Perspective Getting: The Antecedents of Follower Political Knowledge

by

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Abstract

There are some subordinates that have a deep understanding of their supervisor's world. More than others, they understand their supervisor's work relationships, preferences, demands, and resources. The goal of this thesis was to predict and test how this collection of strategic and sensitive information, or follower political knowledge, develops. Using the active perspective-taking framework, I focused on a subordinate's motivation, capacity, and opportunity to acquire follower political knowledge. In particular, I hypothesized that key individual, relational, and contextual factors would predict follower political knowledge. Two studies were conducted to test these predictions: a cross-sectional survey of 467 employees and a cross-sectional survey of 174 supervisor-subordinate dyads. Across studies, political skill, leader-member exchange, and supervisors' trust were the strongest predictors of follower political knowledge. The implications of these findings present a case to be made for the role of follower political knowledge in effective followership.

Keywords: follower political knowledge, political skill, political will, leader-member exchange, trust

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"If we want to understand what's on the mind of another, the best our mortal senses can do may

be to rely on our ears more than our inferences" Nicholas Epley

To be influential in the workplace, it is important to be skilled and motivated (Ferris et al., 2005; Kapoutsis, Papalexandris, Treadway, & Bentley, 2015). But those without an understanding of organizational politics may misuse their talent and drive. They may champion plans and ideas in ways that make them unpopular with managers – bringing up ideas at the wrong time, in the wrong venue, or to the wrong person. Even the most skilled and willful need specific political knowledge in order to exert influence: How is your boss' performance measured? Who does he or she have difficulty working with? Which budgets are hardest to get approved? These – among others – are only a few examples of where even the most skilled and willful may have difficulty in exerting influence without the appropriate political knowledge.

Follower political knowledge refers to a subordinate's collection of potentially strategic and sensitive information about his or her superior in the workplace. I propose that introducing and understanding the etiology of follower political knowledge will address several gaps in the literature on politics within organizations. This new construct will not only supplement political skill and will, but may be necessary to develop for the skilled and willful to exert their influence. Indeed, much of the literature on political behaviour within organizations has made a case for the role of politically relevant interpersonal knowledge (e.g., Epitropaki, Kapoutsis, Ellen, Ferris, Drivas, & Ntotsi, 2016; Perrewé, Ferris, Frink, & Anthony, 2000). However, no one has followed through on developing a construct to capture a subordinate's deep understanding of the relational networks, demands, resources, and personal preferences of his or her superior and testing how it develops.

The goal of this thesis is to examine how follower political knowledge develops. This is an important first step – a step that will not only distinguish follower political knowledge from political skill and will, but will determine the nature of follower political knowledge. Does it come down to individual differences? Is the working relationship important to its development? Does context matter? Answering these important questions is the objective of this thesis.

To answer the above questions, I first provide an overview of follower political knowledge. I then differentiate follower political knowledge from related political constructs. In following, I make use of the active perspective-taking framework (Parker, Atkins, & Axtell, 2008) to argue that factors associated with a subordinate's motivation, capacity, and opportunity to understand others will be key antecedents to follower political knowledge. After this summary of hypothesized antecedents, I then discuss two studies designed to test the hypotheses. The first study targeted self-perceptions of follower political knowledge and its individual, relational, and contextual predictors. Meanwhile the second study was an important expansion that added the perspective of supervisors and enabled a versatile insight into the development of follower political knowledge.

Follower Political Knowledge

Follower political knowledge refers to a subordinate's collection of potentially strategic and sensitive information about his or her superior. The use of collection means this knowledge is built up over time and produces a consistent understanding of others (Asch, 1952). What I mean by strategic is that this knowledge can be useful in predicting and explaining behaviour (Funder, 1995; Jussim, 2005), and by sensitive, this knowledge carries varying degrees of risk for superiors. Because of the strategic and sensitive nature of follower political knowledge, it will not be obvious or easy to understand for several reasons. For instance, the implications of

understanding such information may not be clear to subordinates or even supervisors. As a consequence, subordinates may not pay attention to such details (Dane, 2013) or supervisors may not deliberately obscure the information. On the other hand, supervisors may be aware of how this knowledge can be used against their own interests and the interests of the organization (Zand, 1972). In such cases, supervisors may actively limit disclosure based on the perceived vulnerability (Zand, 1972). For example, Jake may have access to more resources than he discloses to his subordinates, which he actively hides to buffer his performance and impress upper management. All together, the above description of follower political knowledge provides an initial understanding of what the construct is, but underlying this construct is an important assumption that narrows the basis of its content.

Follower political knowledge is based on the assumption that it is, for the most part, gathered within organizations and used for work-related purposes. Consequently, all interpersonal information, be it from an individual's personal life or his or her life at work, is narrowed down to how it affects the supervisor's functioning within the organization. In other words, what a subordinate knows about his or her supervisor will only qualify as follower political knowledge as long as it plays a role in his or her supervisor's ability to do his or her job. Therefore, the basis of follower political knowledge consists of content crucial to the functioning of individuals in organizations, including relational networks, demands, resources, and personal preferences.

Relational networks. Follower political knowledge involves a subordinate's understanding of his or her superior's web of relationships, such as understanding with whom his or her superior interacts with on a daily basis and how his or her superior genuinely feels about these people (Casciaro, 1998). Understanding whom a superior knows, how they feel, think

about or behave around particular individuals in a certain way has important political

implications (Krackhardt, 1990; Schneider, 1987). Consider Jane's awareness that her boss has a

deep respect for one of her co-workers. Jane knew that her co-worker could do-no-wrong in her

boss's eye. Jane also had an idea about changing a particular procedure at work that required

convincing her boss of its necessity. As such, Jane shared the credit of her idea with her admired

co-worker and received a positive reception from her boss.

Research supports the idea that understanding the relational networks of power holders

serves a political purpose for subordinates. Studies have shown that individuals in lower power

positions (i.e., subordinates) are more accurate in understanding with whom higher power

individuals (i.e., supervisors) interact with in comparison to the other way around (Simpson &

Borch, 2005; Simpson, Markovsky, & Steketee, 2011). According to this line of research, it is

necessary for individuals in low power positions to devote more time and energy into

understanding the networks of those in higher power positions (Fiske & Depret, 1996). This

sensitivity to the social environment thus enables individuals in low power positions to capitalize

on alternatives in the work place and improve their own power and status (Simpson & Borch,

2005).

Demands. Follower political knowledge also encompasses a subordinate's

understanding of the demands faced by his or her superior. These expectations consist of those

that are demanded of his or her superior that instigate him or her to act (such as formal and

informal job demands; Janssen 2000; 2001; Karasek, 1979), and those that originate from their

superior (such as demands they place on themselves; Cordes & Dougherty, 1993). These

demands place psychological pressure on managers; meeting them is critical to individual

satisfaction, organizational performance, and the manager's own career trajectory and job

security (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Mauno, Kinnunen, & Ruokolainen, 2007). In turn, a subordinate will have a political advantage when he or she understands the expectations his or her supervisor is under (Jackson & Schuler, 1985).

Consider Jane again, who knows that her manager is under pressure from upper management to complete task reports. She shifts her effort away from other priorities and toward the task reports, anticipating her manager's needs; an effort that does not go unnoticed. Jane is not just helping, but helping in the right way, at the right time. Indeed, Jane has what Kelley (1988) describes as the qualities of an effective follower: The ability to anticipate needs and act in a way that is attentive to her leader's goals and needs. Thus, understanding the expectations a superior faces, such as those derived from a role or title to those that are informal or from within, will offer political opportunities for subordinates.

Resources. Also qualifying as follower political knowledge is a subordinate's understanding of his or her superior's resources available to do his or her job, both material and nonmaterial (e.g., funding and technology versus expertise and support). While expectations deal with understanding the demands and requirements a superior faces, knowledge of resources deals with understanding a superior's capacity to meet these requirements (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). More specifically, resources consist of the means, whether physical, social, or organizational, by which a superior meets his or her expectations (Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Demerouti, & Schaufeli, 2007).

Sufficient resources are necessary to match job demands and to avoid the consequences of not doing so, such as strain and burnout (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). A subordinate who understands the resources available (or unavailable) to his or her superior will have the potential to understand his or her superior's capability to perform his or her job. In turn, the subordinate

can use this information, such as effectively instilling a sense of reciprocity by targeting and supporting areas where supervisors lack resources and face strain. For example, Jane understands that her boss is inept with computers and that completing task reports requires navigating through the company's user-unfriendly software. As such, she proactively completes the reports for her boss to create a sense of obligation that she can later take advantage of.

Personal preferences. The content of follower political knowledge also consists of a subordinate's comprehension of his or her superior's preferences, such as the parts of his or her job that he or she finds motivating or meaningful. Knowledge of personal preferences is valuable for a number of reasons. First, the more subordinates know about the preferences of their superiors, the more implications this can have towards the subordinates shaping their own behaviour (Fiske, 1993). This could lead to smoother interactions by tailoring their communications, or it can even lead to more efficient teamwork through the subordinates aligning their own working styles to that of their superior (Fiske, 1993). For example, Jane knows that her boss hates using computers, but loves interacting with clients; the more time her boss spends hammering away at the keyboard, the less time she has to socialize. Based on this knowledge, Jane can absorb much of what her boss perceives as unpleasant work so that her boss can spend more time doing what she loves.

A second reason personal preferences are valuable to understand is that people in general have a strong preference to be perceived accurately (Swann, 2012; Swann & Read, 1981). Because Jane's boss takes away a lot of meaning from interacting with clients, her boss may recognize and appreciate being validated by Jane. Even when individuals do not accurately perceive themselves with certainty, the way they are seen by others is an important factor in determining their own behaviour (Swann & Ely, 1984; Snyder & Swann, 1978). This is best

exemplified through self-fulfilling prophecies such as the Pygmalion effect, whereby individuals exhibit changes in behaviour based on the expectations of others (e.g., the pleasure Jane's boss derives from interacting with customers is augmented by Jane's expectation that this is the part of her job she enjoys the most; Eden, 1984).

In sum, relational networks, demands, resources, and personal preferences compose the basis of follower political knowledge content. Follower political knowledge not only allows an individual to accurately explain his or her superior's behaviour, but also aids in forecasting behaviour (Funder, 1995). However, the domains are not expected to be equally common (i.e., knowledge about some domains will likely be more abundant than others), equally understood (i.e., individuals likely differ in their understanding of each domain to varying degrees), or equally useful (i.e., knowledge about some domains will vary in how strategic and sensitive they are) across organizations and individuals. The domains are chosen for their role toward the functioning of organizations and the individuals within, and the implications they have toward political behaviour.

The Distinctiveness of Follower Political Knowledge from Related Constructs

How is follower political knowledge distinct from the most established and related political constructs? This is an important question to answer, as the existence of follower political knowledge hinges on being distinct from the very political constructs that played a role in its inception. I closely examine follower political knowledge with political skill and political will below to address the distinctions. Despite making these distinctions, I later hypothesize how political skill and will facilitate the development of follower political knowledge.

Political skill is defined as an individual's "ability to actively understand others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and/or

organizational objective" (Ferris et al., 2007, p. 291). Essentially, those with high political skill show a heightened capacity for effective communication, interpersonal influence, network building and social awareness (Perrewé et al., 2000). Meanwhile political will is defined 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" (Treadway, 2012, p. 533). Political will is a combination of two key motivations to engage in political behaviour: self-serving or benevolent. To put it simply, political will is the commitment towards behaving politically for the purpose of personal gain or serving the greater good with the awareness that pursing either or both purposes risks negative reactions from others.

There are many distinctions between follower political knowledge and its political precursors. The first of these distinctions is the difference in how well each transfers across contexts. Because political skill is an interpersonal style and political will is a motivational drive, those who are high in these constructs will carry them across contexts (Perrewé et al., 2000). If Skyler is politically skilled or willful at her previous job, she will be politically skilled or willful at her new job. Meanwhile, follower political knowledge is highly situated, such that it does not get carried across contexts; what Skyler knew about her previous supervisor will not carry over to her new supervisor.

The next few distinctions between follower political knowledge and its political precursors arise when comparing their fundamental parts, or what they actually consist of. For instance, political skill captures the degree to which an individual is able to show sincerity while exerting influence and network building (or in other words, an individual's capacity to appear genuine, effectively use persuasion, and establish, improve and utilize relationships with a wide range of people, respectively; Ferris et al., 2005; Treadway, Ferris, Duke, Adams, & Thatcher,

2007). Political will consists of the motivation to achieve self- or other-oriented goals with the realization that interpersonal risks may be involved. There are no direct relationships when comparing these components to the content of follower political knowledge (understanding the relational networks, expectations, resources, and personal preferences of others).

Granted, an indirect relationship between network building and understanding the relational network of a superior can be argued. The larger a subordinate's network, the more likely he or she will to be exposed to interpersonal information about others. Considering that supervisors play a focal role in the workplace for subordinates, the information subordinates receive through network building will at least be relevant to who their supervisors know. However, this peripheral connection will be discussed at length later when I expand on the role of political skill in predicting follower political knowledge.

Finally, political skill also consists of social astuteness, which does show some resemblance to follower political knowledge. Social astuteness refers to an individual's ability to understand others and oneself in social interactions (Ferris et al., 2005). Although this seems like more than a semblance, follower political knowledge is different in at least two ways: It is far more in-depth and it is restricted to those in their context. Follower political knowledge is not just a moment-to-moment reading of all people, but it is rather a complex and contextualized understanding of particular people. All things considered, follower political knowledge is related but distinct from political skill and political will.

Active Perspective-Taking Theory

The main goal of this thesis is to describe and test the most important antecedents of follower political knowledge. In other words, what is it about certain subordinates that allow them to build up this stock of strategic and sensitive information regarding their superiors?

Because follower political knowledge is about understanding the world of one's superior, it roughly aligns with the broader concept of perspective-taking, or "imagining the world from another's vantage point or imagining oneself in another's shoes" (Galinsky, Ku, & Wang, 2005, p. 110). As such, I use the active perspective-taking model outlined by Parker, Atkins, and Axtell (2008) to provide an established framework to explain how trying to understand others can lead to effectively understanding others; unsurprisingly a process that does not always result in the outcome.

According to Parker et al. (2008), effective perspective-taking involves two distinct but overlapping steps. The first step in attempting to understand the thoughts and feelings of others is to actively perspective-take. This may sound redundant, but the framework of active perspective-taking separates attempting to understand others and actually doing so effectively. For instance, Andy can probe his supervisor with questions but may not understand or appreciate his observations (Parker et al., 2008). The capacity to understand others, such as Andy's resources to enhance effort or mitigate the costs of perspective-taking (e.g., active listening skills and attention span; Parker et al., 2008), is the second step.

Together, both the motivation (step one) and capacity (step two) to perspective-take rely on the opportunity to actually do so in the first place (Parker et al., 2008). The opportunity to perspective-take depends on factors such as accessibility to the target (Parker et al., 2008). When someone has access to the person whom they would like to understand, they will simply have a better chance to understand them. And when an individual has the chance to understand the target, as well as the motivation and capacity to perspective-take, they will be more likely to actually understand others. As will be discussed below, there are key individual, relational, and

contextual factors that tap into this framework of motivation, capacity, and opportunity to acquire follower political knowledge.

The Development of Follower Political Knowledge

The active perspective-taking framework can be used to narrow down on the most important antecedents of follower political knowledge. In particular, I focus on variables that meet the criteria of both motivating a subordinate to understand his or her superior and enhancing his or her capacity to do so. These variables will consist of a number of individual and relational factors, such that they are derived from an individual's disposition or his or her relationship with his or her superior. In addition, I also discuss a key variable outside of the subordinate that provides him or her with the opportunity to understand his or her superior. I begin with the related political constructs.

Political skill. Political skill should motivate and enhance a subordinate's capacity to acquire follower political knowledge. First, the moment-to-moment social astuteness of the politically skilled should eventually translate into a deeper contextual knowledge. Given time, a subordinate high in political skill can learn a lot about his or her supervisor. Second, recall that those with greater political skill are highly sociable and build large social networks (Ferris et al., 2005). As a consequence of being surrounded by many people, they will be more exposed to information, such as gossip. Third, those with greater political skill have the capacity to influence others and appear genuine in their demeanor (Ferris et al., 2012). They effectively engage with others, making them feel safe and cared for, which in turn contributes to being entrusted with greater disclosure.

Hypothesis 1. Follower political knowledge will be higher among those with greater political skill.

Political will. Political will should also lead to a greater acquisition of follower political knowledge for its strong role in providing the motivation and capacity to understand important others. Those high in political will are more engaged in and understand the importance of politicking at work (Kapoutsis et al., 2015); when individuals involve themselves in this type of behaviour, they are more likely to be on the lookout and recognize strategic and sensitive information that will help them address their political agenda. Because of this commitment towards achieving their goals, they are more likely to believe that others are a way of doing so, particularly others who have the resources and control to make a difference. In addition, political will is an interpersonal resource that drives an individual and encourages them to stay committed to their political agenda (Kapoutsis et al., 2015), ultimately enhancing their capacity to acquire follower political knowledge.

Hypothesis 2. Follower political knowledge will be higher among those with greater political will.

Need for cognition. Among the variables that should be related to the acquisition of follower political knowledge aside from the political variables is an individual's need for cognition (Cacioppo, Petty, & Kao, 1984). An individual is said to have a high need for cognition when he or she has a stable tendency to enjoy effortful thinking (Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein, & Jarvis, 1996). Prior research has shown that the need for cognition was not only associated with greater persistence in the acquisition of information, but also in the accuracy of this information (Cacioppo & Petty, 1984). This accuracy can be attributed to the greater tolerance for ambiguity held by those who are high in a need for cognition. They are willing to bear uncertainty to seek subtle differences in the information they acquire (Cacioppo & Jarvis, 1996) and are open to challenge their assumptions (Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000).

Most importantly, those high in a need for cognition show a capacity to make more nuanced attributions for the behaviour of those around them (Fletcher, Danilovics, Fernandez, Peterson, & Reeder, 1986). Therefore, follower political knowledge will likely be greater for those high in a need for cognition because it motivates them to acquire accurate information about the world around them.

Hypothesis 3. Follower political knowledge will be higher among those with a greater need for cognition.

Leader-member exchange. The quality and maturity of the working-relationship between a subordinate and his or her supervisor, or leader-member exchange (LMX; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), should also be conducive for the transfer of knowledge. Using the active perspective-taking framework, this relational variable is again involved in the subordinate's motivation and capacity to understand his or her superior. LMX is associated with the social processes of liking, closeness, and interest in others that motivate leaders and members to understand one another (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). LMX is also based on exchange and reciprocity, with greater exchange in high, compared to low LMX relationships (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Combine the positive social processes with heightened reciprocity and it is likely that superiors in high LMX relationships will be more likely to reciprocate sensitive or strategic information about themselves and others.

Hypothesis 4. Follower political knowledge will be higher among subordinates who experience greater leader-member exchange with their supervisor.

Supervisor's trust. Moving further outside of the subordinate, whether or not he or she is trusted is the next predictor of follower political knowledge. Supervisor's trust refers to the supervisor's willingness to be vulnerable with the assumption that the subordinate will fulfill

expectations (Whitener, Brodt, Korsgaard, & Werner, 1998). A subordinate who is trusted will be far more likely to retrieve valuable information from his or her supervisor (Abrams, Cross, Lesser, Levin, 2003; Mooradian, Renzl, & Matzler, 2006). In particular, a supervisor's trust will likely matter a great deal depending on the degree to which the information he or she wishes to share is perceived to entail risk for him or herself. Because follower political knowledge is inherently risky to varying degrees, trust will likely play a strong role. Although information can be acquired through socializing (like those high in political skill) and through mature relationships (like through LMX), trust will determine whether information is willingly communicated (McEvily, Perrone, & Zaheer, 2003). As a consequence, a subordinate who is trusted (either as a result of his or her past actions or because his or her supervisor is characteristically trusting) is likely provided with far more sensitive or strategic information from his or her superior.

Hypothesis 5. Follower political knowledge will be higher among those who are trusted by their supervisor.

Opportunity. The final factor involved in the acquisition of follower political knowledge is the opportunity to acquire it in the first place. In order for an individual to effectively understand his or her supervisor, they must have access to him or her (Parker & Axtell, 2001). In other words, no matter how politically skilled, willful, and in need for cognition a subordinate is, there must be an opportunity for him or her to understand his or her supervisor in the first place; there must be an opportunity for a relationship to mature and for trust to build. This coincides with research exhibiting that an ample frequency of interactions greatly increases the chances that information will be shared between individuals (Borgatti & Cross, 2003). Indeed, pilot research revealed that the frequency of interactions a subordinate has

with their superior is strongly correlated with self-reported follower political knowledge

(Granger, Neville, & Turner, 2016). As such, the frequency of interactions is a contextual source

of opportunity that increases the odds that knowledge sharing occurs. Combine this with the

individual and relational antecedents above and the chances of securing political knowledge

increases.

     Hypothesis 6. Frequency of interactions will moderate the relationship that follower

     political knowledge has with (a) political skill, (b) political will, (c) need for cognition,

     (d) leader-member exchange, and (e) trust, such that the greater the frequency of

     interactions, the more strongly each antecedent will predict follower political knowledge.

     In summary, the collection of individual, relational, and contextual variables above

should enhance the motivation, capacity, and opportunity to effectively acquire follower political

knowledge. More specifically, subordinates who are politically skilled, willful, have a need for

cognition and a mature and trusting relationship with their supervisor will be more likely to

acquire follower political knowledge. Given the opportunity of a greater frequency of

interactions, these individual and relational antecedents should be enhanced. Altogether, these

hypotheses are illustrated in Figure 1.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Present Studies

     I conducted two studies to test the hypotheses developed by framing the acquisition of

follower political knowledge as a result of an individual's motivation, capacity, and opportunity

to understand others. In particular, the studies examined the anteceding factors of follower

political knowledge hypothesized above using self- and other-report procedures. In study 1, 522

participants completed a survey with the predictors that could be captured from self-report alone

and a measure of follower political knowledge. The purpose of study 1 was to establish the

predicted relationships and to provide grounds for more advanced procedures.

In study 2, I added a crucial extension of supervisor perspectives. This was accomplished

by recruiting 174 supervisor-subordinate dyads across a diverse range of organizations. The

supervisor-subordinate pairs were recruited through a number of strategies, including the

snowball method and by approaching organizations in person. Once recruited, subordinates

completed the same measures as study 1, while the supervisors completed measures on their

subordinates' trustworthiness, the working relationship, and what they believed their

subordinates' knew about them. The purpose of study 2 was to rule out bias inherent to self-

report.

Study 1

As mentioned above, study 1 consisted of an online cross-sectional survey completed by

individuals who have work experience. Participants responded to survey items designed to

capture the anteceding variables hypothesized above. In particular, followers were recruited to

answer questions about themselves, about their relationship and understanding of their leader,

and the context of the working relationship.

Method

Participants

522[1] participants were recruited from Amazon's Mechanical Turk[2] (MTurk; Buhrmester,

Kwang, & Gosling, 2011) to provide data for Study 1. Data from 467 participants was used for

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[1] Although exceeding proposed sample size, this study was also used for a confirmatory factor
analysis of the follower political knowledge scale, which required a large sample size based on a
participants-per-item ratio of around 20:1.

analyses based on the retention criteria of passing both instructional manipulation checks and completing the survey in five or more minutes. All participants received $2.00 remuneration for their time and the average time to complete the survey was 13:42 minutes (SD = 7:20 minutes) for those who met the retention criteria.

The mean age of the sample was 33.11 years (SD = 9.13 years) and there were 279 males (59.7%), 180 females (38.5%), 3 individuals who identified as transgender (.6%), and 5 individuals who did not specify their gender (1.1%). The average tenure at their current or most recent job was 5.26 years (SD = 4.78 years), with the majority of the sample employed full-time (79%), and the remaining were either part-time (13.9%), previously employed (6.2%) or retired (.4%). Participants had known their current or most recent supervisor for 4.64 years on average (SD = 4.90 years), and 290 supervisors were indicated by the participants as female (62.1%), 174 as male (37.3%), 1 was identified as transgender (.2%), and 2 were not specified (.4%).

Procedure

All participants registered online and were provided with general information about the study. After consenting to participate, participants were directed to respond to the political knowledge and antecedent scales. Participants then completed basic demographic information about themselves and their workplace. After completing the demographic portion of the survey, participants were then debriefed and thanked for their time. After the debriefing, participants received a code to retrieve the remuneration of $2.00 for completing the survey.

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[2] MTurk was used instead of CrowdFlower to ensure that we did not have repeat participants from previous studies conducted during the scale development process.

Materials[3]

      Demographics. Participants responded to basic demographic information in all studies. In particular, participants answered questions about their age, gender, job status, tenure, job role, and industry. In addition, participants rated how long they had known their supervisor and the gender of their supervisor. Demographics were captured for descriptive purposes.

      Instructional manipulation checks. I used two instructional manipulation checks within the survey to ensure that participants were fully attentive (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009). Participants were asked to select 'disagree' and 'does not describe me well' from two scales that appeared randomly for each participant. The intent was to control for and select-out individuals who were not reading the questions to increase the quality of data used for analyses. Thirty participants were flagged for not passing one or both instructional manipulation checks.

      Follower political knowledge scale. Participants in all studies responded to the 23-item Follower Political Knowledge Scale (Granger et al., 2016). Participants were prompted with, 'this is something I know' and then rated items from 1 (*Not at all or in very little detail*) to 5 (*In great detail or entirely*). The scale consists of four underlying domains: demands and expectations (e.g., "What it takes for my supervisor to do his or her job on a day-to-day basis"), relational network (e.g., "Which of my supervisor's employees are hardest to manage"), personal preferences (e.g., "What kinds of tasks or interactions energize my supervisor"), and personal resources (e.g., "What kinds of experience my supervisor brings into his or her job").

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[3] All materials, scales, measures can be found in appendices A through F. Measures that were captured but not relevant to the current thesis can also be found in these appendices and include implicit voice theories, change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviour, trait perspective-taking, and task independence.

A composite measure of follower political knowledge was used for analyses. To justify using a composite measure, I conducted a single-factor model using MPlus (Muthén, & Muthén, 2005) to ensure that each item of the scale loaded significantly onto a single dimension (see Appendix G). No items loaded below .43. I also tested the second-order model fit; a strategy utilized by political skill researchers to justify examining the multidimensional construct of political skill as a composite or unidimensional measure (Wei, Liu, Chen, & Wu, 2010). The 23 items were loaded onto their respective domains, which were then loaded onto a single second-order factor of overall follower political knowledge. The second-order model of four dimensions converging on an individual construct had a strong fit ($\chi^2 = 685.38$; $df = 226$; TLI = .93; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .06), providing further support that it is appropriate to aggregate the items into a composite measure. Finally, the internal consistency of the responses to the composite scale was very high, with a Cronbach's alpha of .95. Further information on the development and validation of the follower political knowledge scale can be found in Appendix H.

Political skill. Political skill was captured through the Political Skill Inventory (Ferris, et al., 2005). This 18-item scale contains four facets: networking ability (e.g., "I am good at building relationships with influential people at work"), interpersonal influence (e.g., "I am able to communicate easily and effectively with others"), apparent sincerity (e.g., "It is important that people believe I am sincere in what I say and do"), and social astuteness (e.g., "I have good intuition or savvy about how to present myself to others"). Participants rated their agreement to the items from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*). Consistent with leading research on the topic, political skill was treated as a unidimensional construct (e.g., Treadway et al., 2007; Wei et al., 2010). Further, political skill has been found to have a strong second-order fit, suggesting it can be used as a one-dimensional variable (Wei et al., 2010). Indeed, running a

second-order confirmatory factor analysis resulted in a strong model fit (χ^2 = 568.31; df = 131; TLI = .93; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .08). In addition, a single-factor confirmatory factor analysis revealed that all items loaded significantly above .45. The scores on the composite scale also showed a very strong reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .95.

Political will. Participants completed the Political Will Scale (Kapoutsis et al., 2015) to capture their willingness and motivation to participate in politicking at work. This scale has two dimensions, labeled as self-serving (e.g., "Engaging in politics is an attractive means to achieve my personal objectives") and benevolent (e.g., "Doing good for others sometimes means acting politically"), which indicate the key motivations for an individual to behave politically. Participants responded from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*), where higher scores denote a greater willingness to participate in political activities. A composite score for the whole scale was calculated, as follower political knowledge was not predicted to discriminate towards any particular dimension of political will. A single-factor confirmatory factor analysis revealed that all items loaded at greater than .66 with adequate fit (χ^2 =120.92; df = 20; TLI = .94; CFI = .96; RMSEA = .10. In addition, a second-order confirmatory factor analysis found that the composite measure had a very strong model fit (χ^2 = 62.81; df = 18; TLI = .97; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .07), which suggests that a composite measure is appropriate (Wei et al., 2010). The scores on this scale also showed a strong reliability with Cronbach's alpha of .92.

Need for cognition[4]. Participants responded to questions designed to determine the degree to which they desire strenuous thought (Cacioppo et al., 1984). Participants rated the 18-item Need for Cognition Short-Form Scale (Cacioppo et al., 1996) by how much they agree with each item from 1 (*Completely disagree*) to 7 (*Completely agree*). Sample items include, "I find

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[4] The rationale to replace actively open-minded thinking, which was originally proposed, with need for cognition can be found in Appendix I.

satisfaction in deliberating hard and for long hours," and "I prefer my life to be filled with puzzles that I must solve." Scores on this scale exhibited very high reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha of .95.

Leader-Member exchange. Participants responded to a slightly reduced version of Leader-Member Exchange-7 Scale (LMX-7; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). One item was dropped for its face similarity to follower political knowledge (i.e., "How well does your supervisor understand your job problems and needs?"). This scale captures the degree to which the relationship between a subordinate and a supervisor has matured. Participants replied to questions such as, "How would you characterize your working relationship with your supervisor?" and "How well does your supervisor recognize your potential?" Participants answered on a 5-point Likert scale, with the anchors changing for each item. The resulting scores for this scale also showed high internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha of .90.

Opportunity. Contextual opportunity was operationalized through asking participants how frequently they interacted with their supervisor on an average day. Participants responded to the following question: "How often do you see your supervisor over the course of a usual workday?" All participants answered this question from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*All the time*).

Results

Before testing my hypotheses, I calculated all the descriptive and reliability statistics, as well as the basic correlations (which can all be found in Table 1). The data from this study enabled me to test hypotheses 1 through 4 and 6a through 6d. To examine the first four hypotheses, I ran a linear multiple regression to examine the unique and collective contribution of each hypothesized antecedent to follower political knowledge. Finally, I ran moderation analyses for hypotheses 6a to 6d.

Insert Table 1 about here

The first four hypotheses are the predictions that political skill, political will, need for cognition, and leader-member exchange each predict the acquisition of follower political knowledge, respectively. To examine these hypotheses, I tested the collective contribution of each predictor to the acquisition of follower political knowledge. A linear multiple regression of these antecedents on follower political knowledge resulted in a significant regression equation, $F(4, 461) = 58.95$, $p < .001$, with an R^2 of .33. Leader-member exchange showed the strongest significant standardized regression coefficient ($\beta = .38$, $p < .001$), explaining 15% of the variance in the acquisition of follower political knowledge. The second and third strongest predictors were political skill and political will ($\beta = .21$, $p < .001$ and $\beta = .09$, $p = .03$, respectively), which explained 6% and 1% of the variance, respectively. Meanwhile, need for cognition did not result in a significant standardized regression coefficient ($\beta = -.01$, $p = .81$), nor did it explain any of the variance. These results are laid out in Table 2. Finally, multicollinearity was not a problem, as tolerance was greater than or equal to .72.

Insert Table 2 about here

The next set of hypotheses were those that predicted a subordinate's frequency of interactions with his or her supervisor would moderate the effects of the above antecedents; the greater the frequency of interactions, the stronger the relationship between each antecedent and follower political knowledge (and vice versa). Results of each moderation analysis using the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2012) revealed no significant interactions. However, frequency of

interactions itself was consistently predictive of follower political knowledge (coefficients equal

to or greater than .18). These results are summarized in Table 3.

Insert Table 3 about here

Study 1 Discussion

The results from study 1 provide initial support for the predictive power of political skill

(hypothesis 1), political will (hypothesis 2), and leader-member exchange (hypothesis 4) in the

acquisition of follower political knowledge. On the other hand, the need for cognition received

no support as a predictor of follower political knowledge (hypothesis 3). The relationship

between need for cognition and follower political knowledge appears to exist when examining

the correlations, but once need for cognition is combined with the other antecedents, this

relationship appears to be accounted for by one or more of the other antecedents.

While the results for the antecedents largely provided initial support for the first four

hypotheses, the results from the moderation analyses (hypotheses 6a to 6d) did not prove to be

fruitful. Frequency of interactions did not moderate the relationship political skill, political will,

need for cognition, and leader-member exchange each had with follower political knowledge.

Instead, frequency of interactions appeared to play more of an anteceding role rather than a

conditional role. In other words, it is less about the amount of time that subordinates and

supervisors spend together, and more about how that time is used.

The fact that frequency of interactions, as well as the more interpersonal antecedents,

exhibited the strongest relationship with follower political knowledge says a lot. It begins to

answer the core research question: What is it about certain subordinates' that allows them to

understand their superior? The story that is beginning to unfold is one about the relationship

between supervisors and their subordinates. How well the supervisor-subordinate relationship matures and the active role that subordinates' take in developing this relationship both appear to be important contributors to the development of follower political knowledge. However, before drawing substantive conclusions, I ran a second study to add a crucial expansion to the findings of study 1.

Study 2

Study 2 is an extension of study 1 and involved supervisor-subordinate dyads. The goal of study 2 was to replicate the findings of study 1 and extend the findings by bringing in the supervisor perspective on the subordinate. With the addition of the supervisor perspective, I was able to the test the relational predictor of trust (hypothesis 5) and how it is influenced by opportunity (hypothesis 6e). I was also able to tease apart the issues of socially desirable responding and common method bias that may have influenced the results of study 1.

Methods

Participants

One hundred seventy-four supervisor-subordinate pairs provided usable data for study 2. An additional 3 pairs were disqualified for selecting the same roles and 21 pairs were disqualified because data was missing for one person. All participants received a $10.00 Starbucks eGift card for their time. The mean age of supervisors and subordinates was 33.35 years ($SD = 11.40$ years) and 35.29 years ($SD = 12.19$ years), respectively. Sixty-four percent of supervisors were female, and 63% of subordinates were female. The average tenure for supervisors was 5.81 years ($SD = 6.69$ years) and 6.30 years ($SD = 7.60$ years) for subordinates. The majority of supervisors and subordinates were employed full-time (79% and 78%,

respectively), while the remaining were employed part-time (21% and 22%, respectively).

Participants knew each other for just over 4 years on average.

Procedure

Participants were recruited through a number of strategies that are elaborated in

Appendix I. Once participants were recruited, both the supervisor and subordinate were sent

their own survey link via email. After consenting to participate in the surveys, subordinates and

supervisors answered a series of questions in randomized order. The supervisors rated their

subordinates' follower political knowledge and trustworthiness, as well as basic demographic

information about themselves. The subordinate survey was slightly longer with self-rated

follower political knowledge, political skill, political will, LMX, and need for cognition. After

completing these questions, all participants were debriefed and received a $10 Starbucks eGift

card as a token of gratitude for their time.

Materials[5]

Demographics, follower political knowledge, and opportunity. Subordinates and

supervisors answered the same demographic questions as study 1 (i.e., age, gender, tenure, job

status, job role, industry, and tenure of relationship). Both subordinates and supervisors also

rated follower political knowledge (Cronbach alphas of .95 and .94, respectively), but

supervisors answered the questions in reference to what they believed their subordinate knew

about them. Finally, both subordinates and supervisors rated their frequency of interactions with

each other as the measure of opportunity. Both supervisor- and subordinate-rated frequency of

interactions were combined to create a more objective measure of frequency of interactions. An

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[5] Measures and scales that were also captured but not analyzed in this thesis include supervisor-rated change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviour, voice quality, reliance-based trust and leader-member exchange, and can be found in appendices E and F.

intraclass correlation coefficient was calculated to ensure that aggregating the two measures was appropriate based on criteria that ICC (2) is above .6 (Glick, 1985).

Political skill, will, need for cognition, and leader-member exchange. Subordinates rated the same scales for political skill ($\alpha = .91$), political will ($\alpha = .90$), need for cognition ($\alpha = .85$), and leader-member exchange ($\alpha = .86$) as study 1. Consistent with our theorizing about subordinate-perceived relationship quality, we measured subordinate-rated leader-member exchange. The same procedures from study 1 were used for analyzing these constructs.

Trust. Supervisors rated their trust in the participating subordinates using the 5-item disclosure-based trust subscale from the Behavioural Trust Inventory (Gillespie, 2003). Supervisors rated their willingness to each item from 1 (*Not at all willing*) to 7 (*Completely willing*) and sample items included, "Share your personal feelings with your subordinate," and "Discuss how you honestly feel about your work, even negative feelings and frustrations." The items on the disclosure-based subscale were found to be internally consistent with a Cronbach's alpha of .87.

Results

Before testing my hypotheses, I again calculated all the descriptive and reliability statistics, as well as the basic correlations (which can all be found in Table 4). The data for this study provided the opportunity to further examine hypotheses 1 through 4 and 6a through 6d. In addition, I was able to test hypotheses 5 and 6e for the first time. To examine hypotheses 1 through 5, I first ran a linear multiple regression to examine the unique and collective contribution of each hypothesized antecedent to subordinate-rated follower political knowledge. I then re-ran the exact same analysis but switched the dependent variable to supervisor-rated follower political knowledge to test if perspective plays a major role. Finally, I ran moderation

analyses for hypotheses 6a through 6e on both subordinate- and supervisor-rated follower

political knowledge.

Insert Table 4 about here

The first five hypotheses were that political skill (H1), political will (H2), need for

cognition (H3), leader-member exchange (H4), and supervisor trust (H5) would each predict the

acquisition of follower political knowledge. Mixed support was received when examining the

unique contribution of the five predictors on subordinate-rated follower political knowledge

through a linear multiple regression (see Table 5). Overall, there was a significant regression

equation, $F(5, 167) = 19.09$, $p < .001$. Similar to study 1, subordinate-rated leader-member

exchange was found to have the strongest significant standardized regression coefficient ($\beta = .48$,

$p < .001$), explaining 16% of the variance. Political skill remained the second strongest predictor

($\beta = .35$, $p < .001$), followed by political will ($\beta = .10$, $p = .03$), explaining 9% and 2% of the

variance, respectively. Need for cognition did not result in a standardized regression coefficient

($\beta = -.01$, $p = .87$), but neither did supervisor-rated disclosure-based trust ($\beta = .02$, $p = .70$).

Finally, multicollinearity was not an issue as tolerance was greater than or equal to .89.

Insert Table 5 about here

Re-running the linear multiple regression on supervisor-rated follower political

knowledge also resulted in a significant regression equation, $F(5, 168) = 18.42$, $p < .001$, with an

R^2 of .35 (see Table 6). Disclosure-based trust was found to have the strongest significant

standardized regression coefficient ($\beta = .39$, $p < .001$), explaining 28% of the variance in the

acquisition of follower political knowledge. The only other predictor to show a significant

standardized regression coefficient was political skill ($\beta = .16$, $p = .02$), which accounted for 2% of the variance. Meanwhile, political will ($\beta = -.05$, $p = .22$), need for cognition ($\beta = -.03$, $p = .66$), and subordinate-rated leader-member exchange ($\beta = .06$, $p = .41$) did not result in significant standardized regression coefficients. Once again multicollinearity was not an issue, as tolerance was greater than or equal to .89.

Insert Table 6 about here

I tested the next set of hypotheses predicting that frequency of interactions between a subordinate and supervisor would moderate the relationship between each predictor and subordinate- and supervisor-rated follower political knowledge. In other words, frequency of interactions would provide a subordinate with the opportunity to acquire follower political knowledge, and thus strengthen the relationship each of the predictors had with follower political knowledge. The PROCESS macro was used again for all moderation analyses (Hayes, 2012). Similar to study 1, there were no significant interactions, with frequency of interactions consistently predicting follower political knowledge, but not as a moderator. These results can be found in Table 7 and Table 8.

Insert Table 7 about here

Insert Table 8 about here

Study 2 Discussion

The results from study 2 largely revealed a similar pattern as study 1. Consistent support was found for political skill (hypothesis 1) as a predictor of subordinate- and supervisor-rated

follower political knowledge. Meanwhile, the relational constructs of supervisor-rated

disclosure-based trust (hypothesis 5) and subordinate-rated leader-member exchange (hypothesis

3) received the strongest support when they were captured from the same perspective as follower

political knowledge, but no support when they crossed over perspectives. That is, when follower

political knowledge was captured from the supervisor perspective, the supervisor-rated relational

construct (i.e., trust) showed a strong connection but the subordinate-rated relational construct

(i.e., leader-member exchange) did not, and vice versa.

The mixed support for leader-member exchange and trust is likely a result of common

method bias. Because trust is inextricably tied to the quality of the relationship between

supervisors and subordinates, the small correlations that subordinate-rated leader-member

exchange had with supervisor-rated follower political knowledge and that supervisor-rated trust

had with subordinate-rated follower political knowledge were likely accounted for in each

regression. In addition, because the relational constructs that did result in significant regression

coefficients were from the same perspective in which follower political knowledge was captured,

common method bias likely inflated the regression coefficients slightly.

Along similar lines, when follower political knowledge was captured from the

subordinate perspective, political will (hypothesis 2) showed a small relationship, but when

follower political knowledge came from the supervisor perspective, that small relationship

disappeared. This is again potentially explained by common method bias. Meanwhile, need for

cognition (hypothesis 3) did not receive any support whatsoever. This came as no surprise given

the findings from study 1.

While the findings from study 2 provided mixed support for the hypothesized antecedents

of follower political knowledge, there was absolutely no support for the moderating role of

interaction frequency between supervisors and subordinates (hypothesis 6, a through e). In other words, frequency of interactions did not moderate the relationship that political skill (a), political will (b), need for cognition (c), leader-member exchange (d), and supervisor trust (e) had with either supervisor- or subordinate-rated follower political knowledge. Instead, the findings replicated those of study 1 suggesting that frequency of interactions may be better suited as a predictor of follower political knowledge rather than as a moderator.

General Discussion

Relatively consistent results were found across studies 1 and 2 using both self- and other-report. The story that began to unfold in study 1 about the importance of the working relationship between supervisors and subordinates continued to reveal itself in the findings of study 2. The active role that subordinates take to develop relationships, as captured through political skill, was consistently predictive of follower political knowledge. So were the relational indicators with one caveat: common perspective. The importance of subordinate-rated leader-member exchange, or the quality and maturity of the working relationship, found in study 1 was superseded by supervisor-rated disclosure-based trust of subordinates in study 2 when follower political knowledge was captured from the supervisor perspective. However, the importance of leader-member exchange was replicated when follower political knowledge was captured from the subordinate perspective.

The story about relationships and relationship building was also reinforced by what was not found. Political will as an antecedent of follower political knowledge received little support, while need for cognition as an antecedent received even less support. In addition, the frequency of interactions between supervisors and subordinates did not play a conditional role on any of the antecedents, but rather appeared to play a predictive role. The fact that the interpersonal factors

of relationship quality and relationship building showed a consistent connection to follower political knowledge, while the individual differences of need for cognition and political will did not, is worthy of further dissection.

Interpersonal Versus Individual

The importance of interpersonal factors (i.e., those that manifest between individuals, such as trust, leader-member exchange, political skill, and frequency of interactions) over the individual factors (i.e., those that manifest within the subordinate, such as political will and need for cognition) on the development of follower political knowledge is a compelling outcome. But according to the active perspective-taking framework, both interpersonal and individual factors should have contributed to follower political knowledge so long as they contribute to the motivation, capacity, and opportunity of a subordinate to acquire information. Why is it that the relationship and relationship building factors exhibited a more pronounced connection to follower political knowledge?

Opportunity. An answer to this question could be that there is a certain degree of opportunity inherent to the interpersonal factors. There need not be others around in order for an individual to express their need for cognition or political will. On the other hand, the presence of others is fundamental to the expression of political skill, leader-member exchange, and trust. I attempted to capture opportunity as a condition through the frequency of interactions between subordinates and their supervisors, but the results failed to support the hypothesized conditional role. However, this does not entirely discredit the idea of opportunity for a number of reasons.

I theorized that frequency of interactions would not lead to political knowledge alone. It was expected to provide the people with the means and motives (e.g. political skill and political will) to acquire it. Instead, it was found that frequency of interactions had a significant

(unconditional) association with follower political knowledge. In retrospect, this may not be surprising. For instance, political knowledge may be difficult to avoid. Individuals lacking in political skill and will may develop some knowledge about their boss given enough interactions. Indeed, research supports the idea that individuals are recipients of information about those they interact with frequently, even if they do not seek it (Buss & Craik, 1983; Funder, 1995). There is also the possibility that the reverse relationship has occurred given the cross-sectional nature of the data; perhaps managers simply choose to interact more frequently with subordinates who understand them well. Future longitudinal research may be better able to address the effects of cumulative interaction, and establish the causal order in the link between political knowledge and interaction frequency.

The interpersonal factors of political skill, leader-member exchange, and trust also appeared to present a certain degree of opportunity for subordinates to acquire follower political knowledge with or without frequent interactions. Recall that those high in political skill build large networks, networks that expose them to more information, such as through gossip (Ferris et al., 2005). Those with high leader-member exchange, or better quality working relationships, are more exposed to reciprocal knowledge sharing (Sparrowe & Liden, 1997), while those bestowed with trust by their supervisors' are exposed to more disclosure (Abrams et al., 2003). Each of these interpersonal factors provides a certain degree of opportunity on top of the motivation and capacity to understand others that I hypothesized they provide.

Meanwhile the motivation and capacity to understand others that political will and need for cognition provide appear to be limited by how each construct does not require others to arise. A subordinate can experience a great deal of political will and need for cognition without others being around. Granted, political will does involve others inasmuch as they are tied to the

relational and reputation outcomes of an individual engaging in strategic behaviour. But to reiterate, these others need not be around in order for the subordinate to be politically motivated or to express political motivation by behaving strategically. On the other hand, a subordinate's need for cognition is not at all reliant on others, whether it is the expression or outcomes of a need for cognition.

Overall, follower political knowledge was best predicted by factors that manifest between individuals and provide the motivation, capacity, *and opportunity* to understand others. In particular, political skill, leader-member exchange, and supervisor disclosure-based trust played a major role in the acquisition of follower political knowledge. Meanwhile, political will and need for cognition showed very minor-to-nonexistent roles in the acquisition of follower political knowledge.

Research Implications

Follower political knowledge has so far proven to have a distinct and useful existence. As a consequence, this may potentially shift the direction of inquiry for those studying politics within organizations. Previous findings can now be further examined by introducing follower political knowledge as an intervening factor between political skill and a number of its known associations, such as contextual performance (Jawahar, Meurs, Ferris, & Hochwarter, 2008) or impression management (Harris, Kacmar, Zivnuska, & Shaw, 2007). The introduction of follower political knowledge has also opened up a new line of inquiry, where there are a number of vacancies for theoretical and empirical contributions to support or ax the continued existence of follower political knowledge. For example, Granger, Neville, and Turner (2016) have begun to fill these vacancies by using follower political knowledge to bridge the literatures on political behaviour and proactivity.

Another related implication of the findings in this thesis is that future empirical endeavors will be aided by the existence of a validated way to capture follower political knowledge and data on self- and observer-reported follower political knowledge. Other researchers will be able to use or modify these measures to further this newly opened line of research and apply theory to consider the importance of observer- versus self-reported political knowledge.

Practical Implications

The story that unfolded across both studies also entails a number of intriguing practical implications. The fact that the best predictors of follower political knowledge are malleable is promising. Training can be implemented to improve relationships, networking, and communication, whereas an employees' need for cognition is far more stable. Given improvement in the former areas, we can expect to see heightened acquisition of follower political knowledge.

Employees may also benefit from taking steps to improve their follower political knowledge whether or not an organization implements training. Given the potential outcomes for employees and their leaders, both parties have much to gain if an employee understands the world of his or her supervisor. Some initial work points to a number of enhanced outcomes for those high in follower political knowledge, such as increased proactivity (Granger et al., 2016).

Limitations

There are several limitations to how far the conclusions that were drawn in this thesis can extend. First of all, confidence in directionality is limited. It is not possible with the current data to prove that the predictors led into follower political knowledge rather than the other way

around. However, there are theoretical reasons to believe that the acquisition of knowledge

follows from the sharing of knowledge or the motivation to acquire knowledge – at least at first.

Another potential limitation to the current findings is the potentially inflated results

introduced by common methods. Precautions were taken to randomize the order of the survey

items, but this does not entirely overcome the fact that all answers were one-time self-report

surveys. Study 2 was an attempt to overcome this issue (as well as issues of socially desirable

responding) by introducing other-report measures on top of randomization. However, this issue

was not completely overcome, as the effect that supervisor trust had on follower political

knowledge was paramount when both were measured from the supervisor perspective, but

negligible when follower political knowledge was captured from the subordinate perspective.

Future research would benefit from addressing this issue even further by gathering objective

measures.

There are also several challenges towards introducing follower political knowledge into

the mainstream research on political behaviour in the workplace. At this point, the empirical

data for follower political knowledge is limited to this thesis and a handful of studies conducted

during scale development. Future studies will need to be conducted to establish follower

political knowledge as distinct and contributive beyond related political behaviour constructs. In

particular, a focus on the consequences of follower political knowledge would help round out the

findings from this thesis.

Future Directions

Aside from the challenges found in this thesis, there are many directions this line of

research can take. It would be insightful to further examine other opportunity-related factors that

may shape the acquisition of follower political knowledge and the antecedents tested in both

studies. It is very possible that employment status and relationship tenure could have enhanced the current model of antecedents. Full-time employees, who receive more intense socialization into organizations (Thorsteinson, 2003), may have an edge on their part-time counterparts. Subordinates who have known their supervisor for longer may have an advantage in acquiring follower political knowledge because they have more time to build a trusting relationship (Levin, Whitener, & Cross, 2006). At minimum, they would be more likely to have experienced more interactions with their supervisors (Borgatti & Cross, 2003).

Along similar lines, are there other important individual, relational, or organizational antecedences that were not examined in this thesis, but should be? Potential constructs that did not fit the active perspective-taking framework include (but are not limited to) emotional intelligence (Mayer & Geher, 1996), self-monitoring (Gangestad & Snyder, 2000), and attributional complexity (Fletcher et al., 1986). Are there other potential workplace outcomes aside from proactivity that may be influenced by a subordinate's collection of follower political knowledge? Certainly the role of knowledge about others can be applied to a wide range of research on topics such as teamwork, leadership, and conflict management.

Another future direction is testing the trainability of follower political knowledge. The results from this thesis suggest that the strongest predictors of follower political knowledge are malleable. However, a dilemma arises in that people who know the least about their supervisors are the least trusted and least inclined to build relationships. What needs to be done to overcome the finding that supervisors are less inclined to interact with the people that understand them the least? This barrier to improving follower political knowledge will need to be addressed in future research. For instance, future studies can determine whether more 'face-time' is simply enough

to increase follower political knowledge, or whether more thorough and structured knowledge sharing sessions are required.

Another potential direction for examining follower political knowledge is testing its dark side. Follower political knowledge has been treated as amoral to this point, in that it is not inherently used for good or bad. Are there any ethical issues in attempting to facilitate the acquisition of follower political knowledge (particularly between supervisor and employee pairs whose relationships are less than cordial)? What needs to be done to assure supervisors and employees that improving follower political knowledge outweighs any risk that may ensue? Are there certain individuals that supervisors should be more hesitant about sharing such details with, such as those high in the dark triad (i.e., narcissism, Machiavellianism, and psychopathy; Paulhus & Williams, 2002). These are just a few of the many research questions that can now be asked given the existence of follower political knowledge.

Conclusion

Having the right abilities and motivations are important components in exerting influence. However, the way and the will go to waste when knowledge is necessary to reach one's goals. This is where the literature on political behaviour in organizations currently stands, with a strong and understandable emphasis on political skill and will. However, this focus has opened the way to further examine the complexity of political behaviour and the importance of knowledge – particularly politically relevant knowledge about leaders. This thesis provides initial support for the idea that follower political knowledge is just as crucial to consider as political skill and political will. It also tells a story about the importance of relationships and relationship building; a story about seeking, rather than imagining, the perspective of others in order to understand their world.

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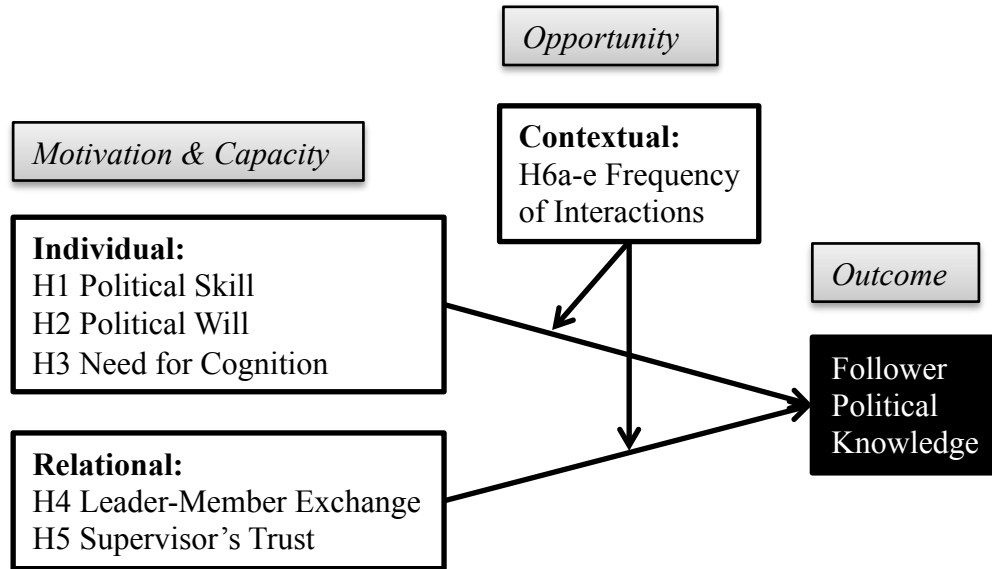
Figure 1. Model for hypothesized antecedents and moderator of follower political knowledge.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach Alphas, and Correlations in Study 1

	M	SD	α	PS	PW	NFC	LMX	Freq.	Known	Task.	Ten.	Age	Sex	S.Sex
FPK	3.46	.74	.95	.46**	.21**	.19**	.51**	.31**	.13**	-.09	.10*	.05	-.03	-.03
PS	5.11	1.02	.95	1	.25**	.38**	.41**	.16**	-.04	.03	.00	.00	.05	-.05
PW	4.10	1.28	.92		1	.13**	.14**	-.01	-.06	-.09	.01	-.08	-.10*	-.01
NFC	4.69	1.21	.95			1	.22**	.06	-.02	-.02	-.06	.06	-.03	-.05
LMX	4.09	.73	.88				1	.20**	.25**	.08	.17**	.09*	-.01	.01
Freq.	3.87	.88						1	.03	-.33**	-.01	-.08	-.01	-.10*
Known	4.65	4.90							1	.01	.64**	.40**	.07	-.06
Task	3.49	1.00								1	.08	.19**	.03	.08
Ten.	5.26	4.78									1	.49**	.01	.02
Age	33.11	9.13										1	.13**	-.06
Sex													1	-.29**

Note. N = 467; Higher means equal more of each variable; FPK = political knowledge (23 items; 5pt scale); PS = political skill (18 items; 7pt scale); PW = political will (8 items; 7pt scale); NFC = need for cognition (18 items; 7pt scale); LMX = leader-member exchange (6 items; 5pt scale); Freq. = frequency of interactions with supervisor (1 item; 5pt scale); Known = how long employee has know supervisor in years; Task. = task independence (1 item; 5pt scale); Tenure = number of years at current or most recent job; Age = age of participant in years; Sex (1 = male; 2 = female); S.Sex = sex of supervisor (1 = male; 2 = female).
*p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 2

Linear Multiple Regression for Hypotheses 1 through 4, Study 1

Variable	Unstandardized Beta	*se*	β	*t*	sr^2	*F*	R	R^2
						58.95***	.58	.33
Political Skill	.21	.03	.28	6.27**	.06			
Political Will	.05	.02	.09	2.19*	.01			
Need for Cognition	-.01	.03	-.01	-.24	.00			
Leader-Member Exchange	.39	.04	.38	9.19***	.15			

Note. $N = 466$; Dependent variable = subordinate-rated follower political knowledge.
*p < .05, **p < .01, ***p < .001

Table 3

Summary of Moderation Analyses, Hypotheses 6a through 6d, Study 1

					95% CI	
Variable	Coefficient	SE	*t*	*p*	LLCI	ULCI
Political Skill	.30	.03	10.08	< .001	.24	.36
Freq. of Int.	.20	.03	5.94	< .001	.14	.27
Political Skill * Freq. of Int.	.03	.03	.90	.37	-.04	.09
Political Will	.12	.03	4.93	< .001	.07	.17
Freq. of Int.	.26	.04	7.05	< .001	.19	.33
Political Will * Freq. of Int.	-.01	.03	-.44	.66	-.07	.05
Need for Cognition	.10	.03	6.75	< .001	.05	.16
Freq. of Int.	.25	.04	3.76	< .001	.18	.32
Need for Cognition * Freq. of Int.	.05	.03	1.51	.13	-.01	.10
Leader-Member Exchange	.48	.04	11.70	< .001	.40	.56
Freq. of Int.	.18	.03	5.31	< .001	.11	.25
Leader-Member Exchange * Freq. of Int.	-.03	.04	-.74	.46	-.11	.05

Note. $N = 465$*;* Dependent variable = follower political knowledge; Freq. of Int = Frequency of interactions with supervisor; Moderation analyses conducted through the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2012), mean centered for products.

Table 4

Means, Standard Deviations, Cronbach Alphas, and Correlations in Study 2

| | | *M* | SD | α | Subordinate-rated | | | | | | | | | |
					PS	PW	NFC	LMX	Freq.	Known	Task	Tenure	Age	Sex
Subordinate-rated	FPK	3.60	.77	.95	.44**	.10	.11	.49**	.27**	.04	-.11	-.03	-.08	.09
	PS	5.51	.72	.91	1	.01	.19*	.26**	.16*	.06	.04	.01	.03	-.02
	PW	3.94	1.12	.90		1	.13	-.10	-.12	.04	-.14	-.08	-.09	.03
	NFC	4.95	.71	.85			1	.11	-.20**	-.05	.13	-.06	-.03	-.07
	LMX	4.11	.66	.86				1	.11	.17*	-.07	-.04	.01	.07
	Freq.	4.09	.88						1	.04	-.14	.00	.05	.09
	Known	4.17	5.16							1	.13	.40**	.36**	-.13
	Task	3.64	1.09								1	.10	.19*	-.01
	Tenure	6.30	7.60									1	.61**	-.30**
	Age	35.29	12.18										1	-.24**
	Sex													1
Supervisor-rated	FPK	3.33	.73	.94										
	Trust	3.83	.74	.87										
	Freq.	4.00	.93											
	Known	4.66	5.80											
	Task	3.36	1.12											
	Tenure	5.81	6.69											
	Age	33.35	11.40											
	Sex													

Note. *N* = 174 dyads; Higher means equal more of each variable; FPK = political knowledge (23 items; 5pt scale); PS = political skill (18 items; 7pt scale); PW = political will (8 items; 7pt scale); NFC = need for cognition (18 items; 7pt scale); LMX = leader-member exchange (6 items; 5pt scale); Freq. = frequency of interactions with supervisor/subordinate (1 item; 5pt scale); Known = how long employee has know supervisor in years (and vice versa); Task. = task independence (1 item; 5pt scale); Tenure = tenure at current job in years; Age = age of participant in years; Sex (1 = male; 2 = female); Trust = supervisor-rated disclosure-based trust of employee (5 items; 5pt scale).
*p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 4 cont.

		Supervisor-rated							
		FPK	Trust	Freq.	Known	Task	Tenure	Age	Sex
Subordinate-rated	FPK	.28**	.15*	.28**	-.01	-.12	-.00	-.01	.08
	PS	.22**	.11	.20**	.08	-.04	.02	.09	.05
	PW	-.02	.13	-.05	-.01	.01	-.14	-.12	-.09
	NFC	-.02	-.04	-.07	-.10	.12	-.09	.02	.08
	LMX	.19**	.17*	.16*	.13	.01	.04	.02	.11
	Freq.	.12	-.01	.45**	.08	-.24**	.01	.01	.14
	Known	.14	.24**	.06	.91**	.08	.28**	.15	-.01
	Task	-.13	-.10	-.18*	.10	.05	.03	.15*	-.05
	Tenure	-.07	-.09	-.04	.35**	.02	.16*	.00	-.00
	Age	.05	-.07	.11	.32**	-.09	.14	.20**	-.08
	Sex	.06	.15	.07	-.11	.11	.10	.14	.11
Supervisor-rated	FPK	1	.56**	.37**	.18*	-.22**	.01	-.04	-.09
	Trust		1	.14	.23**	-.09	.07	-.02	-.06
	Freq.			1	.07	-.42**	.03	.08	.01
	Known				1	.04	.31**	.14	.05
	Task					1	.10	.11	-.14
	Tenure						1	.60**	.03
	Age							1	.09
	Sex								1

Note. $N = 174$ dyads; Higher means equal more of each variable; FPK = political knowledge (23 items; 5pt scale); PS = political skill (18 items; 7pt scale); PW = political will (8 items; 7pt scale); NFC = need for cognition (18 items; 7pt scale); LMX = leader-member exchange (6 items; 5pt scale); Freq. = frequency of interactions with supervisor/subordinate (1 item; 5pt scale); Known = how long employee has know supervisor in years (and vice versa); Task. = task independence (1 item; 5pt scale); Age = age of participant in years; Sex (1 = male; 2 = female); Trust = supervisor-rated disclosure-based trust of employee (5 items; 5pt scale).
*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

Table 5

Linear Multiple Regression for Hypotheses 1 through 5, Study 2

Variable	Unstandardized Beta	*se*	β	*t*	sr^2	*F*	R	R^2
						19.01**	.60	.36
Political Skill	.35	.07	.32	4.91**	.09			
Political Will	.10	.04	.14	2.23*	.02			
Need for Cognition	-.01	.07	-.01	-.16	.00			
Leader-Member Exchange	.48	.08	.42	6.38**	.16			
Disclosure-Based Trust	.02	.05	.03	.39	.00			

Note. $N = 173$ dyads; Dependent variable = subordinate-rated follower political knowledge; Political skill, political will, need for cognition, and leader-member exchange = subordinate-rated; Disclosure-based trust = supervisor-rated.
*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 6

Linear Multiple Regression for Hypotheses 1 through 5, Study 2

Variable	Unstandardized Beta	se	β	t	sr^2	F	R	R^2
						18.42***	.60	.35
Political Skill	.16	.07	.15	2.37*	.02			
Political Will	-.05	.04	-.08	-1.23	.01			
Need for Cognition	-.03	.07	-.03	-.44	.00			
Leader-Member Exchange	.06	.07	.05	.82	.00			
Disclosure-Based Trust	.39	.05	.55	8.52***	.28			

Note. $N = 174$ dyads; Dependent variable = supervisor-rated follower political knowledge; Political skill, political will, need for cognition, and leader-member exchange = subordinate-rated; Disclosure-based trust = supervisor-rated.
*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Table 7

Moderation Analyses for Hypotheses 6a through 6e, Study 2

Variable	Coefficient	SE	*t*	*p*	95% CI	
					LLCI	ULCI
Political Skill	.43	.08	5.68	< .001	.28	.59
Freq. of Int.	.23	.07	3.39	.001	.10	.37
Political Skill * Freq. of Int.	.09	.10	.89	.37	-.10	.27
Political Will	.09	.05	1.76	.08	-.01	.19
Freq. of Int.	.33	.07	4.56	< .001	.19	.47
Political Will * Freq. of Int.	.04	.06	.55	.59	-.09	.16
Need for Cognition	.17	.08	2.18	.03	.02	.33
Freq. of Int.	.36	.07	4.92	< .001	.22	.51
Need for Cognition * Freq. of Int.	-.12	.09	-1.26	.21	-.30	.07
Leader-Member Exchange	.52	.08	6.87	< .001	.37	.67
Freq. of Int.	.25	.07	3.84	< .001	.12	.38
Leader-Member Exchange * Freq. of Int.	-.03	.09	-.31	.75	-.21	.15
Supervisor's trust	.10	.06	1.74	.08	-.01	.20
Freq. of Int.	.31	.07	4.23	< .001	.16	.45
Supervisor's trust * Freq. of Int.	.05	.08	.69	.49	-.10	.20

Note. N = 173 dyads; Dependent variable = subordinate-rated follower political knowledge; Freq. of Int = Combined frequency of interactions between supervisors and subordinates; Leader-member exchange = subordinate-rated; Moderation analyses conducted through the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2012), mean centered for products.

Table 8

Moderation Analyses for Hypotheses 6a through 6e, Study 2

Variable	Coefficient	SE	*t*	*p*	95% CI LLCI	ULCI
Political Skill	.17	.08	2.14	.001	.11	.38
Freq. of Int.	.25	.07	3.51	.03	.01	.32
Political Skill * Freq. of Int.	-.03	.10	-.26	.79	-.22	.17
Political Will	.00	.05	.07	.94	-.09	.10
Freq. of Int.	.28	.07	3.99	< .001	.14	.41
Political Will * Freq. of Int.	.02	.06	.39	.69	-.10	.15
Need for Cognition	.02	.08	.22	.83	-.13	.17
Freq. of Int.	.29	.07	4.07	< .001	.15	.43
Need for Cognition * Freq. of Int.	-.06	.09	-.70	.48	-.24	.11
Leader-Member Exchange	.19	.08	2.32	.02	.03	.35
Freq. of Int.	.26	.07	3.71	< .001	.12	.39
Leader-Member Exchange * Freq. of Int.	.16	.10	1.61	.11	-.04	.35
Supervisor's trust	.39	.04	8.97	< .001	.30	.47
Freq. of Int.	.24	.06	4.15	< .001	.13	.35
Supervisor's trust * Freq. of Int.	-.03	.06	-.51	.61	-.15	.09

Note. $N = 174$ dyads; Dependent variable = supervisor-rated follower political knowledge; Freq. of Int = Combined frequency of interactions between supervisors and subordinates; Leader-member exchange = subordinate rated; Moderation analyses conducted through the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2012), mean centered for products.

Appendix A

Study 1. Online MTurk recruitment template

Interpersonal Communication in the Workplace

An online study which exams the relationship between employees and their supervisors.

Detailed Description: This is an online study is being conducted by Steven Granger, a graduate student at the University of Manitoba, working under the supervision of Dr. Lukas Neville. Participants in this study will be asked to complete an online survey. Clicking the link below will forward you to a survey website (Qualtrics) where you will begin the study. You will be asked to indicate your opinions and attitudes about ideal follower behaviour.

Eligibility Requirements: You must be at least 18 years of age and be fluent in English to participate in this study. In addition, you must have current or previous working experience.

Duration: This survey will take about 10 to 15 minutes.

Compensation: You will receive $2.00 for your participation.

Student Researcher: Steven E. Granger, Organizational Behaviour M.Sc. Student, Department of Business Administration, umgrange@myumanitoba.ca

Principal Researcher: Dr. Lukas Neville, Assistant Professor, Department of Business Administration, lukas.neville@ad.umanitoba.ca

Address: Department of Business Administration, 426 Drake Centre, Asper School of Business, 181 Freedman Crescent, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada, R3T 5V4

Please click on the following link to take the survey: [takes participant to consent form first] https://asper.az1.qualtrics.com.....XXXXXX

Confirmation Code (note: Case Sensitive!):

Please enter code here:

Appendix B

Study 1. Consent form

Study Information and Consent Form
Research Project Title: **Interpersonal Communication in the Workplace**
Researcher(s):   **Steven E. Granger, M.Sc. Student, University of Manitoba,**
Department of Business Administration, 371 Drake Centre,
Email: umgrange@myumanitoba.ca
Research Supervisor: **Dr. Lukas Neville, Assistant Professor, University of Manitoba,**
Department of Business Administration, 412 Drake Centre,
Email: lukas.neville@ad.umanitoba.ca

INFORMED CONSENT
This consent form, a copy of which you should print for your records and reference, is only part
of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is
about and what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something
mentioned here, or information not included here, you should feel free to contact the main
researcher. Please take the time to read this carefully and to understand any accompanying
information.

1. What is this research about?
We are interested in examining the relationship between employees and their supervisors –
particularly with reference to communication and learning.

2. What is involved in participating?
You will be asked to answer questions with reference to your behaviour and attitudes, job
demographics (e.g., tenure, job role, etc.) and personal demographics about yourself (e.g., age,
gender, etc.).

3. Who may participate?
You must be at least 18 years of age, reside in the United States, Canada, Australia, New
Zealand, Ireland, or the United Kingdom, and be fluent in English to participate in this study. In
addition, you must have current or previous work experience.

4. What are the benefits and risks?
The benefits of taking the survey are that you are contributing to scientific research. There
are no risks involved in participating.

5. How will you protect my confidentiality?
All information in the questionnaire obtained will be kept anonymous and confidential, as
there will be no identifying information gathered in this survey. One thing to note is that
compensation will be done entirely through Mechanical Turk who will have access to your
personal information, but will <u>not</u> have access to the data provided in this study. On the other-

hand, only the researchers named above will have access to the data in this study but will not have access to your personal information. Only the researchers named above will have access to the data.

6. What will happen to the data from this study?
All data will be kept indefinitely and stored on a password-protected computer in a locked room. Only Steven E. Granger and his advisor, Lukas Neville, will have access to this data.

7. How long will it take and what will I receive for participating?
It will take approximately 25-30 minutes to complete this study and therefore you will receive $2.00 honorarium.

8. What if I decide to withdraw from this study?
Participating in this study is voluntary and you can refuse to answer any question or withdraw your consent at any time without any negative consequences or loss of payment. If you do choose to withdraw, discontinue answering questions and proceed passed the feedback form at the end of the survey to obtain the code. In the circumstance that you choose to withdraw, any data that you provided will be destroyed and not included in any analyses.

9. What happens when the study is done?
When the survey is completed, you will be automatically directed to a webpage explaining a more detailed report on the purpose of this study.

10. How can I receive a copy of the results of this study?
You will not be receiving individualized feedback on this study, but will be able to access an aggregate summary describing the average responses of participants.

11. Has this research been approved by the University of Manitoba?
This research has been approved by the Psychology/Sociology Research Ethics Board at the University of Manitoba. If you have any concerns or complaints about this project you may contact any of the above-named persons or the Human Ethics Coordinator (HEC) at 1-204-474-7122 or email humanethics@umanitoba.ca. The University of Manitoba may look at your research records to see that the research is being done in a safe and proper way.

12. What does selecting, "Yes, I consent to participate" and clicking "next" below mean?
This means that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to participate as a subject. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the researchers, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibility. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, and/or refrain from answering any questions you prefer to omit, without prejudice or consequence. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so you should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation (by sending an email to umgrange@myumanitoba.ca).

Please select whether you wish to take part in this study:
Yes, I consent to participate! □   No, I do not wish to participate □

Appendix C

Study 2. Consent form

UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

Study Information and Consent Form
Research Project Title: **Interpersonal Communication in the Workplace**
Researcher(s): **Steven E. Granger, M.Sc. Student, University of Manitoba,**
Department of Business Administration, 371 Drake Centre,
Email: umgrange@myumanitoba.ca
Research Supervisor: **Dr. Lukas Neville, Assistant Professor, University of Manitoba,**
Department of Business Administration, 412 Drake Centre,
Email: lukas.neville@ad.umanitoba.ca

INFORMED CONSENT

This consent form, a copy of which you should print for your records and reference, is only part of the process of informed consent. It should give you the basic idea of what the research is about and what your participation will involve. If you would like more detail about something mentioned here, or information not included here, you should feel free to contact the main researcher. Please take the time to read this carefully and to understand any accompanying information.

1. What is this research about?

We are interested in examining the relationship between employees and their supervisors – particularly with reference to communication and learning.

2. What is involved in participating?

You will be asked to answer questions with reference to your supervisor or your subordinate, attitudes, job demographics (e.g., tenure, job role, etc.) and demographics about yourself (e.g., age, gender, etc.).

3. Who may participate?

You must be of working age and be fluent in English to participate in this study. In addition, you must currently be working and completing the survey as one half of the supervisor-subordinate dyad.

4. What are the benefits and risks?

The benefits of taking the survey are that you are contributing to scientific research. There are no risks involved in participating.

5. How will you protect my confidentiality?

All information in the questionnaire obtained will be kept confidential. Only the researchers named above will have access to the data and once complete dyads are paired, all identifying information will be permanently deleted.

6. What will happen to the data from this study?
All data will be kept indefinitely and stored on a password-protected computer in a locked room (except for identifying information, which will be removed immediately once employee-supervisor pairs are matched). Only Steven E. Granger and his advisor, Lukas Neville, will have access to this data.

7. How long will it take and what will I receive for participating?
It will take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete this study and as a thank you for your time and effort you will receive a $10 Starbucks coffee gift card (Starbucks gift cards are only available in Canada, US, Mexico, Australia, Thailand, Hong Kong, and the United Kingdom).

8. What if I decide to withdraw from this study?
Participating in this study is voluntary and you can refuse to answer any question or withdraw your consent at any time without any negative consequences or loss of payment. In the circumstance that you choose to withdraw, any data that you provided will be destroyed and not included in any analyses.

9. What happens when the study is done?
When the survey is completed, you will be automatically directed to a webpage explaining a more detailed report on the purpose of this study.

10. How can I receive a copy of the results of this study?
You will not be receiving individualized feedback on this study, but will be able to access an aggregate summary describing the average responses of participants.

11. Has this research been approved by the University of Manitoba?
This research has been approved by the Psychology/Sociology Research Ethics Board at the University of Manitoba. If you have any concerns or complaints about this project you may contact any of the above-named persons or the Human Ethics Coordinator (HEC) at 1-204-474-7122 or email humanethics@umanitoba.ca. The University of Manitoba may look at your research records to see that the research is being done in a safe and proper way.

12. What does selecting, "Yes, I consent to participate" and clicking "next" below mean?
This means that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to participate as a subject. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the researchers, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibility. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time, and/or refrain from answering any questions you prefer to omit, without prejudice or consequence. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so you should feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation (by sending an email to umgrange@myumanitoba.ca).

Please select whether you wish to take part in this study:
Yes, I consent to participate! ☐   No, I do not wish to participate ☐

Appendix D

Study 2. Information acquired to match pairs

To start, for the purposes of pairing surveys, we just need to know <mark>who you are and who you are participating with in this research</mark>.

Please note
Once the surveys are paired, <mark>all identifying information will be deleted</mark>.

To start, what is <mark>your <u>first</u> and <u>last</u> name?</mark>

_____

Please select the label that fits <mark>your role</mark> in comparison to the person with whom you are <mark>participating with</mark> in this research (i.e., the person who asked you or you had asked to participate).

I am this person's subordinate (I report to them) ☐
I am this person's supervisor (they report to me) ☐

Finally, <mark>**what is the <u>first</u> and <u>last</u> name of the person with whom you are participating with?**</mark> *(i.e., your supervisor or subordinate's name)*

_____

Appendix E

Studies 1 and 2. Scales and measures for subordinate surveys

Follower Political Knowledge Scale – Participants rated how much or how little they know about their supervisor based on a host of questions that were be prompted with, "Most people know some things about their supervisor in great detail, but know about other things in much less detail. Think about each of the following, and ask yourself how much or little you know about each with regard to your supervisor. This is something I know…" Participants responded on a 5pt Likert Scale to each item (1 = *Not at all or in very little detail*, 2 = *In little detail*, 3 = *In some detail*, 4 = *In fair detail*, 5 = *In great detail or entirely*). The subscales within the inventory are in brackets and are not shown to participants.

1. The demands my supervisor is under (*demands*)
2. The formal job demands my supervisor has to meet (*demands*)
3. What is expected of my supervisor by his or her superior (*demands*)
4. The pressure my supervisor faces to succeed day-to-day (*demands*)
5. What it takes for my supervisor to do his or her job on a day-to-day basis (*demands*)
3. My supervisor's responsibilities (*demands*)
6. The targets or goals my supervisor has been assigned to accomplish (*demands*)
7. Whose words and actions my supervisor pays close attention to (*relational network*)
8. Who my supervisor likes to work with the most (*relational network*)
9. Whose opinions my supervisor relies on (*relational network*)
10. Who my supervisor gets along with at work (*relational network*)
11. Which of my supervisor's employees' are hardest to manage (*relational network*)
12. Who my supervisor spends the most time with (*relational network*)
13. Which of their employees stresses my supervisor out (*relational network*)
14. Who my supervisor dislikes working with the most (*relational network*)
15. Who my supervisor gossips with (*relational network*)
16. What kinds of tasks or interactions energize my supervisor (*preferences*)
17. Which parts of my supervisor's job he or she derives the most meaning from (*preferences*)
18. Which parts of my supervisor's job he or she finds the most invigorating (*preferences*)
19. The things that motivate my supervisor (e.g., energy, drive, expertise) to do his or her job (*preferences*)
21. What kinds of experience my supervisor brings into his or her job. (*resources*)
22. What education or experience my supervisor has that helps him or her deal with his or her expectations (*resources*)
23. How qualified my supervisor is to do his or her job (*resources*)

The Political Skill Inventory. Participants answered the Political Skill Scale (Kapoutsis et al., 2015) to capture their interpersonal political adeptness. Participants responded from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*) to the prompt, "Thinking about yourself, please select the degree to which you agree with each of the following." Higher scores denote a greater willingness to participate in political activities, with subscales in brackets and are not shown to participants.

Political Will Scale. Participants completed the Political Will Scale (Kapoutsis et al., 2015) to capture their willingness and motivation to participate in politicking at work. Participants responded from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly agree*) to the prompt, "Thinking about yourself, please select the degree to which you agree with each of the following." Higher scores denote a greater willingness to participate in political activities, with subscales in brackets and are not shown to participants.

Short Form Need for Cognition Scale. Participants rated the degree to which they have a need for cognition by responding to the items from the short form Need for Cognition Scale (Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein, & Jarvis, 1996). Participants responded to the prompt, "thinking about yourself, please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following" from 1 (*extremely uncharacteristic*) to 5 (*extremely characteristic*).

Leader-Member Exchange-7. Participants rated the maturity of their relationship with their supervisor by completing the Leader-Member Exchange-7 Scale (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The anchors for each item change (in brackets following each item), but all are measured on a 5-pt Likert scale. Before answering any of the items, all participants were told, "Next, we just want to ask you a few questions about the relationship you have with your supervisor (i.e., the person also participating in this research)."

Working Relationship with leader
    Known leader
"How long have you known your supervisor? (in years)" __

    Frequency of Interactions
How often do you see your supervisor over the course of a usual workday?
(Never – Rarely – Occasionally – Frequently – All the time)

    Task Interdependence
"In my job, I generally work independently of the person I report to."
(Strongly disagree – Disagree – Neither agree nor disagree – Agree – Strongly agree)

Demographics.
    Age
"What's your age?" __

    Sex
"What's your gender? (please select all that apply)
1. Male__
2. Female__
3. Trans*__

    Job Status
"What is your job status?" (*3-5 for study 1 only*)
1. Employed full-time __
2. Employed part-time __

3. Previously employed, but not currently employed __
4. Never employed __
5. Retired __

Tenure (in years)
"How long have (were) you been at your current (most recent) job? (in years)" __

Job Role
"What is (was) your role in this job?" _____

Industry
"What kind of organization do (did) you (most recently) work for?" _____

Change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviours[6]. Participants rated their own voice behaviour by using the 4-item change-oriented subscale of the organizational citizenship behaviour scale (Choi, 2007). Participants were prompted with, "thinking about yourself, please select the degree to which you agree with each of the following," and then rated each item on how much they agree, from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Trait perspective-taking. Participants rated their own trait perspective taking by using the 7-item trait perspective taking scale (Davis, 1980). Participants were prompted with, "thinking about yourself, please select the degree to which you agree with each of the following," and then rated each item on how much they agree, from 1 (*Does not describe me well*) to 5 (*describes me very well*).

Implicit voice theories. Participants completed the implicit voice theory scale to capture the degree to which they subscribe to particular ideas against speaking up in the workplace (Detert & Edmondson, 2011). Participants were prompted, "please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements with respect to your current workplace" and were asked to rate from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). Higher scores on this scale denote stronger subscription to each theory and the subscales at in brackets at the end.

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[6] The change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviour subscale, trait perspective-taking scale, and implicit voice theories scale were captured only in study 1 and for scale development purposes.

Appendix F

Study 2. Scales and measures for supervisor survey

Political Knowledge Scale – Participants rated how much or how little they know about their supervisor based on a host of questions that were be prompted with, "Most people know some things about their supervisor in great detail, but know about other things in much less detail. Think about each of the following, and ask yourself how much or little does your subordinate know about you. This is something my subordinate knows about …" Participants responded on a 5pt Likert Scale to each item (1 = *Not at all or in very little detail*, 2 = *In little detail*, 3 = *In some detail*, 4 = *In fair detail*, 5 = *In great detail or entirely*). The subscales within the inventory are in brackets and are not shown to participants.

1. The demands you are under (*demands*)
2. The formal job demands you have to meet (*demands*)
3. What is expected of you by your superior (*demands*)
4. The pressure you face to succeed day-to-day (*demands*)
5. What it takes for you to do your job on a day-to-day basis (*demands*)
3. Your responsibilities (*demands*)
6. The targets or goals you have been assigned to accomplish (*demands*)
7. Whose words and actions you pay close attention to (*relational network*)
8. Who you like to work with the most (*relational network*)
9. Whose opinions you rely on (*relational network*)
10. Who you get along with at work (*relational network*)
11. Which of your employees' are hardest to manage (*relational network*)
12. Who you spend the most time with (*relational network*)
13. Which of your employees stresses you out (*relational network*)
14. Who you dislike working with the most (*relational network*)
15. Who you gossip with (*relational network*)
16. What kinds of tasks or interactions energize you (*preferences*)
17. Which parts of your job you derive the most meaning from (*preferences*)
18. Which parts of your job you find the most invigorating (*preferences*)
19. The things that motivate you (e.g., energy, drive, expertise) to do your job (*preferences*)
21. What kinds of experience you bring into your job. (*resources*)
22. What education or experience you have that helps you deal with your expectations (*resources*)
23. How qualified my supervisor is to do his or her job (*resources*)

Behavioural Trust Inventory. Participants rated how much they trust their subordinates using the Behavioral Trust Inventory (Gillespie, 2003). Using the anchors of 1 (*Not at all willing*) to 5 (*Completely willing*), participants were prompted to answer the questions with, "thinking about your subordinate, can you…" Subscales of the scale are in brackets and not shown to participants.

Leader-Member Exchange-7. Participants rated the maturity of their relationship with their subordinate by completing the Leader-Member Exchange-7 Scale (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). The anchors for each item change (in brackets following each item), but all are measured on a 5-pt Likert scale. Before answering any of the items, all participants were told, "Next, we just want to ask you a few questions about the relationship you have with your subordinate (i.e., the person also participating in this research)."

Working Relationship with Subordinate.
        Known subordinate
"How long have you known your subordinate? (in years)" __

        Frequency of Interactions
How often do you see your subordinate over the course of a usual workday?
(Never – Rarely – Occasionally – Frequently – All the time)

        Task Interdependence
"In my job, I generally work independently of my subordinate."
(Strongly disagree – Disagree – Neither agree nor disagree – Agree – Strongly agree)

Change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviours[7]. Supervisors rated their subordinates' voice behaviour by using the 4-item change-oriented subscale of the organizational citizenship behaviour scale (Choi, 2007). Supervisors were prompted with, "thinking about your subordinate, please select the degree to which you agree with each of the following," and rated each item on how much they agree, from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

Voice Quality. Supervisors also rated the quality of their subordinates' voice behaviour on the feasibility subscale of the unpublished voice quality scale (Bryckman & Raver, 2016). Supervisors read the prompt "thinking about times where this person has made suggestions or offered new ideas at work. Would you say that they usually…" and then rated each item from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Demographics.
        Age
"What's your age?" __

        Sex
"What's your gender? (please select all that apply)
1. Male__
2. Female__
3. Trans*__

        Job Status
"What is your job status?" (*3-5 for study 1 only*)

---

[7] The change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviour and voice quality scales were captured for purposes outside of the thesis.

1. Employed full-time __
2. Employed part-time __

Tenure (in years)
"How long have (were) you been at your current (most recent) job? (in years)" __

Job Role
"What is (was) your role in this job?" _____

Industry
"What kind of organization do (did) you (most recently) work for?" _____

Appendix G

Unidimensional factor loadings of the Follower Political Knowledge Scale

Items	Factor Loading
1. How qualified my supervisor is to do his or her job	.67
2. What education or experience my supervisor has that helps him or her deal with his or her expectations	.63
3. The pressure my supervisor faces to succeed day-to-day	.70
4. What kinds of tasks or interactions energize my supervisor	.66
5. Which of their employees stresses my supervisor out	.57
6. Who my supervisor dislikes working with the most	.53
7. Who my supervisor likes to work with the most	.63
8. The formal job demands my supervisor has to meet	.73
9. The demands my supervisor is under	.74
10. The targets or goals my supervisor has been assigned to accomplish	.69
11. Which parts of my supervisor's job he or she finds the most invigorating	.68
12. Which parts of my supervisor's job he or she derives the most meaning from	.71
13. Whose words and actions my supervisor pays close attention to	.70
14. Who my supervisor spends the most time with	.61
15. Whose opinions my supervisor relies on	.69
16. What is expected of my supervisor by his or her superior	.74
17. My supervisor's responsibilities	.70
18. What kinds of experience my supervisor brings into his or her job	.73
19. What it takes for my supervisor to do his or her job on a day-to-day basis	.74
20. The things that motivate my supervisor (e.g., energy, drive, expertise) to do his or her job	.73
21. Who my supervisor gossips with	.43
22. Which of my supervisor's employees' are hardest to manage	.60
23. Who my supervisor gets along with at work	.65

Note: All factor loadings significant at $p < .001$.

Appendix H

Summary of follower political knowledge scale development

The development of the follower political knowledge scale began shortly after the idea of follower political knowledge was conceived and refined in a fall 2014 seminar course on effective followership. Scale development, led by Drs. Lukas Neville and Nick Turner, officially began in the summer of 2015 and was completed in the winter of 2016. Over this time period, a total of seven studies were conducted. In general, the scale development occurred over three stages.

The first stage involved manufacturing a large list of survey items. Items were conceived based on theoretical and empirical grounds. More specifically, we ran two qualitative studies from both the employee and supervisor perspective. In the employee study, they were asked what it was about their supervisor that they knew but others did not know or understand, and why. In the supervisor study, they were asked one of two open-ended questions: a) what was it that a particular employee knew about them that others did not and why, and b) what was it that others knew that a particular employee did not know and why? After producing a long list of items based on these studies and our theoretical development, graduate students in management were asked to vet these items for clarity and match towards the working definition of follower political knowledge.

The second stage involved subjecting the surviving list of items to split-half exploratory factor analysis. This further reduced the items and an initial factor structure emerged. Following the structure suggested in our exploratory factor analysis, we ran a confirmatory factor analysis on a new sample. Unfortunately, poor model-fit forced us to reevaluate the model structure. Instead of the three-factor model, we decided to mirror our theoretical four-factor model and this improved model-fit substantially. To ensure that the change in fit-indices was not due to bias or chance, we ran another confirmatory factor analysis on a new sample (the sample from study 1 in this thesis). Again, model-fit indices were much closer to ideal than the previously suggested model structure.

The third stage of the follower political knowledge scale development was concerned with validity testing. We examined a host of theoretically related variables to follower political knowledge to test convergent validity, including political skill, political will, cognitive flexibility, perspective-taking, leader-member exchange, frequency of interactions, task independence, and dyad tenure. We also examined the predictive validity that follower political knowledge has on employee proactivity. Further, a unique contribution of follower political knowledge in comparison to or beyond its political precursors on tenure and proactivity was found.

A conference paper was written to describe this process in far greater detail and is available upon request. The paper will be presented at the Academy of Management in Anaheim, California on August 9th, 2016.

Appendix I

Rationale for replacing actively open-minded thinking

The choice to replace the variable of actively open-minded thinking (AOMT) came after deliberating over the findings from a pilot test that occurred during the political knowledge scale development process. The results showed that AOMT was unrelated to political knowledge and showed weak negative correlations with other variables tied to political knowledge. As a consequence of these findings, critical assessment was required.

Before determining whether it would be useful to keep, remove, or replace actively open-minded thinking, it was necessary to return to the scarce literature that has captured this variable. As was noted in the proposal, AOMT was shown to increase information acquisition and information accuracy (Haran, Ritov, & Mellers, 2013). Based on these findings, I reasoned that it would play a role, as a form of cognitive flexibility, in the acquisition and accuracy in interpreting political knowledge. Indeed, recent research has shown a link between actively open-minded thinking and knowledge of global politics and current affairs (Mellers et al., 2015).

However, these findings appear to have a number of potential issues. First, the type of information involved is task-related or impersonal. Second, the sizes of the associations are considered small. Third, among some of the other studies looking at AOMT, there appears to be mixed support for the conclusions drawn by Haran and colleagues (2013), such that AOMT was found to be unrelated to a readiness to learn (Elik, Wiener, & Corkum, 2010) and not related to biology teachers' knowledge of the foundational theory of their field (Deniz, Donnelly, Yilmaz, 2008).

Consequently, to uncover the relationship between a dispositional cognitive style and political knowledge, the cognitive style should at least show a consistent relationship with interpersonal information acquisition. Although AOMT may be an important variable in critical thinking (Pennycook, Cheyne, Barr, Koehler, & Fugelsang, 2014; Stanovich & West, 1997), it would be useful to replace it with a related but different variable that is more established; related in that it has also shown a connection with motivating and increasing information acquisition, but different in that it has shown a consistent connection to gathering information in regards to interpersonal relationships.

Need for cognition, an established and validated measure of cognitive flexibility (Cacioppo, Petty, Feinstein, & Jarvis, 1996) was just that variable. Need for cognition (NFC) is related to information acquisition (Berzonsky & Sullivan, 1992; Cacioppo & Petty, 1984) and a number of interpersonal variables that lead to a greater understanding of others. For instance, those high in need for cognition are less anxious of and more involved in interpersonal interactions (Henningsen & Henningsen, 2004; Wycoff, 1992), and show a capacity to make more nuanced attributions for human behaviour (Fletcher, Danilovies, Fernandez, Peterson, & Reeder, 1986; Petty & Jarvis, 1996). In addition, those higher in NFC tend to have a greater need to control their environment (Thompson, Chaiken, & Hazelwood, 1993), which might explain the motivations towards interpersonal behaviour and practice in understanding others. Therefore, I have chosen to replace AOMT with the related but different and more established NFC.

Appendix J

Study 2. Recruitment procedures

Study 2 required extensive recruitment efforts. There were several strategies that went into finding willing supervisor and employee pairs to participate in the study. These strategies included the snowball method, appealing to personal and professional networks, and going in-person from one organization to another.

Snowball method. The snowball method is when a researcher recruits an individual (step 1), who in turn recruits another individual (step 2). In my case, there was another step involved. Step 2 individuals were asked to recruit their supervisor or employee (step 3). In step 1, I approached 13 business administration classes that offered bonus marks for participating in research. I made a brief pitch prior to the classes beginning and handed out a sign-up sheet where the students provided their name and email to register for a snowball survey. The snowball survey gave each student the option of providing contact information for up to five working adults and also had the option to provide their own contact information if they wished to participate.

One hundred sixty-four students completed the snowball survey, providing 580 contacts or 3.5 contacts on average. Each working adult was contacted with an invitation to participate and the request to provide contact information for either a supervisor or employee. There was a response rate of 22%. The supervisors and employees of those responding working adults were then invited to participate in the study. Upon receiving confirmation (76% response rate), both the original working adults and their supervisor or employee were then sent the survey link. Of the pairs that confirmed their willingness to participate, the completion rate was 94%.

Personal and professional networks. The next strategy for recruiting participants was appealing to personal networks, both my own and my advisor, Dr. Lukas Neville. This strategy involved posting invitations on Facebook, Twitter, and LinkedIn. From this strategy, we received 9 willing participants, who in turn recruited their supervisor or subordinate.

Along with our own social networks, we sought the help of the Young Associates at the Asper School of Business. The Young Associates is a network of young business professionals associated with the business school. An invitation was drafted and attached to their e-newsletter. Unfortunately this appeal resulted in no responses.

In-person pitches. The final strategy involved going from business to business in search of potential supervisor and employee pairs. Diverse business regions were selected to approach (e.g., Downtown core and surrounding region, Pembina Highway, etc.), to avoid retrieving a sample from a homogenous industry (e.g., retail only). Once the strategy was established, myself and a research assistant began recruitment. Most businesses on our selected route were entered unless a clear no-solicitation policy was posted or if the business was overwhelmed with customers. In total, we approached 296 organizations in 9 days, retrieved 119 sign-ups (40% success rate) and left invitations with the remainder of the businesses. Supervisor and employee pairs that signed up were then sent links to the study. Of those who signed up, 66% of the dyads completed the surveys.