

Spanish version of the Perception of Organizational Politics Scale in Puerto Rico

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Abstract

The aim of this research was to translate and preliminary validate the Perception of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS), 15-item short version Likert scale by Kacmar and Carlson (1997) from English to Spanish using the Brislin back-translation method and administrate the scale in Puerto Rico. Also, to examine the Cronbach's alpha of the POPS Spanish version as well as to explore the effects of organizational politics may have on employees in the workplace. The study had a quantitative and a non-experimental transversal design. Two bilingual translators from Puerto Rico translated the scale to Spanish. The sample consisted of 205 participants. The snowball sampling was used to reach the participants. The statistical analysis used to measure the scale was the Alpha Coefficient formula and the Exploratory Factor Analysis to determine which items will remain in the final version. The results showed that the final version of the scale contained 13 items and had a Cronbach's alpha of .87 and two subscales. The researcher concluded that the POPS Spanish version may be a preliminary valid instrument in Puerto Rico and possesses a strong Cronbach's Alpha. Another finding was that the variable sector had an effect on employees' perceptions of organizational politics.

Keywords: organizational politics; back-translation; Cronbach's alpha; validity; reliability; Likert scale; Exploratory Factor Analysis

Versión en español de la Escala de Percepción sobre Política Organizacional en Puerto Rico

Resumen

El objetivo de esta investigación fue traducir y validar preliminarmente la Escala de Percepción sobre Política Organizacional (EPPPO), versión tipo Likert de 15 ítems de Kacmar y Carlson (1997), del inglés al español utilizando el método de retrotraducción de Brislin y administrar la escala en Puerto Rico. También el propósito fue examinar el Alfa de Cronbach de la versión EPPPO en español, así como explorar los efectos que la política organizacional puede tener sobre los empleados en el lugar de trabajo. El estudio tuvo un diseño transversal cuantitativo y no experimental. Dos traductores bilingües de Puerto Rico tradujeron la escala al español. La muestra consistió en 205 participantes. Se utilizó muestreo de bola de nieve para llegar a los participantes. Se utilizó la fórmula de Coeficiente Alfa y Análisis Factorial Exploratorio para determinar qué ítems permanecerían en la versión final. Los resultados mostraron que la versión final de la escala contenía 13 ítems, un alfa de Cronbach de .87 y dos subescalas. El investigador concluyó que la versión en español de POPS puede ser un instrumento preliminar válido en Puerto Rico y posee un alfa de Cronbach fuerte. Otro hallazgo fue que la variable sector tuvo un efecto en las percepciones de los empleados sobre política organizacional.

Palabras clave: Política organizacional, retro-traducción, Alfa de Cronbach, validez, confiabilidad, Escala Likert, Análisis factorial exploratorio.

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Introduction

During the past few decades, many scholars have studied the perception of organizational politics, and it became a good predictor of job performance. The effects of organizational politics may have an adverse impact on the individuals' work, attitude, motivation, satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Buchanan & Badham, 2008). Also, academic scholars have gained an interest in the phenomenon and its repercussion on cognitive-emotional behaviors associated with the consequences of workplace politics on employees' attitudes, ethical behaviors, and job performance. Research indicate that political maneuvers may have an impact on how individuals perceive and feel about their place of work (Wangui & Mauthe, 2014). In some cases, a small number of workers may be more resilient in the workplace and cope with stress, counterproductive behaviors and manage non-cost effective outcomes in the organization.

Buchanan and Badham (2008), assert that research on organizational politics in other countries and different cultures seems to be scarce or limited. Functional organizational politics may promote efficiency and the will to have fair and desirable policies, better decision-making strategies, and towards organizational change. Aamondt (2016) says that employees may experience stress in their jobs because of workplace politics, and most of the time employees tend to perceive it negatively. Many scholars agree that organizational politics produce political behaviors, self-serving comportment that individuals use it to gain some personal benefit or obtain positive or negative outcomes in the organization. Positive politics may include how the members and the organization project a professional image to the general public, perform community and volunteer work, and compliment employees in their work. However, there is another side, which is negative politics that mostly consists of manipulative and unethical behaviors. Certain individuals may practice negative workplace politics to achieve a

personal benefit or may spread rumors, resulting in an increased level of stress, lower job satisfaction, and high employee turnover. Fairholm (2009), argues that power is a major, often implicit, theoretical thread in American business and government organizations, as well as a political and social theory. In addition, ethics in the organizations is another factor that shapes politics in the workplace. Roth (2005), mentions that scholars have researched ethical conduct in every discipline of critical analysis about human behavior in the economic, psychological, sociological, anthropological, and historical sphere.

Organizational Politics

Organizational politics is an elusive type of power relations in the workplace. It represents a unique domain of interpersonal relations, characterized by the direct or indirect (active or passive) engagement of people on influence tactics and power struggles. These activities are frequently aimed at securing or maximizing personal interests or, alternatively, avoiding negative outcomes within the organization (Kacmar & Ferris, 1991). Mayes and Allen (1977), argue that "Organizational politics are the management of influence to obtain ends not sanctioned by the organization or to obtain sanctioned ends through non-sanctioned influence means" (p. 675). Buchanan and Badham (2008), mention that there is no common definition of organizational politics, and still there is a debate among many scholars. Nevertheless, these are the most common known classical definitions of organizational politics by various authors. For Mintzberg (1983), organizational politics is "Individual or group behavior that is informal, ostensibly parochial, typically divisive, and above all, in the technical sense, illegitimate sanctioned neither by formal authority, accepted the ideology, nor certified expertise" (p. 172). However, Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick and Mayes (1979) say it is "The acts of influence to enhance or protect the self-interest of individuals or groups" (p. 77).

Valle and Perrewe (2000), say that “The exercise of tactical influence which is a strategic goal-directed, rational, conscious and intended to promote self-interest, either at the expense of or in support of others’ interests” (p. 361). Vigoda-Gadot (2003), argues that the definition is “Intra-organizational influence tactics used by organization members to promote self-interests or organizational goals in different ways” (p. 31). Ferris et al. (2005), claim that it is the “Ability to understand effectively others at work, and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one’s personal and or organizational objectives” (p. 127). Buchanan and Badham (2008), believe that organizational politics is about behaving appropriately in different workplace contexts that involve work relationships with other co-workers and in groups. Robbins and Judge (2016), say there is no shortage of definitions organizational politics and argue that it is the use of power that affects decision making in an organization or on self-serving and unsanctioned behaviors. Wangui and Muathe (2014), concur that organizational theorists and researchers have suggested many definitions of organizational politics and in the literature review that there is not a single and widely accepted definition. They say that organizational politics can be understood like how employees may think and feel about their work policy and that organizational politics usually represents the organizational climate in the organizations. Drory and Vigoda-Gadot (2010), believe that the multiple definitions of organizational politics may indicate that many authors may not have a consensus of what is organizational politics.

Brief review of the Perceptions of Organizational Politics Scale

The original scale underwent in a two-phase study in which consisted of 31 items. Kacmar and Ferris (1991) developed and evaluated the psychometric properties of the Perceptions of Politics Scale (POPS). Then Nye and Witt (1993) examined the dimensionality of the scale and the

construct validity and compared it with the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) by Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986). Three hundred and eighty-seven items were analyzed using the principal components analysis with an orthogonal (varimax) rotation. Also, a data sheet of random data was included in which had an equivalent of 387 responses to the 31 items and was analyzed using the identical factor analysis. The results of the eigenvalues showed that there were two-factor analyses and were plotted over one another to determine how many factors to be removed.

Kacmar and Carlson (1997) pointed out that there are several limitations in Nye and Witt’s study and that the two items from the POPS instrument were modified. For example, the original item “There is no place for yes-men around here; good ideas are desired even when it means disagreeing with supervisors.” was reverse-coded and changed to “It is safer to agree with managers than to say what you think is right.” Another item was “Since I have worked in this department, I have never seen pay and promotion policies applied politically.” was reverse-coded and changed to “Pay and promotion decisions are consistent with policies.” The integrity of the scale was modified, and the analysis of individual items was not performed. That POPS and SPOS items were not factor analyzed together like the JDI and during the initial validation of the POPS.

In the final phase, Kacmar and Carlson (1997) used previous studies and structural equation modeling to evaluate the dimensional reliability and validity of POPS across three different studies from nine different samples of 2,758 respondents. Results showed that some of the original POPS items were ineffective, deleted or modified. As a result, some of the items were removed, and new items were complemented and tested to produce a revised version of POPS.

The POPS scale contains three categories. The first category is the *General Political Behavior*,

when an organization has no clear rules inside the organization. Employees may have no idea what type of behavior is expected inside the organization, in which the rules of the game are supposed to come from the management level. In many cases, a group of employees will create their set of rules. It is why is called general political behavior, because employees will establish a new round of rules which most of the time are self-serving behaviors to fulfill their personal agenda, as well as for the individual who is in charge formulating the rules of the game may have a great deal of power over others. Also, the individuals who are making the rules tend to draw their interpretation on how to solve a conflict in the organization as well. Other factors such as the political pressure from their peers may also have an impact on the process of decision-making (Muhammad & Hussain, 2014).

According to the literature review, there are many factors why some employees behave this way and act very politically. One of the reasons, they are fighting for a job position in the organization and simultaneously seeks access to the resources. The resources may include promotions, over an office space, or budgeting, etc. When an organization has limited resources, there is a better chance for a political workplace environment.

The second category is the *Go Along To Get Ahead*, is when employees will encounter conflicts with other co-workers, there is a strong presence of political behavior in the organizations and some employees would not resist, or dare go against the person who has a significant influence and power on others. The other half of the employees will be neutral about the whole process and will avoid all types of conflicts with other co-workers. When employees become neutral agents or submissive, the individuals with power will apply stronger political tactics on them. However, in some cases, when employees are neutral, sometimes they are rewarded because they never gave any type of resistance and are welcome to join in a political group in the workplace (Muhammad & Hussain, 2014).

In the third category is the *Pay and Promotion Policies*. It is how the organizations reward their employees, in which the reward system has a great impact on them as well as in shaping the political behavior in the workplace. It usually occurs in the Human Resources (HR) Department with their HR policies. For example, some policies are viewed as 'to get things done around here', and even times the HR Department may not notice that their policies have a negative impact on their employees. When the HR Department has established their HR policies, a reward system and rewards an employee who acted very political and applied rigorously those policies to their subordinates, the HR Department, and the supervisor will be rewarded in their pay and promotion evaluation. However, they will reprimand those employees who did not use political tactics and the HR policies, especially if the organization creates a working environment based on promotions and rewards political behavior. Some employees may feel that they were fairly rewarded and are entitled to their pay and promotion benefits, and are likely to participate in political behavior in the near future (Muhammad & Hussain, 2014).

Theories of Organizational Politics

Fairholm (2009), contemplates C. Wright Mills' (1957) point of view that political power in the United States is controlled by only a few powerful individuals, described as the power elite. Mills believes that the power elite is highly centralized and structured. The power elite is distributed by a few in the political realm, such as in the military and economic sphere, and by prominent leaders, which holds important and strategic positions in a social-economic system, whether in the national, state and community sphere. The power elite cooperates and conspires to exercise decision-making authority over significant community action issues. On the contrary, Fairholm mentions that Floyd Hunter's (1959) point of view that influential leaders do not only come from the military, economic, and political spheres; however, it includes members from the labor force, professionals, and financial

leaders. Also, the power elite is uniform and homogeneous, and its hierarchy includes policy councils and general membership.

In the Exchange Theory of Power by Simon (1957), Cartright (1959), Bierstadt (1950), Homans (1958), Thibaut and Kelly (1959), Gouldner (1960), and Follert (1983), power is a form of arrangement, and its main objective is to control, especially who has the information can have access to power and control. There must be a balance of power and values held by ambitious individuals in an exchange relationship within an organizational setting, which there is an exchange of goods and services, information, labor force to obtain organizational and individual objectives. The organization is a marketplace and very political; where the individuals participate using power to produce their outcomes, and their main objectives inside an organization are negotiation and exchanging goods. It can be a type of relationship such as a superior-to-subordinate, subordinate-to-superior, or peer-to-peer and these relationships are only interactions among equals or unequal, in other words, the powerful against the relatively powerless (Fairholm, 2009).

The Alignment Theory does cover some aspects of power, but it only focuses on organizational culture. It is when the organizational culture, customs, and traditions shape employee's behavior and attitudes. According to the organizational culture theory, the theory emphasizes and identifies who is the powerful individual in the organization and who can shape the dynamic work relationships among its members. When members work for an organization, they are taught to align their personal goals, values, and behaviors accordingly to the organization's culture. In other words, power is a type of control that leaders can use to direct their followers to align and maintain an effective relationship with the organization's objectives (Fairholm, 2009).

The Contingency Theory mentions the organization's and the individual's capacity of how

they can attain goals and results, and how they use power to reach their main objectives. Fairholm (2009) states that power is an identification of acquiring control over critical contingencies, and the main purpose is to put it into practice in the organization. Individuals who have control over critical contingencies are better positioned to exercise authority to obtain their main objectives, versus individuals who do not control critical contingencies. For example, a compartmentalized department controls, at least, one type of critical work element or critical contingency that is essential for organizational success such as in the management department.

Buchanan and Badham (2008), point out that the traditional theoretical concepts of organizational politics are inaccurate and oversimplified. First, the traditional concept of politics from the management point of view consider it as something ambivalent; it is characterized by surreptitious or secretly covert means. Organizational politics is undesirable, devious, self-serving and egocentric, and it only promotes unethical behaviors, which trigger uncertainty and conflicts in the workplace. Second, while in the organizational setting and in practice, organizational politics is described as something tedious. However, simultaneously, it can be beneficial because it keeps discussions alive among employees, they can express their opinions about their workplace, and not every manager or supervisor sanction all actions or opinions from their employees. From time to time, employees might have a personal conflict with the organization's objectives because they believe that is not professional nor ethical in ignoring the situation. An unethical behavior must be reported, taken care of, and it should be non-disputable. They think that the organization must provide them open discussion forums.

Buchanan and Badham (2008) state as well as, based on the political theories of organization, that many managers believe that there is a sequence of individual and contextual factors that causes political behavior in workers, and it is not always for

self-serving purposes. There is a series of behaviors in the organization conducted by politicians and it is quite diverse. Meanwhile, a few managers and supervisors may think that socio-political tactics are viewed as an acceptable work conduct and do not see it as manipulation. Many managers and supervisors feel there are no ethical impediments using harsh political tactics and political behavior and do not regard it as damaging; however, it seems to lead to both functional and dysfunctional organizational consequences.

Buchanan and Badham (2008), express that one of the theories of organizational politics is the normative ethical frameworks of utilitarianism is the Utilitarian Theory, in which the individual tends to judge behavior regarding outcomes. It is the 'end justifies the means' argument and this approach consider the benefits and costs to the people who are involved, and what behavior seem acceptable, even more, if it achieves 'the greatest good for the greatest number'. Even in modest complex settings and with a number of stakeholders who decides what actions they think will have a range of consequences. They analyze the pros and cons from the benefits and costs, and it can even be problematic for them. Instead, the Utilitarian Theory encourages efficiency and maximization of the organization profits and looks beyond the individual. While on the downside, the individual's rights may not be respected or taken into consideration. As a result, his or her rights are constantly violated. Some managers and supervisors may think as long as the organization achieves its goals, and even if they unfairly allocate the limited resources.

Buchanan and Badham (2008), argue that the Theory of Rights is when an individual inclined to judge behavior on the extent to which fundamental individual rights are respected. For example, it could be the right of free consent, respect privacy, right to have freedom, free speech, and the right to due process in the form of an impartial hearing. The theory points out that it is crucial to protect the individual's established standards of social

behavior and to perform an ethical analysis to substantiate whether the individual's entitlements were violated. On the other perspective, some scholars believe that the concept of rights tends to overprotect the individual's rights, and it may be an obstacle to the organization's efficiency and work production. Some individuals are too focused on other peoples' rights and are constantly watching over their civil rights and forget about their work commitment and to the organization.

The current study is based on the Theory of Justice which explains when the individual judges a behavior on based on whether the benefits and burdens of actions of others are unfair and impartially distributed. Also, distributive justice argues that all rules should be applied consistently and in similar circumstances, and equally treated. The individuals should not be held solely responsible for matters considered out of their control. The theory supposes to ensure a fair allocation of resources, run a democratic operation, and guarantees the interests of the underrepresented members of the organization. On the other side, one of the flaws of this theory that it can encourage a sense of entitlement on supervisors and managers. They may discourage employees' motivation, work commitment; their sense of innovation, and sometimes managers and supervisors may violate the employee's rights and do not consent their employees to use their full talent (Buchanan & Badham, 2008).

John Rawls (1971) founded the Theory of Justice based upon moral reflection. He argues that individuals reflect about their morality in general terms to rule out in arbitrary circumstances on how to act or what to believe in, as well as the individual use the sense of justice based on judgments. Kliewer and Zacharakis (2015), argue that his theory has its flaws and does not cover the morality established by the intuitions, but it does point out the basic frame of the theory. A few individuals believe that public perception gives them the right to justify their positions or actions on others. In other words, moral reflection

shapes the public perception and the individual's character. For example, Rawls points out those individuals with greatest economic resources and social status conditions and influences on how others perceive judgments. The upper class may consider that welfare and government assistance to the poor should not exist; however, individuals from the lower class believe that the government should heavily tax the wealthy people.

The theory provides principles for the fundamental understanding of distributable equality and fairness within society. The theory is founded on two principles that every individual should have access to the same equal rights as any other citizen. The economic resources should be distributed fairly to everyone, and every single person should have the same advantage and access to the resources, and important government institutions should be available and accessible to everyone. Rawls points out that justice is the basic operating principle of democratic societies and social institutions (Gaynor & Schachter, 2014).

On the other hand, he believes the most important aspect of his theory is that all individuals must have self-respect, and it is a primary social good. Zink (2011), says that the concept of self-respect is towards for and extending greater priority to socioeconomic equality, and the individuals' sense of self-respect is significantly influenced by their positions within the socioeconomic hierarchy. In other words, Rawls disputes that self-respect shapes a society and it helps it to be organized by the principles of justice, and that sense of justice and fairness would cultivate and support the individuals' self-respect in the most reliable way. When individuals live in an organized society, and by the principles of justice, they may be prone to be psychologically disposed and motivated to uphold those principles and institutional arrangements that have so effectively underwritten their sense of self-worth as well as creating societal conditions. Rawl claims that all individuals must have self-respect, and every individual has his or her sense of value, his or her secured conviction, his or her

conception of what is good, and his or her plans for life are worthy and that all their plans should be accomplished. When an individual has self-respect, it suggests that the individual should have self-confidence in his or her ability.

Zink (2011), argues that Rawls's concept of self-respect is insufficient to justify his conception of justice; however, plays a crucial role in his theory which addresses the moral psychology necessary for reinforcing the justice motive, a matter of central importance for maintaining stability in a liberal democratic society.

Research on Organizational Politics

Al-Tuhaih and Van Fleet (2011) conducted an exploratory study in a public organization in Kuwait. The 12-item short version of the Perception of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS) by Kacmar and Ferris (1991) was never used before in Kuwait, and the authors established whether the POPS instrument would be applicable in Kuwait. Further, the authors examined if the Kuwaiti organizations perceived organizational politics. Another aim of the study was to determine if there were any influences in the organization by the same variables as in Western societies such as gender, tenure, and by age.

The sample was ($N = 144$), approximately 20% of the total number of participants in the organization. The original 12-item Perception of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS) by Kacmar and Ferris (1991), however, using the English and Arab version, the scales had a Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of (.82). The authors deduced that the Kuwaiti managers are more acutely aware how organizational politics affects the organization. There were strong data to support that there is negative organizational politics in the organization and the 12-item POPS instrument was validated in the Kuwaiti sample. There was a significant difference in gender and job positions which had considerable influence on the perception of organizational politics. However,

in tenure, it scored very low and did not have a significant difference. The authors concluded that the perception of organizational politics in Kuwait is relatively strong as well similar to Western societies.

Dhar (2011) conducted a qualitative study in India to explore the employee's perception of organizational politics, as well as the different stages the employees face while working and how they learn to adapt and cope with it. The sample consisted of 26 employees working in three different automobile manufacturing companies, and applied a qualitative method as a phenomenological design, and individual, semi-structured interviews. Four constructed major themes were used in the study as in the following: (a) The Perceived Threat, (b) Attitude towards Players, (c) Coping Strategies and (d) Intentions to Leave.

Results showed that organizational politics is perceived negatively, as an evil thing, as well as affecting the morale of the employees. About 90% of the participants indicated that they felt uneasy, fearful and believe that a sense of a threat is always present while working. Also, one of the strategies adopted by a group was to ignore the activities going around them and only to concentrate on their work. A 35 % of the participants believed in working together through mutual understanding in a politically influenced environment. Even though the participants viewed negatively organizational politics, they had reported that they had participated in negative workplace politics and most of the time it was to fulfill their personal motives.

Sonaike (2013) conducted a qualitative exploratory review study of 30 managers-level career managers at a university about their experiences with the phenomenon of organizational politics. The aim of the study was to explore and identify the current employees' organizational politics perception in a modern-day organization. Later, the answers were compared with the literature review; identified possible movements or changes

that could have influenced the changing demands of a modern-day organization. For example, globalization, economic pressure, technological advances, merge of different cultures, changes in demographics, and other environmental factors.

The results showed that 80% of the participants perceived negatively organizational politics. About 20% believed organizational politics manifests frequently in employees associated with powerful managers. Around 17% associated it with employees' attempts to influence decision-making. Nearly 13% associated organizational politics with employees' attempts to increase their indispensability and employees' actions to promote personal visibility, respectively. A 10% associated organizational politics with attempts to increase individual centrality, building and managing coalition, and controlling the agenda. Only 7% associated organizational politics with an employees' proposal that eventually results in the expansion of the employee's responsibilities.

The other half, a 20% had claimed personally experienced attempts to tarnish other co-workers' reputation by taking advantage of them. The other 17 % have experienced misuse of power to gain undue advantage, divide, and conquer tactics. Nearly 13 % have experienced telling the boss only what they want to hear, turf protection, and actions that enhance well-deserved promotions. About 7 % have experienced a demonstration of team spirit within the organization.

Adebusuyi, Olasupo and Idehen (2013) conducted a study to analyze the nature of perception of organizational politics in workers in a Nigerian university in Africa. The sample consisted of 372 participants. The instrument used for this study was the 15-item short version of Perception of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS) by Kacmar and Carlson (1997) and has a Cronbach's alpha of (.88).

The results and scores were analyzed based on the three dimensions of the POPS scale

which was the General Political Behavior (GPB), Go Along To Get Ahead (GAA) and Pay and Promotion Policies (PPP). The dimension Go Along To Get Ahead was 35.5% participants, the Pay and Promotion Policies dimension was 27.4% participants. Meanwhile, in the dimension General Political Behavior was 20.4% participants. The other rest of the participants, a 5.6% had mentioned a combination of General Political Behavior and Pay and Promotion Policies. A 4.3% indicated a combination of General Political Behavior and Go Along To Get Ahead, and 3.5% reported that a combination General Political Behavior and Go Along To Get Ahead, and 3.2% reported a combination of the three dimensions.

There was a significant difference between non-academic and academic staff. About 71% of the non-academic staff had perceived organizational politics significantly higher than the academic staff, which was 29%. The combination of Junior Staff, academic and non-academic indicated that 35.7% (21.5% non-academic and 14.2% academic); versus to Senior Staff academic and non-academic reported 64.2% (49.7% non-academic and 14.5% academic), the Senior staff had perceived organizational politics higher than the Junior Staff.

The authors concluded that 35.5 % both academic and non-academic perceived politics in the workplace, as well as workers, had admitted that they had obeyed what their superiors told them what to do. Adebuseyi et al. (2013) believed that organizations in Nigeria are very political and have a culture full of silence and complacency and one of the reasons why the university is heavily influenced by politics it is because it is a public entity.

Atatement of the Problem

Buchanan and Badham (2008), state that the range of consequences of organizational politics, such as dissatisfaction, withdrawal, mistrust, poor performance, and stress may depend on the

individual's perception, how they perceive it, how political an organization is, and how the employees play politics.

Chang, Rosen and Levy (2009), believe that there is a close relationship between perceptions of organizational politics can have a direct and indirect impact on employee morale and a psychological strain, and of how employees perceive it. From a political perspective on emotions, Bedi and Schat (2013), mention that a political work environment involves employees backstabbing, that there is a feeling of uncertainty among employees, and a sense of nepotism. They believe when an employee is protecting oneself from harmful behaviors premeditated by Machiavellian workplace politicians that it consumes a significant amount of energy from their cognitive and emotional resources.

In the cognitive-emotions perspective, Wangui and Muathe (2014), express that when employees notice that their organization is very political and unfair, and it only promotes the aspirations of the powerful members of the organization, it may urge employees to leave the organization and psychologically affects them. It may induce disengagement on their work relationships with other employees, they become psychological withdrawal from others and even trigger off problems in their personal life. There are times employees may be physically present at work; however, their minds are elsewhere.

The aim of this research is to translate and preliminarily validate the Perception of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS), 15-item short version by Kacmar and Carlson (1997) from English to Spanish using the Brislin back-translation method (1970,1986) for the workforce population in Puerto Rico. Furthermore, to assess the psychometric properties of the POPS Spanish version, as well as explore if at least one of the independent variables sex, sector, tenure, or job position predict perception of organizational politics in employees.

There are very few and non-existing studies conducted in other universities in Puerto Rico that had examined the phenomenon in the workplace and the organizations. Buchanan and Badham (2008), assert that studies on organizational politics of other countries and different cultures seem to be scarce or rare. Practicing functional organizational politics promotes organizational effectiveness, a fair and desirable policy, better decision-making strategies, and towards positive organizational change. Vigoda-Gadot and Cohen (2002), argue that organizational politics is a controversial topic, and it is extremely common that the organizations will have various internal issues and harsh workplace politics, and there is not much information available about the nature and boundaries of politics in the organizations. The authors also mention that most of the research on organizational politics focused more on the employees' perceptions of politics. A small number of studies examined political behavior in the organizations, and very few analyzed the relationship between political behavior and perceptions of politics.

Hypothesis of the Study

H_0 : The sociodemographic independent variables sex, tenure, sector or job position do not predict perception of organizational politics in employees.

H_1 : At least one β_i is $\neq 0$. of the independent variables predict perception of organizational politics in employees.

Methodology

The study used a quantitative non-experimental approach which the researcher does not manipulate the variables, but only observe how the phenomenon occurs in their natural context and thus, afterward, examines it (Hernandez-Sampieri, Fernández-Collado & Baptista-Lucio, 2014). In addition, it had a transversal design, it is when the researcher collects data from a population at one specific point in time.

Sample

The sample of the study was 205 working adults legally 21 years old and older, and it was a nonprobability sampling upon availability. A 71.7% ($n=147$) worked in the private sector and 28.3% in the public sector. 67.8% ($n = 139$) were female and 32.2% male. A 74.6% ($n=153$) held a non-management/supervisor position and 25.4% a management/supervisor position. A 71.2% ($n=146$) reported that they work in the South region, and the majority 44% of the participants indicated that they had worked in the organization 1 up to 5 years. A 43.9 % ($n=90$) were single, and the majority of participants, 30.2% ($n=62$), reported that held a Bachelor's degree. A 33.2% ranged in the ages of 21 to 30 years old.

The researcher visited and requested people's voluntarily participation in the study. The participants were employees from the public or the private working sector in Puerto Rico. The researcher applied the snowball method, also known as a snowball sampling, to reach the participants in the case if any of the organizations declined to participate and would have created a setback and other complications to complete the study. Goodman (1961), defines snowball sampling as a random sample of individuals drawn from a given finite population. It is used to make statistical inferences about various aspects of the relationships in the present and the population, and the population has the same probability of selection.

Instruments

Two instruments were distributed to the participants as well as collected data and then statistically computed for analysis. The first instrument, the Sociodemographic Questionnaire created by the researcher, was administrated to the participants and collected the following datum: geographic work location, civil status, sex, age, sector (private and public), level of education, job position, and tenure. The second instrument was

the Perception of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS) by Kacmar and Carlson (1997). The 15-item short English version Likert scale ranging from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*, and has an estimated reliability Cronbach's alpha of (.87). This scale had three variables (a) General Political Behavior, (b) Go Along to Get Ahead, and (c) Pay and Promotion.

The 15-item short version POPS scale contains items such as "People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down." Also, "Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this organization."; and "When it comes to pay raise and promotion decisions, policies are irrelevant." However, for the purpose of the study, the researcher have not used the reverse-coded (reverse item-negative) questions 3, 4, 10 and 11, since the POPS scale 15 items short version, these items are reverse-coded. The researcher decided not to use the reverse-coded questions, but kept all 15 questions intact to explore its pattern and final results. See Appendix A.

Procedure

First, to comply with the aim of the research and objectives, and to the code of ethics of the Institutional Review Board (IRB), a researcher has to request permission prior conducting research. It is important that all participants sign a consent form before participating in the study as required by the IRB. A consent form was handed out to the participants, which they were informed about the purpose of the investigation, their rights to volunteer and withdrawal from the investigation, the confidentiality, and when the results are available. Even more, it is required to request proper authorization from the authors when using a scale, a questionnaire, or any psychometric instrument before conducting research.

Second, the researcher contacted Dr. Kacmar by email and sent the consent form document in which the author voluntary signed and email back the document. The researcher requested

the author's permission to use the 15-item short version Perception of Organizational Politics Scale (POPS) by Kacmar and Carlson (1997) and translated the POPS scale English version to a Spanish version.

Next, two certified professional bilingual translators were recruited from Puerto Rico and had full knowledge of English and the Spanish language. The translators had translated the POPS scale from English to Spanish, especially taking into consideration the Puerto Rican Spanish language and culture. A translator is a person whose job involved translating in writing, or in a speech from one language to another. There are many factors that can influence the quality of the translation: the translator knowledge and expertise, the back-translation process, the content of the language, and the aspect of the culture might affect the scale significantly. The translator's duty is to translate into the second language as close as possible to the meaning of the original language.

The Brislin Back-Translation (1970, 1986) offers a guideline and some recommendations on how to translate an instrument or a document. The Brislin's method says that minimum two bilingual persons who have full knowledge and education in targeting and translating in writing and speech from one language to the second language are required during the back-translation process. In the literature review, the recommendations for back-translation are the following: First, translate the original instrument from the source language to target the language. Second, the blind back-translation in which the second translator has no idea of the original content and language of the scale translated by the first translator to Spanish. The second translator has the task to translate the scale back to English. Third, repeat the steps one and two, until the target language, which in this case is Spanish, is acceptable and equivalent to the original language of the scale in English. Fourth, make any final revisions and modifications of the target language version performed by both translators.

Administration of the Instruments

The researcher visited several private and public entities and public spaces located in Puerto Rico and distributed the instruments to participants who were available and willing to participate. The instruments were placed inside of a sealed envelope to protect the participants' privacy and from being misplaced or damaged. The participants received a consent form along with the instruments, and the consent form was placed separately from the other instruments in another envelope. The researcher waited for the participants answered the instruments or agreed on a date and time to pick up the instruments upon the participant's request. Also, the researcher conducted a field study and visited public spaces such as outside of government agencies where employees are on their lunch break. Also, employed word of mouth and solicited participants to participate, and explained the purpose of the study; distributed a consent form in which the participants signed and agreed to take part in the study. The participants were asked if they can recommend other participants whom they think might participate by using word of mouth, which is the snowball sampling.

Statistical Analysis

The results were tabulated using the IBM computer software, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) final version 23.0 for Microsoft Windows to quantify the data into statistical results. After the data had been collected, descriptive statistics were applied to interpret the data from the Sociodemographic variables. The Coefficient Alpha formula, also is known as the Cronbach's alpha, was used to find the internal consistency of the POPS Spanish version Likert scale. Since the POPS Spanish version was administrated to the participants at one specific point in time, the formula is suitable for the study and does not require dividing into two halves of the total number of items of the instrument, but only to find the measurement and calculate the coefficient.

Next, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used. It is a technique that estimates the factors in which influence responses on observed variables, as well it is a variable reduction technique. Even more, it is widely used to explore all possible factor structure of a set of variables, describe and identify another number of factors or contracts, and helps to determine which variables provide a variation between the items. An Exploratory Factor Analysis could be described as an orderly simplification of interrelated measures. Traditionally, it has been used to explore the possible underlying factor structure of a set of observed variables without imposing a preconceived structure on the outcome (Child, 2006).

During the first phase, the process and the selection of the items which was the analysis of the items by using the criterion of discrimination index greater than or equal to .30 (DeVellis, 2016). The items that complied with the criteria were selected and submitted to the second phase, then exploratory factor analysis employed, and subsequently, a load factor greater than or equal to .30 was established as a criterion (Kline, 2000). The extraction method of principal component analysis and the direct oblim was performed on the items that complied with the criteria of (.30). The next phase is to compute the Cronbach's alpha of the final version of the Spanish POPS scale. Lastly, a standard multiple regression was performed to measure the effects of organizational politics based on the Sociodemographic variables by sex, sector, tenure, and job position.

Results

An initial Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted, and the 15 items of the POPS Scale Spanish version were subjected to a principal component analysis (PCA). Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. An inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Mayer-Olkin (KMO) value was .841, exceeding the recommended value of .6

(Kaiser, 1970), and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance of $X^2(105) = 1278.586, p < .001$, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

The principal component analysis showed the presence of four components with eigenvalues value exceeding 1, explaining the 35.708%, 12.189%, 9.486%, and 8.405% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the fourth component. Using Cattell's (1996) scree test, it was decided to retain four components for further investigation. The Figure 1 presents the result of the scree plot.

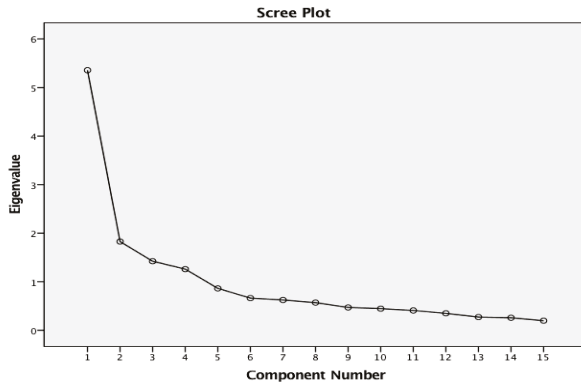


Figure 1: Scree Plot of the POPS Scale Spanish Version

Using the Parallel Analysis software supported the results, which showed only four components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the size (15 variables \times 205 participants). The four-component solution explained a total of 65.787% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 35.708%, Component 2 12.189%, Component 3 9.486%, and Component 4 8.405%. A direct oblimin rotation was performed to aid in the interpretation of the four components. The rotated solution showed the presence of a simple structure with two components indicated a number of strong factor loadings and the variables loading

substantially on each component, and it indicated two strong factors. There was a strong relationship between the two factors ($r = .439$). The Table 1 presents the results of the factor loading.

Table 1. Factor Loadings and the Eigenvalues Explained and the Cumulative Percent of the Items of the POPS Scale Spanish Version with the EFA Variance Performed.

	Items	Factor		h ²
		1	2	
Subscale 1	8	.87		.69
	7	.87		.69
	6	.84		.73
	5	.81		.68
	9	.69		.47
	1	.51		.58
	2	.43		.37
Subscale 2	13		.78	.62
	14		.76	.53
	12		.73	.59
	11		.66	.38
	15		.62	.50
	10		.53	.37
	Eigenvalues	5.36	1.83	
	% Variance Explained	35.71	12.19	
% Cumulative Variance	35.71	47.90		

Note. Subscale 1 is Go Along Political Behavior & Subscale 2 is Pay and Promotion Policies. Items $\geq .30$ are bolded for interpretation and displays the rotated factors with factor loadings.

Since a Principal Component Analysis and a direct oblimin was performed, it is recommended to report the Pattern Matrix and the Structure Matrix with the factor loadings of each item. The following table 2 presents the results from the Pattern and Structure Matrix for Principal Component Analysis with Oblimin Rotation of the two-factor solution of the POPS scale Spanish version with the Exploratory Factor Analysis performed.

Table 2. Pattern and Structure Matrix of the POPS Scale Spanish Version

Item	Pattern coefficients		Item	Structure coefficients		h ²
	Component 1	Component 2		Component 1	Component 2	
8	.87	-.11	6	.85	.39	.69
7	.87	-.11	8	.83	.27	.67
6	.84	.02	5	.83	.38	.72
5	.89	.02	7	.82	.27	.68
9	.69	-.02	9	.68	.29	.47
1	.52	.32	1	.66	.55	.52
2	.44	.27	2	.56	.46	.37
3	-.15	-.04	3	-.17	-.11	.04
13	-.02	.79	13	.32	.78	.60
14	-.08	.76	12	.39	.77	.53
12	.07	.74	14	.25	.73	.59
11	-.14	.67	15	.43	.69	.38
15	.16	.62	11	.15	.61	.50
10	.16	.53	10	.40	.60	.37
4	.03	.14	4	.09	.15	.02

Note. Items with major factor loadings $\geq .30$ are bolded

After the items three and four had been omitted, the scale went through a second Exploratory Factor Analysis with the remaining 13 items of the POPS scale Spanish version were subjected to a principal component analysis. Prior to performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed. An inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many coefficients of .3 and above. The Kaiser-Mayer-Okin (KMO) value was .854, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1970), and Barlett's Test of Sphericity reached statistical significance of $X^2(78) = 1215.188, p < .001$, supported the factorability of the correlation matrix.

The principal component analysis showed the presence of three components with eigenvalues value exceeding 1, explaining the 40.893%, 14.049%, and 9.643% of the variance respectively. An inspection of the scree plot revealed a clear break after the third component; it was decided to retain the three components for further investigation. (See Figure 2).

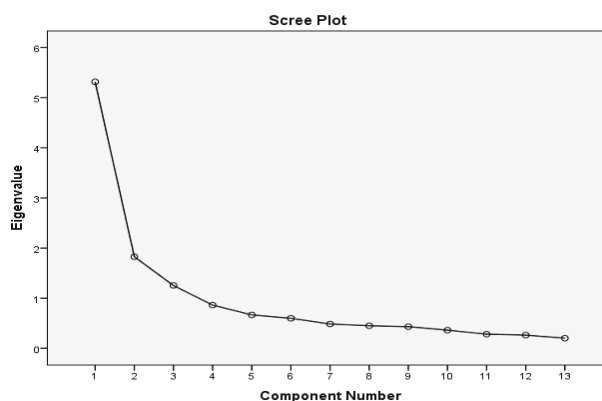


Figure 2: Scree Plot of the POPS Scale Spanish Version

The Parallel Analysis showed only three components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for a randomly generated data matrix of the size (13 variables \times 205). The three-component solution explained a total of 64.585% of the variance, with Component 1 contributing 40.893%, Component 2 contributing 14.049%, and Component 3 contributing 9.643%. A direct oblimin rotation was performed to aid in the interpretation of the three components.

The rotated solution showed the presence of a simple structure with two components indicated a number of strong factor loadings and the variables loading substantially on each component, and it indicated two strong factors. There was a strong relationship between the two factors ($r=.414$). The following table 3 presents the results of the factor loading.

Table 3. Factor Loadings and the Eigenvalues Explained and the Cumulative Percent of the Items of the POPS Scale Spanish Version with the EFA Variance Performed.

	Items	Factor		h ²
		1	2	
Subscale 1	8	.86		.69
	7	.86		.68
	6	.84		.73
	5	.82		.69
	9	.68		.47
	1	.52		.52
	2	.44		.37
Subscale 2	13		.78	.60
	14		.76	.53
	12		.73	.60
	11		.66	.38
	15		.63	.51
	10		.54	.39
		Eigenvalues	5.32	1.82
	% Variance Explained	40.89	14.05	
	% Cumulative Variance	40.89	54.94	

Note. Subscale 1 is Go Along Political Behavior & Subscale 2 is Pay and Promotion Policies. Items $\geq .30$ are bolded for interpretation and displays the rotated factors with factor loadings.

The results from the Pattern and Structure Matrix for Principal Component Analysis with Oblimin Rotation of the two-factor solution of the POPS scale Spanish version with the second Exploratory Factor Analysis performed. The following table 4 presents the results.

Each item of the POPS scale underwent an item analysis called Item Scale Correlations that is the item-total correlation and the correlation between

questions or how the item scores on a scale and the overall assessment score. The following table 5 presents the results of the POPS scale Spanish version discrimination index also known as the corrected item-total correlation.

Table 4. Pattern and Structure Matrix of the POPS Scale Spanish Version

Item	Pattern coefficients		Item	Structure coefficients		h ²
	Component 1	Component 2		Component 1	Component 2	
8	.87	-.09	6	.85	.38	.69
7	.86	-.09	5	.83	.36	.68
6	.84	.04	8	.83	.26	.73
5	.82	.02	7	.82	.26	.69
9	.69	-.00	9	.69	.28	.47
1	.52	.33	1	.65	.54	.51
2	.44	.28	2	.55	.46	.37
13	-.01	.78	13	.31	.78	.60
14	-.07	.76	12	.38	.77	.53
12	.08	.73	14	.24	.72	.59
11	-.17	.66	15	.42	.70	.38
15	.16	.63	10	.39	.61	.51
10	.16	.54	11	.14	.61	.39

Note. Items with major factor loadings $\geq .30$ are bolded

Table 5. Discrimination Index of the POPS Scale Spanish Version

Item	M	SD	DI	Item	M	SD	DI
1	2.84	1.39	.61*	9	2.84	1.35	.49*
2	3.13	1.32	.51*	10	3.37	1.34	.48*
3	3.14	1.31	-.10	11	3.15	1.41	.35*
4	3.27	1.23	.18	12	2.75	1.40	.57*
5	3.06	1.33	.67*	13	3.03	1.29	.53*
6	3.14	1.36	.66*	14	2.82	1.41	.45*
7	3.19	1.42	.57*	15	3.32	1.37	.53*
8	2.68	1.38	.57*				

Note. *Selected items of $\geq .30$

A reliability analysis, specifically an internal consistency was performed on the remaining 13 items. The internal consistency is usually computed with Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha formula.

DeVellis (2016) considers that a scale should have a reliability index greater than or equal to (.70). The results showed on the Go Along Political Behavior subscale, the ($\alpha=.872$) and the Standard Error of Measurement (*SEM*) was 2.57. On the Pay and Promotion Policies subscale, the ($\alpha=.798$) and the *SEM* was 2.62, and the total of the POPS Spanish version, the ($\alpha=.873$) and the *SEM* was (3.99).

To test the hypothesis, the researcher performed a standard multiple regression with the Sociodemographic variables such as sex, sector, number of years working for the organization, and type of job position. The purpose of the multiple regression was to determine which of the Sociodemographic variables are predictors on the perception of organizational politics in the workplace. In addition to the standard multiple regression, a preliminary analysis was performed to analyze if there were no violation of the assumptions of normality; linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity occurred, using a criterion of $p < .001$ for Mahalanobis distance. There were no outliers found in all these cases.

A standard multiple regression was calculated to predict perception of organizational politics based on sex, sector, years working for the organization, and type of job position. A significant regression was found ($F(4, 180) = 7.028, p < .000$), with a R^2 of .135, which indicates the regression model is a good fit for the data and the model, and the R Square explained a 13.5% of the variance. Participants' predicted perception of organizational politics is equal to $45.892 - .633 (\text{Sex}) + -.7.538 (\text{Sector}) + .157 (\text{Years Working in the Organization}) + 3.477 (\text{Type of Job Position})$. Where Sex is coded as 1 = male and 2 = female, Sector is coded as public sector = 1 and private sector = 2, the Years Working in the Organization is measured in years, and Type of Job Position is coded as 1 = Management/Supervisor and 2 = Non-Management/Supervisor. Only one predictor was statistically significant on the participants' perception of organizational politics by Sector ($\beta = -.304, p < .001$).

Discussion

The results showed an effect of organizational politics in the workplace, but only one variable had a statistical significance which is sector. As well, the POPS scale Spanish version showed a strong Cronbach's alpha coefficient. During the factor analysis, a few items from the POPS scale Spanish version were rearranged into two factors while in the literature review, the 15-item POPS scale English version only has one factor (subscale). Even more, the POPS scale Spanish version had similar results regarding the Cronbach's alpha, and in the literature review, the 15-item English short version POPS scale has a ($\alpha=.87$). In the case of the POPS scale Spanish version, there was homogeneity in the Cronbach's alpha compared to the 15-item. In other words, the POPS scale English version has a strong predictor in measuring negative perception of organizational politics in the workplace based on previous studies, and the POPS Spanish version may seem to have a possible good predictor measuring the phenomenon in the workplace in Puerto Rico.

Even though the items three and four were eliminated, the reliability and the Cronbach's alpha of the POPS scale Spanish version scored about the same as the 15-item POPS English version having an estimation of ($\alpha=.87$) to ($\alpha=.88$). Anastasi (2000), states that the reliability of an instrument or a scale is the consistency of the scores obtained by the same subject or participant(s). The internal consistency reliability implies a concern with the homogeneity of the items within a scale. The internal consistency is usually computed with the Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha formula. A reliability index greater than or equal to .70 was used to determine the reliability of the POPS scale Spanish version. DeVellis (2016), states that a scale should have a Cronbach's alpha coefficient at least (.70). Therefore, the scales can be considered reliable; however, a punctuation of .80 or above is preferable.

The 13 items were selected based on DeVellis's recommendations (2016), who say that a set of

highly intercorrelated items may indicate that each item should correlate substantially with the entire remaining items of the scale. To compute an item-scale correlation, one of the first steps is to check the corrected item-scale correlation which is when an item is under study with the rest of the items, but excluding itself with the rest of the items. The second step is to verify the uncorrected item scale in which searches if there is a correlation between an item with the other items but including itself. In theory, the uncorrected value may indicate how well an item is significant or representative of the entire scale.

Furthermore, when there are a few items, there will be a large difference in inclusion and exclusion of the item under consideration, as well when the item is under construction forming part a new scale. It is wise to study the corrected item-total correlation, as well as an item that has a high value and how it correlates because it is more desirable to select it versus from a low-value item. Psychometric discrimination is how well an item differentiates, and usually in research, a value of .30 or more is very common to establish which items in a scale will be valid. However, the questions three and four were eliminated because they scored very low in the corrected item-total correlation (discrimination index). According to the Component Matrix, in the Pattern Matrix, Structure Matrix, and the Communalities, the items three and four did not comply with the minimum requirement of (.30). As a result, it was extracted from the rest of the POPS scale Spanish version because it scored very low on each table.

Further, there was an incremental change in the KMO and Bartlett's test results from the first EFA conducted which (.841), and the second EFA performed (.854). The Total Variance Explained scores changed, the first estimated total score was 47.90%, and the second 54.94%. Even more, some of the items of the communalities value changed in the second EFA performed. The items three and four were deleted before calculating

the scale with the Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient formula. Furthermore, it had similar results in the discrimination index (corrected item-total correlation) and the reliability of the POPS scale Spanish version which the items 3 and 4 scored very low and did not meet the requirement of .30 or more.

The Pattern and Structure Matrix tables, indicated a presence of two factors and the items were likely to re-arrange. However, in the POPS scale Spanish version, the researcher combined names of Factor 1 and 2 and labeled it as Go Along Political Behavior because of the items in Factor 1 (General Political Behavior), items 1 and 2 highly correlated with the Factor 2 (Go Along To Get Ahead). Thus, the subscale Go Along Political Behavior consisted of seven items. The second subscale, which the researcher labeled under the same title as in the POPS English version, Pay and Promotion Policies and all the items complied with the criteria in the Component, Pattern, and in the Structure Matrix tables, but the items were re-arrange and consisted of the six items (See Appendix B).

The results from the Standard Error of Measurement (*SEM*), the scale scored a total of 3.99 in which indicated the scale scored very well. It is used to calculate the confidence intervals from the test scores. In the case of the scale, the Cronbach's alpha Coefficient scored high, but the standard error of measurement scored well. In other words, the higher the Cronbach's alpha, the lower standard error of measurement scores.

The Spanish language and the Puerto Rican culture were not the main factors to impede the preliminary validation of the POPS scale Spanish version. Puerto Rico is a United States of America (U.S.A) territory and was influenced by the American culture since 1898. Puerto Rico shares many of the U.S.A. traditions, legal court proceedings and applies many of the Federal laws in the government agencies as well receive federal funds. In other words, there might be a relationship

with the United States influences on the island, and some of the American business traditions shaped many of the organizations in Puerto Rico, especially many of the government and local agencies copied and applied the protocols and guidelines. Comparing Puerto Rico to Dhar's study (2011), the researcher may conclude that culture may not be the main factor in determining how employees view organizational politics in the workplace and if the employee will participate and apply negative workplace organizational tactics in Puerto Rico. Even more, in Sonaike's (2013) and Adebusuyi et al.'s study (2013) may support the current study as well the researcher's conclusion that culture does not play a major factor in organizational politics in the workplace in Puerto Rico.

On the other hand, Robbins and Judge (2016), state that Middle Eastern and Latin America are countries that face constant harsh socio-political changes and uprising, and experienced civil wars. As a result, the workplace tends to be a highly political environment and employees practice dictatorial workplace organizational politics tactics. However, in the current study, the workers do not share the same political uprising and civil wars compared to these countries, but Puerto Rico has faced drastic socio-political changes throughout history. In sum, the researcher deduced that the workplace environment in Puerto Rico, while comparing to Robbins and Judge's statement, is a bit more of a stable country. Despite this, Puerto Rico seems to encounter negative workplace politics.

Also, the researcher inferred that there is a similarity between the culture of work and organizational politics in Puerto Rico compared with previous studies by Al-Tuhaih and Van Fleet's, and Adebusuyi et al.'s, and in Sonaike's research. Further, employees in Puerto Rico may view organizational politics differently and the Puerto Rican workforce may share some of the Western society influences, in particular from the United States.

Brislin (1970, 1986), recommends that in cross-cultural studies, especially using an English version instrument to take into consideration the participant's cultural background. Therefore, the instrument and the study may produce consistent results, and the instrument can be valid for future research. When a researcher uses, a well-known and validated psychometric instrument, it does not guarantee it will have a good reliability and validity when it is applied in a study in another country with a different culture and language. The importance of translation and the use of experts to translate an instrument is the fundamental procedure before conducting a cross-cultural study, and guarantee that there is a possibility the translated version of the instrument will be validated and valuable for future research as well contribute new data and update the literature review.

The results in the multiple regression indicated that the variable sector may have an influence on the participant's perception of organizational politics in their workplace. Buchanan and Badham (2008) argue that there is a higher index of negative organizational politics in the public sector compared to the private. However, in the current study, the participants from the public and private sector reported that they view negative organizational politics in the workplace. It may be that employees in Puerto Rico have a different perspective, and both working sectors experience similar circumstances of negative workplace politics.

The variable job position, Buchanan and Badham (2008), state that employees tend to view negative organizational politics at work compared with employees who has a management and supervisory position. Since managers and supervisors have authority and make most of the decisions, and are likely to perceive organizational politics as a necessary mean to get the job done or most cases they do not view it as negatively. Adebusuyi et al. (2013) and Al-Tuhaih and Van Fleet's (2011) studies may support the researcher's

conclusion that supervisors and managers may have the tendency to abuse their authority over their subordinates.

In the variable sex, Buchanan and Badham (2008) mention that women have the tendency to view negatively organizational politics in the workplace compared to men. In the current study, the variable sex did not reveal a statistical significance. It may be that the size of the sample, most of the participants were females 67.8 % and perhaps both sexes in Puerto Rico viewed negatively organizational politics. The variable in the number of years working for the organization did not show a statistical significance and it concurs with the literature review which Buchanan and Badham (2008), argue that time or the number of years working for an organization may not indicate how employees will perceive organizational politics in their place of work.

Limitations of the Study

One of the limitations of the study was the small size sample, and the results may not be generalized. The participants were upon availability in which might have affected the data significantly. Another restriction may be that some of the organizations are not willing to recognize that their organizational politics are harsh and inflexible and may not allow the researcher to administer the questionnaires to the participants. Some organizations may not be open and willing to provide all the information about their organization politics to the researcher. The researcher encountered some difficulty administering the instruments to the participants because a few employees may have been working which makes it difficult to fully concentrate answering the questionnaires and may have an impact on the overall results. Certain employees may feel uneasy to participate in the study because they may think that their organization might take reprisal actions against them. In sum, the results of the study were limited to the small size sample and most of the participants reported their workplace

region were from the South and Southwest parts of Puerto Rico.

Recommendations

The researcher presents a few recommendations that may serve in the near future new studies about the phenomenon in the workplace. It is important to develop new research and use the Perception of Organizational Politics Scale Spanish version to determine its validity and reliability is consistent in Puerto Rico. Also, to continue and expand new research in other municipalities in Puerto Rico, since most of the participants reported that they work in the South region. Even more, conduct new research using the POPS scale Spanish version and compare the results with other Latin countries and in the United States to determine if the culture may have an impact on the different point of views on organizational politics in the workplace. Importantly, to administer the scale to a larger size sample of participants, since the study used a small sample, which may not generalize the results. Lastly, perform a Confirmatory Factor Analysis on the POPS scale Spanish version to explore its consistency and latent construct as a second phase of the study.

Conclusion

The results from the study may conclude that the Spanish version POPS scale is a valuable contribution to the literature review, in the Industrial-Organizational Psychology in Puerto Rico and other academic disciplines such as in the Human Resources and Business Administration. The Spanish version POPS scale may seem a preliminary valid instrument for the Puerto Rican workforce and possesses a strong Cronbach's alpha.

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APPENDIX A

Perceptions of Organizational Politics (POPS)

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Factor 1: General Political Behavior

1. People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.
2. There has always been an influential group in this department that no one ever crosses.

Factor 2: Go Along to Get Ahead

3. Employees are encouraged to speak out frankly even when they are critical of well-established ideas.
4. There is no place for yes-men around here; good ideas are desired even if it means disagreeing with superiors.
5. Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this organization.
6. It is best not to rock the boat in this organization.
7. Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than to fight the system.
8. Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth.
9. It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind.

Factor 3: Pay and Promotion Policies

10. Since I have worked in this department, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically.
11. I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies.
12. None of the raises I have received are consistent with the policies on how raises should be determined.
13. The stated pay and promotion policies have nothing to do with how pay raises and promotions are determined.
14. When it comes to pay raise and promotion decisions, policies are irrelevant.
15. Promotions around here are not valued much because how they are determined is so political.

Appendix B

Factor 1: Go Along Political Behavior

8. Telling others what they want to hear is sometimes better than telling the truth.
7. Sometimes it is easier to remain quiet than to fight the system.
6. It is best not to rock the boat in this organization.
5. Agreeing with powerful others is the best alternative in this organization.
9. It is safer to think what you are told than to make up your own mind.

1. People in this organization attempt to build themselves up by tearing others down.
2. There has always been an influential group in this department that no one ever crosses.

Factor 2: Pay and Promotion Policies

13. The stated pay and promotion policies have nothing to do with how pay raises and promotions are determined.
14. When it comes to pay raise and promotion decisions, policies are irrelevant.
12. None of the raises I have received are consistent with the policies on how raises should be determined.
11. I can't remember when a person received a pay increase or promotion that was inconsistent with the published policies.
15. Promotions around here are not valued much because how they are determined is so political.
10. Since I have worked in this department, I have never seen the pay and promotion policies applied politically.