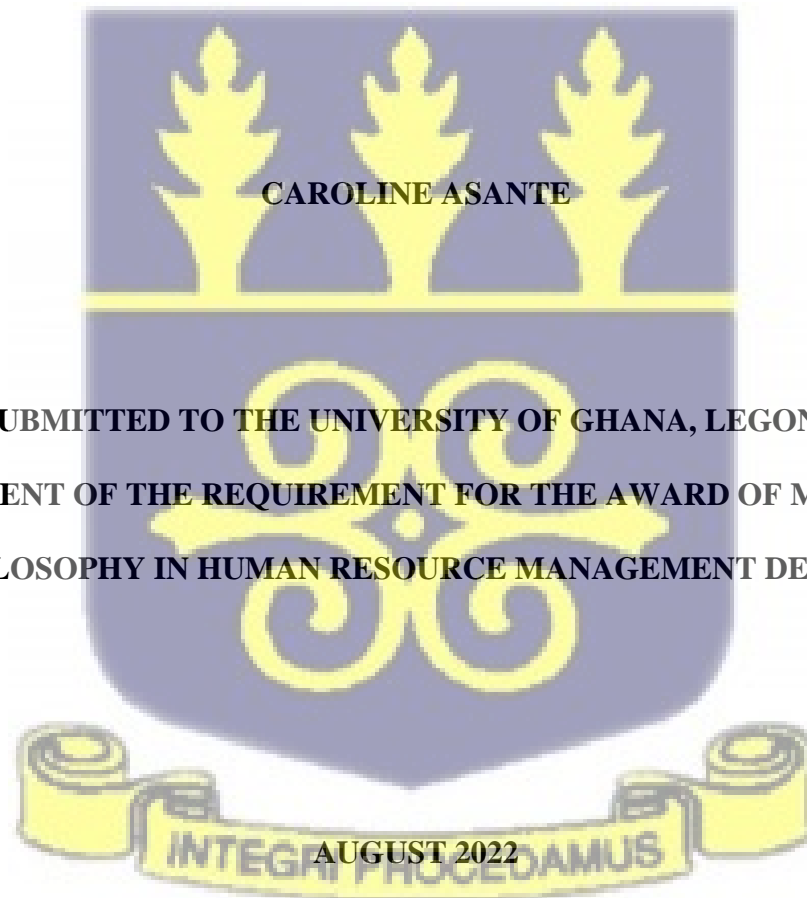


UNIVERSITY OF GHANA BUSINESS SCHOOL

**PERCEPTIONS OF ORGANISATIONAL POLITICS AND LIFE SATISFACTION: THE
MEDIATING ROLES OF JOB SATISFACTION, AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT AND
WORK ENGAGEMENT**



**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON IN PARTIAL
FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF
PHILOSOPHY IN HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT DEGREE**

AUGUST 2022

DECLARATION

I do hereby declare that this work is the result of my own research and has not been presented by anyone for any academic award in this or any other university. All references used in the work have been fully acknowledged.

I bear sole responsibility for any shortcomings.



Caroline Asante

(10525385)



CERTIFICATION

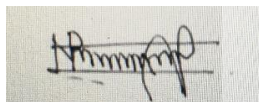
I hereby certify that this thesis was supervised in accordance with laid down procedures by the University.



Professor James B. Abugre
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1ST AUGUST 2022

Date



Dr. Saviour A. Nubuor
(Co-supervisor)

24th AUGUST 2022

Date



DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the Almighty God whose mercies, love, guidance and protection led me through it all. Also, I dedicate this work to my loving husband (Dr. Emmanuel T. Ampofo) and my mother (Mad. Florence Asante) whose investment, support and encouragement saw me through it all.



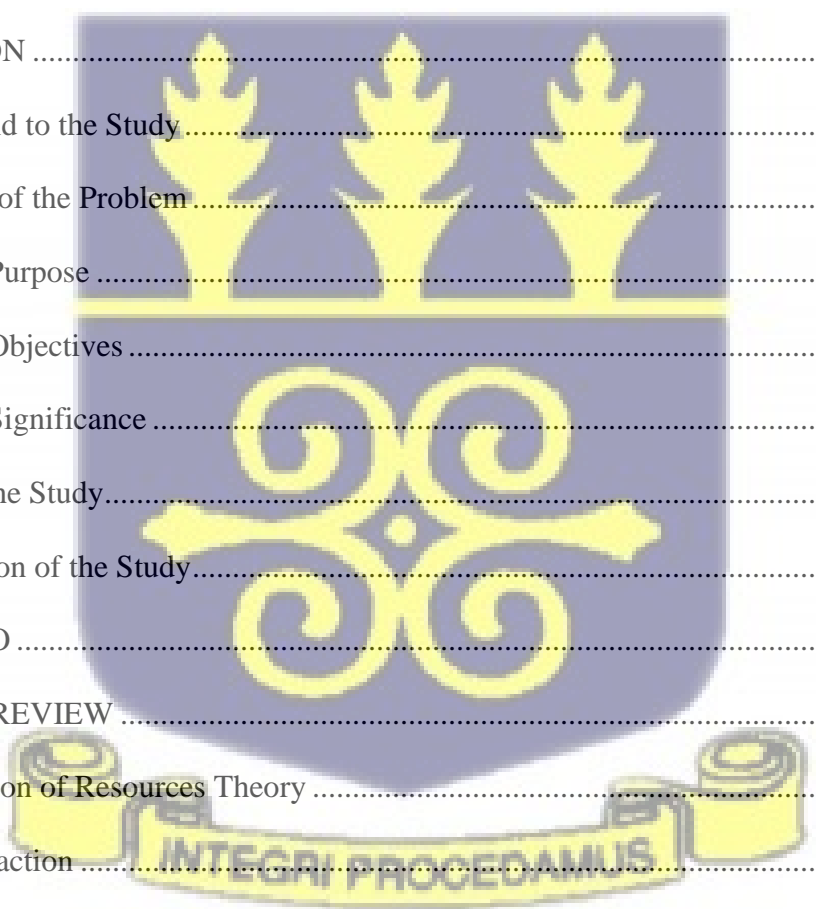
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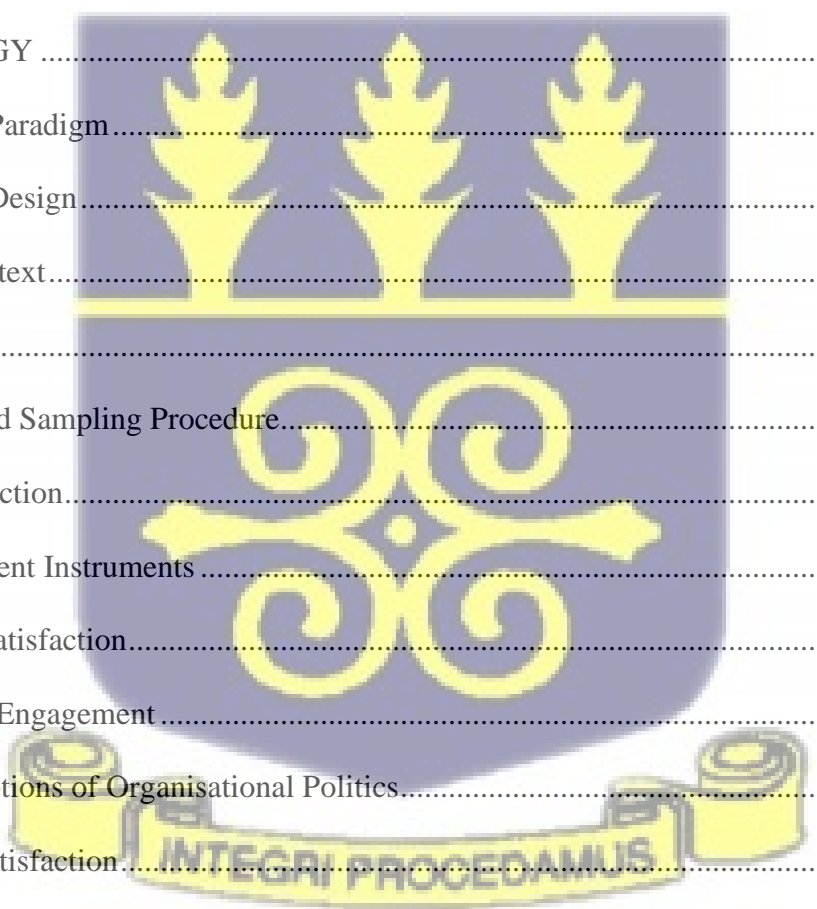


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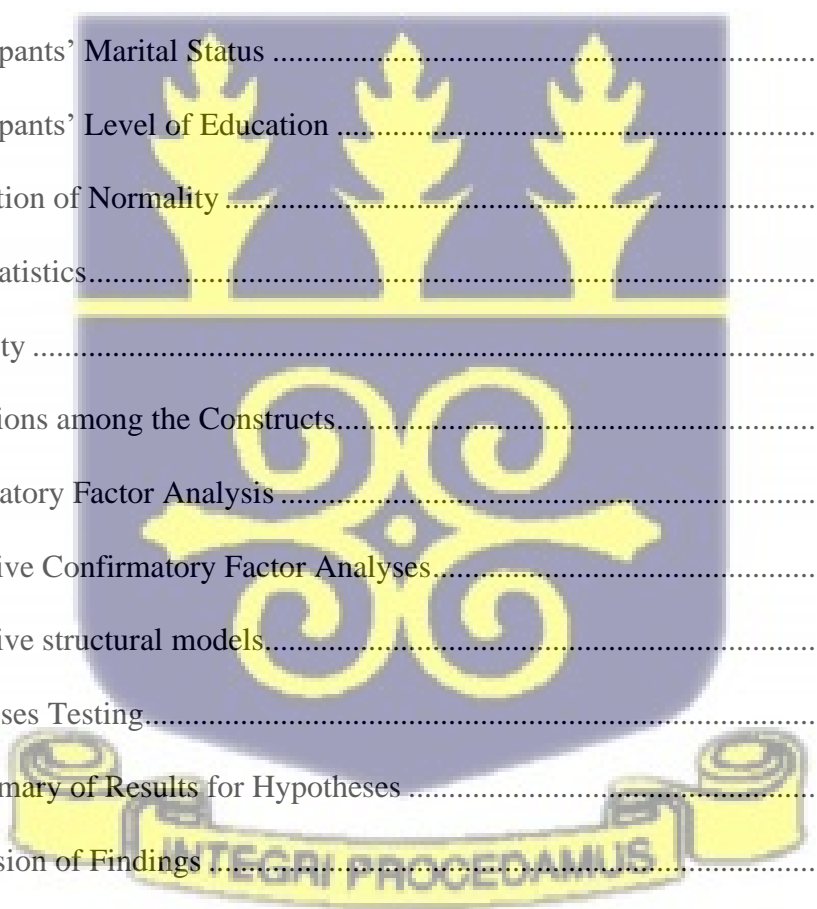
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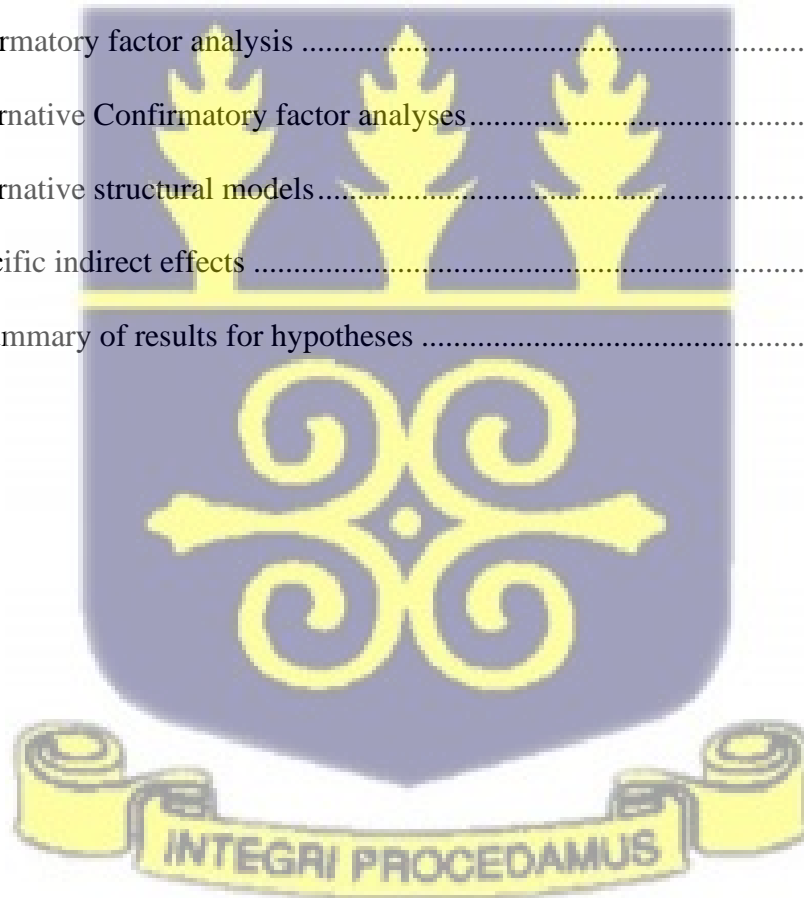


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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the effect of perceptions of organisational politics (POP) on employees' life satisfaction. Additionally, the study was aimed at examining whether job satisfaction, affective commitment, and work engagement mediated the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. This study adopted a quantitative approach and cross-sectional research design. Convenient sampling technique was utilised to draw a sample of 282 employees who work as senior administrators in two selected public universities in Ghana. Data were collected through self-administered questionnaires. Questionnaires were administered at two points in time (Time 1 and Time 2 questionnaires) to participants via a time interval of two weeks. Hypotheses were tested via structural equation modeling. Analyses revealed support for all the hypotheses. Specifically, the findings showed that POP was negatively influenced life satisfaction. Furthermore, POP predicted life satisfaction via affective commitment, work engagement, and job satisfaction. The study is important because it is the first to identify POP as an antecedent of life satisfaction. In addition, the findings of the study extend our knowledge on POP and life satisfaction through three mediating mechanisms. Management of universities can enhance employees' work and non-work outcomes through practices that diminish POP. These practices may include providing a clear definition for performance appraisal guidelines to reduce ambiguity, and incentivizing team efforts rather than personal efforts.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Political behaviours are naturally part of an organisation and are triggered by an individual's self-interest to obtain resources at the expense of others (Beugré & Liverpool, 2006; Rosen et al., 2009; Yuan et al., 2016). This is because organisations are arena in which people have competing interests and are usually motivated to satisfy their own interest (Quick & Nelson, 2009). Organisational politics refers to “a social influence process in which behaviour is strategically designed to maximise short-term or long-term self-interest, which is either consistent with or at the expense of others' interests” (Ferris et al., 1989, p. 145). Politics in organisations can be perceived or real (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991; Ferris et al., 2019). However, researchers have considered politics in the workplace as a subjective reality, rather than an impartial state (Ferris et al., 1989; Hochwarter et al., 2020). Perception of organisational politics (POP) are different from actual organisational politics, but assessment of perceptions is valuable, since perceptions of reality usually trigger a person's behaviours (Ferris et al., 1989).

Additionally, organisational politics can be perceived as being functional or dysfunctional, but depends on the subjectivity of an individual, because individuals who benefit from organisational politics may perceive it as functional, while individuals who do not benefit from political behaviours may perceive it as detrimental (Drory & Vigoda-Gadot, 2010; Maslyn et al., 2017). Few past studies have focused on the positive aspect of organisational politics (Eldor, 2017; Fedor et al., 2008). Whereas the dysfunctional aspect organisational politics has received significant research attention over two decades (e.g., Crawford et al., 2019; Kumar & Ghadially, 1989;

Lampaki & Papadakis, 2018; Vigoda, 2000). Studies have shown that perceptions of dysfunctional political activities in the workplace have adverse impact on important work outcomes and employee attitudes, including reduced task performance, job stress, and increased turnover intentions (e.g., Abbas et al., 2014; Meisler et al., 2019; Vigoda, 2000, 2002). This suggests that prior research has extensively concentrated on how POP influences the well-being of the organisation. An empirical work that links POP to subjective well-being, which comprises affectivity traits and life satisfaction, is scarce in the relevant literature. It is important for organisations to pay utmost attention to improving the well-being of employees, because employees form important stakeholders of an organisation, whose effort and competence are essential for achieving organisational success and more importantly remaining relevant especially in a fiercely competitive industry (Haider et al., 2019). The stakeholder theory suggests that employers have the responsibility to enhance the well-being of the people who work for them (Carroll, 1999). Thus, it is important for employers to create a work environment that enhances their employees' well-being. In this study, I focus on life satisfaction, since it is the most stable component of subjective well-being (Margolis et al., 2019). Moreover, work resources are more likely to spill over into an individual's life satisfaction than into his/her affectivity traits (Wolfram & Gratton, 2014).

As noted above, life satisfaction is an important component of employees' subjective well-being (Erdogan et al., 2012). Life satisfaction represents the general well-being that emanates from an assessment of life in a whole (Karatepe & Baddar, 2006). It assesses a person's general assessment of their life situations (Erdogan et al. 2012; Newman, Nielsen, Smyth, & Hooke, 2015). Judgments of life satisfaction are based on an individual's own subjective criteria, rather than necessarily

reflecting outward conditions (Margolis et al., 2019). Previous research suggests that a person's life satisfaction has the propensity to shape his or her attitudes and behaviours (Zhao et al., 2016). A study by Haar and Roche (2010) showed that organisations benefit from employees who experience greater life satisfaction, because those employees tend to display lower turnover intentions and job burnout, and enhanced job satisfaction. Carroll (1999) argued that employers have no option other than to enhance the well-being of their staff. Thus, it is critical for organisations to consider factors that could affect their employees' level of satisfaction with life.

The level of satisfaction that employees have with their lives can be reduced when they perceive high levels of politics in the workplace, because a stressful work environment through POP may lead to low level of life satisfaction among employees (Crawford et al., 2019). Given the benefit of life satisfaction to organisations, such as decreased turnover intention and reduced job burnout (Haar & Roche, 2010), the present study seeks to illuminate whether POP (which is a potential source of resource loss or threat) influences employees' life satisfaction. Thus, this study leverages on the conservation of resources (COR) theory to explain the potential relationship. The COR theory basically provides asserts that individuals attempt to safeguard their existing resources and gain additional resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). In organisations where political behaviours are perceived to be high, employees are likely to forfeit important work resources, or have their important resources threatened with loss. When this occurs, employees are likely to experience psychological strain. As resources are lost, the level of life satisfaction of employees may diminish, because work is a pivotal domain in a person's life. Employees who feel distress as a result loss or threat of work resources are more likely to display feelings of lower satisfaction with life (Ampofo et al., 2018). Because organisations typified by high perceptions of politics expose employees to


resources losses or threats, it would be important to examine whether POP influences the life satisfaction of employees.

Finally, resource threat or loss can affect employees' life satisfaction through work engagement, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. Employees who perceive resource loss or threat in a politically inspired work environment may feel distress (Anthony-McMann et al., 2017; Hobfoll et al., 2018), which may affect their levels of job satisfaction, work engagement, and affective commitment. Also, because work resources engender employees' satisfaction with life and job, and affective commitment (Albrecht & Marty, 2020; Han et al., 2020; Malinowska & Tokarz, 2020), losers of work resources in organisations with high perceptions of politics may report lower job satisfaction, decreased work engagement, and reduced affective commitment. When depleted work resources make employees feel disengaged in their work, emotionally detached from their organisation, and dissatisfied with their job, they tend to feel less satisfied with their lives. Employees who show lower work engagement, job satisfaction and affective commitment may experience psychological stress due to resource loss, which has the tendency to reduce their life satisfaction. Given that employees' attitudes at work are important to their satisfaction with life in general (Ampofo, 2021), examining job satisfaction, work engagement, and affective commitment as potential mediators in the influence of POP on life satisfaction would be a worthwhile line of investigation.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

One of the unavoidable activities in organisations is politics. In a political organisation, employees tend to acquire resources at the cost of other employees (Abbas et al., 2014; Ampofo et al., 2022c;

Rosen et al., 2009). Individuals and groups engage in political activities at workplace for their personal gains above the gains of other individuals, groups, and the organisation. In a political organisation, individuals may win or forfeit important work resources, such as promotion opportunities, substantial allowances, and training and development opportunities. In this regard, I quiz: will people who have their resources threatened with loss, or already lost feel satisfied with their jobs, given that individuals are self-indulgent in nature? This question is important since individuals who have their resources threatened with loss or really lost tend to experience psychological stress which might influence their well-being (Hobfoll, 2001; Malinowska & Tokarz, 2020).

The logo of the University of Ghana is a watermark in the background. It features a shield with three golden flames at the top, a central golden emblem with a cross-like shape, and a banner at the bottom with the motto 'FOR GOD AND COUNTRY'.

Perceived organisational politics is a major issue that affects the behaviours and attitudes of non-teaching staff in universities (Blackmore, 2021; Budiasih et al., 2020). Many non-teaching staff in public universities in Ghana perceive denial of several resources due to negative political behaviours in the workplace (Akpebu Adjah & Van der Walt, 2019; Sanséau & Opoku, 2019). Research suggests heightened perceptions of politics in organisations in public institutions in Ghana which has detrimental effect on organisational performance (Amponsah-Tawiah & Annor, 2017; Kumasey & Hossain, 2020). Individuals who understand the political game in public organisations and are ready to be actively engaged in it are likely to succeed in those organisations. Also, public universities in Ghana are characterised by bureaucratic structures and high levels of uncertainty, stemming from factors such as unclear objectives and vague performance appraisal systems, all of which increase POP (Bawole et al., 2013). Ghanaians are also ingrained in the local parlance of ‘who you know’ or ‘who knows you’ (i.e., nepotism) such that it shapes their thoughts on many important organisational decisions, including hiring, promotion, access to training and

development opportunities, and other resource allocation decisions (Ayentimi et al., 2018; Brenya et al., 2017).

Furthermore, people's belief in the syndrome of 'pull him down' (i.e., prevent others from achieving their goals; Puplampu, 2013), or 'tall poppy' (i.e., cutting down high achievers or successful people to size; Feather, 1989) may shape their thoughts and attitudes towards perceived political behaviours in the organisation (Abubakari, et al., 2018; Zoure, 2016). Moreover, nepotism and cronyism appear to be a norm in Ghana's public institutions, as individuals tend to prioritise the interests of self, cronies and family members over the organisation or institution (Akuffo & Kivipõld, 2019; Kumasey & Hossain, 2020). This is a common feature in public universities in Ghana, as several positions are occupied by family members and friends. As a result, the interest of family members and friends are largely a priority in the allocation of limited work resources. However, a politically inspired work environment may be stressful for employees, particularly those who are not politically astute (Crawford et al., 2019; Meisler et al., 2019). In addition, employees who cannot be identified as friends and family members to individuals in higher positions may suffer resource loss or threats in a politically motivated work environment. Given that universities in Ghana is no exception to organisational politics, it is prudent to examine how employees' perceptions of dysfunctional organisational politics affect their satisfaction with life.

Previous studies have connected POP to work outcomes, which include decreased proactive performance, reduced organisational commitment, increased deviant behaviour, and diminished job satisfaction (Crawford et al., 2019; Khuwaja et al., 2020; Varela-Neira et al., 2018). However, it appears research on how employees' perceptions of politics in the organisation affect their

satisfaction with life has been ignored. The present study helps to redress the imbalance in the POP literature by exploring the effect of POP on life satisfaction. As earlier suggested, the present study applies the COR theory to offer an understanding of how resource loss through POP may influence employees' life satisfaction. COR theory suggests that individuals strive to protect, retain, and obtain important resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Individuals feel psychologically distressed when their key resources are lost or threatened with stress (Hobfoll, 2001). In the current study, POP is regarded as a source of resource threat or forfeiture. This is because employees who find themselves in organisations where there is high perception of dysfunctional politics may have their important resources threatened with loss, or really lost. Specifically, employees in organisations where there is high perception of negative politics could have their current (e.g., time, energy) and future (e.g., promotion, pay rise) resources lost or threatened with loss, thus making them feel psychologically distressed.

Therefore, the study draws on the COR theory to explain the proposed relationship. In a work environment which is characterised by high perceptions of dysfunctional political activities, employees are likely to experience stress emanating from resources losses or threats which may diminish their satisfaction with life (Karaman & Watson, 2017; Meisler et al., 2019). Work resources are important to employees as they strive to achieve their goals (Zhang et al., 2019). However, in a politically motivated work environment, employees who incur resource depletion or threats may report a decrease in their satisfaction with life. Life satisfaction in the study denotes employees' satisfaction with their entire life, which may emanate from the resources they obtain from the organisation in which they work (Ampofo, 2021; Pavot & Diener, 2008).

Another objective of the study is to examine affective commitment, job satisfaction, and work engagement as possible mediators in the association between POP and life satisfaction. This is important because employees who demonstrate lower work attitudes because of resource loss or threat are unlikely to express satisfaction with their life (Ampofo, 2021). Work resources are critical for employees' job satisfaction, work engagement, and affective commitment (Ampofo, 2020; Chen & Fellenz, 2020; De Clercq & Pereira, 2020). The COR theory posits that individuals favor situations that foster resource accrual than situations that drain or threaten resources (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001). Employees who have their key resources exposed to loss or already forfeited may express emotional detachment toward the organisation (Ampofo et al., 2022a; Lau et al., 2017). Similarly, employees who experience psychological stress via POP may feel unhappy and dissatisfied with their job (Ampofo et al., 2022a; Ampofo et al., 2022b). When employees have their work resources depleted or threatened with loss, they tend to have inadequate resources to be engaged at work (Ampofo et al., 2022b). Sufficient resources are prerequisite for work engagement (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018).

According to social exchange theory (SET), employees who receive favorable treatments from their employer respond with positive behaviours and attitudes, and the vice versa is true (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). Because POP is regarded as an unfavorable treatment from the employer, employees are likely to demonstrate undesirable attitudes in return (Ampofo et al., 2022c; Khan et al., 2018). Subsequently, employees who are dissatisfied with their jobs, disengaged in their work, and emotionally detached from the organisation because of forfeited work resources through POP might report lower satisfaction with life (Erdogan et al., 2012). This study responds to an appeal by prior research that future research should explore how other

resource draining factors predict employee life satisfaction through job satisfaction and work engagement (Ampofo, 2021). The study is also a response to Ullah et al.'s (2019) recommendation that future research to explore other mediators in the linkage between POP and employee subjective well-being.

Given the increased POP in public universities in Ghana and the need to investigate how resource loss or threat might influence life satisfaction, the current study explores how POP may explicate the variance in employees' life satisfaction. Additionally, the present study would be interested in exploring whether POP explains employees' life satisfaction via work engagement, affective commitment, and job satisfaction.

1.3 Research Purpose

The study seeks to explore how employees' perceptions of politics in the workplace influence their life satisfaction. Furthermore, the study aims to expand understanding on POP and life satisfaction by examining three potential mediators in the relationship. Specifically, the present study whether POP influence life satisfaction via affective commitment, work engagement and job satisfaction. In the next subsection, I outline the objectives of the current study.

1.4 Research Objectives

As noted above, the study's purpose is to link POP to employees' life satisfaction and expand the relationship with three potential mediators. Following the study's purpose, I therefore state four research objectives, and they include:

1. To examine the effect of POP on life satisfaction.

2. To assess job satisfaction as a mediator in the nexus between POP and life satisfaction.
3. To examine affective commitment as a mediator in the linkage between POP and life satisfaction.
4. To gauge work engagement as a mediator in POP's relationship with life satisfaction.

1.5 Research Significance

The current study offers at least three significant research contributions. First, past research on POP has linked the variable to organisational outcomes, which include citizenship behaviour and task performance (Crawford et al., 2019; Khuwaja et al., 2020). Research on how perceptions of politics in the organisations affect employees' subjective well-being, such as life satisfaction, has is rare. This is important, because organisations need the services of happy employees to achieve its goals and gain advantage in today's fierce competitive work environment (Ampofo, 2020; Siebert et al., 2020). This study's results contribute to the POP literature by serving as the first to identify POP an antecedent of life satisfaction. Another significance of this study is that it adds to research by extending the thought in the nexus between POP and life satisfaction. That is, the present study endeavors to find out if POP predict employees' life satisfaction via affective commitment, job satisfaction, and work engagement. This is important, because knowledge of intermediary processes offer better explanation of a relationship (Ferreira et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2016).

In addition, work engagement, job satisfaction and affective commitment are job outcomes that can be influenced by the quantity of resources that are available to employees in the organisation. Thus, threat or loss of resources can affect employees' attitudes and subsequently affect their

satisfaction with life. This is the maiden study that examines multiple variables that possibly mediate the nexus between POP and life satisfaction. Third, the current study makes important contribution to the COR theory by adding to the few body of research that views POP as a source of resource loss. Employees in a politically charged working environment tend to be exposed to resource threats or loss which engenders psychological stress. Therefore, high politically motivated organisations stimulate stress, which often arises when existing or future work-related resources of individuals are being forfeited or threatened in.

Furthermore, the present empirical piece offers at least two contributions to practice. The first contribution is that the study provides understanding about the significance of political perceptions in the workplace in reducing employees' level of satisfaction with their lives. POP is harmful to employees' well-being which might subsequently have adverse impact on organisational well-being. Thus, it would be costly to organisations with high perceptions of negative politics, since employees who are dissatisfied with their lives may display adverse attitudes and behaviours that may not benefit the organisation (Haar & Roche, 2010). Second, the study's results may have practical implications relating to control of dysfunctional political activities in the organisation. That is, strategies that organisations can adopt to help diminish perceptions of dysfunctional political activities in organisations.

1.6 Scope of the Study

As indicated, the study aims at exploring the effect of POP on life satisfaction and explore whether POP influences life satisfaction via affective commitment, work engagement and job satisfaction. The current study covers employees of University of Cape Coast. The study consists of employees

who work as senior administrators. Senior administrators who were on probation were excluded from the study. Moreover, the study excluded lecturers who have administrative responsibilities, such as, Heads of Departments, Deans, and Provosts.

1.7 Organisation of the Study

The present study has five chapters. Chapter One outlines background to the study, which highlights the importance of the topic. The chapter further outlines the problem of the statement, research purpose, and research objectives. The chapter also includes scope of the study, and significance of the study. The chapter concludes with organisation of the thesis.

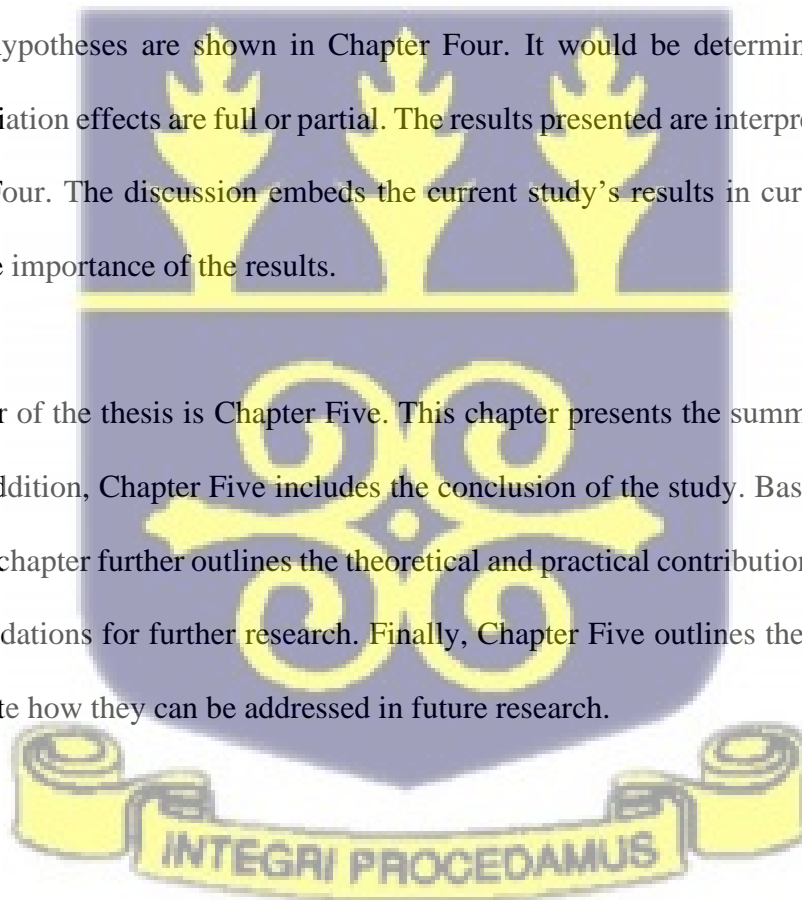
Chapter Two reviews theoretical and empirical literature relevant to achievement of the purpose of the present study. Chapter Two specifically reviews literature on POP, affective commitment, work engagement, life satisfaction, and job satisfaction. Moreover, the chapter discusses COR theory, which is the overarching theory employed in this present study to explicate the proposed relationships. The chapter additionally presents literatures to support arguments for the proposed linkages in the study. Specifically, the study's four hypotheses have been set out in Chapter Two. The Chapter Two ends with presentation of a conceptual framework which illustrates the proposed relationships among the variables understudies.

The methodology and methods employed in the study are outlined in Chapter Three. Research strategy, for instance, research design, population, and sample and sampling procedures are discussed in this chapter. The chapter further outlines the data collection techniques, including source of data, design and operationalisation of the survey, data collection procedures, challenges

encountered during operationalisation of questionnaire, and ethical considerations. Additionally, the chapter outlines the techniques used for the data analysis. Specifically, the chapter outlines statistical tools and tests used to analyze the data. Finally, Chapter Three outlines the ethics considerations upheld in the current study.

Chapter Four outlines the presentation, interpretations, and discussion of the study's results. The chapter presents results on the variables' means and standard deviations. Chapter Four further presents results relating to normality, multicollinearity, alpha reliabilities, correlation analysis, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), alternative CFAs, discriminant, and convergent validity. The results for the hypotheses are shown in Chapter Four. It would be determined in the chapter whether the mediation effects are full or partial. The results presented are interpreted and discussed in the Chapter Four. The discussion embeds the current study's results in current literature and elaborates on the importance of the results.

The final chapter of the thesis is Chapter Five. This chapter presents the summary of the study's key results. In addition, Chapter Five includes the conclusion of the study. Based on the findings of the study, the chapter further outlines the theoretical and practical contributions of the study and make recommendations for further research. Finally, Chapter Five outlines the limitations of the study and indicate how they can be addressed in future research.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter of the thesis reviews the theoretical and empirical literature that helps explain the constructs in the current study, COR theory and the proposed relationships. The chapter commences with a discussion of life satisfaction, then provides a review on the concept of POP. Next, the chapter offers an elaborative literature review on affective commitment, job satisfaction, and work engagement. The chapter discusses the COR theory and uses the theory to explain the impact of POP on life satisfaction, and the possible mediating roles of affective commitment, job satisfaction, and work engagement. Finally, the chapter illustrates the proposed relationships with a conceptual framework.

2.1 Conservation of Resources Theory

The COR theory is a motivational and stress theory that suggests that employees would do anything to protect and acquire resources that they perceive valuable (Halbesleben & Bowler, 2007; Hobfoll, 2001). Resources are anything with a tangible or intangible value that binds an individual to a group (e.g., organisation) and helps him or her to attain his or her goals (Greene et al., 1997; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Mosakowski, 1993). A loose definition of resources is that they are personal characteristics, objects, energies, or conditions that individuals place value (Hobfoll, 1989, 2011). Resource value differ among people, because the value of a resource is tied to people's personal experiences and circumstances (Halbesleben et al., 2014). For example, a person could consider social support as a valuable resource, whereas another person may not consider it as such, but may consider another resource such as promotion as a valuable resource.

The study outlines three principles of the COR theory (Halbesleben et al., 2014; Hobfoll, 2011). The first principle—primacy of resource loss—proposes that the forfeiture of resources that are valuable to individuals is disproportionately more salient than the gain of similar resources. Loss of resource is excessively more important to individuals than gain of resource because it is psychologically more detrimental for people to forfeit resources than it is helpful for those people to obtain resources (Hobfoll, 2001; Hobfoll et al., 2018; Wheeler et al., 2012). Thus, resource loss is considered the primary ingredient in the stress process, because it is more powerful in magnitude than resource gain (Hobfoll, 2001). The second principle is resource investment. This principle holds that individuals can protect against resource forfeiture, recuperate from losses and acquire other resources through investment of resources. For example, an individual can directly replace his or her resources through payment of lost income with savings, and indirectly through skills training and knowledge acquisition to take up a tough challenge within a domain (Hobfoll et al., 2018). The third principle—gain paradox—holds that resource gain upsurges in salience in the situation of resource loss. That is, resource gain becomes more salient to individuals in circumstances when resource loss is high.

From COR perspective, psychological stress could occur in three ways. First, psychological stress occurs when individuals have their valued resources threatened with loss. Another way psychological stress could occur is when individuals have their valued resources actually forfeited. Lastly, psychological stress could occur when people fail to recuperate resources after investing them (Hobfoll & Shirom, 2001; Hobfoll et al., 2018). Given the pain associated with resource loss, people prefer situations that harness resource accumulation to situations that lead to resource loss (Hobfoll, 1989; Xanthopoulou et al., 2009). The COR theory is employed as the underpinning

theory to help explain the relationships in the study. The theory is important for the study because POP is likely to invoke psychological stress to individuals, which may activate adverse behaviours in the organisation. The theory is also important for the study, since people's ability to protect and obtain valued resources may spillover into their well-being, such as life satisfaction. In the next sections, I discuss the various concepts and relationships in line with the COR theory.

2.2 Life Satisfaction

Research has shown that subjective well-being consists of three components, that is, negative affect, positive affect, and life satisfaction (Arthaud-Day, Rode, Mooney, & Near, 2005). Positive affect reflects a dispositional tendency that makes people experience a variety of positive activated emotions (Gallagher & Meurs, 2015; Seib-Pfeifer et al., 2017). Negative affect suggests a dispositional tendency that makes people more susceptible to experience a variety of aversive emotions and distress across time and situations (Lindblom et al., 2020; Penney & Spector, 2005). Life satisfaction refers to the cognitive and general assessment of an employee's quality of life in entirety (Diener, 1984; Erdogan et al., 2012). Life satisfaction reflects an evaluative decision and is generally premised on the self-imposed standards of an individual and the extent to which the individual is satisfied with those standards (Pavot & Diener, 2008). Although research has demonstrated that life satisfaction is linked to positive affect and negative affect (Extremera & Rey, 2016), there is a distinction between life satisfaction and the affectivity traits (Ampofo et al., 2018). Both negative affect and positive affect denote the emotional aspect of subjective well-being (Keyes, 2006). Conversely, life satisfaction represents the cognitive and judgmental facet of subjective well-being (Hamama et al., 2013; Rode, 2004).

Given that there is a single, comprehensive theory of life satisfaction is nonexistent, researchers explain one's life satisfaction by employing and differentiating between perspectives (Diener, 1984; Erdogan et al., 2012). The first perspective is the top-down perspective. According to this perspective, life satisfaction denotes a function of an individual's steady traits. That is, who people perceive they have the tendency to make them report greater satisfaction with their lives (Erdogan et al., 2012). Research has demonstrated that traits, for example, conscientiousness, self-esteem, agreeableness, neuroticism, openness influenced satisfaction with life (Erdogan et al., 2012; Steel, Schmidt, & Shultz, 2008). Diener (1996) asserted that top-down factors have positive influence on the significance of situational influences, for instance, life events. A meta-analytic study by Heller et al. (2004) demonstrated that personality predicted life satisfaction through job satisfaction. Steel et al. (2019) found that personality predicted life satisfaction. Furthermore, top-down factors are likely to shape how people perceive life domains, which may influence their life satisfaction (Erdogan et al., 2012).

The second approach of life satisfaction is the bottom-up perspective. This perspective suggests that people view life satisfaction as a complex function of satisfaction with several separate but interconnected life domains (Erdogan et al., 2012). Examples of life domains include work, health, leisure, and family. Basically, life domains can be grouped into work domains and non-work domains. Research indicates that assessment of satisfaction with each domain vary among individuals (Erdogan et al., 2012). That is, one may regard satisfaction with work as most important, while another may draw satisfaction with life largely from health. Past research has shown that work domain affect life satisfaction. For example, a recent study by Ampofo (2020) showed that supervisors' abusive behaviours and psychological breach of contract predicted

employee life satisfaction via job satisfaction. Also, Steel et al.'s (2019) meta-analytic study demonstrated that employees' personality traits increased life satisfaction through job satisfaction. Regarding non-work life domains, research has shown that socioeconomic status influenced life satisfaction through leisure satisfaction (Chick et al., 2015). Family satisfaction and family support have been found to impact life satisfaction (Gahlawat et al., 2019; Kim & Nho, 2020). A number of previous studies provide support for the bottom-up perspective (e.g., Ampofo, 2020; Chen et al., 2019; Georgellis & Lange, 2012; Hirsch et al., 2016; Steel et al., 2019). Given that POP, work engagement, job satisfaction and affective commitment are all work-related influences, the current empirical research adopts the bottom-up viewpoint. This is important, because work forms an important domain in a person's life (Plouffe & Tremblay, 2017).

Earliest studies have shown that life satisfaction influence several important work-related outcomes. To illustrate, a study by Haar and Roche (2010) revealed that life satisfaction mediated the effects of family supportive organisation perceptions on turnover intentions, job satisfaction, and employee burnout. Recently, Prayag et al. (2020) found that life satisfaction positively influenced organisational resilience. Additionally, Jones (2006) found that employees who were highly satisfied with their lives showed greater in-role performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). In a longitudinal study, Kim and Nho (2020) found that life satisfaction positively affected self-esteem. Research also found that individuals with higher life satisfaction showed less stress (Smyth et al., 2017). Organisations need healthy individuals to work with in order to achieve its objectives. Research has shown that people with increased life satisfaction showed improved physical health conditions (Kim et al., 2021; Rauma et al., 2014).

Prior studies have found several variables as antecedents of employees' life satisfaction. For example, using COR theory, Ampofo (2020) reported that employees highly embedded in the organisation, engaged in their work and satisfied with their job showed increased hotel employees' satisfaction with life. Also, Meynhardt et al.'s (2020) study demonstrated that employee life satisfaction enhanced when organisational public value increased. It was further revealed that organisational public value increased OCB and employees' engagement at work, which in turn increased employee life satisfaction (Meynhardt et al., 2020). Additionally, Ampofo et al. (2017) found that both employees' level of embeddedness in the organisation and the community where they live had positive impact on life satisfaction. Moreover, factors such as work-life balance, quality of work life, proactive decision making, and employee resilience have been found as antecedents of life satisfaction (Alrawadieh et al., 2020; Siebert et al., 2020; Taşdelen-Karçkay & Bakalim, 2017). As indicated in Chapter One, this study seeks to add to the predictors of life satisfaction by examining the influence of POP on employees' life satisfaction. I treated life satisfaction as a criterion variable in the study in order to ascertain whether employees who have their valued work resources being threatened with loss or are actually lost are satisfied with their lives. This is important since experiences in work has the tendency to spill over into life satisfaction.

2.3 Perception of organisational Politics

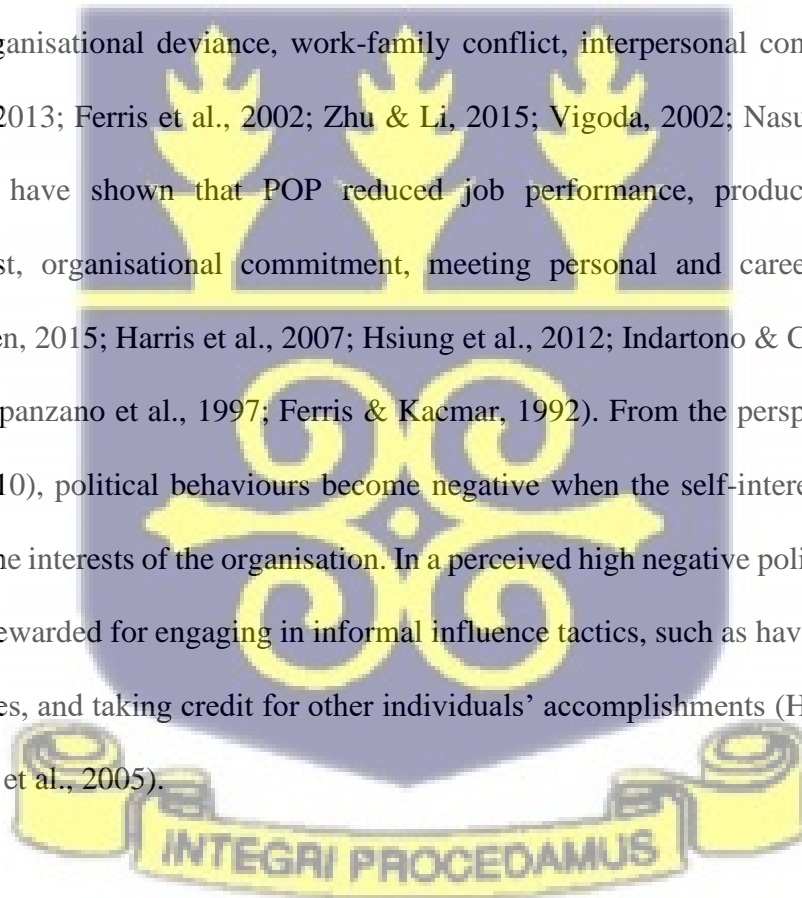
Organisational politics represents a relational effect process where individuals deliberately design their behaviours in order to maximise their self-centeredness interest but decrease the interests of other organisational members (Ferris et al., 1989). Also, Minzberg (1983) defined organisational politics as “informal, ostensibly parochial, typically divisive, and above all, in technical sense,

illegitimate-sanctioned neither by formal authority, accepted ideology, nor certified expertise (although it may exploit any one of these)” (p. 172). Organisational politics is a deliberately orchestrated behaviour of individuals or groups to advance and protect their selfish goals, notwithstanding the ill-being of other individuals or the organisation (Kacmar & Baron 1999; Andrews & Kacmar, 2001). A typical example of organisational political behaviour includes getting a promotion or pay increase through favouritism and nepotism (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991). Literature however appears to concentrate extensively on perceived political behaviours rather than actual political behaviours because the latter occasionally denotes delusions of actual events (Porter, 1976), and largely emanates from the former (Ampofo et al., 2022c; Ferris *et al.*, 2002; Hochwarter et al., 2020). Ferris and Kacmar (1992) emphasized that employees’ subjective perception and interpretation of political behaviours are of greater significance than the actual political behaviours per se. POP refers to individuals’ subjective perceptions on employees’ behaviours as well as organisational events (Yen, 2015). Similarly, POP is viewed as a person’s independent appraisal of the degree to which the company is typified by the self-interest of people and groups at the cost of other members of the organisation (Ferris et al., 2000). Kacmar and Carlson (1997) asserted that how employees perceive the political work environment potentially influences their job attitudes.

The subjectivity of POP makes individuals view political behaviours as either positive or negative. Those who perceive organisational politics as positive are of the conviction that it stimulates them to strive for success, career advancement, power, and greater status (Kumar & Ghadially, 1989). Quick and Nelson (2009) argued that some employees who perceive the organisation as highly political find the use of political strategies more satisfying and report higher levels of job

satisfaction when they involve themselves in political behaviour. Wayne and Ferris (1990) indicated that a political work environment helps managers to effectively handle complex problems. From the standpoint of Treadway et al. (2004), managers who are politically astute may build a great amount of social capital and strong networks that enable them to increase resources that are accessible to employees.

However, most researchers consider POP as a dysfunctional variable because of its negative repercussions on both employees and the organisation. For instance, it is evidenced that POP increases important work outcomes such as stress, turnover, counterproductive work behaviour, absenteeism, organisational deviance, work-family conflict, interpersonal conflict, and burnout (Bedi & Schat, 2013; Ferris et al., 2002; Zhu & Li, 2015; Vigoda, 2002; Nasurdin et al., 2014). Further studies have shown that POP reduced job performance, productivity, OCB, job satisfaction, trust, organisational commitment, meeting personal and career goals, and job involvement (Yen, 2015; Harris et al., 2007; Hsiung et al., 2012; Indartono & Chen, 2011; Chang et al., 2009; Cropanzano et al., 1997; Ferris & Kacmar, 1992). From the perspective of Kreitner and Kinicki (2010), political behaviours become negative when the self-interests of individuals erode or defeat the interests of the organisation. In a perceived high negative political organisation, individuals are rewarded for engaging in informal influence tactics, such as having ties with high-ranking associates, and taking credit for other individuals' accomplishments (Harrell-Cook et al., 1999; Treadway et al., 2005).



Although previous studies have linked POP to several important work variables, the association of POP with life satisfaction is scarce. The present study relies on the COR theory to consider POP

as a potential antecedent of employee' life satisfaction, since POP is likely to cause psychological stress to individuals, which may affect their well-being, such as life satisfaction. It is a worthwhile line of investigation into how POP might influence employees' life satisfaction because one's negative experience at work through POP may spillover into non-work domains, such as life satisfaction (Wolfram & Gratton, 2014).

2.4 Job Satisfaction

Several scholars have defined job satisfaction in different ways. Job satisfaction represents the pleasurable feelings of a person, which emanates from assessment of the person's experience of a job (Locke, 1976). A definition by Spector (1997) suggests that job satisfaction is the feelings of individuals about their job and the different facets of their job. From the perspective of Robbins and Coulter (1996), job satisfaction denotes an individual's general attitude regarding his or her job. Judge et al. (2017) opined that job satisfaction reflects the general evaluative decision one has about one's job. In a recent study, Ampofo (2020) gave the description of job satisfaction as the positive emotional reaction that arises from an individual's assessment of organisation-provided resources. Also, job satisfaction has been defined as the emotional state in which employees develop the feelings that the organisation has fulfilled their work-related needs (McShane & Glinow, 2010). In sum, job satisfaction reflects an individual's feelings of likeness for a job and aspects of the job. In the current study, I define job satisfaction as employees' positive feelings about their jobs, which emanate from the work-associated resources they receive from their work organisations. In other words, job satisfaction reflects the level of satisfaction an individual derives from the work resources he or she receives from the work organisation.

Previous studies have demonstrated that job satisfaction contributes to important outcomes. To illustrate, Hoboubi et al. (2017) found that job satisfaction increased workforce productivity. Also, a study by Ampofo (2020) showed that frontline employees who showed satisfaction with their hotel jobs reported increased affective commitment. Moreover, an empirical work by Lin and Huang (2020) revealed that job satisfaction negatively impacted employee turnover intentions, but positively influenced job performance. Additionally, DiPietro et al.'s (2020) study showed that employees with high levels of job satisfaction reported lower propensity to quit their jobs. Furthermore, Ampofo's (2021) study on employees who have direct contact with hotel guests demonstrated that life satisfaction increased when there was an increased in job satisfaction. Research reveals that employees with higher satisfaction with job reported greater OCB (e.g., Hurst et al., 2017; Khaskheli et al., 2020). Additional studies have shown that employees with augmented job satisfaction were more engaged in their work (Wirawan et al., 2020; Yalabik et al., 2013).

Because employees' level of job satisfaction is beneficial for the well-being of organisation, understanding predictors of job satisfaction has become critical for research and practice (Cheung et al., 2019; Côté et al., 2021; Ferreira et al., 2017). Dartey-Baah and Ampofo (2016) asserted that employees tend to expend more effort in achieving the outcomes of the organisation in situations where they report high levels of satisfaction with their jobs. Several important work-related variables have been identified as antecedents of job satisfaction. For example, García-Rodríguez et al. (2020) found that diversity management and organisational commitment had positive effect on job satisfaction among hospitality employees. Furthermore, Lambert et al.'s (2020) research showed that correctional employees' perceptions of distributive justice, quality training, and

procedural justice increased their job satisfaction, while their perceptions of role overload decreased their level of job satisfaction. Additionally, incentives, promotion, and presentism are factors that positively influenced job satisfaction (Côté et al., 2020; Karatepe, 2009; Koo et al., 2020). Results from Shen and Tang (2018) demonstrated that employees who received training from the organisation reported higher job satisfaction, which in turn influenced their decision to transfer training. Moreover, high performance work practices have been found to increase employee job satisfaction (Fabi et al., 2015; Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2018). In their study, Chan and Ao (2019) showed that pay satisfaction increased Casino employees' job satisfaction. Moreover, the support employees receive from their supervisors and coworkers have been found to positively impact employees' job satisfaction (Cranmer et al., 2017; Lambert et al., 2016). Additionally, behaviours of leaders play a key role employees' job satisfaction. Studies have shown that ethical leadership, transactional leadership, and participative leadership, transformational leadership were positively related to job satisfaction (Chan, 2019; Dartey-Baah & Ampofo, 2016; Kammerhoff et al., 2019; Ren & Chadee, 2017).

Despite the extensive research on job satisfaction (e.g., Côté et al., 2020; García-Rodríguez *et al.*, 2020), past research has failed to determine whether job satisfaction serves as a potential mediator in the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. This is important because people who are happy at work may show higher happiness in life. However, it is important to indicate that job satisfaction and life satisfaction are distinct constructs. One's satisfaction with job does not denote his or her satisfaction with life, the vice versa is true. Research evidence that job satisfaction and life satisfaction have a causal relationship (e.g., Rode, 2004). Therefore, job satisfaction is treated as a predictor of life satisfaction, but not a component of life satisfaction (Erdogan et al., 2012).

2.6 Work Engagement

Work engagement, which denotes a positive, fulfilling work-associated state, is typified by three components, which include vigour, dedication, and absorption (Schaufeli et al., 2002). The vigor component denotes an employee's greater energy, and mental endurance toward work. Individuals with high level of vigor tend to be highly motivated even when they face difficult work situation (Ampofo, 2020; Graça et al., 2021; Mauno et al., 2007). The component 'dedication' represents employees' feelings of enthusiasm, honor, inspiration, stimulation, pride, and significance at work (Schaufeli et al., 2002). Absorption reflects how an individual is fully concentrated at and engrossed in her or his work (Schaufeli et al., 2002; Saks & Gruman, 2018). Employees with greater work absorption are fully immersed in their work, such that it would be uneasy for them to separate themselves from work (Kartal, 2018; Lu et al., 2018; Schaufeli et al., 2006). Thus, individuals who are engaged at work have greater energy, show higher enthusiasm about work, and have their minds fully occupied with work (Bakker & Albrecht, 2018; Halbesleben & Wheeler, 2008).

Work engagement is among the most researched topics in Human Resource Management and Organisational Behaviour because it influences significant work outcomes (Eldor, 2016; Knight et al., 2017). That is, the construct has been related to a number of work outcomes. For example, employees with higher work engagement have been found to demonstrate reduced absenteeism (Karatepe et al., 2020). Christian et al. (2011) found that engaged employees demonstrated better task performance. Furthermore, Ampofo's (2020) study showed that employees with high levels of engagement at work reported heightened affective commitment. Moreover, Luu's (2019) study evidenced that work engagement increased service-oriented OCB and service-oriented in-role

performance. Engaged employees are more likely to exhibit innovative behaviours at work (Afsar et al., 2020) and think less about leaving the organisation (Lee et al., 2019; Ibrahim et al., 2019). Organisations with employees who are engaged at work have the tendency to generate greater return on assets, shareholder value, and profitability (Eisenbeiss et al., 2015). An empirical study conducted by Rai and Maheshwari (2020) showed that increased work engagement led to high levels of organisational engagement and job satisfaction.

Several variables have been found as antecedents of work engagement in extant research. For instance, Kuijpers et al. (2020) found that job crafting towards strengths positively influenced employee work engagement. A study by Afsar et al. (2020) demonstrated that employees showed greater work engagement when the level of cultural intelligence was heightened. Research has indicated that leadership styles predicted work engagement (Amor et al., 2020; Öge et al., 2018; Ryu & Shim, 2020). Furthermore, Haldorai et al.'s (2020) study showed that increased workplace ostracism led to decreased employee work engagement. Additionally, Ampofo (2020) found that employees who provided frontline services in hotels were more engaged in their work when they perceived high levels of organisational embeddedness. In addition, Suan and Nasurdin's (2016) study demonstrated that supervisor support increased work engagement, while Stefanidis and Strogilos (2021) found that support from supervisor and coworkers positively affected work engagement among employees who have children with special needs and disabilities. Moreover, work-family enrichment and subjective career success have been identified as predictors of work engagement (Koekemoer et al.'s 2020). Furthermore, previous studies have found predictors of work engagement to include job characteristics, workplace fun, psychological contract breach, self-efficacy, abusive supervision, and quality of work (Ampofo, 2021; Geisler et al., 2019;

Ibrahim et al., 2019; Orgambídez et al., 2020; Rai & Maheshwari, 2020; Tsaour et al., 2019). A study by Coetzer *et al.* (2020) indicated that opportunities to participate in both formal and informal learning activities were predictive of employee work engagement. Other studies have shown that employees who are satisfied with their jobs showed high levels of engagement in their work (e.g., Garg et al., 2018; Rayton & Yalabik, 2014).

2.5 Affective Commitment

Organisational commitment, which denotes the psychological attachment of an employee towards the organisation, is a three-dimensional model, which includes affective, continuance and normative commitment (Ampofo, 2020; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Affective commitment represents the emotional bond between an employee and the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1990; DiPietro et al., 2020; Meyer & Allen, 1991). Employees develop emotional ties with the company as a result of the enjoyment they derive from their involvement in and identification with the company (Fernández-Mesa et al., 2020; Meyer & Allen, 1991). In other words, employees high on affectively commitment show greater emotional attachment to the organisation (Bouraoui et al., 2019). Employees who are emotionally attached to the organisation may remain in the organisation because they ‘desire’ to do so (Dechawatanapaisal, 2018; Kim & Beehr, 2020; Meyer et al., 1993). Such individuals may consider leaving the organisation as a betrayal of love.

Continuance commitment reflects an employee’s attachment with the organisation, because leaving the organisation would be costly to the employee (De Clercq et al., 2019; Meyer & Allen 1991). Employees who have perceptions of continuance commitment develop attachment toward the organisation because they have several benefits that would be forfeited upon leaving the

organisation (San-Martín et al., 2020; Uppal, 2017). Employees attach themselves to the organisation when they realise that the cost associated with leaving outweighs the benefits associated with leaving (Galanaki, 2019; San-Martín et al., 2020). Employees who possess greater sacrifices in the company may find it difficult to leave (Ampofo, 2020; Mitchell et al., 2001). Simply put, continuance commitment is when employees attach themselves to an organisation because the perceived cost associated with quitting is high. Finally, normative commitment denotes the extent to which employees remain in the organisation because of the feeling of moral obligation to the organisation (Allen & Meyer, 1996; McCormick & Donohue, 2019). Employees develop a greater sense of responsibility to stay in the organisation when they perceive that the organisation has treated them favorably (Fernández-Mesa et al., 2020). Thus, employees decide to keep their jobs in the company because they see it ethically right to do (Ampofo, 2020).

The present study selected affective commitment as a potential mediator in the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. This is because research indicates that of all the components of organisational commitment, the influence of affective commitment on important work outcomes, including OCB, performance, work-family conflict, and stress is stronger than that of the remaining components (Meyer et al., 2002). In addition, affective commitment explains the overall organisational commitment construct better than normative commitment and continuance commitment (Lombardi et al., 2019). Furthermore, the loss of valued work resources is more likely to demoralise employees and affect their emotional attachment to the organisation first, than influencing their continuance commitment and normative commitment. Research suggests that resource gains, but not resource loss increased the emotional attachment of employees to the organisation (Ampofo, 2020).

Research suggests that employee affective commitment has significant consequences on important outcomes in the organisation (Coetzer et al., 2020; Khaola & Rambe, 2020). That is, organisations greatly benefit when employees demonstrate higher affective commitment. A number of studies have shown the impact of affective commitment on organisational well-being. For example, Rather et al.'s (2019) study revealed that affective commitment positively influenced customer behavioural intention of loyalty. Additional studies have demonstrated that employees who are affectively commitment to their organisations reported decreased withdrawal behaviours, such as turnover intentions, voluntary turnover, and absenteeism (Fazio et al., 2017; Garland et al., 2013; Panaccio et al., 2014). Also, studies by Coetzer et al. (2020) and Susomrith et al. (2019) showed that employees with perceptions of higher affective commitment demonstrate work behaviours that are innovative. Other previous empirical works suggest that employees who showed high levels of affective commitment were more engaged in extra-role behaviours, such as OCB (e.g., Chênevert et al., 2015; Jain, 2016; Khaola & Rambe, 2020). Meyer et al. (2002) found that task performance increased among employees with high perceptions of affective commitment.

Different studies have identified various work-related variables as predictors of affective commitment. For example, Albrecht and Marty (2020) found that job resources (supervisor support, job autonomy, job feedback, opportunity for professional development, and skill utilisation) individual difference factors (conscientiousness, extraversion, and emotional stability) positively influenced affective commitment. Studies have also demonstrated that employees who have perceptions of being engaged at work reported increased affective commitment (e.g., Ampofo, 2020; Jiang et al., 2020; Teo et al., 2020). An empirical study by Coetzer *et al.* (2020)

revealed that opportunities to participate in formal vocational learning activities increased the levels of employees' affective commitment in small firms. Galanaki's (2019) study revealed that availability of benefits and vicissitudes in the distribution policies of benefits positively influenced affective commitment. In addition, Susomrith et al. (2019) found that employees who participated in training and development events demonstrated increased affective commitment. Kooij and Boon (2018) found that employees' perceptions of high-performance work practices, person-organisation fit increased their levels of affective commitment. Moreover, human resource practices including training and development, hiring, performance appraisals, communication, and remuneration led to increased affective commitment (Raineri, 2017; Nassar, 2018). Personality characteristics, such as sentimentality, and core self-evaluation have been found to have positive effects on affective commitment (Albrecht & Marty, 2020; Kim et al., 2015).

Another important antecedent of affective commitment is leadership. Leaders display various behaviours in the organisation, and these behaviours have critical influence on employees' affective commitment (Van der Voet et al., 2016). A study by Peng et al. (2020) indicated that employees who perceived their leaders' behaviours as more transformational showed higher affective commitment. Furthermore, a study by Qing et al. (2019) showed that ethical leadership behaviour positively impacted affective commitment among public sector employees in China. Jang and Kandampully's (2018) study showed that employees' perceptions of servant leadership resulted in increased affective commitment. Other studies have shown that affective commitment is higher among employees who have increased job satisfaction (Ampofo, 2020; Koo et al., 2020).

In the current study, I treat affective commitment as a potential mediator in the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. Several past works have treated affective commitment as a mediating variable. For instance, Coetzer et al. (2020) reported in their study that affective commitment mediated the effect of opportunities to participate in training and development on innovative work behaviours. Moreover, Khaskheli et al.'s (2020) study demonstrated that employees' perception of CSR influenced OCB through affective commitment. Also, Fazal-e-Hasan et al. (2017) found that affective commitment was the mechanism through which gratitude predicted customer involvement and customer word-of-mouth intentions. A study by Ribeiro et al. (2020) revealed that perceived authentic leadership predicted affective commitment, which in turn positively influenced individual creativity. Additionally, Lee et al. (2018) found that transformational leadership increased affective commitment, which subsequently resulted in increased OCB.

2.7 Relationship between Perception of organisational Politics and Life Satisfaction

In this study, I focus on the dysfunctional aspect of organisational politics because of its ability to activate psychological stress to individuals through resource loss or threat. I expect that in organisations where individuals perceive that members are engaged in negative political behaviours, employees would likely have their life satisfaction diminished, because employees are likely to forfeit important work-related resources. The COR theory suggests that resource loss or threats invokes stress (Hobfoll, 1989, 2001). Employees who incur resource forfeiture or threat are likely to feel psychologically distressed, which may reduce their life satisfaction. Research suggests that work domain is an important aspect of a person's life. Thus, employees who have lost important work resources through perceptions of negative politics in the organisation are

unlikely to be satisfied with their life. Consistent with the COR theory (Hobfoll et al., 2018), those employees may be more susceptible to resource forfeiture, given their depleted resources in the organisation. Furthermore, employees who have their resources actually forfeited in the organisation may experience more stress, which would lower their satisfaction with life, since individuals who possess fewer resources are not in a better position to acquire other resources (Hobfoll, 2001; Hobfoll et al., 2018). Additionally, threats of losing valued present work resources or important future work resources may put employees in an uncomfortable situation, which may reduce their life satisfaction. Employees who feel insecure about their work resources may experience psychological strain, thereby lowering their life satisfaction (Boekhorst et al., 2017; Zha et al., 2020). In other words, the fear to lose current or anticipated work resources may cause stress to employees in a politically motivated work environment. In sum, employees may regard the psychological stress they go through in a politically motivated work milieu as a negative experience, which may spillover into lower life satisfaction.

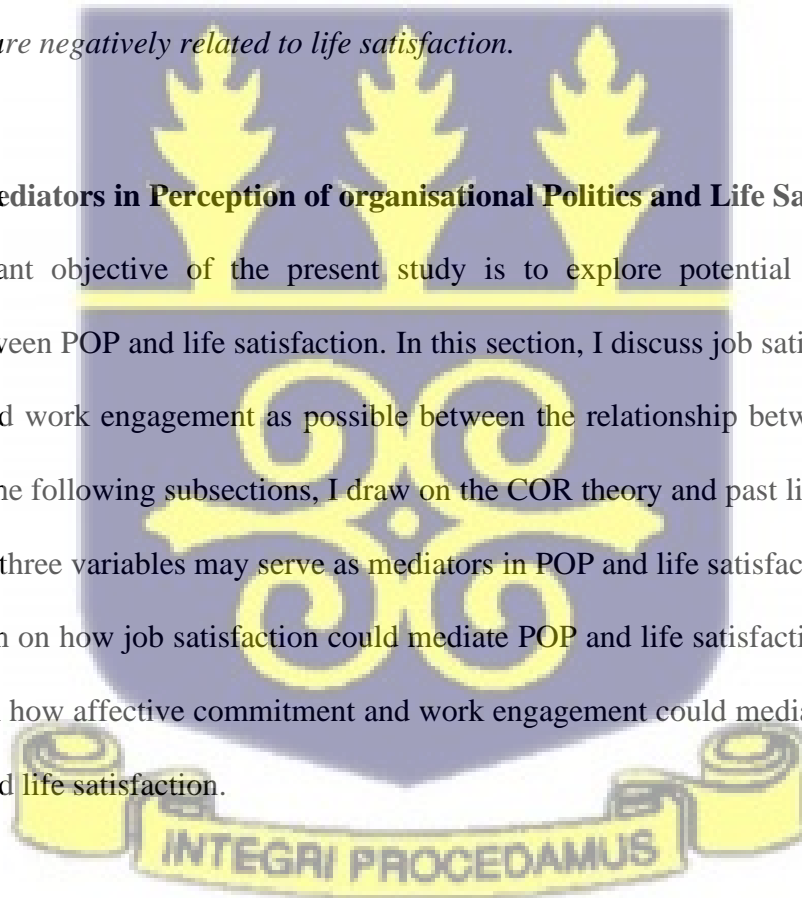
It could be argued that politically astute actors in the organisation may acquire work resources such as promotion, recognition and substantial bonuses to increase their happiness at work, which may spillover into life satisfaction. However, political actors may require investment of personal resources which can be stressful, thereby leading to decreased life satisfaction. For example, an employee who has invested a significant amount of energy in political engagements at work may not have extra energy to complete assigned tasks in the organisation. Energy is an essential personal resource that has limited capacity and can deplete when used (Hobfoll, 2002; Stein & Vincent-Höper, 2020). Thus, such employees are unlikely to receive rewards (e.g., bonuses, recognition) from employers, which may lower their life satisfaction. Moreover, politically astute

individuals may not always be winners in competitions for organisational resources. Resource loss triggers psychological stress, which reduces life satisfaction (Boekhorst et al., 2017; Hobfoll, 2001). Thus, both losers and winners of organisational politics may incur strain, which might negatively impact their life satisfaction. Moreover, because a politically charged work environment has the tendency to breed unhealthy competition among organisational members, employees may see themselves as rivals and refuse to support one another in completion of task. Prior studies evidence that social support is an important resource that has instrumental value and leads to increased life satisfaction (Kiazad et al., 2014; Kong et al., 2019). In consonance with the forgoing arguments, I hypothesize that:

H1. POP are negatively related to life satisfaction.

2.8 Potential Mediators in Perception of organisational Politics and Life Satisfaction

Another important objective of the present study is to explore potential mediators in the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. In this section, I discuss job satisfaction, affective commitment, and work engagement as possible between the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. In the following subsections, I draw on the COR theory and past literature to discuss how each of the three variables may serve as mediators in POP and life satisfaction. I commence with a discussion on how job satisfaction could mediate POP and life satisfaction. This followed by discussion on how affective commitment and work engagement could mediate the association between POP and life satisfaction.



2.8.1 Job Satisfaction

As I indicated earlier, I expect in the current study that POP will affect life satisfaction via job satisfaction. Consistent with COR perspective (Hobfoll, 2001), employees with perceptions of high levels of negative politics in the workplace may lose important work resources, such as pay rise, promotion opportunities, scholarship, feedback, and recognition. In organisations where individuals perceive high levels of dysfunctional political activities, employees may incur stress as they may find it hard to safeguard their valued work-related resources. In addition, employees who are unable to safeguard their important work resources because of increased POP may go through stress. Under such circumstance, employees may show decreased job satisfaction (Khamisa et al., 2016; Voltmer et al., 2012). Furthermore, employees who perceive that the organisation is characterised by negative politics are likely to have their pool of resources in the organisation depleted (Ampofo et al., 2022c). This may be common among employees who are not astute in politics. This suggests that in a politically motivated work environment, employees who have their existing work-related resources drained may be exposed to further resources forfeiture and have diminished capability to obtain additional resources in the work organisation. Thus, employees in a politically charged work environment who have their valued organisational resources lost or are unable to acquire additional valued organisational resources have the tendency to demonstrate low levels of job satisfaction. Earlier research has indicated that POP fosters negative employee attitudes, including job satisfaction. For example, Hochwarter's (2003) research revealed that employees who perceived high levels of dysfunctional politics in the organisation showed lower job satisfaction. Furthermore, a study by Witt et al. (2000) revealed that POP decreased employees' job satisfaction. Assessing the views of employees in the public sector in Israel, Vigoda (2000) also found that POP negatively influenced job satisfaction.

In this paragraph, I argue that employees who are low on job satisfaction may report decreased life satisfaction. Research has shown that a negative spillover from work was associated with decreased life satisfaction (Wolfram & Gratton, 2014). Lower job satisfaction represents negative experience, which may spillover into lower life satisfaction (Ampofo, 2021). This suggests that workers are dissatisfied with their job as a result of perception of dysfunctional politics in the workplace are likely to report low levels of life satisfaction. In a work environment with high perceptions of individuals' engagement in dysfunctional politics, employees may not have the capacity to protect those work-related resources whose forfeiture tends to reduce the satisfaction levels employees have with their jobs. Employees who forfeit work resources that potentially enhance their job satisfaction may exhibit reduced satisfaction with their lives. Zhao et al. (2016) found that job satisfaction positively affected hotel employees' life satisfaction. Ampofo's (2021) recent study revealed that frontline employees who were high on job satisfaction reported enhanced life satisfaction. Moreover, Ampofo et al. (2018) found that employees who were satisfied their jobs showed higher life satisfaction. Accordingly, I propose that:

H2. Job satisfaction mediates the negative association between POP and life satisfaction.

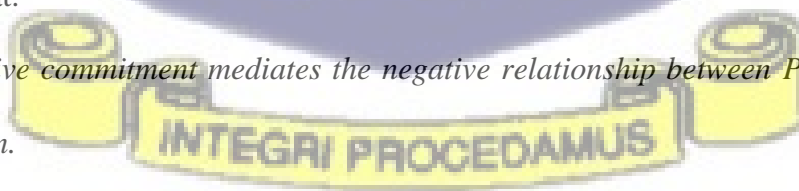
2.8.2 Affective Commitment

Consistent with the COR perspective (Hobfoll, 2001), the present study anticipates that affective commitment will function as an intervening variable in the nexus between POP and life satisfaction. I argue that in a politically motivated work environment, employees who forfeit important organisational resources, such as pay rise, promotion opportunities, and access to skill

training programs, are likely to be emotionally detached from the organisation, since loss of valued resources invokes psychological stress (Hobfoll, 2001; Hobfoll et al., 2018). Employees tend to develop a strong attachment to an organisation that offers them important work resources (De Clercq & Pereira, 2020; Liu et al., 2019). When employees develop the perception that the organisation in which they work facilitates work resources threats and/or losses, they are likely to decrease the level of affection they have for the organisation (Ampofo & Karatepe, 2022a). That is, employees who have their resources threatened or lost due to perceptions of political machinations in the company may lower their ‘want to remain’ in the company. Those employees may find it difficult to emotionally attach themselves to organisations that do not care about protecting their valued work-related resources. Furthermore, because perceptions of politics may deplete work resources, individuals working in organisations where adverse political activities are perceived to be high may incur psychological stress, since employees with inadequate resources are more predisposed to resources losses (Gabriel et al., 2018; Hobfoll et al., 2018; Park & Lee, 2020). Thus, employees who possess fewer organisation-provided resources are unlikely to express greater emotional bond with the organisation because of their greater weakness to resources losses (Hobfoll, 2001; Halbesleben et al., 2014; Westman, 2014). Also, employees with high POP may be less positioned to obtain additional resources to heighten their affective commitment. This is because people who have a few resources are less proficient to resource gains (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Therefore, POP tends to make the organisation unappealing to employees, since employees are unlikely to develop an emotional attachment toward an organisation that engenders resources threats or losses. Past studies have demonstrated that employees who perceived high levels of adverse political engagements in the organisation reported lower affective commitment (Hochwarter, 2003; Park & Lee, 2020; Vigoda, 2000).

In turn, employees with lower affective commitment are less likely to express satisfaction with their lives. Employees who do not desire to remain in an organisation because of resource depletion through perceptions of organisation politics may not be satisfied with their lives. Research suggests that personal resources have instrumental value (Hobfoll, 2001). However, employees who show low levels of affective commitment are unlikely to invest their personal resources such as time, effort, knowledge, and expertise to increase the well-being of the organisation. Because instrumental resources increase individuals' capacity to acquire other resources (Ampofo, 2021; Ampofo & Karatepe, 2022b; Kiazad et al., 2014), employees who fail to utilise their personal resources may lack additional work resources to increase their life satisfaction. In addition, employees who have diminished love for the organisation and would not want to stay after experiencing work resources threats and/or depletion are unlikely to show satisfaction with their lives, since work is a critical domain of life. Prior studies have shown that affective commitment has positive influence on life satisfaction. For instance, Rathi and Lee (2017) gathered from employees working as assistant managers and customer sales executives in the organised retail sector in India and found that affective commitment was positively associated with employees' level of satisfaction with life. Furthermore, Lambert et al.'s (2013) study on correctional staff in two different prisons in America revealed that employees who are affectively committed to their organisation demonstrated higher satisfaction with their lives. In line with the forgoing arguments, I hypothesize that:

H3. Affective commitment mediates the negative relationship between POP and life satisfaction.



2.8.3 Work Engagement

This subsection presents argument for the possible mediating role of work engagement in POP's relationship with life satisfaction. Work resources have been identified as primary predictors of work engagement (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Demerouti et al., 2001; Radic et al., 2020). Thus, employees need adequate work resources to be engaged at work (Halbesleben, 2010; Malinowska & Tokarz, 2020; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Conversely, employees with inadequate resources are likely to be disengaged in their work (Radic et al., 2020; Schaufeli et al., 2002). Because POP may engender resource loss, employees who find themselves in organisations where negative politicking is high among individuals are likely to demonstrate low level of work engagement. Additionally, politics can be stressful among players, since their time and energy would be needed in a successful political activism (Alcoba & Phinaitrup, 2020; Kumasey & Hossain, 2020). In organisations where individuals are politically charged, employees who are actively engaged in politics are likely to exhaust the energy to engage in their work, while those employees who are not politically active may forfeit work resources that potentially enhance work engagement. Resource-depleted employees are likely to disengage in their work because their fewer resources within the organisation would expose them to more resource loss (Hobfoll, 2001). Prior studies have demonstrated that employees with perceptions of unfairness in the work organisation demonstrated lower levels of engagement at work (e.g., Agarwal, 2014; Park et al., 2016).

In turn, I anticipate that disengaged employees may show dissatisfaction with their lives. Employees who are disengaged at work are unlikely to report higher satisfaction with their lives, because their depleted work-related resources would put them in a situation that is stressful (Demerouti et al., 2001; Halbesleben et al., 2014). Organisations are less likely to provide

employees who are not engaged in their work with important resources, such as bonuses, to increase their life satisfaction. As a motivational construct, work engagement drives employees to achieve important work outcomes (Amor et al., 2020; Ibrahim et al., 2019; Karatepe & Karadas, 2015). This suggests that disengaged employees are likely to be demotivated at work, thereby reducing their life satisfaction. The components of work engagement, that is, vigour (represents level of energy), dedication (represents enthusiasm) and absorption (denotes full concentration of the mind) may help employees to acquire other important resources in the organisation because of their instrumental value (Hobfoll, 1989; Hobfoll et al., 2018; Kiazad et al., 2014). Disengaged employees show tendencies of low vigour, dedication, and absorption at work (Hejjas et al., 2019; Rastogi et al., 2018). Therefore, employees who are disengaged in their work may lack the ability to obtain additional organisational resources to enhance their life satisfaction. Prior empirical research has revealed that employees engaged at work reported heightened life satisfaction. For example, a study by Cain et al. (2018) on executive chefs showed that work engagement increased life satisfaction. In addition, using a sample of 1045 Swiss employees, Meynhardt et al. (2020) found that employees who show greater levels of engagement at work were more satisfied with their lives. Employing a multi-wave data that were collected from employees who provide frontline services in rated hotels in Accra, Ampofo (2021) also found that work engagement positively influenced life satisfaction. Moreover, in their study on employees drawn from international star chain hotels in Romania, Karatepe and Karadas (2015) indicated that employees who perceived that they were engaged at work demonstrated higher satisfied with their lives. Furthermore, Hakanen and Schaufeli's (2012) three different times study among Finish dentists revealed that work engagement positively influenced life satisfaction. Similarly, Upadyaya et al.

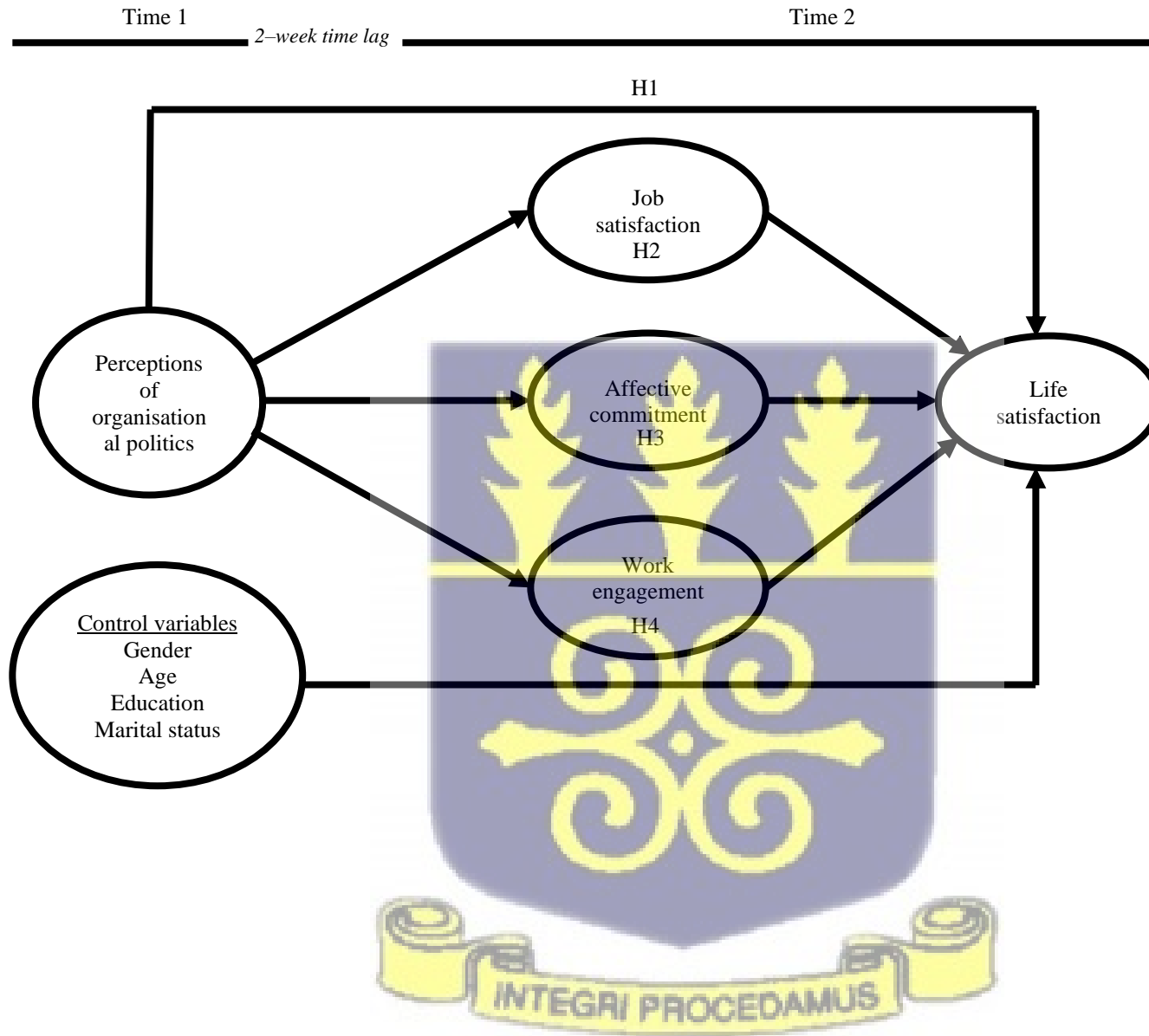
(2016) found that surgeons' who were engaged at work reported high levels of satisfaction with life. Consistent with the above arguments, I hypothesize that:

H4. Work engagement mediates the negative relationship between POP and life satisfaction.

2.9 Conceptual Framework

Figure 2.1 illustrates the conceptual framework that contains the variables, and the relationships among them. The conceptual framework illustrates four basic relationships. In the figure, I first conceptualised that there is a direct relationship between POP and life satisfaction, which represents hypothesis 1 (as formulated in this chapter). Additionally, Figure 2.1 shows three mediator variables that potentially influence the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. The first mediator variable is job satisfaction. As illustrated in Figure 2.1, job satisfaction potentially mediates the relationship between POP and life satisfaction, which represents hypothesis 2 (as formulated in this chapter). The second mediator variable in Figure 2.1 is affective commitment. Figure 2.1 illustrates the potential mediating effect of affective commitment on the relationship between POP and life satisfaction, which represents hypothesis 3 (as formulated in this chapter). Figure 2.1 indicates the third mediator variable, which is work engagement. The figure suggests work engagement as possible mediator in POP's association with life satisfaction. In Figure 2.1, this relationship reflects hypothesis 4 (as formulated in this chapter). Finally, as conceptualised in Figure 2.1, and in accordance with earlier research on life satisfaction, I controlled for the effects of demographic variables, such as gender, education, age, and marital status.

Figure 2. 1 Conceptual framework



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses the research methodology of the thesis. Specifically, the chapter includes describing the research paradigm, research design, sample and sampling procedures, methods and instruments, ethical considerations, validity and reliability, the pilot study, data analysis, and limitations of the proposed study.

3.1 Research Paradigm

A research paradigm refers to a set of basic assumptions and beliefs as to how the world is perceived, which then serves as a thinking framework that guides how the researcher behaves (Jonker & Pennink, 2010). Creswell (2014) has identified four classifications of a research paradigm. These include constructivism, post-positivism, pragmatism and advocacy or participatory. Post-positivists believe in the objectivity of their findings (Cooper & Schindler 2006). They are more aligned with quantitative research because of the testing of objective theories that exist in the relationship among variables (Creswell, 2014). Constructivists argue that the world would be understood when the researcher adopts subjective meanings of his or her experiences and look out for multiple ideas (Creswell, 2014). Advocacy focuses that research comprises an action agenda for reform that tend to alter the various lives which include the participants, the researcher, and the participants' organisation (Creswell, 2014). Lastly, pragmatism focuses on making investigations based on research problems instead of methods and adopt all available approaches that seeks to provide solutions to the problem (Creswell, 2014).

The post positivism assumption underpins the current study because post positivism is typically used in quantitative research, rather than qualitative studies (Creswell, 2014). Since the present study examines the nexus between POP and life satisfaction, it was more appropriate to have a post positivism view because such research identifies and assesses the variables that influence outcomes (Creswell, 2014). Also, post positivists believe that scientific researchers start a study with a theory, then collect numeric data that either support or reject the theory, and later make necessary revisions before additional tests are made (Creswell, 2014). Additionally, post positivists advance relationships among variables and achieve results by using hypotheses (Creswell, 2014). However, they believe that there is no truth because knowledge is conjectural, thus research hypotheses are not proved but rather confirmed or rejected (Phillips et al., 2000). As indicated in Chapter Two, I formulated four hypotheses, and their confirmation or rejection would be contingent on the results.

3.2 Research Approach

The current study employs a quantitative approach. According to Hittleman and Simon (1997), quantitative research is distinct by using surveys, questionnaires, and experiments to collect data to perform statistical analysis. In the present study, I used structured questionnaires for data collection. The questionnaires sought participants' perceptions on questions relating to organisational politics, life satisfaction, affective commitment, work engagement, and job satisfaction. Because quantitative research is also most appropriate for testing hypotheses (Creswell, 2014), four hypotheses were tested in this research. Quantitative research explains phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analyzed using mathematically based methods (Creswell, 1994). Thus, this study analyzed the collected data with Statistical Package for Social

Sciences (SPSS; version 25), analysis of a moment structures (AMOS; version 25) and Sobel test. Additional important feature of quantitative research is to control for alternative explanations (Babbie, 1990; Creswell, 2009). In the present study, I controlled for the confounding effects of demographic variables (i.e., gender and age) on the nexus between POP and life satisfaction. Control variables are a special type of independent variables that potentially influence the dependent variable, to the extent that they inhibit the true influence of the independent variable on the dependent (Creswell, 2009).

3.3 Research Design

Research design denotes a plan that provides an explicit description about where, when, and how data are to be gathered and analysed (Parahoo, 1997). Sekaran and Bougie (2016) defined research design as the blueprint that directs the research process for collecting, determining, evaluating, and finally converging to the explication of the research problem. In the present study, I employed cross-sectional research design. According to Cohen et al. (2013), cross-sectional design produces a ‘snapshot’ of a population. Usually, cross-sectional data are gathered at one point in time (Reaves, 1992; Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The present study employed cross-sectional research design to gather data from university administrators in Ghana at a specific point in time.

3.4 Study Context

This study was limited to the senior administrative staff of two public universities in Ghana, namely University of Cape Coast (UCC) and Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST). The UCC is located in the Central regional capital of Ghana, Cape Coast, while KNUST is located in the Ashanti regional capital, Kumasi. UCC and KNUST have five and

seven colleges respectively. All these colleges have faculties, school, departments, institutes, and centres functioning under them. Thus, there is a significant number of employees who serve as senior administrators in these selected universities.

3.5 Population

Population is the target group that researcher shows interest in gathering information and drawing conclusion (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). In this study, the population comprised employees of the UCC and KNUST. The population was drawn from UCC and KNUST, because perceptions of politics in the workplace are common among public organisations in Ghana. The study's population boundary comprised employees occupying senior administrative positions in the universities. This is because senior administrative positions and engagements are largely inspired by politics in universities. More specifically, politics is perceived as high among administrative staff in universities since those who are highly skilled and vigorously engaged in politics are likely to protect and obtain important resources like promotion opportunities, opportunities for relevant skills training, attractive transfers, and substantial bonuses. The total number of senior administrative employees in UCC and KNUST are 557 and 684 respectively.

3.6 Sample and Sampling Procedure

Creswell (2016) defined sample as a subset of a population. From the perspective of Sekaran (2000), a sample consists of a selection of members from the specific population. As earlier noted, the study's participants were senior administrative employees in the two public universities in Ghana. On the other hand, sampling is the technique of choosing a representation of the population for determining characteristics of the whole population (Mugo, 2012). Sampling procedure helps

determine how participants are selected in a study (Creswell, 2009). In this study, I used convenience sampling procedure to select participants. This sampling procedure was useful in selecting the participants, because the Covid-19 pandemic restricted access to participants.

3.7 Data Collection

In this study, I collected data from primary sources. Primary data are first-hand data that the researcher collects from the actual site where the events took place for a specific research objective (Sekaran, 2000). In this study, the questionnaire was the main research instrument that was used to collect data in the study. Specifically, I used the structured and closed-ended questionnaire to collect data in this study because it is a quick and generally inexpensive means to obtain a large number of data (Nieswiadomy, 2012). Another reason for employing the questionnaire as a data collection tool in this study was that the questionnaire enables participants to remain anonymous, which has the tendency to increase the honesty of responses (Nieswiadomy, 2012). Participants were approached and the purpose of the study was explained to them. Participants were given enough time to respond to the questionnaires. I used two questionnaires to gather a time-lagged data from participants to minimise socially desirable responses (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Specifically, Time 1 and Time 2 questionnaires were employed to collect data in the study. The Time 1 questionnaire sought responses on participants' demography and POP. Six items were used to assess POP in Time 1. The Time 2 questionnaire sought participants' responses on life satisfaction, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and work engagement. Four items were used to measure POP in Time 2. The Time 1 questionnaire could be completed within 5 minutes, while the Time 2 questionnaire could be completed within 10 minutes. I personally administered the questionnaires to the participants. I traced the responses of the participants for the two different

questionnaires with an office/university/number code. I gave participants guidelines on how to complete the questionnaires. I asked participants to put the completed questionnaires into envelopes and personally hand them over to me.

3.8 Measurement Instruments

As earlier indicated, I assessed participants' views about the constructs by using questionnaires, which comprise measurement instruments. In this section, I outline the measurement instruments used to assess the constructs in this study. It is important to note that I used measures from prior studies to assess the constructs. In the sub-sections that follow, I describe in detail the measurement instruments used to assess the constructs in this study.

3.8.1 Life Satisfaction

I assessed life satisfaction with five items from Diener et al. (1985). These items include: “The conditions of my life are excellent”, and “If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing”. Response options range from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5 = “strongly agree”.

3.8.2 Work Engagement

I employed Schaufeli et al.'s (2006) Utrecht Work and Engagement scale to measure work engagement. The scale has nine items. Also, the scale assesses three dimensions of work engagement: vigour, dedication, and absorption. Of the nine items within the scale, each dimension is assessed with three items. Sample items include “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous (vigor), “I am enthusiastic about my job” (dedication), and “I am immersed in my work” (absorption). Response options range from 0 = “never” and 6 = “always”.

3.8.3 Perceptions of Organisational Politics

The Perceptions of Organisational Politics (POPs) scale which was developed by Kacmar and Ferris (1991) was employed to assess employees' perceptions of politics in the organisation. POPS uses 12 items to describe general political behaviour, political behaviour to “get ahead”, and ambiguity in pay and promotion policies and rules. Responses are obtained using a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. Examples of items are “One group always gets their way in the organisation” and “People build themselves by tearing others down”. Previous studies have reported Cronbach's Alpha values ranging from .80 to .91 (Hsiung et al., 2012; Kacmar & Ferris, 1991; Karatepe, 2013; Cropanzano et al., 1997).

3.8.4 Job Satisfaction

Three items from Mitchell et al. (2001) were used to gauge job satisfaction. The response options are on a five-point Likert-type scale where 1= strongly disagree and 5= strongly agree. A sample item is “All in all, I am satisfied with my job”.

3.8.5 Affective Commitment

Assessment of affective commitment was done with six items developed by Meyer and Allen (1997). A sample item is “I feel “emotionally attached” to this organisation.” A five-point Likert-type scale was used where 1 = “strongly disagree” and 5 = “strongly agree”.

3.8.6 Control variables

In the present study, control variables, which may result in statistical confound, include age, gender, marital status, and education. Preceding studies have shown that gender, marital status, age, and education influence employee life satisfaction (e.g., Ampofo et al., 2018; Moksnes &

Espnes, 2013). I assessed gender using “1 = male” and “2 = female”. Age was measured as “1 = < 30 years”, “2 = 30 – 40 years”, “3 = 41 – 50 years”, and “4 = 51 – 60 years”. Education was assessed as “1 = JHS/O’ Level certificate”, “2 = Diploma”, “3 = Bachelor’s degree”, and “4 = Master’s degree”. Lastly, I measured marital status as “1 = Married” and “2 = Single”.

3.9 Ethical Considerations

Participants expect that researchers put in appropriate measures in place to protect their dignity, rights, and safety (Burns & Grove, 1997; Babbie, 2020). The study adhered to several ethical standards. First, I sought the consent and approval all participants before questionnaire administration. Participants were asked not to indicate anything (such as name and address) on the questionnaire that might disclose their identity (Babbie, 2020). Moreover, no employee was pressured to participate in the study. Also, I ensured that the questionnaire format was straightforward to assist the understanding of participants. To reduce ambiguity, I carefully constructed and thoroughly edited the questionnaire items before they were administered to participants (Tourangeau et al., 2000).

3.10 Validity and Reliability

Validity is the degree to which the instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). In this study, I checked for the convergent and discriminant validity of the instruments, because these are the best ways to check the construct validity of a measurement instrument (Campbell & Fiske, 1959). Convergent validity refers to the extent to which two or more independent measures that assess the same construct agree (Knight, 1997). Discriminant validity refers to the degree to which measures of different constructs are distinct (Bagozzi et al.,

1991). Procedurally, validity was checked in two ways: (1) by controlling confounding variables (age, marital status, education, and gender) to avoid alternative explanations of the findings; and (2) by maximising the study's response rate. Statistically, I performed CFA via AMOS to examine more precisely the convergent and discriminant validity of the instruments. On the other hand, reliability refers to the extent to which the instruments produce consistently precise measures of the construct (Churchill, 1979). Cronbach's alpha coefficient was utilised to test the reliability of the constructs and considered constructs with Cronbach's alpha coefficients > 0.70 as adequate (Sekaran, 2003).

3.11 Pre and Post Testing the Questionnaire

A pilot study is “a small investigation to test the feasibility of procedures and to gather information prior to a larger study” (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2002, p. 33). It helps to fine tune a measuring instrument by identifying possible flaws and ambiguous items and providing information about any embarrassment or discomfort experienced concerning the content or wording of items in the measuring instrument (Creswell, 2009; Reynolds et al., 1993; Welman & Kruger, 1999). The pretest study conducted personal interview, which is described by Boyd et al. (1989) as the best way of pretesting. The argument in favor of personal interview is that it enables the researcher to observe the participant as the questionnaire is being completed (Reynolds et al., 1993). Also, it helps to achieve the following objectives: (1) to evaluate how respondents interpreted the meaning of questionnaire items; (2) to check whether the range of response alternatives were sufficient; (3) to determine if the layout of the questionnaire was clear for respondents; and (4) to assess motivational features of the questionnaire. In this study, 10 senior administrative staff from KNUST were interviewed on the questionnaire after their responses. The pretest study revealed

some typo errors in the questionnaire. Participants suggested an increased font size. These amendments were incorporated in the main study. Employees who participated in the pre-test were not be included in the main study.

3.12 Data Analysis

Data obtained was analyzed because raw data becomes useless if it is not processed into information for decision-making purpose Data received from participants were checked to detect and correct potential errors and omissions (Emory & Cooper, 1991). Missing values were replaced using the expected maximisation technique. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (version 25) and Amos (version 25) were employed for the data analysis. SPSS is a powerful and user-friendly software package which is used for all kinds of statistical analysis of data (Levesque, 2007). According to Jasrai (2020), SPSS is designed to handle a large set of data with multiple variables related to it. SPSS is mostly used to perform descriptive analysis, correlation, and multivariate analysis (George & Mallery, 2019). Structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis was employed to test the four hypotheses of the study. SEM consists of two models, that is, a measurement model and a structural model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair et al., 2010). The measurement model emphasizes the linkage that exist between measures of indicators, constructs, and the constructs they were designed to assess, whereas the structural model emphasizes the directional relations between constructs (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). In other words, the measures' psychometric properties were gauged using CFA, while the linkages were assessed via the structural model. I used SEM in this study because it combines various multivariate analysis methods (e.g., factor analysis and multiple regression), assesses whether a specific model best fits the statistics, simultaneously estimates a measurement model, specifies relationships between

underlying latent variables and measured variables, and specifies structural relationships among the latent variables (Hu & Bentler, 1998; Yuan, 2005). According to Kline (2011), SEM allows simultaneous testing of direct and indirect relationships between constructs. SEM is a flexible analysis tool that allows modelling of data structures that violate assumptions of traditional models, such as uncorrelated errors and homogeneous error variances (DeShon, 1998). Further, I used SEM to analyze data in this study because I sampled 374 participants, which is consistent with Kline's (2011) rule of thumb that a sample size of more than 200 is required when using maximum likelihood estimation.



CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

In this chapter, I present the results of the analysis with the aid of key tables and figures. I start the chapter with a presentation of the participants' demographic profile, including age and gender. Thereafter, I performed preliminary analyses to determine if the data were suitable for testing the research model. This is followed by the results for an eight-factor CFA model. I present and analyse structural model results relating to the study's hypotheses. I conclude the chapter with discussion of the results.

4.1 Demography of participants

I present results regarding the demographic characteristics of participants in the study. Results of four demographic variables are presented in this chapter. These variables include gender, education, marital status and age. In the sub-sections below, I commence with presentation of results on participants' gender. This is followed by results of participants' age, then results on participants' marital status, and finally results on participants' level of education.

4.1.1 Participants' Gender

Table 4.1 shows the gender of participants. The statistics indicate that 168 participants were female. This represents 59.57%. On the other hand, 114 participants were males, who represents 40.43%. Therefore, the results suggest that the participants were male-dominated. This is not surprising since females usually occupy most administrative roles in Ghana such as secretary.

Table 4. 1 Participants' gender

	Frequency	Percent
Male	114	40.43
Female	168	59.57

Field data 2021

4.1.2 Participants' Age

Table 4.2 shows results for the age of participants. Of 282 participants, 24 participants were below 30 years, 95 participants were between 30 and 40 years, 90 participants were between the ages of 41 and 50, and 73 participants were between 51 and 60 years. These represent 8.51%, 33.69%, 31.91% and 25.89% respectively.

Table 4. 2 Participants' age

Years	Frequency	Percent
< 30	24	8.51
30 – 40	95	33.69
41 – 50	90	31.91
51 – 60	73	25.89

Field data 2021

4.1.3 Participants' Marital Status

Table 4.3 shows statistics relating to the marital status of the study's participants. Hundred and seventy-nine (representing 63.48%) participants were married, while 103 participants (representing 36.52%) were not married. The results are unsurprising, since most of the participants are female who are 30 years and above. Marriage is an utmost priority and preference for most females in Ghana, given the high level of respect accorded married women.

Table 4. 3 Participants' marital status

	Frequency	Percent
Married	179	63.48
Not married	103	36.52

Field data 2021

4.1.4 Participants' Level of Education

Table 4.4 shows the level of education of participants. Most of the participants (130, representing 46.10%) had obtained Bachelor's degree. This was followed by Diploma certificate, which had been obtained by 86 participants. This represents 30.50%. The third most attained certificate was O'Level/High school. This had been obtained by 38 participants, which represents 13.48%. Finally, 28 participants had obtained Master's degree. This represents 9.93%.

Table 4. 4 Participants' level of education

	Frequency	Percent
O'Level/High school	38	13.48
Diploma	86	30.50
Bachelor's degree	130	46.10
Master's degree	28	9.93

Field data 2021

4.2 Assumption of Normality

Table 4.5 shows results relating to normal distribution. The results show that all the constructs were normally distributed because their skewness and kurtosis were between -2 and +2.

Table 4. 5 Normality results

Variables	Skewness	Kurtosis
Perceptions of organisational politics	0.405	-0.739
Job satisfaction	-0.525	-1.082
Affective commitment	-0.745	-0.638
Work engagement	-0.955	0.306
Life satisfaction	0.015	-1.069

Field data 2021

4.3 Mean Statistics

Results for mean statistics are shown in Table 4.6. POP recorded a mean score of 3.551 and a standard deviation of 1.544. Additionally, the mean and standard deviation for affective



commitment were 3.408 and 1.144 respectively. I also recorded a mean score of 4.362 and a standard deviation of 1.904 for job satisfaction. Life satisfaction had a mean score of 3.016 and a standard deviation of 1.163. Finally, the mean and standard deviation for work engagement were 4.019 and 1.418 respectively.

Table 4. 6 Mean Statistics

Variables	Mean	Standard deviation
POP	3.551	1.544
Job satisfaction	4.362	1.904
Affective commitment	3.408	1.144
Work engagement	4.019	1.418
Life satisfaction	3.016	1.163

Field data 2021

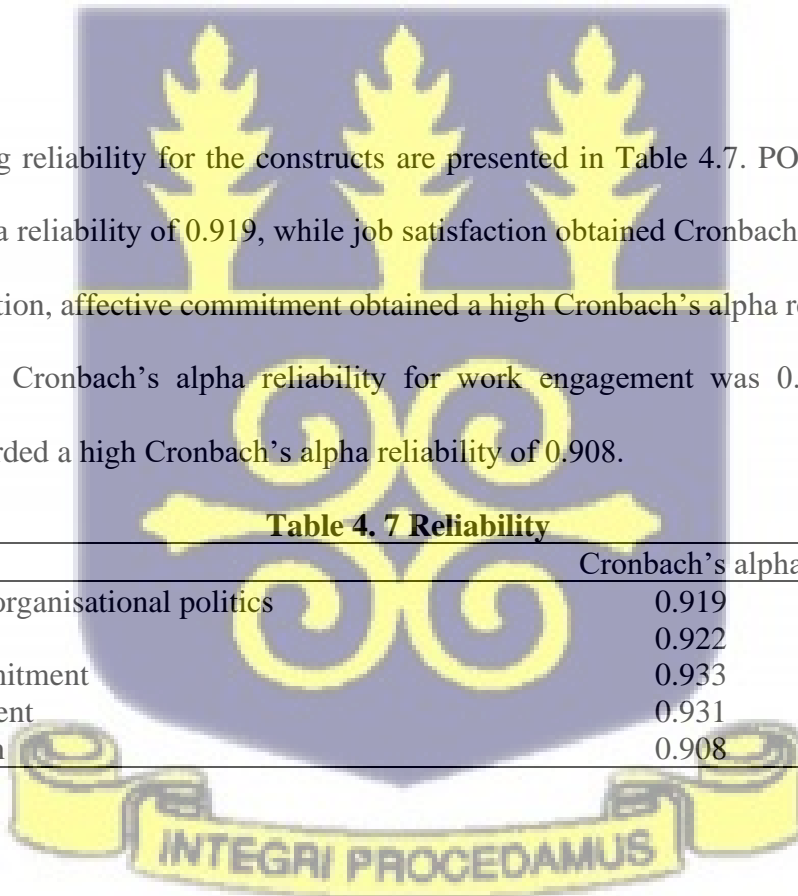
4.4 Reliability

Results regarding reliability for the constructs are presented in Table 4.7. POP recorded a high Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.919, while job satisfaction obtained Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.922. In addition, affective commitment obtained a high Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.933. In addition, the Cronbach's alpha reliability for work engagement was 0.931. Finally, life satisfaction recorded a high Cronbach's alpha reliability of 0.908.

Table 4. 7 Reliability

Variables	Cronbach's alpha
Perceptions of organisational politics	0.919
Job satisfaction	0.922
Affective commitment	0.933
Work engagement	0.931
Life satisfaction	0.908

Field data 2021



4.5 Correlations among the Constructs

Table 4.8 shows the correlations among the constructs. The results show that POP was negatively correlated with job satisfaction ($r = -0.185$, $p < 0.01$), affective commitment ($r = -0.208$, $p < 0.001$), work engagement ($r = -0.144$, $p < 0.05$) and life satisfaction ($r = -0.243$, $p < 0.001$). Moreover, affective commitment was positively correlated with life satisfaction ($r = 0.283$, $p < 0.001$) and work engagement ($r = 0.353$, $p < 0.001$). The results further demonstrate that job satisfaction was positively correlated with affective commitment ($r = 0.167$, $p < 0.01$), work engagement ($r = 0.224$, $p < 0.001$) and life satisfaction ($r = 0.241$, $p < 0.001$). Additionally, the correlation between work engagement and life satisfaction was positive and significant ($r = 0.271$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 4. 8 Correlation matrix

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age								
2. Gender	0.098							
3. Marital status	-0.082	-0.125*						
4. Education	0.106	0.033	0.017					
5. POP	0.020	-0.013	-0.003	0.037				
6. Job satisfaction	-0.034	0.056	-0.057	0.025	-0.185**			
7. Affective commitment	0.052	0.102	-0.034	-0.059	-0.208***	0.167**		
8. Work engagement	-0.014	0.110	-0.011	-0.135*	-0.144*	0.224***	0.353***	
9. Life satisfaction	0.036	0.048	-0.037	-0.043	-0.243***	0.241***	0.283***	0.271***

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$ (two-tailed). POP = Perceptions of organisational politics.

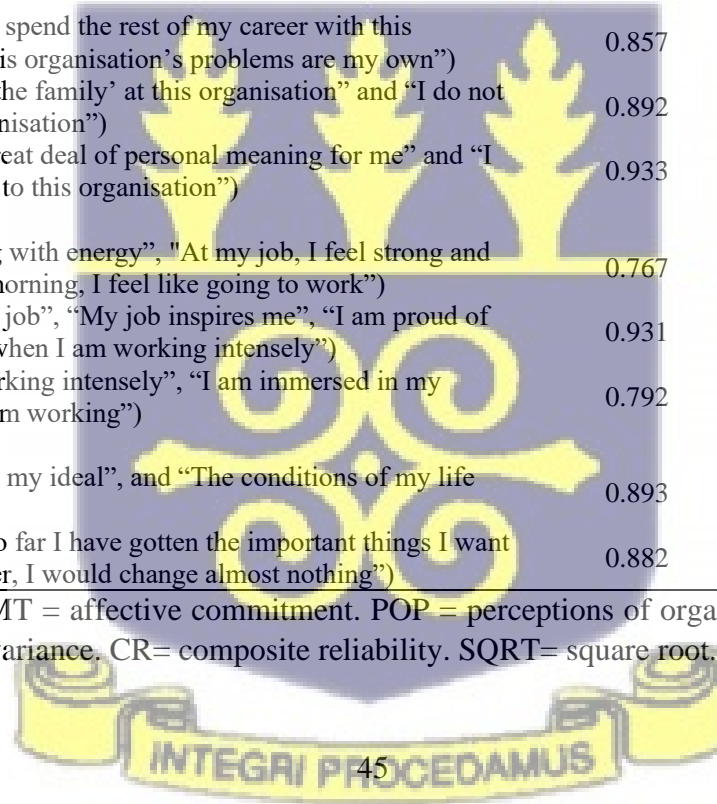
4.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Table 4.9 shows results for CFA. The results demonstrate that the CFA fitted the data sufficiently: $\chi^2 = 94.225$, $df = 67$, $\chi^2/df = 1.406$, CFI = 0.990, TLI = 0.986, RMSEA = 0.038. Convergent validity was verified because the AVEs and standardised loadings exceeded 0.50 (Hair et al., 2010). The AVEs also exceeded MSV which suggests satisfactory discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010).

Table 4. 9 Confirmatory factor analysis

Constructs and items	Factor loadings	CR	AVE	MSV	SQRT of AVE
Perceptions of organisational politics		0.912	0.776	0.075	0.881
POP_1 (“There is a lot of self-serving behaviour going on”, “People do what is best for them, not what is best for the organisation”)	0.808				
POP_2 (“People spend too much time sucking up to those who can help them”, and “People are working behind the scenes to ensure that they get their piece of the pie”)	0.926				
POP_3 (“Many employees are trying to manoeuvre their way into the in- group” and “Individuals are stabbing each other in the back to look good in front of others”)	0.904				
Job satisfaction		0.923	0.799	0.078	0.894
All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	0.887				
In general, I don’t like my job.	0.855				
In general, I like working here.	0.938				
Affective commitment		0.923	0.800	0.187	0.895
ACMCMT 1 (“I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation”, and “I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own”)	0.857				
ACCMT 2 (“I do not feel like ‘part of the family’ at this organisation” and “I do not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to this organisation”)	0.892				
ACCMT 3 (“This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me” and “I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to this organisation”)	0.933				
Work engagement		0.871	0.694	0.187	0.883
WENG 1 (“At my work, I feel bursting with energy”, “At my job, I feel strong and vigorous”, and “When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work”)	0.767				
WENG 2 (“I am enthusiastic about my job”, “My job inspires me”, “I am proud of the work that I do”, and “I feel happy when I am working intensely”)	0.931				
WENG 3 (“I feel happy when I am working intensely”, “I am immersed in my work”, and I get carried away when I am working”)	0.792				
Life satisfaction		0.881	0.788	0.097	0.888
LS 1 (“In most ways my life is close to my ideal”, and “The conditions of my life are excellent”)	0.893				
LS 2 (“I am satisfied with my life”, “So far I have gotten the important things I want in life”, and “If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing”)	0.882				

WENG = work engagement. ACCMT = affective commitment. POP = perceptions of organisational politics. AVE= average variance extracted. MSV= maximum shared variance. CR= composite reliability. SQRT= square root.



4.7 Alternative Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Table 4.10 shows results for five CFAs. As earlier indicated, the Five-factor model is the hypothesized CFA. Additional four CFAs were performed and compared to the hypothesized model. These are Four-factor model, Three-factor model, Two-factor model and One-factor model. The significance of this analysis is to determine if the hypothesized model, compared with other models, has better fit statistics and that the researcher can proceed with further analysis. Analyses showed that all the four alternative CFAs showed unsatisfactory fit statistics and chi-square differences. Therefore, the hypothesized model was used for further analysis since it demonstrated acceptable fit statistics: $\chi^2 = 94.225$, $df = 67$, $\chi^2/df = 1.406$, CFI = 0.990, TLI = 0.986, RMSEA = 0.038.

Furthermore, Table 4.10 contains results for Harman's single-factor test analysis (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003), which help determine the degree of CMB in my data. This is the one-factor model. The results showed that the one-factor model produced an extremely poor fit statistics ($\chi^2 = 1937.802$, $df = 77$, CFI = 0.316, TLI = 0.192, RMSEA = 0.293), as compared to the five-factor model ($\chi^2 = 94.225$, $df = 67$, CFI = 0.990, TLI = 0.986, RMSEA = 0.038), a result suggesting a non-significant CMB in the data.

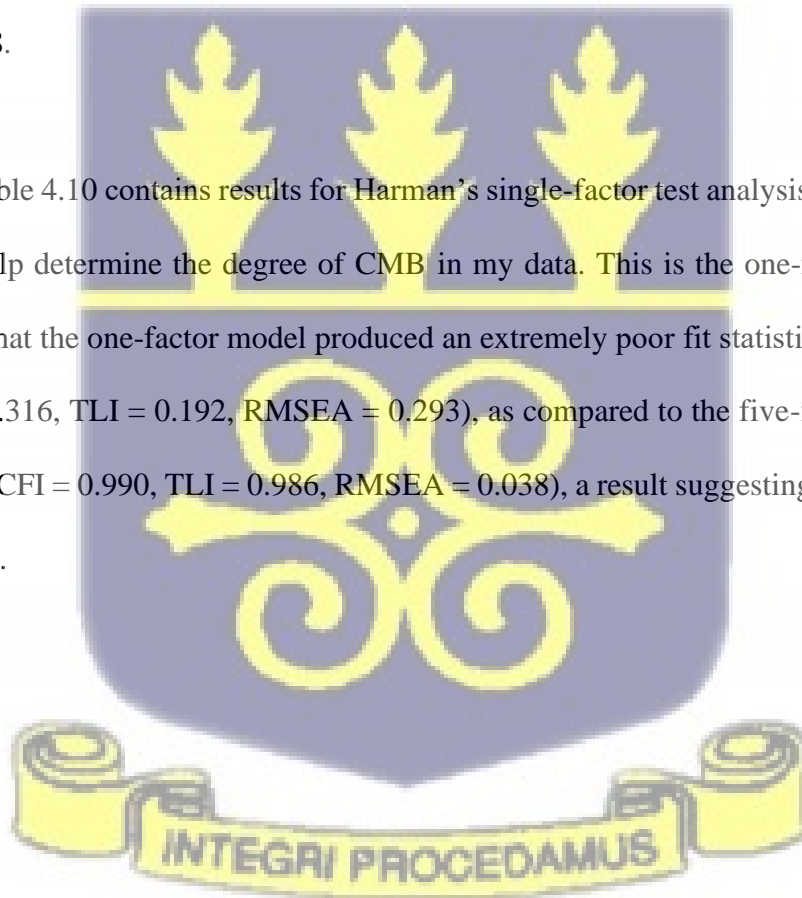


Table 4. 10 Alternative Confirmatory factor analyses

Models	Components	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2_{diff}	<i>df</i> _{diff}	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Five-factor	POP, JS, ACMMT, WE and LS	94.225	67	–	–	0.990	0.986	0.038
Four-factor	POP, ACMMT, WENG, and combined JS, LS	380.121	71	285.896***	4	0.886	0.854	0.124
Three-factor	POP, LS, and combined JS, ACMMT, WENG	1114.122	74	1019.897***	7	0.618	0.530	0.224
Two-factor	combined POP, ACMMT, JS, and combined WENG, LS	1580.951	76	1486.726***	9	0.447	0.338	0.265
One-factor	combined POP, JS, ACMMT, WENG and LS	1937.802	77	1843.577***	10	0.316	0.192	0.293

POP = Perceptions of organisational politics. LS = Life satisfaction. JS = Job satisfaction. ACMMT = Affective commitment. WENG = Work engagement. CFI = comparative fit index. χ^2 = chi-square. *df* = degrees of freedom. *diff* = difference. TLI= Tucker Lewis index. RMSEA= root mean square error of approximation. ****p*< .001 (two-tailed).



4.8 Alternative structural models

Table 4.11 shows results for partial mediation model and full mediation model. The chi-square difference between the partial and mediation models was significant ($\chi^2_{dff} = 13.976, p < 0.05$). The partial mediation model ($\chi^2 = 211.029, df = 119, CFI = 0.966; TLI = 0.957; RMSEA = 0.052$) showed better fit statistics than the full mediation model ($\chi^2 = 225.005, df = 120, CFI = 0.962; TLI = 0.951; RMSEA = 0.056$). Thus, the partial mediation model was retained in the study. The purpose of this analysis was to determine whether the mediation path in the research model was complete or partial.

Table 4. 11 Alternative structural models

Model	χ^2	df	χ^2_{dff}	df _{dff}	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
Partial mediation	211.029	119	—	—	0.966	0.957	0.052
Full mediation	225.005	120	13.976***	1	0.962	0.951	0.056

*** $p < .001$. GFI = goodness of fit index. CFI= comparative fit index. TLI = Tucker Lewis index. RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation.

4.9 Hypotheses Testing

Figure 4.1 shows results for the partial mediation model. The direct path from POP to life satisfaction was negative and significant ($\beta = -0.178, t = -3.703$). This suggests that an increase in POP results in a decrease in life satisfaction. In other words, senior administrative employees who perceived high level of dysfunctional politics in the organisation reported low level of satisfaction with their lives. The finding confirmed hypothesis 1.

Furthermore, the results showed that the indirect effect of POP on life satisfaction was significant ($\beta = -0.104, LLCI = -0.163, ULCI = -0.058$). This implies that POP influenced life satisfaction via job satisfaction, work engagement and affective commitment. However, it was difficult to

determine the specific indirect effect of two or more variables using Amos. To determine the specific indirect effect, Sobel test analysis was performed in the study. Table 4.12 shows the results for the specific mediating effects. The results demonstrate that job satisfaction partly mediated the relationship between POP and life satisfaction ($z = -2.005, p < 0.05$). This denotes that an increased POP diminishes employees' job satisfaction, which in turn reduces their satisfaction with life. Thus, job satisfaction is the mechanism through which employees' POP affected their life satisfaction. The finding confirmed hypothesis 2.

Additionally, the linkage between POP and life satisfaction was partially mediated by affective commitment ($z = -2.007, p < 0.05$). This suggests that employees' perception of workplace politics influenced their life satisfaction via affective commitment. High perceptions of negative politics at work resulted in a decrease in employees' affective commitment, which in turn lowered their life satisfaction. The finding supported hypothesis 3.

Finally, the results of the present study showed that the relationship between POP and life satisfaction was partially mediated by work engagement ($z = -2.056, p < 0.05$). This suggests that POP influenced life satisfaction through work engagement. In other words, an increase in POP resulted in a decrease in work engagement, which subsequently leads to a decrease in life satisfaction. The results confirmed hypothesis 4.

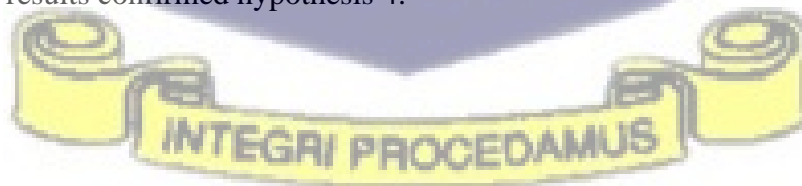


Figure 4.1 Partial mediation model

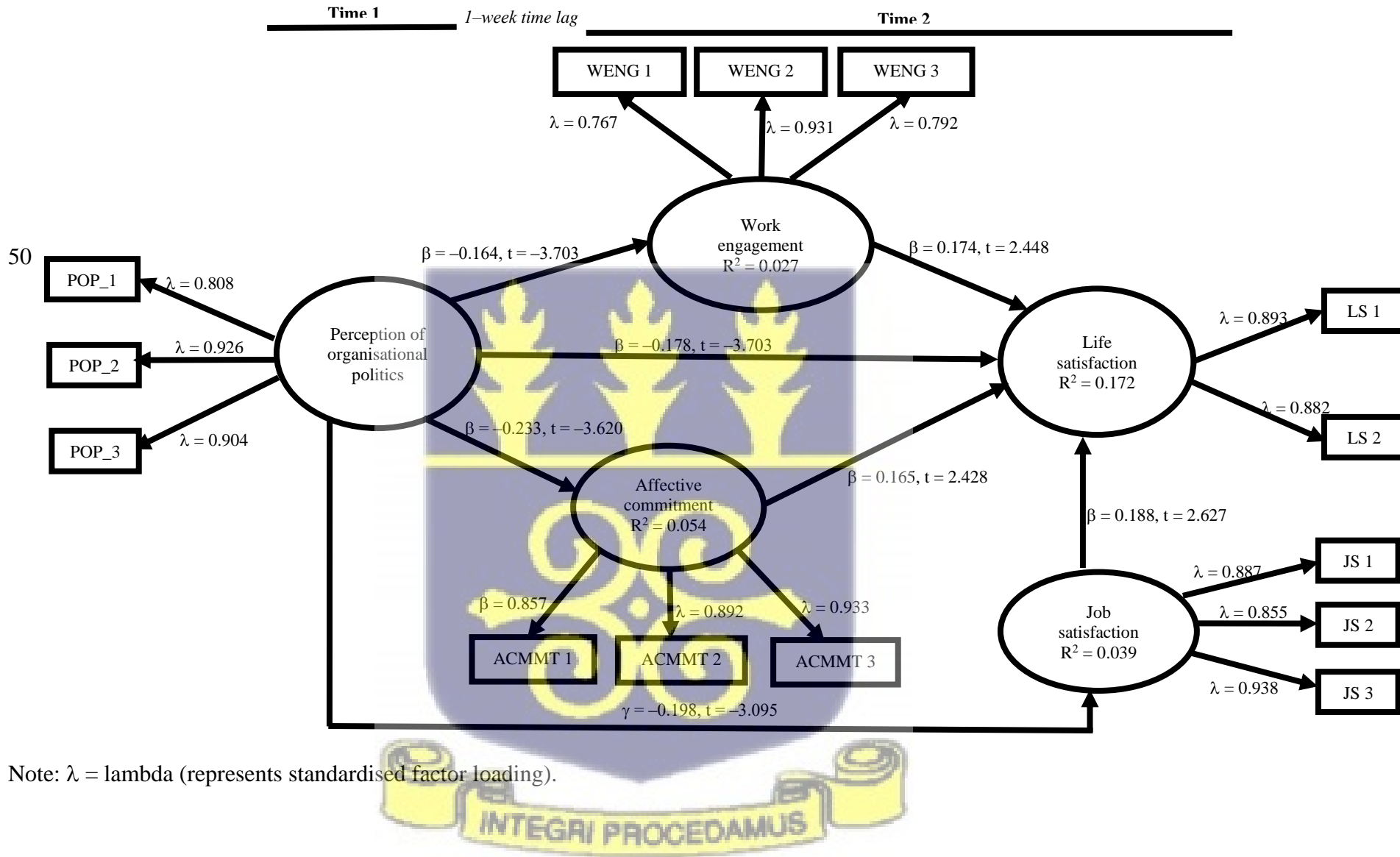


Table 4. 12 Specific indirect effects

Relationships	z-score	p-value
POP → Job satisfaction → Life satisfaction	-2.005	0.045
POP → Affective commitment → Life satisfaction	-2.007	0.045
POP → Work engagement → Life satisfaction	-2.056	0.040

POP = Perceptions of organisational politics.

4.10 A Summary of Results for Hypotheses

As noted in Chapter 1, the purpose of the current study was to demonstrate the effect of POP on life satisfaction and determine whether POP influences life satisfaction through the mechanisms of affective commitment, job satisfaction and work engagement. Table 4.13 provides a summary of results for the hypotheses. When the Time One POP was used as the independent variable in the analysis and the Time Two life satisfaction was used as the dependent variable in the analysis, the results demonstrated that POP negatively influenced life satisfaction, which confirmed hypothesis 1. Additionally, the results largely supported the mediation hypotheses. First, the results supported hypothesis 2 by demonstrating that job satisfaction mediated the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. Second, the results showed that affective commitment mediated the nexus between POP and life satisfaction, which supported hypothesis 3. Finally, the results supported hypothesis 4 by showing that work engagement mediated the association between POP and life satisfaction. In the next section, I discuss the results of this study in relation to the literature.



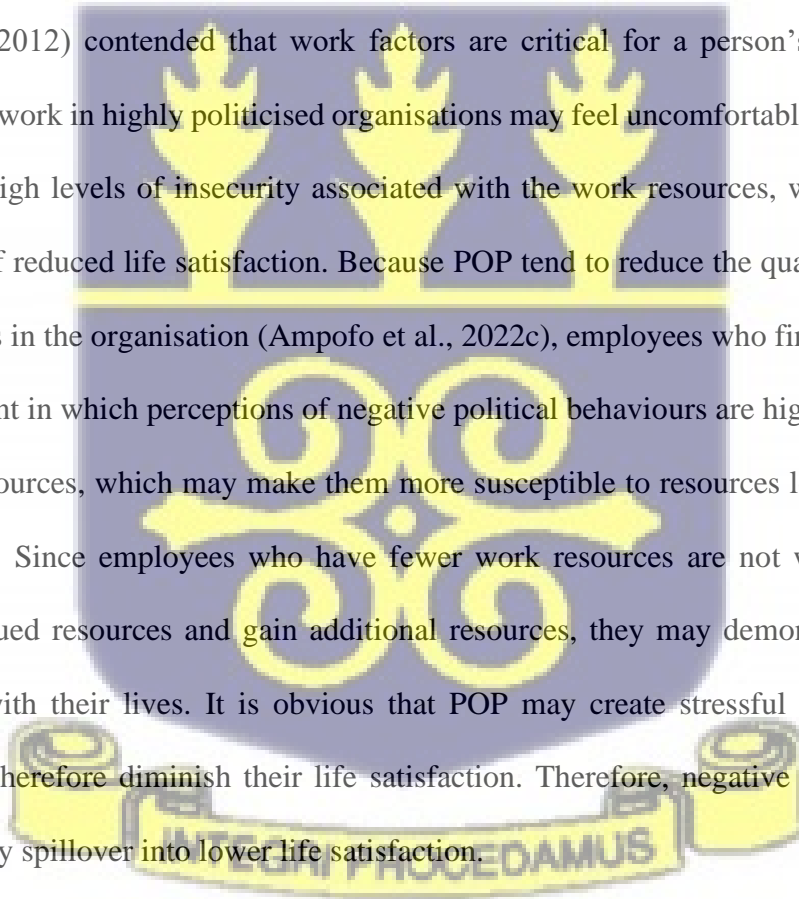
Table 4. 13 A summary of results for hypotheses

Hypotheses	Hypotheses	Confirm
Perceptions of organisational politics are negatively related to life satisfaction.	H1	Yes
Job satisfaction mediates the negative relationship between perception of organisational politics and life satisfaction.	H2	Yes
Affective commitment mediates the negative relationship between perception of organisational politics and life satisfaction.	H3	Yes
Work engagement mediates the negative relationship between perception of organisational politics and life satisfaction.	H4	Yes



4.11 Discussion of Findings

This study explored the effect of POP on life satisfaction. In addition, the study examined whether POP influences life satisfaction via affective commitment, job satisfaction and work engagement. There are at least four observations that surface from the aforesaid findings. First, POP, as workplace stressor, decreases employees' level of life satisfaction. This means that employees who perceived that their organisation is characterised by high levels of negative political activities experienced low level of satisfaction with their lives. Consistent with the COR theory, employees who have their resources lost or threatened with loss as a result of perceived negative politics in the organisation tend to demonstrate lower satisfaction with their lives (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Erdogan et al. (2012) contended that work factors are critical for a person's life satisfaction. Individuals who work in highly politicised organisations may feel uncomfortable in the workplace because of the high levels of insecurity associated with the work resources, which may lead to their reporting of reduced life satisfaction. Because POP tend to reduce the quantity of resources an individual has in the organisation (Ampofo et al., 2022c), employees who find themselves in a work environment in which perceptions of negative political behaviours are high may have fewer work-related resources, which may make them more susceptible to resources losses or threats in the organisation. Since employees who have fewer work resources are not well positioned to protect their valued resources and gain additional resources, they may demonstrate feelings of dissatisfaction with their lives. It is obvious that POP may create stressful circumstances for employees and therefore diminish their life satisfaction. Therefore, negative work experiences through POP may spillover into lower life satisfaction.



Second, job satisfaction has a partial mediation impact on the linkage between POP and life satisfaction. The finding is in congruence with the perspective of COR that employees who possess fewer resources are more likely to demonstrate low level of job satisfaction, since they are likely exposed to resource forfeiture and poorly positioned to obtain more work resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018). Employees who lose important work resources or have their valued work resources threatened with loss are likely to show lower job satisfaction. It is obvious that employees would not be satisfied with their job when they experience psychological stress resulting from resource loss. As work resources deplete, employees are likely to show higher displeasure with their job. According to the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), employees who their valued resources really forfeited or threatened with loss may feel mistreated by the organisation, and therefore reciprocate with negative attitude such as lower job satisfaction. Employees who show dissatisfaction with their job because of resource loss or threat through POP are likely to report reduced life satisfaction, since negative work influences spillover into lower life satisfaction (Wolfram & Gratton, 2014). The result is in consonance with the results of earlier works which demonstrate that POP decreases job satisfaction (Hochwarter, 2003; Vigoda, 2000; Witt et al., 2000), and job satisfaction augments life satisfaction (e.g., Ampofo, 2021; Ampofo et al., 2022c; Zhao et al., 2016).

Third, affective commitment partly mediates the linkage between POP and life satisfaction. Congruent with the COR theory (Hobfoll et al., 2018), employees desire a work environment that supports resource gains to a work environment that supports resource loss. POP facilitates work resource loss and therefore results in negative outcome. Employees who have their resources lost or threatened with forfeiture due to perceptions of dysfunctional work politics would develop low

level of attachment with the organisation they have been working for and therefore exhibit reduced life satisfaction. Employees who have forfeited their work resources or have their work resources threatened with loss in the organisation are less likely to demonstrate strong emotional attachment to their organisation. Resources losses or threats due to POP may result in employees' depleted bond with the organisation, since employees may feel insecure to remain in an organisation that fails to protect their important work resources. As argued by SET (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005), employees feel loyal and committed to an organisation when they feel being favorably treated by the organisation. Since POP potentially reduces resources in the organisation (Ampofo et al., 2022c), employees may feel morally obligated to display negative attitudes such as lower affective commitment in responses to POP. In turn, employees with lower affective commitment are less likely to be satisfied with their lives, since they are unlikely to engage in organisational activities that would result in accumulation of work resources. Employees with greater accumulated resources in the organisation are likely to demonstrate higher happiness in the workplace, which may spillover into higher life satisfaction. This finding is also concordant with previous findings that POP negatively impacted affective commitment (Hochwarter, 2003; Park & Lee, 2020; Vigoda, 2000), and affective commitment positively influenced life satisfaction (e.g., Lambert et al., 2013; Rathi & Lee, 2017).

Lastly, work engagement partly mediates the impact of POP on life satisfaction. In line with the COR theory (Hobfoll, 1989, Hobfoll et al., 2018), individuals who perceived their organisation as politically inclined are likely to have insufficient resources to engage in their work, because their fewer current work resources make them more prone to resource forfeiture and less capable to resource acquisition (Breevaart et al., 2016; Hobfoll et al., 2018). Employees need adequate work

resources to enhance engagement in their work (Demerouti *et al.*, 2001). Resource loss or threats may disengage employees in their work since POP may offer them insufficient resources to engage in their work. Therefore, when perceptions of negative politics are high in the organisation, employees may demonstrate lower work engagement. In turn, employees who display low levels of work engagement are less likely to acquire additional work resources due to their lower energy, dedication, and absorption, thereby diminishing their life satisfaction. The finding is in line with the findings of prior research that POP decreases work engagement (e.g., Park *et al.*, 2016), and work engagement increases life satisfaction (e.g., Ampofo *et al.*, 2022c; Meynhardt *et al.*, 2020).



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the findings of the study. The chapter also outlines the implications of the study's findings which include contributions to research and recommendations to practice. The chapter also outlines the limitations of the study and then makes suggestions for future research. Finally, the chapter provides an overall conclusion to the current study.

5.1 Summary of Findings

The purpose of the present study was to extend knowledge on how POP influences employees' satisfaction with life through the mechanisms of job satisfaction, affective commitment, and work engagement. The current empirical study aimed to examine four research objectives. First, the study assessed the influence of POP on employee life satisfaction. Second, I examined the mediating role of job satisfaction in the relationship between POP and employee life satisfaction. Third, the study investigated the mediating role of affective commitment in the relationship between POP and employee life satisfaction. Lastly, the present work examined the mediating role of work engagement in the POP relationship and employee life satisfaction.

Following the above-stated research objectives, four hypotheses were tested in the current study. These include- POP are negatively related to life satisfaction (hypothesis 1), job satisfaction mediates the negative association between POP and life satisfaction (hypothesis 2), affective commitment mediates the negative relationship between POP and life satisfaction (hypothesis 3), and work engagement mediates the negative relationship between POP and life satisfaction (hypothesis 4). The results of the study confirmed for the four hypotheses. Thus, the findings

revealed that POP has a negative impact on life satisfaction. The finding further demonstrated that the linkage between POP and life satisfaction is mediated by job satisfaction. Moreover, the finding suggests that affective commitment mediates the effect of POP on life satisfaction. Lastly, it was found that work engagement mediates the relationship between POP and life satisfaction.

The findings of this study relate to the conceptual framework. POP has a significant inverse relationship with life satisfaction. That is, POP decreases employees' level of life satisfaction. Moreover, POP negatively affects life satisfaction via job satisfaction, work engagement and affective commitment. That is, employees' level of job satisfaction, work engagement, and affective commitment diminish due to heightened perceptions of negative politicking in the workplace. As shown in the conceptual model, job satisfaction, work engagement and affective commitment have positive relationship with life satisfaction. The findings suggest that when employees' levels of job satisfaction, work engagement, and affective commitment decrease, they have their life satisfaction negatively affected as well.

5.2 Theoretical Implications and Suggestions for Future Research

The present study offers at least two contributions to literature. First, POP has not only received extensive research attention over the years (Ampofo et al., 2022c; Aybar & Marşap, 2018; Chang et al., 2009), but it has also been linked to several important work outcomes, such as turnover intentions, employee performance and organisational commitment (Park & Lee, 2020; Singh & Randhawa, 2021). However, past research has paid little attention to linking POP to non-work outcomes (Arefin et al., 2020a; Arefin et al., 2020b). The present study is novel and significant since this is the first empirical piece to show that POP is a predictor of life satisfaction. Therefore,

the finding of the study suggests that POP has significant predictive power in life satisfaction. Future research can extend the study to include other non-work outcomes. Subjective well-being includes life satisfaction, negative affect, and positive affect (Arthaud-Day et al., 2005). Positive affect refers to a stable dispositional tendency that makes individuals experience a variety of positive activated emotions, while negative affect denotes a stable dispositional tendency that makes people more susceptible to experience a variety of aversive emotions and distress across time and situations (Seib-Pfeifer et al., 2017; Watson & Clark, 1984). High NA people experience higher levels of discomfort, arousal, agitation, tension, worry, contempt, disgust, upset and pessimism (Jeronimus et al., 2014; Watson & Clark, 1984). Conversely, High PA people are energetic, enthusiastic, exhilarated, inspired, determined and happily engaged with the world, whereas low PA people are characterised by sadness, listlessness and weariness (Gilmore et al., 2013). Only life satisfaction was considered as an outcome in the present study.

Second, the findings of the study expand knowledge on the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. The study identified three mediators (job satisfaction, affective commitment, and work engagement) in the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. This is an important addition to literature because it suggests that POP influences life satisfaction through mechanisms that are important to the organisation. Job satisfaction, affective commitment and work engagement are the first identified mediators in the relationship between POP and life satisfaction. However, this is not exhaustive. For example, research indicates that POP affects employee withdrawal cognition (Haider et al., 2020). This means that employees who demonstrate higher quitting intentions are likely unhappy in the organisation, and therefore show lower life

satisfaction. Future research could explore the mediating role of turnover intentions in the relationship between POP and life satisfaction.

Third, the findings of the study make significant contribution to literature on organisational politics and life satisfaction by conducting the study in Ghana. Although there has been some research on POP and life satisfaction in Ghana (e.g., Ampofo et al., 2022c; Amponsah-Tawiah & Annor, 2017), no study has established the direct link between POP and life satisfaction using samples from Ghana. Past empirical study in Ghana by Ampofo et al. (2022c) revealed that POP served as a moderator of the organisational embeddedness' relationship with life satisfaction. This is novel research that reveals results on POP as a predictor of life satisfaction in Ghana. Future research could replicate the study in other jurisdictions because POP is pervasive in all organisations regardless the country.

Finally, the current study makes significant contribution to the COR literature by emphasizing that POP is a stressor in the organisation that engender psychological stress among employees through resource loss or threats (Ampofo et al., 2022c). POP is a source of resource loss or threats that causes psychological stress to individuals in the organisation (Ferris et al., 2019; Rosen et al., 2014). This study adds to the few studies that have viewed POP as a resource-depleting factor (e.g., Ampofo et al., 2022c). The findings also suggest that employees' motivation to protect and acquire important work resources does not only help avoid psychological stress at work, but also help to enhance their non-work lives since work influences spillover into non-work domains (Wolfram & Gratton, 2014).

5.3 Recommendations for Practice

To decrease the perceptions of negative political activities in the organisation is a critical factor for enhancing employees' affective commitment, work engagement, job satisfaction, and satisfaction with life. Thus, managers of universities should adopt strategies that potentially reduce the deleterious effect of organisational politics to the organisation. The study's findings offer at least five recommendations to university management.

1. Managers of universities can minimise perceptions of dysfunctional politics in the organisation by providing a clear definition of performance appraisal guidelines to reduce ambiguity (Poon, 2004).
2. Managers of universities can minimise perceptions of dysfunctional politics in the organisation through clarification of the roles and responsibilities of everyone in the organisation.
3. Managers of universities should incentivise team efforts rather than personal efforts. Employees who perceive team effort more rewarding than personal effort are likely to shirk self-seeking interests to team-accomplishing interest. Individualised rewarding approach largely strengthens self-aggrandisement in the organisation. Organisations that foster teamwork are well positioned to achieve success, since effective team is characterised by shared knowledge, skills, and experience (Morgeson et al., 2005).
4. University managers may minimise POP by employing 360-degree performance appraisal system. This performance assessment includes gathering feedback from various individuals who have working relationship with the focal employee. This is important, since appraisal from other sources help minimise managers' thoughtful distortion of

employee performance ratings emanating from political motives (DeNisi & Murphy, 2017).

5. Managers of universities should desist from open and constant bias to specific individuals and groups. Managers should embrace all employees and engage in fair distribution of work resources.

5.4 Methodological Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

In the present study, I found several limitations in the methodology which could be addressed in future research. First, although I employed a two-wave approach to gather data, I could not draw causal inferences. Future research that gathers data over a longer period can make causal conclusions. Second, I employed a non-random sampling technique (convenience sampling procedure) to collect data from participants. Because of this, it is difficult to generalise the results of the current study. To reduce this limitation, the current research employed bootstrapped samples to 5,000 at 95% bias corrected confidence intervals in the analysis (Dhaene & Rosseel, 2022; Macho & Ledermann, 2011). However, future studies can increase generalisability of the findings via random sampling techniques. Third, because POP occurs across all levels in organisations (Ampofo et al., 2022c), future research should sample the views of other employees in other management levels in the universities, such as junior staff, and senior members. In addition, the current study drew the sample from two public universities in Ghana. However, there are 13 public universities in Ghana. Therefore, future research may include samples from other public universities. The study can also include samples from private universities in Ghana. Fourth, self-report data and single source data were employed in the current study, Although CMB was

statistically not a concern in this study, future research can further mitigate CMB by using multiple data sources.



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APPENDIX



TIME ONE QUESTIONNAIRE

Consent

This research seeks to examine the effect of perceptions of organisational politics on life satisfaction among senior staff of public universities. Also, the study attempts to examine the potential mediating role of job satisfaction, affective commitment and work engagement in the nexus between perceptions of organisational politics and life satisfaction. Your participation in the study is voluntary and can be withdrawn at any point in time. All your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality; thus, do not indicate anything on the questionnaire (e.g., name or address) that might disclose your identity. There are no right or wrong answers. The study's results are primarily for academic purpose.

I have read and understood the survey purpose and desire on my own free will to participate in this study. Please tick either yes or no. Yes No

These questions gather some demographic details about you.

1. What is your age group?
A. Under 30 B. 30-40 C. 41-50 D. 51-60
2. What is your gender? A. Male B. Female
3. What is your marital status? A. Married B. Single
4. How long have you been employed in this organisation/institution?
A. Less than 2 years B. 2-7 years C. 8-13 years D. 14-19 years E. More than 19 years
5. What is the highest level of education you have attained?
A. JHS/O' Level certificate B. Diploma C. Bachelor's degree D. Master's degree

Here are some statements that describe how people might feel about the political climate in their organisation. Please consider your own organisation and tick the appropriate box to show your level of agreement with the statements. In my organisation:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. There is a lot of self-serving behaviour going on.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. People do what is best for them, not what is best for the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. People spend too much time sucking up to those who can help them.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. People are working behind the scenes to ensure that they get their piece of the pie.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Many employees are trying to manoeuvre their way into the in- group.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Individuals are stabbing each other in the back to look good in front of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7



TIME TWO QUESTIONNAIRE

Consent

This research seeks to examine the effect of perceptions of organisational politics on life satisfaction among senior staff of public universities. In addition, the study endeavors to examine the potential mediating role of job satisfaction, affective commitment and work engagement in the nexus between perceptions of organisational politics and life satisfaction. Your participation in the study is voluntary and can be withdrawn at any point in time. All your responses will be treated with utmost confidentiality; thus, do not indicate anything on the questionnaire (e.g., name or address) that might disclose your identity. There are no right or wrong answers. The study’s results are primarily for academic purpose.

The following statements are about how you feel at work.

	Never	Almost never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often	Always
1. At my work, I feel bursting with energy.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. At my job, I feel strong and vigorous.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. When I get up in the morning, I feel like going to work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I am enthusiastic about my job.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. My job inspires me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I am proud of the work that I do.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I feel happy when I am working intensely.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I am immersed in my work.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I get carried away when I am working.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

These questions ask about your level of affective commitment to the organisation.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I enjoy discussing about my organisation with people outside it.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I feel like “part of the family” at my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I feel “emotionally attached” to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I feel a “strong” sense of belonging to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5

These questions ask about your satisfaction with life.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.	1	2	3	4	5
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I am satisfied with my life.	1	2	3	4	5
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.	1	2	3	4	5
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.	1	2	3	4	5

These questions ask about your level of satisfaction with job.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
1. All in all, I am satisfied with my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. In general, I don't like my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. In general, I like working here.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

