

Innovations

Mitigating the Negative Effect of Perceived Organizational Politics on Organizational Citizenship Behavior: The Moderating Role of Political Skill in Ethiopian Federal Public Service Organizations

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to examine the effect of perceived organizational politics on organizational citizenship behavior through the moderating role of political skill. An explanatory research design and quantitative approach were employed. In the Ethiopian public service organization context, data were collected using a standard questionnaire from 321 respondents. The present study used uncertainty management theory to underpin the mechanism how political skill moderates perceived organizational Politics and organizational Citizenship Behavior. To test hypotheses, the study employed structural equation modeling using AMOS software version 26. The findings of the study revealed that perceived organizational politics have a negative effect on organizational citizenship behavior. In addition, political skill has a positive effect on organizational citizenship behavior. Furthermore, the finding reveals that political skill moderated the effect of perceived organizational politics on organizational citizenship behavior.

Key words: *Perceptions of organizational politics, Organizational citizenship behavior, Political skill, Federal Public service organizations, Ethiopia.*

1. Introduction

Since the 1960s, organizational politics has been a prominent issue in organizational management studies (Kimura, 2012). There is no organization on earth that does not have to deal with politics only that the degree varies from one organization to another (Wangui, 2014). Scholars have characterized the organizational politics research base as vibrant, very important, widely studied, and a field of fruitful academic writing (Hochwarter et al., 2020). There are different approaches to studying organizational politics. This study focused on perceptions of organizational politics. Lewin's (1936) idea that people react based on their perceptions of reality rather than on objective reality was the foundation of the perceptions of organizational politics approach (Kimura, 2012). For most employees within an organization, and indeed for the public in general, what determines an individual's reaction to a particular situation is undoubtedly their perception rather than the reality of that situation per se (Cheng et al., 2019). Decades of empirical research have indicated that perceptions of organizational politics in the workplace have received negative responses from employees (Chang et al., 2009). A recent survey of 2,700 individuals from over 100 countries indicated that members of the modern employee's view organizational politics as one of the top barriers to employee performance (HBR Ascend Staff, 2019).

Previous researchers, like Kacmar et al. (2013), demonstrated that the result of the perception of organizational politics depends on the level of political skill possessed by the employees. According to Kacmar et al. (2013), employees with high levels of political skill do not view a political environment as a threat but rather as an opportunity to utilize their skills. Whereas employees with low political skills view the existence of organizational politics negatively, as they lack the sufficient resources to control the uncertainty manifested in high-political environments. Ferris et al. (2007) also discussed that political skill is necessary for employees to be effective in organizations characterized by a political environment.

2. Review of Literature

2.1. Perceptions of Organizational Politics

There are three approaches that dominate the literature on organizational politics: (1) studies on influence tactics and actual political behavior (Kipnis et al., 1980); (2) studies on perceptions of

organizational politics (Gandz & Murray, 1980); and (3) studies on political skill (Ferris et al., 2007). This study focused on perceptions of organizational politics. Lewin's (1936) idea that people react based on their perceptions of reality rather than on objective reality was the foundation of the perceptions of organizational politics approach (Kimura, 2012). For most employees within an organization, and indeed for the public in general, what determines an individual's reaction to a particular situation is undoubtedly their perception rather than the reality of that situation per se (Cheng et al., 2019). Decades of empirical research have indicated that perceptions of organizational politics in the workplace have received negative responses from employees (Chang et al., 2009). Some researchers also argued that if the organizational environment is political, employees' investment in the organization becomes more risky (Hochwarter et al., 2003). In a political environment, rewards tend to be allocated based on informal power structures rather than on contributions or efforts, and the rules may change from one day to the next (Kimura, 2012). Because of this uncertainty, individuals are less likely to be confident that their efforts will produce any outcomes beneficial to themselves (Kacmar et al., 2013). Therefore, reducing employees' perceptions of organizational politics should be viewed as an important issue both in the theory and practice of organizational management (Kimura, 2012).

2.2. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organ (1988) first introduced the idea of organizational citizenship behavior, which he described as "individual behavior that is discretionary and not explicitly recognized by the formal reward system." This type of behavior refers to additional tasks people do at work that benefit the organization, even though they are not in the job description and are difficult to enforce (Profili et al., 2016). The theoretical roots of organizational citizenship behaviors can be traced back to Barnard (1938), who proposed the concept of "willingness to cooperate" to refer to a willingness to commit oneself to an organization to reach organizational goals (Kayaalp et al., 2021). In relation to this, Katz (1964) insisted that for an organization to function effectively and survive, it needed employees with cooperation behaviors that exceeded the worker's formal duty description. Williams & Anderson (1991) organize organizational citizenship behavior into categories on the basis of the direction of the behavior. Specifically, organizational citizenship

behaviors directed toward the help of other individuals are named OCBI, while organizational citizenship behaviors directed toward the benefit of the organization are known as OCBO. A review of the literature shows organizational citizenship behaviors positively influence the success of an organization by improving productivity, effective use of resources, improved teamwork, an improved work environment, employee retention, performance stability, and the ability to adapt to environmental change (de Geus et al., 2020). Organizational citizenship behavior has been associated with improving public service, removing bureaucratic obstacles, and improving team performance (Beeri et al., 2013). Different research has shown that there are relationships between organizational citizenship behaviors in the public sector and general citizenship behaviors in areas such as participation in civic life or loyalty and trust shown toward social and political institutions (Cohen, 2016).

2.3. Political skill

Political skill refers to the ability to understand others at work and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance organizational objectives (Ahearn et al., 2004). The control an employee has over their work environment, including how they perceive and react to the workplace political environment, is dependent on the employee's political skills (Andrews et al., 2009). Politically skilled employees can maneuver political organizations, which enables them to increase favorable outcomes and decrease unfavorable ones (Crawford et al., 2019). Politically skilled employees are able to more effectively navigate political environments, as their heightened understanding of people and environments provides them with insight into what performance is necessary to achieve desired outcomes in political contexts (Kacmar et al., 2013). Politically skilled employees, due to their ability, are likely to view organizational political situations as less threatening and neutralize their impact (Crawford et al., 2019). Previous organizational politics scholars viewed political skill as an essential asset for being effective (Kacmar et al., 2013). Ferris et al. (2005) explicitly described the characteristics of politically skilled individuals and how these individuals, at all levels throughout the organization, can influence others in order to achieve organizational outcomes. Those who are politically skilled are socially aware, are able to network with others effectively, can understand situations, and are able to adapt their actions appropriately in the workplace (Ferris et al., 2007).

2.4. Hypothesis Development

The effects of high (low) levels of perceptions of organizational politics are decreased (increased) organizational citizenship behavior (Byrne, 2005). Moreover, significant association was observed in a way that higher perceptions of organizational politics tend to reduce citizenship behavior (e.g., Khan et al., 2019; Obedgiu et al., 2020; Vigoda Gadot, 2007). In light of the above theory and empirical evidence, the researcher suggests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Perceptions of Organizational Politics have a negative effect on Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

In the literature, several scholars have discussed that political skill is necessary for individuals to be effective in organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Bing et al., 2011; Kacmar et al., 2013; Crawford et al., 2019). Bing et al. (2011) stated that politically skilled employees are able to obtain higher organizational citizenship behavior and manage their interactions through methods that promote the accomplishment of organizational goals. In light of the above reasons, the researcher suggests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Political skill has a positive effect on Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

According to uncertainty management theory (UMT), the influence of fairness is stronger in conditions of high uncertainty (Lind & van den Bos, 2002). More specifically, concerns about fairness become more noticeable to people when they face uncertainty, and therefore people tend to react more negatively to unfair events in uncertain environments (Tangirala & Alge, 2006). Therefore, employees need political skills to manage the uncertain environment (Kacmar et al., 2013). It means that when employees have good political skills, their organizational citizenship behavior will increase (Feris et al., 2007). Employees low in political skill view the existence of perceptions of organizational politics negatively, as they lack the sufficient resources to control the uncertainty manifested in high political environments (Kacmar et al., 2013). In light of the above argument, the researcher suggests the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Political Skill can moderate the effect of Perceptions of Organizational Politics on Organizational Citizenship Behavior.

2.5. Conceptual Framework

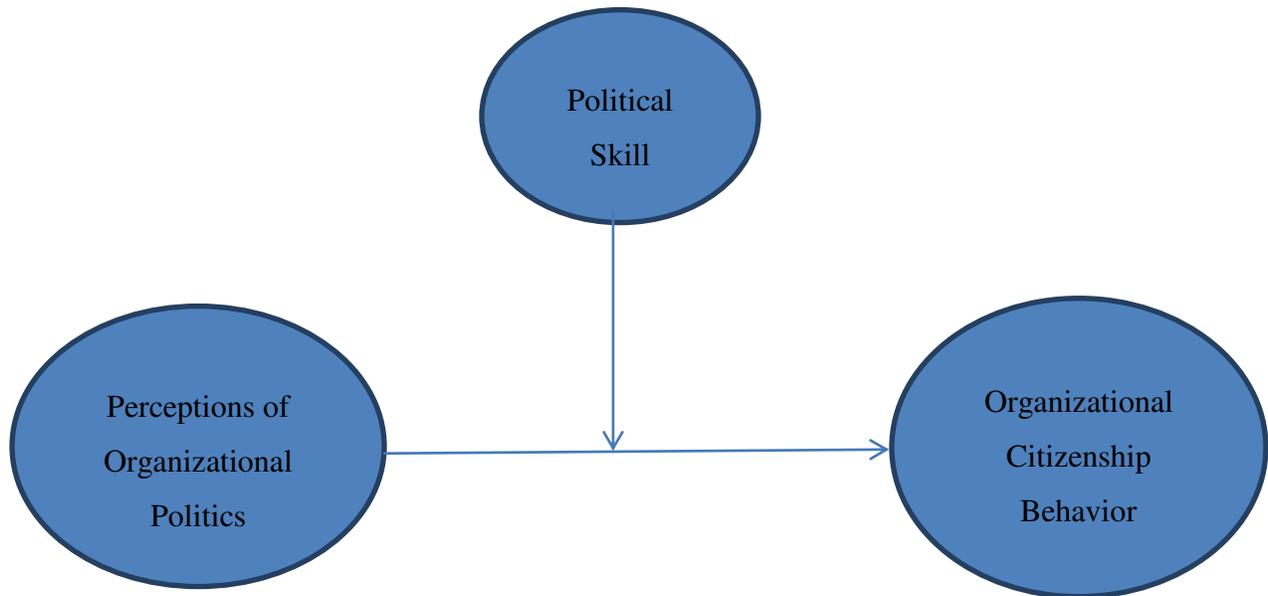


Figure 1: Conceptual framework

3. Research Methodology

3.1 Research Setting and Sample Procedures

Ethiopian federal public service organizations were the subject of the study. The headquarters of every federal public service organization are located in Addis Abeba, the Ethiopian capital. Public service organizations in Ethiopia are organized at the federal, regional, and local levels (Tensay & Singh, 2020). According to Tensay and Singh (2020), federal public service organizations have a macro-level impact on the social, economic, and political activities of the country. This argument led to the present study's emphasis on federal public service organizations. A multi-stage random sampling procedure was employed, considering the nature of sectors as strata. The federal public service organizations were first divided into three sectors (strata), and then two organizations were chosen at random from each sector. The sample organizations were chosen at random using this procedure: The researcher initially numbered all organizations in each category on a piece of paper, then mixed these slips and picked one slip at a time. According to Duressa & Debela (2014), this study took 30% of the total organizations,

demonstrating a reasonable representation of the population. In the second phase, simple random sampling techniques are employed to select the respondents.

The sample size was calculated using the formula developed by Mugenda at a 95% confidence level, as shown in the following equation.

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + (N * e^2)}$$

Where; N= population size;

n= desired sample size

e= tolerance at desired level of confidence

$$n = \frac{2523}{1 + (2523 * (0.05)^2)} = \frac{2523}{7.3075} = 345$$

The sample units are frontline employees. Based on the above formula, the sample size of the study was 345. However, Israel (1992) suggested that researchers could add a 30% sample size to minimize the non-response rate. Therefore, the study used 449 samples. Moreover, regarding the structural equation model, sample size determination is critical because it is a large sample size statistical technique (Collier, 2020). According to Collier, a large sample size is necessary to improve the statistical power and trustworthiness of the results.

3.2 Measurements of variables

Perceptions of organizational politics were measured by a six-item scale developed by Hochwarter et al. (2003). Whereas political skill was measured using a six-item scale developed by Ahearn et al. (2004). Perceptions of organizational politics and political skill measurements were employed in public service organizations by Kacmar et al. (2013). Organizational citizenship behavior was measured by 16 items developed by Lee & Allen (2002). This scale has been employed by recent researchers in public service organizations (E.g., Khattak & O'Connor, 2021; Bottomley et al., 2016). All items are measured using a Likert-type scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

4. Data analysis and Results

Once data were collected using a standard questionnaire, the study employed descriptive analysis to evaluate the level of perceived organizational politics, political skill, and organizational

citizenship behavior using the mean and standard deviation; correlation analysis was also made to explore the association between the study variables, whereas the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) method was employed to examine the direct effect and moderation effect. The statistical tools employed for this study were SPSSplus AMOS software Version 26. AMOS is the most user friendly of all the SEM software programs (Collier, 2020).

4.1 Characteristics of Respondents

The demographic profile data (n = 321) result indicated that the majority of the respondents are male, married, hold bachelor's degrees, and are experienced. Specifically, Table 1 revealed that, of the 321 respondents, 53.6% are male employees. The highest numbers of respondents' ages were within the ranges of 31–40 years (38.3%). The next was within 41–50 years (29.3%). The third of them were within the 21–30 year age group (24%), and the rest of them were within the 51–60 year age group (8.4%). In terms of educational level, over half of them (54.8%) acquired a first-degree certificate. Those who obtained master's degree status were 35.2%, and diplomas made up 10%. The highest number of employees regarding experience was between 6–10 years (28.7%), while the least were those who worked within 1–5 years (2.2%). Generally, the study can conclude that respondents are representative of the population in terms of gender, age, education, and experience.

Table-1: Demographic Information

Variable	Option	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	172	53.6
	Female	149	46.4
	Total	321	100
Age	21 - 30 years	77	24.0
	31-40 years	94	38.3
	41 - 50 years	99	29.3
	51 - 60 years	27	8.4
	Total	321	100
Marriage	Single	71	22.1
	Married	233	72.6
	Divorced	17	5.3
	Total	321	100
	Diploma	32	10.0
	Degree	176	54.8

Educational Level-	Master	113	35.2
	PhD	0	0
	Total	321	100
Tenure of organization	1-5 year	7	2.2
	6-10 year	92	28.7
	11-15 year	75	23.4
	16-20 year	78	24.3
	Above 21 year	69	21.5
	Total	321	100

Source: field data (2023)

4.2 Descriptive and Correlation Analysis

Table 2 shows descriptive statistics and correlations among the study variables. This table reveals that the correlations between the research variables were in the expected direction. Perceptions of organizational politics were negatively correlated with organizational citizenship behavior ($r=-0.72, p<0.05$). Political skill was positively correlated with organizational citizenship behavior ($r= 0.71, p<0.01$).

Table-2: Descriptive and Correlation table

Study Variables	Mean	SD	OCB	POP	PS
OCB	2.80	0.78	1		
POP	2.94	0.95	-.720**	1	
PS	2.86	0.94	.766**	.740**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Note: OCB= organizational citizenship behavior, POP= perceptions of organizational politics, PS= political skill

4.3. Preliminary Analysis

Before running directly into CFA operations, the present study made a preliminary analysis of the accuracy of the data. It is widely documented that data preparation and screening are critical issues in structural equation modeling (SEM) (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, this study examined the missing data. There were 8 missing values in variable screening. More precisely, OCB-5 and POP-5 items have one missing value each. OCB-3 has two missing values. And POP-1 has four missing values. At the end, all missing values were treated by employing the imputation (series mean) method.

The study employed Mahalanobi's distance to identify the potential outliers. A good rule of thumb is that if the p_1 and p_2 values are less than 0.001, these are cases denoted as outliers (Collier, 2020). Therefore, seven (7) observations were less than 0.001, so they are removed from the dataset. Regarding the normality test, the present study calculated the skewness and kurtosis, and it was found that the values are within the normal range, indicating there is no problem with the normality of the data. Lastly, the issue of multicollinearity was examined using the VIF and tolerance test, and it was found that there is no multicollinearity concern. Generally, the current study discovered that data preparation and screening were properly analyzed and that the variables were eligible to enter into SEM analysis.

To address the common method bias, this study used Harman's one-factor test. Harman's one-factor test can be performed with confirmatory factor analysis, where all indicators are purposely loaded on one factor to determine model fit and are considered to have no common bias if the model is unfit (Collier, 2020). Accordingly, all indicators are loaded into one latent variable (i.e., Servant leadership in this case), and the result revealed that there is no common method bias in the model (CMIN/DF = 7.360, CFI = 0.792, TLI = 0.772, NFI = 0.768, GFI = 0.493, RMSEA = 0.141).

4.4. Evaluation of the Measurement Model

The current study hypothesized a three-factor measurement model (perceptions of organizational politics, organizational citizenship behavior, and Political skill) aimed at validating the appropriate fitness of the proposed model. In relation to the factor measurement model, previous studies like Hameed Al-ali et al. (2019) and Walumbwa et al. (2010) argued that organizational citizenship behavior was considered the first-order factor. Likewise, Crawford et al. (2019) and Kacmar et al. (2013) discussed perceptions of organizational politics and political skill as first-order factors.

In SEM analysis, the measurement model is the first stage to be analyzed with the objective of testing the construct validity (convergent and discriminant validity) of the study variables (Hair et al., 2010). To assess convergent validity, factor loading, average variance extraction, and

composite reliability were considered (Hair et al., 2010). The acclaimed values for factor loading are supposed to be greater than 0.70, for AVE at least 0.5, and for CR greater than 0.7 (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, the CFA result of each construct is presented in Table 3, which displays that the factor loading of each indicator is beyond the threshold. Moreover, the AVE of each variable was above 0.5, and that of CR was greater than 0.7. The second objective of the measurement model is to test discriminant validity. Discriminant validity is the degree to which a variable is strictly different from others (Hair et al., 2010). To verify the discriminant validity, an overall CFA was conducted by combining the three constructs together (presented in Figure 2). The CFA result shows that the overall measurement model was properly fit with the sample data ($\chi^2/df=2.574$; RMR = 0.0263; CFI=0.960; TLI =0.955; and RMSEA =0.070), which are consistent with the fit indices of Hair et al. (2010). Model fit improvement was conducted in the study. The first improvement was that two items (i.e., OCBI-3 and OCBO-3) from the indicators of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) were removed due to low factor loadings (< 0.70). According to Hair et al. (2010), factor loadings greater than 0.70 are better at explaining unobserved constructs in the study. The second improvement was that modification indices were checked and error terms were correlated. As shown in Figure 2, the factor loading of each indicator was positively and significantly related to the latent constructs.

Table-3: Loadings, Reliability, and Convergent Validity Results

Construct	Items	Factor loading	AVE	CR
	OCBO8	.888		
	OCBO7	.897		
	OCBO6	.901		
	OCBO5	.897		
	OCBO4	.873		
	OCBO2	.897		
	OCBO1	.886		
	OCBI8	.913		
OCB	OCBI7	.906	0.982	0.798
	OCBI6	.870		
	OCBI5	.923		
	OCBI4	.890		
	OCBI2	.865		
	OCBI1	.909		
	POP6	.830		

	POP5	.875		
	POP4	.887		
POP	POP3	.925	0.952	0.768
	POP2	.888		
	POP1	.881		
	PS6	.908		
	PS5	.926		
Political skill	PS4	.865	0.964	0.818
	PS3	.909		
	PS2	.867		
	PS1	.910		

Note: OCB= organizational citizenship behavior, POP= perceptions of organizational politics

In the overall measurement model, discriminant validity is established when the square root of AVE for the construct is greater than its correlation with other constructs in the study (Fornell&Larcker, 1981). Therefore, in the present study, discriminant validity was established. The results of discriminant validity are presented in Table 4.

Table -4: Discriminant validity result

	POP	OCB	PS
POP	0.876		
OCB	-0.737	0.893	
PS	-0.802	0.733	0.905

Note: OCB= organizational citizenship behavior, POP= perceptions of organizational politics and PS= political skill.

Source: AMOS Result (2023)

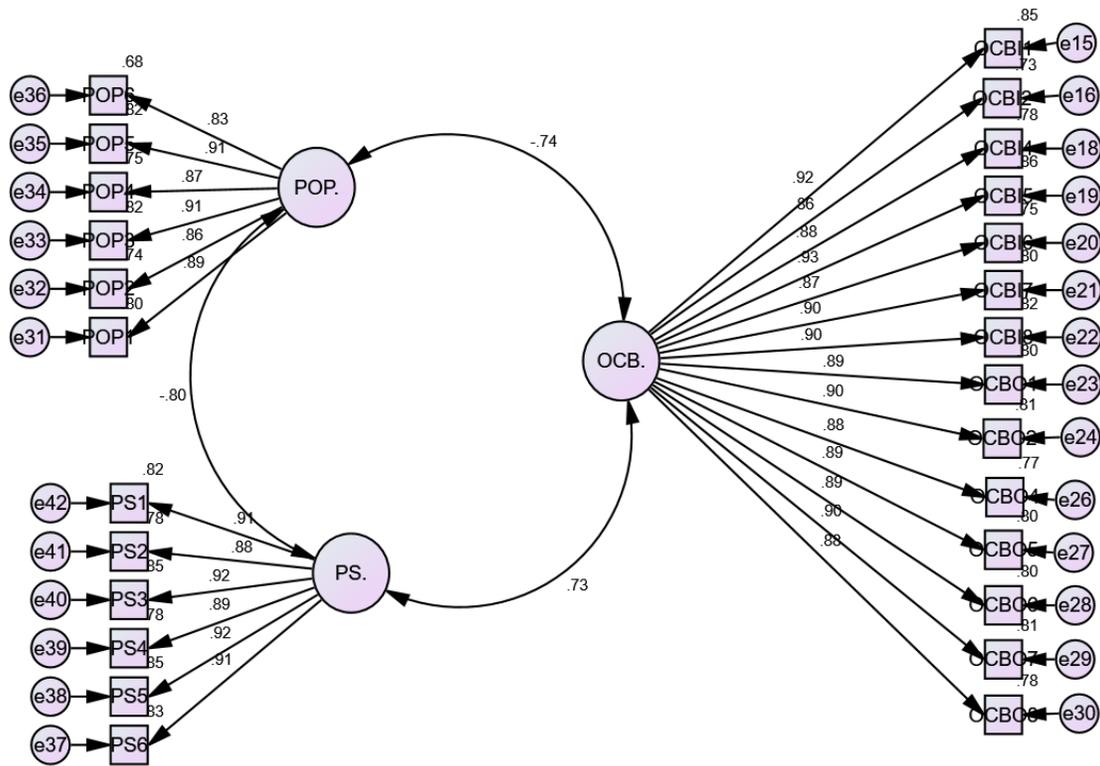


Figure2: Measurement Model

4.5 Evaluation of the Structural Model

The second stage of SEM analysis is evaluating the structural model (Hair et al., 2010). Prior to testing the Hypothesis, first the structural model fitness with the theory was validated based on the fit measurement indices. The resulting model provided a good fit for the data: CMIN/df = 2.406, CFI = 0.949, TLI = 0.944, SRMR = 0.0338, and RMSEA = 0.066. Figure 3 shows the structural model of the moderating effect of political skill between perceptions of organizational politics and organizational citizenship behavior. In this model, political skill, perceptions of organizational politics and the interaction of these two constructs together account for 61% of the variance in organizational citizenship behavior. Without the inclusion of the moderating effect (perceptions of organizational politics → organizational citizenship behavior), the R-square value for organizational citizenship behavior was 0.54. This shows an increase of 7% in variance

explained in the dependent variable (organizational citizenship behavior) when we compare it with the inclusion of the moderating effect.

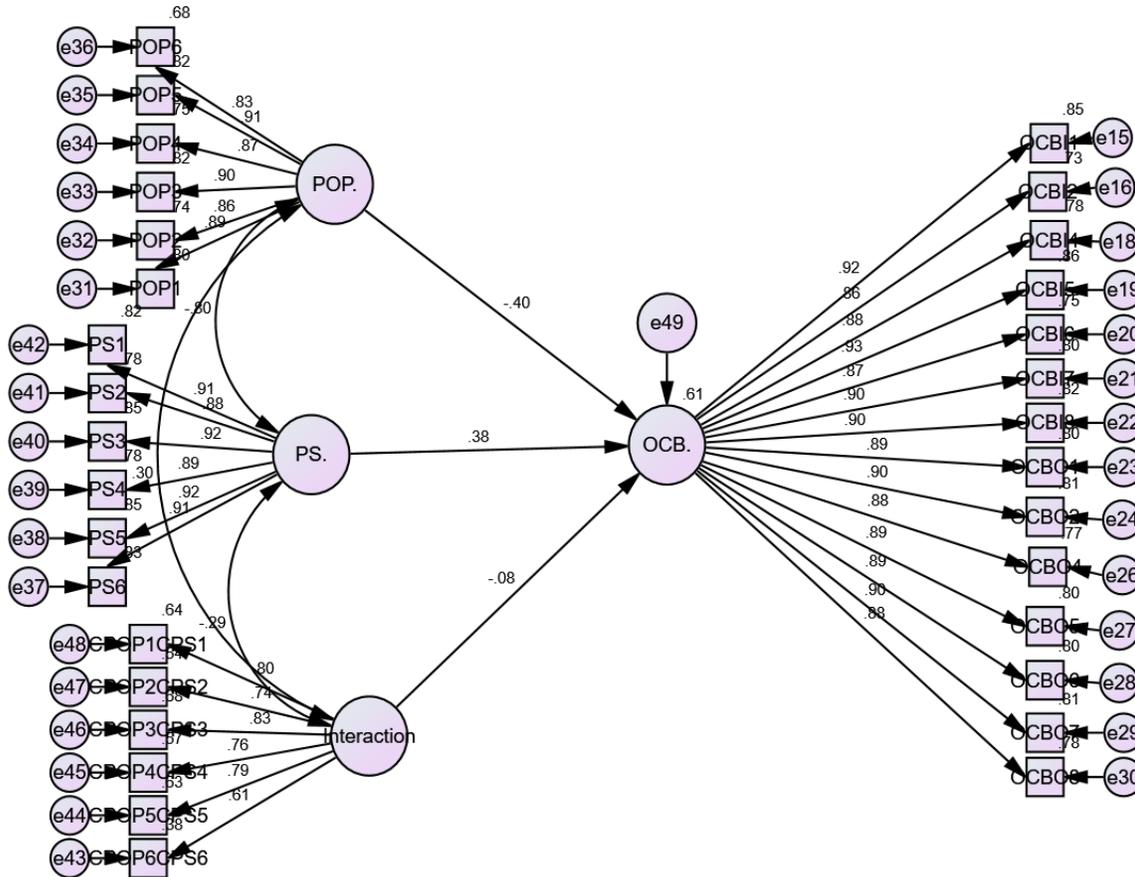


Figure 3: Structural model. Note: OCB= organizational citizenship behavior, POP= perceptions of organizational politics and PS= political skill. Source: AMOS Result (2023)

The results of the slope analysis conducted to better understand the nature of the moderating effects are shown in figure 3. As can be seen in figure 3, the line is much steeper for high political skill; this shows that at a high level of political skill, the effect of perceptions of organizational politics on organizational citizenship behavior is much weaker in comparison to low political skill.

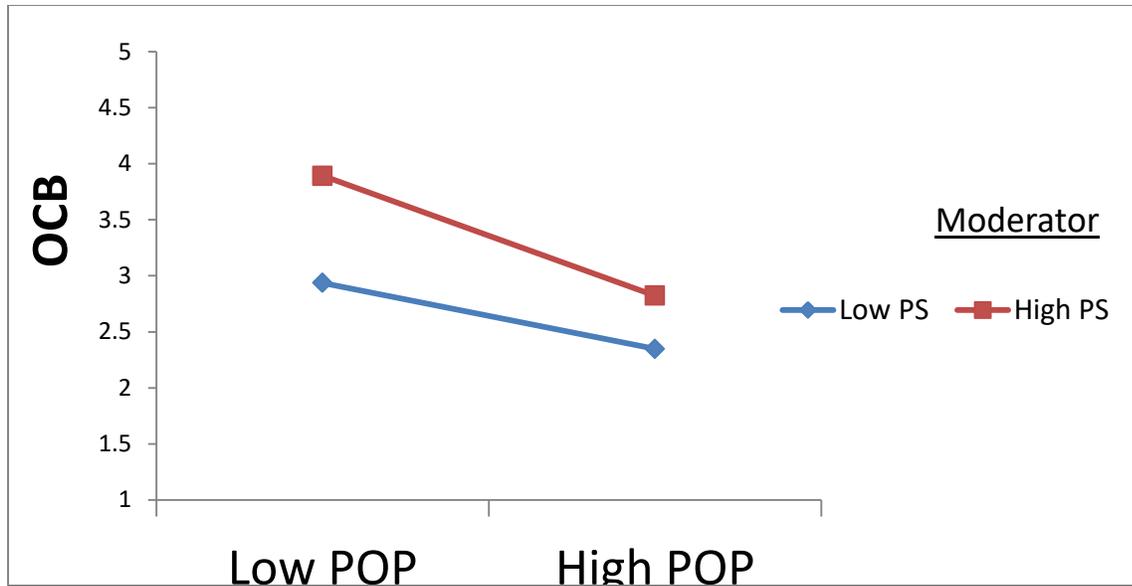


Figure 4: Slope analysis

Note: OCB= organizational citizenship behavior, POP= perceptions of organizational politics and PS= political skill.

4.6. Hypothesis Testing

To test the Hypothesis of the study, it employed SEM. As displayed in Table 5, the SEM analysis result demonstrated that perceptions of organizational politics have a significant negative effect on organizational citizenship behavior ($\beta = -0.415$, $t = -5.869$, $p < 0.05$), supporting *Hypothesis 1*. Similarly, political skill has a significant positive effect on perceptions of organizational politics ($\beta = 0.358$, $t = 5.651$, $p < 0.05$), supporting *Hypothesis 2*. The moderating effect of political skill between perceptions of organizational politics and organizational citizenship behavior was significant ($\beta = -0.12$, $t = -2.056$, $p < 0.05$), supporting *Hypothesis 3*.

Table-5: Moderation Analysis Summary

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
OCB	<---	POP	-.415	.071	-5.869	***
OCB	<---	PS	.358	.063	5.651	***
OCB	<---	Interaction POP*PS	-.120	.058	-2.056	.040

Note: OCB= organizational citizenship behavior, POP= perceptions of organizational politics and PS= political skill.

Source: AMOS Result (2023)

4.7. Discussion

The main objective of the present study is to examine the moderating effect of political skill on perceptions of organizational politics and organizational citizenship behavior. The result showed that political skill moderated the effect of perceptions of organizational politics on organizational citizenship behavior. This study supports the Tripathi et al. (2023) study. Mintzberg (1985) viewed organizations as political arenas, and he suggested that survival and effectiveness in such contexts required political skill. Mintzberg (1985) pointed out that to succeed in the organization, in addition to leaders, general employees should also use political skills for work. If organizations truly are political arenas and inherently social in nature, then employees need social effectiveness skills like political skills in order to successfully interact with and influence others. Beyond general mental ability and hard work, one needs social effectiveness, positioning, and savvy to be an effective organizational performer today. The present researcher argued that, based on uncertainty management theory, the uncertainty feelings would be stronger for those who lacked political skill, as they are less able to manage the uncertainty in a political work environment than those with high political skill. In relation to this, Kacmar et al. (2013) stated that politically skilled individuals are able to navigate political organizations, allowing them to enhance positive outcomes and reduce negative ones. Kacmar and his colleague added that politically skilled individuals do not view political work environments in a negative light but rather as an environment to be managed through the use of political skill. Other researchers also suggested politically skilled employees are able to perform higher OCB and manage their interactions through methods that promote the accomplishment of organizational goals (Bing et al., 2011). Ideally, all organizations would need every employee to give his or her best to the organization so the organization might achieve its strategic goals (Tripathi et al., 2023). The political environment, or at least POP, serves as one such distraction that can detract from the organization's strategic goals (Tripathi et al., 2023). As such, it is critical that organizations address this issue by improving political skills where politics is minimized.

5. Conclusion

Based on its significance to national performance, the current study examined the effect of the moderating role of political skill on perceptions of organizational politics and organizational citizenship behavior in federal public service organizations in Ethiopia. The results of the correlation between perceptions of organizational politics, organizational citizenship behavior, and political skill revealed strong relationships. This implies that perceptions of organizational politics, organizational citizenship behavior, and political skill share many attributes in common, and an increase in the performance of one of them may add to the increment or decrement of another. The study also revealed that the moderation effect was significant. From this result, one may infer that as leaders in federal public service organizations improve employees' political skills in their day-to-day practices, it helps to improve organizational citizenship behavior by reducing perceptions of organizational politics.

6. Implications

6.1. Theoretical implications

This is the first study conducted on the effect of perceptions of organizational politics on organizational citizenship behavior through the moderating role of political skill in Ethiopian cultural settings. The current study also contributed to the literature by employing uncertainty management theory to explain the moderating role of political skill. Therefore, it may help enhance the body of knowledge or literature with regard to the practices and interactions between perceptions of organizational politics, organizational citizenship behavior, and political skill in public service organizations in different contexts.

6.2. Practical Implications

First, perceptions of organizational politics serve as a distraction for public service organizations. Therefore, public service organizations must address this problem by developing a culture where politics is minimal. Second, they could also train employees to avoid getting sucked into the political machinations so they can achieve the highest level of organizational citizenship behavior and contribute to the organization's goals. Third, this study suggests that the public sector should recruit employees who already have good political skills. Fourth, the public sector

could also train individual employees in specific tactics (e.g., social effectiveness, networking skills, apparent sincerity, etc.) to help those with lower levels of political skill enjoy the benefits of having higher levels. Also, employees should be trained to voluntarily participate in different citizenship behaviors.

7. Limitations and Future Research

Despite all the contributions and implications made by the research highlighted above, it also has some limitations. The first is the generalizability of the results; although the researcher tried to capture the maximum number of federal public service organizations operating in Ethiopia, only six were selected. Therefore, in the future, this research can be conducted at all federal public service organizations. Second, this research can be conducted in the future by private organizations as well. Third, the study used cross-sectional research methods to examine the actions of selected variables; hence, researchers could have carried out longitudinal research and come to different conclusions. Fourth, researchers should explore the impact of perceptions of organizational politics on organizational citizenship behavior and reduce the damaging aspects of organizational politics on organizational citizenship behavior by incorporating additional moderator variables. Social intelligence may play the role of a moderator. Social intelligence is one of the most important character strengths to determine, especially for the success of employees in organizations because organizations are social in nature. The usefulness of social intelligence in response to perceptions of organizational politics is unknown. To the best of the present researcher's knowledge, the moderated role of social intelligence between perceptions of organizational politics and organizational citizenship behavior has never been examined previously in any single study. Therefore, conducting a study on social intelligence as a moderator may reveal fresh and novel findings.

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