Personal Initiative and Job Performance Evaluations:

Role of Political Skill in Opportunity Recognition and Capitalization

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ABSTRACT

In recent years, personal initiative has been found to predict job performance. However, implicit in this direct initiative – performance relationship are more complex process dynamics that can be better understood when contextual antecedents, moderators, and mediators are considered. Drawing from perspectives of proactive behavior as a goal-directed process, a research model of personal initiative was tested in a three-study investigation intended to build upon and advance prior work. Specifically, the model indicates that climate for initiative interacts with the social astuteness dimension of political skill (i.e., opportunity recognition) to influence the demonstration of personal initiative, and this first part of the model is tested and supported in Study 1. Then, personal initiative is hypothesized to interact with the interpersonal influence dimension of political skill (i.e., opportunity capitalization) to predict supervisor assessments of job performance, and this part of the model is tested and supported in Study 2. Study 3 provided a test of the entire model, and demonstrated support for moderated mediation, thus adding increased confidence in the validity of the theory and findings through constructive replication.

Keywords: personal initiative, job performance evaluations, political skill, climate for initiative

PERSONAL INITIATIVE AND JOB PERFORMANCE EVALUATIONS: ROLE OF POLITICAL SKILL IN OPPORTUNITY RECOGNITION AND CAPITALIZATION

Proactive work behavior, broadly defined as "anticipatory action that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environments" (Grant & Ashford, 2008: 8), has received increased research attention in recent years (Grant, Nurmohamed, Ashford, & Dekas, 2011). Within this expanding body of literature, a number of constructs exist (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010), including personal initiative (e.g., Frese & Fay, 2001; Frese, Fay, Hilburger, Leng, & Tag, 1997), taking charge, and voice (e.g., Morrison, 2011). Scholars in each area seek to understand change-oriented behavior undertaken to affect work outcomes.

Studies within these domains typically have examined the positive aspects of proactivity (Belschak, Den Hartog, & Fay, 2010). Indeed, there is meta-analytic evidence for a link between personal initiative and job performance (Thomas, Whitman, & Viswesvaran, 2010). However, more recent treatments have considered alternatives. In particular, Belschak et al. (2010: 268) noted the "need for a more comprehensive perspective…investigating the positive, negative, and context-dependent aspects." Similarly, Grant et al. (2011: 241) recently stated that, "researchers have begun to observe that initiative does not always contribute to higher performance," and called for more explanation of when initiative is more versus less successful. Some research has explored moderators of the proactive behavior – performance relationship (e.g., Chan, 2006; Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2012; Grant, Parker, & Collins, 2009; Grant et al., 2011), and scholars have noted the importance of considering worker characteristics when evaluating the effects of proactivity on job performance (Belschak et al., 2010).

For example, Grant et al. (2011) found personal initiative was linked to (objective) job performance only for individuals high in autonomous and low in controlled motivation. Grant et

al. (2009) found the relationship between proactive behavior and supervisor evaluations of job performance was moderated by employees' prosocial motivation and negative affectivity, leading to better evaluations with increasing proactive behavior when prosocial motivation was high and negative affectivity was low. No changes resulted when prosocial motivation was low and negative affectivity was high. Chan (2006) found situational judgment awareness moderated the proactive personality - job performance relationship, with better evaluations for high levels of situational judgment awareness and worse evaluations at low levels.

Fuller et al. (2012) explored a complex model of proactive behavior and job performance, and found that the relationship between proactive behavior and supervisor evaluations of job performance was moderated by supervisors' proactive personality (i.e., used as a proxy for the extent to which supervisors value proactive behavior). Proactive behavior was positively related to evaluations when supervisors were high in proactive personality, but proactive behavior had no relationship with evaluations when supervisors were passive.

Despite these advances, the field still lacks understanding of how employee knowledge, skills, and abilities influence the effectiveness of proactive behavior (Grant & Ashford, 2008). We contribute to research on proactivity by providing a more comprehensive understanding of the employee personal initiative process. More specifically, we provide insight into employees' ability to successfully recognize and capitalize on opportunities for personal initiative by considering the role of domain-relevant employee skill. Research has identified the need for attention to such social acuity attributes in personal initiative - work outcome relationships (Grant et al., 2009). For example, Belschak et al. (2010) noted that personal initiative does not always lead to favorable consequences, especially when associated with low skills. Similarly, De Stobbeleir, Ashford, and De Luque (2010) encouraged scholars to examine not only the instrumental benefits of proactivity, but also its potential costs.

Political skill has been identified as a personal attribute that facilitates the success of agentic behavior in organizations (Ferris, Treadway, Brouer, & Munyon, 2012). Thus, as shown in Figure 1, we examine a two-stage, moderated-mediation model of personal initiative – a form of proactive behavior (Parker et al., 2010). We propose that the social astuteness dimension of political skill, by facilitating opportunity recognition, moderates the climate for initiative - personal initiative relationship (tested in Study 1). Further, we propose that the interpersonal influence dimension of political skill, by enabling opportunity capitalization, moderates the relationship between personal initiative and job performance evaluations (tested in Study 2). The entire model is evaluated in Study 3, which seeks to constructively replicate Study 1 and 2 to add confidence in the validity of the complete set of results.

Insert Figure 1 about here

In summary, the present research contributes to personal initiative theory by providing further insight into the relationship between the climate for initiative, personal initiative, and performance evaluations. Based on our review of the literature, research to date has yet to test the relationship between all three variables in a single study, thus precluding the development of a more comprehensive understanding of the dynamics of the personal initiative process, including how employees' individual differences might affect these relationships. Further, we address the knowledge gap regarding the role individual differences play in producing possible beneficial or detrimental effects of personal initiative by examining employee characteristics (i.e., specific dimensions of political skill) that facilitate the effective recognition of and capitalization on opportunities for personal initiative. Moreover, we contribute to research on political skill by providing insight into how specific dimensions affect agentic behavior in organizations.

More explicitly, we argue that the social astuteness dimension of political skill allows individuals to accurately assess and interpret environmental cues in order to know when it is appropriate to demonstrate personal initiative (i.e., recognizing an opportunity). Further, the interpersonal influence dimension of political skill facilitates capitalization on the recognized opportunity by enabling the effective demonstration of personal initiative. Thus, the potential for misguided or counterproductive displays of personal initiative are curtailed or eliminated for those possessing social astuteness and interpersonal influence. Conversely, it is expected that personal initiative exhibited by individuals low in interpersonal influence will result in lower performance evaluations due to these individuals' inability to demonstrate the behavior in ways that positively influence the perceptions of their supervisors (Liu, Liu, & Wu, 2010).

THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

The Personal Initiative Process and the Role of Political Skill

Theories of human agency argue that people act in ways that proactively create, transform, and/or preserve their environments, and that they regulate themselves to adapt to contexts (Bandura, 2006). As indicated in the proactivity literature, employees often set goals, take control, and make things happen to generate positive outcomes for themselves. Parker et al. (2010: 828) noted, "One of the most important active work concepts to be introduced into the literature is personal initiative," which has been described as a constellation of proactive, goal directed, and action oriented behaviors (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996).

However, some scholars (e.g., Grant & Ashford, 2008) have argued for the conceptualization of employee proactivity, not as a set of behaviors, but rather as a process. More specifically, Parker et al. (2010: 830) argued that proactive behaviors (e.g., personal initiative) are the result of a "motivated, conscious, and goal directed" process. Consistent with this perspective, we consider personal initiative part of a behavioral process in which employees

engage because they are motivated to achieve performance goals, including favorable evaluations from supervisors.

This description focuses on judgments of personal efficacy, rather than on an assessment of whether the work environment is supportive of displays of personal initiative. Thus, we build from the Parker et al. (2010) perspective by considering the process through which employees assess whether the work climate is receptive to personal initiative. Specifically, we argue that employees' expectations about whether the environment is receptive to employee proactivity drive decisions to engage in personal initiative, based on the expectancy that such behavior will lead to positive outcomes (Parker et al., 2010). Further, drawing on suggestions by Grant and Ashford (2008) to explore the effect of employee knowledge, skills, and abilities in the proactive process, we consider the impact of employees' ability to assess work environment characteristics (i.e., social astuteness).

Interestingly, displays of initiative are not universally interpreted as positive, and employees' proactive behaviors may be viewed skeptically by others (Parker et al., 2010). Thus, in addition to the ability to recognize when work environments may be supportive of personal initiative, employees also need the skill to effectively execute initiative to leverage the behavior to achieve goals. Therefore, we also consider employees' skill in executing such behaviors in a manner that results in favorable interpretations by others (i.e., interpersonal influence).

Social astuteness and interpersonal influence, in addition to networking ability and apparent sincerity, are dimensions of the political skill construct, which is defined as "the ability to effectively understand others at work and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or organizational objectives" (Ferris et al., 2005: 127). Social astuteness involves the ability to read people and situations, and to understand social interactions. Interpersonal influence incorporates an adaptive, flexible orientation that permits

individuals to calibrate and adjust their behavior to different contexts in ways that bring about desired responses from others. Networking ability involves the capacity to develop and leverage alliances, and apparent sincerity enables politically skilled individuals to instill trust and confidence while disguising other possible intentions (Ferris et al., 2012).

In recent years, an impressive body of work has been built, affirming the role political skill and its associated dimensions play in predicting positive job performance outcomes in a myriad of occupational settings (e.g., Munyon, Summers, Thompson, & Ferris, in press). Furthermore, empirical research has supported the theoretical arguments that political skill also moderates relationships between employee behavior and performance evaluations, making employees' behavior more effective for accomplishing objectives – for example, favorably affecting supervisors' evaluations of employee performance (e.g., Ferris et al., 2012).

Differential Operation of Political Skill Dimensions

Despite the increasing research on political skill in organizations, investigations regarding the effects of the individual dimensions have been limited in number and in scope (Ferris et al., 2012). However, from the beginning, the political skill dimensions were theorized to be distinct yet correlated concepts. Specifically, Ferris et al. (2005) hypothesized differential relationships for the dimensions in the development and validation of the *Political Skill Inventory* (*PSI*). Ferris et al. (2007: 314) further noted, "…precision needs to be developed regarding the dimensions of political skill and how they should be expected to relate to organizational phenomena."

To this end, Ferris et al. (2012: 509), in their review of political skill in the organizational sciences, argued, "Research in the future desperately needs to examine the individual dimensions of political skill…and how they might represent differential relationships on work outcomes." They posited social astuteness as effective in the choice of behaviors because it provides information regarding the target and appropriateness of tactics in certain situations. Further, they

proposed interpersonal influence to be more instrumental on the effectiveness of the behavior chosen because it enables individuals to appropriately adjust and adapt to match the situation.

Moreover, in their explication of the personal ability antecedents of the political skill dimensions, Ferris et al. (2007) noted largely different sources for the dimensions of social astuteness and interpersonal influence. This was further supported by Ferris et al. (2008), who again found a four-factor structure for political skill, but with different antecedents of each dimension. Thus, prior research lays the foundation for the differential moderation of a multistage mediation model using individual political skill dimensions. We build on these arguments by considering the effect of social astuteness on the relationship between climate for initiative and personal initiative (i.e., opportunity recognition), in concert with the effects of interpersonal influence on the relationship between personal initiative and supervisor evaluations of performance (i.e., opportunity capitalization).

Opportunity recognition. Opportunity recognition has been described as the ability to filter information quickly and effectively as a result of being alert and prepared to respond to favorable sets of circumstances (Baron, 2006). As a focal point in their theory of social/political influence in organizations, Ferris et al. (2007) argued that social astuteness fosters accurate situational diagnoses and adaptation and selection of appropriate behaviors, which has been supported by empirical research (Ferris et al., 2012). Moreover, Ferris et al. argued that social astuteness promotes acuity and works in conjunction with other dimensions like interpersonal influence in formulating intentional actions and objectives, developing behavioral execution strategies, and creatively linking appropriate behaviors to favorable outcomes. Thus, social astuteness, as the most cognitively-oriented of the political skill dimenions (Ferris et al., 2007), represents the most applicable dimension for opportunity recognition in the present context.

Opportunity capitalization. By opportunity capitalization, we refer to individuals' ability to translate favorable sets of circumstances into the realization of goals through the effective execution of carefully selected behaviors. Again considering the dimensions of political skill, networking ability and social astuteness are less relevant in the present discussion. Respectively, they deal primarily with the provision and recognition of opportunities. Further, apparent sincerity captures the more affective component of political skill, and is more applicable to politically skilled individuals' motivations to act in a manner that is interpreted as genuine (Ferris et al., 2005), rather than their actual behaviors. Thus, because the interpersonal influence dimension represents the adaptable and action component of political skill (Ferris et al., 2012), it is most relevant to the present discussion of employees tailoring their initiative to a specific situation in order to generate favorable evaluations from their supervisors.

Together, social astuteness and interpersonal influence represent a read-and-appropriately-act combination of competencies that best fit our model of personal initiative in organizations. Indeed, in order for climate for initiative to be a salient stimulus to which people can adjust their behavior (interpersonal influence), they must first recognize the environmental signals that indicate whether a climate receptive to initiative is present (social astuteness). Then, when personal initiative is demonstrated, the interpersonal influence dimension allows it to be presented in a way that is properly calibrated so as to be favorably perceived and interpreted by supervisors, thus influencing them to render positive evaluations of the individuals' performance.

Climate for Initiative as Antecedent of Personal Initiative

Context can influence behavior at work, and scholars have suggested that it affects proactivity by influencing individuals' mindset regarding whether they can do something, and their motivation to do so (Parker et al., 2010). Relatedly, Baer and Frese (2003) developed a contextual variable (i.e., climate for initiative) that reflects the extent to which a work setting is

more or less conducive to, and supportive of, personal initiative. Also, they conceptualized climate for initiative as an objective characteristic of the work environment, and we share that view in the present study. Although Baer and Frese (2003) did not hypothesize or test a link between climate for initiative and personal initiative, implicit in this construct is the awareness that climate for initiative should directly predict personal initiative (Raub & Liao, 2012).

However, this assumes that the cues emanating from a climate for initiative are accurately perceived, interpreted, and acted upon. As argued, social astuteness represents competencies that include perceptive observation of people and situations, along with selection of situationally-appropriate behaviors (e.g., Ferris et al., 2012). Because an overarching objective of actors is to craft behaviors consistent with cues read from the immediate context, we expect social astuteness to interact with climate for initiative to influence the demonstration of personal initiative.

Hypothesis 1: The relationship between climate for initiative and personal initiative is moderated by social astuteness, such that the relationship between climate for initiative and personal initiative is stronger at higher levels of social astuteness.

Performance Evaluation Consequences of Effectively Leveraged Personal Initiative

Previous research has documented favorable (Thomas et al., 2010) bivariate relationships between personal initiative and evaluations of work performance (Thompson, 2005). However, it has been proposed that employee proactivity is not uniformly predictive of favorable evaluations (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker et al. 2010). Indeed, scholars have appealed for more research on the potential negative outcomes of proactive behavior (Spychala & Sonnentag, 2011).

With respect to social relations, it has been argued that self-starting and proactive behavior attempts are not always appreciated by supervisors, who may view such purposeful behavior with trepidation (Frese & Fay, 2001). Moreover, Frese, Garst, and Fay (2007) suggested peers and supervisors regard particular forms of personal initiative as demanding and

destabilizing, particularly if perceived as motivated solely by an interest in change for the sake of change. Also, individuals striving to act proactively often are considered as hindrances to task completion, regarded as burdensome by both peers and supervisors (Grant et al., 2009).

Additionally, personal initiative often extends beyond the boundaries of one's job description (Rank, Pace, & Frese, 2004). As such, others may negatively evaluate its source and intent due to the unanticipated work changes that may result. Fay, Sonnentag, and Frese (1998) argued that personal initiative possesses an element of disobedience, given that the accomplishment of agent-sponsored objectives often mandates disregarding supervisor orders and company rules. Contempt also may escalate if personal initiative is perceived to be exclusively self-serving (Bledow & Frese, 2009).

From these findings, it can be concluded that personal initiative does not always create desired impressions, indicating there might be individual differences in individuals' ability to do so. Some individuals are more successful than others in leveraging their personal initiative, depending upon their ability to effectively employ control in their immediate work setting. Referring to Ferris et al.'s (2007) theoretical approach, recent research has provided support for this contention, demonstrating that individuals possessing interpersonal influence were more adept at creating favorable impressions that result in securing positive job performance evaluations (Blickle et al., 2011).

Interpersonal influence supplements personal initiative in a number of positive ways. Specifically, when it is perceived that personal initiative is coupled with interpersonal attributes that predict successful implementation (Chan, 2006), Ferris et al. (2007; 2012) would argue that target (i.e., in this case, supervisors) confidence is heightened, thus leading to acceptance and positive evaluations resulting from favorable target interpretations of the behavior. Supervisors

are more apt to judge the initiative of interpersonally influential individuals in a more favorable way, and those of less-adept individuals as manipulative (Ferris et al., 2012).

Research has affirmed that personal initiative is more likely to instill confidence in targets (Frese & Fay, 2001), including supervisors, when coupled with the presentation of message-relevant resources (i.e., in this case, interpersonal influence). As a critical form of resource in organizational settings, interpersonal influence promotes the accrual of mastery and power manifest in supervisor confidence that proposed messages will be supported, and subsequently successfully translated into goal accomplishment (Ferris et al., 2007).

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between personal initiative and job performance evaluations is moderated by interpersonal influence. When interpersonal influence is high, personal initiative is positively related to job performance evaluations, whereas when interpersonal influence is low, personal initiative is negatively related to job performance evaluations.

Mediation of the Climate for Initiative – Job Performance Relationship

Ferris et al.'s (2007) theory of social/political influence in organizations would argue that because socially astute individuals are attuned to their environments, they accurately recognize climates that present opportunities to display personal initiative. Thompson (2005) reported that proactive individuals increase their potential for maximizing effectiveness by engaging in instrumental behaviors, which include the use of information and resources. Also, others have argued that employees demonstrating proactive behavior are more adept at gathering and exploiting contextual resources to improve conditions at work (Fuller, Marler, & Hester, 2006). Scholars have contended that interpersonal influence can transform proactive behavior into favorable work outcomes due to its ability to leverage social resources needed to exploit opportunities (Ferris et al., 2007; Ferris et al., 2012).

Thus, collectively, social astuteness and interpersonal influence represent a read-and-appropriately-act combination of competencies, which are the qualities that best fit our model of personal initiative in organizations. Indeed, in order for climate for initiative to be a salient stimulus on which people can act effectively (i.e., interpersonal influence), they first need to be able to recognize the environmental signals that indicate a climate for initiative is even present (i.e., social astuteness's capacity for opportunity recognition), or alternatively, that personal initiative is not desired or reinforced in this context. Then, when personal initiative is demonstrated, the interpersonal influence dimension interacts with it in ways that allow it to be presented in a manner that is properly calibrated so as to be favorably perceived and interpreted by supervisors, thus influencing them to render positive evaluations of their employees' performance (i.e., interpersonal influence's capacity for opportunity capitalization).

Together, this suggests a moderated mediation model, whereby opportunity recognition in initiative climates (i.e., the climate for initiative x social astuteness interaction) is not sufficient to ensure high performance evaluations from supervisors. Instead, it also takes opportunity capitalization (i.e., personal initiative x interpersonal influence interaction), which then mediates the relationship between opportunity recognition and job performance evaluations.

> *Hypothesis 3: There is a moderated mediation relationship whereby personal initiative mediates the relationship between climate for initiative and job performance evaluations when both social astuteness and interpersonal influence are high. Specifically, for employees high in social astuteness and interpersonal influence, climate for initiative is positively related to job performance evaluations through personal initiative. For employees low in social astuteness and/or interpersonal influence, climate for initiative is negatively related to job performance evaluations through personal initiative.*

OVERVIEW OF THE INVESTIGATION

Hochwarter, Ferris, and Hanes (2011) argued that research presenting multiple studies in a single manuscript makes important contributions through replication and extension. We use such an approach in the present three-study research package that formulates and tests a model of the contextual and personal antecedents of personal initiative, and its moderated mediated job performance consequences, thus expanding our understanding of the ways in which personal initiative operates in organizations. Hypothesis 1 (i.e., pertaining to the linkages proposed on the left side of model in Figure 1) was tested in Study 1 and Hypothesis 2 (i.e., pertaining to the linkages on the right side of the model) was tested in Study 2. In Study 3, we tested Hypothesis 3, combining and integrating both hypotheses in a two-stage moderated mediation model.

STUDY 1: METHODS

Participants and Procedure

Study 1 was conducted in an industrial region in the western part of Germany. We sampled dyads consisting of full-time employees and their supervisors from a broad range of jobs. Three hundred ninety-eight potential participants were contacted by 15 Bachelor in Psychology students of a university in the western part of Germany. In partial fulfillment of course requirements, the students contacted current employees from their personal network, and invited them to participate in the study. Potential participants were informed that the study investigated the relevance of social skill in the work place, and were offered a summary of the study results. No other incentive to participate was provided.

Participants were asked for contact details of friends or relatives who might be interested in the study. The same 15 students then invited the provided contacts to participate in the study. All participants received two e-mails. The first e-mail included a randomly generated password code as well as a link to an online questionnaire. Participants were asked to visit the website, complete the questionnaire, and forward the second e-mail to their supervisor, which included a

password and link to the online questionnaire for supervisors. Using these codes, we were able to link employee - supervisor dyad data.

Of the invited participants, 221 started the questionnaire and 206 participants provided complete data. Of the supervisors, 200 started and 188 completed the survey. We were able to match 175 dyads. We dropped all other-reports who indicated they were not the supervisor of the assessed person (2 dyads). Next, we removed all dyads where information indicated that target and other-assessment came from the same person (27 dyads). In sum, the usable sample of Study 1 consisted of 146 employees and their supervisors (36.7% response rate).

The sample included 83 female and 63 male employees with ages ranging from 19 and 62 (M = 38.51 years, SD = 11.69) who had been working in their current job for an average of 8.93 years (SD = 9.42). The majority worked in medical and social well-fare organizations (n = 37; 25.34%), public administration (n = 34, 23.29%), and trade and service organizations (n = 30, 20.55%). Twenty-four participants worked in the manufacturing industry (16.44%), and 12 (8.22%) in communication and consulting. Five participants (3.42%) worked in research organizations, three in the finance sector (2.05%), and one participant (0.68%) worked in a teaching and training organization. The average supervisor-subordinate tenure was 5.71 years (SD = 5.59), and supervisors rated their relationships with their employees mainly good (3) to very close (4) (M = 3.45, SD = .60). More than 75% of the dyads had contact at least once a day (M = 5.27, SD = .90), and more than 50% of the supervisors characterized the interrelatedness of their work as high (4) to very high (5) (M = 4.70, SD = .85).

Measures

Climate for initiative. Climate for initiative was measured with a seven-item scale developed and validated by Baer and Frese (2003). Supervisors and employees answered the items on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from ”does not apply at all (1)” to “applies

completely (5)." Sample items are "People in our company actively attack problems" and "People in our company usually do more than they are asked to do." We computed different measures of inter-rater agreement. The intraclass correlation (*ICC*[1, 1]) specifies the proportion of variance by differences in targets, and in this study it was .23. Another, popular estimate of inter-rater agreement, r_{wg}, was provided by James, Demaree, and Wolf (1993). It can vary between zero and 1 (LeBreton & Senter, 2008), with acceptable values above .70 (Lance, Butts, & Michels, 2006). The mean r_{wg} of the climate for initiative ratings was .82, ranging from .00 to 1.00 with a median of .92. Cronbach's alpha reliability of the aggregated measure in the present study was $\alpha = .92$.

Political skill. To assess political skill and its dimensions, the validated German translation (Ferris et al., 2008) of the *Political Skill Inventory* (*PSI*, Ferris et al., 2005) was used. This scale is composed of 18 items, which are answered on a seven-point, Likert-type scale. Cronbach's alpha reliability in the present study was $\alpha = .90$. We compared the four-factor model of political skill with a one-factor model using confirmatory factor analyses (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2002. The fit indices of the four-factor model were more satisfactory (Chi^2/df ratio = 4.49, *Root Mean Square Error of Approximation* (RMSEA) = .154, *Comparative Fit Index* (CFI) = .912, and *Standardized Root Mean Square Residual* (SRMR) = .052) compared to the one-factor model (Chi^2/df ratio = 8.56, *RMSEA* = .228, *CFI* = .728, and *SRMR* = .093), and showed significantly better fit ($\Delta Chi^2 = 108.35$, $\Delta df = 6$, $p < .0001$). However, the fit of the four-factor model is less than optimal, which might be due to the relatively small sample size compared to the validation sample by Ferris et al. (2008). Nonetheless, our results clearly support the four-factor structure of political skill.

The **social astuteness** dimension of political skill comprises five items**.** Sample items include “I understand people very well” and “I am particularly good at sensing the motivations and hidden agendas of others.” Cronbach’s alpha was α = .73.

The **interpersonal influence** dimension of political skill consists of four items. Sample items include “I am able to make most people feel comfortable and at ease around me” and “I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others.” The Cronbach’s alpha was α = .78.

The **networking ability** dimension of political skill comprises six items. Sample items include “I spend a lot of time and effort at work networking with others.” and “I spend a lot of time and effort at work developing connections with others.” The Cronbach’s alpha was α = .87.

The **apparent sincerity** dimension of political skill consists of three items. Sample items include “When communicating with others, I try to be genuine in what I say and do.” and “I try to show a genuine interest in other people.” The Cronbach’s alpha was α = .71.

Personal initiative[1]. Personal initiative was measured using the seven items developed by Frese et al. (1997). Sample items are: “I actively attack problems;” “I take initiative immediately even when others don't;” and “Usually I do more than I am asked to do.” Items were to be answered on a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from "does not apply at all (1)” to “applies completely (5).” The Cronbach’s alpha was α = .76.

Control variables. In our analysis, we controlled for age and gender, because these factors can influence the amount of proactivity (personal initiative) employees demonstrate (Bindl & Parker, 2010). Additionally, we controlled for the eight different industry types in our sample by creating seven dummy variables for the above-mentioned industries, and using the most frequent industry (i.e., social well-fare) as the comparison group.

Data Analyses

To test Hypothesis 1, we used hierarchical moderated multiple regression analysis with centered variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003) to examine the influence of the climate for initiative x social astuteness interaction. In Model 1, we included the control variables; namely, age, gender, and the seven industry dummy variables. In the Model 2, we entered climate for initiative and social astuteness. In the Model 3, the cross-product term of climate for initiative x social astuteness was entered.

STUDY 1: RESULTS

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency reliability estimates of the study variables. To evaluate the independence and distinctiveness ofour scales from the different rater sources, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2002) to test a common factor model (van der Sluis, Dolan, & Stoel, 2005). We used Mplus 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012) to compare two different models. In the first model, we built one factor for each construct, allowing the factors to correlate. The fit indices of this model were satisfactory: Chi^2/df ratio = 1.47, *RMSEA* = .057, *CFI* = .934, and *SRMR* = .061. In the second model, the variables for social astuteness and personal initiative loaded on a common factor, but no changes were made for the climate for initiative factor. Again, both factors were correlated. The fit indices of this model compared to the first model were worse: Chi^2/df ratio = 1.71, *RMSEA* = .070, *CFI* = .898, and *SRMR* = .069. Additionally, the first model demonstrated a significantly better fit than the second model: $\Delta Chi^2 = 40.06$, $\Delta df = 2$, $p < .0001$. These results support the distinctiveness and uniqueness of the scales used.

Insert Table 1 about here

Table 2 reports the results of the hierarchical moderated multiple regression analysis. The interaction term of climate for initiative x social astuteness was significant ($\beta = .21$, $p < .01$) and accounted for 4% additional variance (see Table 2, Model 3). The form of the interaction, shown in Figure 2, is displayed according to the procedure proposed by Cohen et al. (2003), with levels of social astuteness plotted at one standard deviation below and above the mean. As expected, for employees high in social astuteness (i.e., 1 *SD* above mean), higher levels of climate for initiative were associated with higher levels of employees' personal initiative ($b = .23$, $p < .01$), whereas for employees low in social astuteness (i.e., 1 *SD* below mean), climate for initiative was not related to employees' personal initiative ($b = -.12$, *ns.*). These results support Hypothesis 1. Further, the hypothesized interaction effect of climate for initiative x social astuteness also was significant when analyzed without control variables.

Post-hoc Analyses

Because prior research has focused almost exclusively on the overall political skill construct, we conducted post-hoc analyses evaluating the potential interaction of climate for initiative with the composite measure of political skill. Further, we also analyzed the potential interactions between climate for initiative and the individual political skill dimensions not hypothesized in our theoretical model. By also analyzing these additional potential interactions, we were able to evaluate better how our results supported our hypotheses.

Specifically, in Model 4, we analysed the climate for initiative x interpersonal influence interaction; in Model 5, we analysed the climate for initiative x networking ability interaction; in Model 6, we analysed the climate for initiative x apparent sincerity interaction; and in Model 7, we analysed the climate for initiative x overall political skill interaction. As the political skill dimensions are substantially correlated (Ferris et al., 2005), we report these interactions separately in order to avoid partialling out true variance from the relationships of interest, thereby

increasing statistical Type II errors (Becker, 2005). In addition, simultaneous regressions of several interaction terms assess the incremental effect of one interaction term over the other interaction terms, but they do not assess a specific interaction term per se (Cohen et al., 2003). The interaction terms of climate for initiative x interpersonal influence ($\beta = .26$, $p < .01$; see Table 2, Model 4) and climate for initiative x overall political skill ($\beta = .20$, $p < .01$; see Table 2, Model 7) were significant. However, neither networking ability nor apparent sincerity significantly interacted with climate for initiative.

Insert Table 2 and Figure 2 about here

STUDY 2: METHODS

Participants and Procedure

Study 2 was conducted in the same industrial region in the western part of Germany, and the recruiting process followed the same procedure described in Study 1. Supervisors' and employees' data were matched via a randomized code. As in Study 1, we checked whether each employee's other rater was her/his supervisor, and dropped 11 assessors who were not supervisors. Second, we looked at the internet protocol (IP) addresses of the dyads, and we eliminated one dyad from the sample because the IP-addresses were identical, indicating the possibility that the same individual completed both surveys.

Potential participants were contacted by another group of 15 Bachelor students in Psychology at a university in the western part of Germany, in partial fulfilment of their study requirements. A total of 265 employees were sent password codes to participate in the study. Of these, 197 started and 183 (69%) completed the online questionnaire. Additionally, 156 (59%) other-reports of job performance were provided. After case elimination, 143 dyads could be

matched (a 54% overall response rate). Of the participating employees, 93 were females and 50 were males. Their age ranged between 20 and 62 years (M = 39.06 years, SD = 11.12 years).

Participants in Study 2 worked in manufacturing organizations (n = 31, 21.68%), in medical and social welfare organizations (n = 29, 20.28%), in public administration (n = 23, 16.08%), and in trade and service organizations (n = 18; 12.59%). Also, 9.79% (n = 14) of the participants worked in communication and consulting business, 7.69% (n = 11) in research organizations, and 6.99% (n = 10) in teaching/training institutions. The remaining participants (4.90%, n = 7) worked in the financial sector. The mean job tenure was 8.40 years (SD = 7.79).

Because employees were contacted directly and asked to participate, we were able to compare the circulated codes in their departments with codes used to answer the questionnaire, identifying departments with multiple employees and the same supervisor. In sum, 119 supervisors (i.e., each responsible for one department) participated in this study. Supervisors and employees worked together an average of 5.69 years (SD = 5.44), and supervisors rated their relationships with employees as mainly good (3) to very close (4) (M = 3.48, SD = .60), and almost two-thirds of the dyads had contact at least once a day (M = 4.99, SD = 1.10). More than 60% of the supervisors characterized the interrelatedness of their work as high (4) to very high (5) (M = 3.76, SD = .85).

Measures

Personal initiative. We assessed personal initiative using the same seven items developed by Frese et al. (1997) and used in Study 1. Cronbach's alpha in this study was α = .78.

Political skill and its dimensions were assessed as in Study 1 using the *PSI* (Ferris et al., 2005). The Cronbach's alpha of the overall political skill measure was α = .89. Social astuteness had an alpha of α = .74; Interpersonal influence had an alpha of α = .80; Networking ability had an alpha of α = .85; and Apparent sincerity had an alpha of α = .78. Again, we compared the four-

factor model of political skill with a one-factor model using CFA (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2002. The fit indices of the four-factor model were more satisfactory (Chi^2/df ratio = 2.55, *RMSEA* = .104, *CFI* = .955, and *SRMR* = .035) compared to the one-factor model (Chi^2/df ratio = 7.03, *RMSEA* = .205, *CFI* = .751, and *SRMR* = .085), and showed significantly better fit (ΔChi^2 = 104.90, $\Delta df = 6$, $p < .0001$). These results support the four-factor structure of political skill.

Job performance. We assessed employee job performance using a measure developed and validated by Blickle et al. (2011). The scale is composed of six items assessing quality of work accomplishments, work speed, adaptability to crises, adaptability to changes and innovations, cooperation at work, and reliability at work. Designed to assess job performance in different occupations, supervisors rated their subordinates in reference to persons in comparable positions on a five-point scale ranging from "much worse than other persons in a comparable position" to "a great deal better than other persons in a comparable position." The internal consistency reliability of this scale in the present study was $\alpha = .86$.

Control variables. Based on associations with job performance in prior research, we used age (Waldman & Avolio, 1986) and gender (Bowen, Swim, & Jacobs, 2000) as control variables. We also controlled for the different industry types in our sample, using a dummy-coded variable with the most frequent industry (i.e., manufacturers) as the comparison group.

Data Analyses

Because some supervisors rated the job performance of several employees, the data structure was nested. The corresponding ICC(1, 1) value of our job performance outcome variable was .47, indicating the multiple evaluations per supervisor were correlated. Therefore, we used Mplus 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 2012) to perform multilevel analyses (Hox, 2010*)* of our hypotheses. In Model 1, we entered only controls; namely, gender, age, and the industry dummy

variables. In Model 2, we entered personal initiative and interpersonal influence. In Model 3, the personal initiative x interpersonal influence interaction was entered.

STUDY 2: RESULTS

Table 3 presents the means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency reliability estimates of the variables. To evaluate the independence and distinctiveness of our scales from the different rater sources, again we conducted CFA (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2002) to test a common factor model (van der Sluis, Dolan, & Stoel, 2005) using Mplus 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012). As described above, we built two different models: In the first model, we built one factor for each construct and allowed the factors to correlate. The fit indices were satisfactory: Chi^2/df ratio = 1.78, *RMSEA* = .074, *CFI* = .893, and *SRMR* = .069. In the second model, interpersonal influence and personal initiative loaded together on one common factor, whereas we made no changes to the job performance factor. The fit indices were generally worse: Chi^2/df ratio = 2.81, *RMSEA* = .113, *CFI* = .746, and *SRMR* = .095. Additionally, the first model exhibited a significantly better fit than the second model: $\Delta Chi^2 = 125.72$, $\Delta df = 2$, $p < .0001$. These results strongly speak for the distinctiveness and uniqueness of the scales used.

Insert Table 3 about here

Table 4 reports the results of the multilevel analysis. As can be seen in Table 4, the standardized estimate of the interaction term of employee-rated personal initiative x interpersonal influence was significant (estimate = .30, $p < .01$), and explained 8% additional variance in job performance. The form of the interaction was plotted (see Figure 3) according to Cohen et al. (2003). Specifically, levels of interpersonal influence were plotted at one standard deviation above and below the mean. For employees high in interpersonal influence (i.e., 1 *SD* above

mean), higher levels of employee-rated personal initiative were associated with higher levels of supervisor-rated job performance (b = .22, p < .05, one-tailed). For employees low in interpersonal influence (i.e., 1 *SD* below mean), higher levels of employee-rated personal initiative were associated with lower levels of supervisor-rated job performance (b = -.27, p < .05). Our hypothesized interaction effect of personal initiative x interpersonal influence also was significant when analyzed without controls. Thus, we found support for Hypothesis 2.

Insert Table 4 and Figure 3 about here

Post-hoc Analyses

As in Study 1, we conducted post-hoc analyses with the overall political skill measure, as well as with the other, non-hypothesized dimensions. The interaction terms of personal initiative x social astuteness (estimate = .22, p < .05; see Table 4, Model 4), personal initiative x networking ability (estimate = .21, p < .05; see Table 4, Model 5), personal initiative x apparent sincerity (estimate = .29, p < .01; see Table 4, Model 6), and personal initiative x overall political skill (estimate = .26, p < .01; see Table 4, Model 7) were significant.

STUDY 3: METHODS

Participants and Procedure

Study 3 was conducted in the same industrial region of Germany as in the previous studies. We sampled triples consisting of full-time employees, their supervisors, and one co-worker. The same data collection procedures were used here as in the other study data collections. A total of 383 employees agreed to participate in the study. Of these, 364 started the questionnaire and 303 completed it and provided email-addresses of their supervisor and a co-worker. Of the co-workers, 282 started and 271 completed the questionnaire. Of the supervisors,

280 began and 260 completed the questionnaire. Invalid response screening consistent with the prior studies resulted in a final sample of 219 triples of employee, co-worker, and supervisor (overall response rate of 57.2%).

The sample included 123 female and 96 male employees with ages between 21 and 62 (*M* = 42.37 years, *SD* = 10.46). They had been working in their current job for an average of 10.19 years (*SD* = 8.90). Participants worked in public administration (*n* = 67, 30.59%), manufacturing (*n* = 41, 18.72%), medical and social well-fare (*n* = 36; 16.44%), and finance business (*n* = 27, 12.33%); 19 participants worked in trade and service organizations (8.68%) and 5.94% (*n* = 13) in the communication and consulting business; 12 participants (5.48%) worked in in a teaching and training and four participants in research organizations (1.83%). Supervisors and employees worked together on average since 6.87 years (*SD* = 5.58). Supervisors rated their relationship from mainly good (3) to very close (4) (*M* = 3.59, *SD* = .55), and 94% of the dyads had contact at least multiple times a week (*M* = 5.13, *SD* = 1.07). More than 60% of the supervisors characterized the interrelatedness of their work as high (4) to very high (5) (*M* = 4.74, *SD* = .87). Supervisors were on average 48 years old (*SD* = 8.97) and 65.3% (*n* = 143) were male.

Measures

Climate for initiative. Climate for initiative was measured with the same seven-item scale (i.e., Baer & Frese, 2003) used in Study 1. This time, all items were answered by one of the employees' co-workers and their supervisor. Again, we computed different measures of interrater agreement. The *ICC*(1, 1) of the climate for initiative ratings in this study was .29 and the mean r_{wg} was .82, ranging from .04 to 1.00 with a median of .88. The Cronbach alpha reliability of the aggregated scale in this study was α = .93.

Personal initiative. Personal initiative was assessed by employees using the 7-item scale (Frese et al., 1997) used in Studies 1 and 2. The Cronbach alpha reliability was α = .82.

Political skill and its dimensions again were assessed using the *PSI* (Ferris et al., 2005). The Cronbach's alpha of overall political skill was α = .88. Social astuteness had an alpha of α = .67; Interpersonal influence had an alpha of α = 81; Networking ability had an alpha of α = .88; and Apparent sincerity had an alpha of α = .70. Again, we compared the four-factor model of political skill with a one-factor model using confirmatory factor analyses (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2002. The fit indices of the four-factor model were more satisfactory (Chi^2/df ratio = 2.87, *RMSEA* = .092, *CFI* = .963, and *SRMR* = .039) compared to the one-factor model (Chi^2/df ratio = 13.07, *RMSEA* = .235, *CFI* = .683, and *SRMR* = .106), and had a significantly better fit (ΔChi^2 = 218.35, Δdf = 5, $p < .0001$). This supports the four-factor structure of political skill.

Job performance. In this study, supervisors rated employee job performance with an adaptation of a scale developed and validated by Ferris, Witt, and Hochwarter (2001). This scale consists of 15 items, measuring core task performance, interpersonal facilitation, and job dedication with 5 items each. Supervisors rated their subordinates on a five-point scale ranging from "much worse than other persons in a comparable position" to "a great deal better than other persons in a comparable position." A sample item is "Responds to queries swiftly."

To ensure that we could aggregate the facets to an overall measure of job performance, we conducted a CFA with 3 factors and a latent second-order factor of overall job performance. We split the items of each performance facet into two indicators loading on the respective factor to decrease the number of free parameters estimated (Moshagen, 2012). The fit indices of this model were satisfactory: Chi^2/df ratio = 2.29, *RMSEA* = .077, *CFI* = .985, and *SRMR* = .025. The results support aggregation of the performance facets into one overall measure of job performance. The Cronbach's alpha reliability of the aggregated scale was α = .90.

Control variables. As in the previous studies we controlled for age and gender, because these variables are known to influence both the amount of personal initiative shown (Bindl &

Parker, 2010) and job performance evaluations (age: Waldman & Avolio, 1986; gender: Bowen et al., 2000). Further, we controlled for the different industry types with dummy-codes, using the most frequent industry (i.e., public administration) as the comparison group.

Data Analyses

To test the first-stage and second-stage moderated mediation (Edwards & Lambert, 2007), we conducted two hierarchical moderated multiple regression analyses with centered variables (Cohen et al., 2003) to examine the influence of the climate for initiative x social astuteness interaction (i.e., on personal initiative) and the personal initiative x interpersonal influence interaction (i.e., on job performance evaluations by supervisors). In the first regression analysis, the dependent variable was self-reported personal initiative. We included the control variables (i.e., age, gender, and the industry dummy-codes) in Model 1. In Model 2, we entered climate for initiative and social astuteness. In Model 3, the cross-product term of climate for initiative x social astuteness was entered. If this interaction effect is significant and positive, one condition for dual-stage moderated mediation is met.

In the second regression analysis, the dependent variable was supervisor-rated job performance. Again, we entered the controls in Model 1. In the Model 2, self-reported personal initiative and interpersonal influence were entered. In Model 3, the cross-product term of self-reported personal initiative x interpersonal influence was entered. If this interaction effect is significant and positive, the second condition for dual-stage moderated mediation is met. Finally, to test the first-stage and second-stage moderated mediation, we used the tool PROCESS by Hayes (2013). Using this tool, we were able to model two different moderators in the mediation process, and to compute the resulting indirect effect at conditional values of the moderators. We used 10,000 bootstrap samples and a 95% confidence interval to test the resulting indirect effects.

Hypothesis 3 would be confirmed if the indirect effect for high (i.e., 1 SD above the mean) social astuteness and interpersonal influence was positive and significant.

STUDY 3: RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, correlations, and internal consistency reliability estimates of the variables are presented in Table 5. Again, to evaluate the independence and distinctiveness of our scales from the different rater sources, we conducted CFA (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2002) to test a common factor model (van der Sluis, Dolan, & Stoel, 2005) using Mplus 7.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2012). As recent research has shown that fit indices of structural equation models generally deteriorate with an increasing number of manifest variables (Moshagen, 2012), we built two indicator variables for each scale based on the odd- and even-numbered scale items to reduce the number of manifest variables in our models.

Insert Table 5 about here

Then, we built three different models. In the first model, the respective indicator variables loaded on one factor for each construct, resulting in a correlated five-factor-model. The fit indices were good: Chi^2/df ratio = 1.62, *RMSEA* = .053, *CFI* = .984, and *SRMR* = .028. In the second model, the indicator variables of social astuteness and interpersonal influence loaded together on one common factor (i.e., political skill), but we did not change the personal initiative (employee), climate for initiative, and job performance factors. The fit indices were acceptable (Chi^2/df ratio = 2.17, *RMSEA* = .073, *CFI* = .965, and *SRMR* = .043), but the first model exhibited a significantly better fit than the second model: $\Delta Chi^2 = 23.49$, $\Delta df = 4$, $p < .001$. In the third model, the social astuteness, interpersonal influence, and personal initiative (employee) indicators loaded on one common factor, whereas the climate for initiative and job performance indicators loaded each on

one factor. The fit indices were not as good (Chi^2/df ratio = 4.82, *RMSEA* = .132, *CFI* = .875, and *SRMR* = .074), and the first model exhibited a significantly better fit than the third model: ΔChi^2 = 120.17, Δdf = 7, $p < .001$. These results speak in favor of the distinctiveness of the scales used.

Stage 1 Moderation Results

Table 6 shows that the climate for initiative x social astuteness interaction demonstrated a significant influence on personal initiative (β = .15, $p < .05$, Model 3). The form of the climate for initiative x social astuteness interaction was illustrated according to the procedure proposed by Cohen et al. (2003) and described above. Figure 4 presents the plot (Cohen et al., 2003) of the significant climate for initiative x social astuteness interaction effect. As hypothesized, for employees high in social astuteness (i.e., 1 *SD* above mean), higher levels of climate for initiative were associated with higher levels of employees' personal initiative ($b = .19$, $p < .05$), whereas for employees low in social astuteness (i.e., 1 *SD* below mean), higher levels of climate for initiative were not associated with changes in employees' personal initiative ($b = -.12$, *ns*). These results meet the first condition for dual-stage moderated mediation.

Insert Table 6 and Figure 4 about here

Stage 2 Moderation Results

Table 7 shows the results of the hierarchical moderated regression analysis on job performance, as rated by supervisors. The personal initiative x interpersonal influence interaction demonstrated a significant effect on job performance evaluations (β = .15, $p < .05$), and explained 2% of additional variance. Additionally, the direct effect of the aggregated climate for initiative variable still was significant (β = .19, $p < .01$). However, when analyzing the data without the supervisor ratings of climate for initiative, the interaction term remained significant, but the main

effect of climate for initiative was non-significant. Figure 5 presents the plot (Cohen et al., 2003) of the significant personal initiative x interpersonal influence interaction. As hypothesized, for employees high in interpersonal influence, higher levels of personal initiative were associated with higher job performance evaluations (b = .20, p < .05). However, contrary to Hypothesis 2, for employees low in interpersonal influence, higher levels of personal initiative did not impact job performance evaluations (b = -.09, *ns*). These results meet the second condition for dual-stage moderated mediation.

Insert Table 7 and Figure 5 about here

Dual-Stage Moderated-Mediation Results

To test the hypothesized first- and second-stage moderated mediation, we computed the indirect effects of high and/or low levels of social astuteness and/or interpersonal influence. Additionally, we used the PROCESS procedure for bias-corrected bootstrapping (Hayes, 2013, model 21) to compute 95% confidence intervals to test the indirect effects for significance. Table 7 shows that personal initiative mediated the effect between climate for initiative and job performance only when both social astuteness and interpersonal influence were high (indirect effect = .037, boot SE = .024, 95% CI[.003; .102]). In the other combinations of social astuteness and interpersonal influence (low-high, high-low, low-low), the indirect effect of personal initiative was close to zero and non-significant. Thus, these results support Hypothesis 3. Our hypothesized interaction effects between climate for initiative x social astuteness and personal initiative x interpersonal influence, as well as the indirect effect at high levels of both moderators, also remain significant when analyzed without control variables.

Post-hoc Analyses

As in the previous studies, we conducted post-hoc analyses using the overall measure of political skill and the non-hypothesized dimensions. For the first stage analyses (see Table 6), in Model 4, we analysed the climate for initiative x social astuteness interaction; in Model 5, we analysed the climate for initiative x networking ability interaction; in Model 6, we analysed the climate for initiative x apparent sincerity interaction; and in Model 7, we analysed the climate for initiative x overall political skill interaction. Contrary to the results of the Study 1 post-hoc analyses, no other dimensions, nor the overall political skill variable, significantly interacted with climate for initiative in Study 3. Thus, we replicated only the hypothesized interaction from Study 1 in Study 3.

Further, in the second-stage analyses (see Table 7) in Model 4, we analysed the personal initiative x social astuteness interaction; in Model 5, we analysed the personal initiative x networking interaction; in Model 6, we analysed the personal initiative x apparent sincerity interaction; and in Model 7, we analysed the personal initiative x overall political skill interaction. Contrary to the post-hoc analyses results from Study 2, only the interaction of personal initiative x social astuteness was significant ($\beta = .14$, $p < .05$). Thus, we replicated the hypothesized interaction and one additional interaction from Study 2 in Study 3.

Finally, to screen for other potential indirect effects of the different combinations of the first-stage and second-stage moderators of the climate for initiative – personal initiative – job performance relationship chain, we tested all combinations of first-stage and second-stage moderators. No other potential combinations provided a significant indirect effect (see Table 8).

Insert Table 8 about here

DISCUSSION

Personal initiative has become an important phenomenon in organizations, as well as the focus of rapidly expanding research attention in recent years. In this three-study investigation, we formulated and tested a moderated mediation model of employees' personal initiative process in organizations. Specifically, climate for initiative was hypothesized to interact with social astuteness in the prediction of personal initiative in Study 1, and the results supported this hypothesis. Additionally, as hypothesized in Study 2, the employee self-reported personal initiative x interpersonal influence interaction was found to predict supervisor evaluations of job performance. In Study 3, a test of the entire model was conducted, and results supported the moderated mediation hypothesis. Additionally, Study 3 findings provide constructive replication of the results from Studies 1 and 2, and thus, strengthen confidence in the validity of the overall set of results. In total, these findings contribute to a more informed understanding of the nature, antecedents, and consequences of personal initiative in organizations.

Contributions to Theory and Research

Overall, the combined results of our studies provided a greater understanding of the employee personal initiative process by demonstrating how employees' skills and abilities affect conscious, motivated, and goal-directed decisions to act proactively. More specifically, the results demonstrate that employees can use skills and abilities to leverage personal initiative in ways that promote positive perceptions and evaluations of job performance from supervisors.

This investigation also contributes to personal initiative theory by examining boundary conditions that might explain the variability in the findings regarding the relationship between personal initiative and important work outcomes like job performance. More specifically, Grant and Ashford (2008) concluded that greater insight might occur in this important area if scholars begin to focus on ability/skill components that result in proactive behavior influencing outcomes both positively and negatively. Our results demonstrate that employees' ability to execute

personal initiative effectively can create favorable supervisor evaluations. Conversely, the present investigation provides some evidence that the personal initiative of employees with a lack of political skill actually may create unfavorable evaluations from supervisors.

Further, this investigation also answered appeals for research on the individual dimensions of political skill (Ferris et al., 2012) by examining the effects of specific dimensions on the employee personal initiative process. Interestingly, the post-hoc analyses we performed in each study produced somewhat inconsistent results regarding the effects of the individual dimensions. Specifically, the effect of the interpersonal influence x climate for initiative interaction on personal initiative was significant in Study 1; however, this result was not replicated in Study 3. Additionally, social astuteness, networking ability, and apparent sincerity were each statistically significant moderators of the personal initiative – performance evaluation relationship in Study 2; however, only the interaction of social astuteness was replicated in Study 3. Despite this, our analyses of the indirect effects showed that the indirect effect of (high) social astuteness as first-stage or second-stage moderator was not significant (see Table 8). Finally, the interactions of the overall political skill measure with climate for initiative and personal initiative were each significant in Study 1 and Study 2, respectively; however, these results also were not replicated in Study 3.

By isolating the dimensions of political skill in multiple studies, we were able to demonstrate the differential effects of individual differences. Specifically, our results show that social astuteness largely enables politically skilled employees' to accurately read work situations to select appropriate behaviors (i.e., recognize opportunities). Further, our results indicate that the interpersonal influence dimension primarily is responsible for making politically skilled employees' selected behavior more effective (i.e., capitalizing on opportunities). Prior research has provided support for the overall moderating effect of political skill. However, few studies

have explored the effects of the individual dimensions (Ferris et al., 2012). Our results contribute to political skill research by demonstrating the moderating influence of specific dimensions, thus furthering understanding regarding the underlying operation of the political skill construct.

In this research, only socially astute individuals were able to interpret contextual climate for initiative cues and recognize opportunity to display initiative. Further, only those employees with interpersonal influence were able to effectively capitalize on those opportunities by displaying initiative in situationally appropriate ways that positively influenced supervisor evaluations of performance. Conversely, those low in social astuteness were incapable of accurately reading the contextual climate for initiative cues, and displayed less personal initiative. Also, those low in interpersonal influence were the recipients of lower performance evaluations when personal initiative was used more frequently. This less than optimal outcome likely resulted from an inability to read and diagnose situations, a lack of astuteness in the selection of situationally-appropriate behaviors, and a failure to convey behaviors effectively.

Strengths and Limitations

The primary strength of our research was the multi-study, multi-source data collection. Specifically, this investigation was a multi-study research package (Hochwarter et al., 2011), which enabled the constructive replication of findings. In this research, we formulated an opportunity recognition and capitalization model of employees' personal initiative process. Half of the model was tested in Study 1, the other half was tested in Study 2, and the full model was then tested in Study 3. Additionally, both employees and their supervisors reported on different variables, which minimized concerns about the presence of common method bias affecting the results (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Finally, all scales used to operationalize study variables of interest had been previously validated and demonstrated strong psychometric properties.

However, the present study is not without limitations. First, questions remain regarding the operationalization of personal initiative using the Frese et al. (1997) measure. Although we collected additional data to demonstrate this measure is correlated more strongly to other measures of proactive behavior than to measures of proactive personality, the results preclude us from claiming that the measure does not capture some trait variance.

Second, our respondent recruiting techniques (e.g., student-recruited and "snowball" sampling) introduce potential issues. Student-recruited samples commonly are critiqued as non-random and prone to falsification – issues that need to be weighed against the value they provide through access to a broad number of employees in a range of occupations (Hochwarter, 2014). Additionally, "snowball sampling," which asks respondents to recruit a second respondent, typically to evaluate the first respondent, also is prone to falsification and potential recruitment bias. We attempted to prevent the effects of falsification though questionnaire design, as outlined in our method section, as well as through the inspection and removal of duplicate I.P. addresses. However, we realize that these steps do not completely prevent false responses.

Third, despite our efforts to limit the effects of common method bias, we cannot rule out its presence in Study 3. Specifically, the significant direct effect of the aggregated climate for initiative ratings on job performance in Study 3 may be due to supervisors providing both a rating climate for initiative and for job performance. When reanalyzing the data of Study 3 without supervisor climate ratings, the direct effect in this data aggregation is no longer significant, whereas the interaction effects and the indirect effect remain significant, providing support for this argument. Consequently, future studies should further investigate the nature of the mediation effect (full vs. partial mediating effect).

Finally, although our use of multiple studies is a definite strength, all three samples are cross-sectional, which prevents claims of empirical support for causal ordering. Time-separated

or other longitudinal designs would help support the causal arguments suggested by our model. In particular, future studies could collect data on proactive climates, proactive behavior, and outcomes at three separate times. Further, collecting proactive behavior ratings using alternative measures would help alleviate concerns regarding the use of the Frese et al. (1997) measure to capture behavior. For example, other employees could rate the extent to which they have observed colleagues' recent proactive behavior.

Future Research Directions

In addition to those listed above to address specific limitations, there are several other directions for future research. The examination of additional outcomes would more fully capture the range of employee work contributions. Further, the additional assessment of objective outcomes would further understanding as to whether employee performance actually increases depending on the combination of personal initiative behavior and interpersonal influence skill, or whether this combination just contributes to a better evaluation by the supervisor.

Future research might investigate other employee attributes that could moderate the relationship between personal initiative, or other proactive behavior, and work outcomes. We strongly underscore and further endorse Grant and Ashford's (2008) appeal for future research in this area. For example, source attributes such as perceived reputation, networking status, and employee creativity represent viable employee characteristics worthy of consideration. Also, personal initiative and political skill can be considered as employee resources (Hakanen, Perhoniemi, & Toppinen-Tanner, 2008; Thompson, 2005), and as such, disentangling their direct and non-direct effects on work outcomes over time represents an important research challenge.

It is important to note that we consider only one (i.e., pro-self) of the three different proactive behavior foci. In addition to self-focused benefits, such as increased performance ratings, the employee personal initiative process also may stem from motivation to achieve pro-

social and/or pro-organizational ends (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010). Future research could extend the current study by examining how social effectiveness constructs impact the relationships between personal initiative, or other proactive behaviors, and other positive, other-focused change-outcomes. For example, does a heightened ability to read social situations facilitate the enhanced recognition of opportunities to positively impact one's colleagues, work group, or organization? Further, it would be interesting to examine whether interpersonal influence ability and apparent sincerity moderate the relationship between employees' other-focused proactive behaviors and their colleagues' attributions of the intention motivating the acts.

Conclusion

The present three-study investigation acknowledges the important role of personal initiative, and furthers research by proposing and testing a model of personal and contextual antecedents and consequences of initiative behavior. The collective examination of key constructs in this model and how they work together contributes to a more informed understanding of the personal initiative process in organizations. In sum, we found that individuals must be situationally aware and possess the interpersonal skill to implement initiative behavior in ways judged as effective. We hope that our efforts facilitate further research on the independent and collaborative roles of initiative and social influence in organizations.

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FOOTNOTE

1. To ensure that the self-reported measure of personal initiative used was a measure of a behavioral syndrome rather than of personality (i.e., as stated by Tornau & Frese, 2013), we conducted a two-wave study, with a four-week time interval, assessing 120 participants. We measured proactive personality, personal initiative, taking charge, and voice at both occasions. Using several multitrait-multistate analyses, our results showed that proactive personality and personal initiative are distinct constructs, whereas this might not be true for voice and personal initiative. Together, our results provide evidence that the personal initiative and proactive personality scales measure distinct constructs, and that the measure of personal initiative is related more to measures of behavior than of traits. Thus, we concluded that it is appropriate to consider the self-reported personal initiative measure used in these studies a measure of proactive behavior. Further information is available from the authors, upon request.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Variables – Study 1

Variables		*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	Gender	1.43	.50																
2	Age	38.51	11.69	.00															
3	Public Administration-dummy	.20	.40	.09	.10														
4	Communication / Consulting-dummy	.08	.28	-.01	-.04	-.15													
5	Manufacturing-dummy	.16	.37	.17*	-.18*	-.22**	-.13												
6	Finance-dummy	.02	.14	.07	-.03	-.07	-.04	-.06											
7	Research-dummy	.03	.18	-.09	-.03	-.09	-.06	-.08	-.03										
8	Teaching / Training-dummy	.04	.20	-.11	.02	-.10	-.06	-.09	-.03	-.04									
9	Trade / Service-dummy	.21	.41	.11	-.15	-.25**	-.15	-.23**	-.07	-.10	-.11								
10	Climate for Initiative (aggr.)	3.54	.55	-.02	-.10	-.08	-.01	.10	.04	.06	.03	-.04	*(.92)*						
11	Social Astuteness (empl.)	4.79	.78	.08	.12	.01	-.08	.06	.05	-.18*	.01	-.02	.01	*.(73)*					
12	Interpersonal Influence (empl.)	5.25	.86	.05	.10	.01	.01	.02	.02	-.10	-.01	-.03	-.03	.57**	*(.78)*				
13	Networking Ability (empl.)	4.51	.99	.16	.14	.10	-.10	.017	.10	-.01	.02	-.12	.036	.54**	.58**	*(.87)*			
14	Apparent Sincerity (empl.)	5.73	.79	-.05	.00	-.15	.07	.02	-.11	-.06	-.05	-.03	.09	.47**	.42**	.31**	*(.71)*		
15	Political Skill (empl.)	4.96	.69	.10	.13	.02	-.05	.06	.04	-.10	.00	-.08	.04	.81**	.81**	.86**	.60**	*(.90)*	
16	Personal Initiative (empl.)	3.78	.49	.14	.11	.03	.03	.10	.10	.02	-.14	-.06	.08	.47**	*.56***	*.45***	*.26***	*.57***	*(.76)*

Note: N = 146; gender (1 = female, 2 = male); comparison group for dummies: Medical / Social-well-fare industry; Cronbach's alpha reliabilities in the diagonal; empl. = employee rated.

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

Table 2

Moderated Regressions on Personal Initiative – Study 1

	Personal Initiative (employee)						
	Model 1	*Model 2*	*Model 3*	*Model 4*	*Model 5*	*Model 6*	*Model 7*
Predictors (β)							
Gender	.10	.07	.07	.09	.05	.11	.05
Age	.13	.08	.06	.07	.07	.15	.04
Public Administration-dummy	.05	.08	.07	.00	.02	.12	.04
Communication / Consulting-dummy	.06	.11	.10	.03	.08	.07	.08
Manufacturing-dummy	.13	.11	.09	.06	.08	.15	.07
Finance-dummy	.10	.09	.06	.05	.05	.15	.05
Research-dummy	.05	.14	.16*	.10	.05	.08	.12
Teaching / Training-dummy	-.10	-.11	-.10	-.11	-.12	-.07	-.10
Trade / Service-dummy	.00	.03	-.01	-.01	.03	.06	.03
Climate for Initiative (supervisor; CFI)		.07	.06	.07	.06	.06	.05
Social Astuteness (PSI-SA)		.48**	.47**				
CFI x PSI-SA			.21**				
Interpersonal Influence (PSI-II)				.50**			
CfI x PSI-II				.26**			
Networking Ability (PSI-NA)					.42**		
CfI x PSI-NA					.10		
Apparent Sincerity (PSI-AS)						.30**	
CfI x PSI-AS						.05	
Political Skill (PSI)							.53**
CfI x PSI							.20**
R^2	.07	.29	.33	.43	.26	.16	.41
F	1.22	5.04**	5.51**	8.37**	3.88**	2.08*	7.66**
ΔR^2		.22	.04				

ΔF		21.16**	7.90**

Note: N = 146; comparison group for dummies: Medical / Social-well-fare industry; gender (1 = female, 2 = male);

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Variables – Study 2

Variables		*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	Gender	1.35	.48																
2	Age	39.06	11.12	-.03															
3	Medical / Social-well-fare-dummy	.20	.40	-.22**	.08														
4	Communication / Consulting-dummy	.10	.30	-.09	-.16	-.17*													
5	Public Administration-dummy	.17	.38	-.09	.19*	-.23**	-.15												
6	Finance-dummy	.05	.22	.04	.04	-.11	-.08	-.10											
7	Research-dummy	.08	.27	.06	-.10	-.15	-.10	-.13	-.07										
8	Teaching / Training-dummy	.06	.24	-.13	.09	-.13	-.09	-.12	-.06	-.08									
9	Trade / Service-dummy	.13	.33	.12	.01	-.19*	-.13	-.17*	-.09	-.11	-.10								
10	Personal initiative (empl.)	3.80	.51	-.09	.06	.11	.09	.03	.03	-.06	-.02	-.20*	*(.78)*						
11	Interpersonal Influence (empl.)	5.23	.90	-.18*	-.10	.12	.13	.00	.04	-.06	.00	-.10	.35**	*(.80)*					
12	Social Astuteness (empl).	4.92	.80	-.09	-.09	.08	.21*	.07	-.05	-.10	-.08	-.10	.41**	.59**	*(.74)*				
13	Networking Ability (empl.)	4.41	1.02	-.18*	-.11	.15	.16	-.01	-.13	-.03	.16	-.11	.49**	.47**	.45**	*(.85)*			
14	Apparent Sincerity (empl.)	5.78	.89	-.05	-.08	.12	.10	.02	-.05	-.18*	-.02	-.14	.19*	.43**	.53**	.38**	*(.78)*		
15	Political Skill (empl.)	4.96	.72	-.18*	-.12	.16	.20*	.02	-.08	-.09	.08	-.14	.50**	.78**	.80**	.83**	.68**	*(.89)*	
16	Job performance (superv.)	3.95	.65	-.11	-.05	.03	.01	.09	.04	.02	.08	-.16	.10	.22**	.14	.13	.03	.17*	*(.86)*

Note: N = 143; gender (1 = female, 2 = male); comparison group for dummies: Manufacturing industry; Cronbach's alpha reliabilities are in the diagonal; empl. = employee-rated, superv. = supervisor-rated;

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

Table 4

Multilevel Job Performance Prediction – Study 2

Variables	Job Performance (supervisor)						
	Model 1	*Model 2*	*Model 3*	*Model 4*	*Model 5*	*Model 6*	*Model 7*
Predictors	*Estimate*	*Estimate*	*Estimate*	*Estimate*	*Estimate*	*Estimate*	*Estimate*
Gender	-.05	-.02	-.01	-.03	-.04	-.02	-.03
Age	-.12	-.09	-.10	-.09	-.12	.11	-.10
Medical / Social-well-fare-dummy	.16	.13	.17	.20	.20	.21	.20
Communication / Consulting-dummy	.03	.00	.03	.03	.05	.03	.04
Public Administration-dummy	.15	.15	.21	.20	.22	.20	.23
Finance-dummy	.12	.10	.12	.16	.17	.13	.17
Research-dummy	.11	.12	.17	.16	.15	.11	.17
Teaching / Training-dummy	.16	.16	.21*	.21*	.21*	.21*	.23*
Trade / Service-dummy	-.10	-.11	-.09	-.04	-.06	-.05	-.05
Personal Initiative (employee; PI)		-.02	-.02	.03	.06	.12	.03
Interpersonal Influence (PSI-II)		.23	.29*				
PI x PSI-II			.30**				
Social Astuteness (PSI-SA)				.09			
PI x PSI-SA				.22*			
Networking Ability (PSI-NA)					.06		
PI x PSI-NA					.21*		
Apparent Sincerity (PSI-AS)						-.07	

PI x PSI-AS						.29**	
Political Skill (PSI)							.12
PI x PSI							.26**
R^2-within	.02	.06	.14	.08	.07	.11	.10
ΔR^2-within		.04	.08				
R^2-between	.08	.08	.12	.10	.11	.10	.12
ΔR^2-between		.00	.04				

Not:. $N = 143$; gender (1 = female, 2 = male); dummies estimated on the between-level, all other variables on within-level; comparison group for dummies: Manufacturing industry; standardized estimates are reported;

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

Table 5

Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations of Variables – Study 3

Variables		*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1	Gender	1.44	.50																	
2	Age	42.37	10.46	-.26**																
3	Medical / Social-well-fare-dummy	.16	.37	-.27**	.17**															
4	Communication / Consulting-dummy	.06	.24	.05	-.18**	-.11														
5	Manufacturing-dummy	.19	.39	.17*	-.16*	-.21**	-.12													
6	Finance-dummy	.12	.33	.06	-.03	-.17*	-.09	-.18**												
7	Research-dummy	.02	.13	.02	-.14*	-.06	-.03	-.07	-.05											
8	Teaching / Training-dummy	.05	.23	-.01	-.10	-.11	-.06	-.12	-.09	-.03										
9	Trade / Service-dummy	.09	.28	.12	-.12	-.14*	-.08	-.15*	-.12	-.04	-.07									
10	Climate for Initiative (aggr.)	3.43	.51	-.05	-.04	.05	.03	.07	.01	.12	.15*	-.03	*(.93)*							
11	Social Astuteness (empl.)	4.88	.75	-.01	.09	.04	-.09	.08	.07	.03	.02	.00	.11	*(.67)*						
12	Personal initiative (empl.)	3.78	.51	.14*	-.06	.01	-.08	.16*	-.08	.19**	.03	-.05	.10	.39**	*(.82)*					
13	Interpersonal Influence (empl.)	5.36	.80	.00	.05	.03	.05	.05	-.06	.00	.09	.01	.17*	.58**	.29**	*(.81)*				
14	Networking Ability (empl.)	4.67	1.01	.10	.06	.11	-.15*	.09	-.03	.05	.08	-.06	.17*	.54**	.46**	.47**	*(.88)*			
15	Apparent Sincerity (empl.)	5.86	.76	-.01	.10	.05	-.04	.11	-.05	-.04	.16*	-.04	.10	.29**	.19**	.42**	.19**	*(.70)*		
16	Political Skill (empl.)	5.08	.66	.04	.09	.09	-.10	.10	-.02	.03	.10	-.04	.19**	.81**	.48**	.78**	.85**	.49**	*(.88)*	
17	Job performance (superv.)	3.95	.52	-.12	.08	.00	-.14*	.05	-.10	.14*	.09	-.07	.21**	.07	.09	.05	.03	.05	.06	*(.90)*

Note: N = 219; gender (1 = female, 2 = male); comparison group for dummies: Public Administration; Cronbach's alpha reliabilities in the diagonal; empl. = employee-rated, superv. = supervisor-rated;

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

Table 6

Moderated Regressions on Personal Initiative – Study 3

Variables	Personal Initiative (employee)						
Predictors (β)	*Model 1*	*Model 2*	*Model 3*	*Model 4*	*Model 5*	*Model 6*	*Model 7*
Gender	.14*	.14*	.15*	.14*	.08	.14	.11
Age	.01	.-.05	-.04	-.03	-.03	-.02	-.06
Medical / Social-well-fare -dummy	.08	.03	.05	.05	.01	.05	.02
Communication / Consulting-dummy	-.06	-.06	-.04	-.09	-.01	-.07	-.04
Manufacturing-dummy	.16*	.08	.09	.12	.11	.11	.08
Finance-dummy	-.04	-.10	-.08	-.04	-.04	-.05	-.06
Research-dummy	.20**	.16*	.16*	.18**	.16*	.20**	.16**
Teaching / Training-dummy	.06	.02	.02	.01	-.01	-.01	-.03
Trade / Service-dummy	-.03	-.07	-.06	-.05	-.01	-.04	-.04
Climate for Initiative (aggr.; CFI)		.04	.03	.03	.01	.05	.00
Social Astuteness (PSI-SA)		.39**	.39**				
CFI x PSI-SA			.15*				
Interpersonal Influence (PSI-II)				.28**			
CfI x PSI-II				.03			
Networking Ability (PSI-NA)					.44**		
CfI x PSI-NA					.09		
Apparent Sincerity (PSI-AS)						.18**	
CfI x PSI-AS						.09	
Political Skill (PSI)							.46**
CfI x PSI							.11
R^2	.09	.24	.26	.17	.27	.13	.30
F	2.42*	5.93**	6.11**	3.59**	6.38**	2.66**	7.35**
ΔR^2		.15	.02				
Δ*F*		19.78**	6.32*				

Note: N = 219; gender (1 = female, 2 = male); comparison group for dummies: Public Administration;

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

Table 7

Moderated Regressions on Job Performance – Study 3

Variables	Job Performance (supervisor)						
Predictors (β)	*Model 1*	*Model 2*	*Model 3*	*Model 4*	*Model 5*	*Model 6*	*Model 7*
Gender	-.10	-.11	-.10	-.11	-.10	-.11	-.11
Age	.06	.06	.08	.06	.06	.06	.07
Medical / Social-well-fare -dummy	-.08	-.08	-.08	-.07	-.07	-.08	-.07
Communication / Consulting-dummy	-.15*	-.14	-.13	.14	-.15	-.14	-.14
Manufacturing-dummy	.01	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01
Finance-dummy	-.12	-.12	-.13	-.12	-.11	-.12	-.11
Research-dummy	.11	.10	.11	.11	.10	.11	.10
Teaching / Training-dummy	.04	.04	.04	.05	.05	.04	.05
Trade / Service-dummy	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.07	-.07	-.06	-.06
Climate for Initiative (aggr.; CFI)	.19**	.20**	.19**	.17*	.20**	.19**	.19**
Personal Initiative (employee; PI)		.05	.05	.05	.08	.05	.07
Interpersonal Influence (PSI-II)		.00	.03				
PI x PSI-II			.15*				
Social Astuteness (PSI-SA)				.01			
PI x PSI-SA				.14*			
Networking Ability (PSI-NA)					-.07		
PI x PSI-NA					.05		
Apparent Sincerity (PSI-AS)						.01	
PI x PSI-AS						.06	
Political Skill (PSI)							-.03
PI x PSI							.12
R^2	.12	.12	.14	.14	.12	.12	.13
F	2.70**	2.27*	2.50**	2.46**	2.21*	2.16*	2.38**
ΔR^2		.00	.02				

ΔF	.24	4.78*

Note: N = 219; gender (1 = female, 2 = male); comparison group for dummies: Public Administration;

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

Table 8

Indirect Effects of Climate for Initiative via Personal Initiative on Job Performance at high Values of Political Skill Facets – Study 3

Path Climate for Initiative → Personal Initiative (employee) → Job Performance (supervisor)				
First-Stage	Second-Stage	Estimate	Boot s.e.	95% confidence interval
Social Astuteness	Social Astuteness	.033	.024	(-.002, .101)
Social Astuteness	Interpersonal Influence	.037*	.024	(.003, .102)
Social Astuteness	Networking Ability	.024	.024	(-.009, .089)
Social Astuteness	Apparent Sincerity	.021	.024	(-.014, .083)
Interpersonal Influence	Social Astuteness	.011	.020	(-.018, .071)
Interpersonal Influence	Interpersonal Influence	.012	.022	(-.022, .069)
Interpersonal Influence	Networking Ability	.008	.017	(-.013, .065)
Interpersonal Influence	Apparent Sincerity	.007	.016	(-.012, .060)
Networking Ability	Social Astuteness	.015	.018	(-.007, .069)
Networking Ability	Interpersonal Influence	.017	.020	(-.010, .075)
Networking Ability	Networking Ability	.011	.016	(-.008, .065)
Networking Ability	Apparent Sincerity	.010	.016	(-.007, .063)
Apparent Sincerity	Social Astuteness	.026	.022	(-.002, .089)
Apparent Sincerity	Interpersonal Influence	.029	.023	(-.004, .089)
Apparent Sincerity	Networking Ability	.019	.022	(-.009, .082)
Apparent Sincerity	Apparent Sincerity	.017	.020	(-.010, .076)
Political Skill	Political Skill	.018	.019	(-.006, .076)

Note: N = 219; Confidence intervals based on 10000 bootstrapping samples (using PROCESS, Hayes, 2013); Control variables: age, gender (1 = female, 2 = male); industry dummy variables;

*$p < .05$

Figure 1

Conceptual Model of Personal Initiative Process in Organizations

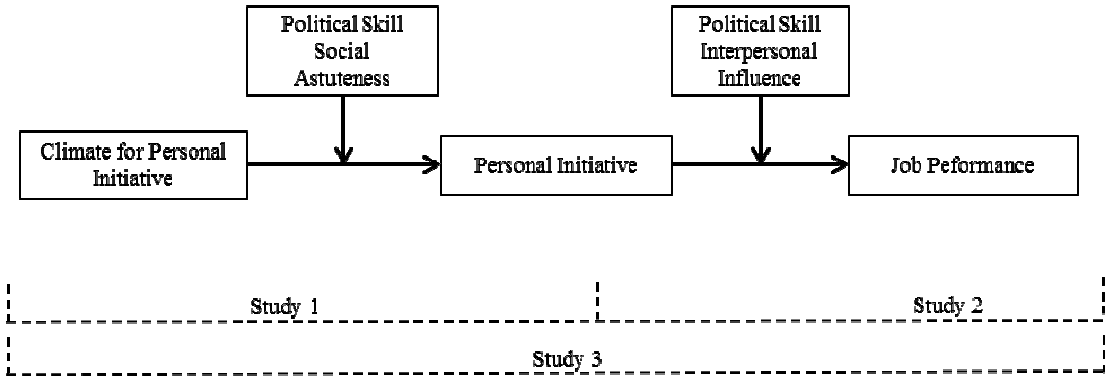
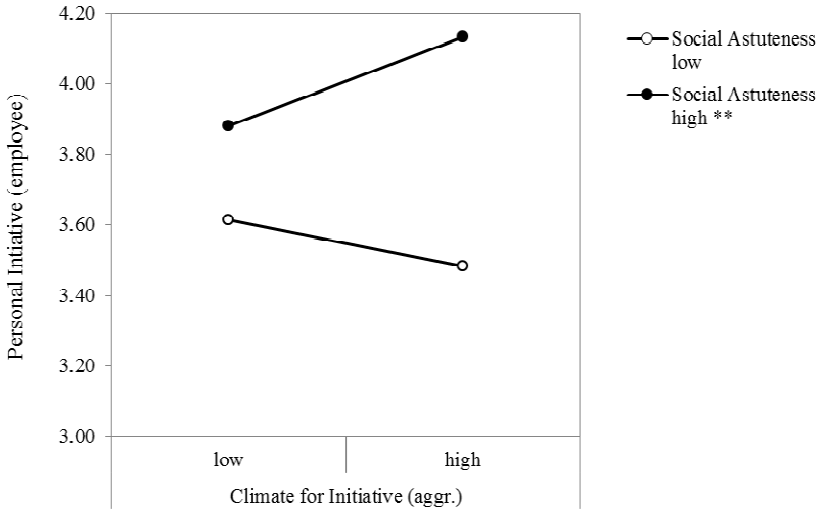


Figure 2

Climate for Initiative x Social Astuteness on Personal Initiative – Study 1

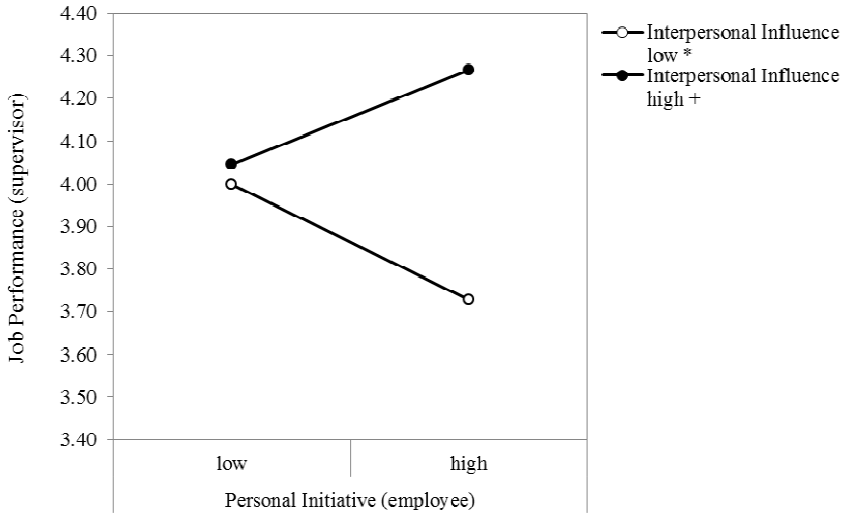


Note: N = 146; regression slope for high Social Astuteness:

***p* < .01

Figure 3

Personal Initiative x Interpersonal Influence on Job Performance – Study 2



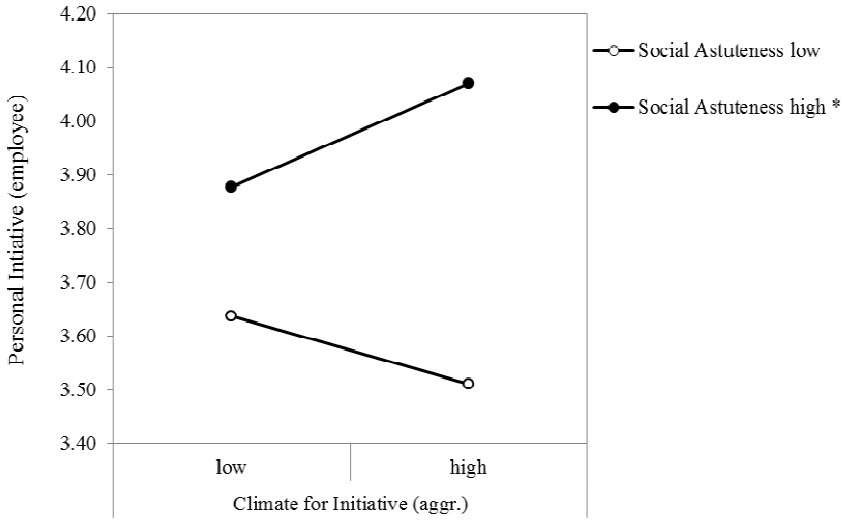
Note: N = 143; regression slope for high and low Interpersonal Influence:

$^{+}p < .05$(one-tailed)

$^{*}p < .05$

Figure 4

Climate for Initiative x Social Astuteness on Personal Initiative – Study 3

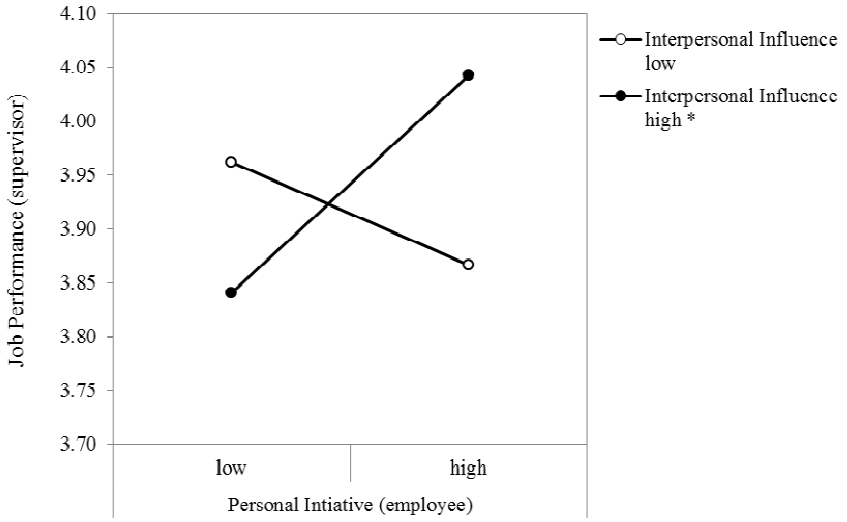


Note: N = 219; regression slope for high Social Astuteness:

*$p < .05$

Figure **5**

Personal Initiative x Interpersonal Influence on Job Performance – Study 3



Note: N = 219; regression slope for high Interpersonal Influence:

*$p < .05$