with the organization and also internalize organizational goals and values, considering them as their own. They also develop an obligation to remain loyal and committed with their organization in reciprocation to

organization's positive contribution to their work as well as social life. They also develop a perception of fairness and justice about the organization in terms of their exchange relations as well as exchange structures. This perception of organizational support enhances their affective as well as NC to their employing organization.

A large number of researches are available to provide convincing evidence in support of a positive relationship between employees' AC and POS (Arshadi & Hayavi, 2013; Battistelli, Mariani, & Bello, 2006; Boehman, 2006; Darolia, Kumari, & Darolia, 2010; Guan et al., 2014; Kim, Eisenberger, & Baik, 2016; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Lee & Peccei, 2007; Rhoads, Eisenberger & Armeli, 2001; UÇAR & ÖTKEN, 2010). Similarly, Marique, Stinglhamber, Desmette, Caesens, and Zanet (2012) also demonstrated a positive relationship between employees' AC and their higher POS with a sample of international engineering companies and Belgian Postal Service Company. Moreover, Colakoglu, Culha, and Atay (2010) and Dawley, Andrews, and Bucklew (2008) also provided research evidence for the existence of positive relationship between AC and employees' POS.

On the other hand, there are also number of researches that have demonstrated a positive relationship between employees' NC and POS (Battistelli et al., 2006; Colakoglu et al., 2010; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Meyer et al., 2002; Uçar & Ötken, 2010). Similarly, Dawley et al. (2008) also provided support to the notion that employees' normative organizational support is increased when they perceive their employing organization to be supportive. The sample of their study included employees from a manufacturing facility in USA. Furthermore, LaMastro (1999) and Darolia et al. (2010) also showed results to provide support for notion of a positive relationship between NC and POS.

When organizations take care of their employees' needs and welfare, a perception of fairness is developed about the organization. Employees tend to expect that their job input will be met with due amount of reward and recognition. When employees believe that their job effort and dedication will be responded fairly by their employing organization, their involvement and performance in the job is increased. Where employees' IRB (self-perceived) is influenced by a number of factors related to job and work environment, POS is considered as one of the most crucial factors that positively affect employees' IRB (self-perceived). A large number of researches have come out with empirical evidences to demonstrate a positive relationship between employees' IRB (self-perceived) and POS (Afzali, Motahari & Hatami-Shirkouhi, 2014; Arshadi & Hayavi, 2013; Guan et al., 2014; Hassan & Hassan, 2015; Kim et al., 2016; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Miao & Kim, 2010; Neves & Eisenberger, 2012; Randall, et al., 1999; Sumathi, Kamalanabhan, & Thenmozhi, 2013). Similarly, on a sample of employees from steel corporations in China, Mio (2011) also provided support to the notion that employees' IRB (self-perceived) is increase when they find their organization to be supportive of their need and desires. Furthermore, Ahmed, Ismail, and Amin (2014) demonstrated a positive relationship between IRB (self-perceived) and POS on a sample of bank employees in Pakistan.

When employees perceive their organization to be supportive of their job as well as social needs, they tend to reciprocate with prosocial behaviors that are directed toward developing a more positive work environment. These prosocial behaviors are two dimensional. On one hand, these behaviors are directed toward organizational development, while on the other hand, these behaviors are motivated at developing a healthy social work environment. These discretionary behaviors are not included into employees' job description but rather employees engage in such prosocial behavior

due to their social obligation to foster a healthy work environment. There are many researches that confirm a positive relationship between employees' OCB and their POS (Ahmed et al., 2014; Jain, Giga & Cooper, 2013; Kim et al., 2016; Lynch, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 1999; Mio, 2011; Miao & Kim, 2010; Neves & Eisenberger, 2012; Zhong et al., 2015). Similarly, Muhammad (2014) showed support to the notion, through his findings, that higher perception of organizational support among employees increases their OCB. Sample of his study included employees from the business organizations in Kuwait. Furthermore, Hassan and Hassan (2015) also demonstrated positive relationship between OCB and POS on a sample of employees from manufacturing sector in Pakistan.

In contrast to the perception of unfairness, when employees believe their organizations to be fair and just in acknowledging and rewarding their potentials and job input, they tend to develop a strong bonding with the organization. When they find their exchange relations as well as exchange structures to be balanced, in terms of resource distribution, their commitment and loyalty to the organization is increased and their chances of leaving the organization are decreased. A large number of researchers have also demonstrated a negative relationship between employees' intention to leave the organization and POS (Allen et al., 2003; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Harris et al., 2007; Kurtessis et al., 2015; Randall, et al., 1999; Wayne et al., 1997; Zhong et al., 2015). Similarly, Madden, Mathias, and Madden (2015) also provided empirical support to the proposition that higher POS among employees reduces their intention to leave the employing organization. They conducted research on a sample of employees from a nursing care facility in USA.

Employees feel stressed when they do not find their organization is not fulfilling their needs and they are also lacking support in the challenges they face in

performing a task. When they perceive that their employing organization is not only concerned about their job demands but also their social needs, their stress at work decreases as a result. Occupational stress is related to the factors that hinder someone's performance at work. When employees perceive their organization to supportive and facilitative in performing their job or task, they feel more comfortable and at peace in that employing organization. There are so many researches that have demonstrated a negative predictive relationship between employees' occupational stress and POS (Arogundade, Arogundade, & Adebajo, 2014; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Harris et al., 2007; Khurshid & Anjum, 2012; Kurtessis et al., 2015). Similarly, on a sample of school and college teachers in Pakistan, Malik and Noreen (2015) also demonstrated similar findings to support the notion that POS reduces teachers' occupational stress.

Based on the previously discussed theory and literature POS was proposed to have a positive relationship with NC, AC, OCBI, OCBO and IRB among university teachers. On the other hand, POS was proposed to have a negative relationship with occupational stress and employees' turnover intention among university teachers. In the light of argument discussed earlier, social exchange perspective, it is also proposed that the deleterious role of POP shall weaken all the positive contributions of POS among university teachers.

Transformational Leadership and Outcome Variables

Transformational leadership is considered to be one of the most influential leadership styles in management practices. This leadership style is also claimed to be the most researched style of leadership due to its long lasting positive impact on employee as well as organizational well-being. This leadership if not only effective in

enhancing positive employee attitudes and behaviors but it is also influential in enhancing organizational effectiveness and productivity. It enhances employees' normative and AC, their OCB and IRB. This style of leadership also reduces employees' occupational stress and their intention to leave the organization.

A leader or manager works as a representative of the organization to coordinate with its employees. When people find their leaders to be inspirational, motivational and considerate for their individual needs and challenges, they associate those positive feelings, developed for their leadership, with the organization. When they find their supervisor or manager to be considerate of their individual needs and encourage them to participate in the process of decision making, their sense of belongingness to the organization increases. Through the process of productive exchange, a transformational leader involves his or her faculty members in joint decision making, culminating into shared set of values and goals. This sense of sharing not only enhances teachers' obligation to be committed to their employing institution, but also enhances their identification with and emotional attachment to the institutional values and goals.

A large number of researchers have come up with empirical evidences to support the notion that transformational leadership style increases employees' AC to their employing organization (Chan & Mak, 2014; Chou, 203; Kent & Chelladurai, 2001; Kim, 2012; Kim , 2013; Kim & Kim, 2015; Dullah, Sharif, Nazarudin & Omar-Fauzee, 2008; Ramachandran & Krishnan, 2009; Verma & Krishnan, 2013; Wiza & Hlanganipai, 2014; Yucel, McMillan & Richard, 2014). Similarly, Clinebell, Škudienė, Trijonyte and Reardon (2013) also provided support to the notion that employees' AC to the employing organization enhances when the management adopts transformational leadership style. Their study sample included employees from a

multinational IT organization's subsidiaries. Furthermore, Riaz, Akram, and Ijaz, (2011) also demonstrated a positive relationship between AC of the employees and the higher perception of transformational leadership among bank employees in Pakistan.

There are many researches that have demonstrated a strong positive relationship between normative organizational commitment and transformational leadership style (Chan & Mak, 2014; Meyer et al., 2002; Porter, 2015; Ramachandran & Krishnan, 2009; Verma & Krishnan, 2013; Yucel et al., 2014). Kent and Chelladurai (2001) also demonstrated individualized consideration from the leadership fosters employees' NC. Moreover, Dullah et al. (2008) and Yadav and Misra (2015) also provided research evidence to support the notion that NC is positively relation to transformational leadership.

Employees feel motivated to perform well when they are engaged into the process of joint decision making in achieving organizational goals. When their leaders stimulate creativity and innovation in finding solutions to the problems, their involvement and engagement in their job is increased. This involvement and dedication with the job is reflected in employees' increased IRB (self-perceived). A multitude of research evidence is available to support the notion that transformational leadership style increases employees' IRB (self-perceived) (Awamleh, 2004; Carter, Armenakis, Field, & Mossholder, 2012; Ekaningsih, 2014; Fernandes & Awamleh, 2011; Givens, 2008; Orabi, 2016; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Sundi, 2013; Thamrin, 2012; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007; Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008). Similarly, on a sample from coal companies in Indonesia, Ekaningsih (2014) demonstrated empirical support to the notion that transformational leadership style enhances employees' IRB (self-perceived). Moreover, Ghafoor, Qureshi, Khan, and Hijazi, (2011) also

investigated the relationship of IRB (self-perceived) with transformational leadership among bank employees in Pakistan. Their research findings demonstrated a positive relationship between IRB (self-perceived) with transformational leadership.

OCB is reflected in employees' prosocial behavior that is directed toward colleagues and the employing organization. When employees find that their supervisor acknowledges individual differences and is considerate to their social, emotional and economic needs, their inspiration from the leadership motivates them to acknowledge the needs of their colleagues as well as the organization. They are more motivated to work beyond their job description for the good of their organization as well as their colleagues. A bulk of research evidence is available that supports the notion that employees' OCB and its dimensions are positively related with transformational leadership style (Carter et al., 2012; Dust, Resick, & Mawritz, 2014; Givens, 2008; Kim, 2012; Liu, Kwan, Fu, & Mao, 2013; Nasra & Heilbrunn, 2015; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Vigoda-Gadot, 2007). Tse and Chiu (2014) also demonstrated that employees develop citizenship behavior toward their organization as well as toward other individuals in the organization when they receive individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation from their leadership. Their study sample involved managers and employees from banks in China. Similarly, Li and Hung (2009) demonstrated a positive relationship between OCBI and transformational leadership.

When employees are engaged into joint decision making process, they feel a sense of responsibility and recognition. They feel that their potentials and capabilities are acknowledged and recognized by their management. They feel sense of ownership for the decisions taken together for achieving organizational goals and objectives. This sense of ownership hinders them to think of leaving the organization. There are

many researchers who have empirically provided support to the proposition that transformational leadership decreases employees' intention to leave the organization (Amankwaa & Anku-Tsede, 2015; Caillier, 2014; Dimaculangan & Aguiling, 2012; Green, Miller & Aarons, 2013; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004; Ram & Prabhakar, 2010; Waldman, Carter & Hom, 2012; Yadav & Misra, 2015). Similarly, Gyensare, Anku-Tsede, Sanda, and Okpoti (2016) also showed a negative relationship employees' turnover intention and their higher perception of transformational leadership. Moreover, Gul, Ahmad, Rehman, Shabir, and Razzaq (2012) also demonstrated support to the notion in their study that transformational leadership reduces employees' turnover intention. Sample of their study included employees from managerial as well as non-managerial level in organizations from insurance sector in Pakistan.

When employees feel encouraged for their innovative and creative ideas, when they find their supervisor to be considerate to their needs and challenges while performing their job, they feel motivated to perform their job effectively, resulting into reduced occupational stress. A considerate leader helps his/her employees in removing all the barriers that hinder employees to perform in their best way. A transformational leader encourages innovative and creative ideas and solutions from the employees in order to increase organizational efficiency. He/she removes all those negative factors in the exchange relation that increases employees' occupational stress. A large amount of research is available to support the notion that employees' occupational stress is reduced when they find their manager/supervisor to be exercising transformational leadership strategy (Dhaliwal, 2008; Gill, Flaschner, & Shachar, 2006; Ram & Prabhakar, 2010; Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). Similarly, Salem (2015) also demonstrated support through their research finding that transformational

leadership reduces employees' occupational stress. Their study sample involved employees from five-star hotels in Egypt. Furthermore, Dartey-Baah and Ampofo (2015) also demonstrated a inverse relationship between employees' higher perception of transformational leadership and their occupational stress.

Taking into account the theory and literature discussed earlier, this study proposes that transformational leadership will increase employees' NC, AC, OCBI, OCBO and IRB among university teachers. Conversely, transformational leadership is proposed to demonstrate an inverse relationship with TOI and occupational stress among university teachers. Based on social exchange perspective, discussed earlier, it is also assumed that POP shall weaken all the positive contributions of transformational leadership among university teachers.

Internal Locus of Control and Outcome Variables

The role of personality traits is gaining more and more attraction among the researchers in the field of organizational psychology these days. It is considered vey considered very important, among researchers, to explore the contribution of personality traits in employees' productivity and performance. How employees respond to job pressures and work environment is essentially determined by their dispositional characteristics. Among number of other personality attributes, locus of control holds a very important position in determining employees work behaviors and attitudes. This study chose to investigate the role of ILOC in determining certain employee work outcomes.

In the fields of organizational psychology and management sciences, majority of the researchers have attempted to probe the relationship of organizational commitment with ILOC (e.g., Chhabra, 2013; Heidari & Ardakani, 2016; Khandelwal

& Dhar, 2003; Munir & Sajid, 2010; Suman & Srivastava, 2012; Wangui, 2013). Literature is very scarce on the relationship of ILOC with components of organizational commitment. As mentioned earlier, this study followed Meyer and Allen's (1991) three component model of organizational commitment. This study chose to examine the relationship of ILOC with affective and normative components of organizational commitment due to the reason that these components address employees' psychological state of affairs.

When employees perceive a sense of control on reward or job outcomes, they develop an emotional attachment with the organization believing it to be a source of gratification for their need to control. There are a few researches available that demonstrated a positive relationship between AC and ILOC (Aube´, Rousseau & Morin, 2007; Behr, 2012; Bradley & Nicol, 2006; Chen & Wang, 2007; Coleman, Irving & Cooper, 1999; McMahon, 2007; Thomas, Sorensen & Eby, 2006; Wang, Bowling & Eschleman, 2010; Wołowska, 2014). Similarly, Besharat and Pourbohlool (2014) also demonstrated in their research that employees with ILOC tend to have higher AC to their employing organization. Sample of their study included employees from a public bank in Iran.

Employees also develop an obligation to be committed to their employing organization when they find a balance in exchange relations, in terms of control. There are a few researchers who have also attempted to probe and demonstrated a positive relationship between NC with ILOC (Behr, 2012; Chen & Wang, 2007; McMahon, 2007). Wołowska (2014), and Besharat and Pourbohlool (2014) also demonstrated support to the notion that normative commitment to the organization is higher among employees with ILOC.

People with ILOC not only tend to control their reward or job outcomes, they also tend to involve into an effort to extend to control over their work environment. To achieve this goal, they are inherently predisposed to perform better and effectively in comparison to their other counterparts. According to Spector (1982), people with ILOC perform better than others due to the reason that they strongly believe that their effort or performance will result into their desired job outcome. A number of researchers have demonstrated that employees with ILOC are more perfectionists and effective in their task and responsibilities, resulting into increased IRB (self-perceived) (Chang & Huang, 2011; Hattrup, O'Connell, & Labrador, 2005; Hyatt & Prawitt, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2001; Khorshidifara & Abedi, 2011; Oyewole & Popoola, 2015; Phuong, 2016; Thomas et al., 2006). Similarly, Chen and Silverthorne (2008) conducted a study on a sample from public accountant firms in Taiwan to demonstrate the role of ILOC in employees' IRB (self-perceived). Their data validated the notion that people with ILOC perform better than the people with external locus of control.

In their attempt to expand their sphere of control from desired job outcomes to the work environment, people with ILOC also show prosocial behaviors in order to get approval and acceptance from their other colleagues or subordinates. This approval or acceptance from colleagues or subordinates make them more influential and also gratify their need of control. There is ample amount of empirical evidence available in support of the notion that people with ILOC tend to exhibit more OCB (Ali & Samane, 2014; Elanain, 2010; Gucel, Tokmak & Turgut, 2012; Hattrup et al., 2005; Hoffi-Hofstetter & Mannheim, 1999; Hsia & Tseng, 2015; O'Brien, 2004; Phuong, 2016; Turnipseed & Bacon, 2009). Similarly, Asiedu-Appiah and Addai

(2014) also verified in their research that people with ILOC scored higher on contextual performance or OCB than the people with external locus of control.

People only leave their organization when they feel that their potentials and efforts are not being recognized and rewarded fairly. They start feeling uneasy when they find lack of control in getting organizational rewards and recognition. When they find an imbalance in exchange relations, in terms of control, they start looking for alternative job opportunities in other organizations where they could feel control over job resources and outcomes in accordance with their potentials. On the contrary, when they feel a sense of control over all the job resources and outcomes, their intention to leave such an organization decreases. A large number of researches are available that support this notion that intention to leave the organization is lesser among employees with ILOC (Huang, 2007; Lu et al., 2000; Allen, Weeks & Moffitt, 2005; Phuong, 2016; Shrestha & Mishra, 2012; Thomas et al., 2006). Similarly, Khan, Rizwan, Nayab, Abbasi, Khakwani and Nasir (2013) also demonstrated a negative relationship between employees' ILOC and their intention to leave the organization on a sample of public and private organizations in Pakistan.

People with ILOC are more active in finding solutions in a complex situation. They are more active in seeking information to resolve a problem whenever faced with a stressful situation. Their sense of autonomy and control makes them feel more fulfilled and comfortable with their work environment as well as the job. Their sense of control makes them prone to resist or cope with any kind of stressful situation or job demand. Ample amount of research literature is available to support this notion that people with ILOC experience less stress at work (Ghaus, 2014; Hsieh & Wang, 2012; Huang, 2007; Lu et al., 2000; Lu, Wu & Cooper, 1999; Shrestha & Mishra, 2012; Thomas et al., 2006). Similarly, Chen and Silverthorne (2008) also

demonstrated support to the notion that people with external locus of control are more prone to experience occupational stress as compared to people with ILOC.

In the light of the theory and literature discussed above, this study proposed ILOC to have a positive relationship with NC, AC, OCBO, OCBI and IRB among university teachers. On the other hand, ILOC is supposed to decrease occupational stress and turnover intention among university teachers. Furthermore, based on social exchange perspective, POP is also assumed to weaken the relationship of ILOC with work related attitudes and behaviors among teachers in university setting.

Rationale of the Study

The phenomenon of globalization has affected every sphere of life whether it is at individual level or collective level. Open market competition is posing challenges to all types of organizations whether it is formal or informal (voluntary) organization. Where the first and foremost priority of every organization is not only to acquire most skilled, knowledgeable and experienced workforce, it is also equally important for the organizations to retain such skilled employees. Universities and other higher education institutions are no exception to this phenomenon. Skilled and knowledgeable employees may switch their institution for some better alternative opportunity, when available.

Where higher education commission of Pakistan is spending extensively to improve the educational standard of Pakistan in accordance with the international standards, it is equally important to pay special attention to improve the management policies and work environment in the universities. Keeping this view in mind, in the current study, we selected university teachers as the sample of our study. One of the goals in this research was to propose and confirm those policies and strategies that could possibly enhance positive work behaviors and attitudes among university

teacher. Furthermore, the main focus of the study was to look into the deleterious effects of POP in spite of all the positive strategies adopted by the organizations to improve the performance of its employees.

In Pakistan, research on organizational politics, its implications and its relationship with other organizational as well as personal variables like leadership style, personality characteristics, organizational support, occupational stress, organizational commitment, turnover intention and OCB is very rare apart from the fact that organizational politics is very common in our work environment. As the phenomenon of organizational politics is very common in any organization, it must hold certain consequences that affect organizational productivity. Therefore, it is very important to explore its deleterious role in affecting organizational life, so that the organizational efficiency and productivity can be ensured. This study holds an important position in identifying the negative role of POP in affecting important work related behaviors and attitudes.

In the third world countries like Pakistan, issues of politics and its negative behavioral outcomes are very important because here employee rights are mostly ignored or violated. On account of lack of political agendas in organizations, string-pulling, ingratiation, threats, alliances, aggression, are common practices to achieve one's personal motives (Bukhari, 2008). In such a dire scenario, a methodologically sound and carefully designed study on the dynamics of organizational politics and its moderating role among organizational variables is much needed. If we have institutional environment where political ethics are followed, work effectiveness and organizational productivity will be the natural outcome. Therefore, this study is expected to provide new insight in understanding and comprehending the dynamics of organizational politics and its implications on promotional structures, organizational

justice and human resource practices, Organizational commitment, occupational stress, turnover intention, OCB and IRB in higher educational institutions in Pakistan.

One of the purposes of the research is to highlight the significant role of organizational support, transformational leadership and ILOC in enhancing employee's well-being, as well as organizational productivity. As supportive environment enhances employees' IRB, organizational commitment, OCB and reduce occupational stress, it is assumed that in a highly perceived political environment, this positive impact of organization's supportive measure will lose it strength and application.

The present study would be first of its kind in our endemic culture and therefore occupies an exploratory status in the given settings. This study also holds certain practical utilities. It is intended to predict certain work outcomes with reference to organizational politics, leadership style, organizational support and ILOC which may open up ways for future researchers to extend their work in this dimension.

HYPOTHESES, OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH DESIGN

Study Objectives

Main objective of the current research is to investigate the deleterious effect of perceived organizational politics in certain work outcomes. More specifically, this study shall focus on exploring the following objectives:

1. Exploring the relationship of internal locus of control, transformational leadership, perceived organizational support and perceived organizational politics with normative commitment, affective commitment, organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, self-perceived in-role job performance, occupational stress, organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals and turnover intention among university teachers in Pakistan.

2. To explore the psychometric properties of the scales used in this study on the sample of Pakistani university teachers.

3. To explore the relationship of gender, educational level, educational sector, geographic location and job status with POP, POS, transformational leadership, ILOC, occupational stress, AC, NC, IRB, OCBO, OCBI and turnover intention among Pakistani university teachers.

Hypotheses

Following hypotheses were proposed for the present study:

1. Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of AC with POS.

2. Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of NC with POS.

3.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of IRB with POS.

4.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of OCBI with POS.

5.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of OCBO with POS.

6.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the negative relationship of turnover intention with POS.

7.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the negative relationship of occupational stress with POS.

8.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of AC with TL.

9.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of NC with TL.

10.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of IRB with TL.

11.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of OCBI with TL.

12.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of OCBO with TL.

13.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the negative relationship of turnover intention with TL.

14.   Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the negative relationship of occupational stress with TL.

15. Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of AC with ILOC.

16. Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of NC with ILOC.

17. Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of IRB with ILOC.

18. Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of OCBI with ILOC.

19. Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the positive relationship of OCBO with ILOC.

20. Among university teachers, POP shall weaken the negative relationship of occupational stress with ILOC.

Operational Definitions

Self-report Likert type rating scales have been used to operationalize the variables of this study, except IRB. In the pilot study both self-report and supervisor report measures for IRB were used while in the main study only self-report measure was used. Reason for using only IRB's self-report measure in the main study had already been discussed earlier in the introduction of IRB (self-perceived) on page 45. In the following section, operational definitions of the following study variables are provided:

Perceived organizational politics. POP involves "an individual's attribution to behaviors of self-serving intent, and his/her subjective evaluation about the extent to which the work environment is characterized by co-workers and supervisors who demonstrate such self-serving behavior" (Ferris, Harrell-Cook & Dulebohn, 2000, p.

90). In this study, higher score on perception of organizational politics scale (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997) indicates higher level of POP and vice versa.

Perceived organizational support. POS involves "employees' global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986, p. 504). In this study, individuals who score high on survey of POS (Eisenberger et al., 1986) will be considered as having higher level of POS and vice versa.

Transformational leadership. "Transformational leader helps followers grow and develop into leaders by responding to individual followers' needs by empowering them and by aligning the objectives and goals of the individual followers, the leader, the group, and the larger organization" (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 3). Higher score on Bass and Avolio's (1995) multifactor leadership inventory indicates employees' higher level of perceived leadership about their head of department as transformational while lower score indicates employees' lower level of perceived leadership about their head of department as transformational.

Internal locus of control. "Internal locus of control is defined as a generalized expectancy that rewards, reinforcements or outcomes in life are controlled by one's own actions" (Spector, 1988, p. 335). In the current study, higher score Spector's (1988) work locus of control scale is indicative of employee's higher level of ILOC and vice versa.

Affective organizational commitment. "Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). In the current study, higher score on Allen and Meyer's (1990) shortened version of affective commitment sub-scale is indicative of employee's higher level of AC to the organization and vice versa.

Normative organizational commitment. "Normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment" (Meyer & Allen, 1991, p. 67). In the current study, higher score Allen and Meyer's (1990) shortened version of normative commitment sub-scale is indicative of employee's higher level of normative commitment to the organization and vice versa.

In-role job performance (self-perceived). According to Jex and Britt (2008, p. 96) IRB refers to "all the behaviors employees engage in while at work". In this study, high score on William and Anderson's (1991) IRB (self-report) scale is indicative of higher level of self-perceived IRB and low score is indicative of lower level of self-perceived IRB.

In-role job performance (supervisor rated). According to Jex and Britt (2008, p. 96) IRB refers to "all the behaviors employees engage in while at work". In this study, high score on William and Anderson's (1991) IRB (self-report) scale is indicative of higher level of self-perceived IRB and low score is indicative of lower level of self-perceived IRB.

Organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals. OCBI involves behaviors that directly benefit specific organizational members and, in so doing, indirectly benefit the organization because employee's performance contributes to organizational performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991). In the current investigation, higher score on Lee and Allen's (2002) OCBI sub-scale is indicative of higher level of OCBI and vice versa.

Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization. According to Williams and Anderson (1991), OCBO refers to the voluntary behaviors directed toward the organization. In the current investigation, higher score on Lee and Allen's (2002) OCBO sub-scale is indicative of higher level of OCBO and vice versa.

Turnover intention. Sousa-Poza and Henneberger (2002: p. 1), defined turnover intention as "the (subjective) probability that an individual will change his or her job within a certain time period". In the current study, higher score on Seashore et al.'s (1982) turnover scale is indicative of higher level of turnover intention and vice versa.

Occupational stress. According to Griffin and Moorhead (2014, p. 181) occupational stress is a "person's adaptive response to a stimulus that places excessive psychological or physical demands on him or her". In the current study, higher score on Parker and De Cotiis' (1983) job stress scale is indicative of higher level of occupational stress and vice versa.

Research Design

In this study, cross-sectional survey research design was followed. This research is distributed into three phases. First phase of the study is comprised adaptation of those scales that were used for this research. Second phase of this research is comprised of the pilot study, whereas main study covers third phase of this study. The same research design was followed by Adil (2015) in his doctoral research. A brief account of all these three phases is discussed below.

Phase I: Adaptation of the Scales

This phase included try out of the instrument, expert opinion about the scales used in the study and committee approach to adapt the scales in order to ensure that the scales used in this research are equally comprehensible and compatible with the indigenous sample of university teachers in Pakistan.

Phase II: Pilot Study

It was aimed at assessing whether the scales used in this study are psychometrically sound or not with reference to Pakistan, as all the instruments used in the study were developed in the West. This study helped in adapting instruments in accordance with cultural and organizational background of Pakistani university teachers. This study also helped in providing important insight regarding psychometric properties of instruments. It also helped in viewing a glimpse of the proposed pattern of the hypothesized relationships among the study variables. Furthermore, to get a preliminary overview of the factorial structures of the scales, confirmatory factor analysis was also conduct on a sample of 138 university teachers for all the scales used in the study.

Phase III: Main Study

The third phase of this research, the main study, was aimed at verifying the hypothesized relationships that were proposed among different study variables. It also investigated the relationship of demographic variables such as geographic location, educational sector, gender, educational level and job status with POP, POS, transformational leadership, AC, NC, IRB, OCBI, OCBO, turnover intention and occupational stress. The findings of the current study have been discussed along with the related literature. In the light of the study findings, suggestions have also been discussed to enhance teachers' positive work related attitudes and behaviors. For future researchers, suggestions have also been proposed in the light of current study's findings.

PHASE I: ADAPTATION OF SCALES OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the first phase was to see whether the scales were comprehensible. For that purpose, some adaptations have been incorporated into the instruments to make them compatible and comprehensible to the indigenous population of university teachers in Pakistan. More specifically, this first phase is dedicated to see whether the scales have difficult test items, are they culturally relevant and to see if there is any modification needed in test items and instructions. This chapter includes methods, findings and discussion in relation to adaptation of the scales of this study.

Design of the Phase I

Following systematic steps were undertaken in an attempt to achieve the proposed objectives of phase I:

Step I. Try out for all the instruments on university teachers' small sample, to get an overview about the comprehension, readability and relevance to Pakistani context. Those scales were developed in the West earlier

Step II. Expert opinion on the selected instrument, to examine their face and content validity.

Step III. Committee approach, in order to adapt the scales with reference to indigenous university environment.

Step I. Tryout of the Instruments on University Teachers' Sample

In this part of our research, a relatively small sample ($n = 5$) of university teachers was selected for trying out our test instruments. This try out had a purpose of

getting an insight from the university teachers about their comprehensibility and relevance of the instruments in indigenous university setting. They provided the researcher with very important information regarding university teachers' perception about the test instruments. They provided with the feedback about difficult phrases and words that were not easy to understand. They also identified the items that seemed either ambiguous or irrelevant in their indigenous job context. Complete description of this part of the research is discussed below:

Participants. Conveniently drawn sample of the study included five full time university teachers from Management Sciences department, International Islamic University, Islamabad (one lecturer), and Psychology (two lecturers), Chemistry (one assistant professor) and Anthropology (one lecturer) departments of Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad. An inclusion criterion for the sample was decided to be permanent university teachers from HEC recognized universities who had minimum one year job experience.

Instruments. Self-report measures that were developed in English language were used in the present study. They provided most suitable operationalization of the constructs in consonance with the theoretical base. Pakistan is a bilingual country with Urdu as national language and English as its official language. Furthermore, in university setting, the medium of instruction is also English for graduate and post-graduate students. For this convenience, the scales used in the study were not translated into Urdu for teachers in Pakistani university settings. The aforementioned five participants were provided with the selected instruments for the study. The detailed description of the instruments is as follows:

Perceived Organizational Politics. To measure employees' perception of organizational politics, Kacmar and Carlson's (1997) 15-item perceptions of organizational politics scale (POPS) was used. This scale measures employees' perception about their work environment as being political. It has five response categories on a Likert type rating scale. Those response categories range between strongly disagree (1) and strongly Agree (5). The actual score range for the scale lies between 15-75. This scale included four reverse scored items (Item numbers three, four, ten and eleven). Andrews and Kacmar (2001) demonstrated an internal consistency estimate of .87 for this scale. In Pakistani context internal consistency estimates were found to be .73, .72 and .78 (Bukhari & Kamal, 2015, Iqbal, 2014; Shahrbano, 2016, respectively).

Perceived Organizational Support. To measure employees' perception of organizational supportive, Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) shortened version of the survey of perceived organizational support (SPOS) was used. It included eight test items that loaded highest in Eisenberger et al.'s (1986) factor analysis. This scale has seven response categories on Likert type rating scale. Those response categories range from strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7). The actual score range for the scale lies between 8-56. Higher score on the scale is indicative of employee's perception about his/her organization as highly supportive and vice versa. This scale included four reverse scored items (Item numbers two, three, five and seven). Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli and Lynch (1997) showed internal consistency estimate of .90 for this scale. In Pakistani context internal consistency estimates were found to be .69, .77 (Sattar, 2013; Shaheen, Bukhari, & Adil, 2016, respectively).

Transformational Leadership. Bass and Avolio's (1995) multifactor leadership inventory (MLQ-5X) was used to assess employee's perception about their

leadership as transformational. MLQ-5X measures both transformational and transactional leadership. This study used only the transformational leadership items (a total of 20 items). It has five response categories on a Likert type rating scale. Those response categories range between strongly disagree (1) and strongly Agree (5). The actual score range for the scale lied between 20 to100. Higher scores on the scale are indicative of employees perceiving their head of departments as highly transformational in their style and vice versa. The Cronbach alpha for this scale in previous studies was .89 (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Furthermore, Malik (2014) reported internal consistency estimate of .92 in Pakistani context. .

Internal Locus of Control. To measure employees' ILOC, sub-scale of Spector's (1988) Work Locus of Control Scale (WLCS) was used. This sub-scale includes eight items for ILOC. These eight items measure employees' perception or belief about their control in achieving their desired outcomes through their effort or ability. It has seven response categories on a Likert type rating scale. Those response categories range between very much disagree (1) and very much agree (7). The actual score range for the scale lied between 8-56. Higher score on the scale indicates employees to have higher ILOC and vice versa. Internal consistency for this scale (coefficient alpha) was found to be .82 (Spector, 1988). Furthermore, Saeed (2015) reported internal consistency estimate of .85 in Pakistani context.

Affective and Normative Organizational commitment. Allen and Meyer's (1990) shortened versions of affective and normative organizational commitment sub-scales (ACS and NCS) were used to assess employees' AC and NC. These sub-scales included 6 items each for AC and NC. ACS measures employees' identification with and emotional attachment to the organization, whereas NCS measures employees the extent to which employees feel obliged to remain committed to the organization. Both

the sub-scales have five response categories on a Likert type rating scale. Those response categories range between strongly disagree (1) and strongly Agree (5). The actual score range for each sub-scale lied between 6-30. Higher scores on the scales indicate employees to have higher affective and normative commitment to the organization and vice versa. Allen and Meyer (1990) demonstrated internal consistency estimates of .87 and .79, respectively, for these two subscales. In Pakistani context, internal consistency for AC scale was reported to .70, .89 and .81 (Bukhari & Kamal, 2015; Butt, Imran, Shah, & Jabbar, 2013; Imam, Raza, Shah, & Raza, 2013, respectively). Similarly an internal consistency estimate for NC was also reported to be .71 and .67 (Imam, Raza, Shah, & Raza, 2013; Khan, Jam, Akbar, Khan, & Hijazi, 2011, respectively).

In-Role Job performance. Williams and Anderson's (1991) seven item in-role behaviors scales (self-rated and supervisor rated) were used to measure employees' IRB. This scale measures employees' perception about their performance on task or job related activities. This scale has seven response categories on a Likert type rating scale. Those response categories range between strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7). The actual score range for the scale lied between 7-49. Employees scoring high on this scale perceive themselves to be higher performing their tasks and vice versa. Williams and Anderson (1991) demonstrated an internal consistency estimate of .85 for this scale. Furthermore, in Pakistani context, internal consistency estimates were reported to be .72 and .71 (Maryam, 2013; Sattar, 2013, respectively).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior. Lee and Allen's (2002) Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (OCBS) was used to measure teachers' OCBI and OCBO. This scale includes 16 items and is helpful in measuring employees' helping behaviors that benefit, both, specific individual (OCBI) and the organization (OCBO). First

eight items of the scale measures OCBI while the last eight items measure OCBO. It has five response categories on a Likert type rating scale. Those response categories range between strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (5). The actual score range for the both the subscales lied between 8-40. High score on both the subscales is indicative of higher citizenship behavior toward individuals as well as organization among employees and vice versa. In Pakistani context, Shaheen, Bukhari, and Adil (2016) reported .75 (OCBI) and .80 (OCBO) Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for this scale. Lee and Allen (2002) also reported .83 (OCBI) and .88 (OCBO) alpha coefficient for both the subscales.

Turnover Intentions Scale. Seashore et al.'s (1982) Turnover Intention Scale (TOS) was used to measure employees' turnover intention. This scale has three test items. This scale has seven response categories on Likert type rating scale. Those response categories range from strongly disagree (1) and strongly agree (7). The actual score range for the scale lied between 3-21. Higher scores on this scale are indicative of employees' higher level of intention to leave their organization and vice versa. The coefficient alpha reliability estimate for this scale was found to be .71 (Seashore et al., 1982). Furthermore, in Pakistani context, internal consistency estimates were reported to be .81, .78 and .89 (Ali, 2016; Kabir, 2015; Malik, 2014, respectively).

Occupational stress. Parker and De Cotiis' (1983) scale was used to measure employees' level of occupational stress. This scale is comprised of thirteen items that measures employees' level of stress in their job setting. It has five response categories on a Likert type rating scale. Those response categories range between Strongly disagree (1) and Strongly Agree (5). The actual score range for the scale lied between 13-65. Higher score on this scale is indicative of employees' higher occupational

stress and vice versa. The Cronbach alpha reliability for this scale, in Pakistani context, were found to be .69, .88, .85 and .72 (Dar, Bukhari, & Hamid, 2016; Iqbal, 2014; Jamal & Baba, 2000; Kabir, 2015, respectively).

Procedure. Voluntary participation was sought from the participants for the try out. All the participants were given promise that their information will be kept confidential and purpose of the research was also communicated to them explicitly. Their demographic information was also sought about job status, geographic location, job designation, age, experience, department and university, gender and educational qualification. They were asked to identify phrase, words or sentences structures that were ambiguous, difficult to understand or irrelevant to their indigenous context of universities.

Results. They identified some items in the questionnaires as ambiguous and difficult to comprehend. Some words and phrases were also identified as difficult to understand.

The difficult phrases, words and sentences are mentioned in Appendix V.

Step II. Expert Opinion

Second part of the phase I dealt with taking opinions from the experts regarding instruments of the study to see their relevance and suitability with the indigenous population of university teachers in Pakistan. The knowledge, experience and wisdom of the experts helped the researcher in modifying the instruments in accordance with the needs and challenge that university teacher face.

Method. The objectives of the expert opinion included experts' scholarship and wisdom in ensuring the content and face validity of the instruments used in this study. Their opinion helped the researcher in further modifying the difficult, ambiguous and irrelevant words or phrases in test items to make them more comprehensible and readable for the participants of the study. Experts' opinion was also sought for rating scales in order to modify scale anchors, if necessary. As all the scales used in the study are open to access and hold no copy right issues, therefore, modification in simplifying the test items, while maintaining the basic theme of the item, is considered acceptable.

Participants. This study involved five teachers and PhD scholars, as experts, from Department of Psychology, QAU. Among those five experts, two of these experts held PhD degree in organizational psychology and the remaining three were PhD scholars. Two of the experts were assistant professors and the remaining three Ph.D scholars were lecturers. All these experts had an extensive research experience and up to date knowledge about psychometrics.

Instruments. A brief introduction about the constructs and their operationalization was provided to all the experts. Along with the introduction about the instruments used for the study, they provided with the instruments, identified to have problematic items in try out, that included POPS (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997), MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 1995), WLCS (Spector, 1988), NCS (Allen & Meyer, 1990), OCBS (Lee & Allen, 2002), and Occupational stress scale (OSS; Parker & De Cotiis, 1983). English version of all the instruments was used in the study. Detailed

description of these instruments has been provided in last part of the pilot study (See pp. 86-91).

Procedure. All the experts were approached, in person, in their respective offices. After briefing them about the objective of research, they were requested to give their feedback about test items' comprehension, identification of difficult words, phrases or sentence structures and evaluation of their content validity and their relevance to teachers' indigenous context. While collecting test instruments from them, a discussion session was also carried out regarding their feedback. Their contribution in the research process was much appreciated and they were heartily thanked for their participation.

Results. Experts' opinion proved to be a valuable contribution of the experts in refining research instruments. Experts suggested a number of changes in certain words and phrases that were difficult to understand. They also suggested modifications in some sentence structures and anchors in the scales. They were in agreement about the content validity of the scales. Experts also identified most of those words, phrases or sentences, mentioned in Table 1, as problematic. All the experts agreed in not translating the scales into Urdu due to university teachers' qualification and scholarship. They also suggested modifying and replacing the terms like employer or organization with university or institute. They also suggested modifications in anchors of multifactor leadership inventory and work locus of control scale to make them more easily comprehensible and relevant for the participants of the study. It was also suggested to exclude items 10 and 11 from POPS. These items are related to promotion policies while in university setting one

has to go through a selection procedure for every promotion as per the rules and regulations. While in college setting one needs not to go through a new selection process for promotion. Therefore, all the experts highlighted that these items do not apply in university settings.

Step III. Committee Approach to Adapt the Scales

After the feedback from try out and experts, committee approach was followed to modify the desired changes in words, phrases, anchors and sentence structures of some test items. These changes were incorporated in accordance with the university teachers' indigenous work environment and their needs.

Method. All the instruments, that were used in the present study, were previously developed in the context of general organizations. So, it was needed to modify them in accordance with the university teachers' indigenous work setting. Furthermore, another objective of the study was to make all the test items more easily comprehensible and readable for the participants by replacing difficult and ambiguous words, phrases or sentences with easily understandable words, phrases or sentence structures.

Participants. For the committee approach, two teachers (one professor holding PhD degree and a lecturer who was a PhD scholar), two other PhD scholars from National institute of Psychology, and a linguist (PhD scholar in NUML) were made part of the committee, other than the researcher by himself.

Instruments. All the instruments used in the previous section of the pilot study were handed over to the committee members. Detailed description of the scales has been provided in the first part of the pilot study (See pp. 86-91).

Procedure. After briefing the committee members about the purpose and objectives of the research and getting their consent, they were provided with the booklet containing all the instruments and they took around one month to give their feedback regarding modification and adaptation of the scales and with their consent, a discussion session was arranged to finalize the recommended changes in the scales. All the members participated into the session. The recommended changes were incorporated into the instruments if three of the committee members agreed for approval.

Results. In accordance with the committee's recommendations to replace the word 'organization' with 'university', in items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6 and 10 of POPS (Kacmar & Carlson, 1997), Work locus of control scale (WLCS; Spector, 1988), In-Role Job Performance Scale (IJPS; Williams & Anderson, 1991), Turnover Intention Scale (TOS; Seashore et al. 1982) and items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8 of SPOS (Eisenberger et al., 1986), items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 of Affective commitment sub-scale (ACS; Allen & Meyer, 1990), items 8, 9, 10, 11 and 12 of Normative commitment sub-scale (NCS; Allen & Meyer, 1990), items 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15 and 16 of Organizational citizenship scale (OCBS; Lee & Allen, 2002). Similarly, the word 'employer' in item 1 of NCS was also substituted with 'university'. The pronoun 'I' in all the 20 item of Multifactor leadership inventory (MLQ; Bass & Avolio, 1995) was replaced with 'he/she'. The pronoun 'I' was added in all the sixteen items of Organizational

citizenship scale (OCBS; Lee & Allen, 2002). The word 'specify' in item 7 of multifactor leadership questionnaire was substituted with the phrase 'clearly states'. While, in the same instrument, the word 'coaching' in item number 8 was modified to the word 'guiding'. Similarly, the phrase 'time off', in item number three of OCBS was substituted with the phrase 'break and vacation'. The phrase 'working group' in item number 4 of OCBS was modified to the word 'university/institute'. The word 'trying' in item number 5, of the same instrument, was modified to the word 'frustrating'. The term 'keep up' in question number 10 of OCBS was replaced with 'keep pace'. The phrase 'I sometimes dread' in item 6 of Occupational stress scale (OSS; Parker & De Cotiis, 1983) was replaced with the phrase 'Sometimes I am frightened by'. The word 'burned out' in item 8 of occupational stress scale was modified to 'exhausted'. Similarly, the word 'company' in question number 8 of occupational stress scale was substituted with 'university/institute'. Also the phrase 'gets to' in item number 10 from occupational stress scale was replaced with 'annoys'. Modifications in the whole sentence, as suggested by committee members, are mentioned in Appendix W.

Discussion. Pilot study was carried out to achieve these objectives in four distinct phases, starting from trying out of the test instruments operationalizing the study construct. It provided the researcher with a very valuable input from the participants regarding number of test items that had difficult or ambiguous words or phrases. Participants of the try out also identified number of item structures that needed restructuring and modification in terms of their difficulty and irrelevance to the indigenous population of Pakistani university teachers.

After going through try out, it was necessary to get an insight from the experts about the content and face validity of the scales used in the study. All the experts showed their satisfaction with the content validity of the instruments, however, they also identified a number of difficult or ambiguous phrases or word and sentence structures. They emphasized the need to modify those item structures, words and phrases to make them more easily understandable and relevant to the indigenous population of Pakistani university teachers.

After getting feedback through try out and expert opinion, adaptations and modifications of the scales were carried out. This purpose was served through committee approach. Committee members modified or replaced all the difficult or ambiguous phrases, words and sentence structures. The difficult or ambiguous word and phrases were replaced with synonymous words or easily understandable words or phrases. Difficult sentence structures were also restructured in such a way they could become easy to comprehend and seem related to the indigenous setting of university teachers. Through committee approach test instruments were made ready to use. They represented the indigenous job context and characteristics of university teachers.

PHASE II: PILOT STUDY

Phase II involved pilot study. Pilot study was conducted in two parts. In first part, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted while in the second part, descriptive and correlational analyses were computed. Pilot study was carried out in order to get a preliminary overview of the psychometric properties of adapted instruments. Furthermore, pilot study also entailed an additional purpose of getting an overview of the assumed relationship among variables of this study. More specifically, pilot study entailed following objectives:

1.   To conduct confirmatory factor analysis to validate the proposed factorial structure of the scales used in the study.

2.   To get a descriptive summary of the obtained data through standard deviation, skewness , mean, kurtosis and range.

3.   To examine the internal consistencies of the scales used in the study through Cronbach alpha coefficients.

4.   To get a preliminary overview of the assumed relationships among variables of this study.

Participants

Sample of the study included 138 full time teaching faculty members, 90 from private universities and 48 from public sector universities. The inclusion criteria for the sample included at least 22 years of age with minimum Masters level degree (16 years of education) as baseline for qualification. Mean and standard deviation for the sample was found to be 35.53 and 7.85 years, respectively. Mean and standard

deviation for the teachers' job experience in their current organization was found to be 6.46 and 5.34, respectively.

Table 1

Geographic Distribution of the Sample (N = 138)

University Name	Location	Frequency
International Islamic University, Islamabad	Capital	7
Hamdard university, Islamabad	Capital	8
Fatimah Jinnah Women University	Punjab	3
Quaid-i-Azam university, Islamabad	Capital	27
ARID Agriculture University	Punjab	11
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur	Punjab	12
National University of Modern Languages	Capital	15
Sargodha University	Punjab	9
Muhammad Ali Jinnah University	Sindh	2
Dow Medical College	Sindh	1
Riphah International University	Sindh	4
National University of Computer and Emerging Sciences	Sindh	1
Karachi University	Sindh	18
Institute of Business and Technology	Sindh	7
Iqra University	Sindh	3
Bahria University	Sindh	7
Baqai Medical College	Sindh	2
Karachi Institute of Economics and Technology	Sindh	1

More detailed information about the sample is provided in Table 2, mentioned below.

Table 2

Sample Description (N= 138)

Variable	Frequency	%
Gender		
Male	73	52.90
Female	65	47.10
Total	138	100
Education		
MA/M.Sc	43	31.16
MS/M.Phil	48	34.78
Ph.D	47	34.06
Total	138	100
Designation		
Lecturer	83	60.14
Assistant Professor	32	23.19
Associate Professor	7	5.07
Professor	16	11.59
Total	138	100
Geographic Location		
Punjab	40	28.99
Sindh	42	30.43
Federal Capital	56	40.58
Total	138	100

Instruments

Detailed description of the scales has already been provided in the first part of the pilot study (See pp. 86-91).

Procedure

On behalf of National Institute of Psychology, the researcher approached relevant authorities in all the respective universities to get their consent for the recruitment of the sample of this study. After getting official permission, all the participants of the current study were contacted personally. Rationale and purpose of the research was communicated to them along with the booklet that contained above mentioned test instruments. They were also provided with written instructions, as well as oral instructions if needed, in order to comprehend and respond each test item. They were requested to carefully read and respond to each test item with honesty. All the participants were given promise that their information will be kept confidential and will be used for the research purpose solely. It took 40 to 50 minutes for respondents to fill the questionnaire.

Results

In order to achieve the objectives of the pilot study, different statistical and confirmatory factor analysis were carried out, including computation of mean, kurtosis, skewness, standard deviation and Pearson product moment correlation. Moreover, the Cronbach alpha coefficient of reliability was also computed to check the internal consistency estimate of the scales. Descriptive analysis such as mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis provided the researcher with an overview about data. While, correlational analysis gave a summary for preliminary overview of

the assumed relationship among variables of the study. Results of this study are illustrated in Tables 3 to 22.

Step I: Validation of Study Instruments through Confirmatory Factor Analysis

This part includes comparison of various models for each measurement tool including all the test items as well as the finalized test items with proposed factorial structures. In the phase of pilot study, CFA is only limited to get an overview of the proposed factorial structure of the scales used in this study. Moreover, this study will rely on the results of CFA in the main study for the verification of the proposed factorial structures of the scales used in this study. The power analysis for determining the appropriate sample size was undertaken through tool developed by Preacher and Coffman (2006). The results indicated that at $\beta = .20$, and $\alpha = .05$, the null hypothesis that RMSEA = .08 with df = 115 could reliably be tested with a sample size of 120. So as to become more cautious, in the present study 138 university teachers were recruited, as sample, so that the power of 80% could be ensured.

Confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) with maximum likelihood estimation is used to confirm the factorial structure of the instruments of the study for current sample. For CFA, a sample of 138 university teachers was used, without any missing responses. In order to assess overall goodness of fit every model, a number of fit indices were evaluated, that included relative/ normed chi-square (χ^2/df), goodness of fit index (GFI), chi-square (χ^2), normed fit index (NFI) root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), and adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI). According to Byrne, (1994), a model is considered as acceptable if NFI exceeds .90, CFI exceeds .93 and GFI exceeds .90. RMSEA is ideal if it less than .05

(Stieger, 1990) and acceptable if it is less than .08 (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). On the other hand, according to Hu and Bentler (1998), the upper confidence interval of the RMS should not exceed .08. According to Kline (1998) and Ullman (2001), the relative chi-square should be less than 2 or 3. Fit indices of the finalized models and tables of factor loadings are presented in this section.

CFA for Perceived organizational politics scale

Factorial structure of POPS was calculated through AMOS 20 by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Table 3 indicated fit indices for the competing factorial models of POPS and Table 4 provides standardized factor loadings of POPS.

Table 3

Step Wise Model Fit Indices of Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Perceived Organizational Politics Scale (N =138)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (15 items, First Order)									
	305.06	87	.77	.68	.68	.61	.13	-	-
Model 2 (10 items, First Order)									
	40.34	27	.95	.90	.97	.92	.06	264.72***	60
Model 3 (10 items, Second order)									
	52.99	29	.93	.90	.95	.90	.08	12.65***	2

***p < .001

POPS' second order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 3. The measurement model of POP scale comprised of three correlated factors namely

goes along to get ahead (GGG), pay and promotion policies (PPP) and general political behavior (GPB). Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where POPS is comprised of 15 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 3, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 3.51, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1.

Therefore, the same second order model was re-specified 10 items because there were five items that showed factor loadings that fell below .30 and in Model 3, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 3 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 3 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.49. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2 = 264.72$, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 3 is better than model 1. But when this model with same 10 items is re-specified for first order, then it was found that, in comparison to model 2, model 3 did not show a better fit to the data of this study ($\Delta\chi^2 = 12.65$, *p* < .001). Fit indices for model 2 also showed that it was the best one. Although the three factors correlated positively with one another in model 2 and highly loaded on the latent factor of POP, the significant better fit of first-order CFA as compared to second order CFA would be further investigated in main study with larger sample.

Table 4

Standardized Factor Loadings of Perceived Organizational Politics Scale By Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =138)

Items	Factors		
	GBP	GAGA	PPP
	.95		
1	.63		
2	.79		
		.98	
3		.33	
5		.89	
8		.41	
9		.39	
			.73
12			.44
13			.79
14			.84
15			.80

Note. Bold typed letters show second order factor loadings for perceived organizational politics. GBP = general political behavior; GGG = go along to get ahead; PPP = pay and promotion policies.

Table 4 shows POPS' second order standardized factor loadings through CFA. Factor loadings were higher than .70 for all first order factors. It confirms that all the latent factors (GBP, GAGA and PPP), in first order, converge well on POP. Standardized factor loadings were found to be higher than .30 in the first order for all

the indicators. It suggests that POP' indicators sufficiently operationalized this construct.

Figure 1. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of POPS obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA for Perceived Organizational Support Scale

Unidimensional scale of POS is comprised of 8 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 5 and 6 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 5

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Perceived Organizational Support Scale (N =138)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (8 items, First Order)									
	74.24	20	.88	.78	.83	.79	.14	-	-
Model 2 (6 items, First order)									
	4.39	4	.99	.95	.99	.98	.03	69.85***	16

***p < .001

POS's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 5. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where POS is comprised of 8 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 5, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 3.71, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 6 items because there were two items that showed factor loadings falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.10. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi_2$= 69.85, $p < .001$) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 6

Standardized Factor Loadings of Perceived Organizational Support Questionnaire by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =138)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.43
4	.73
5	.55
6	.82
7	.56
8	.97

Table 6 demonstrated POS scale's standardized factor loadings. Item no. 2 and item no. 3 had factor loadings below the recommended value of .30, so, they were discarded from the final measurement model. All other items showed standardized loadings that are reported to be higher than .30.

Figure 2. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of POS Scale obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA for Transformational Leadership Questionnaire

Unidimensional scale of transformational leadership (TL) is comprised of 20 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 7 and 8 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 7

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Transformational Leadership Scale (N =138)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ df
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (20 items, First Order)									
	491.84	170	.73	.66	.76	.68	.12	-	-
Model 2 (19 items, First order)									
	160.12	115	.90	.83	.97	.89	.05	331.72***	55

***p < .001

      Transformational leadership's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 7. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where transformational leadership is comprised of 20 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 7, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 2.89, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 19 items because there was item that showed factor loading falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.39. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi_2$= 331.72, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 8

Standardized Factor Loadings of Transformational Leadership Questionnaire by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =138)

Items	Standardized factor loadings
2	.38
3	.39
4	.46
5	.37
6	.56
7	.60
8	.66
9	.63
10	.39
11	.64
12	.71
13	.36
14	.53
15	.77
16	.80
17	.87
18	.75
19	.76
20	.70

Table 8 demonstrated TL scale's standardized factor loadings. Item no. 1 had factor loadings below the recommended value of .30. So, that item was discarded from the final measurement model. All other items showed standardized loadings that are reported to be higher than .30.

Figure 3. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of TL Scale obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA for Internal Locus of Control Questionnaire

Unidimensional scale of ILOC is comprised of 8 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 9 and 10 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 9

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Internal Locus of Control Questionnaire (N =138)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (8 items, First Order)									
	57.19	20	.91	.84	.82	.76	.12	-	-
Model 2 (7 items, First order)									
	13.94	11	.97	.93	.99	.94	.04	43.25***	9

***p < .001

ILOC's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 9. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where ILOC is comprised of 8 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 9, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 2.86, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 7 items because there was item that showed factor loading falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings

obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.27. Chi square

difference test ($\Delta\chi_2$= 43.25, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model

1.

Table 10

Standardized Factor Loadings of ILOC Questionnaire (N = 138)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.52
2	.41
3	.72
4	.31
5	.53
6	.67
7	.67

Table 10 demonstrated ILOC scale's standardized factor loadings. Item no. 8

had factor loadings below the recommended value of .30. So, that item was discarded

from the final measurement model. All other items showed standardized loadings that

are reported to be higher than .30.

Figure 4. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of ILOC Scale obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA of Affective Commitment Scale

Unidimensional scale of ACS is comprised of 6 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 11 and 12 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 11

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Affective Commitment Scale (N =138)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\varDelta\chi^2$	$\varDelta df$
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (6 items, First Order, independent errors)									
	19.71	9	.96	.90	.94	.90	.09	-	-
Model 2 (6 items, Errors Allowed to Covary)									
	10.32	8	.98	.94	.99	.95	.05	9.39***	1

***p < .001

ACS's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 11. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where ACS is comprised of 6 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 11, showed satisfactory results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 2.19, along with other measures of model fit. Although the values of some other fit indices like *NFI, CFI, AGFI* and *GFI* were in acceptable range but *RMSEA* of .09 indicated that Model 1 should be improved.

Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with the same 6 items and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.29. *RMSEA* with a value of .05 and Chi square difference test ($\varDelta\chi_2$= 9.39, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 12

Standardized Factor Loadings of Affective Commitment Questionnaire by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =138)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.57
2	.30
3	.59
4	.74
5	.79
6	.63

Table 12 demonstrated ACS scale's standardized factor loadings. All items had standardized loadings above or close to.30, which indicated that all indicators had contributed well in operationalizing the construct of AC.
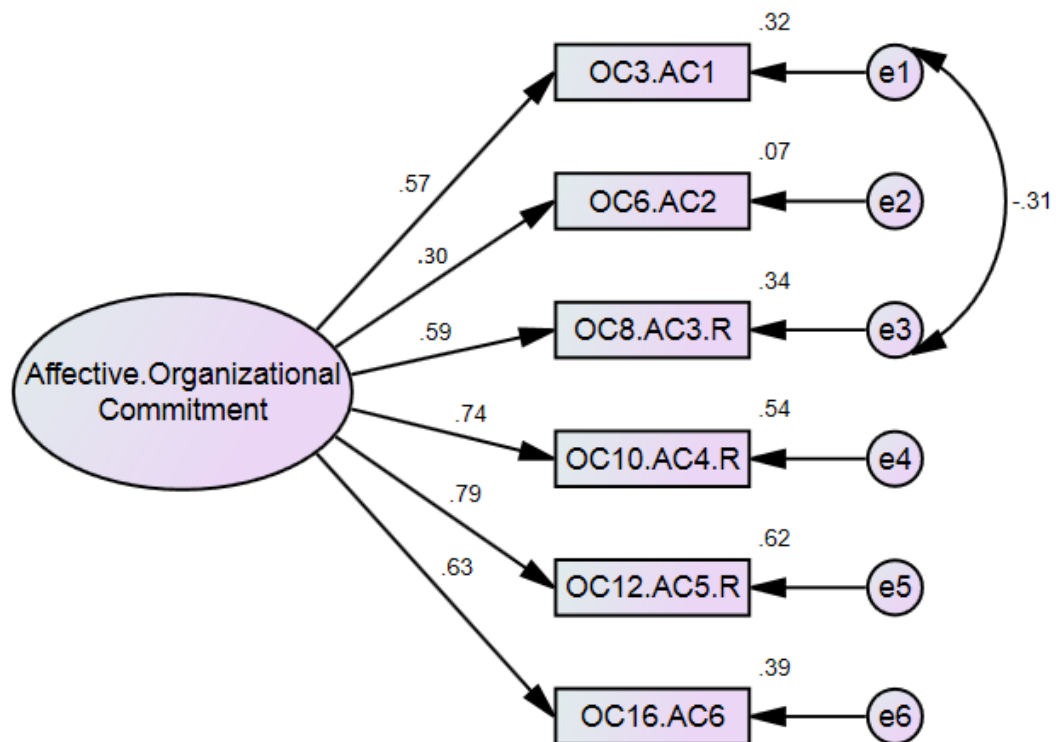
Figure 5. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of ACS obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA of Normative Commitment Scale

Unidimensional scale of NCS is comprised of 6 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 13 and 14 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 13

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Normative Commitment Scale (N =138)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (6 items, First Order, Independent errors)									
	11.44	9	.97	.93	.98	.92	.04	-	-

***p < .001

NCS's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 13. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where NCS is comprised of 6 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 13, showed an acceptable *df* to chi square ratio of 1.27 and the values of other fit indices *RMSEA, NFI, CFI, AGFI* and *GFI* were also in acceptable range and demonstrated that this model is excellent fit to the sample data.

Table 14

Standardized Factor Loadings of Normative Commitment Questionnaire by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =138)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.46
2	.52
3	.67
4	.58
5	.48
6	.62

Table 14 demonstrated NCS scale's standardized factor loadings. All items had standardized loadings above or close to.30, which indicated that all indicators had contributed well in operationalizing the construct of NC.
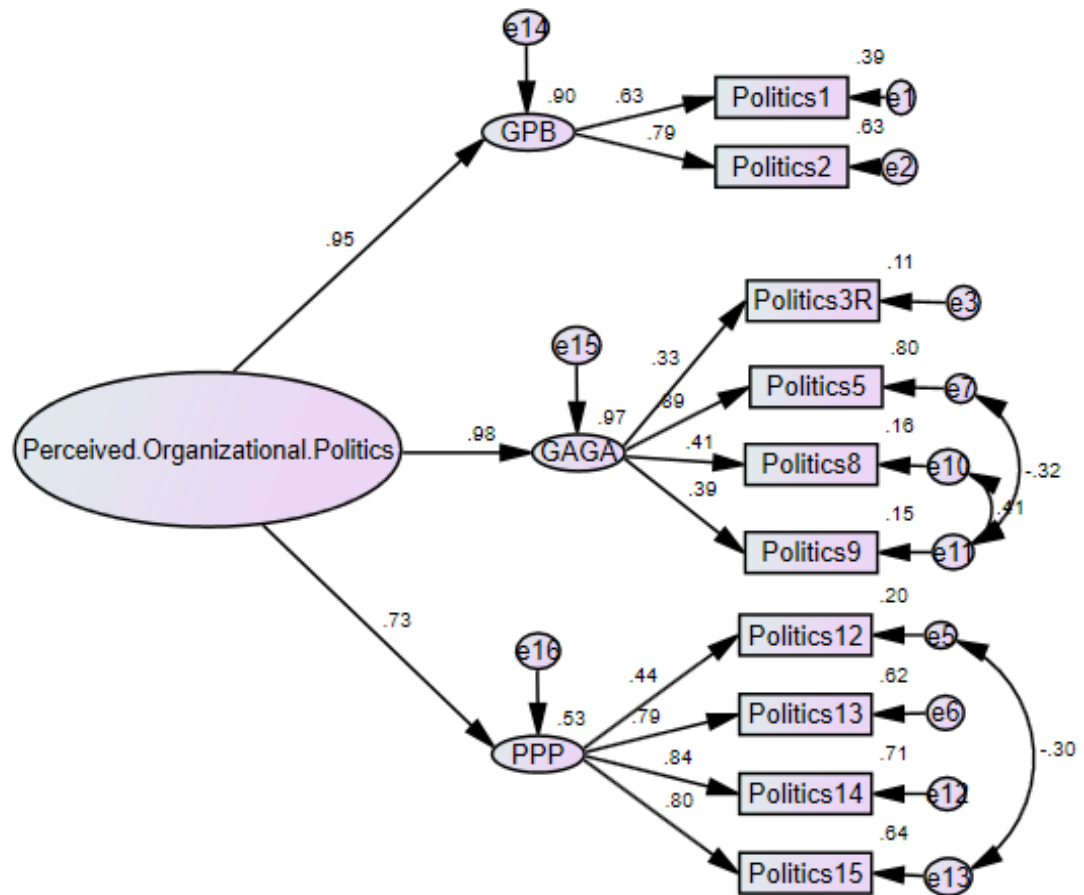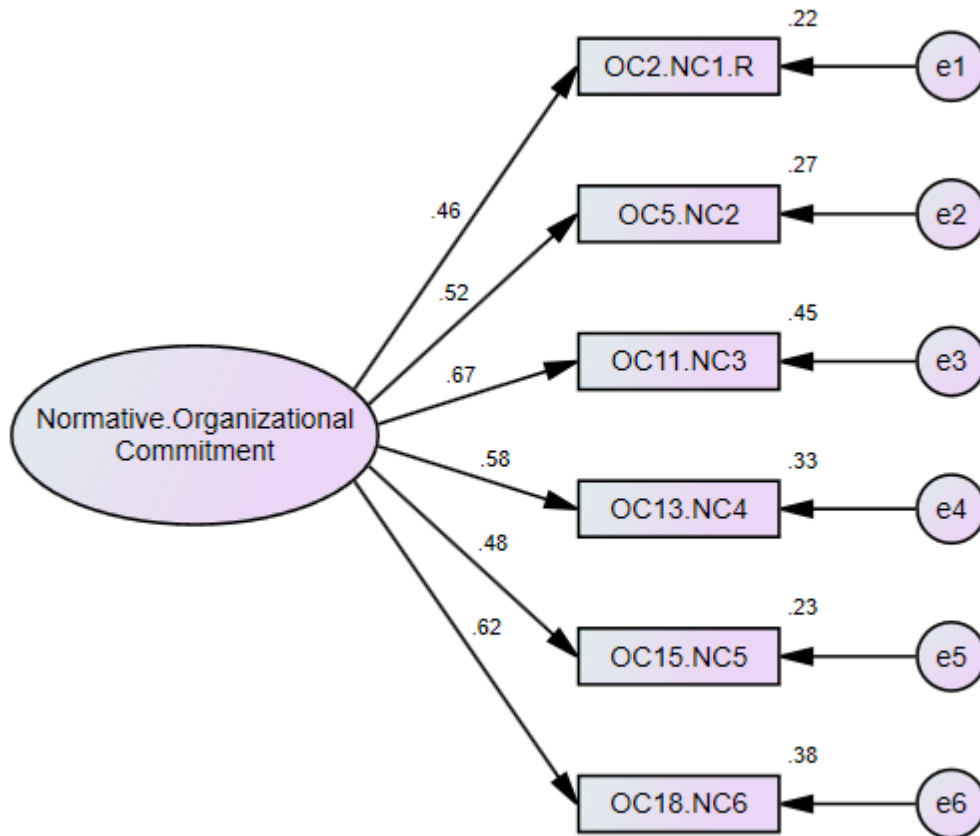
Figure 6. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of NCS obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA of In-role Job Performance Scale

Unidimensional scale of IRB is comprised of 7 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 15 and 16 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 15

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of In-Role Job Performance Scale (N =138)

Models	$\chi2$	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi2$	Δ df
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (7 items, First Order, Independent errors)									
	89.33	14	.84	.69	.77	.75	.20	-	-
Model 2 (6 items, Error variances are allowed to covary)									
	7.30	6	.98	.94	.99	.98	.04	82.03***	8

***p < .001

IRB's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 15. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where IRB is comprised of 7 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 15, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 6.38, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 6 items because there was an item that showed factor loading falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.21. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi2$= 82.03, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 16

Standardized Factor Loadings of In-Role Job Performance Questionnaire by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =138)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.94
2	.58
3	.63
4	.64
6	.57
7	.39

Table 16 demonstrated IRB scale's standardized factor loadings. All items had standardized loadings above or close to.30, which indicated that all indicators had contributed well in operationalizing the construct of IRB.
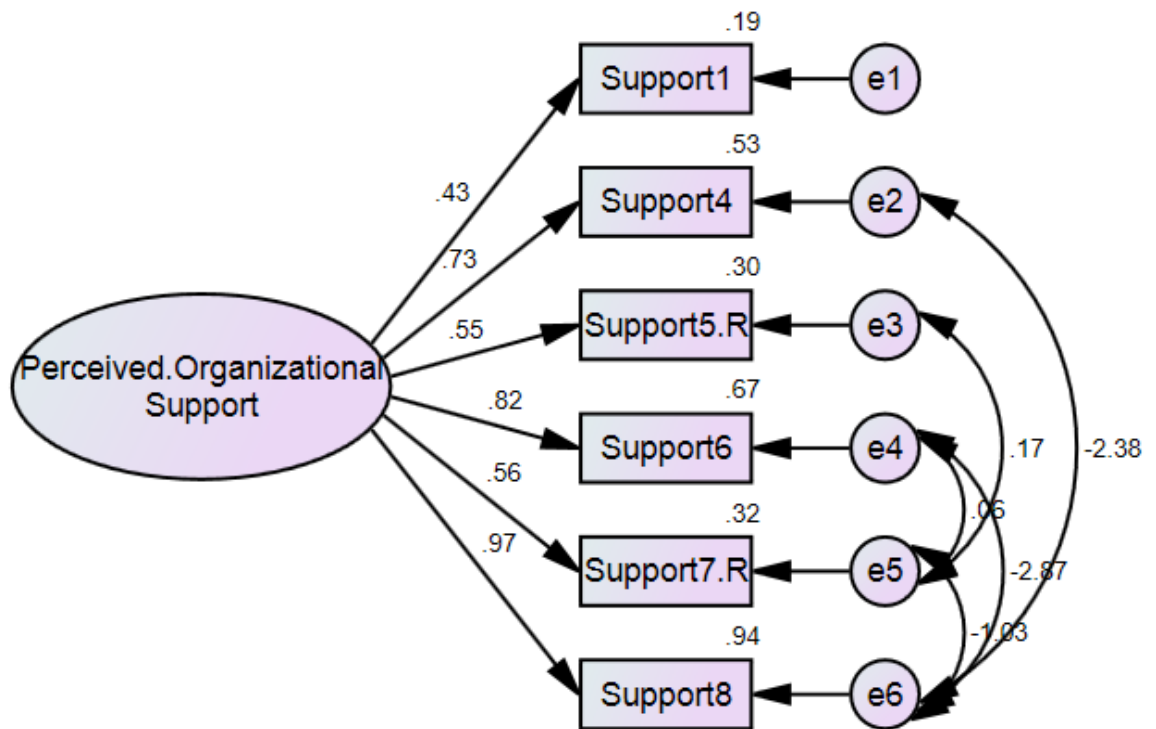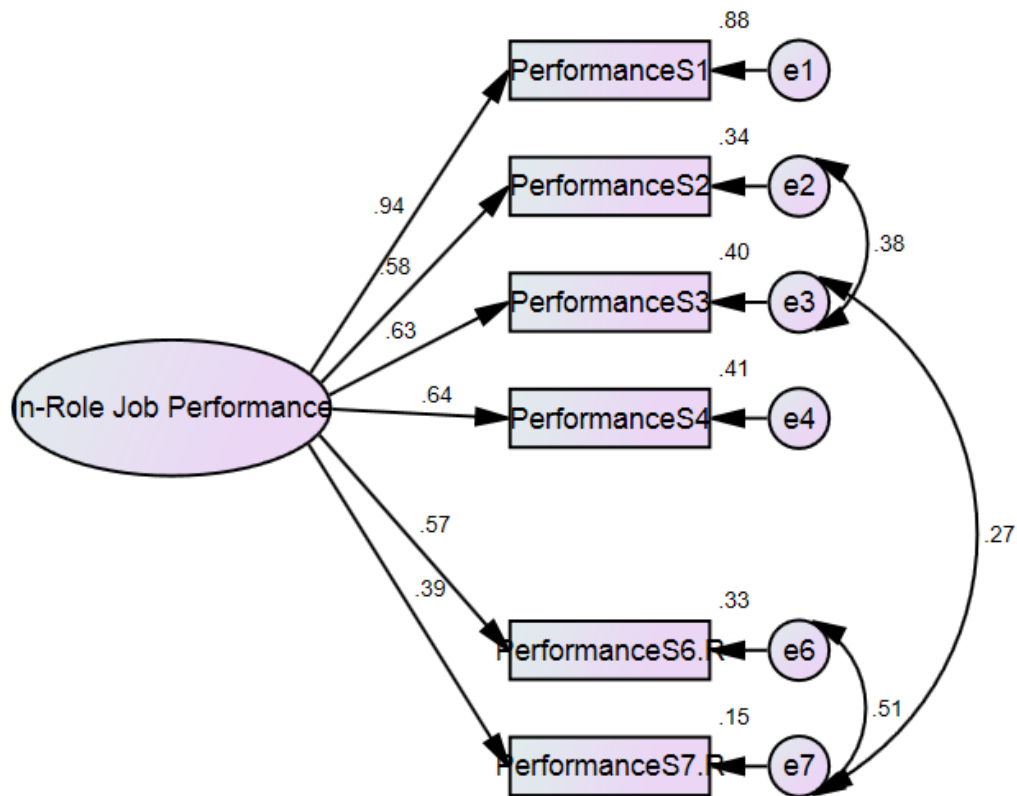
Figure 7. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of IRB Scale obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA of Occupational Stress Scale

Unidimensional scale of occupational stress is comprised of 13 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 17 and 18 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 17

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Occupational Stress Scale (N =138)

Models	χ^2	Df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ df
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (13 items, First Order)									
	218.99	65	.79	.70	.81	.76	.13	-	-
Model 2 (12 items, First Order)									
	53.73	43	.94	.90	.99	.94	.04	165.26***	22

***p< .001

Occupational stress's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 17. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where occupational stress scale is comprised of 13 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 17, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 3.37, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 12 items because there was an item that showed factor loading falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.25. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi_2$= 165.26, $p < .001$) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 18

Standardized Factor Loadings of Occupational Stress Scale By Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =138)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.52
2	.54
3	.50
4	.65
5	.68
6	.77
7	.68
8	.71
9	.60
10	.86
11	.60
12	.80

Table 18 showed the standardized factor loadings for the items of Occupational Stress Scale (OSS). Item no. 13 had factor loading below .30, so, it was discarded from the final measurement model. All other items had standardized loadings above .30, which indicated that all indicators of OS scale operationalized it well.
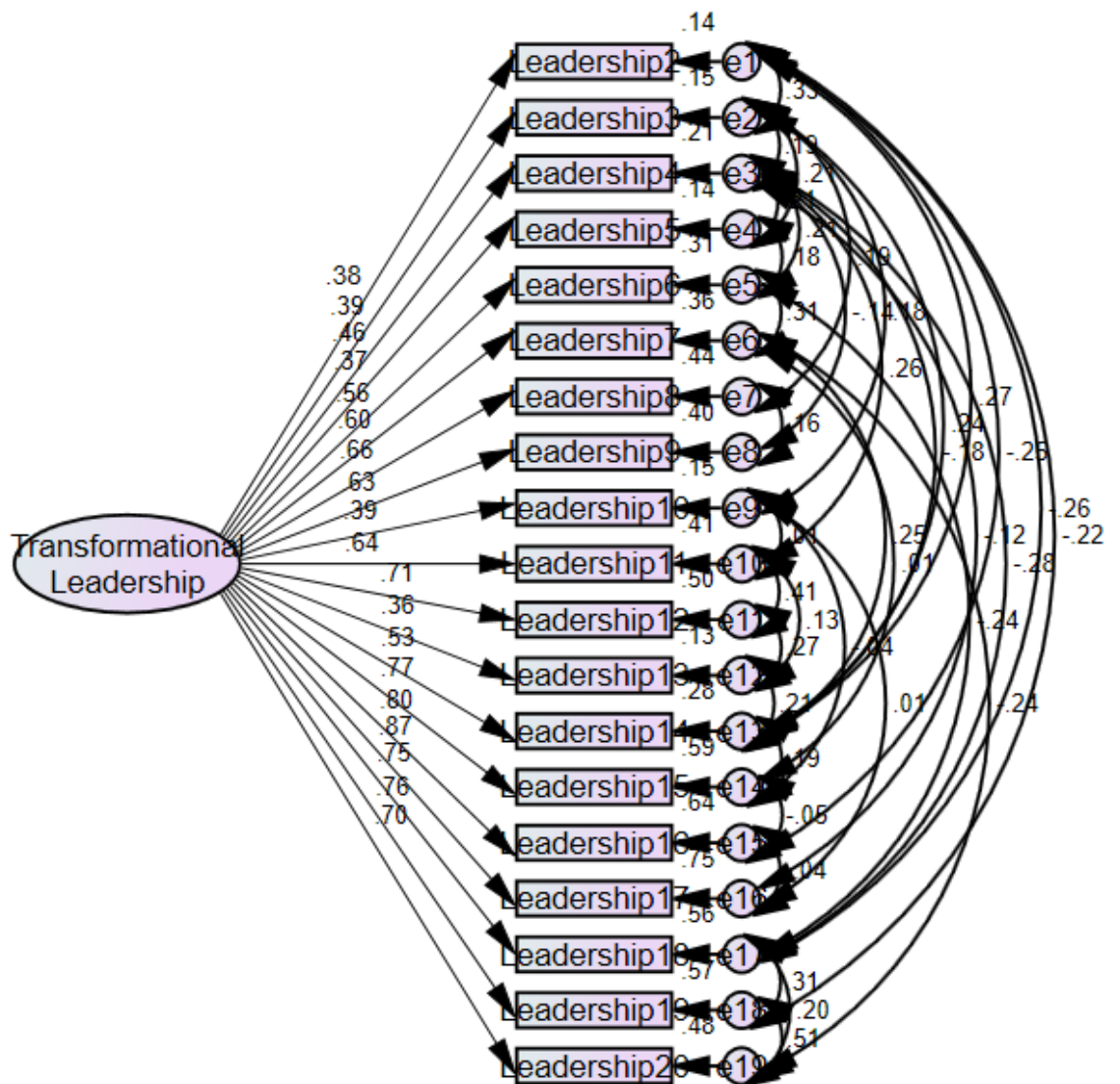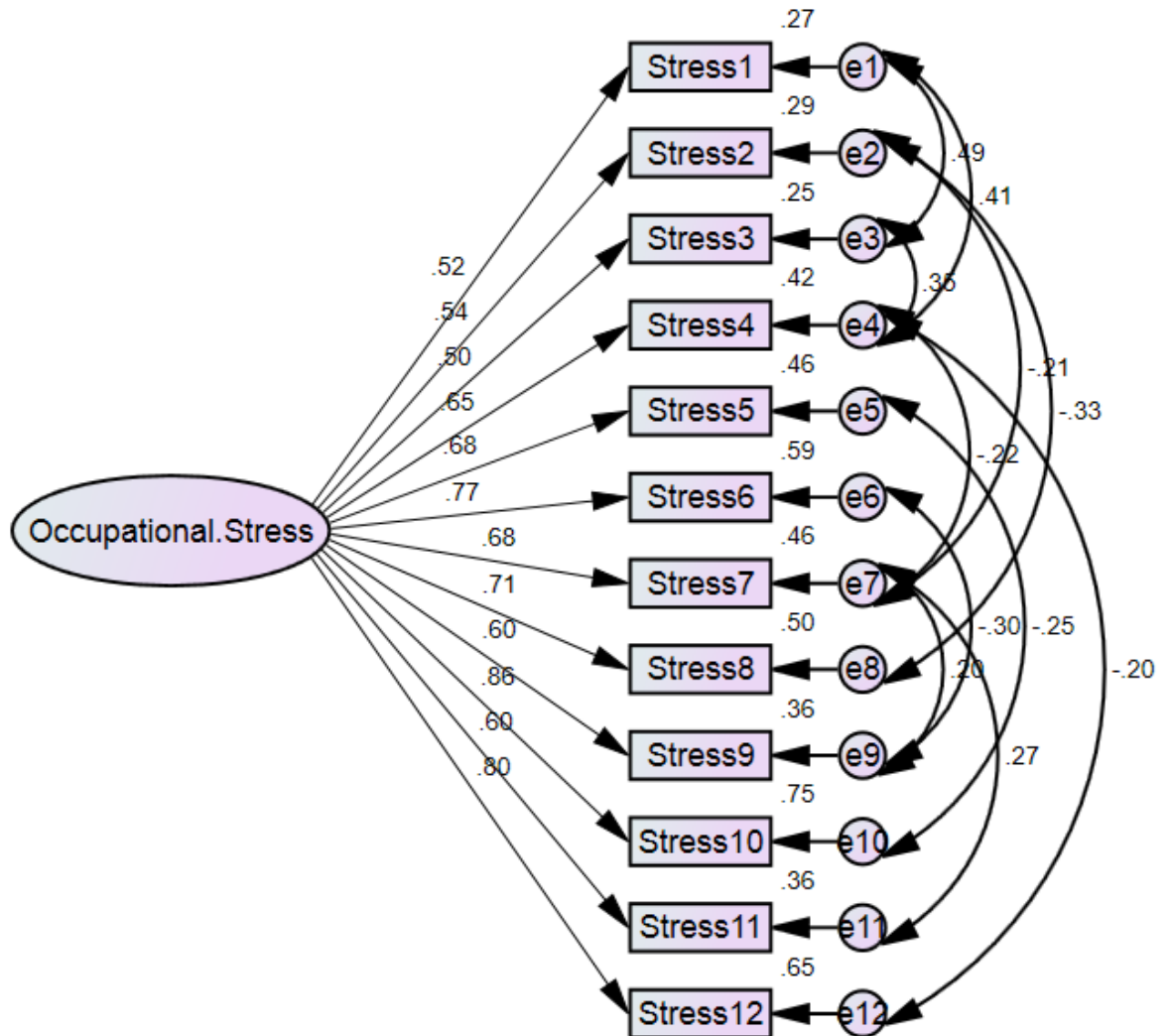
Figure 8. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of OS Scale obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

OCBS has been operationalized by two independent dimensions namely OCBI and OCBO. Factorial structure of this scale's both dimensions is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 19 and 20 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 19

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (N =138)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (16 items, First Order, Independent errors)									
	298.14	103	.77	.70	.74	.66	.12	-	-
Model 2 (14 items, Errors are allowed to covary)									
	95.61	65	.91	.86	.95	.87	.06	202.53***	38

***p< .001

OCB's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 19. Model 1 shows original measurement model of OCB where 16 indicators are further sub-divided into two distinct domains of OCBO (8 indicators) and OCBI (8 indicators). Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where OCB is comprised of 16 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 19, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 2.89, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 14 items because there were two item that showed factor loading falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances were allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.47. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2$= 202.53, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 20

Standardized Factor Loadings of Individualized and Organizational Citizenship Behavior by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =138)

Items	Factors	
	OCBI	OCBO
2	.56	
3	.63	
5	.57	
6	.66	
7	.46	
8	.51	
9		.39
10		.61
11		.65
12		.83
13		.80
14		.75
15		.74
16		.64

Note. OCBI= Organizational citizenship behavior towards individual and OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior towards organization.

Table 20 showed standardized factor loadings of the independent dimensions of OCBI and OCBO items of OCBS. All items had standardized loadings above .30 except item no. 1 and item no.4 so both of these items were discarded.
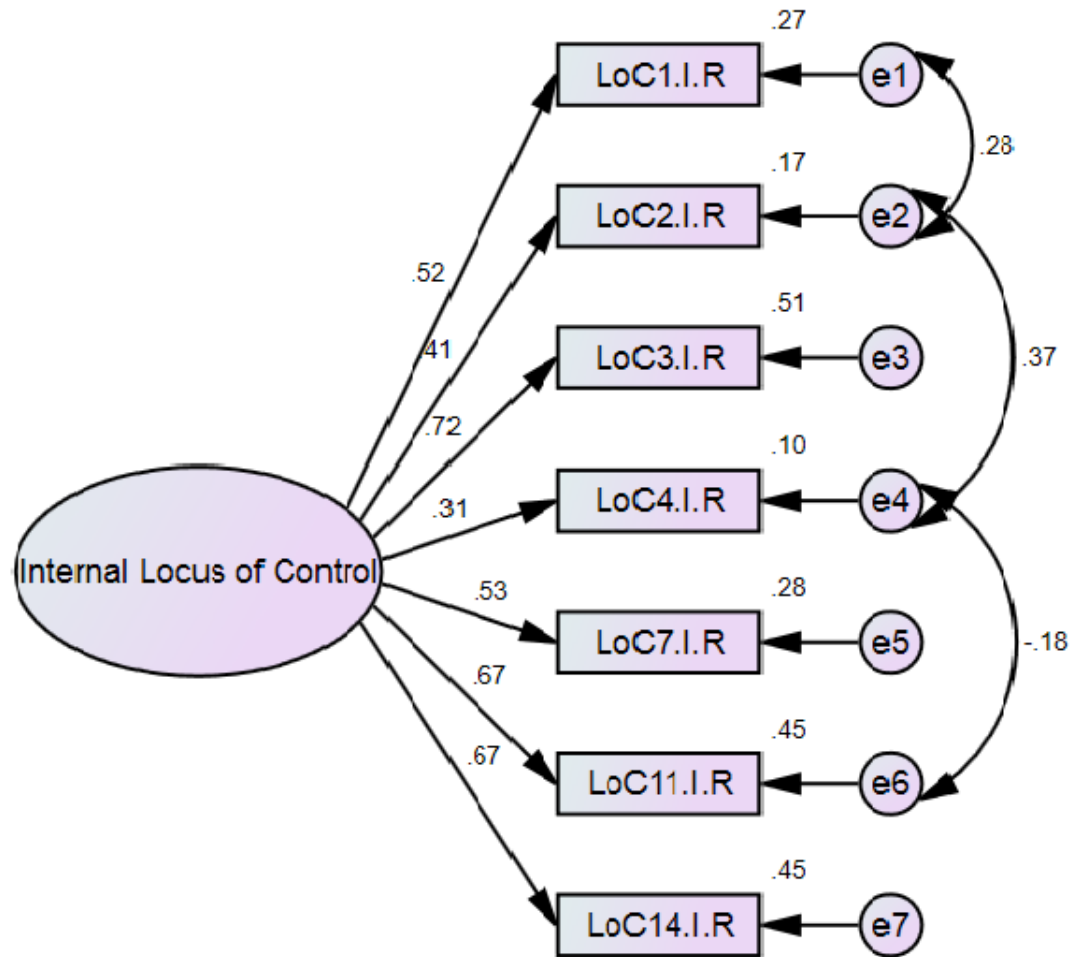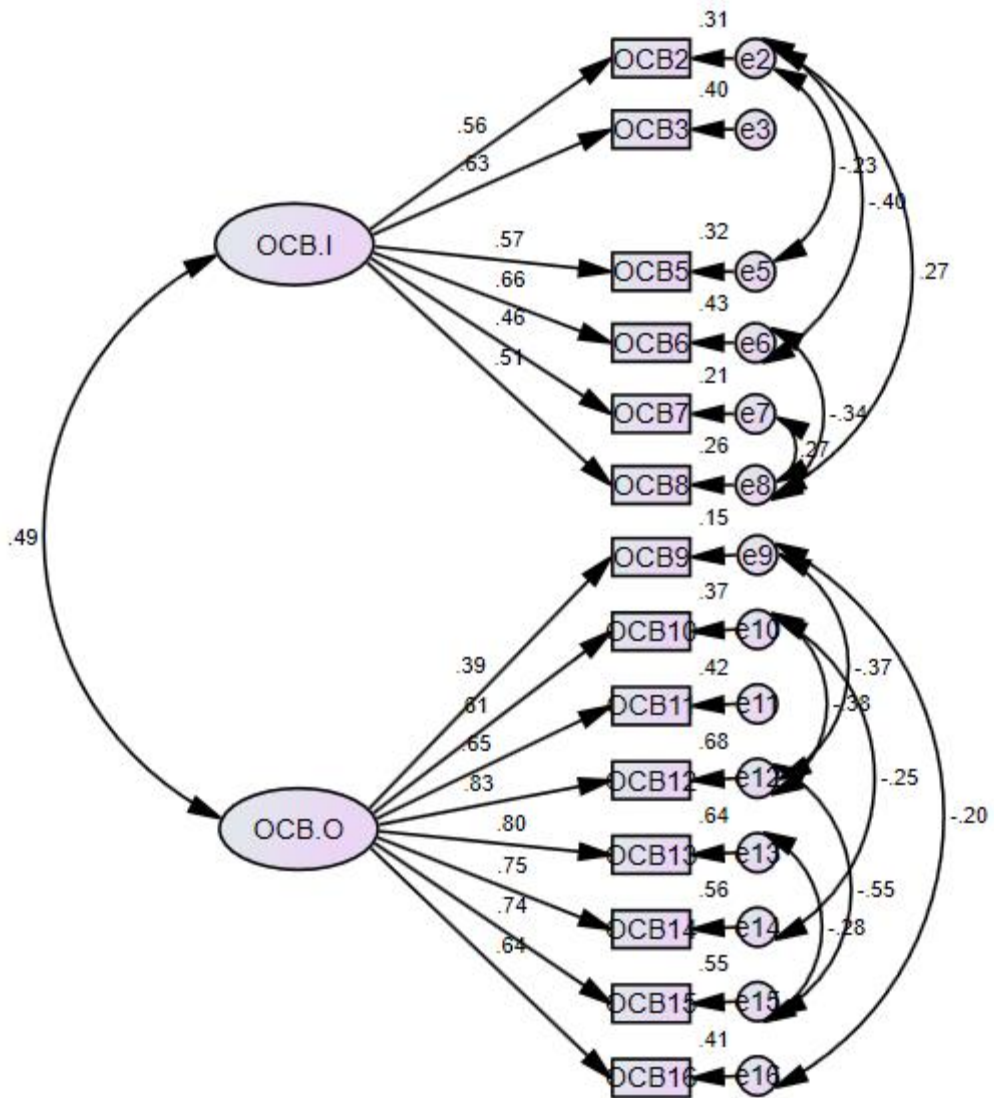

Figure 9. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of OCBI and OCBO Scales obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Table 21

Reliabilities and Descriptive Statistics of the Scales Used in the Pilot Study (N = 138)

Scale	No. of Items	α	M	SD	Range		Sk	Ku
					Potential	Actual		
POPS	10	.83	29.35	8.25	10-50	10-47	-.11	-.77
SPOS	6	.79	29.66	7.38	6-42	11-42	-.52	-.35
MLQ	19	.92	69.57	13.07	19-95	39-95	-.19	-.35
ILOCS	7	.76	38.09	5.13	7-49	25-49	-.32	-.49
ACS	6	.75	24.04	3.15	6-30	18-30	-.08	-.95
NCS	6	.72	23.83	2.99	6-30	18-30	.41	-.64
IRBS (Self. R)	6	.78	37.25	4.52	6-42	26-42	-.85	-.38
IRBS (Sup. R)	7	.73	40.17	5.81	7-49	22-49	-.90	.76
OCBI	8	.72	22.69	3.75	8-40	13-30	.10	-.15
OCBO	8	.84	31.45	5.12	8-40	18-40	-.29	-.47
TOS	3	.84	9.20	4.77	3-21	3-21	.98	-.10
OSS	12	.90	34.85	9.31	12-60	17-60	.55	-.40

Note. POPS = Perceived organizational politics scale, SPOS = Survey of perceived organizational support, MLQ = Multifactor leadership inventory, ILOCS = Internal locus of control scale, ACS = Affective commitment sub-scale, NCS= Normative commitment sub-scale, IRBS (Self. R) = In-role behavior scale (Self rated), IRBS (Sup. R) = In-role behavior scale (supervisor rated), OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individual, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, TOS = Turnover intention scale, OSS = Occupational stress scale, α = Cronbach alpha, M = Mean, SD = Standard deviation = Skewness, Ku = Kurtosis

Results in Table 21 shows values of mean, standard deviation, kurtosis, skewness and alpha coefficient. All the scales fall into an acceptable range of reliability, ranging from .72, minimum, to .92 maximum. All the reliability estimates fall above traditional mark of .70. These reliability estimates shows that all the instruments selected for this study are internally consistent and validates the

operationalization of the study constructs. Standard deviation scores of the variables were neither too high nor too low. These low to moderate levels of scores for standard deviations support the view that mean values were acceptable representatives of the constructs under study. Values of kurtosis and skewness also fall into an acceptable range.

Table 22

Inter Scale Correlations among Study variables (N = 138)

Scales	POPS	SPOS	MLQ	ILOCS	ACS	NCS	IRBS (Self. R)	IRBS (Sup. R)	OCBI	OCBO	TOS	OSS
POPS	1											
SPOS	-.51**	1										
MLQ	-.45**	.55**	1									
ILOCS	-.11	.29**	.25**	1								
ACS	-.34**	.36**	.38**	.13	1							
NCS	-.24**	.37**	.44**	.09	.66**	1						
IRBS (Self. R)	-.01	.15	.12	.22**	.38**	.29**	1					
IRBS (Sup. R)	-.12	.09	-.04	.04	.04	.13	.22*	1				
OCBI	.13	.01	.17	.26**	.15	.25**	.22*	.04	1			
OCBO	-.14	.29**	.34**	.33**	.43**	.42**	.38**	-.07	.35**	1		
TOS	.30**	-.31**	-.28**	.09	-.59**	-.36**	-.22**	.06	.03	-.25**	1	
OSS	.30**	-.17*	-.20*	.04	-.32**	-.29**	-.28**	-.25**	-.09	-.29**	.39**	1

Note. POPS = Perceived organizational politics scale, SPOS = Survey of perceived organizational support, MLQ = Multifactor leadership inventory, ILOCS = Internal locus of control scale, ACS = Affective commitment sub-scale, NCS= Normative commitment sub-scale, IRBS (Self. R) = In-role

behavior scale (self-rated), IRBS (Sup. R) = In-role behavior scale (supervisor rated), OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individual, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, TOS = Turnover intention scale, OSS = Occupational stress scale

p*< .05, p**< .001

Results in table 22 shows that POP is positively related to turnover intention and occupational stress while it was found to have negative relationship with POS, transformational leadership, AC and NC. Its relationship with ILOC, IRB (self-perceived and supervisor rated) and organizational citizenship was not found to be significant. POS was found to be positively related with transformational leadership, ILOC, affective and NC and OCBO while it was found to have negative relationship with POP, turnover intention and occupational stress. Its relationship with IRB (self-perceived and supervisor rated) was not found to be significant. Transformational leadership was found to be positively related to POS, ILOC, affective and NC and OCBO while it was found to have negative relationship with POP, turnover intention and occupational stress. Its relationship with IRB (self-perceived and supervisor rated) was found to be non-significant. ILOC was found to be positively related to POS, transformational leadership, IRB (self-perceived), OCBI and OCBO. Its relationship with POP, AC, NC, IRB (supervisor rated), turnover intention and occupational stress was found to be non-significant.

Discussion of the Pilot Study

It was carried out to examine psychometric properties of the scales, that were used in this study, in the indigenous environment of Pakistani university teachers. This purpose involved evaluating the comprehension and relevance of the scales, developed in the West, in Pakistani university teachers' indigenous work

environment. In the light of such evaluations, a number of word, phrases and test items were adapted in accordance with the indigenous work environment of university teachers in Pakistan. Furthermore, it also sought an initial overview of the assumed relationships among study variables.

After finalizing the test instruments, they were administered to a conveniently drawn sample of 138 teachers from the universities of Islamabad (capital city), and the provinces of Sindh and Punjab. Obtained data from the university teachers showed all the instruments to be internally consistent. Reliability coefficients of all the scales fell above .70 level of reliability.

In a preliminary view, the results of confirmatory factor analysis showed items 4, 6, 7, 10 and 11 of perceived organizational politics scale showed factor loadings below .20. Furthermore, Items 2 and 3 of perceived organizational support scale, item 1 of transformational leadership scale, item 8 of internal locus of control scale, item 5 of in-role job performance scale (self-rated), item 13 of occupational stress scale, items 1 and 4 of OCBI also showed factor loadings lower than .20. In the light of these results, again expert opinion was sought from two subject experts in organizational psychology, holding PhD degrees. In the light of expert opinion, all the items were retained in the main study to get further verification on a relatively larger sample.

Furthermore, correlational analysis showed POP to be significantly related to POS, transformational leadership, AC, NC, turnover intention and occupational stress, in the proposed direction. While POS was found to be significantly related to transformational leadership, ILOC, AC, NC, OCBI, POP, turnover intention and occupational stress, in the proposed direction. Transformational leadership was found to be significantly related to POS, ILOC, AC, NC, OCBO, POP, turnover intention

and occupational stress in the proposed direction. ILOC was found to be significantly related to POS, transformational leadership, IRB (self-perceived), OCBI and OCBO in the proposed direction. In the pilot study, for cross validation of responses on IRB, both the self-rated and supervisor rated scales were used. It was also assumed that if scores on both the scales are mutually correlated then only self-reported measure will be used in the main study as equally representing supervisor rated measure.

Conclusion

As far as the psychometric properties of the adapted instruments are concerned, results of the pilot study are pretty promising and reassuring. All the modified scales showed satisfactory level of reliability coefficient. Moreover, correlational analysis also provided with a preliminary overview about the proposed relationships among the study variables and provided a preliminary support to the proposed assumptions of this study. In the light of expert opinion, items that showed low factor loadings in CFA were retained for further verification on a larger sample in the main study.

MAIN STUDY

In the second chapter, it was mentioned that this research is comprised of three phases i.e., adaptation of the scales, pilot study and main study. The previous chapters were dedicated to explain all the processes and results related to adaptation of the test instruments and pilot study. This chapter is dedicated to explain all the processes, results and their discussion related to the last part of the study i.e., the main study.

Objectives

This part primarily entailed the objective of testing the proposed relationship among study. The basic theme of this part revolves around the moderating role of perceived organizational politics. To achieve this goal, the direct relationship of perceived organizational politics, internal locus of control, perceived organizational support and transformational leadership with their work outcomes is also necessary to be explored. More precisely, this study included following objectives to be explored or achieved:

1. To observe whether there exist a fit between observed factorial structures and theoretical structures of the scales used in this study, using confirmatory factor analysis.

2. To observe the relationship of POP with occupational stress, turn over intention, OCB, self-perceived in-role job performance, AC and NC among university teachers in Pakistan.

3. To observe the relationship of POS with occupational stress, turn over intention, OCB, AC, NC and self-perceived in-role job performance among university teachers in Pakistan.

4. To observe the relationship of transformational leadership style with occupational stress, turn over intention, OCB, self-perceived in-role job performance, AC and NC among university teachers in Pakistan.

5. To observe the relationship of ILOC with occupational stress, turn over intention, OCB, self-perceived in-role job performance, AC and NC among university teachers in Pakistan.

6. To observe the relationship of demographic variables (geographic location, job status, job experience, gender, educational sector and educational qualification) with the study variables among university teachers.

Hypotheses

Based on a significant literature, a number of hypothesized relationships were proposed in this study. In this study, POP was proposed to positively predict turnover intention and occupational stress among university teachers. While it was proposed to negatively predict AC, NC, IRB (self-perceived), OCBI and OCBO. Similarly, on organizational level, POS was proposed to negatively predict turnover intention and occupational stress among university teachers. While it was proposed to positively predict AC, NC, IRB (self-perceived), OCBI and OCBO. Moreover, at management level, transformational leadership was proposed to negatively predict turnover intention and occupational stress among university teachers. While it was proposed to positively predict AC, NC, IRB (self-perceived), OCBI and OCBO. On individual level, ILOC was proposed to negatively predict occupational stress among university teachers. While it was proposed to positively predict AC, NC, IRB (self-perceived), OCBI and OCBO among university teachers. On the other hand, POP was proposed to reduce the positive contributions of POS, ILOC and transformational leadership's in

their work outcomes. The proposed hypotheses of this study are mentioned in second chapter of this study (see pp. 78-80).

Participants

This study's sample included 450 full time teaching faculty members from Islamabad, Punjab, Sindh and Balochistan. The criteria for inclusion into this study's sample was made to be at least 22 years of age with minimum Masters level degree (16 years of education) as baseline for qualification.

Table 23

Sample Description (N= 450)

University	Frequency	Percentage
Islamabad		
Hamdard University	9	2.0
COMSATS	2	.4
International Islamic University	14	3.1
Riphah International University	18	4.0
National University of Modern Languages	27	6.0
Quaid-i-Azam University	28	6.2
Punjab		
Fatimah Jinnah Women University	6	1.3
ARID Agriculture University	23	5.1
University of Veterinary and Animal Sciences	36	8.0

University	Frequency	Percentage
The Islamia University of Bahawalpur	19	4.2
Sargodha University	9	2.0
University of Central Punjab	9	2.0
Government College University Faisalabad	6	1.3
University of South Asia	14	3.1
Lahore University of Management Sciences	6	1.3
Punjab University	28	6.2
University of Engineering and Technology	8	1.8
Sindh		
Muhammad Ali Jinnah University	5	1.1
Dow Medical College	1	.2
National University of Computer and Emerging Sciences	3	.7
Karachi University	54	12.0
Institute of Business and Technology	24	5.3
Iqra University	6	1.3
Bahria University	13	2.9
Karachi Institute of Economics and Technology	5	1.1
Indus University	6	1.3
Institute of Business Management	3	.7

University	Frequency	Percentage
Usman Institute of Technology	7	1.6
NED University of Engineering and Technology	13	2.9
Preston University	5	1.1
Institute of Business Administration	3	.7
Abasyn University	1	.2
Federal Urdu University of Arts, Science and Technology	11	2.4
Baqai Medical College	2	.4
Balochistan		
Balochistan University	26	5.8

Mean age and standard deviation for age of the sample were found to be 35.84 and 8.82 years, respectively. Sample of the study was found to have job experience in the current organization with 6.28 and 5.43 years of job experience.

Table 24

Sample Description (N= 450)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Gender		
Male	278	61.8
Female	172	38.2
Total	450	100
Education		
MA/M.Sc	134	29.8
MS/M.Phil	176	39.1
Ph.D	140	31.1
Total	450	100

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Designation		
Lecturer	238	52.9
Assistant Professor	116	25.8
Associate Professor	43	9.6
Professor	53	11.8
Total	450	100
Province		
Punjab	165	36.7
Sindh	153	34
Balochistan	26	5.8
Federal Capital	106	23.6
Total	450	100

Instruments

Detailed description of the scales has already been provided in the first part of the pilot study (See pp. 86-91).

Procedure

After getting formal approval from the respective management from each university, the researcher contacted each individual participant of the study personally. Rationale and purpose of the research was communicated to them along with the booklet that contained above mentioned test instruments. They were also provided with written instructions, as well as oral instructions if needed, in order to comprehend and respond each test item. All the participants were given promise that their information will be kept confidential and will be used for the research purpose solely.

Results

Different statistical analysis were carried out to achieve the objectives of the main study, including CFA, computation of mean, standard deviation, skewness, kurtosis, Pearson product moment correlation, multiple regression analysis, independent sample t-test and ANOVA. Moreover, Cronbach alpha coefficient of reliability was also computed to check the reliabilities of the scales. Descriptive analysis such as mean, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis provided the researcher with an overview about data. Whereas, correlational analysis provided an insight to the proposed relationship among the study variables. Multiple regression analysis provided information regarding hypothesis predicting moderation. Whereas, t-test and ANOVA provided the information regarding relationship of demographic variables with all the study variables. Main study's results are divided into four parts. First part involves CFA to assess the fit between the proposed and the observed factorial structure of the instruments used in this study. Second part is related to the descriptive analysis and alpha coefficient values for the reliability of the scales used in the study. Third part is comprised of the correlational analysis and multiple regression analysis to test the proposed hypothesis. Fourth part is comprised of the multivariate analysis of variance where information about the relationship of different demographic variables with the study variables has been provided.

Part I: Validation of Study Instruments through Confirmatory Factor Analysis

This part includes comparison of various models for each measurement tools including all the test items as well as the finalized test items with proposed factorial structures. According to Brown (2015, p. 2), "CFA is an indispensable analytic tool for construct validation in the social and behavioral sciences. The results of CFA can

provide compelling evidence of the convergent and discriminant validity of theoretical constructs". Furthermore, there are number of other researches where CFA has been used as a tool to measure construct validity of the scales (Atkinson, et al., 2011; Said, Badru, & Shahid, 2011).

CFA was conducted, with maximum likelihood estimation, to ratify the factorial structure of the tools used for this study on the current sample. Without any missing response, complete data were used for CFA. To assess the overall goodness of fit for each model, several fit indices were evaluated including adjusted goodness of fit index, normed fit index, comparative fit index, goodness of fit index, root mean square error of approximation, relative/ normed chi-square and chi-square. Fit indices of the finalized models and tables of factor loadings are presented in this section.

CFA for Perceived organizational politics scale

Factorial structure of POPS was calculated through AMOS 20 by confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Table 24 indicated fit indices for the competing factorial models of POPS and Table 25 provides standardized factor loadings of POPS.

Table 25

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Perceived Organizational Politics Scale (N =450)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	*AGFI*	*CFI*	*NFI*	*RMSEA*		
Model 1 (15 items, Second Order)									
	427.57	87	.88	.84	.84	.81	.09	-	-
Model 2 (13 items, First Order)									
	115.45	57	.96	.94	.97	.94	.05	312.53***	30
Model 3 (13 items, Second order)									
	115.45	57	.96	.94	.97	.94	.05	0***	0***

*** $p < .001$

POPS' second order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 25. The measurement model of POP scale comprised of three correlated factors namely goes along to get ahead (GGG), pay and promotion policies (PPP) and general political behavior (GPB). Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where POPS is comprised of 15 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 25, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 4.91, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1.

Therefore, the same second order model was re-specified 13 items because there were two items that showed factor loadings that fell below .30 and in Model 3, error variances are allowed to covary. According to the suggestion of modification indices error variances were not allowed to covary between two first order latent factors. Findings obtained in model 3, where 13 items loaded on their respective first order latent factor and those three first order latent factors converged on the second order construct of POP, were acceptable with a *df to* chi square of 2.02. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 3 as compared to model 1. Furthermore; this second order confirmatory factor model (model 3) was also compared with the first order model of POP where 13 items converged on 3 independent factors and error terms are allowed to covary between indicators of the same factor. Results indicated an excellent fit of the sample data to this first order factor model with chi-square to *df* ratio of 2.02 which was below the recommended value of 3. The values *NFI, CFI, AGFI* and *GFI* were above .90 and represented an excellent fit of model. Values of Akaike Information Criterion (*AIC* = 183.45) and Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC = 323.17) of model 2 and 3 also had same values which showed that data fit in both models equally well. *RMSEA* (.05) and

Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2 = 0.00$, p < .001)) also suggested that the model 2 and 3 fits the data equally well and both of these models are identical to each other.

Table 26

Standardized Factor Loadings of Perceived Organizational Politics Scale By Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =450)

Items	Factors		
	GBP	GAGA	PPP
	.95		
1	.66		
2	.79		
		.93	
3		.45	
4		.42	
5		.75	
6		.34	
7		.41	
8		.53	
9		.54	
			.77
12			.59
13			.78
14			.84
15			.73

Note. Bold type standardized factor loadings are second order factor loadings for perceived organizational politics. GBP = general political behavior; GGG = go along to get ahead; PPP = pay and promotion policies.

Table 26 shows POPS' second order standardized factor loadings through CFA. Factor loadings were higher than .70 for all first order factors. It confirms that all the latent factors (GBP, GAGA and PPP), in first order, converge well on POP. Standardized factor loadings were found to be higher than .30 in the first order for all

the indicators. It suggests that POP' indicators sufficiently operationalized this construct.
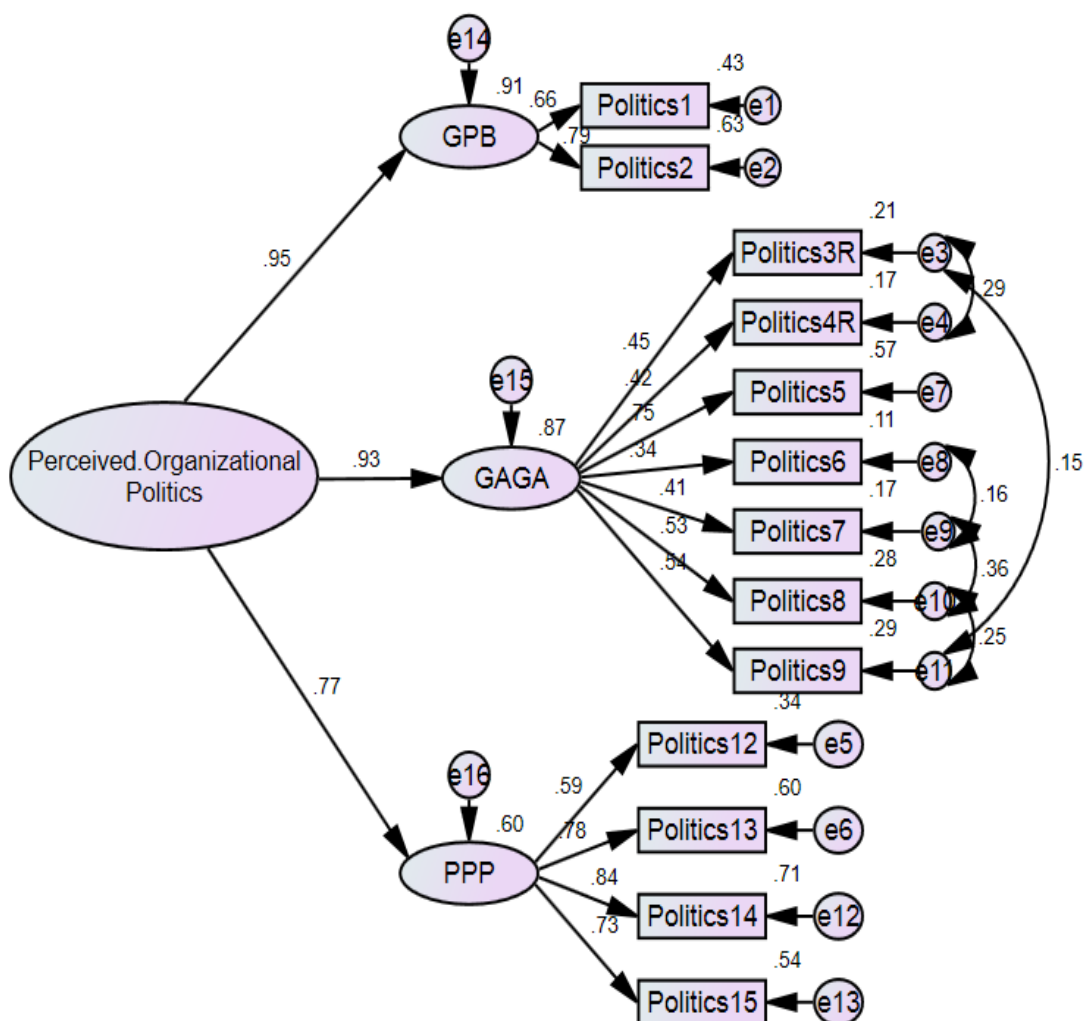
Figure 10. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of POPS obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA for Perceived Organizational Support Scale

Unidimensional scale of POS is comprised of 8 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 27 and 28 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 27

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Perceived Organizational Support Scale (N =450)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (8 items, First Order)									
	608.68	20	.71	.48	.46	.46	.26	-	-
Model 2 (6 items, First order)									
	5.54	5	.99	.98	.99	.99	.02	603.14***	15

***p < .001

POS's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 27. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where POS is comprised of 8 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 27, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 30.43, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 6 items because there were two items (item 2 & 3) that showed factor loadings falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.11. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi_2$= 603.14, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 28

Standardized Factor Loadings of Perceived Organizational Support Questionnaire by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =450)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.60
4	.78
5	.25
6	.72
7	.33
8	.68

Table 28 demonstrated POS scale's standardized factor loadings. Item no. 2 and item no. 3 had factor loadings below the recommended value of .30, so, they were discarded from the final measurement model. All other items showed standardized loadings that are reported to be higher than .30, except item number 5. Item no.5 had standardized factor loading of .25, it is also below the cut of criteria of .30. However, deletion of this item caused a drop in reliability value from .74 to .68. Therefore, this item is retained for further analysis.

Figure 11. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of POS obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA for Transformational Leadership Questionnaire

Unidimensional scale of transformational leadership (TL) is comprised of 20 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 29 and 30 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 29
Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Transformational Leadership Scale (N = 450)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ df
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (20 items, First Order)									
	1048.74	170	.79	.74	.73	.70	.12	-	-
Model 2 (19 items, First order)									
	249.79	128	.95	.92	.96	.92	.05	798.95***	42

***p < .001

Transformational leadership's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 29. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where transformational leadership is comprised of 20 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 29, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 6.17, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 19 items because there was item that showed factor loading falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.95. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi_2$= 798.95, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 30

Standardized Factor Loadings of Transformational Leadership Questionnaire by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =450)

Items	Standardized factor loadings
2	.39
3	.53
4	.59
5	.36
6	.54
7	.55
8	.53
9	.56
10	.42
11	.49
12	.55
13	.45
14	.50
15	.61
16	.60
17	.74
18	.70
19	.65
20	.65

Table 30 showed the standardized factor loadings for the items of Transformational Leadership Scale (TLS). Item no. 1 had factor loadings below .30, so, it was discarded from the final measurement model. All other items showed standardized loadings that are reported to be higher than .30, which indicated that all indicators of TLS scale operationalized it well.

Figure 12. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of TL scale obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Confirmatory factor analysis of Internal Locus of Control Questionnaire

Unidimensional scale of ILOC is comprised of 8 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 31 and 32 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 31

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Internal Locus of Control Questionnaire (N =450)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (8 items, First Order)									
	108.26	20	.95	.90	.90	.87	.09	-	-
Model 2 (7 items, First order)									
	20.57	10	.99	.96	.99	.97	.05	87.69***	10

***p < .001

ILOC's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 31. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where ILOC is comprised of 8 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 31, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 5.41, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 7 items because there was item that showed factor loading falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 2.06. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi^2$= 87.69, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 32

Standardized Factor Loadings of LOC Questionnaire (N = 450)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.73
2	.85
3	.62
4	.38
6	.35
7	.55
8	.40

Table 32 demonstrated ILOC scale's standardized factor loadings. Item no. 5 had factor loadings below the recommended value of .30. So, that item was discarded from the final measurement model. All other items showed standardized loadings that are reported to be higher than .30.
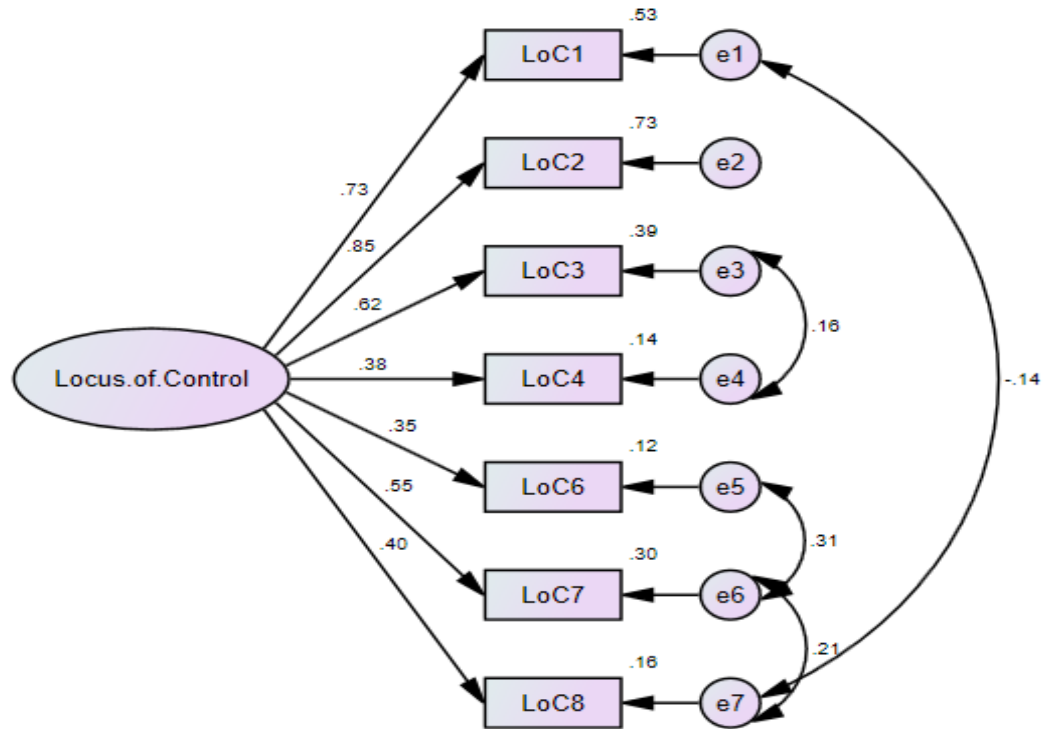
Figure 13. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of Internal Locus of Control Scale obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA of Affective Commitment Scale

Unidimensional scale of ACS is comprised of 6 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 33 and 34 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 33

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Affective Commitment Scale (N =450)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (6 items, First Order, independent errors)									
	63.17	9	.95	.90	.90	.88	.12	-	-
Model 2 (6 items, Errors Allowed to Covary)									
	8.83	7	.99	.98	.99	.98	.02	54.34***	2

***p < .001

ACS's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 33. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where ACS is comprised of 6 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 33, showed satisfactory results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 7.02, along with other measures of model fit. Although the values of some other fit indices like *NFI, CFI, AGFI* and *GFI* were in acceptable range but *RMSEA* of .12 indicated that Model 1 should be improved.

Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with the same 6 items and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.26. *RMSEA* with a value of .02 and Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi_2$= 54.34, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 34

Standardized Factor Loadings of Affective Commitment Questionnaire by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =450)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.31
2	.40
3	.67
4	.72
5	.78
6	.29

Table 34 demonstrated ACS scale's standardized factor loadings. All items had standardized loadings above or close to.30, which indicated that all indicators had contributed well in operationalizing the construct of AC.
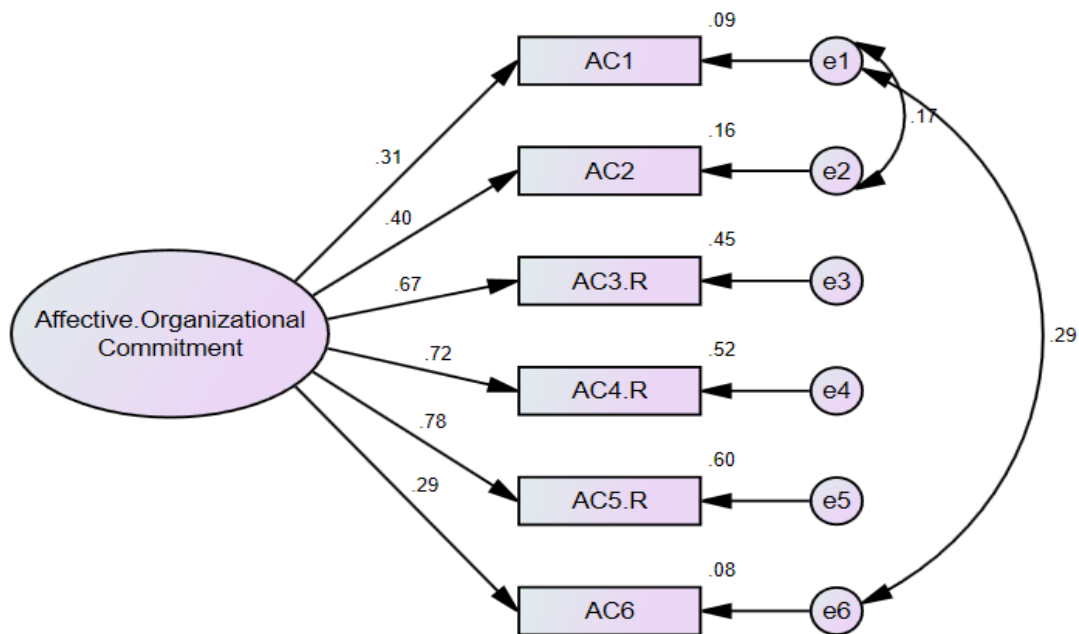
Figure 14. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of ACS obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA of Normative Commitment Scale

Unidimensional scale of NCS is comprised of 6 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 35 and 36 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 35

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Normative Commitment Scale (N =450)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (6 items, First Order, Independent errors)									
	21.69	9	.98	.96	.96	.94	.06	-	-
Model 2 (6 items, Error Variances are allowed to covary)									
	12.10	8	.99	.98	.99	.96	.03	9.59***	1

***p < .001

NCS's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 35. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where NCS is comprised of 6 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 35, showed an acceptable *df* to chi square ratio of 2.41 and the values of other fit indices *RMSEA, NFI, CFI, AGFI* and *GFI* were also in acceptable range but *RMSEA* of .06 indicated that Model 1 should be further improved.

Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with the same 6 items and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.51. *RMSEA* with a value of .02 and Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi_2$= 9.59, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 36

Standardized Factor Loadings of Normative Commitment Questionnaire by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =450)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.38
2	.60
3	.60
4	.49
5	.45
6	.51

Table 36 demonstrated NCS scale's standardized factor loadings. All items had standardized loadings above or close to.30, which indicated that all indicators had contributed well in operationalizing the construct of NC.
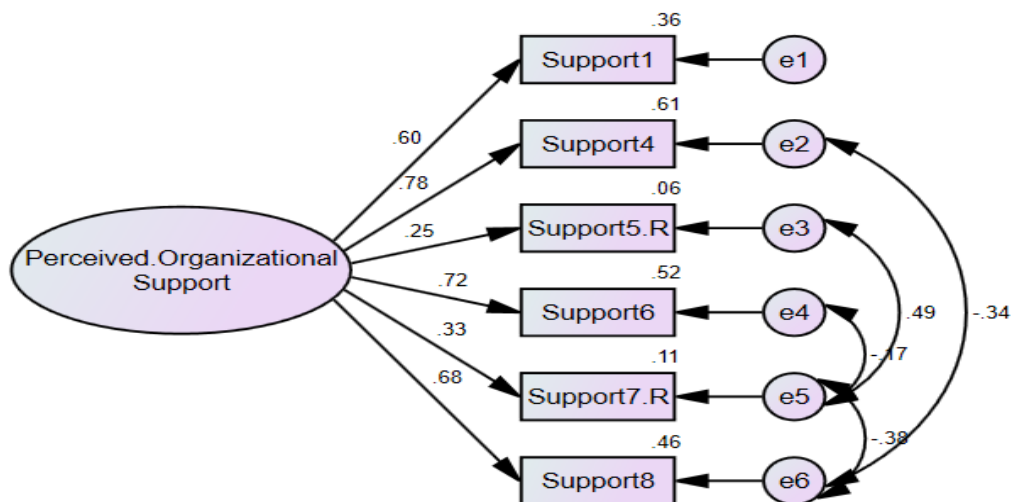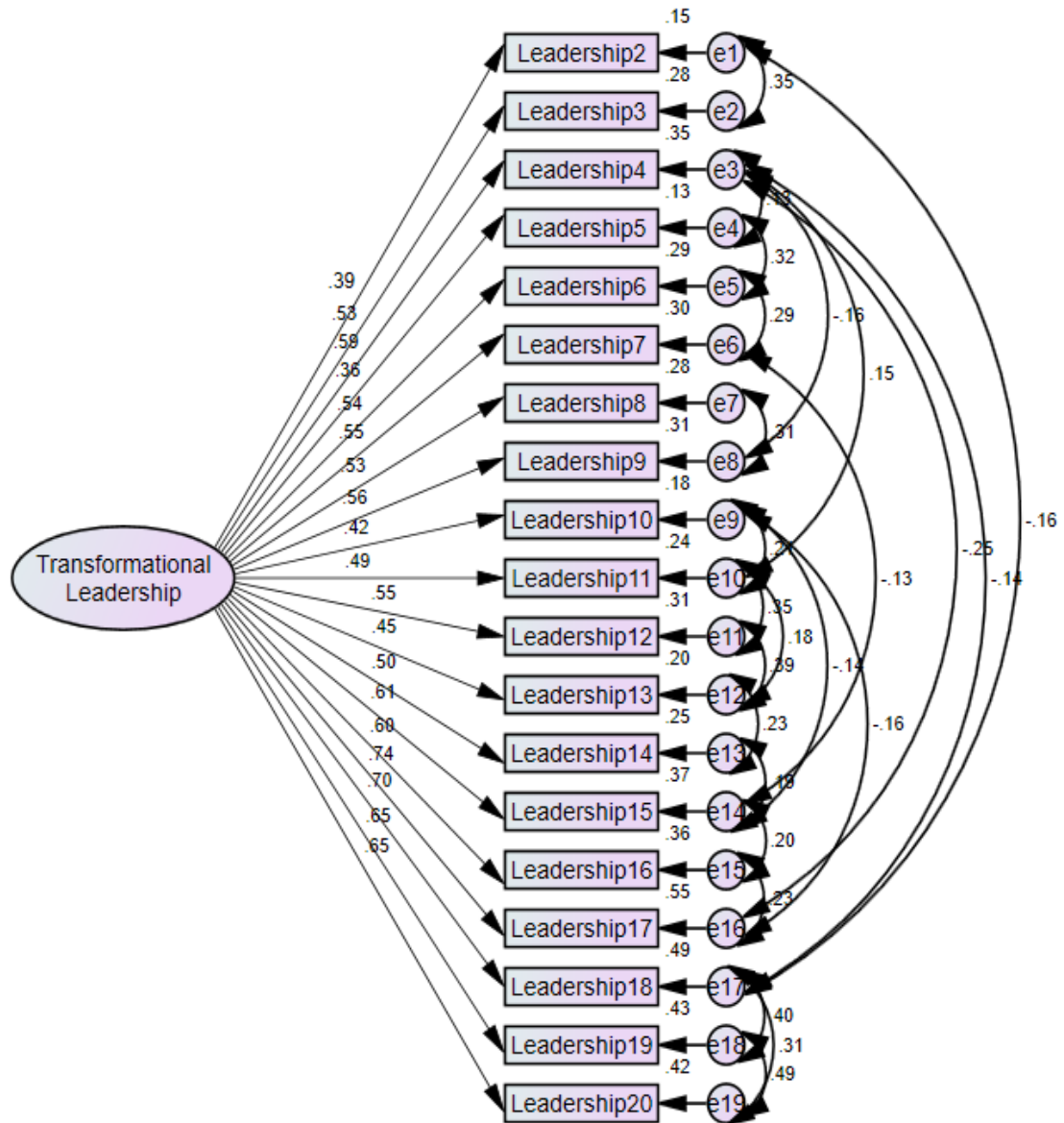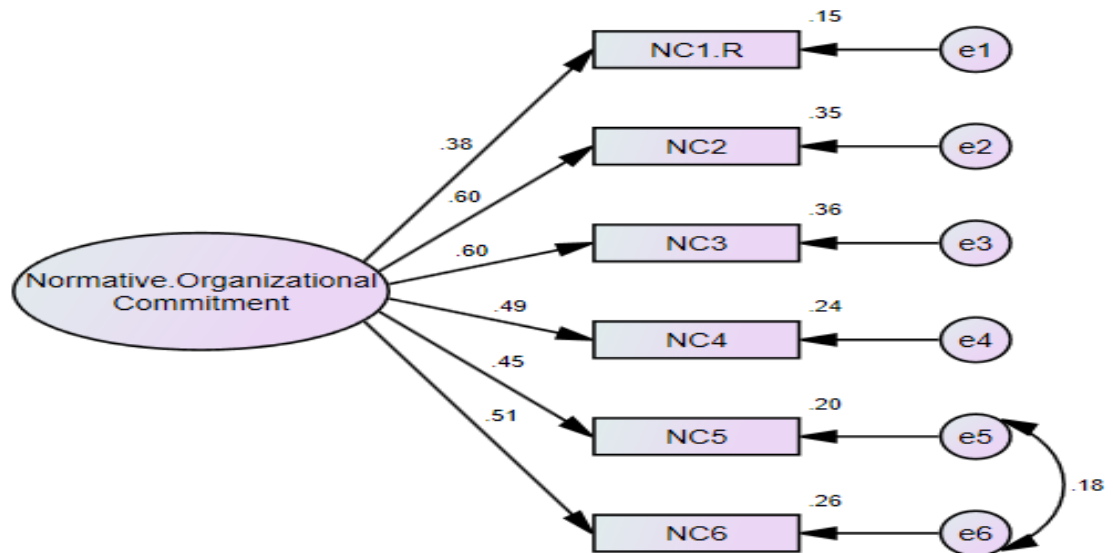

Figure 15. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of NCS obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA of In-role Job Performance Scale

Unidimensional scale of IRB is comprised of 7 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 37 and 38 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 37

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of In-Role Job Performance Scale (N =450)

Models	$\chi2$	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi2$	Δ df
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (7 items, First Order, Independent errors)									
	389.50	14	.84	.68	.70	.69	.24	-	-
Model 2 (7 items, Error variances are allowed to covary)									
	16.66	10	.99	.97	.99	.99	.04	372.84***	4

***p < .001

IRB's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 37. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where IRB is comprised of 7 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 37, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 27.82, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 6 items because there was an item that showed factor loading falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 1.67. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi2$= 372.84, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 38

Standardized Factor Loadings of In-Role Job Performance Questionnaire by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =450)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.73
2	.87
3	.70
4	.63
5	.62
6	.30
7	.33

Table 38 demonstrated IRB scale's standardized factor loadings. All items had standardized loadings above or close to.30, which indicated that all indicators had contributed well in operationalizing the construct of IRB.
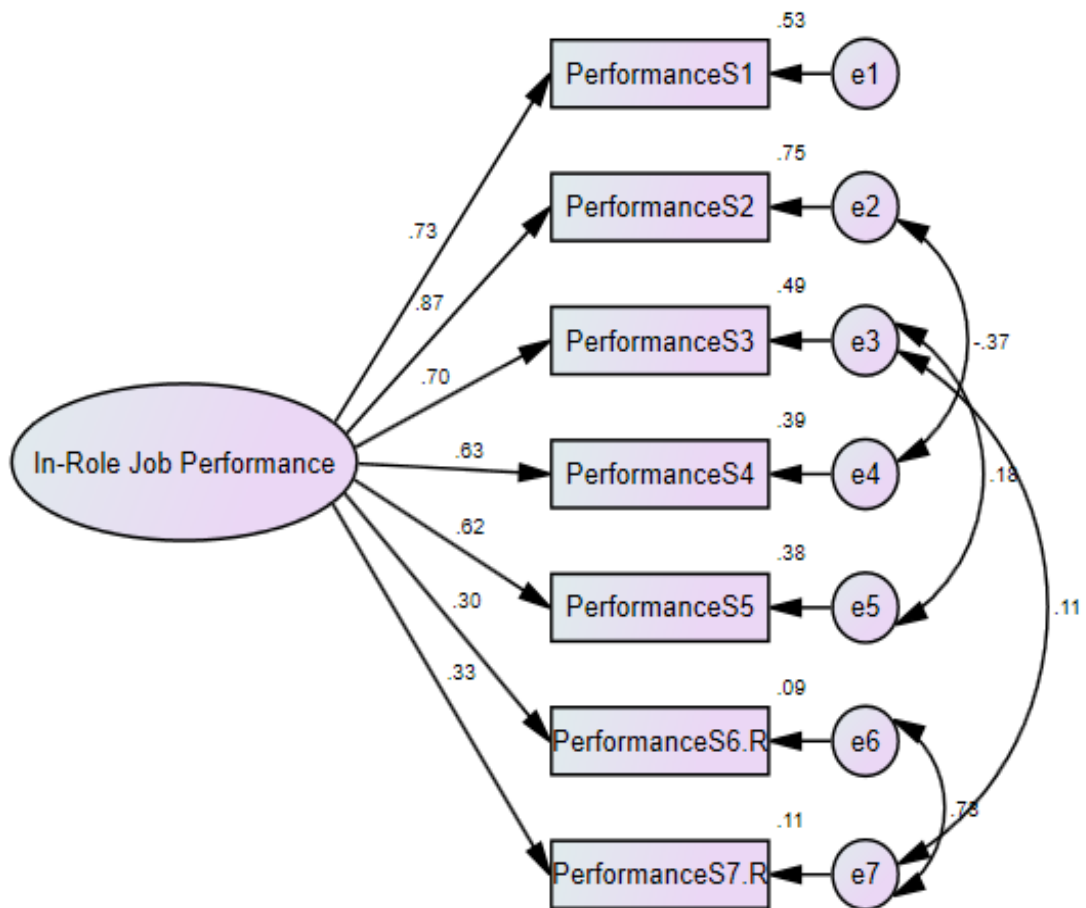
Figure 16. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of IRB scale obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA for Occupational Stress Scale

Unidimensional scale of occupational stress is comprised of 13 items. Factorial structure of this scale is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 39 and 40 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 39

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Occupational Stress Scale (N =450)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δ df
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (13 items, First Order)									
	478.94	65	.83	.77	.85	.84	.12	-	-
Model 2 (12 items, First Order)									
	85.07	42	.97	.94	.98	.97	.05	393.87***	23

***p< .001

      Occupational stress's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 39. Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where occupational stress scale is comprised of 13 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 39, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 7.37, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 12 items because there was an item that showed factor loading falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances are allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 2.02. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi_2$= 393.87, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 40

Standardized Factor Loadings of Occupational Stress Scale By Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =450)

Items	Standardized Factor loadings
1	.70
2	.70
3	.64
4	.58
5	.66
6	.70
7	.70
8	.54
9	.70
10	.72
11	.72
12	.75

Table 40 showed the standardized factor loadings for the items of Occupational Stress Scale (OSS). Item no. 13 had factor loading below .30, so, it was discarded from the final measurement model. All other items had standardized loadings above .30, which indicated that all indicators of OS scale operationalized it well
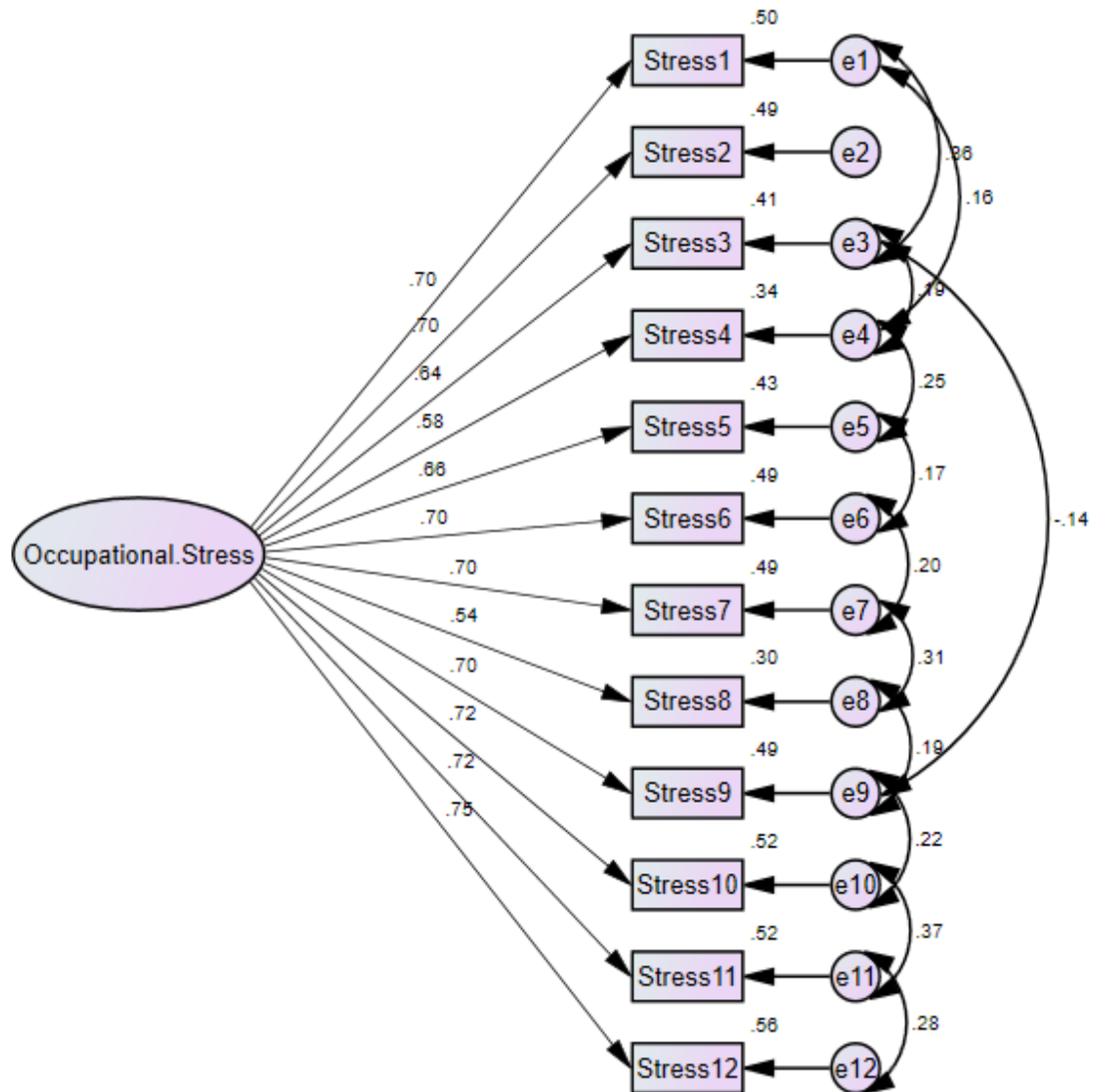
Figure 17. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of OS scale obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

CFA for Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

OCBS has been operationalized by two independent dimensions namely OCBI and OCBO. Factorial structure of this scale's both dimensions is confirmed by CFA through AMOS 20. Tables 41 and 42 show fit indices of the model and factor loadings.

Table 41

Step Wise Model Fit Indices for CFA of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale (N =450)

Models	χ^2	df	Fit Indices					$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf
			GFI	AGFI	CFI	NFI	RMSEA		
Model 1 (16 items, First Order, Independent errors)									
	536.68	103	.87	.83	.74	.70	.10	-	-
Model 2 (16 items, Errors are allowed to covary)									
	185.10	90	.95	.93	.94	.90	.05	351.58***	13

***p< .001

OCB's first order CFA's stepwise model fit indices are shown in Table 41. Model 1 shows original measurement model of OCB where 16 indicators are further sub-divided into two distinct domains of OCBO (8 indicators) and OCBI (8 indicators). Error variances of indicators, in the first model (model 1) where OCB is comprised of 16 items, were assumed to be independent of one another. Results in model 1, in table 41, showed unacceptable results with a *df* to chi-square ratio of 5.21, along with other measures of model fit. These unsatisfactory results suggest that data of the sample did not support model 1. Therefore, the second order model was re-specified with 14 items because there were two item that showed factor loading falling below .30 and in Model 2, error variances were allowed to covary. Other measures of model fit also supported that sample data demonstrate better fit to model 2 as compared to model 1 as the values of *GFI, AGFI, CFI* and *NFI* were above .90, representing an excellent fit of model. Findings obtained in model 2 were acceptable with a *df* to chi square ratio of 2.06. Chi square difference test ($\Delta\chi_2$= 351.58, *p* < .001) also suggested that the model 2 is better than model 1.

Table 42

Standardized Factor Loadings of Individualized and Organizational Citizenship Behavior by Confirmatory Factor Analysis (N =450)

Items	Factors	
	OCBI	OCBO
1	.53	
2	.62	
3	.78	
4	.56	
5	26	
6	.27	
7	.36	
8	.47	
9		.30
10		.44
11		.44
12		.46
13		.54
14		.70
15		.65
16		.59

Note. OCBI= Organizational citizenship behavior towards individual and OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior towards organization.

Table 42 showed the standardized factor loadings for the independent dimensions of OCBI and OCBO items of OCBS. All items had standardized loadings

above .30 except item no. 5 and item no.6. Both of these items have standardized factor loadings close to cut of criteria of .30. Furthermore, deletion of these items was not contributing to the reliability of the scale. Therefore, these items are retained in further analysis.
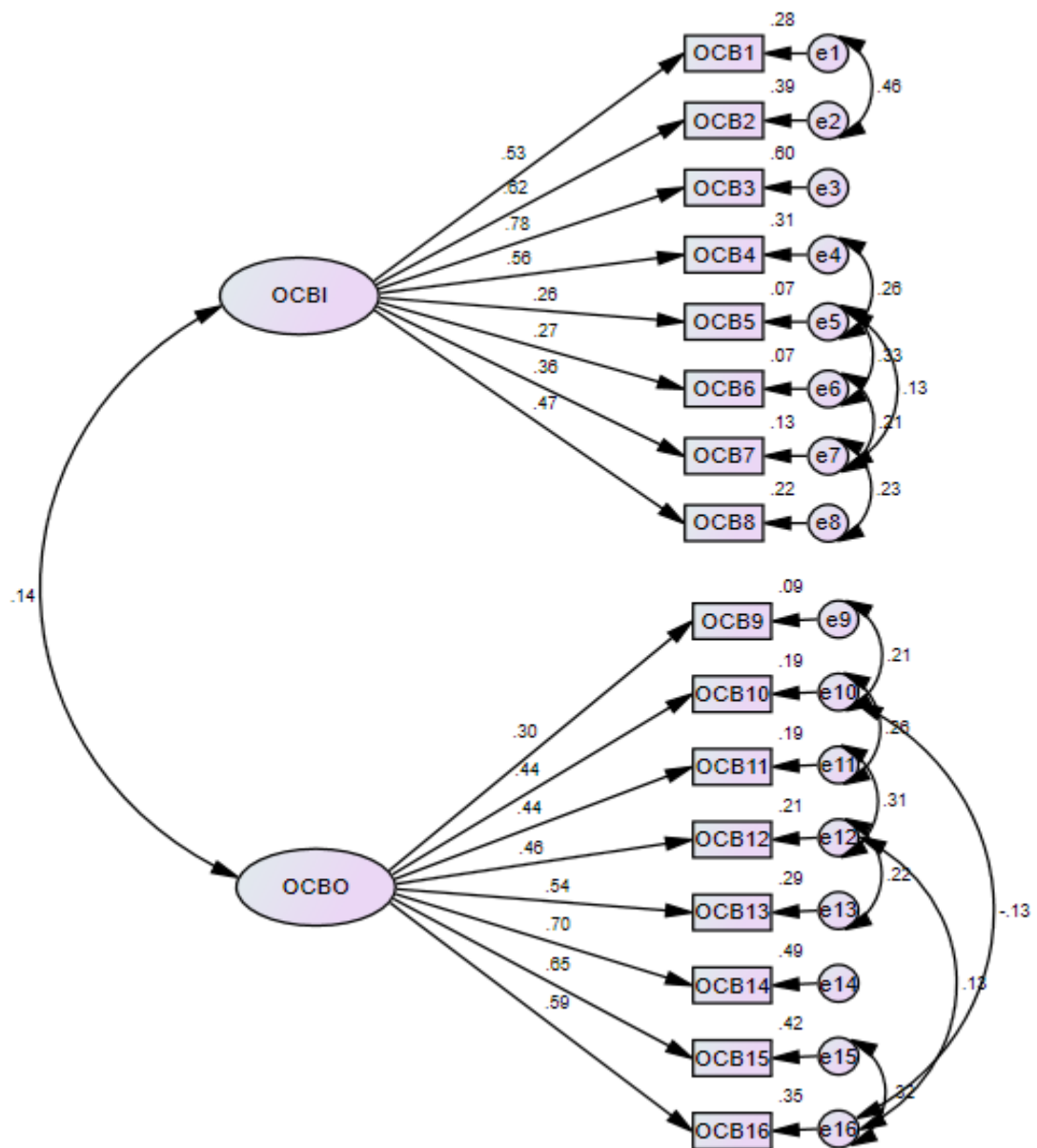
Figure 18. Model Fit structure with standardized factor loadings of OCBI and OCBO obtained through Confirmatory Factor Analysis.

Part II: Descriptive and Reliability Analysis

Descriptive analysis was computed in order to get an overview of the data of this study. It included computation of Cronbach alpha reliability estimates of the scale, mean, standard deviation, range, skewness and kurtosis scores.

Table 43

Descriptive Statistics and Cronbach's Alpha Reliabilities of the Scales Used in the Current Study (N = 450)

Scale	No. of Items	α	M	SD	Range		Sk	Ku
					Potential	Actual		
POPS	13	.86	45.83	9.53	13-65	19-64	-.79	-.27
SPOS	6	.71	28.91	7.07	6-42	6-42	-.52	.48
MLQ	19	.90	67.42	13.47	19-95	19-95	-.41	.23
ILOCS	7	.76	37.63	6.43	7-49	10-49	-1.15	1.78
ACS	6	.72	23.73	3.17	6-30	17-30	.12	-.87
NCS	6	.68	24.11	2.96	6-30	17-30	.07	-.69
IRBS (Self. R)	7	.77	40.89	6.60	7-49	11-49	-1.10	1.69
OCBI	8	.75	28.40	5.54	8-40	10-40	-.41	.25
OCBO	8	.77	30.44	5.51	8-40	12-40	-.59	.23
TOS	3	.85	9.70	5.06	3-21	3-21	.51	-.99
OSS	12	.92	36.52	11.17	12-60	12-60	-.10	-.81

Note. POPS = Perceived organizational politics scale, SPOS = Survey of perceived organizational support, MLQ = Multifactor leadership inventory, ILOCS = Internal locus of control scale, ACS = Affective commitment sub-scale, NCS= Normative commitment sub-scale, IRBS (Self. R) = In-role behavior scale (self-rated), OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individual, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, TOS = Turnover intention scale, OSS = Occupational stress scale, α = Cronbach alpha, M = Mean, SD = Standard deviation = Skewness, Ku = Kurtosis

Results in Table 43 shows values of mean, standard deviation, kurtosis, skewness and alpha coefficient. All the scales fall into an acceptable range of

reliability, ranging from .68, minimum, to .92 maximum. In the light of various researches, Murphy and Davidshofer (2001) consider only those reliability estimates that fall below .60 as unacceptably low. These reliability estimates shows that all the instruments selected for this study are internally consistent and validates the operationalization of the study constructs. Standard deviation scores of the variables were neither too high nor too low. These low to moderate levels of scores for standard deviations support the view that mean values were acceptable representatives of the constructs under study. Values of kurtosis and skewness also fall into an acceptable range.

Part III: Hypothesis Testing

This part deals with the analysis of proposed relationships among the study variables. At first, it includes correlational analysis to assess the relationship of POP, POS, transformational leadership and ILOC with their job outcomes. Furthermore, this part also includes multiple regression analysis to assess moderating role of POP. It was hypothesized that POP will moderate the relationship of POS, transformational leadership and ILOC with their attitudinal and behavioral job outcomes such that it will weaken their relationship. The demographic variables of age and job experience were included as control variables in the multiple regression analysis.

Before assessing the moderating role of perceived organizational politics, Pearson product moment correlation and multiple regression analysis was computed to get an overview about the proposed direction of relationship between predictor variables and their criterion variables. After getting that insight, moderating role of perceived organizational politics was computed through multiple regression analysis.

Furthermore, mediational analysis was also computed to see if POP acts as a mediating variable where its moderating role was not found significant.

Table 44

Interscale Correlations among Study Variables (N = 450)

Scales	POPS	SPOS	MLQ	ILOCS	ACS	NCS	IRBS (Self. R)	OCBI	OCBO	TOS	OSS
POPS	-										
SPOS	-.34**	-									
MLQ	-.25**	.43**	-								
ILOCS	-.07	.26**	.17**	-							
ACS	-.29**	.26**	.30**	.07	-						
NCS	-.12*	.17**	.20**	.08	.64**	-					
IRBS (Self. R)	-.15**	.19**	.30**	.14**	.34**	.19**	-				
OCBI	-.005	-.07	.03	-.004	-.03	.002	.15**	-			
OCBO	-.29**	.32**	.40**	.31**	.23**	.19**	.34**	.18**	-		
TOS	.24**	-.24**	-.18**	-.07	-.33**	-.25**	-.13**	.01	-.17**	-	
OSS	.32**	-.22**	-.28**	.07	-.39**	-.27**	-.35**	.12**	-.31**	.35**	-

Note. POPS = Perceived organizational politics scale, SPOS = Survey of perceived organizational support, MLQ = Multifactor leadership inventory, ACS = Affective commitment scale, ILOCS = Internal locus of control scale, NCS= Normative commitment scale, IRBS (Self-R) = In-role behavior scale (self-rated), OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individual, TOS = Turnover intention scale, OSS = Occupational stress scale, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization,

p*< .05, p**< .001

Table 44 shows that POP has a positive relationship with occupational stress and turnover intention while it with POS, transformational leadership, AC, NC, IRB (self-perceived) and OCBO was found to be negative in direction. Results showed a non-significant relationship of POP with ILOC and OCBI. The relationship of POS with transformational leadership, ILOC, AC, NC, IRB (self-perceived) and OCBO was found to be positive, while results demonstrated an inverse relationship of POS with POP, occupational stress and turnover intention. Its relationship with OCBI was not found to be significant. Results of correlational analysis showed transformational leadership to have a positive relationship with POS, ILOC, AC, NC, IRB (self-perceived) and OCBO, while results demonstrated an inverse relationship of transformational leadership with POP, occupational stress and turnover intention. Its relationship with OCBI was not found to be significant. ILOC was found to be positively related to POS, transformational leadership, IRB (self-perceived) and OCBO while it did not show a significant relationship with POP, AC, NC, OCBI, turnover intention and occupational stress.

Multiple Regression Analysis

Hypotheses of this study were tested through hierarchical regression analyses. Before going for hierarchical regression, it was necessary to know the nature of predictive relationships between predictor and criterion variables of this study. To verify those proposed predictive relationships, multiple regression analysis was conducted.

Table 45

Multiple Regression Analyses for Predictors of Affective and Normative Organizational Commitment (N = 450)

Predictors	AC		NC	
	ΔR^2	B	ΔR^2	β
Step I	.01		.01	
Control				
Step II	16***		.06***	
POP		-.22***		-.06
POS	.	.11*		.08
TL		.22***		.16**
ILOC		.003		.03
Total R^2	.17***		.07***	

Note. NC = Normative organizational commitment, AC = affective organizational commitment, TL = transformational leadership, POP = perceived organizational politics, Control variables = Age and Job experience

*p < .05, **p <.01, ***p < .001.

Table 45 shows that age and job experience did not add any unique variance in AC (criterion variable). It also suggested that POS (*b* = .34, *t* = 2.10, *p* = .03) and transformational leadership (*b* = .68, *t* = 4.40, *p* = .000) predicted AC in positive direction. POP (*b* = -.70, *t* = 4.74, *p* = .000) predicted AC of university teachers in negative direction. On the other hand, ILOC did not show a significant relationship with AC among university teachers (*b* = .01, *t* = .06, *p* = .95). Overall, POP, POS, transformational leadership, and ILOC explained 16% variance in AC {ΔR^2 = .16, ΔF (2, 447) = 15.51, *p* = .000}.

Table 45 shows that age and job experience did not add any unique variance in NC (criterion variable). It also suggested that transformational leadership ($b = .48$, $t = 3.13$, $p = .002$) predicted NC in positive direction. On the other hand, POP ($b = -.19$, $t = 1.27$, $p = .20$), POS ($b = .24$, $t = 1.50$, $p = .13$), and ILOC ($b = .08$, $t = 0.58$, $p = .56$) did not show a significant relationship with NC among university teachers. Overall, POP, POS, transformational leadership, and ILOC explained 6% variance NC $\{\Delta R^2 = .06$, $\Delta F (4, 443) = 5.74$, $p = .000\}$.

Table 46

Multiple Regression Analyses for Predictors of In-Role Job Performance and Organizational Citizenship Behavior (N = 450)

Predictors	IRB		OCBI		OCBO	
	ΔR^2	B	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β
Step I	.02*		.03**		.01	
Control						
Step II	.11***		.01		.25***	
POP		-.07		-.04		-.17***
POS		.02		-.12*		.08
TL		.27***		.09		.28***
ILOC		.09		.01		.23***
Total R^2	.12***		.05**		.26***	

Note. OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals, IRB = In-role job performance, TL = Transformational leadership, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, Control variables = Age and Job experience

**p<.01, ***p< .001

Table 46 shows that age and job experience added a unique variance in the criterion variable of IRB {$\Delta R^2 = .02$, ΔF (2, 447) = 3.37, $p = .035$}. It also suggested that among all the predictors, only transformational leadership, with 11% explained variance {$\Delta R^2 = .11$, ΔF (4, 443) = 13.57, $p = .000$}, predicted IRB in positive direction ($b = 1.77$, $t = 5.32$, $p = .000$). Overall, the final model showed 12% explained variance in self-rated job performance {$R^2 = .12$, F (6, 443) = 10.30, $p = .000$}.

Table 46 also demonstrated that control variables of age and job experience explained a unique variance of 3% {$\Delta R^2 = .03$, ΔF (2, 447) = 7.35, $p = .001$} in OCBI. It also suggested that among all the predictors, only POS predicted OCBI negatively ($b = --.69$, $t = 2.27$, $p = .02$), however, this model failed in explaining any unique variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .01$, ΔF (4, 443) = 1.56, $p = .18$}. Overall, the final model explained 4.5% variance in OCBI {$R^2 = .045$, F (6, 443) = 3.50, $p = .002$}.

Finally, Table 46 demonstrated that control variables of age and job experience did not explain any unique variance {$\Delta R^2 = .01$, ΔF (2, 447) = 2.90, $p = .056$} in OCBO. It also suggested that transformational leadership ($b = 1.51$, $t = 5.96$, $p = .000$) and ILOC ($b = 1.25$, $t = 5.36$, $p = .000$) predicted OCBO positively whereas organizational politics predicted it negatively ($b = -.95$, $t = 3.95$, $p = .000$). The model explained unique variance of 25% in it {$\Delta R^2 = .25$, ΔF (4, 443) = 37.23, $p = .000$}. Overall, all the predictors explained 26% variance in OCBO {$R^2 = .26$, F (6, 443) = 26.10, $p = .000$}.

Table 47

Multiple Regression Analyses for Predictors of Turnover Intention and Occupational

Stress (N = 450)

Predictors	TOI		OS	
	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	B
Step I	.03***		.03***	
Control				
Step II	.10***		.15***	
POP		.19***		.24***
POS		-.13*		-.09
TL		-.11*		-.19***
ILOC		-.01		.14**
Total R^2	.13***		.18***	

Note. TOI = Turnover intention, OS = Occupational stress, TL = Transformational leadership, POP =

Perceived Organizational Politics, Control variables = Age and Job experience

*$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p< .001$

Table 47 shows that age and job experience added a unique variance in the

criterion variable of turnover intentions {$\Delta R^2 = .02$, $\Delta F (2, 447) = 7.89$, $p = .000$}. It

also suggested that transformational leadership ($b = -.55$, $t = 2.18$, $p = .03$) and

organizational support ($b = -.66$, $t = 2.52$, $p = .01$) predicted turnover intentions

negatively whereas POP predicted it positively ($b = .94$, $t = 3.92$, $p = .000$). The

model successfully explained around 10% variance in employees' turnover intention

{$\Delta R^2 = .10$, $\Delta F (4, 443) = 13.19$, $p = .000$}. Overall, all the predictors explained 13%

variance in turnover intentions {$R^2 = .14$, $F (6, 443) = 11.71$, $p = .000$}.

Table 47 also demonstrated that control variables of age and job experience

explained a unique variance of 3% {$\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F (2, 447) = 7.89$, $p = .00$} in

occupational stress. It also suggested that organizational politics ($b = 2.67$, $t = 5.19$, p

= .000) and ILOC predicted occupational stress positively (b = 1.54, t = 3.09, p = .002) whereas transformational leadership predicted it in negatively (b = -2.11, t = 3.90, p = .000) and explained a unique variance of 15% in it {ΔR^2 = .15, ΔF (4, 443) = 20.60, p = .000}. Overall, all the predictors explained 19% variance in occupational stress {R^2 = .19, F (6, 443) = 16.84, p = .000}.

Hierarchical Regression Analysis

For testing the hypotheses of this study, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. In this study, hierarchical regression helped control the influence of age and job experience on the outcome variable. Furthermore, this analysis was instrumental in establishing unique variance that the interaction term of the predictor along with the moderating variables explained in outcome variables. Therefore, demographic variables were entered at first stage, the predictor variable was entered at second stage, moderating variable was entered at third stage, and the final step included the product term of the predictor and the moderator variable.

Table 48

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Affective Organizational Commitment and Normative Organizational Commitment from Perceived Organizational Politics and Perceived Organizational Support (N = 450)

Variable	AC		NC	
	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	B
Step I				
Control	.01		.01	
Step II				
POS	.08***	.28***	.03***	.18***
Step III				
POS		.20***		.15**
POP	.05***	-.24***	.005	-.08
Step IV				
POS		.20***		.16**
POP		-.21***		-.07
POS × POP	.01*	-.11*	.002	-.05
R^2	.15***		.05***	

Note. NC = Normative Organizational Commitment, AC = Affective organizational commitment, POS = Perceived organizational Support, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, Control variables = Age and Job experience

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p< .001*

Table 48 shows that age and job experience did not add any unique variance in the criterion variables of AC and NC. It also suggested that POS explained 8% variance in AC and positively predicted AC $\{\Delta R^2 = .08, \Delta F (1, 446) = 36.70, p = .000\}$. POP explained 5% variance in AC and positively predicted AC $\{\Delta R^2 = .05, \Delta F (1, 445) = 26.93, p = .000\}$. The interaction term of POP and POS, in the third step, add a unique variance of 1% in predicting AC $\{\Delta R^2 = .01, \Delta F (1, 444) = 5.67, p = $

.018}. Overall, POP, POS, and their interaction explained 15% variance AC $\{R^2 = .15, F (5, 444) = 15.64, p = .000\}$.

Table 48 also suggested that POS explained 3% variance in AC and positively predicted NC $\{\Delta R^2 = .03, \Delta F (1, 446) = 14.86, p = .000\}$. Organizational politics did not predict NC of university teachers. The interaction term of POP and POS, in the third step, did not add any unique variance in predicting NC. Overall, POP, POS, and their interaction explained 5% variance AC $\{R^2 = .05, F (5, 444) = 4.76, p = .000\}$.
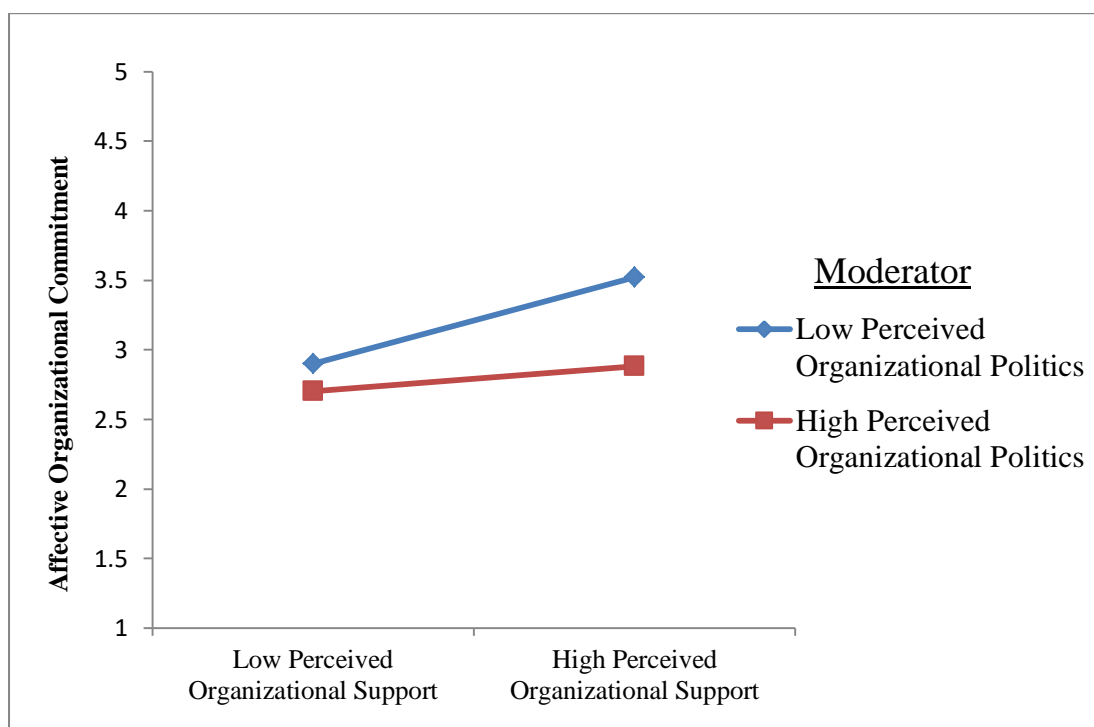
Figure 19. Moderating effect of POP in the relationship of perceived organizational support and affective organizational commitment.

Figure 19 shows that POP has moderated the relationship of POS and AC to the organization of university teachers such that it has decreased their AC to the organization. When the level of POP is low, AC is high with high POS and the relationship is significant and positive (*b*= .28, 95% CI [.15, .41], *p*= .000). On the

other hand, when the level of POP is high, AC is decreased even with high POS and the relationship becomes non-significant (b= .09, 95% CI [-.03, .21], p= .14). The difference in slope values verifies that POP has moderated the relationship significantly.

Table 49

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting In-Role Job Performance, Organizational Citizenship Behavior toward Individuals and Organizational Citizenship Behavior toward Organization from Perceived Organizational Politics and POS *(N = 450)*

Variable	IRB		OCBI		OCBO	
	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	B
Step I						
Control	.01		.03**		.02**	
Step II						
POS	.03***	.19***	.005	-.07	.09***	.31***
Step III						
POS		.16***		-.09		.24***
POP	.01	-.09	.002	-.05	.03***	-.20***
Step IV						
POS		.17**		-.09		.24***
POP		-.04		-.03		-.20***
POS × POP	.03***	-.20***	.004	-.06	.001	.03
R^2	.09***		.04**		.15***	

Note. IRB = In-role job performance, OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, POS = Perceived organizational Support, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, Control variables = Age and Job experience

**p<.01, ***p< .001

Table 49 shows that age and job experience did not add any unique variance in the criterion variable of IRB. These demographic variables added a unique variance of 3% and 2% in OCBI and OCBO respectively. It also suggested that POS positively predicted IRB and explained 3% variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F\ (1, 446) = 16.29$, $p = .000$}. Organizational politics did not predict IRB of university teachers, explaining no variance in it. In third step, the interaction term of organizational politics and POS was found significant and did add a unique variance of 3% in the prediction of IRB {$\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F\ (1, 444) = 17.16$, $p = .000$}. Overall, organizational politics, POS, and their interaction explained 9% variance in IRB {$R^2 = .09$, $F\ (5, 444) = 8.85$, $p = .000$}.

Table 49 also suggested that both POS and POP did not predict OCBI of university teachers. In third step, the interaction term of organizational politics and POS was also found to be non-significant and it did not add any unique variance in predicting OCBI among university teachers. Overall, organizational politics, POS, and their interaction explained 4% variance OCBI {$R^2 = .04$, $F\ (5, 444) = 3.84$, $p = .002$}.

Table 49 also suggested that POS predicted OCBO in positive direction explaining about 9% variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .09$, $\Delta F\ (1, 446) = 46.41$, $p = .000$}. Organizational politics also predicted OCBO of university teachers I negative direction, explaining 3% variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .03$, $\Delta F\ (1, 445) = 17.75$, $p = .000$}. The interaction term of POP and POS, in the third step, did not add any unique variance in predicting OCBO. Overall, organizational politics, POS, and their interaction explained 15% variance OCBO {$R^2 = .15$, $F\ (5, 444) = 15.72$, $p = .000$}.

Figure 20. Moderating effect of Perceived Organizational Politics between Perceived Organizational Support and In-Role Job Performance.

Figure 20 show that POP has moderated the relationship of POS and IRB (self-perceived) of university teachers such that it has decreased their IRB (self-perceived). When the level of POP is low, IRB (self-perceived) is high with high POS and the relationship is significantly positive (*b*= .34, 95% CI [.21, .47], *p*= .000). On the other hand, when the level of POP is high, IRB (self-perceived) is even decreased even with high POS and the relationship becomes non-significant (*b*= -.02, 95% CI [-.14, .10], *p*= .76). The difference in slope values verifies that POP has moderated the relationship significantly.

Table 50

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Turnover Intention and Occupational Stress from Perceived Organizational Politics and Perceived Organizational Support (N = 450)

Variable	TOI		OS	
	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β
Step I				
Control	.03**		.03***	
Step II				
POS	.06***	-.25***	.05***	-.22***
Step III				
POS		-.18***		-.13**
POP	.03***	.20***	.06***	.26***
Step IV				
POS		-.18***		-.13**
POP		.20***		.25***
POS × POP	.000	.01	.002	.05
R^2	.13***		.14***	

Note. TOI = Turnover intention, OS = Occupational stress, POS = Perceived organizational Support, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, Control variables = Age and Job experience
**p<.01, ***p< .001

Table 50 shows that age and job experience did add a unique variance of 3% and 3% in the criterion variable of turnover intention and occupational stress respectively. It also suggested that POS predicted turnover intention in negative direction explaining 6% variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .06, \Delta F (1, 446) = 29.34, p = .000$}. POP also predict turnover intention of university teachers in positive direction, explaining 3% variance in it {$R^2 = .03, F (5, 445) = 17.41, p = .000$}. In third step, the interaction term of organizational politics and POS was also found to be non-significant and it did not add any unique variance in predicting turnover intention. Overall, organizational politics, POS , and their interaction explained 13% variance turnover intention {$R^2 = .13, F (5, 444) = 12.84, p = .000$}.

Table 50 suggested that POS predicted occupational stress in negative direction explaining 5% variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .05, \Delta F (1, 446) = 22.82, p = .000$}. POP also predict turnover intention of university teachers in positive direction, explaining 6% variance in it {$R^2 = .06, F (5, 445) = 31.47, p = .000$}. The interaction term of POP and POS, in the third step, did not add any unique variance in predicting turnover intention. Overall, organizational politics, POS, and their interaction explained 14% variance turnover intention {$R^2 = .14, F (5, 444) = 14.80, p = .000$}.

Table 51

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Affective Organizational Commitment and Normative Organizational Commitment from Perceived Organizational Politics and Transformational Leadership (N = 450)

Variable	AC			NC	
	ΔR^2	β		ΔR^2	β
Step I					
Control	.01			.01	
Step II					
TL	.10***	.31***		.05***	.21***
Step III					
TL		.26***			.20***
POP	.06***	-.25***		.01	-.08
Step IV					
TL		.24***			.19***
POP		-.22***			-.07
TL × POP	.02***	-.14**		.004	-.07
R^2	.19***			.07***	

Note. AC = Affective organizational commitment, NC = Normative Organizational Commitment, TL = Transformational Leadership, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, Control variables = Age and Job experience
**p<.01, ***p< .001

Table 51 shows that age and job experience did not add any unique variance in the criterion variables of AC and NC. It also suggested that Transformational

leadership positively predicted AC and explained 10% variance in it {ΔR^2 = .10, ΔF (1, 446) = 48.88, p = .000}. Organizational politics did negatively predict AC of university teachers and explained 6% variance in it {ΔR^2 = .06, ΔF (1, 445) = 30.51, p = .000}. The interaction term of POP and TL, in the third step, add 2% unique variance in predicting AC {ΔR^2 = .02, ΔF (1, 444) = 10.55, p = .001}. Overall, POP, transformational leadership, and their interaction explained 19% variance in organizational commitment {R^2 = .19, F (5, 444) = 20.26, p = .000}.

Table 51 also suggested that TL positively predicted NC and explained 5% variance in it {ΔR^2 = .05, ΔF (1, 446) = 21.55, p = .000}. Organizational politics did not predict NC of university teachers. The interaction term of POP and TL, in the third step, did not add any unique variance in predicting NC. Overall, organizational politics, POS, and their interaction explained 7% variance AC {R^2 = .07, F (5, 444) = 6.47, p = .000.
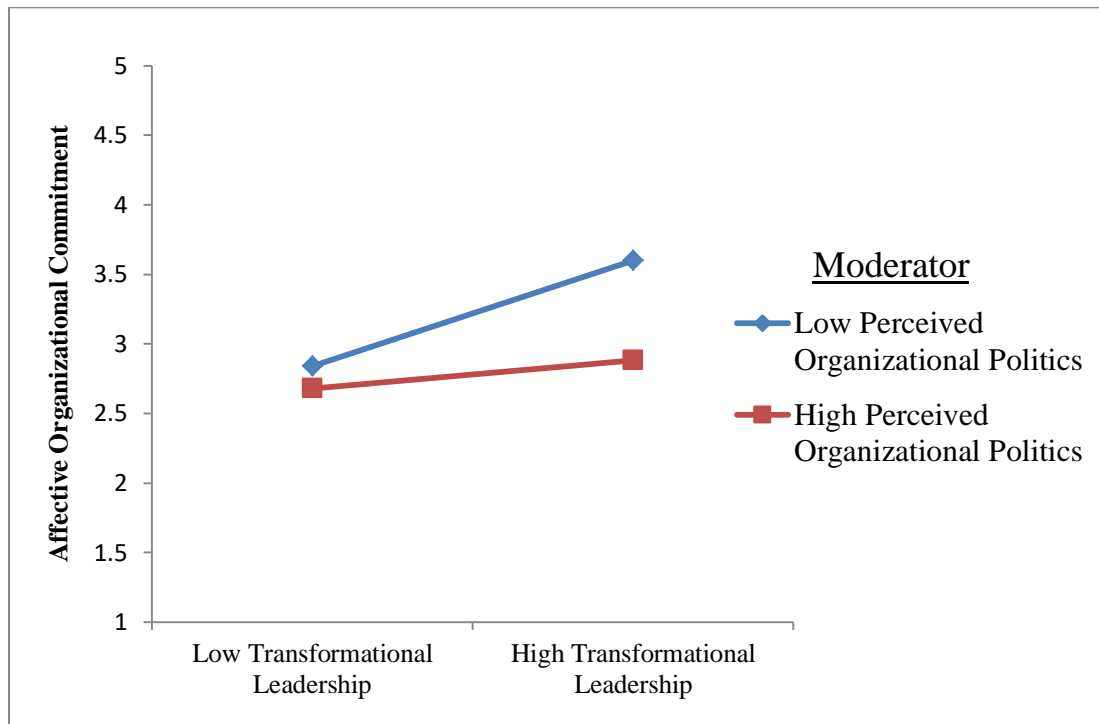
Figure 21. Moderating effect of Transformational Leadership between Perceived Organizational Politics and Affective Organizational Commitment

Figure 21 shows that POP has moderated the relationship of TL and AC to the organization of university teachers such that it has decreased their AC to the organization. When the level of POP is low, AC is high with high TL and the relationship is significant and positive ($b= .35$, 95% CI [.24, .47], $p= .000$). On the other hand, when the level of POP is high, AC is decreased even with high TL and the relationship becomes non-significant ($b= .09$, 95% CI [-.03, .21], $p= .14$). The difference in slope values verifies that POP has moderated the relationship significantly.

Table 52

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting In-Role Job Performance, Organizational Citizenship Behavior toward Individuals and Organizational Citizenship Behavior toward Organization from Perceived Organizational Politics and Transformational Leadership (N = 450)

Variable	IRB		OCBI		OCBO	
	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β
Step I						
Control	.01		.03**		.02**	
Step II						
TL	.10***	.31***	.002	.04	.14***	.39***
Step III						
TL		.30***		-.01		.34***
POP	.005	-.08	.000	-.05	.04***	-.20***
Step IV						
TL		.28***		.03		.34***
POP		-.05		.01		-.20***
TL × POP	.02**	-.13**	.01	-.09	.000	-.001
R^2	.13***		.04**		.20***	

Note. OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, TL = Transformational leadership, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individuals, IRB = In-role job performance, Control variables = Age and Job experience

**p<.01, ***p< .001

Table 52 shows that age and job experience did not add any unique variance in the criterion variable of IRB. These demographic variables added a unique variance of 3% and 2% in OCBI and OCBO respectively. It also suggested that Transformational

leadership positively predicted IRB and explained 10% variance in it $\{\Delta R^2 = .10, \Delta F$ (1, 446) = 48.05, $p = .000\}$. Organizational politics did not predict IRB of university teachers. The interaction term of POP and TL, in the third step, add 2% unique variance in predicting IRB $\{\Delta R^2 = .02, \Delta F (1, 444) = 8.82, p = .001\}$. Overall, organizational politics, transformational leadership, and their interaction explained 13% variance in job performance $\{R^2 = .13, F (5, 444) = 13.46, p = .000\}$.

Table 52 also suggested that neither transformational leadership predicted neither OCBI nor POP predicted OCBI of university teachers. The interaction term of POP and TL, in the third step, add no variance in predicting OCBI among university teachers. Overall, organizational politics, transformational leadership, and their interaction explained 4% variance OCBI $\{R^2 = .04, F (5, 444) = 3.76, p = .002\}$.

Table 52 also suggested that transformational leadership positively predicted OCBO and explained 14% variance in it $\{\Delta R^2 = .14, \Delta F (1, 446) = 78.09, p = .000\}$. POP also negatively predicted OCBO of university teachers and explained 4% variance in it $\{\Delta R^2 = .04, \Delta F (1, 445) = 20.06, p = .000\}$. The interaction term of POP and TL, in the third step, add no variance in predicting OCBO among university teachers. Overall, organizational politics, POS, and their interaction explained 20% variance OCBO $\{R^2 = .20, F (5, 444) = 22.91, p = .000\}$.
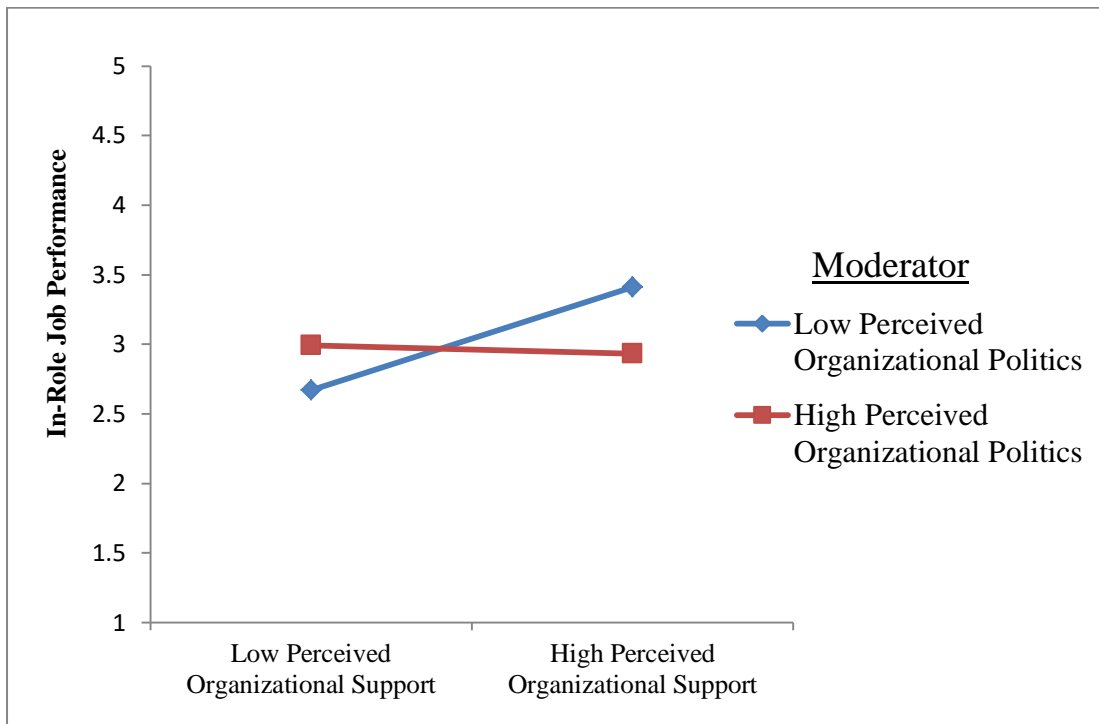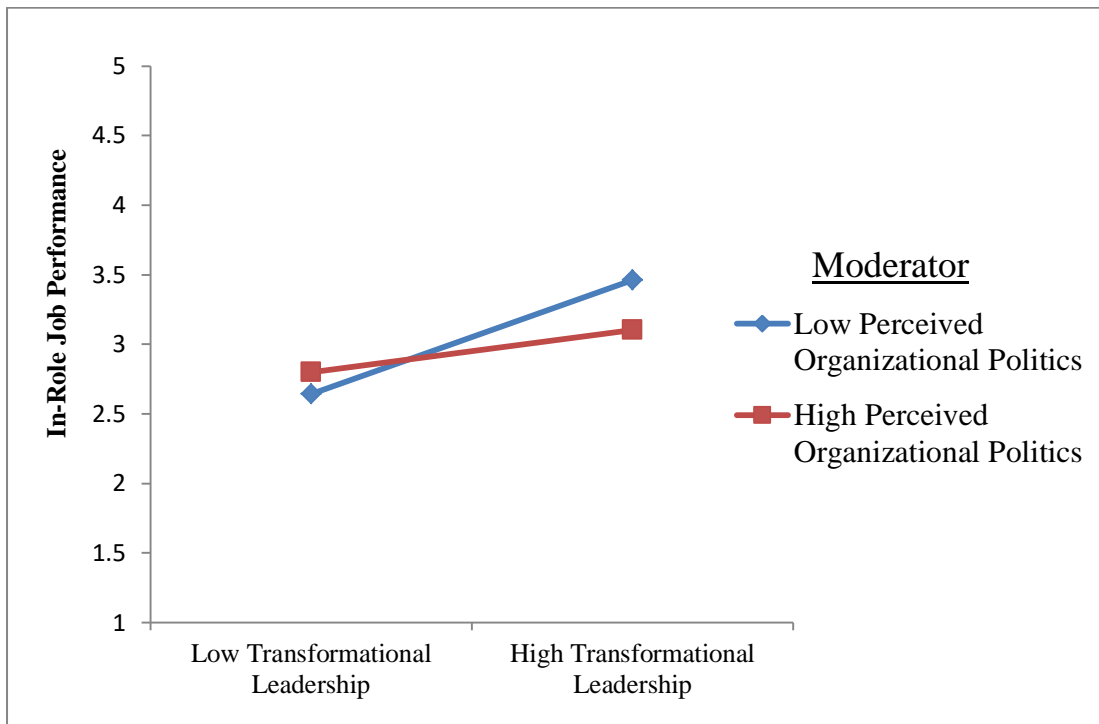
Figure 22. Moderating effect of Perceived Organizational Politics between Transformational Leadership and In-Role Job Performance

Figure 22 show that POP has moderated the relationship of TL and IRB (self-perceived) of university teachers such that it has decreased their IRB (self-perceived). When the level of POP is low, IRB (self-perceived) is high with high TL and the relationship is significantly positive (b= .41, 95% CI [.29, .52], p= .000). On the other hand, when the level of POP is high, IRB (self-perceived) is even decreased even with high TL (b= .17, 95% CI [.04, .29], p= .01). The difference in slope values verifies that POP has moderated the relationship significantly.

Table 53

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Turnover Intention and Occupational Stress from Perceived Organizational Politics and Perceived Organizational Support (N = 450)

Variable	TOI			OS	
	ΔR^2	β		ΔR^2	β
Step I					
Control	.03**			.03**	
Step II					
TL	.04***	-.21***		.07***	-.27***
Step III					
TL		-.16**			-.20***
POP	.04***	.22***		.06***	.26***
Step IV					
TL		-.15**			-.18***
POP		.20***			.22***
TL × POP	.01*	.11*		.03***	.19***
R^2	.13***			.20***	

Note. TOI = Turnover intention, OS = Occupational stress, TL = Transformational leadership, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, Control variables = Age and Job experience

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p< .001

      Table 53 shows that age and job experience did add a unique variance of 3% and 3% in the criterion variable of turnover intention and occupational stress respectively. It also suggested that transformational leadership predicted turnover intention in negative direction and explained 4% variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .04, \Delta F (1, 446) = 20.87, p = .000$}. POP did positively predict turnover intention of university

teachers explaining about 4% variance in it $\{\Delta R^2 = .04, \Delta F (1, 445) = 22.84, p = .000\}$. The interaction term of POP and TL, in the third step, add 1% variance in predicting turnover intention among university teachers $\{\Delta R^2 = .01, \Delta F (1, 444) = 5.62, p = .018\}$. Overall, POP, transformational leadership, and their interaction explained 14% variance in turnover intention $\{R^2 = .14, F (5, 444) = 13.48, p = .000\}$.

Table 53 also suggested that Transformational leadership negatively predicted occupational stress and explained 7% variance in it $\{\Delta R^2 = .07, \Delta F (1, 446) = 34.35, p = .000\}$. POP did positively predict occupational stress of university teachers and explained 6% variance in it $\{\Delta R^2 = .06, \Delta F (1, 445) = 33.07, p = .000\}$. The interaction term of POP and TL, in the third step, add 3% variance in predicting occupational stress among university teachers $\{\Delta R^2 = .03, \Delta F (1, 444) = 18.30, p = .000\}$. Overall, POP, transformational leadership, and their interaction explained 20% variance in occupational stress $\{R^2 = .20, F (5, 444) = 21.80, p = .000\}$.
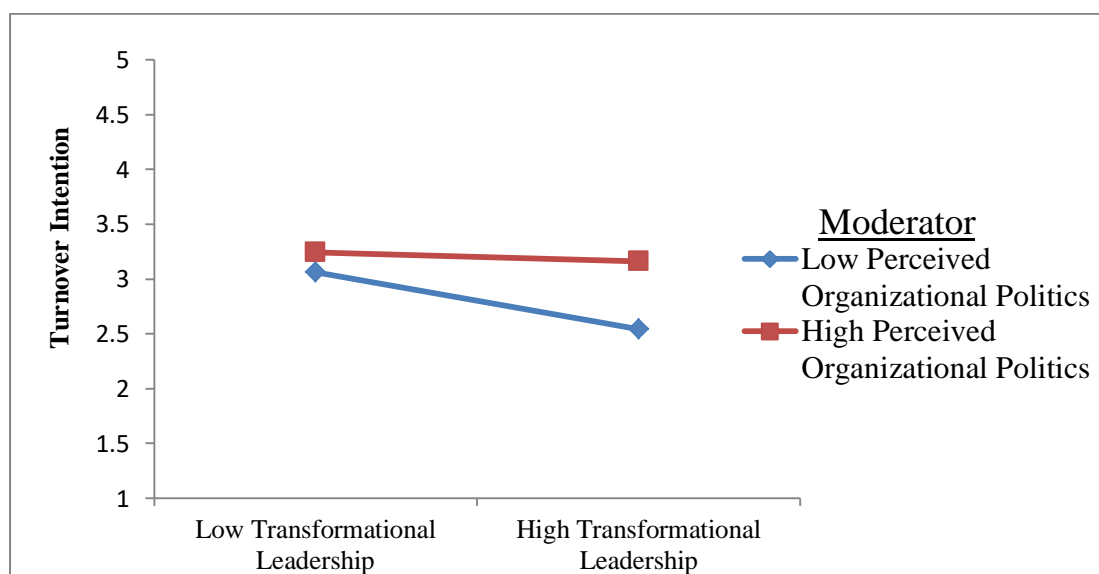
Figure 23. Moderating effect of Perceived Organizational Politics between Transformational Leadership and Turnover Intention

Figure 23 show that POP has moderated the relationship of TL and turnover intention of university teachers such that it has increased their turnover intention. When the level of POP is low, turnover intention is low with high TL ($b=$ -.22, 95% CI [-.34, -.11], $p=$ .000). On the other hand, when the level of POP is high, turnover intention is increased even with high TL ($b=$ -.02, 95% CI [-.15, .10], $p=$ .72). The difference in slope values verifies that POP has moderated the relationship significantly.
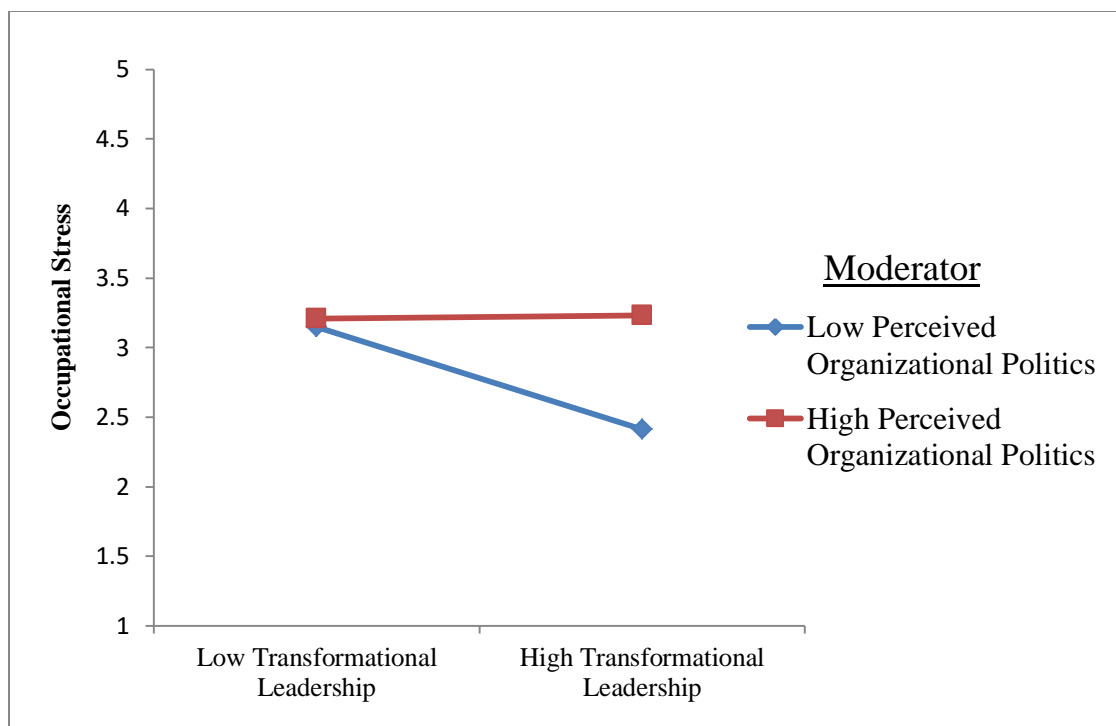
Figure 24. Moderating effect of Perceived Organizational Politics between Transformational Leadership and Occupational Stress

Figure 23 show that POP has moderated the relationship of TL and occupational stress of university teachers such that it has increased their occupational stress. When the level of POP is low, occupational stress is low with high TL ($b=$ -.36, 95% CI [-.47, -.25], $p=$ .000). On the other hand, when the level of POP is high, occupational stress is increased even with high TL ($b=$ -.04, 95% CI [-.16, .08], $p=$

.56). The difference in slope values verifies that POP has moderated the relationship significantly.

Table 54

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Affective Organizational Commitment and Normative organizational Commitment from Perceived Organizational Politics and Internal Locus of Control (N = 450)

Variable	AC			NC	
	ΔR^2	β		ΔR^2	β
Step I					
Control	.01			.01	
Step II					
ILOC	.01	.08		.01	.08
Step III					
ILOC		.06			.07
POP	.09***	-.30***		.02**	-.13**
Step IV					
ILOC		.10*			.09
POP		-.30***			-.12*
ILOC × POP	.03***	-.18***		.01	-.08
R^2	.14***			.04**	

Note. NC = Normative Organizational Commitment, AC = Affective organizational commitment, ILOC = Internal locus of control, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, Control variables = Age and Job experience

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p< .001*

Table 54 shows that age and job experience did not add any unique variance in the criterion variables of AC and NC. It also suggested that ILOC did not predict AC among university teachers and explained no variance in it. POP negatively predicted

AC and explained 9% variance in it $\{\Delta R^2 = .09, \Delta F (1, 445) = 45.67, p = .000\}$. The interaction term of POP and ILOC, in the third step, add 3% variance in predicting AC among university teachers $\{\Delta R^2 = .03, \Delta F (1, 444) = 15.70, p = .000\}$. Overall, POP, ILOC, and their interaction explained 14% variance in AC $\{R^2 = .14, F (5, 444) = 14.43, p = .000\}$.

Table 54 also suggested that ILOC did not predict NC. While POP negatively predicted NC among university teachers and explained 2% variance in it $\{R^2 = .02, F (5, 445) = 7.15, p = .008\}$. The interaction term of POP and ILOC, in the third step, add no variance in predicting NC among university teachers. Overall, POP, ILOC, and their interaction explained 4% variance AC $\{R^2 = .04, F (5, 444) = 3.59, p = .003\}$.
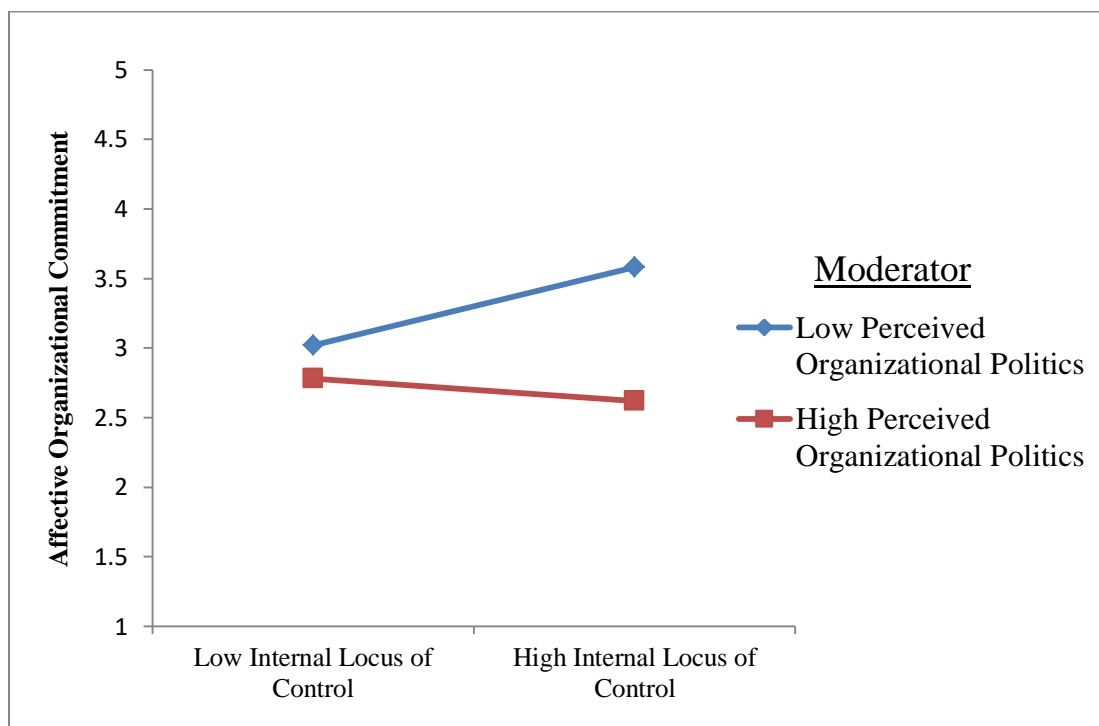
Figure 25. Moderating effect of Internal Locus of Control between Perceived Organizational Politics and Affective Organizational Commitment

Figure 25 shows that POP has moderated the relationship of ILOC and AC to the organization of university teachers such that it has decreased their AC to the

organization. When the level of POP is low, AC is high with high ILOC and the relationship is significant and positive (*b*= .28, 95% CI [.14, .43], *p*= .000). On the other hand, when the level of POP is high, AC is decreased even with high ILOC and the relationship becomes non-significant (*b*= -.10, 95% CI [-.21, .02], *p*= .12). The difference in slope values verifies that POP has moderated the relationship significantly.

Table 55

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting In-Role Job Performance, Organizational Citizenship Behavior toward Organization and Occupational Stress from Perceived Organizational Politics and Internal Locus of Control (N = 450)

Variable	IRB		OCBO		OS	
	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β
Step I						
Control	.01		.02**		.03**	
Step II						
ILOC	.02**	.14**	.09***	.30***	.004	.07
Step III						
ILOC		.14**		.28***		.09*
POP	.02**	-.14**	.07***	-.26***	.10***	.31***
Step IV						
ILOC		.15**		.29***		.07
POP		-.13**		-.26***		.31***
ILOC × POP	.004	-.07	.001	-.04	.004	.07
R^2	.06***		.18***		.14***	

Note. IRB = In-role job performance, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, OS = Occupational stress, ILOC = Internal locus of control, POP = Perceived Organizational Politics, Control variables = Age and Job experience

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p< .001*

Table 55 shows that age and job experience did not add any unique variance in the criterion variable of IRB. These demographic variables added a unique variance of

2% and 3% in OCBO and OS respectively. It also suggested that ILOC positively predicted IRB and explained 2% variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .02$, ΔF (1, 446) = 9.68, $p = .002$}. POP also predicted IRB of university teachers in negative direction, explaining 2% variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .02$, ΔF (1, 445) = 8.57, $p = .004$}. The interaction term of POP and ILOC, in the third step, added no variance in predicting IRB among university teachers. Overall, organizational politics, ILOC, and their interaction explained 9% variance in IRB {$R^2 = .06$, F (5, 444) = 5.35, $p = .000$}.

Table 55 also suggested that ILOC positively predicted OCBO and explained 9% variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .09$, ΔF (1, 446) = 45.02, $p = .000$}. Organizational politics also predicted OCBO of university teachers I negative direction, explaining 7% variance in it {$\Delta R^2 = .07$, ΔF (1, 445) = 35.53, $p = .000$}. The interaction term of POP and ILOC, in the third step, added no variance in predicting OCBO among university teachers. Overall, organizational politics, ILOC, and their interaction explained 18% variance OCBO {$R^2 = .18$, F (5, 444) = 19.51, $p = .000$}.

Table 55 also suggested that ILOC did not predict occupational stress. POP predicted turnover intention of university teachers in positive direction, explaining 10% variance in it {$R^2 = .10$, F (5, 445) = 49.33, $p = .000$}. The interaction term of POP and ILOC, in the third step, added no variance in predicting OS among university teachers. Overall, organizational politics, ILOC, and their interaction explained 14% variance occupational stress {$R^2 = .14$, F (5, 444) = 14.16, $p = .000$}.

Part IV: Demographic Analysis

This part explored the relationship of demographic variables, such as gender, educational level, geographic location and job status, with all the study variables. There are number of researches reporting mix findings about the relationship of gender (e.g., Bodla & Danish, 2008; Ferris, Frink, Bhawuk, et al., 1996; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992; Valle & Perrewe, 2000), educational level (e.g., Parker et al., 1995; Valle & Perrewe, 2000), geographic location (e.g., Bedi & Schat, 2013; Chang et al., 2009; Harris & Kacmar, 2005b) and job status (e.g., Ferris, Frink, Bhawuk, et al., 1996; Ferris, Frink, Galang, at al., 1996; Treadway et al., 2005) with POP . This study also intended to explore the relationship of these demographic variables with POP among university teachers in Pakistani context. Along with POP, this study also explored the relationship of these demographic variables with all the other variables of this study. Gender differences and differences in educational sector among all the study variables were computed through independent sample t-test. Mean differences in educational level, job status and geographic location among all the study variables were computed through one-way ANOVA.

Table 56

Mean differences in gender among variables of the Study (N = 450)

Variable	Males (*n* =278)		Females (*n* =172)		*t* (448)	*p*	95 CI		Cohen's *d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			*LL*	*UL*	
POP	46.70	8.49	44.43	10.88	2.33	.02	.35	4.18	.23
POS	28.78	6.98	29.10	7.22	.47	.64	-1.67	1.03	-
TL	66.42	12.89	69.04	14.26	2.01	.04	-5.18	-.06	.19
ILOCS	38.18	6.30	36.74	6.54	2.33	.02	.23	2.66	.22
AC	23.39	2.97	24.28	3.41	2.80	.005	-1.50	-.26	.28
NC	23.78	2.84	24.63	3.09	2.92	.004	-1.42	-.28	.29
IRBS (Self. R)	40.54	6.73	41.46	6.36	1.43	.15	-2.17	.34	-
OCBI	28.42	5.26	28.35	5.98	.13	.90	-.99	1.13	-
OCBO	30.53	5.39	30.28	5.70	,46	.65	-.81	1.29	.04
TOI	9.93	5.17	9.34	4.85	1.22	.22	-.36	1.54	-
OS	37.85	11.11	34.38	10.96	3.23	.001	1.36	5.57	.31

Note. POP = Perceived organizational politics, POS = Perceived organizational support, TL = Transformational Leadership, ILOCS = Internal Locus of control scale, AC = Affective organizational commitment, NC = Normative organizational commitment, IRBS (Self-R) = In-role behavior scale (self-rated), OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individual, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, TOI = Turnover Intention, OS = Occupational stress

Table 56 showed a significant mean difference on POP, transformational leadership, ILOC, AC, NC, OCBO and job stress. There was no significant mean difference found on POS, IRB, OCBI, and turnover intention. Female teachers scored lower on POP, ILOC and occupational stress as compared to their male counterparts.

On the other hand, male teachers scored lower than their female counterparts on transformational leadership, AC and NC.

Table 57

Mean differences in Educational Sector among variables of the Study (N = 450)

Variable	Public (*n* =309)		Private (*n* =141)		*t* (448)	*p*	95 CI		Cohen's *d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			*LL*	*UL*	
POP	45.15	9.91	47.31	8.47	2.24	.03	-4.05	-.26	.23
POS	29.14	7.23	28.38	6.70	1.08	.28	-.64	2.18	-
TL	67.53	14.08	67.18	12.09	.26	.80	-2.34	3.05	
ILOCS	37.17	6.52	38.64	6.11	2.27	.02	.23	2.66	.23
AC	24.13	3.20	22.86	2.94	3.99	.00	.64	1.89	.41
NC	24.29	3.04	23.72	2.75	1.90	.06	-.02	1.17	-
IRBS (Self. R)	41.04	6.64	40.57	6.54	.69	.49	-.85	1.78	-
OCBI	28.37	5.50	28.47	5.63	.18	.86	-1.21	1.00	-
OCBO	30.46	5.44	30.38	5.67	.14	.89	-1.02	1.18	-
TOI	9.15	4.86	10.92	5.28	3.50	.001	-2.77	-.78	.35
OS	35.34	11.39	39.11	10.26	3.36	.001	-5.98	-1.56	.35

Note. POP = Perceived organizational politics, POS = Perceived organizational support, TL = Transformational Leadership, ILOCS = Internal Locus of control scale, AC = Affective organizational commitment, NC = Normative organizational commitment, IRBS (Self-R) = In-role behavior scale (self-rated), OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individual, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, TOI = Turnover Intention, OS = Occupational stress

Table 57 shows significant mean differences on POP, ILOC, AC, turnover intention and occupational stress among university teachers. There was no significant mean difference found on POS, transformational leadership, NC, IRB, OCBI, and OCBO. Private university teachers reported higher scores on POP, ILOC, turnover intention and occupational stress as compared to public sector university teachers. On

the other hand, teachers from public sector universities scored higher on AC t as compared to their private sector counterparts.

Table 58

One-way Analysis of Variance for the Effect of Job Designation on variables of the study (N = 450)

Variable	Lecturer (*n* =238)		Assistant Professor (*n* =116)		Associate Professor (*n* =43)		Professor (*n* =53)		*F*	*p*	*ή*	*Tukey's Post Hoc*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*				
POP	45.31	9.87	46.00	9.34	46.30	9.01	47.43	8.75	.79	.50	.005	
POS	28.81	7.39	28.50	7.34	27.86	5.97	31.04	5.26	2.07	.10	.01	
TL	69.33	13.58	65.74	13.38	62.06	14.54	66.85	10.61	4.60	.004	.03	1>3
ILOCS	37.44	6.27	37.65	5.92	36.74	7.70	39.17	6.95	1.36	.25	.01	
AC	23.93	3.36	23.32	3.10	23.00	2.84	24.36	2.49	2.44	.06	.02	
NC	24.21	3.07	23.71	2.93	23.51	2.39	25.02	2.78	3.06	.03	.02	4>2
IRBS (Self. R)	41.77	5.97	41.10	6.44	38.37	8.92	38.55	6.57	5.95	.001	.04	1>3,1>4
OCBI	27.97	5.70	28.38	5.15	29.46	5.68	29.49	5.38	1.70	.17	.01	
OCBO	30.95	5.43	29.93	5.23	29.07	6.78	30.32	5.11	1.93	.12	.01	
TOI	10.13	5.18	10.28	4.92	8.65	4.70	7.38	4.35	5.59	.001	.04	1>4,2>4
OS	34.66	11.56	37.71	10.54	37.60	7.70	41.43	11.43	6.41	.000	.04	1<4

Note: POP = Perceived organizational politics, POS = Perceived organizational support, TL = Transformational Leadership, ILOCS = Internal Locus of control scale, AC = Affective organizational commitment, NC = Normative organizational commitment, IRBS (Self-R) = In-role behavior scale (self-rated), OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individual, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, TOI = Turnover Intention, OS = Occupational stress.

Table 58 showed significant mean differences on transformational leadership, ILOC, NC, IRB, turnover intention and job stress. All the other study variables did not show any significant mean difference. Lecturers were found to be higher in their perceptions of transformational leadership about their supervisors than associate professors. Similarly, professors were found to be higher in their ILOC than associate professors. Professors were also higher in their normative commitment to the organization than assistant professors. Lecturer scored higher than associate professors and professors on IJPS. Turnover intention was found higher in lecturers and assistant professors in comparison to professors. Occupational stress was higher in professors than lecturers.

Table 59

One-way Analysis of Variance for the Effect of Education on variables of the study (N = 450)

Variable	MA/MSc (*n* =134)		MS/MPhill (*n* =176)		Ph.D (*n* =140)		*F*	*p*	*ή*	*Tukey's Post Hoc*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*				
POP	46.24	9.34	45.96	9.82	45.27	9.35	.38	.68	.002	
POS	29.06	7.08	28.40	6.87	29.39	7.31	.81	.45	.004	
TL	68.28	13.40	67.43	13.49	66.58	13.57	.55	.58	.000	
ILOCS	38.22	6.15	37.34	5.66	37.43	7.51	.82	.44	.004	
AC	23.88	3.29	23.34	3.21	24.08	2.94	2.37	.10	.01	
NC	24.42	3.08	23.67	2.98	24.36	2.77	3.21	.04	.01	
IRBS (Self. R)	41.41	6.18	40.87	6.48	40.42	7.13	.77	.46	.003	
OCBI	28.13	6.22	28.53	5.28	28.48	5.19	.22	.60	.001	
OCBO	30.73	5.34	30.03	5.74	30.66	5.36	.795	.45	.003	
TOI	10.27	5.22	10.27	5.09	8.44	4.64	6.46	.002	.03	1>3,2>3
OS	35.63	12.06	37.20	10.43	36.52	11.21	.750	.47	.003	

Note: POP = Perceived organizational politics, POS = Perceived organizational support, TL = Transformational Leadership, ILOCS = Internal Locus of control scale, AC = Affective organizational

commitment, NC = Normative organizational commitment, IRBS (Self-R) = In-role behavior scale (self-rated), OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individual, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, TOI = Turnover Intention, OS = Occupational stress

Table 59 showed that significant mean differences were only found on turnover intention where Masters and M.Phil/MS degree holders showed higher turnover intention than Ph.D degree holders. There were no significant mean differences found on all the other study variables.

Table 60

One-way Analysis of Variance for the Effect of Geographic Location on variables of the study (N = 450)

Variable	Punjab (*n* =169)		Sindh (*n* =162)		Balochistan (*n* =26)		Federal (*n* =93)		*F*	*P*	*ή*	*Tukey's Post Hoc*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*				
POP	45.84	9.44	48.95	7.19	46.81	5.80	40.11	11.40	19.14	.00	.11	1<2,1>4, 2>4, 3>4
POS	30.50	7.71	28.01	4.37	22.38	7.82	29.39	8.17	12.09	.00	.08	1>2, 1>3, 2>3, 3<4
TL	69.62	13.00	63.09	11.06	60.23	16.17	72.97	14.31	16.31	.00	.10	1>2, 1>3, 2<4, 3<4
ILOCS	38.90	6.08	37.70	6.86	36.42	5.60	35.54	5.93	6.01	.001	.04	1>4, 2>4
AC	23.37	3.29	22.59	2.24	27.54	1.72	25.33	3.23	34.47	.00	.19	1<3, 1<4, 2<3, 2<4, 3>4
NC	23.58	2.75	23.55	2.56	27.38	1.79	25.12	3.40	20.16	.00	.12	1<3, 1<4, 2<3, 2<4, 3>4
IRBS.	41.62	6.46	37.46	6.64	43.85	4.49	44.73	3.85	33.50	.00	.18	1>2, 1<4, 2<3, 2<4
OCBI	27.40	5.67	29.12	5.67	25.54	3.48	29.76	4.95	7.24	.00	.05	1<3,1<4, 2>3, 3<4
OCBO	31.79	4.66	28.77	5.82	27.00	6.56	31.83	4.87	15.00	.00	.09	1>2, 1>3, 2<4, 3<4
TOI	9.72	5.18	10.50	5.31	7.61	4.76	8.86	4.13	3.75	.01	.02	2>3
OS	34.28	11.75	43.56	7.43	34.00	9.01	29.05	9.15	50.59	.00	.25	1<2, 1>4, 2>3, 2>4

Note. POP = Perceived organizational politics, POS = Perceived organizational support, TL = Transformational Leadership, ILOCS = Internal Locus of control scale, AC = Affective organizational commitment, NC = Normative organizational commitment, IRBS (Self-R) = In-role behavior scale

(self-rated), OCBI = Organizational citizenship behavior toward individual, OCBO = Organizational citizenship behavior toward organization, TOI = Turnover Intention, OS = Occupational stress

Table 60 shows that teachers of Punjab, Sindh and Balochistan were higher in their perception of organizational politics than teachers of Federal Capital. Teachers of Punjab were found to be higher in their perception of organizational support than the teachers of Sindh and Balochistan. Similarly, teachers of Federal Capital were also found to be higher in their perception of organizational support than the teachers of Sindh and Balochistan. On ILOC scale, teachers of Punjab were found higher than the teacher of Federal Capital. Teachers from Punjab were found to have lesser AC than the teachers of Balochistan and Federal Capital, while teachers from Balochistan and Federal Capital were found to have higher AC than the teachers from Sindh. On the other hand, teachers from Balochistan were found to have higher AC than the teachers from Federal Capital. Similarly, teachers from Punjab were found to have lesser AC than the teachers of Balochistan and Federal Capital, while teachers from Balochistan and Federal Capital were found to have higher AC than the teachers from Sindh. On the other hand, teachers from Balochistan were found to have higher AC than the teachers from Federal Capital. Teachers from Punjab scored higher than teachers from Sindh on IRBS while they scored lower than teachers from Federal Capital. Teachers from Sindh scores lower than teachers from Balochistan and Federal Capital on IJPS. Teachers from Punjab and Sindh showed higher OCB than teachers from Balochistan. On the other hand, Teachers from Federal Capital showed more OCB than teachers from Sindh and Balochistan. Turnover intentions were found to be higher in teachers from Sindh than teachers from Balochistan. Occupational stress was found higher in teachers from Sindh as compared to teachers from Punjab, Balochistan and Federal Capital while teachers from Punjab showed higher occupational stress than teachers from Federal Capital.

Discussion of the Main Study

The present study was aimed at studying the moderating impact of POP in the relationship of POS, transformational leadership and ILOC with AC, NC, IRB (self-perceived), OCBI, OCBO, turnover intention and occupational stress among university teachers. In the current study, perceived organizational politics moderated the relationship of perceived organizational support with affective organizational commitment and in-role job performance (self-perceived), of transformational leadership with affective organizational commitment, in-role job performance (self-perceived), turnover intention and occupational stress, and of internal locus of control with only affective organizational commitment.

The magnitude of moderation is significant enough to infer that perceived organizational politics do adversely affect certain variables related to work environment. This study followed general analytical framework for interpreting moderation. According to Edwards and Lambert (2007, p. 2), this framework "incorporate the principle of simple slopes from moderated regression analysis to test direct, indirect, and total effects at selected levels of the moderator variable". The results of this study supported seven of our research hypotheses, out of twenty, regarding moderation. Moreover, the findings of this study reinforces the majority of direct relationship of perceived organizational politics, perceived organizational support, transformational leadership and internal locus of control with the outcome variables, as reported in the literature review. Furthermore, this study also explored the relationship of demographic variables (gender, education, job status and geographic location) with the aforementioned variables of the study among university teachers.

This study was conducted in three phases. In the first phase, scales of the study were adapted to check the cultural relevance with the indigenous population of university teachers in Pakistan. In the second phase, pilot study was conducted on the sample of 138 university teachers to check psychometric properties of the scales used in this study. Additionally, an overview of the direction of the proposed relationship among variables of the study was also measured in pilot study. In the third phase, main study was conducted on a sample of 450 university teachers from different geographical regions of Pakistan, including universities from Islamabad (capital), Punjab, Sindh and Baluchistan provinces.

Before running the descriptive and inferential analysis on the study variables, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to confirm the proposed factorial structure of the scales in the given context. After confirmatory factor analysis, initially in the pilot study and finally in the main study, a few items were deleted from POPS (2 items), survey of POS (2 items), transformational leadership questionnaire (1 item), ILOC scale (1 item) and occupational stress scale (1 item). These deleted items were found to show low factor loadings on their proposed latent constructs.

After computing descriptive analysis and Cronbach's alpha coefficients of reliabilities, Pearson product moment correlational analysis was computed to check the expected direction of the relationships among variables of the study. The findings of this correlational analysis are discussed below.

Perceived Organizational Politics and its Job Outcomes

Correlational analysis showed that POP is negatively related to POS. As mentioned earlier, in the introduction, employees' perception of organizational politics is linked to unfair treatment in social exchange with regard to distribution of resources; employees tend to perceive their organization as less supportive if their perception of organizational politics is high and vice versa. The findings of the current study also supported this notion (See Table 44).

Correlational analysis showed that POP is negatively related to transformational leadership. Transformational leaders are motivational and inspirational for the employees due to their fair treatment with all the employees. They tend to reduce employees' negative perceptions about treatment while engaged in any exchange relationship with the management or the organization. Conversely, if employees do not perceive their leadership to be fair in distributing resources among all the workers, they perceive such an environment to be highly political where people get power and resources through unfair and unsanctioned means. The findings of the current study also supported this notion as POP was found to have a negative relationship with transformational leadership (See Table 44).

Correlational analysis showed that POP was not significantly related to ILOC. As per description, people with high ILOC tend to believe their desired outcomes in their control. Resultantly, environmental upheavals leave a very rare impact on people with internal locus of control. Based on this assumption, it was assumed that people with ILOC will perceive their work environment to be less political as they are not affected by their work environment. On the contrary, the findings of the present study did not provide support to this assumption, as ILOC was found to have a non-significant relationship with POP (See Table 44). It could be

attributed to the inherent nature of this construct. To perceive his/her work environment to be political, one needs to attribute the exchange outcomes to be influenced by some external factors. Whereas, people with ILOC are least influenced by their work environment and they do not attribute any exchange outcome to some external factor. It could be assumed that, due to their inherent dispositions, for people with ILOC, environmental influences like organizational politics hold irrelevance.

Based on theory of social exchange, it was assumed that when employees perceive their work environment as unjust and unfair, they lose their emotional attachment and identification with the organization. When they perceive that resources are exchanged politically in their exchange network and they are not getting their due share of outcomes, their loyalty and AC with the organization decreases. The findings of the present study also supported this notion (See Table 44). Chang, Rosen and Levy (2009) demonstrated the same finding in their research. They reported that employees' AC is negatively related to their perception of organizational politics.

Based on social exchange theory, it was assumed that if employees find the nature of transactions between them and their employer organization as fair and just, they will feel more obliged and committed to their organization. Higher perception of organizational politics, where rewards are distributed among employees through favoritism, will decrease employees' moral obligation to remain committed to their employer organization. The findings of this study did support this proposition as POP was found to have a significant negative relationship with NC among university teachers (See Table 44). Similarly, Boehman (2006) demonstrated a negative relationship of NC with POP among student affair professionals.

Based on social exchange theory, it was assumed that employees' perception about their organization to be highly political will negatively affect their self-perceived in-role job behaviors. When they perceive allocation of rewards and resources as unfairly distributed, they expect their investment of efforts to be unrewarded or unfairly rewarded. They reduce their job effort that result into decreased IRB (self-perceived). Findings of this study also provided support to this proposition (See Table 44). Rahman, Hussain and Haque (2011) also demonstrated that employees' self-perceived IRB is negatively affected by their higher perception of organizational politics among lower and middle level employees of a garment manufacturing factory in Dhaka.

Based on social exchange framework, it was assumed that when employees perceive their micro and macro organizational exchange networks to be highly political, they tend to avoid helping others or showing any kind of citizenship behavior. When they perceive their organization to be supportive of selfish and self-serving work attitudes and behaviors, their citizenship behavior toward individuals is decreased. But the findings of this study did not provide support to this proposition (See Table 44). It can be attributed to contextual factor of collectivist culture. In collectivist cultures like Pakistan, where social goals are considered to be more important than personal goals and moral obligation is considered more important than self-interest, the value structure tends to be on giving end than taking end. People support each other believing it to be their social and moral obligation, without any regard for the exchanged reward. Chang, Rosen, Siemieniec and Johnson (2012) also demonstrated a non-significant relationship between POP and OCBI. Results of their study showed that perceived organizational predicted OCBI only when moderated with self-monitoring and conscientiousness. Employees' OCBI is affected by POP

when they are low on conscientiousness and self-monitoring. They argued that relationship of POP with OCBI should not be examined in simple one on one relationship dynamics. This relationship is even more complex, affected by multiple personality factors working together. Rosen, Chang and Levy (2009) and Rosen, Harris and Kacmar (2009) also reported similar findings regarding the relationship of POP and OCBI.

It was assumed that employees negatively reciprocate to the highly perceived organizational political environment by reducing their citizenship to the organization. Findings of this study did provide support to this proposition as POP was found to have a negative relationship with OCBO among university teachers (See Table 44). In a meta-analytic study, Chang, Rosen and Levy (2009) also demonstrated that employees' citizenship toward the organization (OCBO) is negatively related to their perception of the work environment as political.

When employees' perceive that their organizational work environment is unjust and political, they start looking for some alternative options for job to quit. Based on the assumption that perception of unfairness in resource allocation and reward distribution creates an opportunity for employees to think of leaving the organization, it was proposed in this research that higher perception of organizational politics will increase employees' intention to leave the organization. The results of the study also supported this notion as POP was found to have a positive relationship with turnover intention among university teachers (See Table 44). Similarly, Harris, Wheeler and Harris (2009) also demonstrated a positive relationship between turnover intention and POP among alumni of a Midwestern university.

Unfair treatment puts employees into an uncomfortable situation. They feel stressed when they do not get a fair share in reward distribution. This perception of

unfairness gives way to uncertainty among employees about their expected job outcomes, resulting into increased stress. Based on these assumptions, it was proposed in the study that employees will feel more stressed when they perceive their organization to be highly political. This notion was also supported in this study as POP was found to have a positive relationship with employees' occupational stress (See Table 44). Moreover, Bodla and Danish (2009) demonstrated a similar positive relationship between occupational stress and POP on a rich sample of public and private sector employees.

Perceived Organizational Support and its Job Outcomes

Transformational leaders instill motivation and inspiration through their perception of fairness among employees. They proactively take care of employees' needs. They involve employees in the decision making process and make employees feel ownership of those decisions. They align employees' needs, goals and objectives with organizational goals and objectives. With transformational leadership style employees feel their organizations to be supportive to their needs. With this assumption, it was proposed in the current study that transformational leadership style will lead employees to perceive their organization as supportive. Results of the study supported this notion as transformational leadership was found to be positively related to POS (See Table 44).

Emotions are physiological and psychological response to environmental stimuli. And AC is an emotional response of an individual to organization's exchanged benefits. When organizations take care of their employees and their well-being, they identify themselves with the organization and also develop emotional attachment to their organization. Keeping in view this assumption, this study assumed

that when employees will perceive their organization to be highly supportive, their AC to the organization will increase as a result. The results of this study provided support to this proposition as POS was found to have a positive relationship with AC (See Table 45). Bukhari and Kamal (2015) also demonstrated a similar positive relationship between employees' affective commitment to the organization and their perception of organizational support.

As discussed earlier, where obligation to remain with the organization may have contextual factors, such as cultural value system, it may also result out of organization's fair treatment with its employees. When employees receive positive exchange outcomes and believe that their organization is concerned about their needs and welfare, they develop a sense of obligation to be committed to their organization. This notion was also supported in this study as POS was found to have a positive relationship with NC (See Table 44). Moreover, Boehman (2006) also provided similar evidence in support of the proposition that employees' NC is positively related to their perception of organizational support.

In-role job behaviors (self-perceived) are related to the behaviors that one undertakes according to their job description. These behaviors produce positive outcomes for individual as well as the organization. When employees perceive that their organization is supportive in fulfilling their job responsibilities, they feel more committed and motivated to perform their job effectively. They anticipate positive job outcomes, as a result of their perception of fairness in allocation and distribution of rewards and resource. Such perception of their organization as supportive increases their overall IRB (self-perceived). The results of the present study reinforced this proposition as POS was found to be positively related to university teachers' IRB (self-perceived) (See Table 44). Zhong, Wayne and Liden (2015) also provided

support to the assumption that employees' IRB (self-perceived) is increased with their increased perception of organizational support.

Correlational analysis showed that POS was not related to OCBI among university teachers (See Table 44). After a meta-analytic study, Kurtessis et al. (2015) demonstrated that POS is more strongly related to OCBO than OCBI. They attributed this finding to the fact that when organization invests its resources in support of its employees, they reciprocate to the organization in response to its recognition of their needs. OCBI is linked to the support that employees receive from their colleagues.

Correlational analysis showed that POS was positively related to OCBO. OCBO refers to those pro-social behaviors that are aimed at developing and maintaining a positive work environment. When employees perceive their organization as taking care of their needs and problems, they internalize organizational goals and objectives and project positive organizational image among outsiders. It was assumed that higher perception of organizational support will boost such positive pro-social behaviors. The results of the current study supported this notion as POS was found to be positively related to OCBO among university teachers (See Table 44). Kurtessis et al.'s (2015) meta-analytical study also provided support to this notion that employees' OCBO is increased when they perceive their organization as supportive to their needs.

Correlational analysis showed that POS is negatively related to turnover intention. Employees chose for quitting the organization when they find their organization as least concerned about their needs and problems. They start looking for other better alternative opportunities when they do not get desirable exchange outcomes. On the other hand, if employees perceive their organization is highly supportive for their needs, their commitment with the organization increases and

intention to leave the organization decreases. This proposition also received evidence from the results of the present study as POS was reported to have a negative relationship with university teachers' turnover intention (See Table 44). Dawley et al. (2008) also provided support to the proposition that higher perception of organizational support decreases employees' intention to leave the organization.

Correlational analysis showed that POS is negatively related to occupational stress. Employees feel such an environment as very stressful where they find themselves as unable to get due share in exchange input. If they perceive their organization to be very unsupportive to their needs and feels that they are being treated unfairly, such perception increases their stress at job. Results of the present study provided support to this notion as POS was found to be negatively related to university teachers' occupational stress (See Table 44). Johansen (2010) also demonstrated similar empirical evidence in support of the proposition that employees' occupational stress is decreased when they perceive their employing organization as highly supportive of their needs.

Transformational Leadership and its Job Outcomes

Correlational analysis showed that transformational leadership is positively related to AC. As mentioned in earlier, in the introduction, transformational leaders enable their followers to envision a bright future. They encourage team spirit that results into optimism and enthusiasm among their followers. They clearly communicate expectations to their followers and engage them in demonstrating commitment to the shared vision and goals. Based on this assumption, it was assumed that transformational leadership will enhance employees' affective commitment with the organization. The results of this study provided evidence for this notion as

transformational leadership was found to have a positive relationship with AC among university teachers (See Table 44). There are number of researches that have provided support to the notion that employees' AC is increased when they perceive their leadership as transformational (Dullah, Sharif, Nazarudin & Omar-Fauzee, 2008; Marique et al., 2012; Meyer et al., 2002).

Correlational analysis showed that transformational leadership was positively related to NC. As discussed earlier, in the introduction, Transformational leaders are trusted, respected and admired among subordinates. Employees try to emulate them in order to identify with them. Their followers believe them to be reliable, determined and extraordinarily capable. As leader is the representative of the organization, exercising all the power and control on behalf of the organization, people tend to feel obliged to the leadership and the organization. This obligation enhances their normative organization with the organization. Results of the present study also reinforce this proposition as transformational leadership was found to have a positive relationship NC among university teachers (See Table 44). Clinebell et al. (2013) also provided support to this proposition, implying that people feel obliged to be committed to their organization when they perceive their leadership as transformational.

Correlational analysis showed that transformational leadership is positively related to IRB (self-perceived). As discussed earlier, acting as mentor or coach, transformational leaders proactively attend each employee's need for growth and achievement. One after the other, each employee is developed to his/her higher levels of potential. Leader routinely visits workplaces and personally interacts with the employees. He/she is aware of employee's individual concerns and remembers all the previous conversations with this/her employees. Based on these considerations, it was

assumed that transformational leadership will enhance employees' IRB (self-perceived). This proposition received supporting evidence from the results of this study as transformational leadership was found to have a positive relationship university teachers' IRB (self-perceived) (See Table 44). Along with this study's finding, there are number of other researchers who have demonstrated sound empirical evidence in support of the notion that transformational leadership enhances employees' IRB (self-perceived) (Jyoti & Bhau, 2015; Manaf & Latif, 2014; Mangkunegara & Miftahuddin, 2016).

Correlational analysis showed that transformational leadership was not related to OCBI. Modassir and Singh (2008) also demonstrated a non-significant relationship between transformational leadership individuals oriented dimensions of OCB. Similarly, Gooty, Gavin, Johnson, Frazier and Snow (2009) also provided the same findings reporting transformational leadership to have a non-significant relationship with OCBI among university teachers (See Table 44). Hu, Wang, Liden and Sun (2011) demonstrated core self-evaluation to mediate the relationship of transformational leadership with OCBI. They noted that relationship of transformational leadership with OCBI is indirectly mediated through employees' core self-evaluation.

Correlational analysis showed that transformational leadership was positively related to OCBO. As discussed earlier, in the introduction, transformational leaders act in such an inspirational way that their subordinates follow them considering them to be their role models. Transformational leaders inspire and motivate the people around them by providing them with meaning and challenge for their task. They acknowledge desires, needs and individual differences among employees. Their inspirational motivation and individualized consideration encourage their followers or

subordinates to identify with them. Considering these facts, it was assumed in the current study that transformational leadership will also encourage employees to show more citizenship behavior toward the organization. Data of the study also provided support to this proposition as transformational leadership was found to have positive relationship with OCBO among university teachers (See Table 44). Similarly, Li and Hung (2009) also provided evidence in favor of the notion that transformational leadership increases employees' OCBO.

Correlational analysis showed that transformational leadership is negatively related to turnover intention. When people are inspired and motivated from their leadership, resulting into their increased satisfaction with their job and commitment with the organization, their intention to leave the organization automatically decreases. When they find that their individual needs are being considered and addressed, their temptations to look for some other alternative job opportunity decrease. This assumption was provided with support from this study's data, as transformational leadership was found to have a negative relationship with turnover intention among university teachers (See Table 44). Similarly, Hamstra, Yperen, Wisse and Sassenberg (2011), and Ariyabuddhiphongsa and Khan (2017) also provided support to the notion that transformational leadership decreases employees' intention to leave the organization.

Correlational analysis showed that transformational leadership is negatively related to occupational stres. Through individualized consideration, a transformational leader ensures that every employee's job demands are in consonance with their potentials or personal capacities. When employees feel that they are receiving fair treatment and support from their leadership, their stress at work decreases. This assumption was also supported by the data of this study as transformational leadership

was found to be positively related to occupational stress among university teachers (See Table 44). Gill, Flaschner & Bhutani (2010) also provided empirical support to the proposition that transformational leadership reduces employees' occupational stress.

Internal Locus of Control and its Job Outcomes

Correlational analysis showed that ILOC was not significantly related to AC and NC. As discussed earlier, individuals with ILOC have more effective response system to confront unexpected and stressful conditions at workplace than with individuals with external locus of control. Hence, they are more motivated to stay in organization for a longer period of time. Similarly, when people with ILOC perceive their organization as supportive to their need of control, they tend to develop emotional as well as obligatory attachment with the organization (Coleman, Irving & Cooper, 1999). Based on this assumption and previous literature, it was assumed that ILOC will correlate positively with AC and NC. On the contrary, results of the present study did not provide support for both of these propositions as ILOC was found to have a non-significant relationship with both affective as well as NC (See Table 44). It could be attributed to the reason that people with ILOC are more interested and concerned about control on their desired outcomes. They are more self-centered and self -serving in their orientation. For them, achievement of personal goals holds more importance than their commitment to organization or organizational goals. Bradley and Nicol (2006) also demonstrated a non-significant relationship between NC and locus of control.

Correlational analysis showed that ILOC is positively related to IRB (self-perceived). When employees feel control over their desired job outcomes, their

performance (self-perceived) at job is least influenced by the external job or organizational factors. According to Lefcourt (1982), employees with ILOC get motivation to perform a task from within. People with internal locus of control have relatively higher level of curiosity in knowing for the reasons to perform their task. They actively spend lot of their time in searching for the information, required to perform their task.

With this assumption in mind, the current study assumed ILOC to be positively related to IRB (self-perceived) among university teachers. The results of the current study reinforced this claim as ILOC was found to have a positive relationship with IRB (self-perceived) among university teachers (See Table 44).

Correlational analysis showed that ILOC is not related to OCBI (See Table 44). As discussed earlier, people with ILOC tend to believe that their desired job outcomes are in their control. They are more concerned about their own achievements and goals. Researches also support the notion that people with ILOC are less social in comparison to people with external locus of control. For them, being prosocial hold a secondary importance or irrelevant. As people with ILOC tend to more concerned about their own goals and achievements, they are prone to be individualist in comparison to collectivism. De León and Finkelstein (2011) demonstrated that people with individualistic tendency do not show OCBI. In fact, they reported a non-significant relationship between ILOC and individualism.

It was assumed that when employees feel a sense of control in their organizational work environment, they perceive their organizational as highly supportive of their need to be autonomy in achieving their desired goals and achievements. In recognition of this perception of support from the organization, they reciprocate to the organization by engaging in citizenship behaviors that are directed

toward the organization. Correlational analysis showed that ILOC is positively related to OCBI. This finding supported the notion that ILOC is positively related to OCBO (See Table 44).

Correlational analysis showed that ILOC was not significantly related to turnover intention. As discussed earlier, people with ILOC tend to confront unexpected and stressful conditions at workplace than with individuals with external locus of control and hence motivates employees to stay in organization for a longer period of time, it was assumed that intention to leave the organization will be less among people with ILOC. Findings of the current research did not provide support to this proposition as ILOC was found to have a non-significant relationship with turnover intention among university teachers (See Table 44). Keeping the results of this study in view, regarding AC, NC and turnover intention, it can also be assumed that does not hold any predictive role in determining employees' commitment and intention to leave the organization. Determining factors for commitment and employee turnover can be other than ILOC, keeping social exchange framework in mind.

Correlational analysis showed that ILOC was not significantly related to occupational stress. Based on the assumption that people with ILOC tend to confront the stressful environmental stimulation more than people with external locus of control, this study assumed that occupational stress will be lesser in people with ILOC. On the contrary, data of the present study did not support this notion as ILOC was found to have a non-significant relationship with occupational stress among university teachers (See Table 44). As discussed earlier, in the introduction, occupational stress can result from a person's social interaction in the organization or his/her cognitive appraisal to the situation as stressful or not. Whereas ILOC is a

personality attribute. Even, a person with ILOC need cognitive appraisal of his or her situation as stressful or not. It points out to another assumption that there may be a mediational relationship between ILOC and occupational stress where some other variable might be mediating the relationship between these two variables. Future researcher could explore this possibility as well.

Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Politics between Perceived Organizational Support and its Outcomes

Moderational analysis showed that POP moderated the relationship between POS and AC, explaining 1% variance in AC among university teachers, thus supporting hypothesis 1 of the study (See Table 48, Fig. 19). It was assumed that when employees perceive their organization to be highly political their affective commitment to the organization decreases, despite supportive organizational measures. Results of the present study did provide support to this proposition as POP was found to moderate the relationship of POS with AC.

Moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship between POS and NC, explaining no unique variance in NC among university teachers, thus providing no support to hypothesis 2 of this study (See Table 48). It was assumed that when employees perceive their organization to be highly political, despite supportive organizational measures, their obligation to remain member of the organization decreases. Contrary to that, this study's data did not provide support to this proposition. Results indicated that POS came out to be a stronger predictor of employees' NC than POP.

Moderational analysis showed that POP moderated the relationship between POS and IRB, explaining 3% unique variance in IRB among university teachers, thus

providing support to hypothesis 3 of this study (See Table 49, Fig. 20). It was assumed that POP will decrease employees' IRB despite their higher perception of POS. Results of the present study reinforced this proposition as POP moderated the relationship between POS and IRB such that it decreased employees' IRB despite their higher perception of organizational support.

Moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship between POS and OCBI and did not explain any unique variance in OCBI among university teachers (See Table 49). Thus hypothesis 4 of this study could not get support from the data of this study. It was assumed that when employees perceive their work environment to be highly political, their OCBI will decrease irrespective of their higher perception about their employer organization to be supportive. Results of the present study did not support this proposition as POP was not found to moderate the relationship between POS and OCBI.

Moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship between POS and OCBO, explaining no unique variance in OCBO among university teachers (See Table 49). Thus, data did not provide support to hypothesis 5 of this study. It was assumed that when employees perceive their work environment to be highly political, their OCBO will decrease irrespective of their higher perception about their employer organization to be supportive. Results of the present study did not reinforce this proposition as POP did not moderate the relationship between POS and OCBO.

Moderational analysis showed that POP could not moderate the relationship between POS and turnover intention, explaining no unique variance in turnover intention among university teachers (See Table 50). It was assumed that employees' higher perception of organizational support could not reduce their intention to leave

the organization if they perceive their organization to be highly political. This proposition could not get support from the data of this study, as POP was not found to moderate the relationship of POS and turnover intention among university teachers, thus providing no support to the hypothesis 6 of this study.

Moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship between POS and occupational stress and did not explain any unique variance in occupational stress among university teachers (See Table 50). It was assumed that even if employees perceive their organization to be highly supportive to their needs, their occupational stress will increase if they perceived their organizational work environment to be highly political. This proposition could not get empirical support from the data of this study, as perceived organizational was not found to moderate the relationship of POS with occupational stress, thus providing no support to hypothesis 7 of this study.

Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Politics between Transformational Leadership and its Outcomes

Moderational analysis showed that POP moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and AC, explaining 2% unique variance in AC among university teachers, thus supporting hypothesis 8 of this study (See Table 51, Fig. 21). It was assumed that POP will decrease transformational leadership's positive impact on teachers' AC. This proposition was supported by the data of the present study as POP moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and AC such that it decreased their AC.

Moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and NC and did not explain any unique variance

in NC among university teachers (See Table 51). It was assumed that transformational leadership will not be able to sustain employees' obligation to remain member of the organization if they perceive their organizational work environment as highly political. This proposition could not get support from the data of this study as POP did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and NC, thus providing no support to hypothesis 9 of this study.

Moderational analysis showed that POP moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and IRB, explaining 2% unique variance in IRB among university teachers, thus supporting hypothesis 10 of this study (See Table 52, Fig. 22). It was assumed that when employees perceive their work environment to be highly political, impact of transformational leadership on their IRB (self-perceived) decreases, resulting into decreased IRB (self-perceived). This proposition was reinforced by the results of this study as POP moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and IRB such that it decreased their IRB (self-perceived).

Moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and OCBI among university teachers (See Table 52). Thus, data did not provide support to hypothesis 11 of this study. It was assumed that POP will decrease transformational leadership's positive impact on teachers' OCBI. This proposition could not get support from the data of the present study as POP did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and OCBI.

Moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and OCBO among university teachers, thus providing no support to hypothesis 12 of this study (See Table 52). It was assumed that POP will decrease transformational leadership's positive impact on teachers'

OCBO. This proposition could not get support from the data of the present study as POP did not moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and OCBO.

Moderational analysis showed that POP moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention, explaining 1% unique variance in turnover intention among university teachers (See Table 53, Fig. 23). It was assumed that transformational leadership will not be able to decrease employees' intention to leave the organization when they perceive their work environment to be highly political. Data of this study reinforced this notion as perceived politics was found to be moderating the relationship of transformational leadership and turnover intention among university teachers in such a way that it increased their turnover intention, thus supporting hypothesis 13 of this study.

Moderational analysis showed that POP moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and occupational stress, explaining 3% unique variance in job stress among university teachers (See Table 53, Fig. 24). In the light of this finding, hypothesis 14 of the study got support from the data. It was assumed that even transformational leadership would not be helpful in decreasing employees' occupational stress if they perceive their organization to be highly political. Findings of this study reinforced this proposition as perceived politics moderated the relationship of transformational leadership and occupational stress among university teachers in such a way that it increased their occupational stress.

Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Politics between Internal Locus of Control and its Outcomes

Moderational analysis showed that POP moderated the relationship between ILOC and AC, explaining 3% unique variance in AC among university teachers, thus supporting hypothesis 15 of this study (See Table 54, Fig. 25). It was assumed that POP will decrease the positive impact of ILOC on employees' affective commitment to their organization. Results of the current study also provided support to this proposition as POP moderated the relation of ILOC with AC such that it decreased employees' affective commitment to their organization despite higher perception of organizational support. It could be attributed to the fact that when people with internal control find their work environment to be highly political where exchange outcomes are unfairly treated, they start feeling loss of control on their desired outcomes. This negative feeling of loss of control is exacerbated with the negative effect of POP resulting into decreased affective commitment to the organization.

Moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship of ILOC with NC, thus providing no support to hypothesis 16 of this study (See Table 54). It was assumed that POP will decrease the positive impact of ILOC on employees' normative commitment to their organization. Similarly, moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship between ILOC and self-perceived IRB (See Table 55). It was assumed that in spite of ILOC, when employees perceive their organizational work environment to highly political, their IRB (self-perceived) is decreased. In the light of this finding, hypothesis 17 of the study could not find any support from the data.

To test hypothesis 18, moderational analysis was not computed due to the reason that OCBI was neither correlated with POP nor with ILOC in correlational

analysis (See Table 44). Results of the current study did not provide support to this proposition that POP will decrease employees' OCBI in spite of their higher ILOC, thus providing no support to this hypothesis. Similarly, moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship between ILOC and OCBO, explaining no unique variance in it among university teachers (See Table 55). It was assumed that POP will decrease the positive impact of ILOC on employees' OCBO. Results of the current study did not provide support to hypothesis 19 of this study as POP did not moderate the relation of ILOC with OCBO.

Furthermore, moderational analysis showed that POP did not moderate the relationship between ILOC and occupational stress, explaining no unique variance in occupational stress among university teachers, thus providing no support to hypothesis 20 of this study (See Table 55). It was assumed that POP will neutralize the positive impact of ILOC on employees' occupational stress among university teachers. Findings of the current study did not provide support to this proposition as POP was not found to moderate the relationship of ILOC with occupational stress among university teachers.

Demographic Analysis

Table 56 showed that male university teachers reported higher perception of organizational politics and occupational stress as compared to their female counterparts. In contrast, female university teachers reported higher transformational leadership perception of their leaders, AC and NC in comparison to male university teachers. No significant mean differences were found on POS, ILOC, IRBS (self-perceived), OCB and turnover intention among university teachers.

Table 57 showed significant mean differences in POP, ILOC, AC, turnover intention and occupational stress among university teachers. Results indicate that

teachers from private sector universities perceive their organization to be more political, their ILOC, turnover intention and occupational stress is also higher than their counterparts in public sector universities. Contrary to that, teachers from public sector universities showed higher AC as compared to their counterparts in private sector universities.

Table 58 showed significant mean differences on job status in transformational leadership, ILOC, NC, IRBS (self-perceived), turnover intention and job stress. All the other study variables did not show any significant mean difference. Lecturers were found to be higher in their perceptions of transformational leadership about their supervisors than associate professors. Similarly, professors were found to be higher in their ILOC than associate professors. Professors were also higher in their normative commitment to the organization than assistant professors. Lecturer scored higher than associate professors and professors on IRBS (self-perceived). Turnover intention was found higher in lecturers and assistant professors in comparison to professors. It can be attributed to the reason that lecturers and assistant professors are in the stage of career development and they are in search of better opportunities to switch for their career development. Job stress was higher in professors than lecturers. It can be attributed to the fact that with experience job responsibilities increase. That is why professor experience more occupational stress in comparison to lecturers.

Table 59 showed that significant mean differences were only found on turnover intention where Masters and M.Phil/MS degree holders showed higher turnover intention than Ph.D degree holders. There were no significant mean differences found on all the other study variables.

Table 60 shows that teachers of Punjab, Sindh and Balochistan were higher in their perception of organizational politics than teachers of Federal Capital. Teachers

of Punjab were found to be higher in their perception of organizational support than the teachers of Sindh and Balochistan. Similarly, teachers of Federal Capital were also found to be higher in their perception of organizational support than the teachers of Sindh and Balochistan. On ILOC scale, teachers of Punjab were found higher than the teacher of Federal Capital. Teachers from Punjab were found to have lesser AC than the teachers of Balochistan and Federal Capital, while teachers from Balochistan and Federal Capital were found to have higher AC than the teachers from Sindh. On the other hand, teachers from Balochistan were found to have higher AC than the teachers from Federal Capital. Similarly, teachers from Punjab were found to have lesser AC than the teachers of Balochistan and Federal Capital, while teachers from Balochistan and Federal Capital were found to have higher AC than the teachers from Sindh. On the other hand, teachers from Balochistan were found to have higher AC than the teachers from Federal Capital. Teachers from Punjab scored higher than teachers from Sindh on IRBS (self-perceived) while they scored lower than teachers from Federal Capital. Teachers from Sindh scores lower than teachers from Balochistan and Federal Capital on IRBS (self-perceived). Teachers from Punjab and Sindh showed higher OCB than teachers from Balochistan. On the other hand, Teachers from Federal Capital showed more OCB than teachers from Sindh and Balochistan. Turnover intentions were found to be higher in teachers from Sindh than teachers from Balochistan. Job stress was found higher in teachers from Sindh as compared to teachers from Punjab, Balochistan and Federal Capital while teachers from Punjab showed higher job stress than teachers from Federal Capital.

Conclusion

The current study was an attempt to provide an insight into the dynamics of organizational, management and personality factors in influencing university teachers' work related behaviors and attitudes in Pakistani context. This study is unique in its scope as it chose to study predictive role of internal locus of control (individual level construct), transformational leadership (management level construct), perceived organizational support (organizational level construct) and perceived organizational politics (environment related construct). This study chose variables from each domain in organizational life to see how it impacts university teacher's work related behaviors and attitudes.

This study provided empirical evidence that if university teachers perceive their organization as supportive to their needs and concerned about their welfare, they reciprocate in a positive way. Their citizenship behavior, performance on the job, commitment to their institute is increased. Simultaneously, this positive perception about the organization also reduces their occupational stress as well as their intention to leave their institute. Role of leadership has also been insightful in enhancing positive work behaviors and attitudes among university teachers. Leaders who are considerate and instill motivation and inspiration among their subordinates are reciprocated with the same positive spirit. This study provided evidence for the proposition that if management adopts transformational leadership style in dealing with teachers, their positive work related behaviors and attitudes are enhanced and negative behaviors or attitudes subsided.

This study has also highlighted the deleterious role of perceived organizational politics in affecting university teachers work related attitudes and behaviors. It has provided evidence to the proposition that when employees perceive their work

environment to be highly political, their occupational stress and intention to leave the organization is increased. Their commitment to the organization, citizenship behavior and performance on the job is also decreased if they find their work environment to be political in nature. Furthermore, this study also highlighted the alarming negative role of POP in adversely affecting the positive role of transformational leadership and perceived organizational support in university setting. Results of this study provided support to hypotheses 1, 3, 8, 10, 13, 14 and 15 where perceived organizational politics moderated the relationship of perceived organizational support with affective organizational commitment and self-perceived IRB, of transformational leadership with affective organizational commitment, self-perceived IRB, turnover intention and occupational stress, and of internal locus of control with affective organizational commitment among university teachers. Results of this study did not provide support to hypotheses 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11 and 12.

This study proved internal locus of control as a weak predictor of majority of the attitudinal and behavioral work outcomes. It also signifies the importance of other personality constructs to be explored in relation to POP and other work related attitudes and behaviors. This study is also unique in terms of its scope to incorporate different geographic entities into a single study. It provides a rich amount of information to analyze the role of resource and infrastructure facilities in teachers' work related behaviors and attitudes in the context of comparison between universities from different geographic locations in Pakistan.

It is also worth noting that sample was restricted to university teachers due to the reason that structural and organizations' cultural differences could not pose any threat to this study's findings as organizational structure and culture are almost same across all university settings.

Limitations and Suggestions for the Present Study

1. Majority of the sample of the study was restricted to the universities of Punjab, Sindh and Islamabad. It included a sample of just 26 teachers from a single university from Balochistan and also lacked any university from the province of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa due to time constraints. The generalization should also be made with caution regarding teachers from these two provinces. It is also needed to separately analyze the findings for each province as they differ in terms of infrastructure and resource facilities. Future researcher should also include sample from Khyber Pakhtunkhwa to make it more generalizable.

2. Sample was also restricted to the university teachers. Caution is needed in generalizing across other organizations due to structural and cultural differences. Nature of job and performance evaluation system varies across different occupational systems that may affect behavioral an attitudinal responses of employees from other occupational setting differently.

3. Even culture across private and public sector universities also poses a threat to the inferences from the results of this study. A comparison between public and private sector universities could also provide a beneficial insight about the role of environmental differences, as the results indicate teachers of private sector universities to show higher perception of organizational politics, turnover intention and occupational stress. If separate analysis is conducted on public and private sector university teachers, it could provide a better insight into the dynamics of transformational leadership, organizational support and organizational politics.

4. Use of self-report measures may also pose a threat of common method variance, resulting into inflated responses among university teachers. Spector

(2006) noted that self-report measures are not assured to provide significant findings, regardless of the large samples. Despite this limitation, constructs of AC, NC, POP, turnover intention, occupational stress, ILOC and POS are best reflected through self-report measures. Furthermore, the constructs of OCBI, OCBO and IRB need cross validation through other means of measurement, as individuals hold inherent threat to inflate and project their positive self-image in terms of these constructs.

Moreover, Spector (1994) noted that studies with self-report measures should not be considered and discredited as being considered inferior in comparison to other methodologies. Their use should be encouraged wherever they are considered appropriate. He further noted that cross-sectional self-report method has contributed a valuable data regarding many question related to organizational behavior. He also noted that most of the reviewers and researchers would accept that measures of work related affective responses and job satisfaction are valid in indicating peoples' work related feelings, and measures reflecting job environment are reasonably good at reflecting peoples' job related perceptions.

Spector (2006) argued that popular notion regarding common method variance (CMV) is oversimplification and distortion of the actual state of affairs. To cast doubt about the notion that CMV itself causes systematic variance in observations that may increase or inflate the degree of correlation to any significant level, Spector (2006) provided empirical evidences. Spector (2006) convincingly argues that first point to refute the CMV legend is easily available in most of the self-report cross-sectional studies. He noted that a baseline level for correlations between study variables should be determined if

we believe self-report method to introduce shared bias in measurement of study variables. If the value of CMV is so small that it could be considered as negligible, it can make correlations to be significant among variables. Finding non-significant correlations, even though theoretically expected to be significant, is common is published studies that qualified the process of peer-reviewing. Boswell, Boudreau, and Danford's (2004) work, published in Journal of Applied Psychology, is such an example. Their study investigated the process of turnover and included 5 self-report variables that assessed perceptions, motives and attitudes. The large sample of 1601 individuals was enough in identifying even a minor value of CMV due to the reason that in their research, even a correlation with .07 magnitude was found significant. This finding does not support the proposition that CMV always inflates correlation.

5. Majority of the samples included lecturers and assistant professors. The number professors and associate professors were minimal in comparison to lecturers and assistant professors. Inclusion of more professors and associate professors may have provided with more rich insight into the current findings.

6. The causal inferences should be made with caution about the relationships among outcome and predictor variables due the cross-sectional nature of research design. There is a possibility that outcome variables like occupational stress, OCB, AC and NC may have a reciprocal relationship with perceived organizational support and POP. For example, contrary to the proposed relationships in the current study, teachers' higher occupational stress may instill higher perception of organizational politics and lower perception of organizational support among teachers.

Implications of the Study

1. This is the first study in Pakistan that emphasized and highlighted the negative role of POP on important individual as well as organizational variables among university teachers. In terms of its exploratory nature, for the population under study as well as the integration of positive work behaviors, this study can provide an important base to capitalize upon in higher educational institutions in terms of human resource management and development.

2. This study has also endorsed and highlighted the positive role of perceived organizational support in enhancing positive work attitudes and behaviors among university teachers. Its predictive role in enhancing positive organizational attitudes and behavior among teachers provides an insight for the university management to take care of its employees' welfare and needs, in order to increase their performance and positive organizational behaviors that would ultimately result into increased organizational productivity.

3. This study has also highlighted the constructive and positive role of transformational leadership and in enhancing positive attitudinal and behavioral work outcomes among university teachers. Its predictive role provides insight to the management to adopt such a leadership quality that motivate and inspire employees to give maximum productivity to the organization.

4. This study has also highlighted the deleterious role of POP in reducing the positive work outcomes of positive organizational variables like POS and transformational leadership among university teachers. Despite the fact that POS and transformational leadership instills positive work attitudes and

behaviors among university teachers, this study provide evidence for the fact that employees' perception of organizational politics will negatively affect all the positive contributions of the organization in order to enhance their productivity.

5. This study has also provided an insight into the role of gender in affecting certain behavioral, perceptual as well as attitudinal work outcomes. Findings suggest that management should to be more cautious about male teachers in terms of perception of organizational politics and occupational stress as they scored higher than females on these variables. Females' higher scores on AC and NC suggest human resource managers to investigate the factors that affect males' commitment to the organization than females.

6. Findings of this study also provide an interesting insight through comparison between public sector and private sector organizations. In public sector universities teachers have permanent job along with post-retirement benefits. While in private sector universities the nature of job is contractual and lack post-retirement benefits. Teachers from private sector universities reported higher perception of organizational politics, higher turnover intention and higher occupational stress in comparison to the teachers from public sector universities. In the light of these findings, management from the private sector universities could seek and investigate those factors that affect their employees more negatively than the employees from the public sector universities.

7. Geographic analysis of the study variables suggest that more the advance resource facilities and infrastructure development a university holds, more positive work outcomes are expected to be generated among teachers. This study did not explore, in depth, the underlying factors that attribute the role of

geographic location in determining differences in attitudinal and behavioral job outcomes. Future researchers should focus on exploring the underlying causes of these behavioral and attitudinal differences with reference to geographic location.

8. The external validity of this research can be further enhanced if the future studies ensure the representativeness of the sample on national level. Moreover, the proportion of faculty members and gender should also be given consideration in recruitment of the sample in future studies.

9. In Pakistani context, this study provides a base for future researchers to further explore the dynamics of political behavior in the organizational settings. This focus of this study was moderating role of perceived organizational politics whereas the future researchers could also explore its antecedental role in determining certain negative consequences in work environment.

10. This study chose ILOC, as a personality attribute, in relation to POP. The findings of this study show ILOC as a weak predictor of work related behaviors and attitudes. It is needed that relationship of POP with other personality variables likes self-efficacy and positive affectivity should also be explored.

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Appendix A

INFORMED CONSENT

I am a Ph.D research student at National Institute of Psychology, Quaid-i-Azam University, Islamabad. I am doing a research that is aimed at exploring the relationship of transformational leadership, perceived organizational support, locus of control and employees' perceived organizational politics with their certain behavioural outcomes. Furthermore, you may also get your level of jab satisfaction, job stress, organizational commitment evaluated through these questionnaires if desired.

I request you to support my purpose and participate in this research project. I assure you that the information taken from you will be kept confidential and will be used only for the research purposes. You have full right to withdraw your information during any stage of the research.

Your help, support, and participation will be highly appreciated.

Thank You!

Syed Muhammad Imran Bukhari

National Institute of Psychology,

Quaid-i-AzamUniversity, Islamabad

Ph: 0321-6350701

Name of the Participant: _____

I am willing to participate in this research.

_____

Signature

Appendix B

Demographic Information Sheet

Gender: | Male | | Female |

Age: _____

Education: | M.A/M.Sc | | M.Phil/M.S | | Ph.D |

Name of the University: _____

Department: _____

Job Designation: | Lecturer | | Assistant Professor | | Associate Professor | | Professor |

Job Tenure in the current University: _____ Years

Original Scales

Appendix C

Survey of Perceived Organizational Support

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about this organization. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your organization. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	The organization values my contribution to its well-being.							
2	The organization fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.							
3	The organization would ignore any complaint from me.							
4	The organization really cares about my well-being.							
5	Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.							
6	The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.							

7	The organization shows very little concern for me.							
8	The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.							

Appendix D

Perceived Organizational Politics Scale

Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working in your organization. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the appropriate option that best represents your point of view about your organization.

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree
1	People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down					
2	There has always been an influential group in this organization that no one ever crosses					
3	Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well established ideas					
4	There is no place for yes-men and yes-women in this organization; good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with superiors					
5	Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this organization					
6	It is best not to rock the boat in this organization					
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	Since I have worked for this organization, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically					
11	I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or promotion that was inconsistent with 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 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 are so political					

Appendix E

Transformational Leadership Questionnaire

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about your Chairperson/Head of the Department. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your Chairperson/Head of the Department. Please choose from the following answers

Serial.#.	Items	Not at All	Once a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not Often
1	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.					
2	I talk about my most important values and beliefs.					
3	I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.					
4	I talk optimistically about the future.					
5	I instil pride in others for being associated with me.					
6	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.					
7	I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.					
8	I spend time teaching and coaching.					
9	I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.					

10	I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.					
11	I act in ways that build other's respect for me.					
12	I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.					
13	I display a sense of power and confidence.					
14	I articulate a compelling vision of the future.					
15	I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.					
16	I get others to look at problems from many different angles.					
17	I help others to develop their strengths.					
18	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.					
19	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.					
20	I express confidence that goals will be achieved.					

Appendix F

Affective and Normative Organizational Commitment Scale

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about this University. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your University. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this department					
2	I really feel as if this department's problems are my own					
3	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my department					
4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this department					
5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my department					
6	This department has a great deal of personal meaning for me					
7	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer					
8	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now					
9	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now					

10	This organization deserves my loyalty					
11	Would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it					
12	I owe a great deal to my organization					

Appendix G

Measure of In-role Performance Scale (Self-Rated)

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about your job performance. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your job performance. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I adequately complete assigned my duties							
2	I fulfil responsibilities specified in my job description							
3	I perform tasks that are expected of me							
4	I meet formal performance requirements of my job							
5	I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation							
6	I neglect aspects of the job I am obliged to perform							
7	I fail to perform my essential duties							

Appendix H

Measure of In-role Performance Scale (Supervisor-Rated)

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about your job performance. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your job performance. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	He/she adequately completes his/her assigned duties							
2	He/she fulfils responsibilities specified in his/her job description							
3	He/she performs tasks that are expected of him/her							
4	He/she meets formal performance requirements of his/her job							
5	He/she engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation							
6	He/she neglects aspects of the job he/she is obliged to perform							
7	He/she fails to perform his/her essential duties							

Appendix I

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

Listed below are the statements that represent your possible behaviours that you may have while working in this organization. Read the following statements carefully and indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best describes your behaviour on job in the best way:

Serial.#.	Items	Never	Rarely	Sometim	Mostly	Always
1	Helps others who have been absent					
2	Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems					
3	Adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.					
4	Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcomed in the work group					
5	Show genuine concern and courtesy toward my coworkers, even under the most trying business or personal situations					
6	Give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems					
7	Assist others with their duties					
8	Share personal property with others to help in their work					
9	Attend functions that are not required but that help the university image					
10	Keep up with the developments in the university					
11	Defend the university when other employees criticize it					

12	Show pride when representing the university in public					
13	Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the university					
14	Express loyalty toward the university					
15	Take action to protect the university from potential problems					
16	Demonstrate concern about the image of the university					

Appendix J

Turn Over Intention Scale

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have regarding your intent to leave this University/Institute. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your intent to leave this University/Institute. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Undecided	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am likely to search for a new job within a year							
2	I often think of quitting							
3	I will probably look for a new job in the next year							

Appendix K

Work Locus of Control Scale

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that concern your beliefs about jobs in general. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about job in this university. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
1	A job is what you make of it.							
2	On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish							
3	If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you							
4	If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it							
5	Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort							
6	Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job							

7	People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded							
8	Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do							

Appendix L

Occupational Stress Scale

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about your stress at job in this University/Institute. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your job stress in this University/Institute. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Working here makes it hard to spend enough time with my family					
2	I spend so much time at work, I can't see the forest for the trees					
3	Working here leaves little time for other activities.					
4	I frequently get the feeling I am married to the company					
5	I have too much work and too little time to do it in					
6	I sometimes dread the telephone ringing at home because the call might be job-related					
7	I feel like I never have a day off.					
8	Too many people at my level in the company get burned out by job demands					
9	I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.					

10	My job gets to me more than it should.					
11	There are lots of times when my job drives me up the wall.					
12	Sometimes when I think about my job I get a tight feeling in my chest					
13	I feel guilty when I take time off from job					

Modified Scales

Appendix M

Perceived Organizational Support

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about this University/Institute. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your University/Institute. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	This university/institute values my contribution to its well-being.							
2	This university/institute fails to appreciate any extra effort from me.							
3	This university/institute would ignore any complaint from me.							
4	This university/institute really cares about my well-being.							
5	Even if I did the best job possible, the university/institute would fail to notice.							
6	This university/institute cares about my general satisfaction at work.							

7	This university/institute shows very little concern for me.							
8	This university/institute takes pride in my accomplishments at work.							

Appendix N

Perceived Organizational Politics

Listed below are statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about working in your university/institute. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the appropriate option that best represents your point of view about your university/institute.

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Strongly Agree
1	People in this university/institute attempt to move up by pulling others down					
2	There has always been an influential group in this university/institute that no one ever crosses					
3	Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas					
4	There is no place for yes-men and yes-women in this university/institute; good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with superiors					
5	Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this university/institute					
6	It is best not to destabilise the situation in this university/institute by creating trouble					

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	Since I have worked for this university/institute, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically					
11	I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies					
12	None of the raises I have received are consistent with the policies on how raises should be determined					
13	There is a marked contradiction between the declared merit of pay and promotion, and how they are actually awarded					
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 are so political					

Appendix O

Transformational Leadership Questionnaire

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about your Chairperson/Head of the Department. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your Chairperson/Head of the Department. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Not at All	Once a while	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always
1	He/She gives a second thought to the question of his/her involvement in misusing the public property.					
2	He/She talks about his/her most important values and beliefs.					
3	He/She seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.					
4	He/She talks optimistically about the future.					
5	He/She instils pride in others for being associated with him/her.					
6	He/She talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.					
7	He/She clearly states the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.					
8	He/She spends time teaching and guiding.					
9	He/She goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.					
10	He/She treats others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.					

11	He/She acts in ways that build other's respect for him/her.					
12	He/She considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.					
13	He/She displays a sense of power and confidence.					
14	He/She articulates a compelling vision of the future.					
15	He/She considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.					
16	He/She gets others to look at problems from many different angles.					
17	He/She helps others to develop their strengths.					
18	He/She suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.					
19	He/She emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.					
20	He/She expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.					

Appendix P

Affective and Normative Organizational Commitment Scale

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about this University. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your University. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this University					
2	I really feel as if this University's problems are my own					
3	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my University					
4	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this University					
5	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my University					
6	This University has a great deal of personal meaning for me					
7	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer					
8	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my University now					
9	I would feel guilty if I left my University now					
10	This University deserves my loyalty					

11	Would not leave my University right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it					
12	I owe a great deal to my University					

Appendix Q

In-Role Job Performance Scale (Self-Report)

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about your job performance. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your job performance. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I adequately complete my assigned duties							
2	I fulfil responsibilities specified in my job description							
3	I perform tasks that are expected of me							
4	I meet formal performance requirements of my job							
5	I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation							
6	I neglect aspects of the job I am obliged to perform							
7	I fail to perform my essential duties							

Appendix R

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

Listed below are the statements that represent your possible behaviours that you may have while working in this University/Institute. Read the following statements carefully and indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best describes your behaviour on job in the best way:

Serial.#.	Items	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Mostly	Always
1	I helps others who have been absent					
2	I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems					
3	I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for break or vacation.					
4	I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcomed in the University/Institute					
5	I show genuine concern and courtesy toward my coworkers, even under the most frustrating business or personal situations					
6	I give up time to help others who have work or non-work problems					
7	I assist others with their duties					
8	I share personal property with others to help in their work					
9	I attend functions that are not required but that help the University/Instituteimage					
10	I keep pace with the developments in the University/Institute					

11	I defend the University/Institutewhen other employees criticize it					
12	I show pride when representing the University/Institutein public					
13	I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the University/Institute					
14	I express loyalty toward the University/Institute					
15	I take action to protect the University/Institutefrom potential problems					
16	I demonstrate concern about the image of the University/Institute					

Appendix S

Turnover Intention Scale

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have regarding your intent to leave this University/Institute. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your intent to leave this University/Institute. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Undecided	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I am likely to search for a new job within a year							
2	I often think of quitting							
3	I will probably look for a new job in the next year							

Appendix T

Work Locus of Control Scale

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that concern your beliefs about jobs in general. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about job in this university. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Very much Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Very much Agree
1	A job is what you make of it							
2	On most jobs, people can pretty much accomplish whatever they set out to accomplish							
3	If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you							
4	If employees are unhappy with a decision made by their boss, they should do something about it							
5	Most people are capable of doing their jobs well if they make the effort							
6	Promotions are given to employees who perform well on the job							

7	People who perform their jobs well generally get rewarded							
8	Most employees have more influence on their supervisors than they think they do							

Appendix U

Occupational Stress Scale

Listed below are the statements that represent possible opinions that you may have about your stress at job in this University/Institute. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by selecting the option that best represents your point of view about your job stress in this University/Institute. Please choose from the following answers:

Serial.#.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Working here makes it hard to spend enough time with my family					
2	I spend so much time at work paying much of the attention to small details that I fail to understand bigger plans of the organization					
3	Working here leaves little time for other activities.					
4	I frequently get the feeling I am married to the University/Institute					
5	I have too much work and too little time to do it in					
6	Sometimes I am frightened by the telephone ringing at home because the call might be job-related					
7	I feel like I never have a day off.					
8	Too many people at my level in the University/Instituteget exhausted by job demands					
9	I have felt nervousness as a result of my job.					

10	My job annoys me more than it should.					
11	There are lots of times when my job irritates me greatly.					
12	Sometimes when I think about my job I get a tight feeling in my chest					
13	I feel guilty when I take time off from job					

Difficult Phrases, Words, Ambiguous or Item Structures

Scale	Item No.	Statement and Problem with the Item
POPS	1	People in this organization attempt **to build themselves up by tearing others down.** (Difficult phrase)
POPS	6	It is best not to rock the boat in this organization. (Difficult Sentence Structure)
POPS	13	The stated pay and promotion policies have nothing to do with how pay and promotions are determined. (Difficult Sentence Structure)
MLQ	1	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate. (Difficult Sentence Structure)
MLQ	7	I **specify** the importance of having a strong sense of purpose. (Ambiguous word)
MLQ	8	I spend time teaching and **coaching.** (Ambiguous word)
NCS	7	I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current **employer**. (Not suitable word in the context of university)

Scale	Item No.	Statement and Problem with the Item
OCBS	3	Adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for **time off**. (Difficult phrase)
OCBS	5	Show genuine concern and courtesy toward my coworkers, even under the most **trying** business or personal situations. (Ambiguous word)
OCBS	10	**Keep up** with the developments in the university. (Difficult phrase)
WLCS	1	A job is what you make of it. (Difficult sentence structure to understand)
WLCS	3	If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you. (Difficult sentence structure to understand)
OSS	2	I spend so much time at work, I can't see the forest for the trees. (Difficult sentence structure to understand)
OSS	6	**I sometimes dread** the telephone ringing at home because the call might be job-related. (Ambiguous phrase)
OSS	8	Too many people at my level in the company get **burned out** by job demands. (Ambiguous phrase)
OSS	10	My job **gets to** me more than it should. (Ambiguous phrase)
OSS	11	**There are lots of times when my job drives me up the wall.** (Difficult sentence structure to understand)

Note. POPS = Perceived organizational politics scale, MLQ = Multifactor leadership inventory, NCS= Normative commitment sub-scale, OCBS = Organizational citizenship scale, WLCS = Work locus of control scale, OSS = Occupational stress scale

Appendix W

Original and Modified items of Various Instruments

Scale	Item #	Original Item	Adapted Item
POPS	1	People in this organization attempt "to build themselves up by tearing others down"	People in this university/ institute attempt to move up by pulling others down
POPS	6	"It is best not to rock the boat in this organization"	It is best not to destabilize the situation in this university/institute by creating trouble
POPS	13	"The stated pay and promotion policies have nothing to do with how pay and promotions are determined"	There is a marked contradiction between the declared merit of pay and promotion, and how they are actually awarded
MLQ	1	I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	He/She gives a second thought to the question of his/her involvement in misusing the public property.
WLCS	1	"A job is what you make of it"	Whether a job is good or bad for you, depends on how you do that job

Continued…

Scale	Item #	Original Item	Adapted Item
WLCS	3	"If you know what you want out of a job, you can find a job that gives it to you"	If you are clear about what you want from a job then it will be easy for you to find a job that can fulfill your requirements
OSS	2	"I spend so much time at work, I can't see the forest for the trees"	I spend so much time at work paying much of the attention to small details that I fail to understand bigger plans of the organization
OSS	11	"There are lots of times when my job drives me up the wall"	There are lots of times when my job irritates me greatly.

Note. POPS = Perceived organizational politics scale, MLQ = Multifactor leadership inventory, WLCS = Work locus of control scale, OSS = Occupational stress scale