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Political Will, Work Values, and Objective Career Success:
A Novel Approach – the Trait-Reputation-Identity Model

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Abstract

Individual-level political will in organizations and careers is recognized by many scholars as an important yet under-investigated construct. Only recently has a scale directly assessing political will been developed, and its validation process has just begun (Kapoutsis, Papalexandris, Treadway, & Bentley, 2017). We used the Trait-Reputation-Identity Model (McAbee & Connelly, 2016) and a triadic multisource design to explore and elucidate the nomological network of political will, including its link to objective career success. We found supporting empirical evidence for the construct (power striving) and criterion validity (hierarchical position and income) of the self-serving political will scale. However, our findings did not support the multi-rater convergence and the interpretation of the benevolent political will scale as representing an altruistic political motive. Hence, we suggest the development and validation of new items that directly relate to benevolence toward others at work. We further encourage researchers to develop and validate an additional scale assessing altruistic political will above and beyond self-serving and benevolent political will. We discuss additional implications, limitations, and directions for future research.

Keywords: political will, work values, career success, Trait-Reputation-Identity Model, scale validation

Political Will, Work Values, and Objective Career Success:**A Novel Approach – the Trait-Reputation-Identity Model**

The power struggle over work place assets, so-called political behavior, exists in almost every organization (Vigoda-Gadot, 2003). Political perspectives on organizations and careers have been prevalent and influential in organizational and career theory and research over the past decades (e.g., Inkson, 2004; Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981; 2010; Vigoda-Gadot & Drory, 2016). A great amount of empirical research has been devoted to influence and impression management tactics (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003), perceptions of organizational politics (Chang, Rosen, & Levy, 2009), and political skill (Munyon, Summers, Thompson, & Ferris, 2015). One construct of organizational politics, however, is still lacking adequate empirical research relative to its broadly suggested (yet rarely tested) paramount importance in organizations and careers (Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 2010): political will.

The concept of political will describes an “actor’s willingness to expend energy in pursuit of political goals, and it is viewed as an essential precursor to engaging in political behavior” (Treadway, Hochwarter, Kacmar, & Ferris, 2005, p. 231). Treadway defined individual-level political will in organizations as “the motivation to engage in strategic, goal directed behavior that advances the personal agenda and objectives of the actor that inherently involves the risk of relational or reputational capital” (2012, p. 533).

In addition, it has been suggested that hidden political motivations of individual actors can play a crucial role in organizations (Pfeffer, 1981). These hidden political motivations form part of the negative image of politics in organizations (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011). Some scholars associate them with a readiness to manipulate people in the pursuit of selfish aims (e.g., Mintzberg, 1983). The negative evaluation of political behavior, however, has neglected its potential upside as a source of information, as a legitimate form of voice with the potential to generate, maintain, or alter shared meaning, and with the capacity to promote justice, fairness, health, and well-being (Hochwarter, 2012). Therefore, a growing number of

scholars regard political behavior in more neutral ways which may be self-serving, benevolent, or humanistic (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011).

Despite claims about its theoretical and practical importance (Treadway, 2012), only recently has a scale directly assessing political will been developed, and its validation process is just at the beginning (Kapoutsis, Papalexandris, Treadway, & Bentley, 2017). According to Treadway's (2012) theoretical perspective, political will comprises both self-serving and altruistic motives. Kapoutsis et al. (2017) have developed a two-dimensional self-report political will scale (PWS) with sound psychometric properties, and it provides a good fit within the nomological network of psychology and the organizational sciences. The self-serving dimension of political will was related to the individual's need for achievement, power, and Machiavellianism while the benevolent dimension was related to the need for affiliation, organizational citizenship behavior, and voice behavior. These two dimensions of political will are supposed to represent correlated motivational traits which exhibit consistency across situations and over time and are different from psychological states, which are situation-specific and change quickly (Donovan, Bateman, Heggstad, 2013).

Kapoutsis et al. (2017) conducted four validation studies comprising six samples with more than 900 participants overall from three countries (United States, Greece, and the United Kingdom). Although the results inspire confidence in the new scale, additional work is still necessary. First, information on the relationship between political will and objective career success is not yet available. Second, the relation between the benevolent dimension of political will and altruism needs to be tested. And finally, since consensual validation is a cornerstone of trait validation in psychology (Campbell & Fiske, 1959), consensual validation through self-other agreement still needs to be provided. In this type of multisource validation procedure a trait reflects the shared variance across raters (McAbee & Connelly, 2016). Validation through self-other agreement has previously been used to support construct validity of scales to assess organizational influence tactics (Blickle, 2003) and political skill

(Ferris et al., 2008). Hence, it is our goal to close the theoretical and empirical gap by providing additional information regarding both criterion- and construct-related validity by linking political will to individual career success and examining the amount of self-other consensus and how it relates to work values adjacent to political will.

There may not only be trait information that is shared between the self and others (at work), but also self-other knowledge asymmetries (Luft & Ingham, 1955; McAbee & Connelly, 2016; Vazire, 2010). Especially for motivational traits, there may be trait information which is only known to the self but not to others. This hidden trait information forms part of a person's *identity*, i.e., the self-definition of a person, which may have an impact on how a person chooses, pursues, and monitors goal attainment (Blickle, 2000; Hogan & Shelton, 1998). In addition, there may be some trait perception that is known and shared by others but unknown to the self. McAbee and Connelly (2016) have called this other-shared trait perception *reputation*, which can be based, for instance, on physical appearance stereotypes, communication stemming from intermediaries rather than from direct observation of targets (e.g., gossip), or communication of other-raters with one another. Finally, there may be trait perceptions which lie completely in the eyes of the beholders and are unique to the specific observer. Based on these assumptions, McAbee and Connelly (2016) have developed the Trait-Reputation-Identity (TRI) Model, which separates self-other trait ratings into consensus about underlying traits (trait), unique self-perceptions (identity), impressions shared by others that are distinct from self-perceptions (reputation), and unique other-rater perceptions (observer uniqueness).

In this research we utilized the TRI Model (McAbee & Connelly, 2016) to contribute to the validation of the newly developed measure of political will in organizations (Kapoutsis et al., 2017). The TRI Model focuses on the consensual trait validation across different raters. In addition, we also used this model to assess criterion, convergent, and discriminant validity with reference to objective career success (Ng, Eby, Sorensen, & Feldman, 2005), and

specific work values such as altruism, management, and creativity (Blickle, 2000; Super, 1970) that should be important or irrelevant for political will.

Our research adds several contributions to the literature. Firstly, our study contributes to pertinent research on political perspectives of organizations and career success by testing cornerstones of the validity (i.e. consensual, convergent, discriminant, and criterion validity) of a new measure of political will in organizations. Secondly, previous research has successfully applied the TRI Model to personality traits (McAbee & Connelly, 2016). In our research, we go beyond previous work by using this model to assess motivational traits at work (Donovan et al., 2013), because especially for motivational traits the identity dimension (i.e., what is only known to the self but not to others) should also be highly relevant. Finally, we not only include the trait, reputation, and identity dimensions of political will but also the trait, reputation, and identity dimensions of work values in our validation analyses. These work values are also highly relevant to the nomological network of individuals' political will (Treadway, 2012).

Assessing Political Will

The Political Will Scale (PWS) by Kapoutsis et al. (2017) comprises two distinct but related dimensions, one with an instrumental focus on a target's self-interest, and another one with a relational focus. The items of the self-serving dimension are: "Prevailing in the political arena at work would prove my competence" (Tab. 3, SV01), and "I would engage in politics to preserve my self-esteem" (Tab. 3, SV02). "Engaging in politics is an attractive means to achieve my personal objectives" (Tab. 3, SV03), and "I would employ political tactics to be in my boss' in-group" (Tab. 3, SV04). The items of the benevolent dimension are: "When I am right I am willing to act politically" (Tab. 3, BN01), and "I would engage in politics to serve the common good" (Tab. 3, BN02). "I would use political tactics to improve my working conditions" (Tab. 3, BN03), and "Doing good for others sometimes means acting politically" (Tab. 3, BN04). The fit indices of confirmatory factor analyses in four different

samples were good ($.96 \leq CFI \leq .99$; $.94 \leq TLI \leq .99$; $.04 \leq RMSEA \leq .10$; $.03 \leq SRMR \leq .05$). Cronbach's alphas were also good ($.79 \leq a$ (self-serving scale) $\leq .92$; $.82 \leq a$ (benevolent scale) $\leq .88$), and the correlations between the two scales ranged between $.62$ ($p < .01$) and $.77$ ($p < .01$).

The wording of some of the supposedly benevolent items of political will, e.g., "When I am right I am willing to act politically" and "I would use political tactics to improve my working conditions," however, raises the question whether the latter items would tap the benevolent dimension of political will. These items seem to be very heterogeneous and are not directly related to benevolence toward others.

The two scales share important associations with construct- and criterion-relevant measures. Both scales correlate with self-ratings of political behavior at work ($.53 \leq r \leq .54$, $p < .01$; e.g., influencing people at work and working behind the scenes; Treadway et al., 2005), the use of specific influence tactics such as upward appeals ($.52 \leq r \leq .59$, $p < .01$), coalition building ($.44 \leq r \leq .46$, $p < .01$), ingratiation ($r = .27$, $p < .01$), and assertiveness ($.20 \leq r \leq .23$, $p < .01$), and a positive supervisory-rated informal status in the workplace ($.25 \leq r \leq .26$, $p < .01$).

In addition, each scale has a specific focus. While only the self-serving scale correlates positively with Machiavellianism ($r = .30$, $p < .01$; benevolent: $r = .08$, *ns.*), need for power ($r = .20$, $p < .05$; benevolent: $r = .08$, *ns.*), and need for achievement ($r = .18$, $p < .05$; benevolent: $r = .15$, *ns.*), it is the benevolent scale which correlates with need for affiliation ($r = .16$, $p < .05$; self-serving: $r = .12$, *ns.*), the use of the influence tactics of rationality ($r = .26$, $p < .01$; self-serving: $r = .10$, *ns.*) and exchange of benefits ($r = .24$, $p < .01$; self-serving: $r = .17$, *ns.*), higher supervisory ratings of organizational citizenship behavior ($r = .20$, $p < .05$; self-serving: $r = .06$, *ns.*), and self-rated voice behavior ($r = .35$, $p < .01$; self-serving: $r = .20$, $p < .05$).

In sum, these findings support the idea that both dimensions assess the general willingness of individuals to use political behavior in organizations, which represents the common focus of both scales. In addition, the findings also tend to underline that the PW self-serving scale taps the instrumental dimension of political will, which is directed at the promotion of self-interest. The empirical findings also tend to support the distinctiveness of the second dimension of political will, which focuses around affiliation, exchange of benefits, organizational citizenship behavior, and voice behavior. A thorough analysis of the content of the benevolent items, however, reveals a high degree of heterogeneity, with some of these items not actually related to benevolence toward others.

Kapoutsis et al. (2017) provided initial evidence for the construct validity of the scale, though did not establish the criterion validity of self-serving political will, i.e., whether it predicts objective career success (e.g., climbing up the organizational hierarchy and achieving higher income; Baruch & Bozionelos, 2011; Ng et al., 2005). Moreover, while explicitly theoretically claimed by Kapoutsis et al. (2017), the authors' study did not directly test the positive association of the benevolent scale with altruistic motives. Consequently, it could be that the benevolent dimension of the PWS is indeed associated with altruistic motives (i.e., willingness to contribute specifically to others' welfare, Super, 1970). But there are also reasons to believe that the benevolent scale just measures the communal motive of getting along with others (Hogan & Blicke, 2013), i.e., focusing on the shared interests of the self and some others at work. Finally, by relying only on self-reports, the PWS still lacks consensual validation through self-other agreement across different raters.

The Trait-Reputation-Identity (TRI) Model

The TRI Model (McAbee & Connelly, 2016) builds on and integrates the logic of the Johari window (Luft & Ingham, 1955), the Self-Other Knowledge Asymmetry Model (Vazire, 2010), Socioanalytic Theory of Personality (Hogan & Blicke, 2013), and bi-factor measurement models (Reise, 2012) based on self-other multisource data.

A bifactor measurement model specifies that for a given set of item responses, correlations among items can be accounted for by: (a) a general factor representing shared variance among all the items and (b) a set of group factors where variance over and above the general factor is shared among subsets of items. [...] Commonly assumed, too, is that the general and group factors are orthogonal. (Rodriguez, Reise, & Haviland, 2016, p. 137)

In the TRI Model, the general factor representing shared variance among all items from all self- and other-ratings is called the *trait* factor. Additionally, the TRI Model comprises three different kinds of group factors: the *identity* factor represents self-perceptions that are unique to the self; the *reputation* factor represents other-perceptions that are shared by all others but are distinct from self-perceptions; and the *observer uniqueness* factors that represent observer-specific perceptions that are unique to the individual observer(s). Figure 1 depicts the Trait-Reputation-Identity Model in the Johari window framework and a measurement model for other-raters from different groups or contexts; if raters are from the same group or context the reputation factor can be modeled as the common variance among other-rater factors (McAbee & Connelly, 2016).

*** Insert Figure 1 about here ***

Thus, the TRI Model is a promising analytical framework. So far, however, the TRI Model has only been used with personality traits (McAbee & Connelly, 2016). We suggest that it is also useful for understanding motivational individual difference variables like political will because motivational difference variables manifest in behaviors and therefore have external dimensions observable by coworkers in a context but also have an internal dimension only accessible to the target individuals (Donovan et al., 2013). The TRI Model comprises both the shared and private dimensions of these stable individual motivational characteristics. In addition, the TRI Model permits the separation of variance of the objective trait shared by the self and others, idiosyncratic trait perceptions of self (identity) and specific other-raters (rater uniqueness), and other-shared variance (reputation). Therefore, it is possible

to specifically test hypotheses concerning traits and isolate these tests from other sources of influence such as identity, reputation, and rater uniqueness.

Politically acting individuals express the strength, direction, and persistence of their political will to others by political and voice behaviors at work (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Treadway et al., 2005). Reality in organizations is often enacted and socially constructed through politicking and voice behaviors between individuals. The stronger the targets' political will, the more time they spend politicking publicly or behind the scenes. They exchange gossip, bargain, try to form coalitions, exert pressure on others, ingratiate, make upward appeals, make suggestions about how to improve work practices, speak up with recommendations on how to fix problems, etc. (Higgins et al., 2003; Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). As such, overtly expressed political activities of employees play an important role in shaping others' perceptions and assessments of their motives and individual characteristics by others. Therefore, we postulate:

Hypothesis 1. All item ratings of the self-serving dimension of political will from the target and the observers will load on a common factor, namely the trait self-serving factor of political will.

Hypothesis 2. All item ratings of the benevolent dimension of political will from the target and the observers will load on a common factor, namely the trait benevolent factor of political will.

Political Will, Work Values, and Career Success

Political will has been associated with the readiness to manipulate people, to foment, and to utilize factions for personal gain, a disregard for others in the pursuit of selfish aims, etc. (Mintzberg, 1983). However, this one-sided view has neglected the potential of political will and behavior as a source of information, as a legitimate form of voice, and the capacity to promote fairness and well-being (Hochwarter, 2012). Therefore, Treadway (2012) argued that political will is a multidimensional construct consisting of both self-serving and altruistic

motives. While the former, without doubt, encapsulates the motive to act in one's own interest, the latter is not as easily described. While both Treadway (2012) and Kapoutsis et al. (2017) characterize the benevolent dimension as generally altruistic, it remains open whether it is a motive aimed at humanistic ideals and improving the common good or aimed at improving work-group-related issues. Theoretical arguments by Kapoutsis et al. (2017) and Treadway (2012) can be interpreted in favor of both work groups and the common good as beneficiaries, but item-wording (Item 2: "I would engage in politics to serve the common good") indicates a more humanistic perspective. We adopt the humanistic perspective and see benevolent political will as a motivation driven by altruistic values, aimed at benefitting others and doing the right thing for the common good. Therefore, we postulate:

Hypothesis 3. There will be a positive relationship between the trait dimension of the work value of altruism and the trait benevolent dimension of political will.

Viewed through the lens of organizational politics, careers can be seen as political campaigns (Inkson, 2004), involving contact hunting (Wolff & Moser, 2009), self-promotion (Higgins et al., 2003), impression management (Bolino & Turnley, 2003), and the use of influence tactics (Judge & Bretz, 1994). In the context of socioanalytic theory (Hogan & Blicke, 2013; 2018) self-serving political will forms part of the more general and often implicit motive of getting ahead, i.e., striving for status, power, and the control of resources (Anderson, Hildreth, & Howland, 2015). Hogan and Shelton (1998) argued that the attainment of these goals is facilitated by social skill. In addition, related research found that in the long run, ambition, i.e., the persistent and generalized striving for success, attainment, and accomplishment, predicts success in the attainment of status and power in itself, irrespective of social skill (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland & Franz, 1992). Dietl, Meurs, and Blicke (2017) theorized and found that the implicit motive relates to reputation at work, which, in turn, is positively related to occupational status. Supporting evidence for the long-term, direct impact of ambition on the attainment of status and power also comes from a

large longitudinal study with a seven-decade longitudinal sample of 717 individuals (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012). They found that individuals' ambition was related positively to occupational prestige and income.

The so-called corresposive principle (Roberts, Caspi, & Moffitt, 2003) suggests that pre-existing trait characteristics shape the path that people follow, with this path in turn reinforcing those traits over time. In other words, aspiring for higher ranking social roles at work is driven by self-serving political will, and in turn, given that hierarchical success gets people close to the seat of power and the realm of decision making and resource allocation, objective career success fosters self-serving political will.

In sum, since individuals motivated by self-serving political will are ambitious and driven by the motive of getting ahead, they are striving for accomplishment and are focused on their careers, so the trait self-serving dimension of political will should be related to career success. In addition, there is also empirical evidence indicating that objective career success, i.e., higher levels of material benefits and occupational attainment, fosters agentic motivations (Le, Donnellan, & Conger, 2014; Roberts et al., 2003). Furthermore, Oerder, Blickle and Summers (2014) found that holding an office shapes individual political skill. Therefore, we postulate:

Hypothesis 4. There will be a positive relationship between (self-reported) career success and the trait self-serving dimension of political will.

Traits like ambition are general tendencies, abstract potentialities, and general dispositions (Blickle et al., 2011), which, however, lack the characteristic adaptations of the individual to specific contexts or environments. Work values, however, are context-specific measurements of general traits. They are conceptualized at the level of characteristic adaptations, and are assumed to be more malleable and to develop through interactions with the specific work context (McCrae & Costa, 1996). Blickle (2000) found that the work value of striving for power which Super (1970) called work value of management, i.e., striving for

work which involves having authority over others and directing others, predicted the use of influence tactics, such as upward appeals and pressure over a time interval of one year. Because self-serving political will includes a focus on the manifest power motive (Kapoutsis et al., 2017), this should manifest in the wish to rise up in positions of authority which involve giving orders to others. Therefore, we postulate:

Hypothesis 5. There will be a positive relationship between the trait dimension of the work value of management and the trait self-serving dimension of political will.

Finally, construct validity of scales comprises convergent *and* discriminant evidence (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Discriminant validation evidence is provided if a measure of a given construct has no substantial association with a measure of an unrelated construct. We expected that the work value of creativity (i.e., a preference for work in which one invents new things or develops new ideas; Super, 1970) should be unrelated to political will at work. Therefore, we expected no substantial relations between the trait self-serving and trait benevolent dimensions of political will and the work value of creativity.

Methods

Participants and Procedures

Our sample included a total of 121 employee-coworker triads, collected from a broad range of jobs within the German workforce in order to ensure high variability and avoid range restrictions (Schmidt & Hunter, 2015). To recruit participants, employees were personally contacted by six psychology students in partial fulfilment of their study requirements. Recent research has shown that the diversity of this type of sample can increase the external validity of results (Wheeler, Shanine, Leon, & Whitman, 2014). Employees were asked whether they would like to take part in an online study on workplace behavior, and whether they would ask two coworkers to provide a job-related assessment of them. Coworkers could be peers, supervisors, or staff. All participants were informed that confidentiality was preserved by using randomly generated codes. To participate, all employees were further required to have

worked for at least six months in their current job and to have a minimum workload of 20 hours per week.

We sent email invitations, including information about the study, a personal log-in code, and a link to the online study to 728 interested employees. A total of 339 (46.57%) employees then completed a self-assessment composed of the Political Will Scale, the three subscales from the Work Values Inventory, and a couple of demographic controls. At the end of the survey, we asked employees to enter the email addresses of two of their coworkers. Next, coworkers were automatically invited via email to take part in the study. Each coworker independently completed an external assessment of target employees' political will and work values. In total, 362 coworkers completed the assessment. To ensure the methodological strength of our analyses, we eliminated all target employees from our sample who had received only one other-rating ($n = 70$). Further, coworkers were required to have worked with the target employee for at least six months. Additionally, to ensure that all other-raters had true working contact with the target employee, we asked coworkers to report their relationship with the target (peer, supervisor, subordinate, other). We dropped all participants who had less than six months of shared work experience and who chose the option *other* ($n = 50$) from our sample.

Finally, our sample consisted of 121 employee-coworker triads with 173 peers, 59 supervisors, and ten subordinates providing an external assessment. The employees (53.7% female) were between 19 and 63 years old ($M = 36.87$, $SD = 11.21$) and had an average job tenure of 7.42 years ($SD = 8.17$). In general, our sample was well educated; more than 50% of employee targets held at least a bachelor's degree.

To further validate our decision to eliminate all employees with only one other-rater from our sample, we compared both groups with reference to sex, age, and our variables of interest. There were no differences between targets who had two other-raters ($N = 121$) or only one other-rater ($N = 70$) with reference to sex ($X^2 = .093$, $p = .76$), age ($F = .403$, $p =$

.53), weekly working hours ($F = .391, p = .53$), hierarchical position ($F = .503, p = .47$), annual income ($F = .840, p = .36$), self-serving political will ($F = .954, p = .33$), work value of upward striving ($F = 2.193, p = .14$), work value of altruism ($F = .135, p = .71$), and work value of job safety ($F = 3.541, p = .06$). However, benevolent political will was higher in the group of targets with two in contrast to one other-rater ($F = 4.853, p = .029$; partial $\eta^2 = .025$). As the variance explained by the group difference with reference to the benevolent political will dimension was significant but very small we concluded that the two groups were *practically* equivalent.

Measures

Self-serving and benevolent political will. We measured self- and other-rated political skill with a German version of the Political Will Scale (PWS; Kapoutsis et al., 2017). To ensure semantic equivalence with the original English items, we followed a double-blind back-translation procedure (Schaffer & Riordan, 2003). For the other-ratings of political will, the wording of the items was changed from for example “I would...” to “This person would...” We measured self-serving and benevolent political will with four items each (see above). Participants responded to the statements on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1 = *strongly disagree* – 7 = *strongly agree*). Cronbach’s alphas were good (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) for the self- and other-rated scales ($.73 \leq \alpha \leq .86$) and are displayed in Table 1.

Altruism, management, creativity. We used the German version of the Work Values Inventory (WVI; Seifert & Bergmann, 1983; Super, 1970) which assesses different work values. For the purpose of this study we employed the work values of altruism, management, and creativity. The WVI asks participants how much certain occupational values and goals matter to them on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = *not at all* – 5 = *crucial*). For the other-rater perspective, items were again slightly modified. Coworkers were asked how important certain occupational values and goals were for the person who had invited them to take part in the survey. Each dimension was measured by three items, namely “assisting and helping other

people,” “caring for the welfare of other people,” “getting the feeling of having helped others” (altruism), “work which involves having authority over others,” “work which involves directing others,” “work which involves giving orders” (management), and “work in which one invents new things or develops new ideas,” “try out new ideas and suggestions,” “assisting in the development of new things” (creativity). Cronbach’s alphas were good for the self- and other-rated scales ($.76 \leq \alpha \leq .88$) and are displayed in Table 1.

Career success. In line with Judge, Higgins, Thoresen, and Barrick (1999) we measured objective career success as a latent construct; we used for this the z-scores of employees’ hierarchical position and annual gross income. Employees reported their current hierarchical position within their organization (0% = lowest level – 100% = highest level; $M = 52.49$, $SD = 23.78$) and their annual salary ($M = 48,712$ Euro, $SD = 32,735$ Euro with one item each. Self-reports of objective data have been shown to correlate highly with archival records in other studies (e.g., Blickle, Wendel, & Ferris, 2010; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, & Bretz, 1995; Kuncel, Credé, & Thomas, 2005; Turban & Dougherty, 1994).

Statistical Analyses

Selecting the specific TRI Model. There are two ways to model the reputation factor in data sets with more than one other-rater (McAbee & Connelly, 2016): If other-raters stem from the same group the reputation variance can be assessed as the common variance of the other-rater factors. If other-raters stem from different groups the reputation factor should directly tap all other-rater items (see Figure 1). We therefore compared the two other-rater groups. On average, raters knew their targets for more than six years. In the second group the time of working together with the target was higher ($t = -2.31$, $p < .05$) than in the first group of other-raters; the second group also had more direct face-to-face contact with the target ($t = -3.27$, $p < .01$), the work of the second group was more connected with that of their targets ($t = -12.97$, $p < .01$) than in the first group, and the personal relationship between the other-raters and targets was closer in the second group than in the first group ($t = -3.01$, $p < .01$).

Additionally, we statistically compared the goodness of fit of the two contrasting models to model the reputation factor. Both with the self-serving political will items ($\Delta X^2 = 14.339$, $\Delta df = 6$, $p(\Delta X^2, \Delta df) < .05$) and the benevolent political will items ($\Delta X^2 = 16.811$, $\Delta df = 6$, $p(\Delta X^2, \Delta df) < .01$) the direct modeling of the reputation factor attained a significantly better goodness of fit. Based on these findings we concluded that the two rater groups were different and modeled the reputation factor as depicted in Figure 1.

Comparison of measurement models. We conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) in Mplus 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012), testing whether the TRI models exhibit the best model fit. As such, we compared three different models for our scales of interest: (a) general factor models, i.e., all self- and other-rating items are modeled to load on one general factor, (b) models with three correlated factors – one for each rater (self, observer 1, observer 2), and (c) bi-factor models, including the trait, reputation, identity, and other-rater uniqueness factors of each scale (PW self-serving, PW benevolent, altruism, management, and creativity). To model these bi-factors, we used the approach with non-equivalent raters (McAbee & Connelly, 2016) and tested the models sequentially and separately for each scale in order to have a good relation between sample size and number of parameters estimated (Kline, 2011). By definition, the trait, identity, rater uniqueness, and reputation factors were uncorrelated in bi-factor measurement models (Reise, 2012). Models were identified by fixing the variances of all latent factors to 1. We constrained to equivalence the loadings of the first item of each rating source on the PW trait factors (McAbee & Connelly, 2016) by setting it to 1.0. Heywood cases were resolved by fixing negative residual variance to zero. Based on Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, and Müller (2003) models were assessed for goodness of fit using the following criteria: good fit: $p(X^2(df)) > .05$, $RMSEA < .05$, and $CFI \geq .97$; acceptable fit: $p(X^2(df)) \geq .01$, $RMSEA \leq .08$, and $CFI \geq .95$.

Hypothesis testing. To test Hypotheses 1 and 2, we ran two separate bi-factor models for self-serving and benevolent political will and analyzed the model fits and factor loadings

of both models. Next, to test Hypothesis 4, we reran the bi-factor model for self-serving political will, and additionally modeled the latent variable for career success with hierarchical position and annual income as indicators. To test Hypotheses 3 and 5 and discriminant validity of the political will scales we analyzed the relations between the TRI models of self-serving and benevolent political will with the TRI models of altruism, management, and creativity. Because of the small sample size in relation to the number of parameter estimates in structural equation models (SEM) with two TRI models at a time (Kline, 2011), we exported the TRI dimensions for all variables to SPSS 24. The correlations between the TRI dimensions of each variable are by definition zero (Reise, 2012). In SPSS we computed correlation coefficients between the aforementioned TRI dimensions.

Results

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency reliability estimates of the study variables. Cronbach's alphas ranged between $.73 \leq \alpha \leq .88$, and thus were good (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Income and hierarchical level, the two indicators of career success, correlated at $r = .45$ ($p < .01$). As expected in Germany, men reported higher income and hierarchical position than women (Hirschel, 2004). The correlations between PW self-serving and PW benevolent within each rating source ranged between $.55$ ($p < .01$) and $.60$ ($p < .01$) and thus were a little bit lower than in the Kapoutsis et al. (2017) samples ($.62 \leq r \leq .77$).

*** Insert Table 1 about here ***

Table 2 reports the overall goodness of fit analyses of the TRI models in comparison with the general factor, i.e., all self- and other-rating items are modeled to load on one general factor, and correlated factor models. For all scales, the TRI models had the best goodness of fit. For the self-serving PW scale and for the altruism, management, and creativity scales the fit indices were good: p ($X^2(df) > .150$, $RMSEA < .057$, and $CFI > .985$); for the benevolent PW scale the fit index of CFI slightly missed the mark, i.e., $CFI < .950$,

although $p(X^2(df) = .011$ and $RMSEA = .070$ were acceptable (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003).

*** Insert Table 2 about here ***

To test Hypotheses 1 and 2, suggesting convergent validity of all rating sources on the trait factors, we analyzed the standardized factor loadings of the trait factors of self-serving and benevolent political will scales. As displayed in Table 3, all items of the self-serving political will scale from all data sources loaded positively and significantly on the trait factor, thereby strongly supporting Hypothesis 1.

With the benevolent political will scale only six out of the 12 items had significant factor loadings. In addition to this, we conducted a joint SEM analysis with the TRI models of self-serving and benevolent political will. In order to limit the number of parameter estimates we only modeled correlations between the corresponding trait, reputation, identity, and observer factors. The fit indices of this model were not acceptable (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003): $\chi^2 = 314.702$ ($df = 214$), $p = .001$, $RMSEA = .062$, $CFI = .918$. Furthermore, the trait factors correlated at $\rho = .97$ ($p < .001$). A closer inspection of the items of benevolent political will which loaded on the trait factor revealed that these were item 1 (“When I am right I am willing to act politically” and item 3 (“I would use political tactics to improve my working conditions”). The wording of these items has close affinity to the self-serving political will items. Therefore, it is not surprising that the trait factors correlated at $\rho = .97$ ($p < .001$). These findings strongly disprove the distinctiveness and uniqueness of the benevolent political will trait from self-serving political will. Taken together, these findings did not support Hypothesis 2.

Interestingly, there were no consistent and strong reputation factors of targets’ benevolent and self-serving political will and work values shared by coworkers at work. We therefore dropped these reputation factors from further analyses (cf. Tables 3–5). This lack of

a common reputation factor among other-raters also indicates that the other-raters stem from different groups.

*** Insert Tables 3 and 4 about here ***

Hypothesis 3 postulates a positive relationship between the trait dimension of the work value of trait altruism and the trait benevolent dimension of political will. The data, however, did not support this hypothesis (see Table 5). Neither of the altruism factors correlated with any of the political will factors. These findings are in line with the observation that the wording of the benevolent political will items is very heterogeneous and the wording of some items is not related to benevolence toward others.

To test Hypothesis 4, which postulates a positive relationship between career success and the trait factor of self-serving political will, we modeled a SEM with the TRI model of self-serving political will and career success. One Heywood case was removed by setting the corresponding residual variance to zero. The fit indices of the model were very good ($\chi^2 = 52.384$ ($df = 54$), $p = .537$; $RMSEA = .000$; $CFI = 1.000$). As expected, the trait dimension of self-serving political will correlated positively with career success ($\beta = .39$, $p < .05$). The identity ($\beta = -.07$, $ns.$) and reputation dimensions ($\beta = -.10$, $ns.$) were not significantly correlated with career success. These findings support Hypothesis 4.

Hypothesis 5 postulates a positive relationship between the trait dimension of the work value of trait management and the trait self-serving dimension of political will. The data support this hypothesis (see Table 5). The self-serving trait factor was associated positively with the management trait factor ($r = .33$, $p < .01$). Interestingly, the identity factor of self-serving political will correlated with the identity factor of management ($r = .25$, $p < .01$). Finally, as expected, none of the self-serving factors of political will were correlated with the creativity factors, thereby supporting discriminant validity of the self-serving political will scale.

Discussion

Within a multisource design with target-other-rater triads, this study enriched previous research and tested the construct and criterion validity of the self-serving and benevolent dimensions of the recently published political will scale (Kapoutsis et al., 2017). For this purpose, we used a newly introduced statistical approach (McAbee & Conelly, 2016), the Trait-Reputation-Identity (TRI) Model. In this study, it was useful in the construct and criterion validation process of the self-serving political will scale and the invalidation process of the benevolent political will scale suggested by Kapoutsis et al. (2017). Our findings supported construct and criterion validity of the self-serving dimension of the political will scale. Self- and other-ratings of the self-serving scale significantly converged on the common trait factor. The self-serving political will trait factor associated positively with the trait factor of the work value of management, i.e., striving for power at work, and objective career success (hierarchical position and annual income). In addition, the scale demonstrated discriminant validity with the TRI factors of the creativity work value scale.

Our findings, however, did not support the construct validity of the benevolent scale of political will: the TRI SEM model only attained a marginally acceptable goodness of fit; 50 percent of the items rated by targets and observers did not load significantly on the common factor, i.e., the trait benevolent factor of political will; a joint SEM analysis with the TRI models of self-serving and benevolent political will revealed a trait correlation of $\rho = .97$, thereby strongly disconfirming the distinctiveness and uniqueness of the benevolent political will trait; and finally there was no significant positive relationship between the trait benevolent factor of political will and the trait factor of the work value of altruism. These findings seem to reflect the impression that the items designed by Kapoutsis et al. (2017) to assess benevolent political will are very heterogeneous and are often not directly related to benevolence toward others.

Implications for Theory and Measurement

Given the lack of supporting evidence for multi-rater convergence, the uniqueness and distinctiveness of the so-called benevolent political will dimension provided by Kapoutsis et al. (2017), and the lack of convergence with altruism, there are two options to proceed: either questioning the validity of the construct of benevolent political will or questioning the validity of its measurement. One might argue in the tradition of Mintzberg (1983) that benevolent political will is a self-contradictory term because political will is always self-serving. This position, however, does not take into consideration the arguments which were advanced since that time to demonstrate that political behavior is not inherently self-serving (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011; Hochwarter, 2012; Oerder et al., 2014; Provis, 2006).

We suggest starting by questioning the validity of its measurement by the Kapoutsis et al. (2017) benevolent political will scale. Two of the four items (i.e., “When I am right I am willing to act politically,” and “I would use political tactics to improve my working conditions”) lack face validity. As an apparent result, the whole benevolent political will scale empirically lacked convergent, discriminant, and criterion validity in the present study. In addition, we suggest a new interpretation of the construct of benevolent political will. To date, it has been an open question whether particular work groups or society is the intended beneficiary of benevolent political will. Our results suggest that the present benevolent scale of political will does not assess altruistic political motivation. Benevolent political will, however, might be directed at benefitting a particular group of people or a particular organizational unit. This new interpretation provides a more fine-grained and nuanced understanding of the benevolent political will construct and brings clarity into a conceptual area with potential misunderstandings. Belonging to a group and supporting its welfare provides many self-serving political advantages to the individual in organizations, namely psychological affiliation, getting help, shelter, and protection (solidarity), exchange of information and gossip, and getting one’s share when successfully competing with other groups in organizations (Hogan & Blicke, 2013; 2018). In conclusion, we therefore suggest

that benevolent political will is not humanistic and driven by altruism, but that the individual might be motivated by the interests of a particular group to which he/she belongs. And if the group is successful, individuals' self-serving interests are also promoted (Vigoda-Gadot & Vashdi, 2012). We suggest that future research should develop new items to assess the benevolent dimension of political will which are directly related to supporting the common good of a particular group or organizational unit.

Several decades ago, Mintzberg (1983) stated that in order to be successful in organizations and to rise up in the hierarchy, individuals not only need respective political skill and knowledge but also the corresponding motivation, i.e., political will. However, to our knowledge, our study is the first to empirically demonstrate this implied specific association between political will and objective career success. While previous studies have over several decades demonstrated an association between the general motive of getting ahead and career success (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2012; McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland & Franz, 1992) and meta-analytical research has shown that political knowledge and skill are important predictors of objective career success (Ng et al., 2005), we enrich existing knowledge about the interplay of politics in organizations and career success by empirically underpinning the direct relationship between self-serving political will and objective career success. The present study was cross-sectional; future research should employ longitudinal designs. In these designs researchers should also test the application of the responsive principle (Le et al., 2014; Roberts et al., 2003) to the shaping of self-serving political will. Such longitudinal designs can answer the question whether career success fosters an increase in self-serving political will.

Hidden political motivations of individual actors can play a crucial role in organizations (Ferris & Treadway, 2012). They also form part of the negative image of politics in organizations. They are associated by some scholars with a readiness to manipulate people in the pursuit of selfish aims (e.g., Mintzberg, 1983). For the first time, the TRI Model

provides a conceptual framework for the rigorous measurement of hidden political will and its consequences in organizational contexts. In this study, we found strong identity factors for both the self-serving political will scale, which represent the hidden political motivations, and the work value of management, i.e., striving for power at work. Our findings demonstrate that the identity factor of political will is not only a mathematical construct (i.e., residual factor variance of self-raters) but can have substantive relationships with the identity factors of work values. These findings clearly demonstrate the potential of the TRI Model for future research in the field of organizational and career politics. We want however to add a cautionary theoretical note. In the TRI Model, by mathematical definition, the identity construct is methodologically confined to the unique self-perceptions, i.e., what is only known to the self but not to others. In a broader theoretical view, this is only a specific part of the broader identity construct. Following G. H. Mead (1934), socioanalytic theory postulates that how we view ourselves develops based on feedback from others during social interaction. Once the self is formed, it guides our actions vis-à-vis others, and it is further shaped by subsequent feedback from others. In this sense, our identity is the self which is not confined to what is only known to the self but not to others (Hogan & Blicke, 2013; 2018).

In order to gain a more nuanced terminology it would be preferable to name what is until now called Identity in the TRI Model *private Identity*. This term refers to these aspects of the self which are only known to the self but not to others. The complementary term to private identity would be *shared identity* referring to those aspects of the self which are known to the self and others. They are captured by the trait construct in the TRI Model. Consequently, the TRI Model should be called TRpI Model. Future research could empirically test whether the private identity of self-serving political will represents a part of the hidden political motivations of individual actors by assessing its convergence with implicit motives at work (Dietl et al., 2017; Lang, Zettler, Ewen, & Hülshager, 2012).

Interestingly, we did not find consistent and strong reputation factors for the self-serving and benevolent political will items and the work values items. This might be due to the fact that other-raters were not equivalent. Political targets might be perceived quite differently if raters form part of the same political in-group, another political in-group, or no political in-group. We expect that there will be consistent and strong reputation factors with reference to political will to the degree that other-raters belong to the same political in-group. Some researchers have suggested that for career success reputation may play an important role above and beyond objective job performance (Hogan & Blicke, 2013; 2018; Zinko, Ferris, Blass, & Laird, 2007). The TRI Model offers an opportunity to empirically test these claims.

Limitations

Our findings should be interpreted with careful consideration of the following strengths and limitations. First, we employed a triadic multisource design with one target self-rater and two other-raters. In this way it was technically possible to assess reputation factors independently of the rater uniqueness factors. However, our design involved only one wave for the self-report data, thereby excluding the possibility to draw causal inferences from the findings. Incorporating several waves of self-report data renders more accurate estimates of the trait and identity factors because it allows measurement-occasion-specific variance and true factor variance to be estimated separately (McAbee & Connelly, 2016). In addition, we did not systematically vary rater contexts. If we had had access to three other raters of the same target with two stemming from the same rater context (e.g., the same political in-group) and one other-rater stemming from a different context we would have been able to estimate a context-specific reputation factor. Next, we had no access to archival data to assess objective career success but relied on self-reports on income and hierarchical position. We used self-reports of objective data because they have been shown to correlate highly with archival records in other studies (e.g., Blicke, Wendel, & Ferris, 2010; Judge, Cable, Boudreau, &

Bretz, 1995; Kuncel, Credé, & Thomas, 2005; Turban & Dougherty, 1994). Meta-analytic research also reports only very small, yet significant, effects between the tendency to control the image somebody presents to others (self-monitoring) and subjective performance-advancement ratings ($r = .15$; Day, Schleicher, Unckless, & Hiller, 2002). Future research should assess the relationships between political will and career success drawn from archival data. Finally, as our design was cross-sectional we were not able to analyze the dynamic interplay between work values, political will, and career success across time and test the application of the corresponsive principle (Le et al., 2014; Roberts et al., 2003) to the shaping of self-serving political will.

Directions for Future Research and Practical Implications

The findings of our study support construct and criterion validity of the self-serving political will scale but invalidate the benevolent political will scale suggested by Kapoutsis et al. (2017). Building on previous research (Ferris & Hochwarter, 2011; Hochwarter, 2012; Oerder et al., 2014; Provis, 2006), our results do not contradict the validity of the construct of benevolent political will but raise questions of the validity of its measurement by the Kapoutsis et al. (2017) scale. We fully concur with Treadway (2012) and others (Hochwarter, 2012) that there is not only self-serving and group-oriented (benevolent) individual political will in organizations but workers, employees, managers, and leaders also differ in terms of a truly altruistic and humanitarian political will which aims to make work organizations a better place to work in (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Schwartz, 2012). Consequently, future research should develop and validate not only a scale which validly measures this benevolent but also the altruistic dimension of political will in organizations. These scales might help us gaining a better understanding of the actions of employees' representatives and union members in organizations (Blickle, Oerder, & Summers, 2010; Oerder et al., 2014), a topic still largely neglected in industrial-organizational psychology (Zickar, 1984).

As mentioned before, self-serving political will has a negative image due to the supposed preference for politicking instead of paying thorough attention to duties (Zettler & Solga, 2013) and its association with the readiness to manipulate, foment, utilize factions for personal gain, and disregard others in the pursuit of selfish aims (Chang et al., 2009). In our study, we were able to measure the trait self-serving political will validly. Furthermore, we were also able to measure hidden political motivations in the framework of the TRI Model. Thus, future research should assess whether the different dimensions of explicit and hidden political will predict reduced knowledge sharing willingness (Pan, Zhou, & Zhang, 2016), increased organizational knowledge hiding (Connelly, Zweig, Webster, & Trougakos, 2012), organizational resource extraction (Jones, 2014), and other forms of counterproductive behavior at work (Bennet & Robinson, 2000).

Perceptions of organizational politics can increase psychological strain and reduce job satisfaction and affective commitment (Chang et al., 2009). Hochwarter (2003), however, found that active participation in organizational politics represents a viable way to cope with political environments. Those who actively participated in organizational politics were more satisfied with their job and reported higher organizational commitment if perceived organizational politics were high. Thus, those employees suffering from the consequences of high perceived organizational politics can either try to exit their organization or develop political will and skill in order to more actively participate in organizational life by performing for example constructive voice behaviors (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014). Future research should investigate how managerial coaching and mentoring (Dahling, Taylor, Chau, & Dwight, 2016) can develop employees' political will and improve their political skill to successfully navigate the social context of organizations (Harris, Maher, & Ferris, 2016).

Future research should also study the relationship between the different dimensions of political will in organizations and variations in job characteristics (Holland, 1997; Tett, Simonet, Walser, & Brown, 2013). Holland (1997) argued that each of the six basic

occupational environments (conventional, realistic, investigative, artistic, social, and enterprising) attracts or is pursued by a particular set of individuals that possesses certain types of dominant traits. Enterprising work environments encourage people to manipulate others to achieve organizational or personal goals and to view the world in terms of money, power, status, and responsibility. Social work environments, however, encourage people to inform, train, develop, cure, or enlighten others. Social environments reward people for the display of social and humanitarian values. We believe that enterprising job characteristics moderate the relationship between self-serving political will and career success; and social job characteristics moderate the relationship between altruistic political will and job satisfaction (Barrick, Mount, & Li, 2013).

Finally, despite the generally negative characterization of individuals high on self-serving political will, even already Mintzberg (1983) conceded the positive systemic effects of organizational politicking in what he called political games (e.g., the sponsorship game, the whistle-blowing game, or the Young Turks game). Therefore, exploring the upside of the self-serving political will might offer an intriguing twist for understanding organizational behavior and individual careers (Hochwarter, 2012; Pfeffer, 2010).

Conclusion

Our study, using a triadic multisource design with one target self-rater and two target other-raters, was guided by the Trait-Reputation-Identity Model. We found some supporting empirical evidence for the construct and criterion validity of the self-serving political will scale. Our findings did not support the interpretation of the benevolent political will scale as representing altruistic political motivation. We suggest that the benevolent political will scale could represent identification with the welfare of specific organizational groups. However, new items that directly relate to benevolence toward others at work have to be developed and validated. We further encourage researchers to develop and validate an additional scale assessing altruistic political will above and beyond self-serving and benevolent political will.

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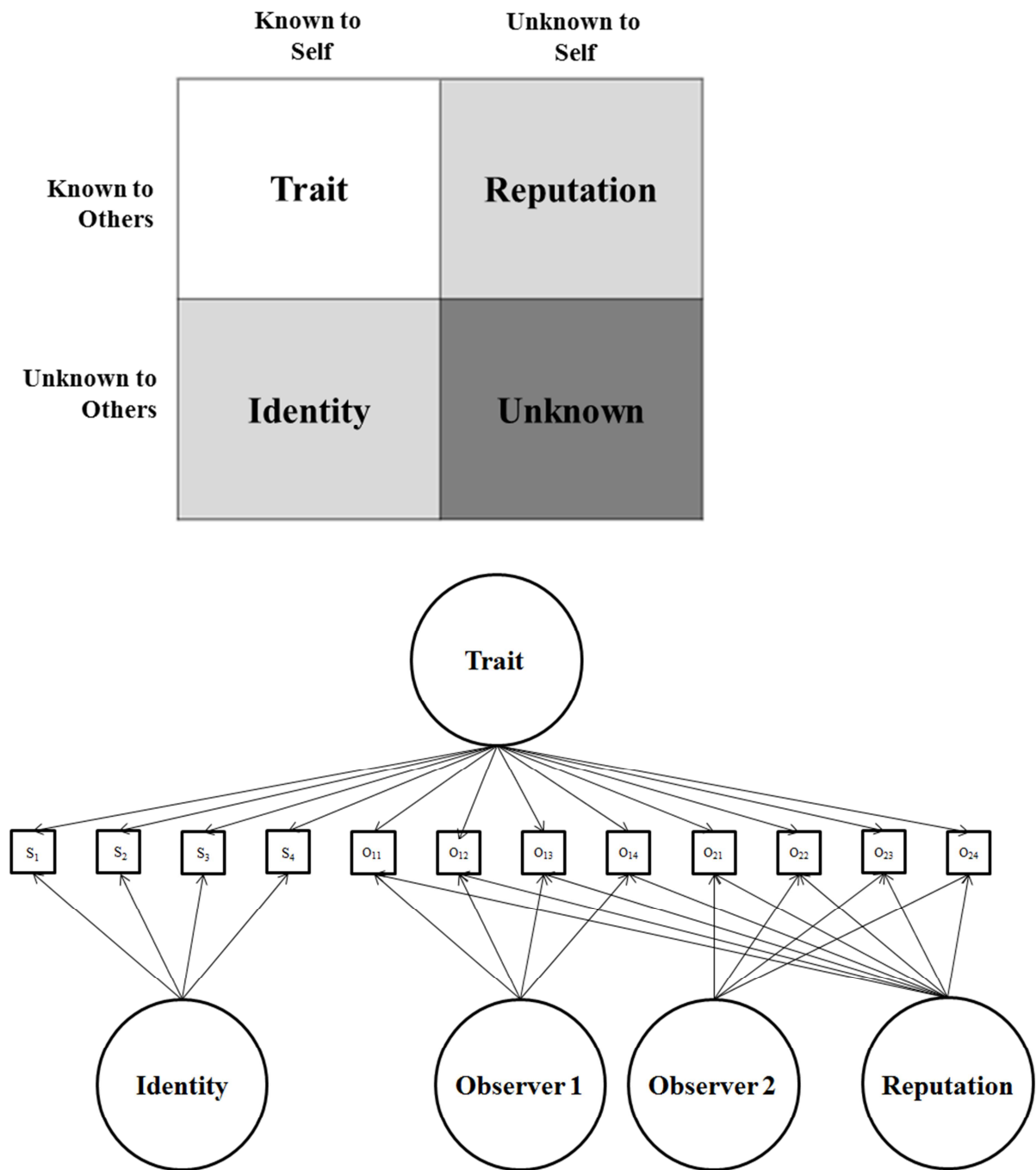
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Figure 1

Trait-Reputation-Identity Model



Note. The TRI Model in the Johari window (above; Luft & Ingham, 1955) and as bifactor measurement model (below); S_i = self-rating items; O_{1i} = items of other-rater 1, O_{2i} = items of other-rater 2.

Table 1

Means, standard deviations, correlations, and Cronbach's Alpha of study variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
Self																					
1. Sex	.46	.50																			
2. Age	36.87	11.21	.08																		
3. Income	50365	36582	.38**	.30**																	
4. Hierarchy	53.42	23.38	.26**	.41**	.45**																
5. PW-SV	3.43	1.27	.12	-.14	.11	.02	(.77)														
6. PW-BN	5.05	.97	.01	.11	.07	.01	.55**	(.73)													
7. Altruism	3.89	.70	-.29**	.16	-.15	-.08	-.15	-.08	(.80)												
8. Mgmt	2.87	.80	.20*	.15	.24**	.34**	.32**	.20*	-.03	(.76)											
9. Creativity	3.73	.78	.03	.26**	.07	.17	.06	.01	.11	.07	(.84)										
Observer 1																					
10. PW-SV	3.69	1.32	.10	.10	.17	.17	.09	-.05	.09	.13	.08	(.86)									
11. PW-BN	4.80	1.06	-.04	.18*	.03	.15	.02	.01	.07	.04	.02	.60**	(.77)								
12. Altruism	3.61	.73	-.12	.15	-.14	.09	-.06	-.01	.21*	-.10	.05	-.08	.11	(.81)							
13. Mgmt	2.87	.75	.19*	.17	.14	.21**	.09	.01	-.03	.33**	.13	.50**	.41**	.05	(.77)						
14. Creativity	3.48	.86	.05	.03	.02	.09	-.01	-.01	-.11	-.05	.35**	.09	.18	.31**	.21*	(.86)					
Observer 2																					
15. PW-SV	3.61	1.29	.00	-.10	-.03	-.06	.17	.21*	-.11	.13	.01	.26**	.19*	-.17	.12	.07	(.82)				
16. PW-BN	4.97	1.05	.12	.12	-.02	.04	.11	.21*	-.02	.13	.08	.23*	.22*	.06	.14	.07	.56**	(.79)			
17. Altruism	3.65	.76	.19*	.25**	-.09	.00	-.12	-.06	.53**	.01	.19*	-.02	.05	.41**	-.04	-.01	-.16	.07	(.83)		
18. Mgmt	2.97	.88	-.15	.24**	.28**	.22*	.06	.06	.00	.32**	-.03	.24**	.13	-.19*	.32**	-.02	.35**	.14	-.03	(.82)	
19. Creativity	3.61	.90	-.21*	.20*	.04	.16	-.10	-.22*	.00	.04	.34**	.04	-.04	.13	.08	.39**	-.01	.08	.31**	.22*	(.88)

Note. N = 121 employee-coworker-triads. Sex (1 = male, 0 = female), Hierarchy in % (0 = lowest level – 100 = highest level); annual income in Euro; PW-SV: Political Will Self-serving, PW-BN: Political Will Benevolent, Mgmt: Management, observer 1, observer 2 = coworker ratings;

* $p < .05$,

** $p < .01$.

Table 2

Comparison of model fit indices

Models	χ^2 (df)	<i>p</i>	RMSEA	CFI
Self-serving political will				
a) general factor	368.026 (57)	.000	.212	.436
b) correlated factors	63.415 (51)	.113	.045	.977
c) TRI Model ¹	45.771 (38)	.181	.041	.986
Benevolent political will				
a) general factor	369.173 (57)	.000	.213	.295
b) correlated factors	109.085 (51)	.000	.097	.869
c) TRI Model ¹	60.599 (38)	.011	.070	.949
Altruism				
a) general factor	197.848 (27)	.000	.229	.630
b) correlated factors	28.244 (24)	.250	.038	.991
c) TRI Model ²	12.987 (14)	.528	0	1
Management				
a) general factor	210.906 (27)	.000	.237	.525
b) correlated factors	47.269 (24)	.003	.090	.940
c) TRI Model ²	19.340 (14)	.152	.056	.986
Creativity				
a) general factor	284.257 (27)	.000	.281	.542
b) correlated factors	29.832 (24)	.190	.045	.990
c) TRI Model ¹	9.825 (13)	.708	0	1

Note. *N* = 121 employee-coworker-triads. With the trait dimension of the TRI Model for self-serving and benevolent political will we constrained to equivalence the loadings of the first item of each rating source on trait factor. ¹residual variance for one Heywood case fixed to zero, ²residual variances for two Heywood cases fixed to zero.

Table 3

Standardized factor loadings for self-serving and benevolent political will

Item	Trait	Identity	Reputation	Observer 1	Observer 2
Self-serving					
SV01 (self)	.555**	.395**			
SV02 (self)	.211 [†]	.648**			
SV03 (self)	.341*	.762**			
SV04 (self)	.372**	.582**			
SV01 (observer 1)	.623**		-.125	.386**	
SV02 (observer 1)	.467**		-.048	.682**	
SV03 (observer 1)	.499**		-.086	.774**	
SV04 (observer 1)	.303*		.115	.753**	
SV01 (observer 2)	.613**		.228		-.723 [†]
SV02 (observer 2)	.436**		.555**		-.214
SV03 (observer 2)	.503**		.864**		-.020
SV04 (observer 2)	.328*		.518**		-.227
Benevolent					
BN01 (self)	.563**	.490**			
BN02 (self)	-.095	.785**			
BN03 (self)	.423**	.570**			
BN04 (self)	-.054	.737**			
BN01 (observer 1)	.589**		.167	.517**	
BN02 (observer 1)	.182		-.103	.713**	
BN03 (observer 1)	.131		.231 [†]	.639**	
BN04 (observer 1)	.081		-.048	.752**	
BN01 (observer 2)	.573**		.042		.424**
BN02 (observer 2)	.267*		-.556 [†]		.787**
BN03 (observer 2)	.478**		.320		.613**
BN04 (observer 2)	.188		-.082		.812**

Note. $N = 121$ employee-coworker-triads. With the trait dimension of the TRI Model for self-serving and benevolent political will we constrained to equivalence the loadings of the first item of each rating source on trait factor. Heywood cases (one in each model): residual variance fixed at 0; table displays standardized model results, fit indices for self-serving political will model: $\chi^2 = 45.771$ ($df = 38$), $p = .181$, $RMSEA = .041$, $CFI = .986$, fit indices for benevolent political will model: $\chi^2 = 60.599$ ($df = 38$), $p = .011$, $RMSEA = .070$, $CFI = .949$;

[†] $p < .05$ (one-tailed),

* $p < .05$,

** $p < .01$.

Table 4

Standardized factor loadings for work values altruism, management, and creativity

Item	Trait	Identity	Reputation	Observer 1	Observer 2
Altruism²					
AL01 (self)	.433***	.415***			
AL02 (self)	.493***	.643***			
AL03 (self)	.489***	.744***			
AL01 (observer 1)	.309**		-.142	.940***	
AL02 (observer 1)	.398***		.471	.433	
AL03 (observer 1)	.383**		.666*	.584	
AL01 (observer 2)	.748***		-.079		-.247
AL02 (observer 2)	.828***		-.054		-.095
AL03 (observer 2)	.885***		.113		-.452*
Management²					
MN01 (self)	.630***	.586***			
MN02 (self)	.523***	.239 [†]			
MN03 (self)	.365***	.762***			
MN01 (observer 1)	.501***		.578**	.458**	
MN02 (observer 1)	.403***		-.150	.903***	
MN03 (observer 1)	.364**		.430**	.387**	
MN01 (observer 2)	.500***		.155		.591***
MN02 (observer 2)	.508***		-.111		.507***
MN03 (observer 2)	.239 [†]		.266*		.934***
Creativity¹					
CR01 (self)	.348**	.721***			
CR02 (self)	.578***	.597***			
CR03 (self)	.473***	.657***			
CR01 (observer 1)	.544**		.229	.488 [†]	
CR02 (observer 1)	.644***		.082	.605*	
CR03 (observer 1)	.564***		.053	.597***	
CR01 (observer 2)	.513***		.023		.832
CR02 (observer 2)	.516**		-.274		.590
CR03 (observer 2)	.725***		-.589		.357

Note. $N = 121$ employee-coworker-triads. Table displays standardized model results, fit indices for altruism model: $\chi^2 = 12.987$ ($df = 14$), $p = .528$, $RMSEA = .000$, $CFI = 1.000$, fit indices for management model: $\chi^2 = 19.340$ ($df = 14$), $p = .152$, $RMSEA = .056$, $CFI = .986$, fit indices for creativity model: $\chi^2 = 9.825$ ($df = 13$), $p = .708$, $RMSEA = .000$, $CFI = 1.000$; ¹residual variance for one Heywood case fixed to zero, ²residual variances for two Heywood cases fixed to zero;

[†] $p < .05$ (one-tailed),

* $p < .05$,

** $p < .01$,

*** $p < .001$.

Table 5

Correlations of Trait-Reputation-Identity Model dimensions of the political will and work values scales

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1 Self-serving – Trait									
2 Self-serving – Identity	0								
3 Benevolent – Trait	.58**	.06							
4 Benevolent – Identity	.00	.48**	0						
5 Altruism – Trait	-.04	-.10	-.06	.13					
6 Altruism – Identity	.04	-.07	-.16	.02	0				
7 Management – Trait	.33**	.12	.25**	.04	.05	-.05			
8 Management – Identity	.09	.25**	.04	.16	-.12	-.04	0		
9 Creativity – Trait	-.01	.02	.04	-.11	.15	-.16	.23*	-.19*	
10 Creativity – Identity	.00	.17	-.07	.14	-.02	.17	.02	.01	0

Note. $N = 121$ employee-coworker-triads. All $M = 0$ ($SD = 1$); all trait and identity dimensions within one construct are modeled to correlate at zero;

* $p < .05$,

** $p < .01$.