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The role of appraisal politics on appraisal systems and employee silence within the public sector in South Korea

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**UNIVERSITY OF
PLYMOUTH**

**The role of appraisal politics on appraisal systems and
employee silence within the public sector in South Korea**

By

Jin-Woong Yoo

A thesis submitted to University of Plymouth in partial fulfilment for the
degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Plymouth Business School

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Author's Declaration

At no time during the registration for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy has the author been registered for any other University award without prior agreement of the Doctoral College Quality Sub-Committee.

Work submitted for this research degree at the University of Plymouth has not formed part of any other degree either at the University of Plymouth or at another establishment.

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The role of appraisal politics on appraisal systems and employee silence within the public sector in South Korea

Jin-Woong Yoo

Abstract

Purpose: There has been much discussion about employee appraisals within the public sector in South Korea, owing to the lack of accuracy in performance ratings (Ahn & Cho 2018). Despite the awareness that the inaccuracy in performance ratings can be considered to be the result of perceived appraisal politics (Poon 2004; Silva 2018; Dhiman 2020), precious few scholars in South Korea posed the questions respecting the determinants and the effect of perceived appraisal politics within the public sector (Ahn & Cho 2015; Kwon 2020). Hence, this doctoral research is to explore the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics toward acceptance of the appraisal system, and the moderating role of employee silence in the relation between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics.

Methods: This research draws on a quantitative data set collected from the central administrative agency and the public institution under the central administrative agency in South Korea. This study opts for the use of questionnaires for data collection. The data is analysed, through PLS-SEM.

Results: Firstly, pertaining to the determinants of perceived appraisal politics, two factors from the job environmental dimension affect the perception of appraisal politics, including interactions with others and job autonomy. Besides, three elements from the rater dimension affect perceived appraisal politics, such as ambiguity of appraisal policies, higher supervisor discretion and rater accountability. Secondly, employee silence with personal motives as a moderating effect affects the relation between low fairness of job rotation and benefits for raters, and higher supervisor discretion and benefits for ratees, as well as the relation between low rater accountability and benefits for ratees. Finally, benefits for raters fully mediate the relation between interactions with others and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system. A negative path coefficient is presented.

Conclusion: It is vital to minimise the perception of appraisal politics attributed to clique behaviour to increase acceptance of the appraisal system within the public sector in South Korea. It is suggested to train not merely raters but also subordinates, concerning how to treat others at work. Also noteworthy is that depending on the existence or non-existence of employee silence, HR practitioners forecast employee silence. As the increasing number of sector switchers to the public

sector exist in the public institution, HR practitioners should contemplate the interaction term of employee silence to perceived appraisal politics.

Keywords: Perceived appraisal politics, Acceptance of the appraisal system, Employee silence with personal motives, Determinants of perceived appraisal politics, Job environment dimension, Rater dimension.

Table of Contents

Acknowledgements	3
List of Tables	12
List of Figures	13
List of Abbreviations.....	14
Chapter 1 Introduction	15
1.1 Research background.....	15
1.2 Research gap and contribution.....	22
1.3 Aims and objectives	25
1.4 The Significance of research	32
1.5 The Context of South Korea	34
1.6 The Structure of this thesis.....	38
Chapter 2 Organisational politics	40
2.1 The Notions of politics within organisations	40
2.2 Organisational politics within the public sector	42
2.3 The Model of organisational politics perceptions	46
2.4 The Job environmental dimension as the determinant of appraisal politics	48
2.5 A Chapter summary	54
Chapter 3 The Organisational politics in performance appraisals.....	56
3.1 The Context in performance appraisals	56
3.2 The Deliberate manipulations of performance ratings	58
3.2.1 The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics by raters	62

<u>3.2.2 The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics by ratees</u>	<u>69</u>
<u>3.3 A Chapter summary</u>	<u>72</u>
<u>Chapter 4 Employee silence</u>	<u>74</u>
<u>4.1 Intentional withholding of information</u>	<u>74</u>
<u>4.2 Silence motives.....</u>	<u>76</u>
<u>4.3 A Chapter summary</u>	<u>81</u>
<u>Chapter 5 The Effect of perceived appraisal politics</u>	<u>82</u>
<u>5.1 The Perception of performance appraisal politics</u>	<u>82</u>
<u>5.2 The Acceptance of the appraisal system.....</u>	<u>87</u>
<u>5.3 Psychological contract theory</u>	<u>89</u>
<u>5.4 Gaps in the literature</u>	<u>92</u>
<u>5.5 A Chapter summary</u>	<u>96</u>
<u>Chapter 6 The Research context.....</u>	<u>96</u>
<u>6.1 The Central administrative agency</u>	<u>97</u>
<u>6.2 The Public institutions under the central administrative agency</u>	<u>100</u>
<u>6.3 The Denotation of BSC and MBO</u>	<u>102</u>
<u>6.4 A Chapter summary</u>	<u>105</u>
<u>Chapter 7 Conceptual framework and methodology</u>	<u>106</u>
<u>7.1 Research model</u>	<u>106</u>
<u>7.2 Research hypothesis and research questions.....</u>	<u>110</u>

<u>7.3 Research philosophy</u>	<u>111</u>
<u>7.4 Research approach</u>	<u>114</u>
<u>7.5 Research methodology</u>	<u>115</u>
<u>7.6 Research design</u>	<u>116</u>
<u>7.7 Research method</u>	<u>117</u>
<u>7.8 Piloting the research survey</u>	<u>120</u>
<u>7.8.1 Content validity</u>	<u>121</u>
<u>7.8.2 Construct validity and reliability</u>	<u>122</u>
<u>7.8.3 The Sample size in the pilot study</u>	<u>125</u>
<u>7.8.4 The Recommendation of sample size in PLS-SEM</u>	<u>127</u>
<u>7.9 Data collection</u>	<u>128</u>
<u>7.9.1 The Sphere of the public sector in South Korea</u>	<u>128</u>
<u>7.9.2 Survey procedure</u>	<u>131</u>
<u>7.9.3 Survey design</u>	<u>134</u>
<u>7.9.4 Translating the questionnaires</u>	<u>136</u>
<u>7.9.5 Research ethics</u>	<u>137</u>
<u>7.9.6 Data construction for analysis</u>	<u>138</u>
<u>7.10 Measurement variables</u>	<u>140</u>
<u>7.10.1 Task interdependence in a team</u>	<u>140</u>
<u>7.10.2 Interactions with others</u>	<u>141</u>
<u>7.10.3 Low job autonomy</u>	<u>141</u>
<u>7.10.4 Low fairness of job rotation</u>	<u>142</u>
<u>7.10.5 Ambiguity of appraisal policies</u>	<u>143</u>
<u>7.10.6 Higher supervisor discretion</u>	<u>143</u>

<u>7.10.7 Low rater accountability.....</u>	<u>144</u>
<u>7.10.8 Benefits for ratees.....</u>	<u>144</u>
<u>7.10.9 Benefits for raters</u>	<u>145</u>
<u>7.10.10 The Acceptance of the appraisal system in organisations</u>	<u>146</u>
<u>7.10.11 Employee silence with personal motives</u>	<u>146</u>
<u>7.10.12 Control variables</u>	<u>147</u>
<u>7.11 A Chapter summary</u>	<u>148</u>
<u>Chapter 8 Results and findings.....</u>	<u>150</u>
<u>8.1 Missing values and outliers</u>	<u>151</u>
<u>8.2 Non-response bias</u>	<u>153</u>
<u>8.3 Common method bias</u>	<u>154</u>
<u>8.4 Data distributions</u>	<u>155</u>
<u>8.5 PLS-SEM analysis</u>	<u>156</u>
<u>8.5.1 Measurement model (Outer model).....</u>	<u>157</u>
<u>8.5.1.1 Measurement of the reflective first order constructs.....</u>	<u>162</u>
<u>8.5.1.2 Measurement of the formative higher order construct</u>	<u>171</u>
<u>8.5.2 Structural model (Inner model)</u>	<u>175</u>
<u>8.5.2.1 Model fit index</u>	<u>175</u>
<u>8.5.2.2 Structural relationship</u>	<u>176</u>
<u>8.6 Testing a set of hypotheses.....</u>	<u>183</u>
<u>8.7 A Chapter summary</u>	<u>186</u>
<u>Chapter 9 Discussion</u>	<u>190</u>

<u>9.1 The Research gaps, model and research questions</u>	<u>190</u>
<u>9.2 What are the determinants of perceived appraisal politics?</u>	<u>193</u>
<u>9.3 How does employee silence affect the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics?.....</u>	<u>198</u>
<u>9.4 How does perceived appraisal politics intervene in the relationship between its determinants and the acceptance of the appraisal system?</u>	<u>201</u>
<u>9.5 A Chapter summary</u>	<u>202</u>
<u>Chapter 10 Conclusion</u>	<u>204</u>
<u>10.1 Main conclusions</u>	<u>204</u>
<u>10.2 Contributions and implications.....</u>	<u>209</u>
<u>10.2.1 Theoretical implications</u>	<u>210</u>
<u>10.2.2 Practical implications</u>	<u>215</u>
<u>10.3 The Limitations of research</u>	<u>223</u>
<u>10.4 The Direction of future study</u>	<u>225</u>
<u>Reference.....</u>	<u>228</u>
<u>Appendices</u>	<u>317</u>
<u>Appendix A The Research onion diagram</u>	<u>317</u>
<u>Appendix B-a The Survey question (for the English version)</u>	<u>318</u>
<u>Appendix B-b The Survey question (for the Korean version)</u>	<u>327</u>
<u>Appendix C The Approval letter</u>	<u>336</u>
<u>Appendix D Table for detecting outliers</u>	<u>337</u>
<u>Appendix E Table for non-response bias test.....</u>	<u>345</u>
<u>Appendix F Table for common method bias test</u>	<u>349</u>
<u>Appendix G The Test of skewness and kurtosis</u>	<u>351</u>

List of Tables

Table 1	Summary of main points for politics within organisations - p. 42
Table 2	Summary of main points for the model of organisational politics perception - p. 47
Table 3	The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics based upon perceived organisational politics in South Korea - p. 53
Table 4	Summary of main points for the diverse motives by raters - p. 61
Table 5	Summary of main points for the rater dimension - p. 67
Table 6	Summary of main points for the ratee dimension - p. 70
Table 7	Summary of main points for silence motives in South Korea - p. 80
Table 8	Summary of main points for perceived appraisal politics - p. 85
Table 9	Summary of main points for MBO vs. BSC - p. 104
Table 10	Summary of main points for the research onion - p. 114
Table 11	Covariance-based SEM vs. PLS-SEM - p. 120
Table 12	The Grades of highly ranked journals - p. 123
Table 13	The Recommendation of sample size in PLS-SEM - p. 127
Table 14	Summary of main points for the public sector in South Korea - p. 131
Table 15	The Questionnaire structure - p. 135
Table 16	Measures of task interdependence in a team - p. 140
Table 17	Measures of interactions with others - p. 141
Table 18	Measures of low job autonomy (reverse-coded items) - p. 142
Table 19	Measures of the low fairness of job rotation (reverse-coded items) - p. 142
Table 20	Measures of ambiguity of appraisal policies (reverse-coded items) - p. 143
Table 21	Measures of higher supervisor discretion - p. 143
Table 22	Measures of low rater accountability (reverse-coded items) - p. 144
Table 23	Measures of benefits for ratees (the notion of appraisal politics) - p. 145
Table 24	Measures of benefits for raters (the notion of appraisal politics) - p. 145
Table 25	Measures of the acceptance of the appraisal system in organisations - p. 146
Table 26	Measures of employee silence with personal motives - p. 147
Table 27	Higher order construct in the research model - p. 161
Table 28	A Summary table regarding measurement model of the reflective first order constructs - p. 170
Table 29	A Summary table concerning measurement model of the formative higher order construct - p. 174
Table 30	Testing a set of hypotheses - p. 183
Table 31	Key messages for HRM/OB scholars - p. 213
Table 32	Key messages for HR practitioners in the public sector in South Korea- p. 219
Table 33	Key messages for government policy makers in the public sector in South Korea - p. 222

List of Figures

Figure 1	The Job environment dimension as the determinant of perceived appraisal politics - p. 25
Figure 2	The Rater dimension as the determinant of perceived appraisal politics - p. 27
Figure 3	Employee silence with personal motives as a moderating effect - p. 29
Figure 4	The Full mediating effect of perceived appraisal politics - p. 31
Figure 5	The Definition of public performance - p. 45
Figure 6	The Appraisal of performance-based contracting - p. 99
Figure 7	The Evaluation of the performance record - p. 99
Figure 8	The General system of performance management for the public institutions in South Korea - p. 101
Figure 9	The Proposed conceptual framework using path analysis - p. 109
Figure 10	The Reliability for the pilot study - p. 125
Figure 11	The Description of survey respondents for the pilot study - p. 125
Figure 12	Participants from the central administrative agency - p. 131
Figure 13	Participants from the public institution - p. 134
Figure 14	The Description of survey participants for the full-scale study - p. 139
Figure 15	The Analysis procedures for this thesis - p. 150
Figure 16	The Formative and reflective constructs in the first order variable - p. 158
Figure 17	An Example of type 2 'the reflective-formative measurement model' - p. 159
Figure 18	Indicator Reliability - p. 162
Figure 19	The Significance of the indicator's loadings - p. 164
Figure 20	Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability for internal consistency reliability - p. 167
Figure 21	Internal consistency reliability including INT_4 and LFJ_2 - p. 168
Figure 22	Convergent validity (AVE) - p. 169
Figure 23	Discriminant validity (an analysis of Fornell-Larcker criterion) - p. 170
Figure 24	Full collinearity VIFs - p. 171
Figure 25	Weights of the first order constructs on the higher order construct - p. 173
Figure 26	The Nomological validity - p. 173
Figure 27-a	VIF values for the formative higher order construct - p. 174
Figure 27-b	Full VIFs for the formative higher order construct - p. 174
Figure 28	SRMR - p. 176
Figure 29	The Path analysis model - p. 179
Figure 30-a	Standardised path coefficients, p-value and the R-Squared value - p. 177
Figure 30-b	The Moderating effect (interaction term) - p. 179
Figure 31	Control variables - p. 180
Figure 32	The Effect sizes (F Square) - p. 181
Figure 33	The Q Squared values of endogenous constructs - p. 182
Figure 34	Specific indirect effects - p. 182
Figure 35	The Comparison between in interaction terms and without interaction terms - p. 186
Figure 36	A Summary figure of the path analysis - p. 188
Figure 37	All sub-hypotheses in figure - p. 193

List of Abbreviations

ABS	Association of Business Schools
AMB	Ambiguity of Appraisal Policies
ASD	Acquiescent Silence Dimension
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
BRE	Benefits for Ratees
BRR	Benefits for Raters
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
DED	Disengaged Silence Dimension
DSD	Defensive Silence Dimension
DEMATEL	Decision-Making Trial and Evaluation Laboratory
EMS	Employee Silence with Personal Motives
GEN	Gender
GRA	Job Grades
HR	Human Resource
HRM	Human Resource Management
HSD	Higher Supervisor Discretion
IBA	Index-Based Acceptance
INT	Interactions with Others
ISM	Interpretative Structural Modelling
KCI	Korea Citation Index
KPI	Key Performance Indicator
LFJ	Low Fairness of Job Rotation
LJA	Low Job Autonomy
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
LRA	Low Rater Accountability
MBO	Management by Objectives
MRA	Managerial Acceptance
NPG	New Public Governance
NPM	New Public Management
NPS	New Public Service
OB	Organisational Behaviour
OSD	Opportunistic Silence Dimension
PI	Performance Indicator
PVM	Public Value Management
PLS-SEM	The Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling
RSD	Relational Silence Dimension
RESET	Regression Equation Specification Error Test
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SCIE	Sciences Citation Index Expanded
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SRMR	Standardised Root Mean Square Residual
SSCI	Social Sciences Citation Index
TAS	Task Interdependence in a Team
TEN	Tenure

Chapter 1 Introduction

The introductory chapter puts forward the research background section, justifying the need for conducting this research. Secondly, the research gap and contribution are stated. Thereafter, the aims and objectives of this research are presented. These are followed by the significance of the research. Finally, the context of South Korea and the structure of this thesis are presented.

1.1 Research background

Both performance management and performance appraisals have come to the forefront as the most crucial Human Resource (HR) practices to this day within academic circles, so as to strengthen business competitive power (Hee & Jing 2018; Brown et al., 2019; Miharja et al., 2020). In a similar vein, owing to the changing role of the state and the observations of public service motivation for achieving organisational goals, both performance management and performance appraisals are of great importance within public organisations (Christensen et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2019). Similarly, within the public sector in South Korea, performance management and performance appraisals have been mainly utilised to identify the level of individual contribution towards organisational goals (Oh et al., 2016; Park & Yoon 2020).

According to Tseng & Levy (2019), performance management is a critical Human Resource Management (HRM) practice intended for enhancing performance and development in the work place. This practice is defined as a continuous procedure of identifying, evaluating and supporting the performance of employees or teams, combining their performance with organisational goals (Armstrong & Baron 2000; Armstrong 2006a; Buchner 2007; Aguinis 2019). According to Armstrong (2006b), the main aim of performance management is to set up a culture of high performance which drives employees to hold a sense of responsibility

for achieving meaningful goals. Thus, the feedback exchange between supervisors and individuals can play a key role in reinforcing the efficiency of performance management (Dahling & O'Malley 2011). According to Fletcher (2001, p. 473), performance appraisal refers to 'the activities through which organisations seek to assess employees and develop their competence, enhance performance and distribute rewards. It sometimes becomes a part of a wider approach, integrating HRM strategies known as performance management'. Performance appraisal is a formal process, deemed as episodic; it focusses on describing, judging and rating an individual's behaviour at work by their supervisors (Planche 2021). Coens & Jenkins (2000) viewed performance appraisal as a measuring tool accompanied by political problems, owing to the power difference between a rater and a ratee. When referencing the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (CIPD) summaries, the issue of performance appraisals mainly stresses the process of ratings (CIPD 2016). On the other hand, the issue of performance appraisal system is referred to as a part of a performance management to carry through the organisational goals in the work place (Marchant 1999; Arof et al., 2018). Employee appraisal, career development discussion and performance reviews theoretically correspond with the issue of appraisal system (Roberts 2003).

This research is undertaken in the context of the exploitative nature of performance appraisals (Gabris & Ihrke 2001). This is because of criticisms levelled and how it is viewed as a tool of control under the present system within the public sector in South Korea (Park & Lee 2015). Typically, according to Longenecker (1989, p. 76), 'politics often enters the performance appraisal process'. To address this issue, both organisational politics and performance appraisal politics are mainly focused for this thesis. The term 'organisational politics' typically refers to intentional behaviour of influence either to attain self-interests or to protect others (Drory & Romm 1990). Similarly, the term 'performance appraisal politics' can be referred to as 'superior's deliberate manipulations of employee ratings to enhance or protect self or department interests' (Longenecker & Gioia 2000, p. 17). Accordingly, the perception of appraisal politics can be defined as 'participants' perceptions of the political

motives behind the inflation or deflation of performance ratings' (Poon 2004, p. 326). Owing to the subjectivity of phenomenon concerning performance appraisal politics, perceived appraisal politics will be highlighted for this thesis. As a guide, the variable of perceived appraisal politics is labelled as motivational motive and punishment motive along with individual preference (favouritism) (Ismail et al., 2011). For the context of South Korea, these factors are re-labelled as benefits for ratees and benefits for raters. These may have something in common with a multi-level theory of self-serving behaviour. This is because Choi et al. (2016) indicated that self-serving behaviour at work can occur through either different forms or units in South Korea. According to John (1999), in principle, self-serving behaviour can be generated by an individual, team and organisational levels; self-serving is the main focus of this thesis, which can drive the protection of material resources at work.

Since the late 1990s, performance management, appraisal tools and the appraisal system in accord with the notion of New Public Management (NPM) has been utilised within the public sector in South Korea (Ko 2008; Kang 2012; Han & Kim 2017). This was owing to the growing issue of the entrepreneurial government and the control mechanisms of the civil service system (Osborne & Gaebler 1992; Hughes 2008; Andrews et al., 2019). From another perspective, this was triggered by the financial crisis in South Korea (Kim 2008).

Nevertheless, in the initial stage of introduction, there was the expectation of the positive relevance towards employee job attitudes, deemed as a trigger point for performance improvement (Lim et al., 2017). However, NPM has received its fair share of criticism in the Asian context, owing to diverse reasons. For instance, Koike (2013) maintained that developments in the quality of public administration with NPM can be slow on the uptake with regard to Asian bureaucracies. According to Park & Joo (2010, p. 189), 'the Korean administrative culture could be a serious constraint, affecting the potential for the NPM reforms'. Additionally, in terms of the operation of the appraisal system, Jamaiudin (2021) referred to many points in dispute, such as the imprecise methods of evaluation and the perceived unfairness in performance-based rewards. Especially within South Korea, as an individual unit, Yoon (2021) pointed out that HR control functions can be reinforced by the

individual appraisal. Consequently, owing to the elements which can arouse the inaccuracy in employee appraisals, it was discovered that some public employees in South Korea are dissatisfied with either appraisal tools or the appraisal system (Kim & Lim 2016; Lee & Lee 2017; Do et al., 2018a).

The distinctly defined appraisal criteria for raising the accuracy in performance ratings and performance appraisal fairness have been raised by some scholars to eliminate cynical viewpoints as above (Kim & Rubianty 2011; Saratun 2016; Kang & Shen 2016; Baird et al., 2020). Likewise, to extinguish negative standpoints, the issues of fairness as well as accuracy are constantly proposed within the public sector in South Korea (Kim & Park 2017; Park & Kwak 2020). Nonetheless, it was pointed out that practical proposals for achieving the fairness in performance appraisals were insufficient. The accuracy in performance ratings has been regarded as one of the vital factors in turning negative perceptions of performance appraisal systems into positive cognitions, with regards to employees (Ikramullah et al., 2016). However, it isn't easy to implement accurately and fairly within both private organisations and public organisations (Shrivastava & Purang 2011; Linna et al., 2012; Park & Kim 2016).

Therefore, within academic circles, many authors have endeavoured to demonstrate that the accuracy in performance appraisals is dependent not only on the factors specific to raters such as rater characteristics and rater personality but also the elements specific to system such as appraisal tools and processes (Wexley & Youtz 1985; Sanchez & De La Torre 1996; Sharma & Sharma 2017; Tyskbo 2020). Well-defined tools, rater motivation, rater personality traits, the removal of rater biases and the decrease of politics have been addressed (Ilgen & Feldman 1983; Das & Teng 1999; Nurse 2005; Harari et al., 2015; Idowu 2017). From among these factors, the decrease of politics in employee appraisals is relatively neglected, although appraisal ratings can be always influenced by 'politicking', such as the political behaviour of raters (Cook 1995). Referentially, the manipulative behaviour by raters can't be easily resolved by training raters. On the other hand, training raters can help to reduce the cognitive biases of raters (Mobley 1982; Rosales et al., 2019).

More importantly, Tziner et al. (1996) viewed the inaccuracy in performance ratings as the deliberate manipulations by raters, rather than cognitive biases and non-deliberate distortion. According to Park (2014a), concerning the deliberate manipulations by raters, the diverse motives by raters can be addressed, such as the effect of the political motives by raters and the impact of impression management on performance ratings. From among these, the effect of the political motives by raters is stressed, owing to the political considerations which always exist in the process of employee appraisals; these considerations can easily trigger the rater's political motives that result in the deliberate distortion by raters (Silva 2018). Additionally, Longenecker (1986) underlined that the supervisor's key concern is irrelevant to accuracy but rather the effectiveness of performance ratings. Nevertheless, except for the rater directly involved, it would be difficult for others in organisations to identify the political motives by raters which lead to the deliberate manipulations of employee ratings. Hence, when investigating the deliberate manipulations attributed to the political motives by raters, the perceptions respecting the phenomenon of appraisal politics can be addressed (Dhiman 2020). What's interesting here is that on account of the opacity and subjectivity relevant to the phenomenon of appraisal politics, the individual perception of appraisal politics has been addressed. Likewise, Ferris & Judge (1991) stated that political viewpoints can better explain the descriptive issues of actual appraisal decision; the accuracy standpoint by itself can't account for the reality of performance appraisals precisely. Thus, the author takes note of the perception of appraisal politics to explicate the inaccuracy in performance ratings.

Additionally, precious few scholars in South Korea pose questions about 1) the determinants and 2) the effect of perceived appraisal politics within the public sector, even though the inaccuracy in performance ratings can be regarded as the result of perceived appraisal politics (Lee & Baek 2019). As a result, there were a very limited number of studies in South Korea, such as the antecedents of perceived appraisal politics in a local autonomous entity (Ahn & Cho 2015). Besides, there have been no findings from the central administrative agency and public institutions to the best of writer's knowledge. It is crucial to extend the

scope of an existing study for the public sector in South Korea. This is because diverse occupational groups and national service organisations can possibly avoid a hasty generalisation concerning the practices of performance appraisals (Ammons & Rodriguez 1986; Otley 1999). Therefore, this research is aimed at the public sector in South Korea, such as the central administrative agency and the public institution under the central government.

To address the relation between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics, the model of organisational politics perceptions will be investigated. Major preceding researches have endeavoured to examine the determinants of perceived appraisal politics, on the basis of perceived organisational politics; Guo et al. (2019, p. 784) implied that 'when employees perceive the work environment as political, organisations need to be aware of non-work factors that may influence supervisors' evaluation of employee performance'. Longenecker et al. (1987) found that a reality of organisational life, such as the interpersonal dynamics between supervisors and employees, and political cultures can be the determinants of perceived appraisal politics. Zivnuska et al. (2004) underlined that in highly political organisations, the job environmental influences are relevant to performance ratings by their nature. When considering the organisational politics in employee appraisals, it was identified that the factors of the supervisor dimension are most critical. This is because employee perceptions can be largely affected by supervisor political actions (Gilmore et al., 1996; Kane-Frieder et al., 2014). On the other hand, to the best of the writer's knowledge, no studies addressed variables that can explain the relation between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics; variables affecting the strength of the relation weren't considered within academic circles (Brouer et al., 2011; Choi & Hyun 2015). Hence, this research strives to explore the determinants of perceived appraisal politics, stressing employee silence as the moderating effect. This is because employee silence can be viewed as a strategic decision or a deliberate choice by employees, which can however intervene in the relation between the determinants of perceived organisational politics and the perception of organisational

politics (Kwon 2017a). Duan et al. (2021, p. 2) stated that 'employees are likely to engage in self-interested voice to protect their interests when perceiving organisational politics'. In contrast, this study insists that all individuals at work can frequently engage in deliberate silence to protect their interests. For reference, despite a well-known fact that the participations by each individual at work can decrease disagreement of opinion between raters and ratees in the process of employee appraisals (Korsgaard & Roberson 1995; Othman 2014), some workers choose to say nothing, avoiding involvements in the procedure of management practice (Cullinane & Donaghey 2020). According to Seo et al. (2019), the moderating effect of employee silence, however, can change the nature of the relation between a predictor and an outcome in public organisations, such as inclusive leadership and voice behaviour. It implied that when employees become silent, the relation between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics could be changed or enhanced.

To address the effect of perceived appraisal politics, the relationship between the perception of appraisal politics and acceptance of the appraisal system will be explored. First off, psychological contract theory is addressed to support the impact of benefits for ratees on acceptance of appraisal system. Yuan & Dejun (2002) illustrated that the psychological contract is hailed as a mental bond between employees and their organisations. The employee's behaviour and attitude can be dependent upon the fulfilment of the psychological contract. The fulfilment of the psychological contract helps improving employment relations, causing individuals to react to the managerial practice in a positive manner. In practice, Lub et al. (2016, p. 653) refers to 'different aspects of psychological contract fulfilment, such as career development, job content, organisational policies, social atmosphere and rewards'. In summary, there is the possibility that an implicit duty attributed to the higher ratings than expected can induce positive reactions towards the appraisal system run by an organisation and employment relations (Conway & Briner 2002; Yeh 2011).

In addition, when focusing on the supervisor's perspective, the appraisal politics of benefits for raters as a means of control can be relevant to the acceptance of the appraisal system. In this context, line managers implied that the appraisal system can be acceptable for organisations to operate well (Park & Lee 2019).

To sum up, the author takes note of the fact that the manipulative behaviour can't be easily resolved by training raters, and the political considerations within the process of employee appraisals can always exist. Moreover, when exploring the deliberate manipulations attributed to the political motives by raters, the perception respecting the phenomenon of appraisal politics can be addressed. This is because it is tough for others to identify the political motives which result in the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings, except for the rater directly concerned. Accordingly, the author takes note of the individual perceptions towards the phenomenon of appraisal politics. Naseer & Ahmad (2016, p. 73) likewise illustrated that 'the organisational life pervaded with politics. Hence, political behaviour is an ordinary part of the performance appraisals processes and the performance appraisals processes are highly prone to politics'. However, in the public sector in South Korea, little is known about the perception of appraisal politics, as to 1) why the manipulative behaviour of raters can be perceived by individuals and 2) the effect of perceived appraisal politics within organisations. Accordingly, this study will strive to grasp the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics between its determinants and acceptance of the appraisal system.

1.2 Research gap and contribution

Firstly, according to Chung (2017), in the realm of the public administration in South Korea, little is known about the perception of organisational politics. Likewise, the perception of appraisal politics can still be regarded as unfamiliar. Rather than concerns about perceived appraisal politics, the emphasis on performance management has lately triggered research

interests in HR functions such as continuous feedback, goal setting, performance review and distinct rewards (Lee 2016; Park et al., 2018). Elements of performance appraisals as a management tool have likewise suggested several topics today including, assessment units, characteristics of appraisers, performance index, performance measurements, performance reward systems also known as reward programs and subjects of evaluation (Paik 2016; Roh 2018). According to Townley (1990), it would be nonsense to say that there would be the absence of flaws in employee appraisals. To deal with conflicts in appraisals, the political context and power relationships inherent in performance appraisals should be conceptualised, rather than stressing technical functions.

The author believes that the focus on perceived appraisal politics can lead to a theoretical contribution in the public sector in South Korea, such as the advancement in existing theory concerning the defects in employee appraisals.

Secondly, it is rare to find in-depth studies concerning employee silence in the process of performance appraisals (Harlos & Knoll 2021). In addition, to the best of the writer's knowledge, employee silence is firstly addressed in the context of performance appraisal politics for this research. Employee silence is defined as the collective phenomenon which means averting sharing opinions or speaking to others, owing to contextual factors (Morrison & Milliken 2000). Furthermore, employee silence is referred to as intentionally keeping aloof from opinions and advancing new opinions, based upon personal motives (Zehir & Erdogan 2011; Nikmaram et al., 2012; Rai & Agarwal 2018). General employee silence can arise on account of the effects of hierarchical organisational structure (Ko & Han 2019). On the other hand, this research pays attention to employee silence attributed to individual motives in the management practices (De Maria 2006). The personal motives in connection with employee silence were less highlighted within the public sector in South Korea. However, as the transmission of employee silence was underlined, it is necessary to identify diverse motives for employee silence (Shim & Park 2017). Han (2010) implied that some civil servants in South Korea were already aware that performance appraisals can be influenced by political interpersonal skills and the lack of participation. Besides, employees

holding lower job grades are likely to choose silence in the management practices, complying with the decision made by their supervisors (Kim & Cho 2020). Thus, it is curious how the moderating effect of employee silence can change the nature of the relationship as a third variable. The author believes that the focus on employee silence with personal motives can lead to both theoretical and practical contributions in the public sector in South Korea, as to how the manipulative behaviour of raters can be perceived by individuals in a different way.

Thirdly, this study takes note of the institutional aspect of appraisal system. This is because within academic circles, the effect of perceived appraisal politics nowadays has been suggested as thinking outside the box (Syed Mir 2016; Shah & Hamid 2016). However, the various concepts of job attitudes have been the most frequently measured concerning the motivational purpose of perceived appraisal politics (Agarwal 2016). On the contrary, when focusing on the institutional aspect of the appraisal system, employee acceptance should be measured (Brown et al., 2010). However, if the acceptance of the appraisal system is down to the effect of perceived appraisal politics, it would be necessary to redeem a defect in the system (Byrne 2005). This is because the appraisal system mainly covering performance-based rewards caused employees' moral risks and the decrease of co-operative mood (Coccia & Igor 2018). This study takes note of the fact that particularly for the public sector in South Korea, the general acceptance of appraisal system can often be found, such as managerial acceptance of the appraisal system (Cho 2011; Choi & Park 2014; Lee & Lee 2017). However, there is a literature gap between the effect of perceived appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system. Prior to evaluating the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics, it is a priority to see whether or not the acceptance of the appraisal system can be down to the effect of perceived appraisal politics most importantly. The author believes that the focus on the acceptance of the appraisal system can lead to a practical contribution, such as suggestions for policy makers.

1.3 Aims and objectives

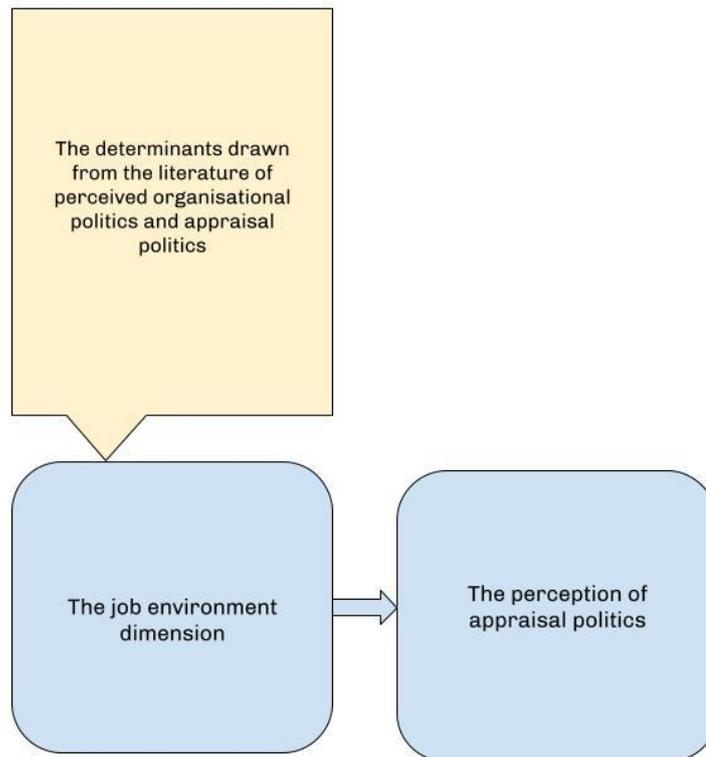
This doctoral research is to explore the full mediating role of the perception of appraisal politics between its determinants and acceptance of the appraisal system within the public sector in South Korea.

The research objectives are as follows:

1. To explore the relation between the job environment dimension and the perception of appraisal politics

According to Valle Perrewe (2000), it was empirically demonstrated that when compared to the factors of the job/work environmental dimension, the elements of the personal dimension including personality was less related to the perceptions of organisational politics. Parker et al. (1995) discovered that in comparison with the factors of organisational and personal dimensions, the elements of the job environmental dimension, such as the lack of co-operation, unclarity of individual roles and unfairness of rewards were more related to perceived organisational politics. Besides, Luqman et al. (2015) referred to uncertainty, obscurity and the lack of clarity as the antecedents of perceived organisational politics in management practice. In a similar vein, it is worth noticing that the perception of employee appraisals can be influenced by the political working environment (Barnes-Farrell 2013). In addition to the elements involved in employee appraisals, diverse contextual factors in organisations can affect the perception or effectiveness of employee appraisals (Rusu et al., 2016). For reference, the factors of the job/work environmental dimension play a key role in comprehending the relation between features of organisational structures and employee reactions at work within Organisational Behaviour (OB) studies. Therefore, the issue of the work environmental dimension can be defined as the intervening factor (Newman 1975).

Figure 1: The Job environment dimension as the determinant of perceived appraisal politics



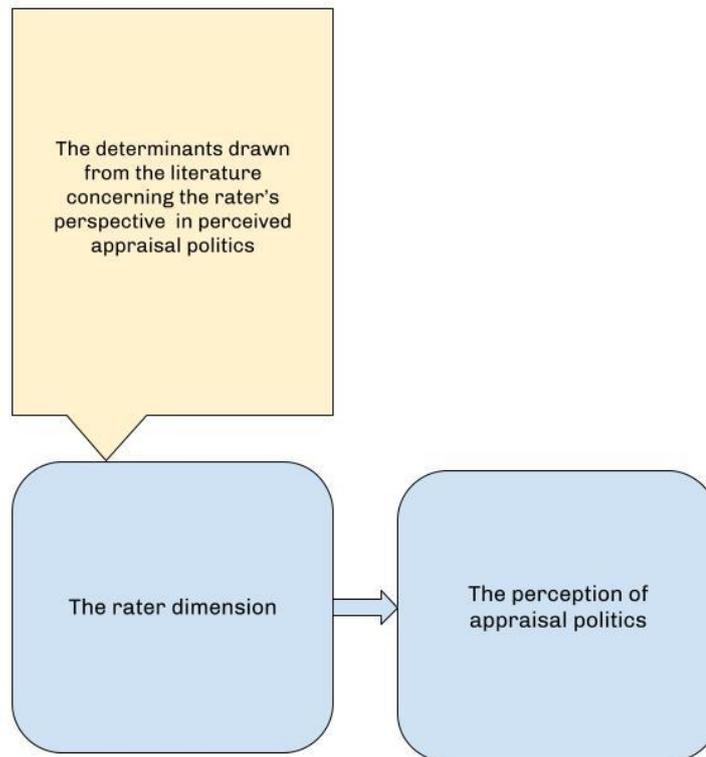
Source: the Author (2022)

2. To examine the relation between the rater dimension and the perception of appraisal politics

Kim (2016) underlined that HR directors or raters in the public sector in South Korea can significantly trigger the perception of appraisal politics. Owing to the significance of person directly involved in perceived appraisal politics, the author pays attention to factors influencing perceived appraisal politics concerning the rater's perspective in the appraisal politics and rater's characteristic. Also noteworthy is that all individuals could resonate with factors influencing perceived appraisal politics from the rater's perspective. This is because ratees can consciously keep track of raters' efforts to produce ratings for attaining individual goals (Tziner & Rabenu 2018).

Primarily, when comparing the factors of the appraiser perspective with the appraisee standpoint, Scullen et al. (2000) implied that the elements for a rater's perspective were directly linked to the influence of performance ratings, rather than the factors for an employee's perspective. For instance, the rater's perception of similarity between a rater and an employee can affect the appraisal ratings of raters (Turban & Jones 1988). Rosen et al. (2017) stated that based upon John's theory of self-serving behaviour, the rater's perception of workplace politics is statistically significant to raters' rating behaviour. On the other hand, Lin & Kellough (2019, p. 179) stated that 'employee perceptions of performance appraisal processes have received considerable attention in the public management literature, but the views of supervisors who actually conduct the appraisals have received relatively little consideration'. Besides, in the field of HRM, the impact of political behaviour by raters was frequently addressed (Ferris et al., 1994a). However, it appears that the determinants of political behaviour of raters are less illustrated. To address a gap, this study strives to explore the elements of the rater dimension within the public sector.

Figure 2: The Rater dimension as the determinant of perceived appraisal politics



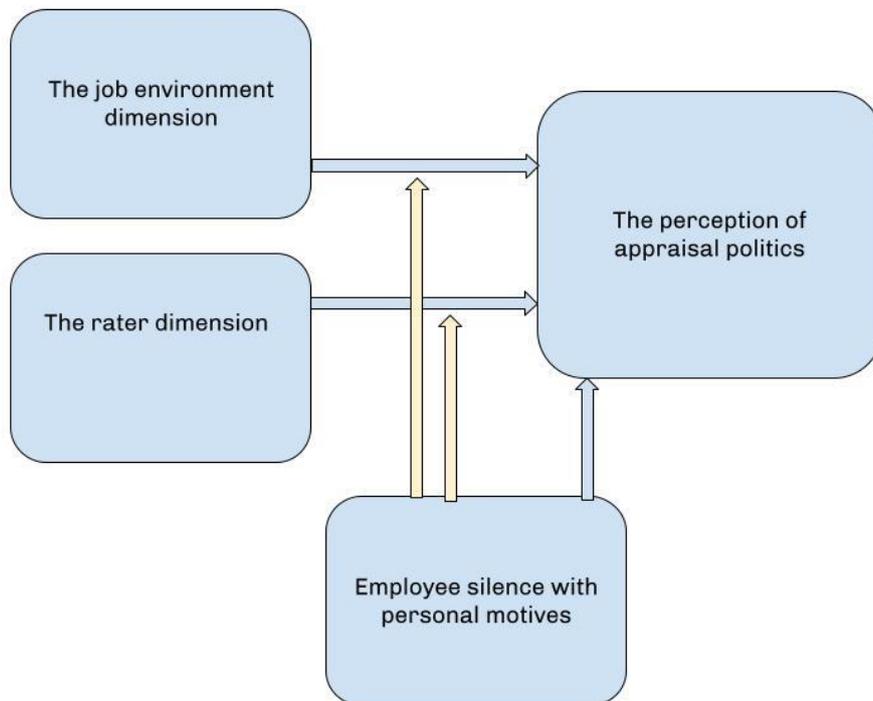
Source: the Author (2022)

3. To evaluate the moderating effect of employee silence on the relation between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics

HR decisions comprised of personal selection, performance evaluation and promotions are largely affected by either employees' or supervisors' behaviour of influence (Drory & Vigoda-Gadot 2010). Such behaviour can trigger the perception of political behaviour in the work place. In this context, employee silence based on strategic motives can directly affect perceived appraisal politics; it may also influence the relation between the antecedents of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics, rather than those silent employees being concerned about being stigmatised as trouble makers (Prouska & Psychogios 2018). According to Kim & Son (2020), owing to the authoritarian leadership

which prevails in the public organisations in South Korea, employee silence with diverse silence motives has been rampant. It would be meaningful to recall a fact that employee silence as a third variable is endemic within organisations. Understanding employee silence can prevent the potential system failures at work (Broeng 2018).

Figure 3: Employee silence with personal motives as a moderating effect



Source: the Author (2022)

4. To explore the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics between its determinants and the acceptance of the appraisal system

The author believes that there may be the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics between its determinants and the acceptance of the appraisal system. Despite the negative

viewpoints of insufficient linkages between employee appraisals and appraisal rewards, some employees can accept or come to terms with the appraisal system in the public sector in South Korea (Heo 2016). In this context, the author regards the roles of perceived appraisal politics as crucial. However, perceived appraisal politics may affect the acceptance of the appraisal system either positively or negatively. Expectancy theory will be scrutinised, pertaining to the negative relation between perceived appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system. Expectancy theory can be hailed as the underlying theory for grasping the issues of performance rewards and pay for performance (Lee 2010).

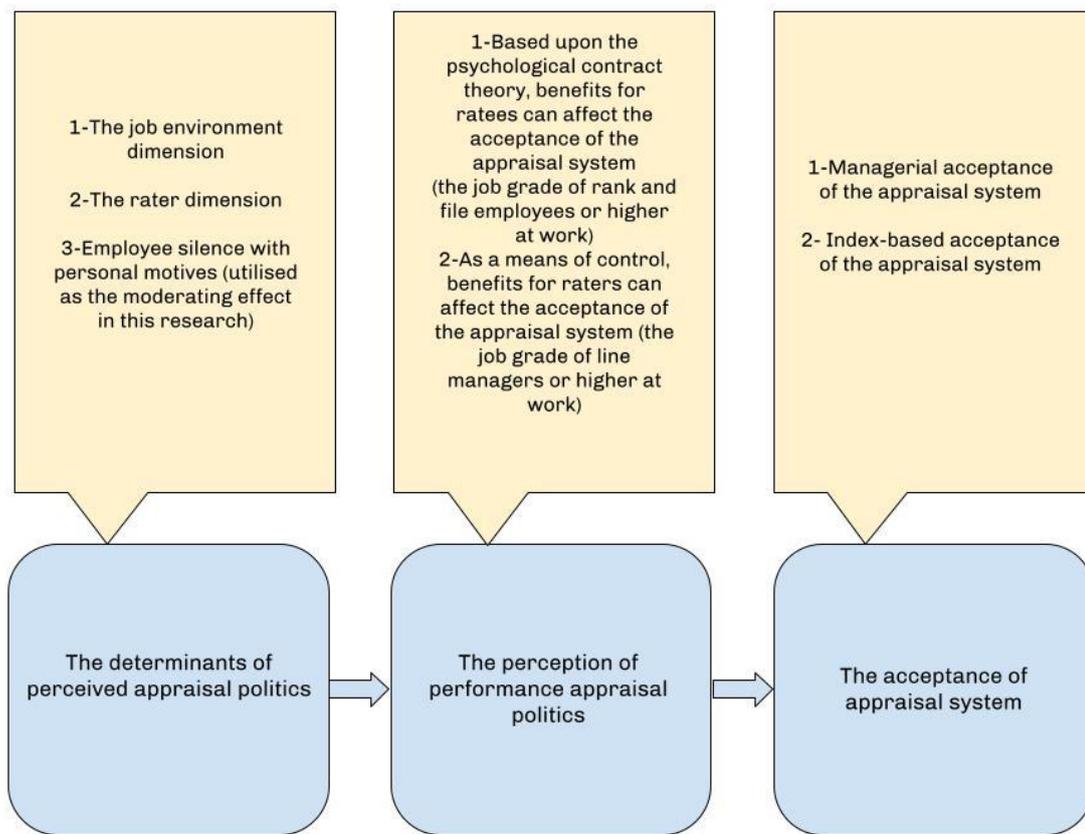
As a matter of course, the perceived fairness in appraisal system is a verified factor in actualising the acceptance of performance appraisals within organisations (Evaline & Bula 2017). However, when addressing the psychological contract theory, it is probable that the appraisal politics of benefits for ratees can affect the acceptance of the appraisal system. Petersitzke (2009) indicated that supervisor behaviour can positively facilitate the psychological contracts towards rank-and-file employees. An implicit arrangement can be generated between employees and organisations (Schalk & Roe 2007). As a guide, when simply contemplating the exchange agreement between employees and employers (Thomas et al., 2003), the theoretical gap respecting the psychological contract theory can exist between the perceived appraisal politics of benefits for ratees and the appraisal system at work. Nevertheless, Harrington & Lee (2015) illustrated that the fulfilment of psychological contract can be involved in the perception of employee appraisals and appraisal system. Overall, it is quite probable that benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics may lead to the acceptance of the appraisal system.

According to Du Plessis & Van Niekerk (2017), some raters can hold negative attitudes about performance appraisals due to its problematic nature, since performance appraisals can be affected by political and social contextual elements. Nonetheless, it is said that the appraisal system should exist to examine whether the current appraisal system is relevant to a long-term plan of performance management and can reflect an analysis of policy in the public sector (Oh 2011; Choi 2018). However, at the same time, it can be perceived that the

appraisal system can be hailed as a function of a control by superiors, when contemplating the viewpoint of rank-and-file employees (Migiro & Taderera 2011). Zhen-qi & Guang-jin (2021) stated that some raters or superiors are willing to emphasise upon the positive aspects of perceived appraisal politics for management, compared to rank-and-file employees. Overall, it is likely that benefits for raters of the appraisal politics may affect the acceptance of the appraisal system.

Referentially, it is worth noting that the job grade of rank-and-file employees can deem benefits for raters of the appraisal politics as more pessimistic, which may lower the acceptance of the appraisal system. The lower the job grades, the more difficult the understanding of superior's viewpoint. This is because the job grades of a general employee and an assistant manager would only be deemed as ratees. In contrast, the job grade of line managers or higher can serve as not merely raters but also ratees (Kim 2019a).

Figure 4: The Full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics



Source: the Author (2022)

1.4 The Significance of research

Firstly, this research helps to develop insights for HR practitioners to grasp the under-researched area in South Korea, pertaining to the determinants of perceived appraisal politics. It is quite obvious that the perceptions can never be completely excluded as each individual has positive or negative perceptions about appraisals and the politics that are invariably linked with it (Butcher & Clarke 2002; Treadway et al., 2014). However, this study at least insists that the perception of appraisal politics can be minimised, through the investigations of diverse elements in organisations, which can be discerned by either raters or line managers (Chouhan & Verma 2014; Saleem 2015; Opoku & Arthur 2018).

Concerning the context of South Korea, owing to MZ generation who has differences in attitudes and behaviour at work, more attention of factors affecting perceived appraisal politics can be demanded. Ko et al. (2021) illustrated that perceived unfairness in employee appraisals and hierarchical cultures at work can significantly lower job satisfaction especially among MZ generation in South Korea. Additionally, Park et al. (2021) showed that individuals in MZ generation can be more concerned about social fairness. For reference, MZ generation consists of millennial generation and generation Z. Millennial generation refers to the Y generation born between 1980s and the mid-1990s. Generation Z refers to the generation born after the mid-1990s. According to Kwon & Nam (2021), compared to collectivism, individualism will newly prevail in the work place in South Korea due to MZ generation. MZ generation wouldn't be devoted to an organisation. Thus, if the unfairness of employee appraisals can be perceived, it would be harder to maintain a talent in the public sector in South Korea.

Secondly, by contemplating the issue of employee silence, HR practitioners can see the relation between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics from a fresh viewpoint. According to Lee (2017a), due to the paternalistic leadership in South Korea, employee silence can be easily spread in the work place. As a result, it is quite critical to contemplate the role of employee silence for diverse management practices. On the other hand, Cho & Yoo (2014) viewed employee silence as the opportunistic inclination by highlighting opportunistic silence; it is likely that opportunistic silence can easily trigger the perceived political behaviour in the work place. Besides, it is quite probable that employee silence can change the nature of the relation between a predictor and an outcome in highly political organisational environments.

Thirdly, by highlighting the psychological contract theory, the relation between benefits for rates and the acceptance of the appraisal system is addressed. Van den Heuvel et al. (2016) illustrated that many scholars have paid attention to the negative results concerning psychological contract breach. On the other hand, it is also vital to discover the positive or

functional results relevant to the fulfilments of the psychological contract. Besides, as a means of control, the relation between benefits for raters and the acceptance of the appraisal system is firstly contemplated. If a causal relationship can be found, it would be possible to look at the effect of perceived appraisal politics in a new way. In reality, Ahmad & Bujang (2013, p. 5) noted that rather than being rational, it is commonly perceived that 'managers giving appraisals may have other motives and purposes that may supersede a concern for accuracy. Many managers deliberately distort and manipulate appraisals for political purposes'. Accordingly, it is likely that benefits for raters or ratees can lead to win-win situation in performance appraisals (Deluga 1998). Thus, it is vital to grasp the effect of perceived appraisal politics in organisations.

On the other hand, if the acceptance of the appraisal system is down to the effect of perceived appraisal politics, the reform of appraisal system can be raised in the public sector in South Korea (Chang et al., 2017; Oh & Shim 2019). Also noteworthy is that if the impact of perceived appraisal politics can lower the acceptance of the appraisal system, it is crucial to decrease the perception of appraisal politics. Otherwise, consequentially, individuals may be less emotionally attached to their organisation (De Clercq et al., 2022).

1.5 The Context of South Korea

According to Lee (2018a), the basis of NPM in South Korea has brought about some side effects, such as a hindrance to the establishment of an ethical government. To seek the establishment of an ethical government, along with the perspectives of public governance, political accountability and international coalition, strong leadership should be well discussed. Likewise, Yoon (1999) pointed out that the reform of NPM in South Korea can lower the output of public value, due to the managerialism approach. This is because NPM basically underlines reducing government expenditure under the name of effectiveness. Besides, from among public employees, to acquire limited rewards, the competitive culture and low morale at work can frequently arise. According to Liddle (2018), owing to the

limitations of NPM and the changing role of government, New Public Governance (NPG) and Public Value Management (PVM) attracted public attention in the UK. Likewise, in South Korea, as the post-NPM, NPG and New Public Service (NPS) have been mainly addressed. NPG refers to managerial attention towards collaborative or network governance (Howlett et al., 2017). Referentially, Livingstone (2022) emphasised upon the importance of collaborative innovations in the public sector, derived from NPG. NPS concerns the key role of public servant for helping citizens (Denhardt & Denhardt 2000). The approaches of NPG and NPS can reflect the external management assessment (organisational unit), which is linked to performance management and employee appraisals (internal affiliated organisation, team and individual units) in the public institution in South Korea (Woo 2021). Overall, the indicators of public performance in South Korea can be changed, depending on a type of a public management paradigm.

When it comes to Korean organisations, most organisations are traditionally characterised by authoritarianism and conformism, owing to the influence upon South Korea by the Confucian culture (Han 2008; Hong 2018). Especially, in the case of the public sector, either authoritarianism or conservativeness are predominant, containing centralisation, hierarchy, group harmony and submission to higher authority (Kim 2012). This is because the older generations still believe that such cultures in public organisations can invigorate the economy, also shedding light on the development of public projects (Im 2019). Besides, Lee & Lee (2016) revealed that compared to the private organisations in South Korea, the ratio of the co-operative work and communication by individuals is lower in the public organisations. Therefore, from the plan of government 3.0, the government of South Korea has strived to transform the authoritarian culture into the innovative culture; a contact-free work method was newly proposed for the public institution (Seo 2021). According to Kang & Park (2019), proactive administration in the public organisations has become the centre of attention in South Korea. However, owing to the spread of authoritarianism affecting employee silence, passive administration in the public organisations has occurred. For reference, proactive administration concerns the increase of public value embedded in civil

servants. Furthermore, Kang & Ko (2014) stated that from the starting point of hierarchical culture, employee silence with personal motives and political behaviour can arise. For instance, the Korean administrative culture leads to defensive silence the most and underpins the determinants of political behaviour. Interestingly, the hierarchical culture based upon authoritarianism and conformism can be attributed to the military culture in South Korea, as the military service is mandatory for all men who are the majority in the public sector (Yoon 2008; Min & Kim 2012). According to Jung (2018), hierarchical culture inherent in authoritarianism has traditionally been strong within the public sector in South Korea. Park & Kim (2015, p. 360) stated that 'the hierarchical culture of the Korean public sector means that the compatibility between people and organisations is a challenge without continuing investment in training and organisational re-design'. Hence, for the successful system of performance appraisals within the hierarchical culture of the public sector, it is said that leaders should play a central role in the work place (Kang 2008). Recently, Park & Lee (2021) illustrated that from the viewpoint of public administration, the features of organisational cultures, such as centralisation, hierarchy and group harmony can be understood as the political culture of public organisations in South Korea. The standpoint of public administration here is relevant to the political theory and the study of bureaucracy (Dwight & Hugh 2017). Also noteworthy is that rather than clearly deducing or evaluating public performance, public officials are encouraged to be integrated into the political culture of public organisations in South Korea. This can underpin the perception of appraisal politics in public organisations. For reference, some public officials in South Korea have long-held negative attitudes of the appraisal system, owing to a large sense of responsibility and the political culture of the Korean public sector (Hwang 2017). Especially, from among the high-ranking public officials in South Korea, it is said that 'culture has changed from a concession culture to a competitive culture', owing to the pressure of accountability and the limited rewards derived from political appraisal system (Park & Lunt 2018, p. 292). Theoretically, such a phenomenon may be perceived between the shift of cultures from clan to market. Clan culture concerns human relations. Market culture refers to the result-oriented culture at work (Quinn & Kimberly 1984). On the other hand, Park et al. (2019)

pointed out that civil servants in South Korea perceived a weak link between individual performance evaluation and performance reward systems. When employees can perceive that performance appraisals are operated for just dispensing performance-based bonus, the negative awareness of appraisal system can be frequently reported (Chung et al., 2016; Oh & Won 2017; Lee 2019a). Besides, individuals are pessimistic about the factors which can trigger the inaccuracy in performance ratings, especially when the unfairness in the appraisal system can be perceived (Choi et al., 2015; Lee & Kim 2019). Nonetheless, a performance-based personnel system is widely used and accepted. This is because of the acceptance of evaluation results, indicators and organisational learning (Min & Park 2019).

According to Do et al. (2018b), the effectiveness of performance-based personnel system in the private sector is excessively weighted in designing the performance-based personnel system in the public sector. Besides, performance appraisals are conducted once a year, looking back on an employee's performance. This is problematic. Resultingly, Moon (2019) posed a similar question about whether or not performance appraisals are hailed as a bureaucratic exercise, rather than supporting individuals for achieving their goals in the work place. Choi (2019a) clarified that when contemplating supervisor perspectives, performance appraisals can be exploited by some interest groups to strengthen justification in political behaviour. Ultimately, the powerful stakeholders can underscore their status by using the appraisal system as a means of control. Also noteworthy is that the current appraisal system based on not just the pay for performance but also a seniority rule can arouse the negative awareness of performance appraisals (Choi et al., 2005; Kim 2019). Park & Choi (2019) argued that in the case of central government officials in South Korea, a seniority rule should be removed to improve the quality of the appraisal system. Similarly, Park & Lee (2018) pointed out that the seniority governed hierarchical culture in South Korea can easily bring about inaccuracy in performance ratings. As a result, interests in fairness perceptions of appraisal system are growing. For instance, the developments of internal management competency have been addressed (Kim 2014; Kang & Kang 2018; Choi & Kang 2020).

According to Ahn & Cho (2018), under the political culture of public organisations, public managers have less managerial discretion than managers within the private sector in South Korea; the public sector entails more restrictions concerning budget resources and legal provision. Thus, performance appraisals can be perceived as a well-fitting tool for the benefit of raters as well as the benefit of ratees. Job autonomy, reinforced rules, regulations and others can all come under the political culture of organisations (Lacatus 2013). In the South Korean context, benefits for raters are associated with punishment motives towards employees. Benefits for ratees are similar to motivational motives towards employees. When speaking of the commonly defined idea of perceived appraisal politics, ratings of performance appraisals can be manipulated by appraisers for both motivational and punishment motives towards their junior employees to attain individual goals (Ahmad et al., 2010). Referentially, Arshad et al. (2013) point out that the political perspectives emphasising upon intentional political ratings can accompany a rater bias, such as either favouritism or individual preference. This is well scrutinised in chapter five.

To sum up, when synthesizing the Korean administrative culture, the political culture from the angle of public administration can be presented. The political culture in public organisations affects employee silence and underpins the determinants of political behaviour. The approaches of NPG and NPS can reflect performance management and the appraisal system in South Korea.

1.6 The Structure of this thesis

Chapter one is the introduction of this thesis. Chapter two presents the literature on the general concept of organisational politics. The perception of organisational politics in the work place is deemed as the theoretical foundation this study is built upon. The job environmental dimension is emphasised as the determinant of perceived appraisal politics.

Chapter three refers to the organisational politics in performance appraisals, reviewing the literature on organisational politics more specifically in performance appraisals. The rater dimension is highlighted as the determinant of perceived appraisal politics.

Chapter four elucidates employee silence, deemed as the moderating effect between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics for this study.

Chapter five is titled the effect of perceived appraisal politics, consisting of the perception of performance appraisal politics, the acceptance of the appraisal system, the psychological contract theory and gaps in the literature.

Chapter six presents the research context. The current performance appraisal system in the public sector in South Korea is explained in detail.

Chapter seven is titled conceptual framework and methodology. The conceptual framework covering the research model, research hypothesis and research questions will be described. Besides, research methodology, research design, research method, piloting a research survey, data collection and measurement variables are illustrated. The summary of chapter seven is also explicated. In the section of data collection, survey procedure, survey design, translating the questionnaires, research ethics and the data construction for analysis are furnished.

Chapter eight refers to results and findings. Testing a set of hypotheses is highlighted within this chapter. This chapter encompasses various sorts of statistical sections for this thesis.

Chapter nine is entitled discussion. By addressing three different research questions, results and findings are discussed in a concrete way.

Finally, chapter ten is entitled conclusion, emphasising on main conclusions, 'contributions and implications', the limitations of this thesis and the direction of future study.

Chapter 2 Organisational politics

This chapter aims to clarify the general idea of organisational politics at work, which conceptually underpins performance appraisal politics. Firstly, the diverse notions of politics within organisations are elucidated. Secondly, the characteristics of organisational politics in the public sector are illustrated. Following this, the model of organisational politics perceptions is presented to further understand the conceptualisation of organisational politics perceptions within the work place. Subsequently, the job environmental dimension is addressed as the determinant of appraisal politics. Lastly, a chapter summary is set out.

2.1 The Notions of politics within organisations

It has been regarded that organisations are open fields where networking, negotiations, entering into alliances, power relations and political actions can exist in practice (Blickle et al., 2018). This can help to decide who gets rewarded and what can be planned in what context (Ferris & King 1992; Fried et al., 1999). It could be said that organisations are political tools and stages fit for use by individuals familiar with political skills (Kacmar & Carlson 1998; Vigoda-Gadot 2007); it might be possible for employees to catch on to the surrounding agenda initiating various sorts of political behaviour (Ahearn et al., 2004; Shah & Surlenty 2021). This flow can also help employees comprehend how HR practices are initiated and formed out of a political environment within organisations (Ahmad-Mughal et al., 2017). It is believed that the perception of organisational politics can be deemed as an aversive factor and vice versa (Kapoutsis et al., 2012; Ferris et al., 2019). Rosen et al. (2014) referred to the paradigms of stressor and exchange relationship to explicate the negative impacts of perceived organisational politics. On the contrary, Byrne et al. (2017) illustrated that employees holding positive politics perceptions can perk up their engagement to obtain the perceived benefits of a positive political environment.

Based upon empirical research studies over the past few years, the term 'organisational politics' can be divided into two main concepts such as macro organisational politics and micro organisational politics; the macro level denotes organisations as coalitions and social networks. The micro level refers to personal political skills and political actions (Lepisto & Pratt 2012). Vredenburg & Maurer (1984) referred to a process framework of organisational politics, emphasising upon individual and group political activities. In addition, the politics within organisations can be classified into three sub-fields comprised of perceived organisational politics, political behaviour and political skills (Vigoda-Gadot & Kapun 2005). The perception of organisational politics has been reviewed as a subjective view of each employee towards political intentions (Hsiung et al., 2012; Chinelato et al., 2020). This is based upon the argument by Kurt Lewin (1936) indicating that human beings respond to their perceptions of reality rather than the reality itself. Depending on individual perceptions, dissensions among staff, supervisor's authority and influences in either formal or informal ways can be differently perceived (Chen et al., 2007; Clarke et al., 2019). Hochwarter et al. (2000) insisted that only among employees of average to low degrees of conscientiousness, perceived organisational politics are pessimistically related to job performance.

In theory, the perception of organisational politics refers to intentional actions towards self-interests, not considering the advantages of others from the employee's viewpoint (Harris et al., 2007; Lau et al., 2018). Besides, Drory & Romm (1988) indicated that many employees within organisations perceived organisational politics through informal behaviour, rather than either formal or illegal behaviour. On the other hand, political behaviour theoretically represents the crucial processes and behaviour which can influence others within organisations. Political behaviour can be determined by individual will and skill (Treadway et al., 2005). Vigoda & Cohen (2002, p. 311) stated that 'actual political behaviour, such as employee's influence tactics, is an important component that should be integrated in any conceptual framework of organisational politics'. Hence, political behaviour can be explained as a portent of social influences for the benefits of the organisations or as intended selfish behaviour against the organisational aims (Fashola et al., 2017). According

to Riley (1983), only if the criteria are met would it be deemed as organisational politics, political behaviour can be converted into the perception of organisational politics. Finally, political skills can be referred to as the knowledge to influence others, once comprehending others at work (Ferris et al., 2007; Wihler et al., 2016). Blickle et al. (2011, p. 449) stated that ‘political skill is a social effectiveness construct with a demonstrated capacity to predict job performance’.

Table 1: Summary of main points for politics within organisations

The Concept of politics within organisations		
The Perception of organisational politics	Political behaviour	Political skills
A Subjective view of each worker regarding the intentional behaviour towards self-interests	Both the process and behaviour which are likely to influence others, attributed to individual political skills	Social effectiveness construct with a demonstrated capacity to predict job performance

Original source: Riley (1983); Blickle et al. (2011)

2.2 Organisational politics within the public sector

The biggest difference between the public sector and the private sector refers to goal ambiguity (Rainey 1993). In contrast with the private sector which mainly pursues the pursuit of profit, public organisations are likely to have goal ambiguity. The more the public organisations that have goal ambiguity, the more the supervisors that can hold bureaucratic authoritarianism (Buchanan 1974). Recently, in addition to bureaucratic authoritarianism attributed to goal ambiguity, the perception of organisational politics was likewise underlined within the public sector in South Korea (Park & Kwak 2021).

Pfeffer (1992, p. 29) quoted that ‘people will readily admit that governments are organisations. To understand them, one needs to understand organisational politics’.

According to Alcoba & Phinaitrup (2020), the perception of organisational politics within the

public sector can be elucidated as the undeniable inequality of power between supervisors and employees. This may be owing to the low level of trust towards an organisation (Vigoda-Gadot & Talmud 2010). As a result, employees tend to take account of organisational politics as dually pessimistic and dark (Vigoda 2000a); especially, within the public sector, a pessimistic point of view with respect to organisational politics has been reported (Vigoda 2000b; Vigoda-Gadot & Meisler 2010; Asrar-ul-Haq et al., 2019). For instance, within the public sector in South Korea, the perception of organisational politics in performance appraisals can often be viewed as a threat towards individuals (Lee 2019b). On account of the negative effects of perceived organisational politics on work attitudes (Chung & Lee 2012), Park & Lee (2020) maintained that the Korean government should look for an effective way to minimise the perception of organisational politics immediately. According to Miller et al. (2008), the interpersonal relation on the basis of perceived organisational politics can differ, depending on either the public sector or the private sector. It has been discovered that perceptions of organisational politics in the public sector would be higher than perceived organisational politics within the private sector (Bodla & Danish 2009; Rahman et al., 2011). This is because Cheong & Kim (2018) stated that as public employees are inclined to be passive and seek avoidance of danger, both managers and employees tend to make the best possible use of political tactics. As a result, internal politics negatively influence the strategy creative behaviour within organisations. Enyinna & Ndugbu (2014) demonstrated that within the public sector, an individual's productivity in line with an organisational policy is more likely to be influenced by perceived organisational politics. This can be owing to the complexity of performance measurement systems, although two antithetic versions of it are addressed, such as technical and political versions (Chang et al., 2009; Lewis 2015). According to Kerssens-van Drongelen & Fisscher (2003, p. 51), 'the implementation of the performance measurement system has not been as effective as expected'. This is due to the ethical dilemmas facing performance evaluators and the evaluatees. The role of morality can be addressed, regarding the ethical dilemmas facing raters and ratees. Therefore, Van Der Kolk & Kaufmann (2018) demonstrated that within the

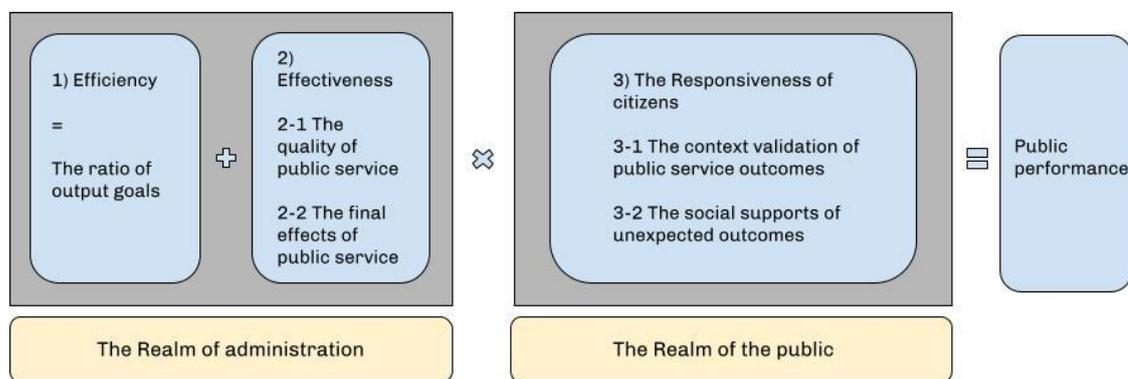
public sector, individuals often experienced cognitive dissonance in terms of performance measurements at the personal level.

When comparing the private sector and the public sector, organisations within the private sector have simpler methods of measuring productivity than that of the public sector. One example is that the various outputs produced by a private organisation are weighted toward only profits or sales, mainly emphasising on an economic-rational process (Carter 1991). In contrast, the notion of productivity within the public sector is weighted toward operational perspectives with political effects, simultaneously considering issues of public concern (Balk et al., 1989; Hedley 1998). The notion of productivity has been treated as a possible way how services or goods are produced in the most efficient manners (Mohamed et al., 2019). However, within the public sector, inputs such as money spent within the public sector don't immediately bring about outputs (Boyle 2006). Whereupon, especially within the public sector, individual ratings can be alternated, expanding the scope of organised unit ratings which is a long-held view (Bowman 1999). Vakkuri & Meklin (2006, p. 235) stated that 'the dynamic interaction between performance measurement systems and their use is neglected. This is especially complicated in the public and not-for-profit sector performance measurement, where the need for understanding measurement information is even more crucial than in the private sector'.

According to Lee (2018b), concerning the definition of public performance, the two realms comprised of 1) administration and 2) the public can exist. Respecting the realm of administration, both efficiency and effectiveness (for citizens) are highlighted; these should be manifoldly contemplated at the same time. Efficiency refers to the ratio of output goals. Effectiveness concerns the quality of public service and the expected effects of public service. However, in addition to the realm of the public, raters can find it difficult to evaluate not merely efficiency but also effectiveness at the same time. What's interesting here is that due to the significance of the public realm, the model of performance appraisals in the public sector should be distinct from the model of performance appraisals within the private sector. It is implied that owing to the difficulties of evaluating both the realms of

administration and public at the same time, the perception of organisational politics in performance appraisals can be raised in the public sector in South Korea. The definition of public performance is illustrated as below:

Figure 5: The Definition of public performance



Original source: Lee (2018b)

It appears that there are some grey areas respecting performance measurement systems in the public sector in South Korea, such as organisational and individual units. This may be because most notably, publicness should come to the forefront when comparing public organisations with private organisations (Bretschneider 1990). According to Bozeman & Bretschneider (1994, p. 197), 'publicness is defined as a characteristic of an organisation which reflects the extent the organisation is influenced by political authority'. This is based

upon the approach of normative publicness. However, although the aims of public performance can often be changed by political authority, the instruments such as ownership, funding and control can't be flexible (Meier & O'Toole Jr 2011). On account of the limitations of funding and control, it may be challenging to accurately assess public performance. Referentially, it is said that achieving public values in line with publicness can be dependent on how accurate organisations conduct their jobs towards the ideals of public interests (Choi et al., 2021). For future researchers, concerning the notion of public value, it is worth reading through a book called 'creating public value' by Moore (1995). Moore's viewpoint referred to a normative theory as well as managerial attention with the strategic triangle. Public value can result in various sorts of outcomes, such as legitimacy and trust for piling up blocks of public value (Meynhardt 2009). According to Vandenabeele et al. (2013), the creation of public value is down to institutional and cultural frameworks. The creation of public value can be correlated to the authorising environment including politicians and stakeholders. Also noteworthy is that compared to the private sector, the diverse stakeholders comprised of politicians and unions can be involved with the HR policy in public organisations (Knies et al., 2018).

2.3 The Model of organisational politics perceptions

Ferris et al. (1989), who developed the model of organisational politics perceptions, indicated that the political perceptions within organisations are determined by organisational, job/work environmental and personal factors (influences). Additionally, the elements of political perceptions are highlighted, such as supervisor, clique behaviour and policies or practices. The organisational factors incorporate centralisation, formalisation, hierarchical level and the span of control. The job/work environmental factors stand for situational characteristics, consisting of job autonomy, job variety, feedback, promotion opportunities and interactions with either colleagues or managers. The personnel factors cover age, gender and personality such as self-monitoring and Machiavellianism (Ferris et al.,

1996). These factors view organisational politics as a neutral attitude or as functional factors from time to time (Misra et al., 2013). The political distortions are likely to happen when the degree of formal rules and procedures (formalisation) is higher (O'connor & Morrison 2001). Regarding hierarchical level, more political distortions are perceived among higher ranking positions rather than among junior staffs. Organisations pursuing either power or control especially at the top of the organisations are more associated with organisational politics perceptions (Harrell-Cook et al., 1999). In general, on account of the level of ambiguity or uncertainty, employees are aware of organisational politics (Davis & Stazyk 2015; Lee 2015; Thornton et al., 2016).

To build on the model of organisational politics perceptions, Kacmar & Ferris (1991) conducted psychometric analyses on 31 and 40 item measures of organisational politics perceptions; exploratory factor analysis on the 31 item measures resulted in five dimensions. The five dimensions consists of general political behaviour, go along to get ahead, co-workers, either pay or promotion and managers. When measuring 40 items of organisational politics perceptions, except for the manager (satisfaction with supervision) and co-worker dimensions, the general political behaviour, go along to get ahead and either pay or promotion dimensions were mainly addressed (Fedor et al., 1998). Ferris & Kacmar (1992) worked on principal components analysis with regard to 31 items of organisational politics perceptions. 31 item measures of organisational politics perceptions can support three factors for the model of organisational politics perceptions. Andrews & Kacmar (2001, p. 347) conducted the discriminant validity of perceptions of organisational politics, organisational support, and procedural and distributive justice; results referred to 'five of the six antecedents distinguished among politics, justice and support', such as locus of control, formalisation and others.

Table 2: Summary of main points for the model of organisational politics perceptions

The Model of organisational politics perceptions		
The Organisational factors	The Job/work environmental factors	Personal factors
Centralisation,	Job autonomy, job variety,	Age, gender and

formalisation, hierarchical level and the span of control	feedback, promotion opportunities and interactions with either colleagues or supervisors	personality such as self-monitoring and Machiavellianism
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Original source: Ferris et al. (1989)

2.4 The Job environmental dimension as the determinant of appraisal politics

The job environmental influences from the perception of organisational politics are addressed for the job environmental dimension as the determinant of perceived appraisal politics for this study. According to Kacmar & Baron (1999), all HR decisions can hold the potential to be affected by political behaviour and agendas. Furthermore, the factors of the work environment can bring about the perception of political behaviour. For instance, a lack of workplace social support can trigger the perception of political behaviour. For reference, workplace social support includes coaching, career mentoring, team tasks and co-worker supports in a team (Harris et al., 2007). Dawley & Munyon (2012) maintained that compared to managers, non-managers can easily consider the factors of the work environment as the antecedents of perceived political behaviour. Hunnes et al. (2012) noted that depending on the uncertainty of work environments, perceptions of performance appraisals may be changed, in addition to the social context of performance appraisals stressing a relation between a rater and a ratee (Folami & Jacobs 2005).

First off, as a universal phenomenon in organisations, task interdependence in a team is presented. This can be understood as a proximal factor in the field of HRM (Lorenzet et al., 2003; Scott et al., 2003). Contrary to structural interdependence, task interdependence in a team refers to the extent to which each subordinate interacts with their colleagues to fulfil tasks in teams (Pearce & Gregersen 1991; Wageman 2014). When the boundary of personal duty is vague in a team, task interdependence can be perceived (Hollenbeck et al., 2004). In political working systems, the issue of either co-operation or conflict in teams can be an endemic issue (Batt 2004). Nevertheless, it is believed that teams as a mechanism can be

utilised to decrease perceived organisational politics (Kumar & Ghadially 1989; Halbesleben & Wheeler 2006). With regard to teams as a mechanism, through rising group identities among employees, employees are able to concentrate on each task more effectively (Staples & Webster 2008; Somech et al., 2008). This is because the actor-observer bias could be removed through identification with either groups or teams (Brown 1984). Besides, task related interactions in a team can help increasing individual productivities, establishing the cohesion among individuals (Dey & Ganesh 2020). Hershcovis et al. (2012) stated that task related interactions in teams are likely to prevent a single slip, during the conduct of work due to the complementary effects of each other. On the basis of social identity theory, self-serving behaviour is likely to be reduced when individuals are believed to belong to a team (Ashforth & Mael 1989; Han & Williams 2008). This is because either teams or groups which employees are affiliated with have been deemed a crucial factor of personal pride and self-esteem. On the other hand, Elangovan & Rajendran (2021, p. 215) posed the question of whether 'the existing appraisal processes take care of independencies in the performance'.

Kidwell & Bennett (1993) pointed out the opposite effect of what was intended pertaining to teams as a mechanism; this is because the repetitious work done by a team can deliberately occur, due to egoistic desires for both social loafing and free riding (Andrews & Kacmar 2001). According to Park (2014), task interdependence in either a team or a group is positively related to performance appraisal politics in South Korea. As a result, Park's findings substantiated that due to the difficulties of measuring the level of individual contribution at work, the intentional distortion of performance ratings can frequently occur. Additionally, Lee et al. (2015) discovered that task interdependence within a team can easily arouse the relational conflicts at work. Individuals can recognise that when task interdependence is higher, supervisors may contemplate external factors with regards to performance ratings (Brown & Mitchell 1986). Loberg et al. (2018) likewise implied that when task interdependence in a team is higher, raters find it difficult to evaluate each one's contribution. When contemplating peer performance ratings, Taggar & Haines (2006) insisted that depending on the personality of colleagues, the degree of personal contribution in a team can be differently judged. Overall, it is worth noticing that task

interdependence in a team is linked with the perception of political tactics in South Korea.

As long as employees hold a lower degree of job autonomy and task variety, a sense of powerlessness is likely to be conveyed to employees (Burn & Konrad 1987). A feeling of powerlessness is highly related to perceived organisational politics. Vigoda (2001) proposed that the scale of job autonomy can have a same reliability, regardless of cultural gaps. Hence, Park (2011) empirically demonstrated that the lower degree of job autonomy, as a problem in the work process, caused the conflicts with supervisors in South Korea. This can also result to increased awareness of organisational politics (Daskin & Tezer 2012; Bedi & Schat 2013). Within the public sector, Chen & Fang (2008) empirically discovered that low job autonomy is significantly related to job stress. Park (2018a) demonstrated that when job autonomy is higher, the fairness of performance appraisals can be perceived.

Job autonomy stands for the level of freedom, discretion and independence an individual owns within the work place. When the degree of discretion is higher, employees are guaranteed with setting their own working methods and time division, such as schedules and deadlines (Zhou 1998). Therefore, positive aspects such as internal motivation and proactive behaviour within organisations were empirically found by higher level of job autonomy (Orth & Volmer 2017). Higher degree of job autonomy can positively intensify a relation between individuals holding proactive personality and employee performance (Fuller Jr et al., 2010). On the contrary, pro-political behaviour and higher levels of conflict within organisations can be related to higher degree of job autonomy (Hochwarter et al., 2003; Whitaker & Dahling 2013). This is because the higher level of job autonomy can infringe organisational rules or alienate other employees, resulting into counter-productive work behaviour. As a result, as the top priority in organisations, many organisations prefer rule governed activities (Dobbin & Boychuk 1999). For reference, it is vital to identify whether or not low paying employees are more likely to perceive lower job autonomy, rather than others (Quinn & Shepard 1974). Overall, it is worth noticing that a lower level of job autonomy can be associated with perceived organisational politics.

With regards to task variety, employees with a lower degree of task variety are easily exposed to perceived organisational politics. However, this can be avoided by functions of job rotation (Thongpapanl et al., 2018). In South Korea, according to Kwon & Kim (2014), job rotation is deemed as a general practice at work, especially within the public sector. Job rotation can increase the various types of tasks required as the individuals can go through diverse duties, enhancing knowledge and skills as well as identification of individual strengths for organisational goals (Cole 1993; Campion et al., 1994). Nonetheless, Casad (2012, p. 27) illustrated that 'these benefits come at a price to the individual and the organisation in the form of increased work conflict, higher training costs and lower work unit morale'. Besides, frequent job rotation can negatively affect the development of job competency (Moon et al., 2018). When thinking of performance appraisals, through the use of job rotation, the performance appraisal system can be appreciated to measure the achievements of a new task (Hall 1984). However, Larsen (2019) implied that a rater will find it difficult to understand how to evaluate a new task with regard to each employee, owing to a lack of rating ability. To prevent the confusion of personal goal settings, an employee should also guarantee enough time to be evaluated (Kim et al., 2018a).

Within the public sector in South Korea, a new perspective has been suggested in which to think of job rotation, such as career development (Oh 2017; Ryu & Cho 2018). Drawn from employee learning theory, job rotation is linked with career development; such a phenomenon can lead to a learning-based organisation (Ortega 2001; Khan et al., 2019). However, Kaymaz (2010) proved that without the role of procedural fairness, job rotation for career development can be ineffectual. In practice, owing to the lack of criteria respecting the fairness of job rotation, HR practitioners can struggle to actualise the procedural fairness of job rotation (Jaturanonda et al., 2006). Yu & Zhang (2020) claimed that job rotation itself is utilised to fulfil procedural fairness within the context of management practice. However, the procedural impartiality respecting job rotation should be addressed to rack up both the right function of job rotation and personal development (Burke & Moore 2000; Atinc et al., 2010). In the public sector in South Korea, Jeon (2015) implied that that the perception of procedural fairness in job rotation is lower. This is

because there is a certain job position involved with core business and performance (Noh & Lee 2018). Both core business and performance are highly associated with promotion and pay for performance. Moreover, in any working environment, employees are likely to consider the perception of procedural fairness as a principle of justice (Lau & Scully 2015). This may be because of the prominent role within organisational structures (Schminke et al., 2000). On the other hand, when the procedural fairness of job rotation isn't perceived, it is expected that political processing can be perceived in the process of management affairs (Doherty & Wolak 2012). Recently, Bayo-Moriones et al. (2020) noted that the job rotation in different sections can lead to the subjective measurement by raters. Overall, it is worth noticing that the lower perception of procedural fairness in job rotation can be linked with the perception of political processing in the management practices.

Employees are more likely to perceive organisational politics, when interacting with others (Kacmar et al., 1999). Based upon social exchange theory, employees are able to exchange the precious values at work, such as either outcomes or interests, while establishing relations with their colleagues (Cropanzano & Mitchell 2005). By interacting with others at work, employees are more likely to be exposed to perceived organisational politics, owing to resource scarcity at work (Drory 1993; Yen et al., 2009; Yang et al., 2017). The non-existence of an information source can even trigger political behaviour in the work place (Valle et al., 2003). Depending on personal features, some employees may find it difficult to perceive political tactics by others (Mintzberg 1985; Witt et al., 2002; Brouer et al., 2006).

In theory, supervisors or co-workers behaving opportunistically toward employees can increase the perceptions of organisational politics (Kimura 2013). It is predictable that when employees can perceive the opportunistic behaviour from their supervisors or co-workers, both raters and ratees are likely to perceive the political behaviour within the context of performance appraisals as a pervasive factor (Landells & Albrecht 2016). Nowadays, as a further study, it is clarified that the leadership theories based upon the relationship approach likewise can increase perceived organisational politics (Ai-Hua et al., 2018;

Landells & Albrecht 2019). Overall, it is worth noticing that when interacting with others, individuals can easily perceive organisational politics in the work place.

To be more concrete, within the public sector in South Korea, the more perceived organisational politics occur, the more appraisal politics are perceived from both senior and junior employees. Ahn & Cho’s research in 2018 have proposed 1) the institutional factors, 2) organisational factors and 3) task characteristic factors hailed as the determinants of perceived appraisal politics. The result indicates that concerning the institutional factors, systemic performance management is negatively related to perceived appraisal politics. Pertaining to organisational factors, political behaviour and rater accountability are positively related to perceived appraisal politics. Finally, task characteristic factors including higher levels of job ambiguity and task interdependence are positively related to the perception of appraisal politics. These relations can ultimately help to grasp the structural model in terms of the determinants of perceived appraisal politics in the public sector in South Korea.

Table 3: The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics based upon perceived organisational politics in South Korea

The Job/work environmental dimension based upon perceived organisational politics in South Korea					
Year / Researcher	Theme	Research content	Implication	Relevance to the current research	Variable
2014 / Park	The Performance appraisal politics in team-based work systems	<p>The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics comprised of both job discretion and task interdependence within a team</p> <p>The Motivational purpose for performance appraisal politics had positively impacts on organisational commitment</p>	<p>When task interdependence in a team is higher, it is difficult for raters to monitor individual performance</p> <p>It is recommended that performance monitoring system can be divided into two, such as the group level and the personal level</p>	<p>The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics, such as task interdependence within a team</p> <p>Perceived appraisal politics including 1) the motivational intention and 2) the punishment intention along with favouritism</p>	<p>Task interdependence within a team from relations between work group characteristics and effectiveness (Campion, Medsker & Higgs 1993)</p>
2018 / Ahn & Cho	Antecedents and outcomes of politics in performance appraisal: personnel	<p>The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics are as below:</p> <p>1) Institutional dimension 2) Organisational dimension</p>	The Institutional dimension including systematical guidelines contains formal and informal appraisal rules	The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics such as systematical guidelines and rater accountability	Items for systematical institution from performance management in the public sector in Korea (Lee 2013)

	performance appraisal in Seoul metropolitan government	3) Job characteristics dimension	The Institutional dimension can decrease the perception of appraisal politics Regardless of the process of performance appraisals, task characteristic factors can lead to the perception of appraisal politics	The Perception of performance appraisal politics can be split into two as below: 1) Benefits for appraiser 2) Benefits for appraisee	Items of perceived appraisal politics from (Tziner et al., 1996)
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2.5 A Chapter Summary

According to Cacciattolo (2015, p. 121), 'there are two ways of viewing organisational politics: either as a symptom of social influence processes that benefit the organisation, or a self-serving effect that goes against the organisational goals'. The perception of organisational politics denotes the intentional behaviour towards self-interests at any level within organisations, stressing a subjective view of each employee. Furthermore, it can be found that the model of perceived organisational politics refers to the organisational, job environmental and personal dimensions. However, depending on the level of personal characteristics, individuals can differ in opinion, as to the perception of organisational politics.

According to Munyon et al. (2021), the perception of organisational politics can lower the affirmative relation between authentic leadership and job satisfaction, by demotivating individuals to accomplish their goals. Similarly, public officials in South Korea can regard the perception of appraisal politics as pessimistic. The perception of organisational politics in performance appraisals can often be viewed as a threat towards individuals. Likewise, it is worth noting that the perception of organisational politics in the public sector would be higher than perceived organisational politics within the private sector. This is due to danger avoidance, and an individual's productivity affected by the perception of organisational politics. Because of the complexity of performance measurement systems, perceived organisational politics can affect an individual's productivity. Additionally, due to the

difficulties of assessing both the realms of administration and public, it can be assumed that perceived appraisal politics can be raised. Most importantly, a recent study within the public sector in South Korea viewed the higher degree of job ambiguity and task interdependence within a team as the determinants of perceived appraisal politics.

Chapter 3 The Organisational politics in performance appraisals

This chapter aims to clarify the determinants of perceived appraisal politics by ratees and raters, which is drawn from the literature respecting the political considerations in performance appraisals. Firstly, the context of performance appraisals is illustrated in this chapter, such as the political context in employee appraisals in organisations. Secondly, the political motives by raters are addressed to understand the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings. Thirdly, the determinants of perceived appraisal politics by raters are explored. The rater considered both policies of performance appraisals and features of the raters in the process of employee appraisals as the key determinants of perceived appraisal politics. Fourthly, the determinants of perceived appraisal politics by ratees are presented. The ratee considered performance appraisal injustice as the key determinant of perceived appraisal politics. Lastly, a chapter summary is set out.

3.1 The Context in performance appraisals

According to Johns (2006, p. 386), 'context is defined as situational opportunities and constraints that affect the occurrence and meaning of organisational behaviour as well as functional relationships between variables'. As a result, the context in OB studies has been regarded as crucial, as the term 'context' helps to interpret frame phenomena, which in turn, influences our decisions or behaviour.

According to Vredenburgh & Shea-VanFossen (2010), due to psychological attributes of human beings derived from evolutionary natural selection, political behaviour can naturally occur within organisations especially in HR practices. Despite the importance of psychological attributes, the political considerations in performance appraisals had been neglected until the late 2000s. Latham & Russo (2008) claimed that owing to much focus on the social context of performance appraisals in the past, the political context of

performance appraisals stressing the informal procedures for political purposes was less studied. Hence, the social context of performance appraisals was mainly discussed in the past to grasp the procedure of the appraisal system (Wiese & Buckley 1998). Until the late 2000s, some models of performance appraisals emphasised upon the social context of performance ratings. Thus, chronic leniency attributed to supervisor behaviour in an appraisal process was deemed as a crucial factor concerning distortions in the rating system (Ahn & Hyun 2014).

Theoretically, performance appraisals can be classified into five contexts comprised of social, emotional, cognitive, relation and political contexts respectively (Ferris et al., 2008).

Respecting the social context of performance appraisals, known as a social-psychological process, in addition to the appraisals from the organisational side and the games which supervisors and employees play, the quality of relations between raters and subordinates is deemed as the most crucial factor towards appraisal reactions (Pichler 2012). According to Levy & Williams (2004), the social context of a performance appraisal is comprised of distal, process proximal and structural proximal variables. The social context can take an initiating role in the effectiveness of the appraisal process and how the appraisal process can be elucidated towards an individual reaction. The relation context mainly refers to the work relationships which can impact upon the procedures of performance appraisals (Kiewitz et al., 2009). Pertaining to the cognitive context of performance appraisals, the process of cognitive information by a rater is addressed, such as information categorisation, initial expectations, personality traits, behavioural tendencies and others (Andersen & Hjortskov 2016). In respect to the emotional context of performance appraisals, positive emotions at work can be a principal factor. This is because employees who give off positive emotions can lead to more opportunities for rewards. Concerning the political context of performance appraisals, Wayne et al. (1997) investigated employee influence tactics leading to performance appraisals, promotability ratings and salary through the mediating conditions of rater perspectives, consisting of interpersonal skills, affect/liking and similarity. Except for affect/liking, the factors from the rater's perspectives played a key role as mediating effects. Shore & Strauss (2008) referred to the relation between the impacts of leniency goals on

higher performance ratings. Likewise, according to Prowse & Prowse (2009, p. 73), in the political context of performance appraisals, 'appraisal ratings become political judgements'. It is worth noticing that some raters are eager to actualise the accuracy in rating performance as one of the core motivational components (Christopher et al., 2016). However, on account of the relative costs and profits derived from perceived organisational politics, both raters and ratees can rashly disturb a desire to materialise the accuracy in performance appraisals (Soomro & Hafeez 2020; Speer et al., 2020). Hence, Kacmar et al. (2013) intimated the significance of organisational politics in performance appraisals, by proving the role of perceived organisational politics in the inflation of employee ratings. On the other hand, each organisation unintentionally runs the gamut of diverse political practices controlled by human beings (Gentry et al., 2012). Therefore, it would be unwise for individuals to trust that appraisers can dispose of the rating process objectively as well as fair mindedly (Townley 1999; Andrews et al., 2009; Gu & Nolan 2017). Overall, the political context in performance appraisals can help taking note of the informal procedures for political purposes concerning employee appraisals. In the following section, the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings attributed to the political motives by raters will be addressed.

3.2 The Deliberate manipulations of performance ratings

The word manipulation sounds dually negative and sceptical, but expecting what appraisers intend in view of others is unpredictable (Javed et al., 2013; Chaudhry et al., 2016). Contrary to non-deliberate distortion and cognitive biases, the perception of appraisal politics can be understood as a deliberate manipulation of performance rating to create benefits, in accordance with the perception of organisational politics (Dipboye 2018). This would be due to the political factors that provoke the supervisor's self-serving behaviour in nature (Lewellen et al., 1996). On the other hand, when referring to Dhiman's latest study in 2020,

perceived appraiser politics can also be conceptualised as deliberate political actions which treat employees differently grounded upon non-performance considerations.

As highlighted earlier, when referring to Park's study in 2014a, pertaining to the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings, various sorts of motives by raters can be presented, such as 1) the impact of the political motives by raters, 2) the effect of impression management on performance ratings, 3) rater's goal directed perspectives, 4) the lack of rater accountability and 5) non-performance information. From among these, the author underlined the fact that the political considerations can always exist within the process of employee appraisals; these considerations can affect the political motives by raters, when referring to Silva's research in 2018. As emphasised earlier, the political motives by raters can lead to the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings. However, except for the rater directly involved, others can't correctly identify the political motives by raters. Thus, the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings attributed to the political motives by raters can be understood as the phenomenon of appraisal politics, emphasising upon individual perceptions. Additionally, it is quite probable that individuals can perceive the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings attributed to the political motives by raters, although a rater can deliberately manipulate performance ratings owing to impression management. Zivnuska et al.'s study in 2004 contended that impression management couldn't have any impacts upon performance ratings, when perceptions of organisational politics were already predominant within organisations. Thus, it can be implied that a rater no longer manipulates performance ratings in the political environment, due to impression management. Besides, when reviewing Dhiman's study in 2020, it appears that the effects of the rater's goal directed perspectives and non-performance information can be covered within the political context of rater motives in performance appraisals. Referentially, the lack of rater accountability can be hailed as a determinant of perceived appraisal politics. Therefore, it is likely that individuals at work can easily perceive the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings attributed to the political motives by raters.

As a guide, when it comes to the diverse motives by raters, Harris (1994) discovered variables affecting motivational factors for appraisers and motivational factors for appraisers. For reference, the motivational factors for raters consist of rewards, negative consequences and impression management. The variables affecting motivational factors for raters denote both situational and personal; for instance, the situational factors emphasise on the HRM strategy. This intends that organisational policy can impact upon the motivational factors for raters. On the other hand, pertaining to impression management, the rater personality or an individual identity grounded upon the socioanalytic theory of personality can be hailed as factors affecting the motivational factor for raters (Marmet 2015). Concerning rater's goal-directed perspectives, a rater personality can be deemed as a factor affecting the motivational factor for raters (Jenkins 2015).

When it comes to the impact of impression management on ratings, influencing another person's perception is underlined. Society psychological factors from angles of supervisors have existed; it has been based upon the premise that raters tend to be concerned about their images to care about their reputation (Murphy & Cleveland 1991). Because of the psychological factor that wishes to leave a good impression to others, the psychological factor is associated with motivational factors for appraisers. In addition, there is an argument that every single person is on the stage developed by sociologist, Erving Goffman (Solomon et al., 2013). Goffman (1959) found that in this sociological study, people act differently from their professional selves known as front stage behaviour in contrast to their private selves known as back stage behavior. Hence, social actions are nothing more than performance as people strategically give off a specific desired impression to another individual (Manning 2008).

In terms of the relation between accountability and appraisals, According to Tetlock (1985a), the beginning of motivational factors for supervisors could be connected with rater accountability in terms of the accuracy in performance appraisal. Mero & Motowidlo (1995) alluded to the lack of rater accountability as a potential explanation for why performance

appraisal rating is characterised by political turbulence. Taking things further, Tuzun & Kalemci (2018) deduced that when line managers have a higher authority without accountability pertaining to decision-making, the rating distortion can arise. Curtis et al. (2005) viewed contextual factors such as rater accountability and appraisal purposes as the key determinants in the context of performance appraisals; these factors were designed by the contextual or situational factors for perceived organisational politics. As a guide, Harari & Rudolph (2017) suggested that rater accountability can appear, when other supervisors hold raters responsible for their rating process in a relative sense.

Table 4: Summary of main points for the diverse motives by raters

The Rater's motives for the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings				
The Political motives by raters	Impression management	Rater's goal directed perspectives	The Lack of rater accountability	Non-performance information
The Political motives by raters can lead to the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings	Wishing to leave a good impression to others can be one of the rater motives	When a rater motive is goal directed, performance ratings can be inflated	The Lack of rater accountability can lead to the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings	The Deliberate manipulations of performance ratings can be down to non-performance information

Original source: Park (2014a)

Overall, the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings attributed to the political motives by raters can be highlighted rather than other motives, when focusing on individual perceptions. In the following section, the determinants of perceived appraisal politics by raters will be presented. For reference, Dhiman & Singh (2007a) insisted that depending on the rater's and the ratee's perspectives, the perceptions of appraisal politics can be differently conceptualised. For instance, perceived appraisal politics for the rater's perception can be referred to as the rater's perception regarding the political decision of performance ratings to pursue self-interests at the cost of the ratee's appraisal interests. Accordingly, it is argued that the determinants of perceived appraisal politics by raters can be distinct from the determinants of perceived appraisal politics by ratees. Nevertheless, it

is worth noting that some determinants of perceived appraisal politics such as ambiguity and rater accountability can be likewise classified as a part of the organisational dimension. It appears that employees can also regard the determinants of perceived appraisal politics by raters as crucial, when referring to Ahn & Cho's study in 2018.

3.2.1 The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics by raters

To the best of the writer's knowledge, Bernardin & Villanova (1986) firstly revealed that rather than cognitive biases and inadvertent distortion by raters, the rater's perception of organisational politics by highlighting deliberate distortion is more related to the inaccuracy in performance ratings. Nevertheless, Van Thiel & Leeuw (2002) insisted that owing to specific features of the public sector such as ambiguous policy objectives or discretionary authority, rating inaccuracy can frequently occur either deliberately or non-deliberately.

Concerning the inaccuracy in performance ratings, the rater's inability attributed to the absence of training or organisational supports was deemed as inadvertent distortion by raters (Lee 1985). For reference, according to Woehr & Huffcutt (1994), appraisal training contains four training strategies including rater error training, performance dimension training, frame-of-reference training and behavioural observation training. For instance, frame-of-reference training is an intervention which increases the degree of accuracy in performance ratings such as overall trait judgments within the appraisal context (Roch et al., 2012). Wilson (2010) insisted that appraisal training can be more effective in eliminating cognitive biases. Regardless of the rater's inability, the lack of training can influence the political considerations in performance appraisals as well as cognitive biases (Fink & Longenecker 1998). Dhiman & Singh (2007b) illustrated that the absence of appraisal training can increase the rater's perception of appraisal politics. Besides, most importantly, ambiguity about appraisal policies as one of the situational antecedents of perceived appraisal politics is addressed. This contains elements for purpose, criteria, appraisal standards, performance results and procedures concerning feedback or goal-settings. In

practice, it appears that appraisal policies mainly cover evaluation criteria, procedures and purposes (Chen & Kuo 2004). Nikpeyma et al. (2014) likewise found that appraisal policies which typify ambiguous appraisal forms or unclear items can influence appraisal ratings. Referentially, Nutt (2006) indicated that public organisations have more goals than private organisations, which can lead to ambiguity in organisations. Ambiguity within organisations has been classed as a key determinant of perceived political behaviour by supervisors (Madison et al., 1980). Additionally, it can be associated with the individual perception concerning politics in HR decisions, especially for employee appraisals (Ferris & King 1991). Othman (2008) illustrated that as long as the ambiguity in work environments can be perceived, formal rules and procedures can be neglected by individuals (Fandt & Ferris 1990; Zahid et al., 2019). This is in line with the unsanctioned dimension of political behaviour (Farrell & Petersen 1982). On the other hand, Chesley & Wylson (2016) found that the ambiguity within work environments often occurs in an organisation seeking transformational change. To take it further, in OB studies, Ferris et al. (1995) claimed that situational norms can amplify perceptions of organisational politics, such as ambiguity about policies or procedures. Regardless of the quality of appraisal standards, Nemeth & Staw (1989) maintained that when individuals go up the hierarchy, ambiguity in appraisals can be easily perceived. To sum up, it is indicated that the context of ambiguity can be deemed as sufficiently important, when grasping the perception of appraisal politics. Accordingly, ambiguity of appraisal policies is addressed, from among elements representing the context of ambiguity.

When raters are given more discretion regarding process, it is believed that raters are willing to manipulate performance ratings for one's own benefit or for the benefit of their organisation. In contrast, raters can utilise discretion to provide subordinates with informal feedback but not the deliberate manipulation of performance ratings (Mani 2002). In theory, supervisor discretion can be defined as the acceptable range of rater actions to pursue organisational goals (Hambrick & Finkelstein 1987). Keulemans & Groeneveld (2020) demonstrated that supervisor discretion in the public sector can be similarly viewed as

supervisor autonomy for making decisions. When supervisors have a higher level of discretion, empowerment experiences can be given to employees (Sun et al., 2014). On the other hand, Wynen & Verhoest (2015) found that supervisor autonomy can influence the strength of a customer-oriented culture within the public sector. Referentially, Wangrow et al. (2015) denote the antecedents of supervisor discretion such as task environment, internal organisation and managerial characteristics dimensions. Subjective performance evaluation may correspond to supervisor discretion. In addition to this, performance appraisals could be attributed to the results of rater's discretion within the context of perceived appraisal politics. According to Bol & Smith (2011), raters can utilise discretion to evaluate individual performance, adjusting the ratees' perceptions concerning deficiencies of performance appraisals. Bol (2011) implied that in addition to manager's appraisal biases, such as raters' tendency for centrality and leniency, perceived appraisal politics may be down to supervisor discretion. Although there have been rules on performance ratings, the lower degree of rule-driven appraisal is associated with a higher degree of rater's discretion. Depending upon levels of supervisor discretion, perceived fairness contestation between employees can be mitigated (Bol et al., 2010). On the contrary, it is probable that higher supervisor discretion can amplify perceived appraisal politics. Taking things further, De Castro (2017) illustrated that subjective performance evaluation can be split into two elements, such as supervisor-driven and rule-driven subjective evaluations. Concerning supervisor-driven subjective evaluation, a behavioural factor is addressed. On the other hand, rule-driven subjective evaluation represents the management control systems. De Castro's study underlines subjective performance evaluation which can contain the rater's incentive purposes towards either employees or employees' perceptions. Furthermore, supervisor idiosyncrasies, such as the rater experience especially for employee appraisals could lead to not just the deliberate manipulations but also conscious biases of performance ratings (Fried et al., 1992). To sum up, when the supervisor discretion is high, it is likely that rating distortions such as cognitive errors or political purposes for employee incentives can be generated. The political purpose for employee incentives would be hailed as perceived appraisal politics by individuals. Crossland & Hambrick (2011) noted that compared to

Western countries, South Korea, however, has a lower level of supervisor discretion. For reference, discretion consists of individualism, uncertainty to tolerance and power distance.

Based upon the premise that general database doesn't exist to keep track of how performance appraisals are executed, rater accountability has been shown to actualise the accuracy in performance ratings (Bernardin et al., 2016; Hall et al., 2017). For instance, Shahzad (2018) showed that accountability of supervisors can fortify both perceived justice and the effectiveness of performance management procedure. On the contrary, a lower sense of rater accountability can provoke the self-serving behaviour, when utilising a tool in organisations (Rus et al., 2012; Park 2018b). Simonson & Nye (1992) interestingly found that accountability effects in decision making can be attributed to the desire to avoid criticism by others. As one of the contextual factors in appraisal politics, the issue of rater accountability refers to a feeling of oppression, justifying performance outcomes in the eyes of others within an organisation. However, when looking deeper in the management context, the notion of rater accountability can be split into two types comprised of 1) procedural accountability and 2) outcome accountability (Klimoski & Inks 1990; Zhang & Mittal 2005). According to Siegel-Jacobs & Yates (1996, p. 2), procedural accountability refers to 'evaluation is based solely on the quality of the procedure that a judge or decision maker uses in arriving at a response'; outcome accountability concerns 'the quality of the outcomes of a response'. On the subject of procedural accountability, Lavigne (2018) stated that the rater's low level of procedural accountability can correspond to the political affordances in structural features. According to Dhiman & Singh (2005), compared to outcome accountability, procedural accountability can make individuals more attentive to useful information, following the format of structures. However, in an opposite way, the low answerability in an organisational process (low procedural accountability) by raters could trigger the perceived manipulations in performance ratings. Under procedural accountability, either judgements or decisions are monitored in accordance with the quality of decision procedure. As a result, managers are motivated to justify their decision-making process, regarding procedural accountability. In practice, Pitesa & Thau (2013) insisted that

procedural accountability such as the process of decision-making activities may decrease the degree of rater's self-serving decisions. Based upon accountability theory, decision makers, however, feel pressured to justify their decisions (Mero et al., 2003). Referentially, raters tend to be more self-conscious, utilising analytical approaches. For instance, raters accountable for decision-making in advance, recognise that other staff are analysing their perspectives (Tetlock 1985b). Therefore, decision makers often appear competent within the process of conducting performance appraisal reviews (London et al., 1997; Payne et al., 2009). With respect to outcome accountability, Dalla Via et al. (2019) have differentiated between procedural and outcome accountabilities for decision-making quality; managers aren't required to justify their decision process under outcome accountability. This is because outcome accountability features in simplified information processing. Furthermore, as expected, procedures are less weighted in this context, due to differences in viewpoints. Experimental psychologists have discovered that within the context of performance appraisals, outcome accountability scarcely induces raters to seek accurate judgements on account of a lack of guidance on how to fulfil accurate judgements (Patil et al., 2014). According to Nielsen (2014), the reform of performance management should cover outcome-based accountability and increased managerial authority. This is because of the importance concerning the supervisor's flexibility for triggering a performance-oriented reform (Heystek 2015). To sum up, in accordance with the viewpoint of cognitive processing, procedural accountability refers to the controlled cognitive processing by raters, such as being aware of monitored procedures. Outcome accountability concerns automatic cognitive processing, such as stereotypic classifications of individuals in the mind of raters (John Bernardin et al., 2016).

From a practical viewpoint, when referring to Curtis et al.'s study in 2005, p.47, 'there are two major forms of accountability: upward accountability and downward accountability' respecting sources of political distortions in performance appraisals. Downward accountability can be defined as needing to provide feedback with employees or justify performance appraisal ratings. Upward accountability refers to a supervisor being held accountable to their superior. In the case that a superior has a scrupulous eye for detail

concerning performance review ratings, raters tend to assess employee appraisals accurately (Harris et al., 1995). Although it can be expected that public managers are held accountable to their superiors due to keeping a sense of public duty, centralised decision-making from only certain people at the top at an organisation may decrease the quality of rater accountability (Murray 1975; Mwita 2000). In contrast, in terms of downward accountability, it is vital to note that performance ratings can be increasingly inflated. This is because raters feel pressured, when considering a face-to-face meeting to give employees feedback, especially for poor performers. Similarly, Barbieri et al. (2021) identified that the provision of feedback and a face-to-face interaction can lead to inaccuracy in employee appraisals within the public sector in Italy. To sum up, this research highlights a lower sense of rater accountability as factors of the political distortions in employee appraisals.

Additionally, supervisor authority can be addressed for the context of perceived appraisal politics. Vecchio (2007) considered responding to authority and obedience as the antecedents of perceived organisational politics. Nevertheless, supervisor authority irrelevant to employee appraisals can largely hinder high commitment practices for improving performance outcomes; the role of high commitment practices becomes vital within the public sector (Gould-Williams 2004). As a guide, the table below indicates that studies after 2005 underlined the variables of the rater dimension. On the other hand, it appears that three existing studies before 2005 mentioned the importance of the rater’s perspective or characteristic in literature.

Table 5: Summary of main points for the rater dimension

The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics by raters					
Year / Researcher	Theme	Research content	Implication	Relevance to the current research	Variable
1996 / Tziner et al	Development and validation of a questionnaire for measuring perceived political considerations in performance	Perceived organisational politics by raters can be associated with rater accuracy and play a significant role in the acceptance of performance appraisal system	The Dimension of either supervisor or rater is crucial This is because the appraisal politics can be perceived in the context of rater’s pursuit of personal goals	Rather than cognitive errors and non-deliberate rating distortion, the deliberate distortion of performance ratings can be more linked to the inaccuracy in performance ratings	The Questionnaire of political considerations in performance appraisal

	appraisal				
2000 / Longenecker & Gioia	Confronting the politics in performance appraisal	<p>Raters have discretion when evaluating individual performance</p> <p>Some supervisors are quite political and utilise ratings to achieve personal goals</p>	<p>There are ten reasons that raters intentionally manipulate performance ratings</p> <p>To Resolve the perception of political appraisals, a long-term approach for raters can be suggested</p>	<p>The Determinants of appraisal politics such as the lack of training, leader's willingness and rating ability when evaluating individual performance</p> <p>It is necessary to survey both managerial and employee perceptions towards the effectiveness of performance appraisals to fill the gap</p>	N/A
2004 / Poon	Effects of performance appraisal politics on job satisfaction and turnover intention	Due to the appraiser's personal bias and intention to punish subordinates, employees negatively reacted to performance appraisal politics	<p>The Context of organisational politics related to the appraisal process is considered nature</p> <p>Perceived organisational politics can reflect performance appraisal politics from the viewpoints of raters</p>	<p>Poon's research emphasised on the rater's perspective as it is found that raters are more concerned about the actual results of individual performance ratings</p> <p>The Viewpoints of raters are reflected in items for the perception of appraisal politics</p> <p>On the other hand, perceived appraisal politics can cover participants' perceptions of the political motives behind the inflation or deflation of performance ratings</p>	<p>Perceptions of appraisal politics</p> <p>1) The Motivational motive</p> <p>2) The Punishment motive along with personal bias (favouritism)</p> <p>Two motives developed by the questionnaire of political considerations in performance appraisal (Tziner et al., 1996)</p>
2005 / Dhiman & Singh	Revisiting appraisal politics from assessors' perspective	The Rater's intention for performance rating can be drawn from the political view of organisations	A Certain contextual dimension can bring about the rater's perception of appraisal politics	Both procedural and outcome accountabilities can affect the perception of performance appraisal politics and the accuracy in performance appraisals	N/A
2007 / Dhiman & Singh	Appraisal politics: revisiting from assessor's perspective	<p>The Assessor's perspective of performance appraisal politics is as below:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) Ambiguity about policies 2) Rater's accountability 3) Instrumentality linked to appraisal 4) Organisational supports 	<p>The Determinants of assessor's perception of appraisal politics can be proposed as below:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) The Lack of procedural accountability and outcome accountability 2) Instrumentality 3) The Lack of well-defined appraisal guidelines and policies 4) The Lack of training for raters 	Assessor-centric model of performance appraisal politics based upon perceived organisational politics	The Lack of appraisal guidelines and policies can be measured when referring to Dhiman & Singh's study in 2007
2017 / De	Unpacking the	Supervisors tend to measure	Subjectivity can be separately	Supervisor-driven	Supervisor-driven

Castro	notion of subjectivity: performance evaluation and supervisor discretion	employee performance based upon their own subjective opinions While subjectively measuring individual performance, raters may utilise performance appraisals to seek diverse incentive purposes and preferences (Supervisor idiosyncrasy)	dealt according to supervisor discretion and factors in relation to the organisation's management control system 1) Supervisor-driven subjective performance evaluation = supervisor discretion 2) Rule-driven subjective performance evaluation = the organisation's management control system	subjective performance evaluation is based upon the supervisor behaviour involved with discretion within the process of performance evaluation Supervisor idiosyncrasies, such as the rater experience especially for employee appraisals could affect the deliberate behaviour of performance ratings	subjective performance evaluation 1) Amount of discretion 2) Supervisor uniqueness 3) Supervisor's previous experience 4) Supervisor's personal experience
2018 / Lavigne	How Structural and procedural features of managers' performance appraisals facilitate the politicization: a study of Canadian university deans' reappointments	Performance appraisal politics can be caused by human behaviour facilitated by procedural features It is discovered that structural features can facilitate politicisation through both hierarchical inversion and coalition-building mechanisms	The politicisation of a processual performance appraisal from a manager's viewpoint should be developed Theoretical models of appraisal politics are extended This is because the findings show the relationship between processes and the perception of organisational politics in employee appraisals	Low rater accountability can correspond to the political affordances in structural features within organisations	N/A

3.2.2 The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics by ratees

Although this study concentrates upon variables of the rater's perception of appraisal politics, it is worth comprehending the ratee's perception of appraisal politics. This is due to further studies towards the comprehensive framework within the field of HRM (Van Beurden et al., 2020). When referring to affective events theory, a rank-and-file worker could become more sensitive to political issues in contrast to their supervisors (Kane et al., 1999; Lu et al., 2017). According to Luo & Chea (2018), Affective events theory concerns the relation between individuals and their emotional reactions to events at work. Affective events theory can be hailed as the integral framework, respecting the organisational science on emotions (Ashkanasy 2002; Jin-Yun et al., 2011).

It is viewed that the ratee's perception of appraisal injustice can be a fundamental element of perceived appraisal politics (Saad & Elshaer 2017). Injustice elements within organisations include both interpersonal and informational unfairness factors (Folger & Konovsky 1989; Maiyaki & Yaro 2020). This can raise the possibility of unintended results within organisations such as deterioration of morale and the growth of uncertainty (Narcisse & Harcourt 2008; Aggarwal et al., 2018). Dhiman & Maheshwari (2013) demonstrated that the ratee's perception of appraisal politics can be formed by three dimensions. First dimension is establishing reputation, relationships and in-groups. Second dimension refers to colleagues' political behaviour to obtain rewards. Finally, third dimension stresses performance-based pay and promotion decisions. What's interesting here is that the appraisee perception of appraisal politics is correlated with a downward communication and the relation between a rater and a ratee. That is to say, the ratee's perception of appraisal politics can be largely influenced by rater-driven elements. However, as a further study, Shakib et al. (2016) found that the ratee's perception of appraisal politics can be attributed to unclear norms, concerning ambiguity about appraisal policies. In the case of the public sector in South Korea, Kwon (2020) demonstrated that social astuteness, interpersonal and networking abilities can lead to the perception of appraisal politics. Nam (2016) implied that the lack of interactional justice can trigger the ratee's perception of organisational politics in performance appraisals.

In short, contrary to the rater's perception of appraisal politics, it can be found that the ratee's perception of appraisal politics highlights manipulative actions by not merely raters but also ratees to achieve self-serving goals (Ferris et al., 1994b). Besides, employees may respond sensitively to interpersonal rather than institutional factors (Swalhi et al., 2017; De Clercq et al., 2018).

Table 6: Summary of main points for the ratee dimension

The Appraisee's perception of appraisal politics					
Year / Researcher	Theme	Research content	Implication	Relevance to the current research	Variable
2013 / Dhiman &	Performance appraisal	Three dimensions from the ratee's perception of appraisal	Political manipulation is	The Process (voice) can mitigate performance	Performance appraisal politics

Maheshwari	politics from appraisee perspective: a study of antecedents in the Indian context	politics, such as the cultural, performance appraisal and justice contexts The Cultural context such as paternalism and high-power distance had a moderating effect on the relation between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics from the appraisee perspectives	directly in control of appraisers. Their actions or decisions can be affected by employees, superiors and fellow leaders in other departments	appraisal politics from the ratee perspective The Leaders could be eager to use performance appraisal politics for the motivational purposes towards employees Employees are sceptical about the perception of appraisal politics	(25 items) from the questionnaire of political considerations in performance appraisal (Tziner et al., 1996)
2016 / Shakib et al	Appraisal politics: scrutinising from anterior context to appraisee perception in the corporate culture of Bangladesh	The Determinants of performance appraisal politics from the perspective of subordinates are as below: 1)Downward communication 2)Voice 3)Ambiguity 4)Procedural accountability 5)Criterion relevance	Both downward communication and ambiguity were significantly related to the determinants of perceived appraisal politics	The Determinants of perceived appraisal politics especially for 1) Ambiguity 2) Voice Ambiguity can be addressed for the work environment dimension Voice can be deemed as a positive effect of appraisal participation	Ambiguity items developed by (Ferris et al., 1989) Voice scales developed by (Korsgaard & Roberson 1995)
2020 / Dhiman	Unique nature of appraisal politics as a work stress: test of stress-strain model from appraisee's perspective	From a ratee's perspective, the effect of perceived appraisal politics can bring about both short-term episodic strain and long-term chronic strain	Rater's rating politics and pay or promotion politics can be significantly associated with anxiety felt by ratees in the context of episodic strain The Negative form of appraisal politics is highlighted with psychological costs such as anxiety and low level of satisfaction	The Nature of appraisal politics experienced by ratees can be regarded as episodic rather than chronic especially in the context of reward decisions It implied that the context of reward decisions can trigger perceived appraisal politics	Appraisee's perception of appraisal politics developed by (Dhiman & Maheshwari 2013)
2020 / Kwon	Performance appraisal politics in the public sector: the effects of political skill and social similarity on performance rating	The Political skill dimensions of ratees include social astuteness, apparent sincerity, interpersonal influence and networking ability Ratees are likely to utilise or perceive political skills towards performance ratings by raters This is because of a socially desired self-image and acknowledgement	The Subordinate is more likely to be engaged to exert their influences on performance ratings in addition to political considerations by raters	The Limited generalisability in the public sector in South Korea can deserve much consideration. Government departments are under a unitary law entitled the government organisation act	Subordinates' political skills built on (Ferris et al., 2007) Supervisory performance rating assessed by five grades, such as S,A,B,C and D

3.3 A Chapter summary

Due to the importance of the social context of performance appraisals, the political context of performance appraisals received less attention by the 2000s. However, owing to a crucial link between psychological attributes of human beings and the political behaviour at work, the political context of performance appraisals has received more attention nowadays. When referring to Rosen et al.'s study in 2017, as a tension-generating process, the appraisal process can be largely affected by raters within the context of work politics.

The author underlines the fact that the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings attributed to the political motives by raters can be elucidated as the phenomenon of appraisal politics, emphasising on individual perceptions. From among the rater's motives for the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings, it is likely that individuals within organisations can easily perceive the deliberate manipulations of performance ratings attributed to the political motives by raters. When referring to Zivnuska et al.'s study in 2004, impression management couldn't influence performance ratings in the context of perceived organisational politics. Besides, when referring to Dhiman's research in 2020, it implies that the effects of rater's goal directed perspectives and non-performance information can be covered within the political context of rater motives. It is said that the lack of rater accountability can be hailed as a determinant of perceived appraisal politics.

Depending on the rater's and the ratee's perspectives, the perceptions of appraisal politics can be differently conceptualised. When referring to Dhiman & Singh's study in 2007a, perceived appraisal politics denote the rater's perception regarding the political decision of performance ratings to seek self-interests at the cost of the ratee's appraisal interests. When referring to Dhiman's study in 2020, the ratee's perception of appraiser politics refers to deliberate political actions which treat individuals differently, based upon non-performance considerations. Accordingly, it is maintained that the determinants of perceived appraisal politics by raters can be distinct from the determinants of perceived

appraisal politics by ratees. Nevertheless, it is worth noting that some determinants of perceived appraisal politics such as ambiguity and rater accountability can be classified as a part of the organisational dimension. With respect to the ratee's perception of appraisal politics, employee's perceptions of appraisal injustice can be a fundamental element of perceived appraisal politics. It seems that in a way similar to the rater dimension, some factors can commonly influence the ratees' perception of appraisal politics, such as elements of ambiguity and accountability. In accordance with affective events theory, the ratee's perspective of appraisal politics has received much more attention, compared to the past.

Chapter 4 Employee silence

This chapter aims to explore various sorts of silence motives in the work place and in South Korea. Firstly, in the section of intentional withholding of information, the differences among voice behaviour, general silence behaviour and silence behaviour based on personal motives are addressed. Employee silence was normally deemed as the opposite case of employee voice behaviour in the past. However, it is highlighted that employee silence features inner motivated forms of individuals at work. Following this, In the section of silence motives, a relation between employee silence and perceived appraisal politics and employee silence with personal motives in the context of South Korea will be addressed. Lastly, a chapter summary is set out.

4.1 Intentional withholding of information

Owing to the significance of communication, most organisations have had formal grievance procedures that enable subordinates to protest against management practice, such as performance management (Whiting et al., 2008; Chen et al., 2020). According to Whiting et al. (2012, p. 159), 'voice will positively or negatively impact raters' evaluations of an employee's performance'. Nonetheless, Shojaie et al. (2011) demonstrated that employees are more likely to deflect talk of their performance. The absence of voice could infer intentional withholding of information or opinions. However, Hassan et al. (2019) illustrated that public employees intentionally chose being silent, but frontline supervisors can minimise employee silence with empowering leadership. Individuals can choose remaining silent, rather than choosing voice. To grasp choosing the intentional withholding of opinions, a personal motive should be properly addressed. Park et al. (1996) believed that employees kept silent, not just because of acquiescent motives; instead of clinging to a belief that employees can't change their situations, more studies are needed to reveal the diverse motives of silence behaviour. On the other hand, it is worth noting that employee silence

climate which can negatively cause the organisational capability in modifying errors prevails in the public sector in South Korea (Ko & Kim 2020).

In the initial stage, Hirschman (1970) defined employee voice as a vehicle for changing the impolite state of affairs. However, this is regarded as risky for employees (Detert & Edmondson 2011). In contrast, employee silence was simply viewed as a causative factor for leaving an organisation or remaining with an organisation by hoping improvements. However, Brinsfield (2009) viewed employee silence as a distinct phenomenon to employee voice. That is to say, employee silence motives aren't regarded as the absence of employee voice. This is because when considering employee silence as intentional behaviour, various sorts of personal motive can be generated. In a similar vein, Pinder & Harlos (2001) proposed that it would be an error to believe that employee silence only stands for disapproval; this could be a strategic signal dependent on individual motives.

Rather than flagging up a question for silence attributed to individual motives, some HRM experts have utilised OB insights to analyse both voice and silence behaviour (Bergeron & Thompson 2020; Nechanska et al., 2020). This is because unlike HRM studies stressing labour productivity and wages, both voice behaviour and silence behaviour have been attributed to diverse OB factors including organisational culture, management with diversity and others (Beheshtifar et al., 2012; Mowbray et al., 2015). In this context, employee silence is hailed as the sociology of work and employment within organisations (Donaghey et al., 2011), rather than individual psychological factors (Bagheri et al., 2012). However, Chung (2012) pointed out that as silence behaviour can be deemed as sub-surface, the most crucial things to discover would be the personal motives of silence behaviour. In addition, voice, general silence and silence based on personal motives were respectively differentiated. As a further study, it is argued that employee silence with personal motives can be split into two types, such as solicited target-based employee silence and unsolicited issue-based employee silence. Solicited target-based employee silence can be attributed to not merely social relationships but also relational experiences. Unsolicited issue-based employee silence can be down to functional motives (Chou & Chang 2020).

For reference, in the context of Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX), employee voice can affect LMX theory (Botero & Van Dyne 2009). In contrast, employee silence has a negative correlation on LMX theory (Liang & Wang 2016). In theory, LMX theory features in a unique relation between a leader and a subordinate (Yu & Liang 2004). Given the unique relationship, some employees can or can't share close friendships with leaders (Wang et al., 2018); this can be divided into two components incorporating both in-groups and out-groups (Kang & Stewart 2007; Peng et al., 2019). Workers from in-groups can be located within the supervisor's inner circle, but out-group workers are usually outside the supervisor's attention (Lunenburg 2010). According to Xu et al. (2015, p.763), 'abusive supervisor predicts subordinate's silence behaviour through emotional exhaustion with LMX acting as the contextual condition'.

In summary, when grasping the meaning of employee silence, rather than the lack of employee voice, diverse motives for employee silence should be addressed. In theory, employee silence is referred to as a reluctance when sharing opinions and raising problems (Hung et al., 2012; Morrison 2014). This taciturnity is widely interpreted as employee's intentional withholding based upon personal motives.

4.2 Silence motives

Dyne et al. (2003) conceptualised employee silence, adducing the conceptual framework for silence motives comprised of acquiescent silence, defensive silence and pro-social silence. For instance, the issue of disengaged motive can unleash the specific type of behaviour such as acquiescent silence or acquiescent voice. On the other hand, employees who have self-protective motives on the basis of fear are likely to lean towards defensive silence or defensive voice (Deniz et al., 2013). Finally, employees holding co-operated motives can be linked with pro-social silence or pro-social voice (Morrison et al., 2015). Theoretically, acquiescent silence is grounded upon a feeling of resignation, embedding passive obedience (Knoll et al., 2019). As a result, employees withhold their opinions or ideas at work.

Defensive silence refers to proactive behaviour, implying that individual would protect one's own self within an organisation, such as withholding information or personal opinions (Baran & Giderler 2017).

Silence motives defined by Dyne et al.'s research in 2003, however, feature in single-component system. Hence, there is requirement to magnify the dimensions of employee silence motives. Brinsfield (2013) empirically found that six dimensions of silence motives including ineffectual, relational, defensive, diffident, disengaged and deviant are negatively associated with employee voice. Additionally, Knoll & Van Dick (2013) suggested four sorts of silence motives consisting of quiescent, acquiescent, pro-social and opportunistic silences. According to Harlos (2016, p. 345), 'attention to this multi-dimensional concept has been steady since its introduction as the withholding of expressed evaluations of work circumstances to persons able to effect change with two initial dimensions, such as quiescent silence (fear and anger-based) and acquiescent silence (futility and resignation-based), following unjust events'. Interestingly, Knoll et al. (2021) recently demonstrated that except for quiescent silence, acquiescent, pro-social and opportunistic silences are linked with power distance, institutional collectivism and uncertainty avoidance across thirty-three countries. To facilitate cross-cultural studies, fear, resignation, pro-social and selfish silence motives are suggested to be addressed.

More noteworthy is that Khalid & Ahmed (2016) empirically explicated a positive relation between organisational politics perceptions and employee silence (Karim et al., 2021). Despite trust in supervisors, in a political environment, intentional withholding based on diverse silence motives can be generated. Such examples are relational, diffident, defensive, disengaging, ineffectual and deviant motives. In a similar vein, Kwon & Kim (2017) demonstrated that both acquiescent and defensive silences are correlated to the perception of organisational politics in South Korea. In a similar vein, Sun & Xia (2018) have insisted that the determinants of perceived organisational politics are positively related to the acquiescent silence motive. It is also shown that in this context, organisational cultures

played a significant role. In the public sector, according to AL-Abrow (2018), the mediating role of organisational cynicism was empirically found between perceived organisational politics and organisational silence. Overall, in consideration of the correlation between employee silence and perceived organisational politics, it is likely that employee silence with personal motives can affect perceived appraisal politics. As highlighted earlier, when referring to Seo et al.'s study in 2019, the moderating role of employee silence with a personal motive was addressed; it is possible that the moderating role of employee silence may change the nature of the relation between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics.

For reference, when exploring the literature in the case of silence motives, many studies emphasised upon acquiescent, defensive and pro-social silences. Both individual factors and organisational factors have been presented to explicate why diverse factors can be an impetus for motives of silence (Xiaotwao et al., 2008; Wang & Hsieh 2013). For instance, Lu & Xie (2013) illustrated that social relation factors can promote individual silence motives. To be more specific, the psychological contract breach was significantly related to acquiescent silence (Wang & Hsieh 2014; Riantoputra et al., 2016). Additionally, Lam & Xu (2019) regarded low self-efficacy as a core element that can affect the acquiescent motive. In terms of defensive silence, Gambarotto & Cammozzo (2010) professed from a different angle that employees fear the sharing of knowledge depending on the situation rather than managerial components. Dedahanov & Rhee (2015) indicated that a relation between a supervisor and an employee is highly linked to defensive silence. That is to say, defensive silence can be accounted for by a sense of closeness with supervisors (Kiewitz et al., 2016). Furthermore, Song et al. (2017) empirically demonstrated that the leader's destructive personality resulted in defensive silence. In a similar vein, Jahanzeb et al. (2018) illustrated that employees in a state of emotional exhaustion can be easily linked with defensive silence; such a phenomenon can be brought about by supervisor ostracism. Pirie (2016) identified that the most commonly found factor is defensive silence. According to Kim & Kim (2016), the defensive silence motive is less connected with the employee's turnover

intention than acquiescent silence in South Korea. However, defensive silence which is attributed to fear brings about negative results in individual and organisational units such as cynical attitudes at work. Concerning pro-social silence, altruism is based on pro-social silence (Hawass 2016). That is to say, pro-social silence is defined as suppressing personal opinions or job-related ideas so that others acquire benefits or organisations gain profits (Bormann & Rowold 2016). Nevertheless, Jung & Yoon (2019) adduced the combined construct of employee silence including pro-social silence which can be significantly related to deviant behaviour. On the other hand, pro-social silence is closely connected with organisational identification or vice versa (Blader et al., 2017). Referentially, although an organisational culture such as collectivism didn't impact upon pro-social motives, communication changes may elevate pro-social motives (Dedahanov et al., 2015).

Within the public sector in South Korea, it is claimed that silence with various sorts of motives should be addressed, by contemplating the essence of the South Korean context (Ko 2017; Kim et al., 2020). Nonetheless, acquiescent, defensive and pro-social silences are mainly handled. For instance, Ko et al. (2019) added on adaptive silence from the existing silence motives. So as to uncover the impact of authoritarianism and collectivism, acquiescent, defensive, pro-social and adaptive silences were mainly presented. The catch here is that adaptive silence is conceptualised as a silence motive in the South Korean context; adaptive silence can be attributed to authoritarianism in the public sector. In addition to this, when contemplating the honour of supervisors and respecting a supervisor's authority, adaptive silence can become more predominant, in comparison with other silence motivations (Ko & Kang 2017). Particularly noteworthy is that there was an attempt to validate the different silence motives in the South Korean context not long ago (Kim & Kang 2019). Choi & Park (2017) examined the discriminant validity of diverse silence motives to differentiate general silence behaviour. Such examples refer to acquiescent, defensive, disengaged, opportunistic and relational silences. Compared to the existing literature, disengaged, opportunistic and relational silence motives were addressed for the context of South Korea. For example, disengaged silence indicates that employees don't

want to get involved in works or issues at work. Opportunistic silence refers to a concern about profits for others when making opinions. Relational silence denotes a concern about troubled relationships with either colleagues or supervisors. As a guide, general silence behaviour can be elucidated by managers' attitudes to silence or top management attitudes to silence (Vakola & Bouradas 2005).

Table 7: Summary of main points for silence motives in South Korea

Employee silence with personal motives for the South Korean context					
Year / Researcher	Theme	Research content	Implication	Relevance to the current research	Variable
2014 / Cho & Yoo	The Mediating effect of silence motivation on the relationships among employee silence behavior, perceived supervisor support and perceived procedural justice	The Mediating roles of silence motivations are presented between perceived supervisor support and employee silence behaviour	Silence motivations are detached from employee silence behaviour Silence motives can partially mediate the relation between perceived supervisor support and employee silence behaviour	Opportunistic silence motivation should be addressed in addition to acquiescent silence motivation for the context of South Korea	Employee silence behaviour developed by (Jung 2013) Silence motive items developed by (Knoll & Van Dick 2013)
2014 / Rhee et al	Relationships among power distance, collectivism, punishment and acquiescent, defensive or prosocial silence	Power distance and collectivism can lead to acquiescent silence; punishment can elevate defensive silence at work in South Korea However, power distance can't affect defensive silence; collectivism can't lead to prosocial silence at work in South Korea	Both cultural factors and managerial practices can be considered as substantial influence Regarding practical implications, it is crucial to establish a strategy that can give a voice to employees in high-power-distance-oriented organisations in South Korea	A Multidimensional construct of silence can be addressed Employee silence becomes a fundamental issue in HRM	Acquiescent, defensive and prosocial silence motives developed by (Van Dyne et al., 2003)
2017 / Choi & Park	The Development and validation of the silence motivation scale	It is unexpected to consider that many employees tend to keep silent although individuals are asked to speak up about their opinions in many of the processes Nowadays, it has become crucial to discover various sorts of silence motives in South Korea	The Exploratory factor and intra-ESEM analyses were utilised to confirm five types of silence motivations for the context of South Korea	Employee silence with personal motives can be differentiated from voice and general silence behaviour	Acquiescent, defensive, disengaged, opportunistic and relational silence motives developed by (Choi & Park 2017)
2017 / Ko & Kang	Conceptualization and development of measurement tools for the silence phenomenon in	Compared to existing studies on silence motivations, it can be found that organisational climate within the public sector can largely cause adaptive	A New concept of silence motivations should be studied to fit the South Korean context A New measurement	A New type of silence which reflects a feature of Korean organisations should be stressed	A Measurement scale of adaptive silence developed by (Ko & Kang 2017)

	Korean administrative culture: focus on adaptive silence	silence	scale can be demonstrated through both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses		
2019 / Seo et al	The Effect of inclusive leadership on voice behavior: the mediating effect of psychological safety and moderating effect of perceptive acquiescent silence of colleagues	Psychological safety partially mediated the relationship between inclusive leadership and voice behaviour	The Moderating role of employee silence is demonstrated between inclusive leadership by supervisors and voice behaviour	Acquiescent silence can change the nature of the relation between a predictor and an outcome Diverse silence motives should be addressed in addition to acquiescent silence	N/A

4.3 A Chapter summary

It is noteworthy that since silence behaviour is hailed as sub-surface, the most vital things to investigate would be the personal motives of silence behaviour. Some empirical studies respecting employee silence with personal motives, referred to the correlations towards the perception of organisational politics. Besides, the moderating role of employee silence was discussed, which may change the nature of the relation between a predictor and an outcome at work. In most cases, the causal relationship between employee silence with personal motives and the perception of organisational politics has been demonstrated. Furthermore, it can be identified that in the past, acquiescent, defensive and pro-social silence motives were mainly addressed for HRM and OB studies. However, owing to the structural factors of organisations, it appears that many studies endeavour to investigate diverse sorts of silence motives in South Korea, such as a silence motive that can reflect the organisational cultures. As a result, in addition to acquiescent and defensive silence motives, disengaged, opportunistic and relational silence motives are likewise addressed within this chapter. Most importantly, these silence motives are fitted for the South Korean context within the private or public organisations.

Chapter 5 The Effect of perceived appraisal politics

This chapter aims to clarify the impact of perceived appraisal politics with its underlying theory and the acceptance of the appraisal system. Firstly, the motivational and punishment motives of perceived appraisal politics are addressed. Besides, a means of control is reviewed to elucidate the relation between benefits for raters of perceived appraisal politics and acceptance of the appraisal system for this thesis. In the existing literatures, the variable of perceived appraisal politics can be split into two components comprised of the motivational motive and punishment motive along with favouritism. The catch here is that favouritism can be academically classified as the unconscious bias by raters in contrast to cognitive biases by raters. This is because it is not routinely recorded in the context of rater biases. However, in the context of appraisal politics, it is said that favouritism can occur along with punishment motive. Secondly, acceptance of the appraisal system is explored; index acceptance and managerial strategy acceptance of the appraisal system are underlined. Thirdly, the fulfilment of the psychological contracts will be reviewed to grasp benefits for ratees of perceived appraisal politics. Also noteworthy, gaps in the literature will be presented in this chapter. Lastly, a chapter summary is set out.

5.1 The Perception of performance appraisal politics

At the first onset, Smith (1986) viewed cognitive biases as systematic errors rather than the intended behaviour in the process of performance appraisals. On the other hand, performance appraisal politics, as a natural phenomenon within organisations, is viewed as the intended manipulations, when referring to Poon's study in 2004. Thus, when wishing to diminish perceptions of appraisal politics, it was suggested that social context factors should be explored and reflected upon the appraisal system. This is because performance appraisals can feature in the ambiguous situations and be attributed to work relations for the most part. Besides, concerning the perception of appraisal politics, it is vital to note that

the questionnaire of political considerations by Tziner et al.'s study in 1996 has mostly been utilised. The most representative case would be Poon's study in 2004 who implemented a factor analysis. As a result, the motivational motive stressing rater discretion in the process of performance appraisals and the punishment motive along with a personal bias (favouritism) were labelled. Favouritism can denote liking or disliking employees. As a guide, in the field of HRM, favouritism can be deemed as unconscious bias as well as discrimination (Yusof & Puteh 2017). Mariani (2019) explained that the differences between bias and unconscious bias can be dependent on whether individuals are aware or unaware of their thoughts and behaviour. In addition to favouritism, Campbell & Lee (1988) rendered unconscious biases comprised of gender, age, race and personality.

Cook's study in 1995 maintained that favouritism by raters isn't routinely recorded and accessible. Thus, compared to cognitive biases by raters, favouritism can be classified as unconscious bias in the context of rater biases. However, it appears that in the context of appraisal politics, favouritism can be stressed along with punishment motive by raters. After Poon's findings, a new angle on the perception of appraisal politics was proposed. Although some employees are sceptical about the political considerations of performance appraisals, the motivational motive could make a profound impact upon job attitudes, such as organisational commitment (Moayeri 2014). Sogra et al. (2009) likewise classified perceived appraisal politics into two major factors consisting of the motivational and punishment motives, by highlighting the questionnaire of political considerations. In contrast with existing research content, it was discovered that the motivational purpose was statistically significant to job satisfaction as well as organisational commitment. On the other hand, Imran et al. (2018) empirically demonstrated that the whole issue of perceived appraisal politics wasn't positively related to individual performance in three different countries comprised of Canada, Malaysia and Pakistan. It was a noteworthy fact that perceived appraisal politics can result in staff anxiety and depression through cross-sectional study design. Naseeb et al. (2019) likewise found that the effect of perceived appraisal politics wasn't positively related to job satisfaction. Nonetheless, it was indicated that the motivational motive could be utilised as a strategy for employee motivation.

To the best of the writer's knowledge, Longenecker & Ludwig (1990) firstly suggested a typology of rater motives and manipulative rating behaviour. In this context, inflation and deflation based upon positive or deviant motives are addressed. For instance, positive inflation emphasis on keeping workers engaged. Positive deflation represents a fear of better performance, as this would lead to the eventual termination of their current goals. On the other hand, deviant inflation highlights a concern about a rater's reputation. Deviant deflation manifests the punishment purpose of manipulative rating behaviour. Tziner et al.'s study in 1996, however, was curious about individual perceptions of the extent to which employee appraisals can be influenced by organisational politics. Therefore, a questionnaire for measuring perceived appraisal politics was suggested in earnest. As explained above, Poon's research in 2004 utilised fifteen items from Tziner et al.'s instrument; the motivational and punishment motives have been addressed since then. On the other hand, Ahn & Cho's study in 2018 named both the motivational and punishment motives as benefits for ratees and raters in the context of South Korea.

When contemplating the link between perceived appraisal politics and a means of control, a means of control may have something in common with either the punishment motives or benefits for raters. Dello Russo et al. (2017, p. 771) stated that 'the political considerations likely underlying a rater's distortions would lead to rating deflation to exercise personal power and control'. It is believed that raters or superiors may consider either performance appraisals or the appraisal system necessary even within public organisations (Liu & Dong 2012). This is because the awareness of a legitimate control towards employees can be inherent in the framework of performance appraisals (Caruth & Humphreys 2008). On account of the performance reviews, raters are willing to control the individuals at work. However, public employees prefer being empowered, rather than being controlled (Bowman 1994). As a result, it is maintained that subordinates can't easily come to terms with the appraisal system (Pichler et al., 2020). In summary, it is probable that the

acceptance of the appraisal system can be down to benefits for raters, when focusing on the rater's viewpoints, rather than the ratee's perspectives.

Table 8: Summary of the main points for perceived appraisal politics

The Concept of performance appraisal politics					
Year / Researcher	Theme	Research content	Implication	Relevance to the current research	Variable
2009 / Sogra et al	Organisational outcomes of the employee's perceptions of performance appraisal politics: a study on executive MBA students in Bangladesh	The Perception of appraisal politics has been under-researched even though political considerations in performance appraisals are highly associated with a reward decision process Performance appraisal politics can be largely attributed to the rater dimension	Performance ratings can be manipulated by raters for political reasons in practice Political reasons imply for performance-based rewards	A Typology of manipulative rating behaviour exists as below: 1) Rater's positive motives 1-1 Inflation 1-2 Deflation 2) Rater's deviant motives 2-1 Inflation 2-2 Deflation	The Employee perceptions of performance appraisal politics are as below: 1) The Motivational motive 2) The Punishment motive (Tziner et al., 1996)
2010 / Ahmad et al	Performance appraisal politics and employee turnover intention	The Punishment purpose had more negative impacts on turnover intention within the private sector	Based upon reinforcement theory, employee behaviour can be changed in positive or negative ways The Motivational and punishment motives can induce behavioural transitions within organisations	Performance appraisal politics can be divided into two factors 1) The Motivational motive 2) The Punishment motive along with personal bias	The Items of appraisal politics proposed by (Poon 2004)
2011 / Mangonyan	Politicisation of performance appraisal in the North West Department of health and Social Development	Performance appraisals are politicised due to 1) Rater's preference 2) Personal relations 3) Sharing common values with leaders	Poor handling concerning the perception of appraisal politics can be found This is because performance appraisals were only utilised for distributing rewards	Performance appraisals are highly politicised; managers should contemplate separating evaluation forms such as forms for development and for rewards	Standard questionnaires on politicisation in performance appraisals developed by (Tziner et al., 1996) 25 items
2013 / Arshad et al	Effects of performance appraisal politics on job satisfaction, turnover intention and loyalty to supervisor (Study with reference to the telecom organisations of Pakistan)	Perceived appraisal politics negatively affected job satisfaction and loyalty towards leaders	Arshad et al.'s study emphasised upon the organisational dimension to comprehend structural understandings Perceived appraisal politics can be divided into two 1) The Inflation of ratings 2) The Deflation of ratings	The Inflation of ratings and deflation of ratings weren't separated for this research to comprehend the general concept	The Questionnaire of political considerations in performance appraisal (Tziner et al., 1996) 15 items
2013 / Ismail & Raduan	Relationship between manager's political behavior in	The Motivational and punishment motives are largely related to job satisfaction	Owing to the culture of the public sector environment, a variable such as job turnover	Performance appraisal politics should be diversely dealt as the workplace performance	Items of performance appraisal politics built on (Poon 2004, Ismail et al., 2011 and etc.)

	performance appraisal systems and personal outcomes		wasn't down to perceived appraisal politics	management domain The Perception of performance appraisal politics will be related to the acceptance in the section of recommendations	8 items
2014 / Moayeri	Effects of perception of performance appraisal politics on organisational commitment and job satisfaction in food and beverage industry in North Cyprus	When workers perceived the motivational aim of using performance appraisal politics, the level of organisational commitment was increased	Rating tools should be developed or reformed when employees perceived higher appraisal politics	The Motivational motive for perceived appraisal politics was only highlighted	Items of performance appraisal politics developed by (Tziner et al., 1996)
2014 / Swanepoel et al	Politicisation of performance appraisals	Performance appraisals are highly politicised; leaders utilise the appraisal system as a tool to send a message to their subordinates	The Supervisor-employee relations can be a crucial determinant of perceived appraisal politics	Performance assessment should be divided into two parts 1) Assessment for development 2) Assessment for rewards	Politicisation of performance appraisals built on (Tziner et al., 1996) 25 items
2016 / Ibrahim et al	Association of managers' political interests towards employees' feelings of distributive justice and job satisfaction in performance appraisal system	Supervisors' political interests can act as crucial determinants of individual feelings of distributive justice Appraisal decision-making method can be divided into two approaches in theory	Manager's motivational motives and punishment motives can be crucial determinants of individual feelings of distributive justice within organisations	Cognitive based appraisal is based on psychometric issues in performance appraisals Subjective based appraisal is based upon the political interests as a vital factor in the effectiveness of performance appraisal processes	The Issue of appraisal politics developed by (Ismail et al., 2011) 12 items
2017 / Dello Russo et al	Reducing organisational politics in performance appraisal: the role of coaching leaders for age diverse employees	Perceived appraisal politics can be understood with leadership theories such as coaching leaders Perceived appraisal politics can be highly associated with the cultural dimension within organisations	Employees' perceptions of appraisal politics can cause pessimistic organisational reputation Organisational politics can frequently occur within the context of performance management; this features social influences among different parties	Performance appraisal politics can be split as below: 1) The Motivational motive (Inflation) 2) To Avoid negative confrontation with workers (Inflation) 3) To Exercise power and control (Deflation) 4) To Avoid unmet expectations (Deflation)	The Questionnaire of political considerations in performance appraisal (Tziner et al., 1996) 24 items
2018 / Imran et al	Performance appraisal politics and employee's performance in distinctive economics	Perceived appraisal politics negatively influenced employee performance	Higher levels of anxiety and depression in operational stages can be found in the context of perceived appraisal politics	For Future study, finding out mediating effects or moderating effects are needed in the context of appraisal politics	Performance appraisal politics suggested by (Poon 2004) 15 items
2019 / Naseeb et al	Impact of performance appraisal politics on work outcome:	Perceived appraisal politics had a negative impact on commitment	Based upon the leader member exchange theory, the relationship between leader and	Perceived appraisal politics could be utilised as 'a strategy' to inspire the motivational feelings	Perceptions of performance appraisal politics developed by (Tziner

	multidimensional role of intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction	Intrinsic motivation mediated the relation between performance appraisal politics and turnover intention	employees can build up the mechanism behind leader's authority	to workers; this is in line with Sajjib's suggestion for a HR strategy in 2016	et al., 1996) 8 items
2021 / Zhen-qi & Guang-jin	Impact of performance appraisal politics on affective commitment: mediate effect of perception of organizational support and differentiation effect of perception attribution	Identifying diverse sorts of perceived appraisal politics is crucial The Effect of perceived appraisal politics can be used to enhance employees' positive attitudes at work	Performance appraisal politics can be split as below: 1) Perception of public-private concerned high ratings 2) perception of hypocritical and selfish high ratings 3) perception of self-interested low ratings 4) perception of organisational-interested low ratings	Control variables should be considered to comprehend boundary conditions of perceived appraisal politics in organisations Negative perceptions of performance appraisal politics should be managed by HR practitioners More studies concerning the impact of performance appraisal politics are required to grasp the employees' behaviour in organisations	The Perception scale of performance appraisal politics simplified by (Guang-jin in 2018)
2021 / Tabassum et al	Impact of performance appraisal politics on job performance: analyzing the mediating effect of job satisfaction	Perceived appraisal politics may be attributed to the approach of raters and the behaviour directly linked with performance appraisals Performance appraisals can be deemed as an integral part of HRM	There are either positive or negative relationships among perceived appraisal politics, job satisfaction and turnover intention	Minimising perceived appraisal politics can benefit both individuals and organisations Performance appraisal politics can be attributed to subjective ratings	Perceptions of performance appraisal politics developed by (Tziner et al., 1996) 7 items

5.2 The Acceptance of the appraisal system

Roberts (1992, p. 19) illustrated that 'perceived rater and ratee performance appraisal system acceptance explains the greatest amount of the variance in perceived appraisal system effectiveness'. However, it is challenging to successfully conduct performance appraisals and performance-based rewards within organisations. A flawless system never exists, especially due to influences of diverse employees' characteristics (Walsh 2003; Akhtar & Khattak 2013). Hence, many scholars have endeavoured to increase the acceptance of the appraisal system as a priority (Gabris & Ihrke 2000). Lawler (1967) firstly indicated that the acceptance of performance appraisal system can be affected by not

simply personal but also organisational elements, in addition to the rating formats. In the relevant literature, Maurer & Tarulli (1996) considered feedback as an essential factor to positively increase attitudes towards the appraisal system. Besides, Catano et al. (2007) insisted that perceptions of fairness, participations by employees and clear objectives grounded upon a job analysis would lead to greater acceptance of performance appraisals. Above all things, Taormina & Gao (2009) viewed the appraisal criteria as the foremost factor towards the acceptance of the appraisal system. Within the public sector in South Korea, a variety of practical viewpoints have existed. Lee & Cho (2010a) deemed the operational capability of the appraisal system as crucial to affirmatively influence attitudes towards the appraisal system. Compared to organisational factors such as group-orientation culture, personal factors especially for public service motivation can lead to the acceptance of the appraisal system at work (Lee et al., 2017). Recently, Lee (2020) has found that based upon organisational citizenship behaviour, the interests towards organisations can enhance the acceptance of performance appraisal system in the work place. According to Lee (2013), the differential standards respecting performance ratings and rewards can result in the unacceptance of the appraisal system, owing to a serious moral hazard problem in public organisations. Nonetheless, Song & Lee (2008) asserted that the relation between individuals and organisations can be solid, when contemplating the psychological contract. It is probable that employees can respond to the current appraisal system in a positive manner. Ryu (2014) found that the psychological factors of civil servants can effectively lead to the acceptance of the appraisal system in the local autonomous entity in South Korea.

As a proximal factor, the success of employee performance appraisals is dependent on the acceptance of the appraisal system. Similarly, three different criteria such as reaction criteria, practicality criteria and decision process criteria can be practically addressed. This is because these three criteria are highly connected with the success or failure of the appraisal system (Thurston Jr 2001; Widiani & Dudija 2020). In this regard, according to Reinke (2003), the reaction criterion stands for the accuracy and fairness of the appraisal system. The decision process criterion concerns the acceptable level of the appraisal system by

employees. Practicality criterion highlights political acceptability, time commitment and cost. From among these, it is said that the significance of political acceptability has been neglected (Padhaya et al., 2021).

When thinking of the acceptance of the appraisal system, the elements of index-based acceptance can be mainly addressed (Ryu 2016). Nonetheless, owing to the significance regarding the causal relation between managerial acceptance of the appraisal system and organisational performance in the public sector (Oh & Park 2016), the author takes note of managerial acceptance of the appraisal system. Interestingly, index acceptance is regarded as a micro level. Managerial strategy acceptance is deemed as a macro level (Kim et al., 2018b). Kim et al.'s study in 2018b clarified that when NPM culture which seeks results-oriented, market and consumer-oriented values is dominant, individuals can regard micro and cognitive issues as more crucial. On the other hand, Gook et al. (2007) underlined an appraisal standard and managerial acceptances for the context of South Korea. Respecting the acceptance of the appraisal system, it was pointed out that rational attitudes by public employees can be dependent on appraisal indexes and managerial strategy of the appraisal system. Overall, this author views micro and macro levels as crucial elements for the acceptance of the appraisal system within public organisations.

5.3 Psychological contract theory

On some occasions, in practice, there is the possibility that the political considerations in performance appraisals may positively influence appraisal reactions (Kurchner-Hawkins & Miller 2006; Ibrahim et al., 2016). Recently, Hochwarter et al. (2020) implied that the perception of appraisal politics may affect appraisal reactions in a positive or negative sense, such as acceptability, perceived accuracy and others. The author pays attention to the psychological contract theory as an underpinning theory to predict the relation between

benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics and appraisal reactions in an affirmative manner. This is owing to the significance concerning the fulfilment of the psychological contracts.

Pertaining to the psychological contract theory, although the psychological contract was addressed in the 1960s, the psychological contract theory has been predominant since the late 1990s, so as to cope with an economic down turn. The psychological contract theory can provide a framework for monitoring employee attitudes, making an impact on performance within the work place (Savarimuthu & Racha 2017). In theory, the psychological contract is grounded upon the subjective belief that there is a mutual obligation between the employee and the organisation (Rousseau 1998). That is to say, the nature of psychological contracts can be hailed as personal beliefs shaped by organisations, concerning terms of an exchange agreement between an individual and an organisation. The individual beliefs usually contain the promise, obligations and expectations (Robinson et al., 1994). Rousseau et al. (2018) proposed that in accordance with a phased-based model, psychological contracts can be evolved and changed, such as promises, inducements, contributions and obligations. Wangithi & Muceke (2012, p. 118) illustrated that 'good psychological contract may not always result to superior performance, or indeed to satisfied employees but poor psychological contracts tends to act as de-motivators'. Hence, Grant (1999, p. 327) insisted that 'employee expectations play an important role in the formulation of the psychological contract under HRM'. In this context, the fulfilment of the psychological contracts can be addressed, emphasising upon transactional and relational terms. For reference, these two terms can lead to transactional leadership (Jabeen et al., 2015). In addition, any particular psychological contract can contain both transactional and relational elements, but in differing amounts (McDonald & Makin 2000). Rousseau & Wade-Benzoni (1994) additionally explicated both balanced and transitional contracts. O'Neill & Adya (2007, p. 5) stated that a balanced contract stands for 'a combination of the open-ended time frame and mutual concern found in relational contracts and the performance demands and renegotiation efforts found in transactional contracts' (Rousseau 2004). In terms of a transitional contract, rather than calling a transitional contract, the transitional

form can be called transitional arrangements. This is because transitional arrangements aren't regarded as a psychological contract itself. Transitional arrangements can be viewed as a cognitive statement with reference to the absence of a breakdown in contracts. Theoretically, Rahman et al. (2017) indicated that social exchange theory can help to grasp why individuals can modify their task performance, depending on the fulfilment of psychological contracts comprised of relational and transactional terms. According to Chiang et al. (2012), transactional psychological contracts refer to short-term contracts which can last till the agreed period of contract; transactional contracts are linked with financial exchange for tasks performed. On the contrary, relational psychological contracts stand for long-term exchange in employment agreements, stressing social exchange and economic terms (Blau 1964). According to Soares & Mosquera (2019), it is likely that relational psychological contracts can trigger higher employee engagement. On the other hand, transactional contracts could negatively affect employee engagement. Interestingly, Agarwal & Gupta (2018) discovered that relational psychological contracts can influence pro-social work behaviour, psychological ownership and engagement. Transactional psychological contracts can trigger turnover intentions and attitudes in the work place. In addition, the fulfilment or the breach of psychological contracts can differently influence work outcomes. Nevertheless, within the public sector in South Korea, Chung & Chung (2013) demonstrated that transactional psychological contracts such as benefits for ratees based on performance appraisals would augment job satisfactions. Additionally, it is implied that higher performance ratings as expected could influence the acceptance of the appraisal system (Hwang et al., 2007). As a result, the individual-organisational identity and pro-social behaviour in organisations would be enhanced (Park & Ko 2009). Nonetheless, it is worth noticing that In general, performance ratings based on personal liking or disliking can result in unacceptance of the appraisal system (Zellars et al., 2008; Rolle & Klingner 2012).

It is argued that both work policies and practices can largely affect the psychological contract of an individual (Karani et al., 2021). When referring to Armstrong's contents in 2006b, the psychological contract theory can help to comprehend the process of

performance management or appraisals. This is because the fulfilment of the psychological contracts may occur in the context of performance reward systems. According to Lee (2018c), as a key decision factor, validity of the performance indicators is regarded as a priority. However, it is found that the performance indicators, which can be generally acceptable, are limited in the public sector in South Korea. That is to say, it could be foreseen that benefits for ratees from the variable of the appraisals politics can be related to the acceptance of performance appraisal system. When highlighting the fulfilment of the psychological contracts, such as transactional psychological contracts, the author suggests that benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics may lead to acceptance of the appraisal system. Academically, Ismail & Raduan (2013) proposed that in the section of recommendations, the concept of performance appraisal politics may affect either affirmative attitudinal or behavioural outcomes, such as the acceptance of the appraisal system at work and individual performance.

5.4 Gaps in the literature

Firstly, it is rare to find the Asian context for the determinants and the effect of perceived appraisal politics. Having reviewed similar studies concerning the perception of organisational politics, Aryee et al. (2004, p. 2) maintained that 'in spite of the recognition that politics perception is inherent in organisational life and the universality of concerns about fairness, much of the extant research (particularly on organisational politics) has focused on Western politics'. Recently, a trait activation theory or personality traits were proposed as the underpinning theory for perceived appraisal politics or subjective performance ratings (Smith et al., 2016; Hamid et al., 2020). According to Ferris & Treadway (2008), cultural factors can differently influence HR practices; it would be necessary to sectionalise HR practices or the phenomenon of employee appraisals in an appropriate context.

Secondly, from the vantage point of employees, it would be confusing to distinguish cognitive biases and the issue of appraisal politics by raters in practice. Likewise, Prendergast & Topel (1993) elucidated that it would be difficult to distinguish genuinely good performance from favouritism in practice, concerning the issue of employees' rewards. Nonetheless, it appears that there is a little concern, in terms of the relationship between perceived appraisal politics and cognitive bias. In a similar context, Jafri (2017) asserted that perceived organisational politics could affect cognitive bias and vice versa. It is likely that the recency effects may possibly cause political considerations. This is because rather than halo and horn effects, recency bias often occurred; raters tended to remember the jobs which an employee has performed recently. Additionally, it seems that decision factors are similar, although not identical. Such examples are personal connections between raters and ratees, the lack of rater error training, organisational injustice, a rater's discretion and social and economic costs (Folger et al., 1992; Gonsalvez & Freestone 2007; Javidmehr & Ebrahimpour 2015; DeNisi & Murphy 2017). On the other hand, although Can (2018) insisted that raters are likely to be unaware of the bias of performance appraisals, conscious rating distortion by raters can be sorted into four components. Politics, impression management, leniency and motivation can be addressed (Spence & Keeping 2011). In contrast to raters, ratees may find it difficult to identify factors linked to conscious rating distortion by raters. As an example, regarding cognitive biases, a supervisor' tendency is to give all workers positive performance ratings; this tendency is known as leniency bias, including the 360-degrees feedback tool (downward, upward and peer) (Antonioni & Park 2001). Concerning politics, so as to obtain personal benefits, raters intentionally distort the appraisal ratings to inflate or to deflate employee performance ratings, as emphasised earlier.

It appears that more concern for cognitive biases can be still found respecting conscious rating distortion (Rosen et al., 2006; Gong et al., 2019; Nagtegaal et al., 2020). For instance, a correlation between personality factors and cognitive errors is addressed (Yun et al., 2005). Before everything else, anchoring and halo effects biased performance ratings within the public sector (Bellé et al., 2017). As a guide, anchoring effect is the common human tendency to consider the primary information excessively. Halo and horn effects concern

first impression error which results in a quick biased perception of others that can be positive (halo) or negative (horn). When focusing on past performance, the halo effect leads to giving higher ratings to employees; the horn effect leads to giving lower ratings to employees.

Thirdly, with regards to silence motives in South Korea, it appears that many studies in South Korea have still focused on the existing factors applicable to Western countries (Cheong 2020). For instance, acquiescent, defensive and pro-social silence motives have been addressed. To fit the South Korean context of silence motives, diverse silence motives should be investigated (Kim et al., 2021).

Fourthly, prior to examining the full mediating effect of perceived appraisal politics between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system, the relation between perceived appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system should be demonstrated in advance. However, little has been written on the relation between the effect of perceived appraisal politics and appraisal reactions such as the acceptance of the appraisal system. As emphasised, most studies viewed the fairness in performance appraisals as the decision factors respecting the acceptance of the appraisal system (Kavanagh et al., 2007; Sudin 2011; Gu et al., 2020). Mangonyane (2011, p. 3) indicated that 'if performance appraisal is perceived as unfair and political, it can diminish rather than enhance employee attitudes and performance'. Except for some findings, many studies empirically demonstrated that manipulative appraisal ratings within organisations can negatively influence job attitudes (Aziz & Wan 2019). There is an opinion that perceived appraisal politics can augment the affirmative reaction of performance appraisals as a strategy. However, perceived appraisal politics has been pessimistic in academia, referring to motivation theories within the context of OB. When the perception of appraisal politics first came to light, widespread condemnation of the perception of appraisal politics was inevitable concerning the process theories of motivation (Purvis et al., 2015). Within the context of OB, motivation theories can be divided into two factors including process and

content theories of motivation (Rhee 2019). In contrast with content theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs which emphasises upon what can encourage employee motivation, process theories take note of the way in which psychological process can impact employee motivation (Steers et al., 2004; Sarla 2020). For instance, Lawler (1971) stated that expectancy theory as one of the process theories covers three components consisting of expectancy, instrumentality and valence. Put simply, expectancy is the degree to which individuals believe that their efforts can be linked with their performance. Instrumentality is the degree to which individuals would obtain rewards as long as the performance expectation can reach a certain standard (Lawler & Suttle 1973). On the other hand, valence is deemed as the perceived value about their expected rewards (Vroom 1964). Therefore, when employees perceive that both expectancy and instrumentality were violated, employees can be sceptical about job efforts, retaining sceptical attitudes as to rewards and managerial systems (Hanscom 2020).

Finally, this study considers the psychological contract as the underlying theory, respecting the relation between perceived appraisal politics (benefits for ratees) and acceptance of the appraisal system. However, it is vital to note that most studies in Asia have addressed the fulfilment of the psychological contract mainly attributed to the organisational factors, such as organisational justice, perceived organisational support and others (Kutaula et al., 2020). Besides, concerning the results of psychological contract fulfilments, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intention, organisational citizenship behaviour, loyalty and others have usually been measured. It would be rare to find the relation between perceived appraisal politics and the psychological contract. However, recently, a significance between performance appraisal rewards and the psychological contract was illustrated (Eyoun et al., 2020). However, O'Donnell & Shields (2002) indicated that the system of developmental appraisal can usually trigger the fulfilment of psychological contracts, such as a relational psychological contract within the public sector.

5.5 A Chapter summary

In theory, perceived appraisal politics can be normally comprised of both 1) the motivational and 2) punishment motives along with favouritism. Nonetheless, it can be easily shown that perceived appraisal politics can be relabelled to fit the Asian context. In the case of South Korea in the public sector, both the motivational and punishment motives along with favouritism are named as benefits for ratees and raters. Either individual preference or favouritism can be academically understood as unconscious bias in the context of rater biases. It is noteworthy that unconscious bias can be differentiated from cognitive bias. Unconscious bias implies that employees would be unaware of their thoughts and actions within organisations. On a different note, it is worth noticing that due to controversial issues concerning performance-based rewards, the acceptance of performance appraisal system becomes crucial. It is identified that the acceptance of the appraisal system can be attributed to both personal and organisational elements. The author takes note of the fact that the rational attitudes by individuals towards acceptance of the appraisal system can be dependent on both index-based and managerial strategy acceptances. Based upon micro and macro levels, index acceptance and managerial strategy acceptance are theoretically highlighted for this study.

To elucidate the relation between benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system, the fulfilment of the psychological contract theory can be contemplated. Besides, to grasp the relation between benefits for raters of the appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system, a feature of performance appraisals deemed by raters, such as a means of control can be addressed. On the other hand, when taking account of expectancy theory, the impacts of perceived appraisal politics could negatively affect the acceptance of the appraisal system. In other words, it is crucial to keep in mind that a negative regression coefficient could emerge.

Chapter 6 The Research context

This chapter strives to explicate the existing performance appraisals as an individual unit within the public sector in South Korea. First of all, performance appraisals for the central administrative agency are presented. Both the appraisal of performance-based contracting and evaluation of performance record have existed. Especially for the appraisal of performance-based contracting, Balanced Score Card (BSC) is referenced for establishing the strategic plans for the internal performance management. Secondly, the public institutions under the central administrative agency are highlighted. In terms of the public institutions, as the process of performance appraisals, BSC and Management by Objectives (MBO) are mostly utilised, together or apart for establishing the appraisal indicators. On the other hand, regardless of the appraisal tools, as the individual performance indicators, competency evaluation and evaluation of achievements have been addressed at times. Thirdly, the tools of BSC and MBO are illustrated. Lastly, a chapter summary is set out.

6.1 The Central administrative agency

Pertaining to the central administrative agency for civil servants, depending on a job grade, performance appraisals are composed of the appraisal of performance-based contracting and the evaluation of performance record. These are according to section 51 of the act entitled performance appraisal or evaluation (Ministry of Personnel Management 2021).

Yang & Torneo (2016, p. 281) stated that 'prior to 2006, the performance management and evaluation systems of the Korean government were dispersed and consisted of various programs administered under different agencies'. However, after the National Assembly had enacted a framework act on government performance evaluation of 2006, the comprehensive evaluation systems were set up for the central administrative agency. The framework act on government performance evaluation of 2006, as the legal ground in South

Korea, has reflected organisational, program and individual units, such as performance measurement and management, program assessment rating tools, performance agreement and others. For reference, after having enacted the framework act on government performance evaluation of 2001 in South Korea, performance management and evaluation systems in the public sector based on efficiency were introduced in earnest (Hur 2013). Interestingly, it can be said that personnel evaluation for civil servants was firstly introduced in the central administrative agency in South Korea in 1961, called as the policy and program assessment system. In this period, civil servants who are lower than grade one were subjected to being evaluated. As a guide, grade one is the highest. After 1970, civil servants who are lower than grade two were subjected to be evaluated. In the 1980s, the economic planning board was newly established; it belonged to the prime minister's coordination office for the first time. At the end of year in 1998, MBO was introduced for civil servants higher than grade five. Civil servants higher than grade five include grade four, three, two and one. Built on the appraisal indices from MBO, the appraisal of performance-based contracting was designed in 2004 (Ministry of the Interior and Safety 2012; Ministry of Personnel Management 2016). However, compared to the central administrative agency, civil servants higher than grade five in the local autonomous entity stick to MBO (Kim 2006). Referentially, a head of an organisation such as a minister should also sign an agreement for the appraisal of the performance-based contracting; it is carried out independently under the supervision of the Government Performance Evaluation Committee in South Korea (Government Performance Evaluation Committee 2017a).

To sum up, the appraisal of performance-based contracting is designed for targeting senior executive services. It is still recommended that so as to set up strategic plans, BSC can be utilised to link individual goals with performance indicators in the central administrative agency. In the beginning of the year, performance contracting can be signed. At the end of the year, work performance by a senior grade civil servant can be evaluated once a year. In addition to individual work performance, major government projects and social values are

also contemplated, when conducting the appraisal of performance-based contracting (Ministry of Personnel Management 2021).

Figure 6: The Appraisal of the performance-based contracting

<p>1-Establishing strategic plans</p> <p>Individual strategic plans can be derived from organisational missions</p>	<p>2-Performance contracting</p> <p>This Process stresses the individual agreement about performance targets and indices</p>	<p>3-Interim check</p> <p>This Process aims checking the progression of work performance</p>	<p>4-Final evaluation</p> <p>Appraisal results can be reflected in HR practices, such as qualification examinations</p>
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Original source: Ministry of Personnel Management (2021)

Concerning the evaluation of the performance record, this is created for the general public officials who are grade 5 or below. Grade five or below refers to grades five, six, seven, eight and nine among civil servants in South Korea. In the case of the appraisal period, the evaluation of performance record should be conducted twice a year such as at the end of June and December. However, the appraisal at the end of June can be usually omitted. Personal work performance and job competency are the main criteria, when going through the evaluation of performance record (Ministry of Personnel Management 2021). When referring to the relevant decree, after 2014, job performance attitude and evaluation results as department unit can be included as the evaluation items (Ministry of Personnel Management 2014).

Figure 7: The Evaluation of the performance record

<p>1-Establishing the performance goals by mutual consent</p>	<p>2-The Periodic discussions concerning performance</p>	<p>3-Evaluating performance</p>	<p>4-Result opening</p>	<p>5-The Period for raising an objection or appeal</p>	<p>6-Making a final decision</p>
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Original source: Ministry of Personnel Management (2021)

6.2 The Public institutions under the central administrative agency

According to Park (2013), in the past, performance appraisals within public institutions were only grounded upon individual performance records. However, since the mid-2000s, a fairness issue was raised. As a result, the 360-degrees appraisal tool was introduced. Nonetheless, it is found that only few public organisations have utilised the 360-degrees appraisal tool for promotion decision (Yoo 2017).

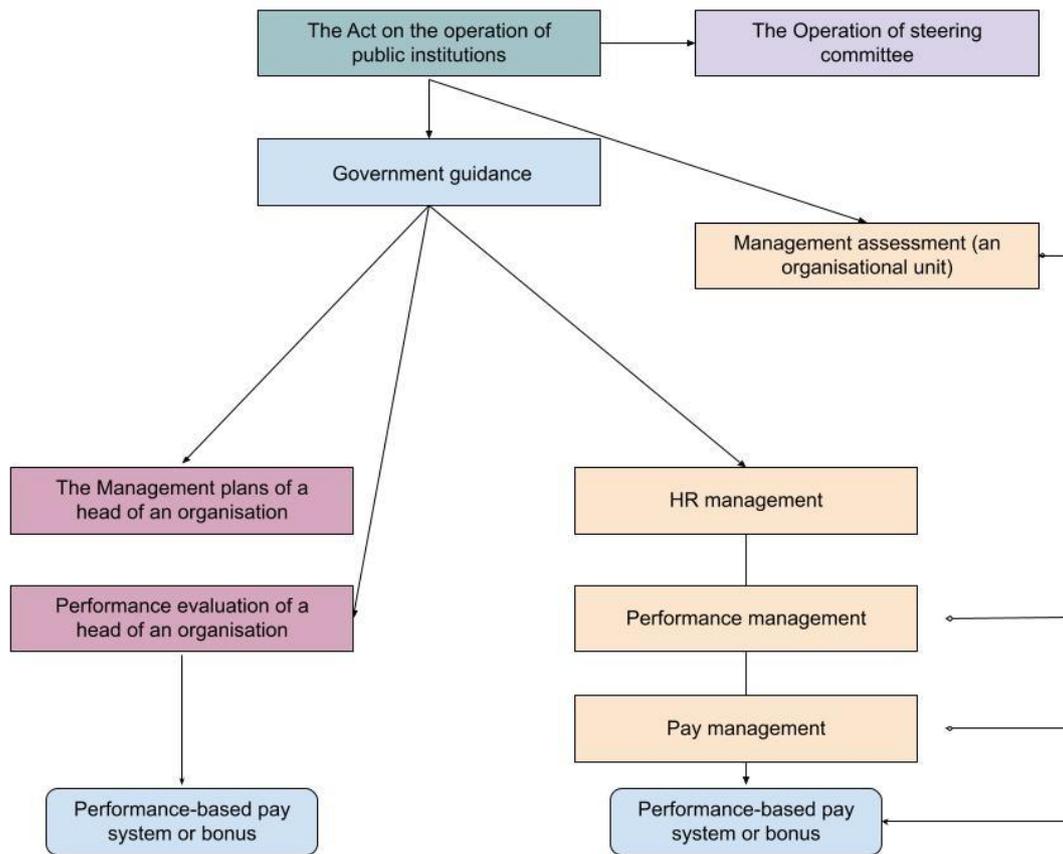
Regardless of the appraisal tools, as the individual performance indicators, competency evaluation and evaluation of achievements have been addressed at times (Hwang & Lee 2017; Kim et al., 2018c; Yoo 2020). Evaluation of achievements covers the individual and department accomplishments. Competency evaluation is based upon job and leadership competences (Lee 2017b). Interestingly, Park & Kwak (2018) discovered that results from the evaluation of achievements and competency evaluation are theoretically aggregated with career evaluation as well as evaluation for HR decisions. However, it has been pointed out that rather than pursuing learning and development, results from the evaluation of achievements are only contemplated for an annual salary based on performance.

On the other hand, regarding the internal appraisal system in the public institution, BSC and MBO are mostly addressed (Heo 2011). For instance, Korea Water Resources Corporation makes full use of BSC; Korea Electric Power Corporation conjugates MBO to forge the rational performance indicators. In addition, it is found that some of the quasi-government entities (type of consignment execution) utilised not simply BSC but also MBO. BSC is designed for internal organisations, such as departments at the main headquarter and local headquarters. MBO is set up for individual performance appraisals. With regard to BSC, performance indicators are formed, in accordance with governmental managerial evaluation and the unique business of each department. In the case of MBO, performance indicators are set up, in accordance with department Key Performance Indicator (KPI) and self-development. As a guide, it appears that based upon these, competency evaluation and

evaluation of achievements could be also formed in different ways depending on organisations.

For reference purposes, the general system of performance management for the public institutions including employee appraisals as an individual unit is illustrated as below. It is worth noting that employee appraisals are of great importance within performance management. Besides, performance evaluation for a head of an organisation is separated from others. In accordance with the act on the operation of public institutions, heads of the public institutions will be evaluated by heads of the central administrative agency (Government Performance Evaluation Committee 2017b). For reference, Choi & Ahn (2021) recently posed the question of whether performance evaluation for a head of the public institution can be politically affected by the external factors; it appears that the interests of politically distorted ratings in diverse situations are on the increase within the public sector in South Korea. Except for a head of an organisation, the results of external management assessment (an organisational unit) and internal performance management (affiliated organisational and individual units) make impacts on performance-based pay systems or bonuses (Park 2019a). In addition to performance-based pay systems or bonuses, promotions, feedback and share of performance are dependent upon the results of external management assessment and internal performance management. As a result, except for a head of an organisation in the public sector, all individuals will be involved in performance appraisals as an individual unit in the work place.

Figure 8: The General system of performance management for the public institutions in South Korea



Original source: Ra (2011)

6.3 The Denotation of BSC and MBO

So then, it would be curious of the significance of KPI as well as the denotation of BSC and MBO in theory. BSC concerns the strategy mapping and performance measurement with a KPI (Northcott & Ma'amora Taulapapa 2012). Although the performance measurement system helps individuals realise how diverse business areas are performing, it would be tough to accurately choose what to measure as a KPI at any level (Hedge & Kavanagh 1988). KPI is one of the essential parts of Performance Indicator (PI). PI comprises of financial metrics; non-financial metrics; long-term metrics; short-term metrics; interior metrics; exterior metrics and a leading indicator. With reference to the BSC, this appraisal tool has

been hailed as strategic planning as it is able to monitor work progress towards a strategic target (Politis 2003). Towards strategic targets for organisational visions, Kaplan & Norton (1996) suggested four perspectives and missions regarding BSC. Firstly, customer perspective can view the organisational performance from the point of view of a customer; secondly, an internal process perspective refers to organisational performance through the lenses of quality and efficiency, involved in key business services; thirdly, a financial perspective also renamed stewardship can view organisational financial performance. And finally, learning and growth perspective features in human capital, technology and culture which can play a key role in promoting performance (Johnsen 2001; Kaplan & Norton 2001). This can be renamed organisational capacity as it can refer to organisational performance through various sorts of components (Modell 2004). Nevertheless, there is an indication that BSC within the public sector would be implemented by central planning by stressing the top-down approach (Radnor & McGuire 2004). Especially in the public sector in South Korea, the public institutions weren't weighted towards financial metrics in a relative sense (Kwon et al., 2017). Rather than valuing the significance of the idiopathic performance indicators, BSC is essentially related to appraisals and rewards (Kim & Rhee 2012; Park et al., 2017). Nonetheless, Jang & Yoon (2010) identified that respecting National Tax Service, four different perspectives regarding BSC are revised to fit the perspectives of National Tax Service in South Korea. For instance, customer perspective is changed to relation perspective. An internal perspective is converted to innovation and management perspective, based upon internal business process. A financial perspective is changed to the perspective of policy implementation.

In terms of MBO, from a leader's perspective, this is the process to clarify specific organisational objectives that leaders can deliver to individuals as a point of managers. Nonetheless, this emphasises on clearly defined objectives agreed on by both leaders and employees (Drucker 2006). Hence, according to Duffy (1989), it is believed that MBO is based upon the two-way communication approach. According to Odiorne (1976), the program of MBO can encompass goal settings, budgeting, autonomy, feedback and rewards.

Also noteworthy is that MBO views the self-control by objectives as the most important. This is because this process aims to increase employee empowerment (McConkie 1979). Employee empowerment can help to activate communications between leaders and rank-and-file employees for sharing a sense of accomplishments and feedback (Fan Bonai & Li 2006; Nomura et al., 2019). The lack of importance regarding the empowerment assessment can provoke the perception of political distortions (Xenopoulou 2016). For reference, Thompson et al. (1981) illustrated that MBO can be split into the public and private sectors depending on an economic standard. Due to bureaucracy and validity of performance indicators, individuals can struggle more when moving towards the goal setting in the public sector. Nonetheless, Sherwood & Page (1976, p. 5) stated that ‘MBO does have its attractions; it can make its contributions to more effective management of public services. However, it is not a whole system for managing’. It can be instrumental in performance appraisals and planning.

All things considered, a summary table respecting comparison between MBO and BSC is furnished as below:

Table 9: Summary of main points for MBO vs. BSC

MBO vs. BSC		
A Management tool	MBO	BSC
The Approach type	The Two-way communication approach	The Top-down approach
The Administrative structure	Run by the HR department	Run by a task force team
The Planned goal	A Short-term goal	Short-term or long-term goals with macroscopic indices
The Utilisation of performance indicators	Performance indices fit to idiopathic jobs or relevant to KPI	KPI is derived from BSC as an organisational unit and an internal organisational unit
The Feedback type	Job evaluation (Top-down)	Mainly top-down
The Type of unit	An Individual unit	Organisational and internal organisational units such as affiliated organisations or each department

Original source: Tennant & Tanoren (2005)

6.4 A Chapter summary

With respect to the central administrative agency for civil servants, the appraisal of performance-based contracting is formed for targeting senior executive services. The appraisal of performance-based contracting is normally applicable toward civil servants who are grade 4 or higher, such as 3, 2 and 1. Pertaining to strategic plans for the appraisal of performance-based contracting, BSC can be used to connect individual goals with performance indicators. In addition to this, in the case of the evaluation of the performance record, this is designed for the general public officials who are grade 5 or below. Grade five or below stands for grades five, six, seven, eight and nine among civil servants. It is crucial to note that personal work performance and job competency are the main criteria for the general public officials in South Korea.

With regards to the public institutions under the central administrative agency, competency evaluation and evaluation of achievements are occasionally set out as the individual performance indicators, regardless of the appraisal tools. Concerning internal organisations comprised of departments at the main headquarter and local headquarters, BSC is mainly used to single out KPI. In accordance with governmental managerial evaluation and the unique business of each department, performance indicators can be set up. On the contrary, MBO is designed for individual performance appraisals. Accordingly, performance indicators can be formed, in accordance with both department KPI and self-development.

BSC, as a widely used appraisal tool, has been considered to be strategic planning, since work progress towards a strategic target can be effectively monitored. BSC features in four perspectives and missions. MBO, deemed as the two-way communication approach, concerns clearly defined objectives agreed on by both leaders and employees. Nevertheless, MBO considers the self-control by objectives to be a priority factor.

Chapter 7 Conceptual framework and methodology

This chapter aims to explicate the proposed conceptual framework and methodology for this thesis. First off, the research model is furnished. Following this, the research hypothesis and research questions are set out, comprised of 3 research questions and 4 hypotheses. In the wake of research philosophy, research approach, research methodology, research design, research method are illustrated. Following this, piloting the research survey is addressed to refine some sentences within the questionnaires and to confirm the validity of measures, prior to the full-scale study. Viewed in this light, the section entitled 'piloting the research survey' is followed by the section titled 'data collection' and 'measurement variables' for a full-scale study. The section respecting measurement variables for a full-scale study is furnished within this chapter comprised of 11 latent constructs and 1 control variable.

7.1 Research model

From the basis of perceived organisational politics, it is possible to grasp the diverse determinants of perceived appraisal politics which need to be addressed (Babagana et al., 2019). After reading through the relevant literatures as above, the proposed framework for the South Korean context is presented in this section. Referentially, the research model for this thesis is inspired by the heuristic framework conducted by Levy & Williams's research in 2004. It appears that rather than perennial functions such as organisational features and appraisal format, process-oriented factors for jobs in relation to the work environment influences may come to the fore (De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia 2017; Ramkumar 2020). Having reviewed precedent studies, this research takes note of task interdependence within a team, interactions with others, low job autonomy, low fairness of job rotation as the job environmental dimension. Concerning task interdependence within a team, this variable is conceptually based on Park's research in 2014 for the perception of appraisal politics in

South Korea. In terms of interactions with others, this determinant factor is derived from Ferris et al.'s study in 1989 for perceptions of organisational politics. In addition, low job autonomy is addressed for the context of the perceptions of organisational politics. Due to the limited numbers of the construct respecting the perception of organisational politics, this research refers to other relevant literatures. Breugh (1999) developed a nine-item scale for job autonomy. Reliability coefficients (Cronbach's Alpha = 0.915) of the constructs of job autonomy have been found by Saragih (2011). Thus, the variable for low job autonomy is derived from Breugh's development in 1999. Pertaining to the low fairness of job rotation, the constructs of fairness with regard to job rotation are derived from Jeon's study in 2015 for the public sector in South Korea. By testing the reliability analysis of the procedural fairness of job rotation, a good cronbach's alpha score was discovered for variables.

In addition to the perceptions of organisational politics, it is said that the challenges of performance appraisals may be attributed to variables for the supervisor dimension (Witt 1998; Ramous Agyare et al., 2016). This is because performance ratings are fundamentally decided by supervisors, which can affect the individual perception of performance appraisals (Klimoski & London 1974; Bizzi 2018). The author believes that the determinant factors of perceived appraisal politics by raters can arouse a ratee's sympathy, when reviewing the literature of perceived appraisal politics. After reviewing the literature searches, this study pays attention to ambiguity of appraisal policies, higher supervisor discretion and lower rater accountability as the rater dimension (Tziner et al., 2005). Concerning ambiguity of appraisal policies, this element is derived from Dhmin & Singh's research in 2007 stressing the rater's perspectives. With regard to supervisor discretion, variables from De Castro's study in 2017 are presented. In general, discretionary actions can be likewise attributed to the relevance of ambiguous practices within organisations (Salimäki & Jämsén 2010; Ugoani 2020). Based on supervisor-driven subjective performance evaluation, it is likely that supervisor discretion can result in rater biases. In addition to this, supervisor discretion may lead to decision-making in performance ratings, especially for

financial rewards (Bawole et al., 2013). Accordingly, it is quite probable that perceived appraisal politics can be raised by others when supervisor discretion affects performance ratings. In the case of lower rater accountability, previous studies linked with performance appraisals in the public sector in South Korea are considered and duly weighed, such as Park's thesis in 2013. Interestingly, depending on rater accountability, individuals can differently perceive the appraisal politics, when referring to Ahn & Cho's study in 2018.

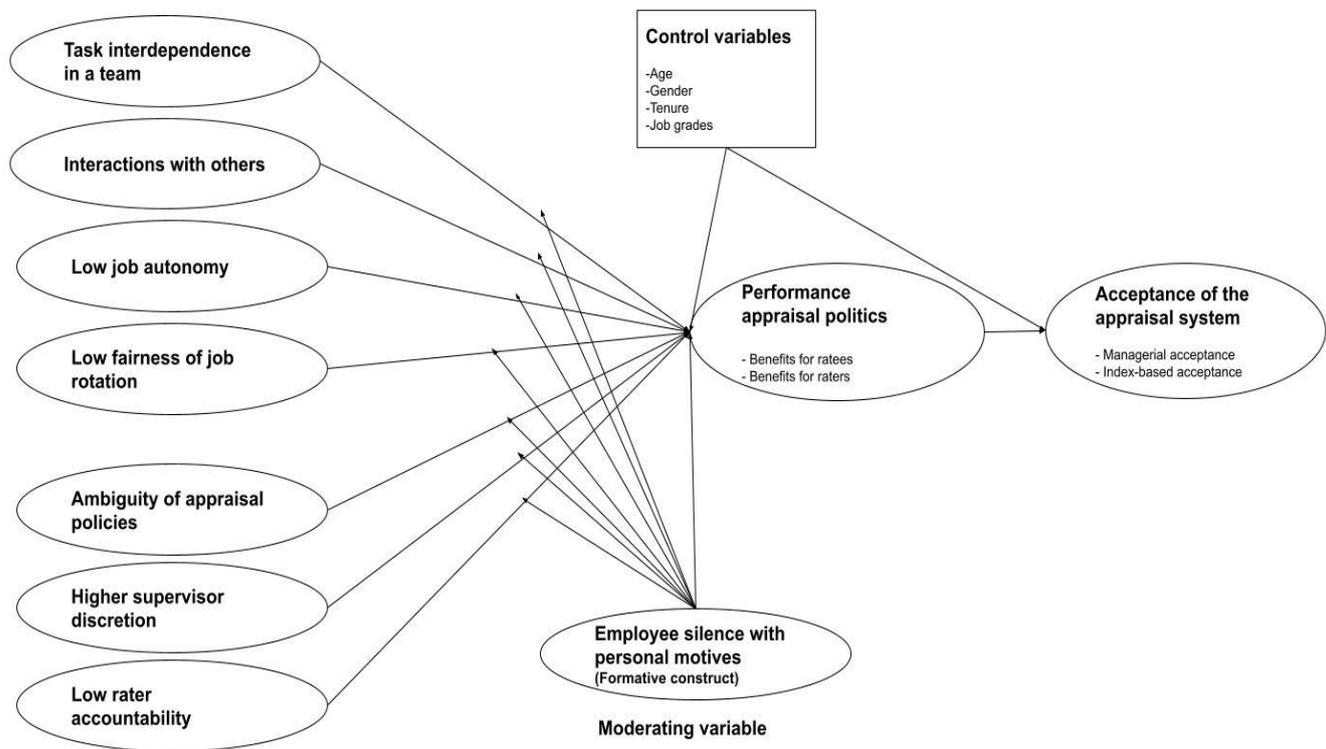
As the moderating effect, it is assumed that employee silence may impact the relation between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics, deemed as a third variable. Employee silence is hailed as an absent behaviour that implies personal motives. Thus, it would be more complicated to measure the absent behaviour at work than the obvious behaviour in the work place (Acaray & Akturan 2015; Su et al., 2017). As a result, researchers should carefully decide one construct between the unitary construct of silence and the multidimensional construct of silence, while drawing up a structural model (Dedahanov et al., 2016). When considering this issue, it is more appropriate to employ the formative higher order construct of employee silence for the unitary construct of employee silence. This is because employee silence as the moderating effect is firstly addressed. Therefore, rather than building a theory, predicting a target construct should be a priority. This study places importance on employee silence with personal motives in the South Korean context; the relevant variables are derived from Choi & Park's study in 2017 for the development and validation of the silence motivation scale. Acquiescent, defensive, disengaged, opportunistic and relational silence motivations are presented as a formative construct.

When it comes to performance appraisal politics, built on Ahn & Cho's study in 2018, both benefits for ratees and benefits for raters in the South Korean context are presented; as noted, the individual perception concerning the phenomenon of appraisal politics is presented. Two variables consisting of benefits for ratees and benefits for raters are basically grounded upon Tziner et al.'s study in 1996.

With regards to the acceptance of performance appraisal system, this research takes note of the factors of index-based and managerial-based acceptances developed by Kim et al.'s study in 2018b.

In addition to the selected determinants of perceived appraisal politics, control variables such as gender, tenure, age and job grades are addressed for the hypothesised model. This is because demographic factors can impact upon the perception of appraisal politics (Poon 2003; Muhammad 2007; Meisler et al., 2019). For instance, depending on job grades, individuals can diversely perceive appraisal politics at work (Gandz & Murray 1980). In a similar vein, control variables should be dealt towards acceptance of the appraisal system to limit the confounding influences between constructs (Roberts 1994).

Figure 9: The Proposed conceptual framework using path analysis



Source: the Author (2022)

7.2 Research hypothesis and research questions

The proposed conceptual framework above is designed, utilising both the model of organisational politics perceptions and perceptions of appraisal politics. Grounded upon the conceptual framework, the following research questions are suggested as below, in order to answer the research objectives as stated earlier.

Research question 1: What are the determinants of perceived appraisal politics?

Research question 2: How does employee silence affect the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics?

Research question 3: How does perceived appraisal politics intervene in the relationship between its determinants and the acceptance of the appraisal system?

So as to answer these research questions, a set of the hypotheses of this research is presented. These hypotheses are tested within the public sector in South Korea.

Hypothesis 1: The factors of the job environmental dimension affect perceived appraisal politics

H1a: Task interdependence in a team increases perceived appraisal politics

H1b: Interactions with others augment perceived appraisal politics

H1c: Low job autonomy influences perceived appraisal politics

H1d: Low fairness of job rotation elevates perceived appraisal politics

Hypothesis 2: The factors of the rater dimension influence perceived appraisal politics

H2a: Ambiguity of appraisal policies increases perceived appraisal politics

H2b: Higher supervisor discretion augments perceived appraisal politics

H2c: Low rater accountability affects perceived appraisal politics

Hypothesis 3: Employee silence impacts upon the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics

H3a: Employee silence affects the relationship between the factors of the job environmental dimension and perceived appraisal politics

H3b: Employee silence influences the relationship between the factors of the rater dimension and perceived appraisal politics

H3c: Employee silence augments perceived appraisal politics

Hypothesis 4: Perceived appraisal politics mediate the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system

H4a: Perceived appraisal politics affect managerial acceptance of the appraisal system in public organisations

H4b: Perceived appraisal politics fully mediate the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system

H4c: Perceived appraisal politics affect index-based acceptance of the appraisal system in public organisations

H4d: Perceived appraisal politics fully mediate the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and index-based acceptance of the appraisal system

7.3 Research philosophy

According to Ryan (2018), philosophical research paradigms should be utilised to guide research methods and analysis of a thesis. This is because it is occasionally reported that some researchers might have struggled to progress a research project, on account of the incoherent classification of research philosophies. Hence, it becomes crucial for a researcher to find out diverse sorts of philosophical paradigms, so as to opt for a research design in an appropriate way (Mkansi & Acheampong 2012). In addition, since the philosophical perspectives are highly associated with certain research methodologies, the appointed research philosophy should be in line with a specific research methodology.

According to Elgendi (2021), it is worth paying attention to four main types of philosophies of research, such as interpretivism, realism, pragmatism and positivism. These four sorts of

philosophies are stressed in the context of the research onion (Callaghan 2018). Saunders et al. (2007) have addressed the research onion to elucidate each stage for writing a thesis step by step. According to Melnikovas (2018), the diagram of the research onion has been deemed as a systematic model of designing research methodology. The research onion diagram is included in [Appendix A](#). The research onion is comprised of six main layers, such as 1) philosophy, 2) approach, 3) strategy, 4) choices of methods, 5) time horizons and 6) data collection and analysis.

With regards to the research philosophy, Zolfagharian et al. (2019) stated that based on the delineation of ontology, epistemology and axiology, a study basis can be established by the research philosophy, such as interpretivist epistemology. In this context, ontology refers to nature of reality. Epistemology is involved with either nature or sources of knowledge. Axiology concerns beliefs, values and ethics of the study (Venable 2011). Theoretically, interpretivism stands for multiple realities, comprehending the significance which humans attach to their behaviour (Yanow & Ybema 2009). Respecting realism, it is split into two types consisting of direct and critical realism. Direct realism argues that what individuals experience can represent the world in an accurate way. On the contrary, critical realism assumes the flexibility of future. Individuals perceive the images of real entities, nor the real entities themselves. Through generative mechanisms, knowledge can be acquired to elucidate possible future constraints (Gorski 2013).

Pragmatism is grounded upon assumption that both positivist and interpretivist elements can be employed, when contemplating the research questions. Positivism is based upon fact that knowledge can be attained by causal and functional relationships (Ihuah & Eaton 2013). Hence, a hypothetic deductive model of science in line with a previous theory is suggested. Through a previous theory, variables can be obtained. Following this, testing a set of hypotheses can be carried out for future studies in a relevant subject area. For reference, positivism insists that entities can exist, independent of human beings, such as either ideas or social structures (Mingers 2004). In contrast to this, interpretivism maintains that entities, such as the unique world, can't pre-exist, independent of human beings including human

mental activity and symbolic languages. The role of each person in the society is underpinned (Schwandt 1994). Referentially, the knowledge obtained in this discipline concerns being perceived in our society (Hudson & Ozanne 1988).

This research is grounded upon an existing theory, such as perceived appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system. In addition, the causal relationship is empirically investigated, such as perceived appraisal politics and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system. Viewed in this light, this research has opted for 'the positivism philosophy' to empirically examine existing theories. The main aim of positivism paradigm is to investigate the causal relationships of existing theories (Hammersley 1995; Alakwe 2017). In consideration of interpretivist epistemology, perceived knowledge can be deemed as crucial, such as the perception of appraisal politics. However, the author doesn't only focus on exploring the perception of appraisal politics. Through positivist epistemology, this study strives to identify the casual relationships and the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and acceptance of the appraisal system. Therefore, compared to interpretivist epistemology, positivist epistemology is in line with this study. Positivist epistemology in the context of employee appraisals can help to secure objective knowledge through testing hypotheses (Tornow 1993). According to Bonache (2021), even though most scholars believe that positivism is connected with quantitative methods, a strong tradition of qualitative positivism can be found in the realm of HRM. Qualitative positivism has been hailed as the dominant paradigm in HRM in a relative sense. Through qualitative positivism, researchers can summarise patterns for generalised findings, instead of statistical tools. Nonetheless, respecting the multinational organisations, a point in dispute can be raised. Therefore, it would be also vital to grasp causal relationships among HR constructs through statistical means.

Based on Saunders et al.'s insights and Melnikovas's theoretical concept, a summary table for the research onion, also known as a model of designing research methodology, is furnished.

Table 10: Summary of main points for the research onion

A Model of designing research methodology	
Six layers	The Research onion
1. Research philosophy	1-1. Positivism 1-2. Realism 1-3. Interpretivism 1-4. Pragmatism
2. Research approach	2-1. Deduction 2-2. Abduction 2-3. Induction
3. Methodological choice	3-1. Mono method quantitative 3-2. Mono method qualitative 3-3. Multi method quantitative 3-4. Multi method qualitative 3-5. Mixed method
4. Research strategy	4-1. Survey 4-2. Case study 4-3. Action research 4-4. Grounded theory 4-5. Narrative inquiry and others
5. Time horizon	5-1. Cross-sectional 5-2. Longitudinal
6. Technique and process	Data collection and data analysis

Original source: Saunders et al. (2007)

7.4 Research approach

Concerning research approach, either deductive (quantitative) or inductive (qualitative) approaches can be mainly contemplated (Cameron & Price 2009). This research, however, utilises the deductive research approach. This is because the deductive approach entails hypothesis testing based upon existing theories. The deductive approach has been widely utilised by scholars planning to adopt quantitative research. Größler & Milling (2007, p. 6) stated that ‘the deductive approach identifies sensitive policies and parameters without aiming at suggesting detailed changes’. The starting points of deductive are organisational phenomena. On the other hand, normally, the inductive approach has been used for most qualitative studies in the field of management studies (Woiceshyn & Daellenbach 2018; Karacay 2021). So as to discern the differences in a concrete way, it is worth noticing that the inductive approach is associated with building a theory to emerge from a dominant theme (Hyde 2000). The aim of the inductive approach is to comprehend a new phenomenon with diverse perspectives, while the deductive approach is focused on causality among variables (Thomas 2006). As a result, the inductive approach utilises a set of

research questions to narrow the sphere of the study. In contrast, for the deductive approach, hypotheses are mainly focused for testing a theory. The most important thing to remember is that when the theory exists, deduction can be conducted from theory to empirical investigation (Spector et al., 2014). However, to respond a problematic issue immediately, the use of inductive approach can be contemplated (McQuiggan et al., 2008). After reviewing the relevant literatures concerning the perception of appraisal politics, this study confirms a use of research hypotheses and a reason why the deductive approach is contemplated for this thesis.

7.5 Research methodology

Alharahsheh & Pius (2020, p. 40) illustrated that 'methodology is concerned with the general research strategy followed to conduct research, this as a result would identify the methods to be used and match with the outlined research strategy'. For reference, survey is the strategy for this thesis. In the same manner, Creswell (2003) stated that research methodology is hailed as the plan of actions for conducting a research. On the other hand, research methods are regarded as the collection and analysis techniques, such as questionnaires and interview. Thus, research methodology generally involves research design, data gathering and data analysis. When it comes to research methodology, it is vital to address why this research has been conducted, such as how the research problem can be addressed, how research hypotheses have been established, which a set of data has been collected, which research method has been utilised and why a certain technique has been contemplated for analysing a set of data. Therefore, research methodology can be classified as either quantitative or qualitative (Goundar 2012). When referring to Elgendi's study in 2021, what's noteworthy is that the section of research methodology should cover six factors, such as philosophy, research approach, research design, research strategy, data collection section, analysis and interpreting an analysis. In the realm of business with management study, the quantitative methodology is underpinned by the positivist research

paradigm (Tuli 2010). The realist ontology and empiricist epistemology from the positivist paradigm pursue the research methodology which can demonstrate causality among variables, through testing hypotheses (Antwi & Hamza 2015). Accordingly, this research has adopted the quantitative research methodology.

7.6 Research design

According to Creswell & Creswell (2017), qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches are contained within the selection of a research design. After reviewing previous studies for perceived appraisal politics, it is quite obvious that mostly all empirical studies have used the quantitative research design. The aim of quantitative research is to discover the relation between independent variables and dependent variables. Thus, the quantitative research design can be 1) descriptive, 2) experimental and 3) causal comparative (Williams 2007). Within descriptive study design, a researcher can attempt to measure variables as it is; it is not necessary to make a change of conditions. In this context, case, case series, cross-sectional, longitudinal and case-control studies are contained as types of the descriptive study. Concerning experimental study design, a researcher should put efforts into contemplating some interventions after conducting a first try of measurements. Subsequently, another measurement can be made to grasp what can occur. In this regard, most researchers can work without a control group or with a control group. For reference, longitudinal study belongs to both the descriptive study and the experimental study. Nonetheless, the main difference is that longitudinal study from the descriptive study features without interventions. In contrast, longitudinal study from the experimental study regards interventions as crucial. For instance, in terms of single-subject design, measurements are repeatedly carried out, before and after interventions on a number of factors (Hopkins 2000). Pertaining to causal comparative research design, the aim of this design is to assess how the independent variables are influenced by the dependent variables,

comprehending causal relation among variables. In short, this research has adopted the descriptive study design from the quantitative method approach.

7.7 Research method

According to Rahi (2017), contrary to the qualitative method which focuses on collecting the in-depth information on a specific topic, quantitative method mainly emphasises on the data collection from large population and data analysis. This study adopts questionnaires for data collections. Questionnaires can result in quantitative data such as demographics in this study (Pole 2007). To be more specific, the use of internet questionnaires was employed instead of face-to-face interviews, owing to the global pandemic. For reference, in an empirical positivist research, rather than to face-to-face interviews, the use of postal questionnaires and the use of internet questionnaires seem to be predominant as the method of data collection (Ling et al., 2009; Woodside 2010). Referentially, according to Saunders et al. (2016), research method can be divided into three methods. Such examples are mono method, mixed methods and multi method. With reference to data gathering, mono method can be either mono method quantitative or mono method qualitative (Azorín & Cameron 2010). Mixed methods focus on both quantitative and qualitative methods adopted at the same time, so as to fulfil different aims. Multi method likewise stresses both quantitative and qualitative methods, but quantitative or qualitative can be regarded as supplementary. Accordingly, this research is relevant to 'mono method quantitative'.

The survey data is analysed, through a multivariate analysis method. To be more specific, Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modelling (PLS-SEM) is employed. Hence, regression equation from a PLS-SEM is conducted. According to Ringle et al. (2020), PLS-SEM is suitable for measuring universalistic associations for HRM studies. In addition to a universalistic theorising mode, contingency, contextual and configurational modes exist. These modes are suitable for practical contributions in HRM.

Utilising PLS-SEM helps a researcher to estimate complicated cause-effect relationship models with latent variables. This is because PLS-SEM assures factor determinacy with latent variable scores and factor indication with flexible residual covariance structure. PLS-SEM can work properly for the robust prediction even in the small sample size, with asymmetric distribution and interdependent observations (Akter et al., 2017). When reviewing precedent studies of performance appraisal politics, it appears that first order reflective constructs in PLS-SEM have been utilised (Imran et al., 2019). Additionally, when considering the prediction-oriented context for the impact of performance appraisals, PLS-SEM is regarded as suitable (Sabiu et al., 2019). There are specific reasons why Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) has been widely used in the social science. Mohamad et al. (2019) clarified that SEM is deemed as a powerful multivariate statistical analysis technique comprised of factor analysis and multiple regression analysis. The first reason is that SEM for simultaneous analysis can provide all structural relations. In contrast, regression asks a researcher to investigate each path separately when assessing structural relationships (Lowry & Gaskin 2014). The second reason is relevant to error in each measured item. Astrachan et al. (2014) stated that SEM is similar to multiple regression analysis due to the implications of techniques. However, multiple regression analysis assumes that each measured item is irrelevant to error. On the other hand, covariance-based SEM considers error in the data as crucial to increase the level of accuracy concerning theory confirmation. Within the social science, it would be vital to consider error within the structural model. This is because it is infeasible to observe latent constructs directly (Hair et al., 2017).

Concerning the major approach of SEM, in addition to PLS-SEM, covariance-based SEM exists. These two approaches have differences regarding cause-effect relationships among latent variables. PLS-SEM is utilised for playing down the error terms and maximising the R-Squared values of the endogenous variables. For reference, PLS-SEM considers the error terms as an independent factor. That is to say, PLS-SEM focuses on maximising the explained variance concerning the dependent variable (Schubring et al., 2016).

PLS-SEM utilises a regression-based ordinary least squares estimation method. On the contrary, covariance-based SEM is based upon a maximum likelihood estimation procedure. Parameters are estimated, minimising the difference between the sample covariance matrix and the implied covariance matrix. The covariance-based approach refers to reproducing the theoretical covariance matrix, without focusing on the explained variance (Amaro et al., 2015). Accordingly, Hair Jr et al. (2014a) stated that a research can utilise PLS-SEM with non-normal data, as an algorithm transforms non-normal data based upon the central limit theorem. That is to say, PLS-SEM is free from the normal distribution of data. PLS-SEM is grounded upon non-parametric bootstrapping. As a result, to predict major target constructs, PLS-SEM has been widely employed in the social science discipline (Muddat et al., 2021). Rigdon et al. (2017) indicated that the use of PLS-SEM can have larger statistical power than the use of covariance-based SEM. However, PLS-SEM is considered less accurate in comparison to Linear Structural Relations. Nonetheless, as opposed to covariance-based SEM, PLS-SEM can facilitate the use of formative higher order constructs (Sarstedt et al., 2019). Roni et al. (2015) take it that covariance-based SEM can make the use of higher order construct more parsimonious than other methods. However, it is challenging for a researcher to fulfil indication requirements. This study goes for PLS-SEM, due to a use of the formative higher order constructs, the complicated model and links with the exploratory stage for prediction. Although the complexity of the research model is employed, the robustness of results could be secured in PLS-SEM. For reference, before designing either the formative first order constructs or the formative second order constructs, it is worth considering not only theoretical but also nomological levels. Formative constructs can be designed with variables from a distinct set of a phenomenon. Besides, it is recommended to think of the actionable attributes of a phenomenon (Cenfetelli & Bassellier 2009).

In short, when focusing on model fit as the goal of a research, covariance-based SEM should be chosen. However, when contemplating an early stage for prediction and formative measurement constructs, PLS-SEM should be selected. As it maximises the R-Squared values of the endogenous variables, this study opts for PLS-SEM as a multivariate analysis method. SmartPLS version 3 can be used as a software tool. A summary table is given as below:

Table 11: Covariance-based SEM vs. PLS-SEM

Covariance-based SEM vs. PLS-SEM		
The Criteria for classification	Covariance-based SEM	PLS-SEM
The Research goal	When the research goal is theory testing, covariance-based SEM should be used. This can be applied for either confirmatory or explanatory research	When the research goal is associated with predicting a target construct, PLS-SEM should be employed
The Structural model	When the structural model covers circular relationships, covariance-based SEM should be utilised	When the structural model is complicated, PLS-SEM should be chosen
Measured constructs	When the structural model is based upon all reflective indicators, covariance-based SEM should be chosen	When formative constructs exist as a part of the structural model, it is better to employ PLS-SEM than covariance-based SEM
The Higher order construct	The use of covariance-based SEM can make the higher order construct more parsimonious, but needs to fulfil indication requirements	PLS-SEM can uniquely facilitate a formative higher order construct
Sample size	The sample size of data should be more than 200	The small sample size can be acceptable

Original source: SmartPLS (no date-a)

7.8 Piloting the research survey

Prior to a main study, as a rehearsal, piloting the research survey should be implemented. Maiyaki & Mohd Mokhtar (2011) claimed that a pilot study should be called as a dress rehearsal. A small scale of the research survey can have some objectives before conducting full-scale research, such as testing either validity or reliability. Through a pilot study, items for each construct can be refined for the full-scale study (Ahmad & Ahmad 2018). According to Roscoe et al. (2019), piloting the research survey can be useful to verify the instrument, confirming the clarity of wording. In summary, prior to the full-scale study, 1) content

validity, 2) construct validity and reliability, 3) the sample size in the pilot study and 4) the recommendation of sample size in PLS-SEM are furnished within this section.

7.8.1 Content validity

According to Haddoud (2015), as a first step, the first draft of questionnaire should be evaluated for its content. The first draft of questionnaire was sent and reviewed by other post graduate students in the field of business, HRM and public management. Likewise, the first draft of questionnaire was reviewed by the supervisory team for the comments of experts. When referencing to Haddoud's study in 2015, this process is regarded as vital to make sure that 1) the grammar and spellings are obvious in a questionnaire, 2) questions can imply the intended meaning, 3) a cover letter is clear and 4) each question shouldn't be too long. Peytchev & Peytcheva (2017) likewise stated that long survey questions can lead to measurement errors. Thus, questions should speak briefly and clearly in consideration of the viewpoints of participants in general (Schober & Conrad 1997).

After having reviewed the first draft of questionnaire, it was reported that some questions for the issue of appraisal politics seemed to be overlapped. The first draft of questionnaire had the following issues as below:

1. Checking grammar and spellings are required once more
2. The intended meaning regarding the determinants of perceived appraisal politics should be distinct
3. Some questions in the section of employee silence seem to be too long
4. The process of translations from English to Korean should be conducted once more
5. Translation techniques should be addressed

After having accepted the valuable advice as stated above, the second draft of questionnaire was formed. Thereafter, the questionnaire for the pilot study was sent to be completed by public officials in the public institutions under the central administrative agency, such as the quasi-government entity in South Korea. In the realm of public

management, a pilot study can be conducted, in accordance with around ten percent of the sample size for a full-scale study (Kulkarni & Desarda 2020). It appears that the pilot studies with a number of participants ranging from around 40 to 80 employees were conducted recently in OB studies (Al-Kaseasbeh et al., 2019; Mahmud et al., 2020). Overall, the pilot study was tested by 46 public officials in the public sector in South Korea.

7.8.2 Construct validity and reliability

According to Mohajan (2017, p. 59), in theory, 'validity can be referred to as what an instrument measures and how well it does so'. Besides, 'reliability can represent how an instrument consistently measures what it is supposed to'. Accordingly, both validity and reliability are concepts to examine the quality of research. As a result, diverse statistical testing tools have been employed in the field of HRM or OB studies (Vihari et al., 2018; Nurlina et al., 2020). For instance, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), PLS-SEM and covariance-based SEM are employed.

According to Chan & Idris (2017), to confirm the validity and reliability of instruments, exploratory factor analysis and cronbach's alpha can be used. When the relationships among latent constructs are ambiguous or unknown, exploratory factor analysis is conducted to evaluate the construct validity. On the contrary, Confirmatory factor Analysis (CFA) can be utilised to evaluate construct validity, when a previously stated theoretical model exists (Knekta et al., 2019). As a guide, the minor cross-loadings on non-targeted factors often discovered in CFA can arouse biased estimates (Xiao et al., 2019). Although the same data set can be employed, exploratory factor analysis and CFA can have two different outcomes respecting validity. For instance, two items were dropped, due to hampering the convergent validity in exploratory factor analysis. In contrast, one item was removed, on account of hampering the discriminant validity in CFA (Choi & Yoo 2017).

Even though there are several statistical tools for examining construct validity, at the current stage for the pilot study, it is recommended to fall back on a certain instrument, such as highly ranked journal papers (Pandey & Pandey 2019). To be more specific, when referring to Haddoud’s study in 2015, it is vital to make sure that all indicators have been evaluated in previous studies elaborately. As result, it can hardly be doubted that the indicators of measurement variables can be retrieved from the papers in highly ranked journals. Such examples are Human Resource Management, Journal of Management, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Journal of Vocational Behavior, Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly, The British Accounting Review, Vikalpa, Organizational Dynamics, Journal of Business Ethics, Personnel Review, Journal of Business and Psychology, Korean Institute of Public Affairs, Journal of the Korea Society of Computer and Information, Korean Journal of Culture and Social Issues. In a nutshell, a summary table is given as below. Each grade denoted on a summary table, is grounded upon the Academic Journal Guide in 2021 by Association of Business Schools (ABS) (2021). Respecting the journals of South Korea, the Korea citation index (KCI) impact factor from 2018 to 2020 is furnished (KCI 2021).

Table 12: The Grade of highly ranked journals

The Construct validity for the pilot study		
Author	Journal	Grade
Dello Russo et al. (2017)	Human Resource Management	4
Ferris & Kacmar (1992)	Journal of Management	4
Levy & Williams (2004)	Journal of Management	4
Ferris et al. (2007)	Journal of Management	4
Tziner et al. (1996)	Journal of Organizational Behavior	4
Hochwarter et al. (2003)	Journal of Vocational Behavior	4
Ferris & King (1991)	Organizational Dynamics	3
Ferris & King (1992)	Journal of Business Ethics	3
Breaugh (1999)	Journal of Business and Psychology	3
De Castro (2017)	The British Accounting Review	3
Kim et al. (2018)	Nonprofit and Voluntary Sector Quarterly	3
Poon (2004)	Personnel Review	2
Dhiman & Singh (2007)	Vikalpa	1

Kidron & Peretz (2018)	International Journal of Organizational Analysis	1
Choi & Park (2017)	Korean Journal of Culture and Social Issues	2.27*
Ahn & Cho (2018)	Korean Institute of Public Affairs	1.41*

2.27 and 1.41* denote impact factors in KCI*

With regards to reliability, for the stage of pilot study, both cronbach's alpha and composite reliability are illustrated. The threshold of cronbach's alpha should be greater than 0.6 (Ramli 2019). In the PLS-SEM, the minimum value for composite reliability should be higher than 0.7 (Mohd Dzin & Lay 2021). Just as a footnote, it is crucial to keep in mind that the values lower than 0.60 can imply the lack of reliability, even for a pilot study (Johan et al., 2017).

An abbreviation of each latent variable regarding the pilot study is given as below. At this stage, three silence motives are abbreviated as EMS_A, EMS_B and EMS_C.

1. Task Interdependence in a Team is abbreviated to 'TAS'.
2. Interactions with Others can be abbreviated to 'INT'.
3. Low Job Autonomy is abbreviated to 'LJA'.
4. Low Fairness of Job rotation is abbreviated to 'LFJ'.
5. Ambiguity of Appraisal Policies is abbreviated to 'AMB'.
6. Higher Supervisor Discretion is abbreviated to 'HSD'.
7. Low Rater Accountability is abbreviated to 'LRA'.
8. Benefits for Ratees can be abbreviated to 'BRE'.
9. Benefits for Raters can be abbreviated to 'BRR'.
10. Employee Silence with Personal Motives is abbreviated to 'EMS'.

When analysing the cronbach's alpha for the pilot study, TAS lacked reliability. However, the aim of pilot study is to detect the lack of reliability (Juríčková et al., 2020). As a result, TAS should be refined, prior to the full-scale study of this thesis. On the contrary to the values of cronbach's alpha, the values of composite reliability as the pilot study were greater than 0.70. In this particular case, composite reliability can be more robust towards the scales in latent variables, in comparison with the values of cronbach's alpha (Raykov 2004).

Figure 10: The Reliability for the pilot study

Latent Constructs	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
AMB	0.939	0.961
EMS_A	0.876	0.938
EMS_B	0.948	0.975
EMS_C	0.867	0.937
INT	0.696	0.834
LJA	0.945	0.964
LFJ	0.817	0.892
LRA	0.92	0.949
BRE	0.817	0.889
BRR	0.833	0.901
HSD	0.858	0.912
TAS	0.567	0.821

7.8.3 The Sample size in the pilot study

From late 2020 to early 2021, internet questionnaires were established and filled out by public employees from the quasi-government entity (type of consignment execution). The description of respondents for the pilot study is furnished as below:

Figure 11: The Description of survey respondents for the pilot study

Category		Frequency (Number)	Percent (%)
Job group	Administration	2	4.3
	Research service	38	82.6
	Technical post	3	6.5
	Other specific service	3	6.5
	Total	46	100.0

Tenure	Below 5 years	23	50
	5 ~ 10 years	13	28.3
	11 ~ 15 years	4	8.7
	16 ~ 20 years	2	4.3
	Above 20 years	4	8.7
	Total	46	100.0
Job grade	General employee	15	32.6
	Assistant manager	10	21.7
	Deputy manager	13	28.3
	Head of department	4	8.7
	Section chief	1	2.2
	Other	3	6.5
	Total	46	100.0
Gender	Male	42	91.3
	Female	4	8.7
	Total	46	100.0
Age	20s	13	28.3
	30s	21	45.7
	40s	7	15.2
	50s	5	10.9
	Over 60s	0	0.0
	Total	46	100.0
Education	A High school graduate or Attending university	1	2.2
	Bachelor's degree	26	56.5
	Master's degree	16	34.8
	PhD degree or higher	3	6.5
	Total	46	100.0

7.8.4 The Recommendation of sample size in PLS-SEM

According to Goodhue et al. (2012), PLS-SEM may encounter increased standard deviation, a low level of statistical power and decreased accuracy, when formed with small sample sizes. Therefore, prior to conducting the full-scale study of this thesis, this section will explore what the recommendation of sample size can be in PLS-SEM for fulfilling the high level of statistical power. Hair Jr et al. (2014b) adduced a table for the value of minimum R-Squared, significance level and number of constructs, so as to explicate the estimation of minimum sample size. The table for the recommendation of sample size is furnished as below:

Table 13: The Recommendation of sample size in PLS-SEM

The Recommendation of sample size in PLS-SEM for a statistical power of 80%												
Maximum Number of Arrows Pointing at a Construct	1 %				5 %				10 %			
	Minimum R ²				Minimum R ²				Minimum R ²			
	0.10	0.25	0.50	0.75	0.10	0.25	0.50	0.75	0.10	0.25	0.50	0.75
2	158	75	47	38	110	52	33	26	88	41	26	21
3	176	84	53	42	124	59	38	30	100	48	30	25
4	191	91	58	46	137	65	42	33	111	53	34	27
5	205	98	62	50	147	70	45	36	120	58	37	30
6	217	103	66	53	157	75	48	39	128	62	40	32
7	228	109	69	56	166	80	51	41	136	66	42	35
8	238	114	73	59	174	84	54	44	143	69	45	37
9	247	119	76	62	181	88	57	46	150	73	47	39
10	256	123	79	64	189	91	59	48	156	76	49	41

Original source: Hair Jr et al. (2014)

For the statistical power of 80 percent in PLS-SEM, the table above can propose that depending on three elements, the recommendation of sample size can vary. Three factors refer to 1) the method of minimum R-Squared, 2) the significance levels consisting of 1%, 5% and 10% and 3) the maximum number of variables for pointing dependent variables. Concerning the method of minimum R-Squared, when the effect size is smaller, there needs more participants to identify the effect. Pertaining to the level of significance, with a significance level at 1%, there needs more participants to define the relationship, compared to a significance level at both 5% and 10%. Concerning the maximum number of arrows pointing at a construct, there needs more respondents, when there are many latent constructs. Taken together, an example can be illustrated. When 10 variables point at the dependent variable with a significance level at 5% and the minimum R-Squared value of 0.25, 91 participants are required in accordance with the recommendation of sample size (Kock & Hadaya 2018).

7.9 Data collection

In this section, the sphere of the public sector in South Korea, survey procedure, the design of survey, translating the questionnaires, research ethics and data construction for analysis are presented for the full-scale study of this thesis. This thesis conjugates both primary and secondary data sources. To address research objectives, secondary data such as academic books, journal papers and government reports especially in South Korea are reviewed. With regard to primary data sources, the data from questionnaire surveys are utilised.

7.9.1 The Sphere of the public sector in South Korea

Pertaining to the sphere of the public sector in this study, the public sector in South Korea comprises the general government including the central administrative agency and the local autonomous entity, and the non-financial public enterprise when focusing on the statistics of public finance (Korea Institute of Public Finance 2020). In addition to this, Kim (2015) from the Bank of Korea divided the public sector into four sections, such as the general government, the public institution under the central administrative agency, the public institution under the local autonomous entity and the rest institutions added by the Bank of Korea.

The central administrative agency incorporates the Office of President, Office of National Security, Presidential Security Service, Board of Audit and Inspection, National Intelligence Service, Korea Communications Commission, Office for Government Policy Coordination, Prime Minister's Secretariat, Ministry of Personnel Management, Ministry of Government Legislation, Ministry of Patriots and Veterans Affairs, Ministry of Food and Drug Safety, Korea Fair Trade Commission, Financial Services Commission, Anti-Corruption and Civil Rights Commission, Nuclear Safety and Security Commission, Ministry of Economy and Finance, Ministry of Education, Ministry of Science and ICT, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Unification, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of National Defense, Ministry of the Interior and Safety, Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism, Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs, Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy, Ministry of Health and Welfare, Ministry of Environment, Ministry of Employment and Labor, Ministry of Gender Equality and Family, Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport, Ministry of Oceans and Fisheries, Ministry of SMEs and Start-ups, National Tax Service, Korea Customs Service, Public Procurement Service, Statistics Korea, Supreme Prosecutors' Office, Military Manpower Administration, Defense Acquisition Program Administration, National Police Agency, National Fire Agency, Cultural Heritage Administration, Rural Development Administration, Korea Forest Service, Korean Intellectual Property Office, Korea Meteorological Administration, National agency for Administrative City Construction, Saemangeum

Development and Investment agency, Korea Coast Guard and National Human Rights Commission (Cho 2019).

The public institution under the central administrative agency in South Korea is comprehensive of 340 organisations covering public enterprise (36 organisations), quasi-governmental agency (95 organisations) and other public organisations (209 organisations) in 2020. Public enterprise can be designated by a minister from the Ministry of Economy and Finance when more than 50 workers are on duty and their own income is more than half of the total income. Quasi-governmental agency denotes more than 50 employees as well as the public institution designated by a minister from the Ministry of Economy and Finance except for the public enterprise. A quasi-governmental agency encompasses both a type of management fund and a type of implementation of out contracting. Other public institutions are classified as public institutions excluding both public enterprise and quasi-governmental agency (Ministry of Economy and Finance 2020; Ministry of Employment and Labor 2021).

The local public institution under the local autonomous entity broadly consists of the local public enterprise and local government-funded organisations (Ministry of Personnel Management 2020). The local public enterprise in South Korea is comprehensive of 412 organisations in 2021, such as a direct management enterprise pertaining to water supply, enterprise or corporation for administration of facility, environmental facility, sightseeing public corporation, urban development corporation, urban railway corporation, specially designated enterprise or corporation and others (Ministry of the Interior and Safety 2021). In addition to this, there are 798 local government-funded organisations, located within different cities in South Korea (Ministry of the Interior and Safety 2021).

Overall, this research strives to collect the data from the central administrative agency and the public institution under the central administrative agency in South Korea to expand the research of appraisal politics.

Table 14: Summary of main points for the public sector in South Korea

The Public sector	The General government	The Central administrative agency
		The Local autonomous entity
	The Public institution under the central administrative agency	Public enterprise
		Quasi-governmental agency
		Other public organisations
	The Local public institution under the local autonomous entity	Local direct management organisations
		Local corporation
		Local industrial complex
		Local government-funded organisations

Original source: Kim (2015)

7.9.2 Survey procedure

In the initial stages, internet questionnaires and mobile interviews were under consideration to collect survey data in 2020. However, owing to the length of time and bias issues, a plan for mobile interviews was withdrawn. Internet questionnaires were set up and filled in by public employees in South Korea in 2021, comprised of the central administrative agency and the public institution under the central administrative agency covering public enterprise, quasi-governmental agency and other public organisations. The total number of participants is 406.

Concerning civil servants for the central administrative agency, twenty-three participants completed the internet questionnaires by September 2021. Depending on circumstances, the requests were made from April 2020 to August 2021. In terms of the rate of the central administrative agency which civil servants are affiliated with, the rate is approximately 22.22% (12/54).

Figure 12: Participants from the central administrative agency

The Number of participants from the central administrative agency	
The Number of participants (Total: 23 respondents)	The List of the central administrative agency (Total: 12 agencies)
1	Ministry of Oceans and Fisheries
1	Ministry of Land, Infrastructure and Transport
1	Ministry of Economy and Finance
1	Ministry of Trade, Industry and Energy
1	Korea Fair Trade Commission
2	Ministry of Employment and Labor
2	Ministry of Science and ICT
2	Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs
2	Ministry of Health and Welfare
2	Ministry of Foreign Affairs
4	Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism
4	Ministry of Environment

Pertaining to the public institutions under the central administrative agency, from among all of the 350 public institutions in 2021, there were some panels where the potential participants could be found. Thus, three hundred eighty-three employees participated in online surveys by September 2021. Based upon the number of organisations which participants belong to, the rates are 26% (91/350).

Firstly, the number of 37 participants exists from the quasi-government entity (the type of fund management). There are 7 entities where participants belong, such as Government Employees Pension Service, National Pension Service, Korea Workers' Compensation & Welfare Service, Korea Sports Promotion Foundation, Teachers Pension, Korea SMEs and Start-ups Agency and Korea Housing Finance Corporation.

There are 167 participants from the quasi-government entity (the type of consignment execution). Fifty entities are represented, such as Health Insurance Review & Assessment Service, Korea National Railway, Korea National Park Service, National Health Insurance Service, Korea Agency for Infrastructure Technology Advancement, The Road Traffic Authority, Korea Social Security Information Service, Small Enterprise and Market Service, Asia Culture Institute, Postal Logistics Agency, Korea Intellectual Property Strategy Agency,

National IT Industry Promotion Agency, Korea Institute of Start-up and Entrepreneurship Development, Korea Institute for Animal Products Quality Evaluation, Korea Gas Safety Corporation, Korean Institute for Healthy Family, Korea Employment Information Service, Korea Foundation for the Advancement of Science and Creativity, Korea Tourism Organization, Korea Education and Research Information Service, Korea Transportation Safety Authority, Korea International co-operation Agency, Korea Land and Geospatial Informatix Corporation, Korea Labor Force Institute for the Aged, Korea Agro-Fisheries & Food Trade Corporation, Korea Rural Community Corporation, Korea Institute of Design Promotion, Korea Human Resource Institute for Health and Welfare, Korea Health Industry Development Institute, Korea Institute for Advancement of Technology, Korea Occupational Safety and Health Agency, Human Resource Development Service of Korea, Korea Petroleum Quality & Distribution Authority, Korea Fisheries Resources Agency, Korea Agency of HACCP Accreditation & Service, Korea Energy Agency, the National Research Foundation of Korea, Korea Postal Service Agency, Korea Radioactive Waste Agency, Korea Internet & Security Agency, Korea Forestry Promotion Institute, Korea Employment Agency for Persons with Disabilities, Korea Student Aid Foundation, Korea Electrical Safety Corporation, Korea Power Exchange, Korea Maritime Transportation Safety Authority, Korea Environment Corporation, Korea Environmental Industry and Technology, Korea Institute of Marine Science & Technology Promotion and Korea Authority of Land & Infrastructure Safety.

There are 76 participants from the public enterprise (the market type). Nine institutions where participants are affiliated refer to Korea Gas Corporation, Korea Airports Corporation, Korea South-East Power Co., Ltd, Korea Southern Power Co., Ltd, Korea Midland Power Co. Ltd, Korea Western Power Co., Ltd, Korea National Oil Corporation, Korea Electric Power Corporation and Korea District Heating Corporation.

There exist 75 participants from the public enterprise (the quasi-market type). The number of enterprises where participants belong is 12, such as, Ulsan Port Authority, Korea Coal Corporation, Korea Housing & Urban Guarantee Corporation, Korea Gas Technology

Corporation, Korea Expressway Corporation, Korea Water Resources Corporation, KEPCO Engineering & Construction Company, Inc., Korea Minting, Security Printing & ID Card Operating Corp, Korea Railroad Corporation, Korea Land and Housing Corporation, KEPCO Knowledge, Data & Network Co., Ltd and KEPCO Plant Service & Engineering Co., Ltd.

Finally, there are 28 employees from other public organisations. The number of other public organisations where participants are affiliated is 13. These lists refer to Chungnam National University Hospital, Gyeongsang National University Hospital, Seoul National University Hospital, National Cancer Center, Humanities and Social Sciences, Ulsan National Institute of Science and Technology, Incheon Airport, Korea Railroad Corporation Tech, Korea Railroad Corporation Logis, Korea Polytechnics, Korea Institute of Ocean Science & Technology and Korea Institute of Criminology and National Research Council for Economics.

Figure 13: Participants from the public institution

The Number of participants from the public institution	
The Number of participants (Total: 383 respondents)	The Type of the public institution (Total: 5 types)
37	The Quasi-government entity (the type of fund management)
167	The Quasi-government entity (the type of consignment execution)
76	The Public Enterprise (the market type)
75	The Public Enterprise (the quasi-market type)
28	Other public organisations

7.9.3 Survey design

When contemplating the possibility of missing data and coding problems, this study has chosen close-ended questions rather than open-ended questions. Although the open-ended questions can provide various sorts of answers from respondents, the open-ended questions are deemed as a limited way within the positivistic approach. This is because background characteristics can result in many inappropriate answers on the open-ended

questions (Reja et al., 2003). It appears that the response rate of using the open-ended questions is lower in nature (Zhou et al., 2017). For reference, the question number 12.7 asks participants what the name of your organisation is as an open-ended format. It was considered to prepare for multiple options in advance. However, in consideration of the convenience of respondents, the question number 12.7 remained as an open-ended format.

In addition, this study has chosen a 5-point Likert scale rather than a 7-point Likert scale to avoid confusion. According to Raut et al. (2020), Likert scales can be applied as one of the fundamental instruments or tools in social science research. Likert scales were developed to measure the attitude in a scientifically validated manner. Likert scales can measure a way of behaving or reacting in a specific situation within organisations (Joshi et al., 2015). It seems that depending on a scholar's preference, a 5-point Likert scale, a 7-point Likert scale and a 10-point Likert scale can be respectively employed as an interval scale. According to Dawes (2008), concerning the obtained data from 5-, 7- and 10-point scales, kurtosis and skewness are similar. These three scales are understood as being suitable for gaining data for regression analysis. In summary, owing to the viability and simplicity reasons, a 5-point Likert scale is employed for this study (Maurer & Pierce 1998). In summary, close-ended questions and a 5-point Likert scale have been adopted for this study. Survey questions are included in Appendix B-a for the English version and Appendix B-b for the Korean version.

Table 15: The Questionnaire structure

The Questionnaire structure for both the English and Korean versions				
Question number	Category of participants	Variables to be measured	Dimension of variables	Type of questions
1	All participants	Independent variable	The Job environmental dimension	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale
2	All participants	Independent variable	The Job environmental dimension	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale
3	All participants	Independent variable	The Job environmental dimension	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale
4	All participants	Independent variable	The Job environmental dimension	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale
5	All participants	Independent variable	The Rater dimension	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale

6	All participants	Independent variable	The Rater dimension	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale
7	All participants	Independent variable	The Rater dimension	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale
8	All participants	Mediating variable / full mediation	Perceived appraisal politics	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale
9	All participants	Mediating variable / full mediation	Perceived appraisal politics	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale
10	All participants	Dependent variable	The Acceptance of the appraisal system	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale
11	All participants	Moderating variable (between independent variables and mediating variables)	Employee silence with personal motives	Close-ended with 5-point Likert scale
12	All participants	Control variable	Demographic characteristics	Close-ended with multiple options (Except for only 12.7)

7.9.4 Translating the questionnaires

It is challenging to ensure the accuracy of translations within survey research. This is because translations can influence both design and development of questionnaires especially for the cross-cultural questionnaires (Tuleja et al., 2011). Thus, Son (2018) stated that back translation is the technique which has been mostly suggested in survey research to check the accuracy of translations. Nonetheless, collaborative approaches such as the committee and the expert team approaches can be addressed, rather than only leaning on back translation. Back translation also known as reverse translation is deemed as the procedure of re-translating the contents from the target language to the source language. For instance, some of the questionnaires written in English are translated into Korean preemptively. After that, the questionnaires translated into Korean are re-translated into English. Concerning the committee approach, work for the questionnaire translations are conducted as a group along with collaborators. In terms of the expert team approach, each person in a team works individually. The expert team approach can be recommended for multilingual survey research (Douglas & Craig 2007). According to Hazzi & Maldaon (2015), within the quantitative methodology, back translation tends to be neglected for a research of either management or business. Hence, this study endeavours to achieve accuracy in

measurements, by adopting the back translation as a technique. To sum up, back translation is employed for accuracy, especially for the two versions of questionnaire comprised of English and Korean.

7.9.5 Research ethics

The ethical research agenda for HRM is much demanded, while taking account of social, political and cultural perspectives for the role of an organisation (Janssens & Steyaert 2012). Ultimately, it is vital for a researcher to remember this, sparing an ethical consideration for potential participants within the context of the management study (Stewart et al., 2017). Ethical behaviour for a researcher can shelter individuals, environments and communities, by generating ethical communities and organisations. As social scientists aim to make the world better, it is crucial to comply with research ethics when planning to do particular research (Israel & Hay 2006). In theory, ethic is defined as a philosophy that addresses the concerns of morality. Research ethics are referred to as the relevance with the moral behaviour in research contexts. To fulfil the quality of research ethics, it is essential for this study to contemplate ethical frameworks, ethical regulations and ethical guidelines. Accordingly, Wiles (2012) claimed that ethical frameworks can offer a way of considering ethical dilemmas or moral behaviour, in accordance with ethical criteria. Ethical frameworks cover various sorts of approaches, such as consequentialist, principlist, ethics of care and virtue ethics. From among these, it is worth reading through principlist approaches for this study. Compared to consequentialist approaches emphasising on the consequences of an action, principlist approaches are weighted with respect for people's autonomy, beneficence, non-maleficence and justice concerning ethical decisions. Respect for people's autonomy emphasises upon confidentiality, informed consent, willing participation and anonymity. Beneficence can relate to the responsibility to pursue the principle of beneficence. Non-maleficence refers to the responsibility to elude much harm. Justice addresses issues of benefits and burdens equally for particular research.

Pertaining to ethical regulations, this study is subject to the ethical regulation for research involving human participants. Therefore, the application for ethical approval of research was submitted to Faculty Research Ethics & Integrity Committee in the University of Plymouth in early 2020. Concerning the application for the ethical approval of this research, this study has focused on an ethical protocol that covers the University of Plymouth Research Ethics Policy. Another important point to bear in mind is that in accordance with Information Security Classification Policy, data management plan was designed for this research. The author participated in a webinar session for research data management and data management plans organised by research skills at University of Plymouth. In addition to the policies of the University of Plymouth, other ethical policies are weighted in consideration of ethical regulations, such as policies derived from the Korean association for public administration, CIPD and the Korean institute of public sector.

As of April 2020, Faculty Research Ethics & Integrity Committee in the University of Plymouth approved this project. Owing to a slight modification on the title of this project, the application for ethical approval of research was re-submitted and approved; the approval letter was re-issued as of September 2021. The approval letter is attached in [Appendix C](#).

7.9.6 Data construction for analysis

The data from both the central administrative agency and the public institution in South Korea has been combined to compose a data set for analysis. The total number is 406 for the full-scale study; it is viewed that there is no miscoding within this data set. This is because through the use of the SPSS, frequency analysis was conducted to discover miscoding. Frequency analysis stands for a descriptive statistical method which can reveal the number of occurrences of each response. According to Wolcott (1999), data can be re-screened, concerning the number of occurrences of each response through frequency

analysis. Figure 14 summarises description of survey participants, concerning job group, tenure, job grade, gender, age and education.

Figure 14: The Description of survey participants for the full-scale study

Category		Frequency (Number)	Percent (%)
Job group	Administration	223	54.9
	Research service	24	5.9
	Technical post	138	34.0
	Other specific service	21	5.2
	Total	406	100.0
Tenure	Below 5 years	75	18.5
	5 ~ 10 years	75	18.5
	11 ~ 15 years	80	19.7
	16 ~ 20 years	48	11.8
	Above 20 years	128	31.5
	Total	406	100.0
Job grade	General employee	77	19.0
	Assistant manager	77	19.0
	Deputy manager	92	22.7
	Head of department	90	22.2
	Section chief	57	14.0
	Executives or higher	13	3.2
	Total	406	100.0
Gender	Male	297	73.2
	Female	109	26.8
	Total	406	100.0
Age	20s	18	4.4
	30s	108	26.6
	40s	151	37.2
	50s	121	29.8

	Over 60s	8	2.0
	Total	406	100.0
Education	A High school graduate or Attending university	13	3.2
	Bachelor's degree	283	69.7
	Master's degree	84	20.7
	PhD degree or higher	26	6.4
	Total	406	100.0

7.10 Measurement variables

This section clarifies the instruments or items selected, so as to measure the constructs investigated for this study. It can be said that the measurement variables have been demonstrated in highly ranked journals, such as Sciences Citation Index Expanded (SCIE) / Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) as well as KCI.

7.10.1 Task interdependence in a team

Task interdependence in a team is measured with items developed by Van der Vegt & Van de Vliert (2005). It was identified that task interdependence in a team is positively related to perceived appraisal politics from Park's study in 2014 in South Korea. When examining the items in detail, Park's study in 2014 utilised items developed by Campion et al. (1993). After carefully reviewing the context of measures for both Van der Vegt & Van de Vliert's study and Campion et al.'s study, there seems to be many analogies. After excluding a number of duplicated items, five items are furnished as below:

Table 16: Measures of task interdependence in a team

Item	Questions
1	I have to check with other team members to do my work properly
2	I have to work closely with my team members to do my work properly
3	I spend plenty of time exchanging information or cooperating with other team members
4	I have to exchange plenty of information concerning my work
5	I have a high level of dependence on other team members to achieve my job duties

7.10.2 Interactions with others

Five items are rephrased to fit the context of perceived appraisal politics, based upon Ferris et al.'s study in 1989 for the model of organisational politics perceptions. In theory, managers or colleagues behaving opportunistically towards employees would augment individual perceptions of politics within organisations. Similar to the construct of Kacmar et al.'s study in 1999, the intended meanings of interactions and relations with co-workers are reflected for the construct, stressing clique behaviour.

Table 17: Measures of interactions with others

Item	Questions
1	My co-workers help themselves, but not others
2	My co-workers help others who can benefit themselves
3	I have seen people deliberately distort information requested by others for the purpose of personal profits, either withholding it or by selectively reporting it
4	It is very crucial to have good relations with other departments when help is needed
5	People in my organisation tend to select employees who can benefit them

7.10.3 Low job autonomy

Low job autonomy is measured with the items developed by Breugh's study in 1999. Although Saragih's research in 2011 proposed 9 items, this thesis has chosen 5 items. This is because after having translated from English to Korean, some items seem to overlap with other similar items; items representing methods, procedures and schedules seem to be

duplicated. Besides, a more refined analysis of the antecedents of political perceptions by Ferris & Kacmar’s study in 1992 is referenced. As this research assumes that low job autonomy is likely to be related to perceived appraisal politics, items for job autonomy are reversed to items for low job autonomy through SPSS.

Table 18: Measures of low job autonomy (reverse-coded items)

Item	Questions
1	I can revise performance goal settings
2	I can revise performance criteria depending on the circumstances
3	I can decide my schedule to do my jobs
4	I can decide the process of my jobs
5	I can decide my jobs without discussing it with my supervisors

7.10.4 Low fairness of job rotation

Low fairness of job rotation is measured with the items developed by Jeon’s study in 2015. From among three main components of organisational justice, five items were designed, in line with procedural justice or fairness. The measurement item of job rotation is firstly addressed in the context of organisational politics or the political context of employee appraisals to the best of the writer’s knowledge. On account of a relation between job rotation and jobs highly linked with performance appraisal indices, this study takes note of low fairness with respect to job rotation. Items for the fairness of job rotation are reversed to a low fairness of job rotation through SPSS.

Table 19: Measures of the low fairness of job rotation (reverse-coded items)

Item	Questions
1	In my organisation, employees can raise opinions in the process of decision-making for job rotation
2	In my organisation, an influential managers’ opinion can’t affect the process of decision-making for job rotation
3	In my organisation, standard criteria are consistent and applied for job rotation
4	In my organisation, employees can raise objections to job rotation
5	In my organisation, the decision-making for job rotation is fair

7.10.5 Ambiguity of appraisal policies

Five items are rephrased, based upon Dhiman & Singh’s study in 2007 emphasising upon the perception of appraisal politics from a raters’ standpoint. In addition to a raters’ accountability, Dhiman & Singh’s research in 2007 viewed ambiguity of policies as a key context variable for shaping the political perceptions of each member. As highlighted, these two variables can be included within organisational dimension, when referring to Ahn & Cho’s study in 2018.

Table 20: Measures of ambiguity of appraisal policies (reverse-coded items)

Item	Questions
1	The appraisal goal is clear
2	The process of performance appraisal is certain
3	The appraisal criteria is certain
4	Performance outcomes are addressed for employees
5	Performance outcomes are addressed for supervisors

7.10.6 Higher supervisor discretion

Higher supervisor discretion is measured with the items built upon De Castro’s research in 2017. To be more specific, variables for supervisor-driven subjective performance evaluation have been replaced. Variables linked with supervisor discretion can be conceptually distinct from managerial discretion under the approach of subjective based appraisals. To the best of the writer’s knowledge, supervisor discretion is firstly addressed for an empirical research respecting the determinants of perceived appraisal politics.

Table 21: Measures of higher supervisor discretion

Item	Questions
1	My supervisor conducts my performance appraisal according to his/her subjectivity

2	My supervisor conducts my performance appraisal according to his/her experience
3	My performance appraisal could change considerably if I were evaluated by another rater
4	My supervisor has plenty of discretion in conducting my performance evaluation

7.10.7 Low rater accountability

Five items are rephrased, based upon Park's thesis in 2013. Park's research in 2013 consulted items developed by Hochwarter et al.'s study in 2003. What's interesting is that items were modified to fit the context of perceived appraisals as well as the public sector in South Korea, such as audience view and information (ratee and rater's supervisor). Accordingly, for this thesis, both the contents of downward and upward rater accountabilities are reflected on the measure of low rater accountability. Items for rater accountability are reversed to low rater accountability through SPSS.

Table 22: Measures of low rater accountability (reverse-coded items)

Item	Questions
1	My supervisor endeavours to explain the process of performance appraisal, so as to ask for understanding of the process
2	My supervisor provides me with adequate feedback
3	My supervisor's boss is interested in my supervisor's accountability when conducting performance appraisals
4	When the process of performance appraisal isn't smooth, my supervisor consults with his or her boss
5	Raters have accountability while conducting performance appraisals

7.10.8 Benefits for ratees

Four items are designed, reflecting the variable measurements developed by Ahn & Cho's research in 2018 for the South Korean context and Poon's study in 2004 for the perceptions of appraisal politics. In addition to the three items rephrased by Ahn & Cho's study in 2018, another item developed by Poon's study in 2004 is adopted, after reviewing the outcome of

exploratory factor analysis. For instance, ‘my supervisor inflated performance ratings, because of the consideration of document records’.

Table 23: Measures of benefits for ratees (the notion of appraisal politics)

Item	Questions
1	My supervisor inflated performance ratings that benefit me, such as a wage increase and promotion
2	My supervisor inflated performance ratings, owing to the consideration of document records
3	My supervisor is reluctant in giving me low ratings that could result in negative impacts upon me
4	If absolute evaluation is possible, my supervisor goes for the absolute evaluation to avoid excessive competition among employees

7.10.9 Benefits for raters

A construct of benefits for raters is measured with the items proposed by Ahn & Cho’s study in 2018 for the context of South Korea. These four items are on the basis of Tziner et al.’s development for the political considerations in performance appraisals in 1996. When referring to the results of factor analysis regarding the perception of appraisal politics by Poon’s study in 2004 and Ismail & Raduan’ s study in 2013, items of benefits for raters have something in common with items of the punishment motive along with personal bias. Unlike the tendency of raters regarding cognitive biases, items for this study reflect the tendency of raters who deliberately deflate the appraisal ratings of employees.

Table 24: Measures of benefits for raters (the notion of appraisal politics)

Item	Questions
1	When my supervisor needs co-operation, my supervisor gives high ratings
2	My supervisor can give high/low ratings depending on favouritism
3	My supervisor gives low ratings to teach rebellious employees a lesson
4	My supervisor gives low ratings to have me leave the organisation

7.10.10 The Acceptance of the appraisal system in organisations

The acceptance of the appraisal system is measured with survey items developed by Kim et al.'s study in 2018b. Managerial and index-based acceptances are addressed for this thesis. Two items for managerial acceptance are rephrased to fit the context of perceived appraisal politics, such as item number one and two. The links with the implications of benefits for ratees and raters are contemplated. Besides, three items for index-based acceptance of the appraisal system are furnished. When translating into Korean, reduplicated intentions concerning the reflections of appraisal indicators were pointed out.

Table 25: Measures of the acceptance of the appraisal system in organisations

Item	Questions
1	I believe the appraisal system is necessary for my organisation
2	I am satisfied with my appraisal outcomes
3	I believe the current system is suitable for the organisational strategic planning
4	I believe the current system adequately measures individual performance
5	The performance appraisal item well reflects the distinct features of my job

7.10.11 Employee silence with personal motives

Employee silence with personal motives is measured, based upon the development of the silence motivation scale by Choi & Park's study in 2017. Through the exploratory factor analysis, Choi & Park's research in 2017 have confirmed 5 dimensions of silence motivations for the South Korean context, such as acquiescent, disengaged, defensive, opportunistic and relational silences. Items are presented in sequence as above. As noted, acquiescent, defensive and pro-social silences were deemed as typical dimensions of employee silence in most cases (Schlosser & Zolin 2012; Perkins 2014). In the Asian context, both acquiescent and defensive silences have similarly attracted much attention within academic circles, due to the significance of negative cause and effects (Fatima et al., 2017). Although Kamalzade & Liaghat (2017) insisted that both acquiescent and defensive silences have meaningful

similarities, Choi & Park’s research in 2017 clarified the distinction. Hence, 10 items are comprised of ‘a formative construct’ as a unitary mode.

Table 26: Measures of employee silence with personal motives

Item	Questions
1	I passively withhold ideas to change, based upon resignation
2	I keep my idea as there is no benefit for me, based upon resignation
3	I withhold ideas as I don’t want to be involved in organisational issues
4	I am reluctant in sharing my ideas when there is little impact on me
5	I withhold my ideas to avoid suffering a disadvantage, based upon my fears
6	I withhold my ideas to avoid a negative response, based upon my fears
7	I withhold my opinions, allowing others to face difficult conditions in the organisation
8	I withhold my ideas as I don’t want to share the profits derived from my ideas
9	I withhold my ideas as I don’t want to hurt other’s feelings
10	I withhold my ideas to avoid strained relations with colleagues or supervisors

7.10.12 Control variables

The control variables are age, gender, tenure and job grades. Age consists of (1= 20s, 2= 30s, 3= 40s, 4= 50 s and 5= over 60s). Gender is comprised of (1= Male and 2= Female). Tenure is composed of (1= below 5 years, 2= 5~10 years, 3= 11~15 years, 4= 16~20 years and 5= above 20 years). Job grades consist of (1= General employee, 2= Assistant manager, 3= Chief of department, 4= Deputy manager, 5= Head of department, 6= Section chief and 7= Executives or higher).

When referring to Ferris & King’s study in 1992, Ferris et al.’s study in 1989 and 2007, it is possible to speculate that employees who are older than others could easily perceive organisational politics. On the other hand, based upon socio-emotional selective theory, it is probable that employees younger than others can perceive organisational politics. This is because employees older than others tend to seek emotional meaning, such as psychological well-being (Cubrich & Petruzzelli 2020). Besides, rather than male staff, female staff could easily perceive organisational politics; this can be applied for perceived appraisal politics. Contrary to quantitative studies, in a qualitative study, male staff can

easily perceive organisational politics, rather than female staff (Kidron & Peretz 2018). In terms of tenure and job grades, when employees have a longer continuous service year or higher positions, there is probability that organisational politics in performance appraisals may be easily perceived. When referring to Kim et al.'s research in 2018, age might be significantly related to the acceptance of performance appraisal systems, compared to other control variables.

7.11 A Chapter summary

Most importantly, the research model, research hypothesis and research question are furnished for this chapter. The proposed conceptual framework also known as the research model, stresses path analysis. There are 3 research questions and 4 hypotheses.

Respecting the research philosophy, from among 4 different sorts of philosophical paradigms, the positivism philosophy is chosen for this thesis. To comprehend the research philosophy, the research onion has been addressed, proposed by Saunders et al.'s insights in 2016. In line with the positivism philosophy, a certain research methodology should be selected. In this context, this study is grounded upon the quantitative research methodology.

Pertaining to research design, this study has adopted the descriptive study design.

Regarding the research method, the internet questionnaire for collecting data is employed.

The survey data is analysed, through a multivariate analysis method such as PLS-SEM.

Accordingly, the features of PLS-SEM have been well elucidated in comparison with covariance-based SEM. For instance, PLS-SEM refers to a regression-based ordinary least squares estimation method. However, covariance-based SEM is grounded upon a maximum likelihood estimation procedure.

Prior to the section of data collection, piloting the research survey is presented consisting of content validity, construct validity and reliability, sample size in a pilot study and the recommendation of sample size in PLS-SEM. As a rehearsal for the full-scale study of this

thesis, the pilot study for preparing for full scale study can be helpful to refine the items of measurement constructs.

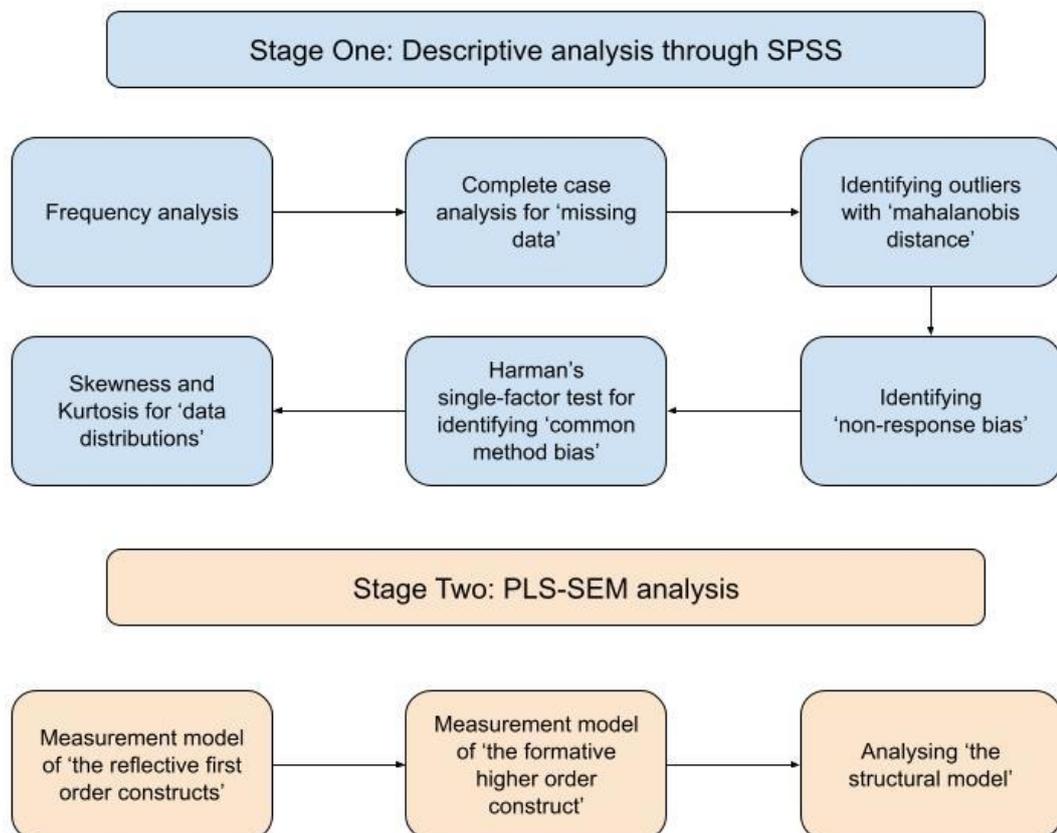
Within the section of data collection, the sphere of the public sector in South Korea, survey procedure, the design of survey, translating the questionnaires, research ethics and data construction for analysis were addressed. Within the section denoted on data construction for analysis, a description of survey participants is furnished for the following chapter called 'results and findings'. Lastly, the section concerning measurement variables has elucidated 11 variables and 1 control variable for the research model. By aiming to review SCIE / SSCI journal papers as well as KCI journal papers in South Korea, items of each variable have been set out.

Chapter 8 Results and findings

This chapter aims to demonstrate descriptive analysis about the data set and PLS-SEM analysis. Thus, a diversity of sections is addressed, such as missing values and outliers, non-response bias, common method bias, data distributions as stage one. Following this, as stage two, the reflective first order constructs, the formative higher order construct and the structural model are illustrated. In the section of the structural model (inner model), model fit index and structural relationship will be clarified. Subsequently, testing a set of hypotheses will be addressed. Lastly, a chapter summary is set out.

Before looking into results and findings in earnest, the analysis procedures for this study are illustrated, so as to help the comprehension of contents in sequence.

Figure 15: The Analysis procedures for this thesis



8.1 Missing values and outliers

According to Kwak & Kim (2017), when collecting data, most researchers may easily face both missing data and outliers. Missing data or values can decrease the statistical power of the research as well as the reliability. Besides, it was reported that outliers can largely influence the procedure of estimating statistics, consisting of the standard deviation and the mean of sample values. These can cause either over or underestimated values of the research. Kwak & Kim's study in 2017 interestingly addressed different sorts of missing values, such as missing completely at random, missing at random and not missing at random. For instance, missing at random refers to missing data at specific time periods, due to refusal of participation. Not missing at random involves refusing participation, owing to the research outcomes. In order to deal with missing data, three methods can be presented such as complete case analysis, available case analysis and imputation analysis. From among these, it is worth noticing that imputation analysis stresses replacing missing data with substituted data derived from an analysis, so as to establish full data values for a statistical analysis. In this context, Hair et al. (2013) stated that when utilising PLS-SEM, the missing data can be replaced by the mean value of the valid observations. Nonetheless, due to the use of statistical analysis programs and the simplicity of statistical analysis, complete case analysis has been commonly chosen. For reference, complete case analysis highlights the dropping of all missing data for statistical analysis. In practice, when the rate of the missing value is higher than twenty percent, a questionnaire should be excluded (Nadhim et al., 2018). In addition to this, some respondents didn't fill the name of relevant organisations for this study. Thus, the data of six participants is excluded right at the start. To sum up, this study has decided to follow complete case analysis, dropping missing values.

In terms of the meaning of outliers, outliers (observations) are deemed as data points placed miles away from the majority of other points of data. In a statistical way, it refers to samples with extreme values far away from a different population (Yin et al., 2014). Hence, it appears that removing outliers is highlighted, in order to avoid influencing a linear relationship between two constructs (Richter et al., 2020). According to Salimonu et al. (2014), outliers can be split into three sorts comprised of errors outliers, interesting outliers and influential outliers. From among these, it is worth paying attention to influential outliers, when contemplating the significance of a linear relationship. Influential outliers are deemed as confirmed outliers by a researcher that could affect the results of the statistical analysis. Thus, this outlier can be regarded as biases or errors of respondents.

In practice, according to Mohamed & Rosli (2014), if the issues of outliers and multicollinearity in the data set can be generated, it would be better to utilise PLS-SEM for evaluating a structural model. This is because the weighting of observations with extreme values can be decreased. The effects of outliers can be alleviated in PLS-SEM (Sarstedt et al. 2017). Nonetheless, according to Jiang (2021), even though all outliers can't be discarded, it is vital to grasp the response patterns as a researcher. In addition to this, there are three significant reasons why all outliers can be retained, when utilising PLS-SEM. Firstly, this is owing to the generalisability, even though there may be a risk of increasing the multivariate analysis for this study. Secondly, values of the data set should be contemplated. The data set for this thesis is comprised of public officials within the public sector in South Korea. Most employees within the public sector may have had experiences with regards to performance appraisals. For instance, this can be predicted, when taking account of the section of tenure within the data set. Finally, when adopting ten times rules, this research can cope with the number of 40 or 41. As a guide, the total number of participants is 406 within this study.

Through SPSS, a test of the mahalanobis distance is calculated to discover multivariate outliers for this study. In other words, unusual combinations based on more than two constructs can be addressed. In theory, the mahalanobis distance is deemed as the

distance between two points within multivariate space (Glen 2017). Accordingly, it can display how much a case's values towards the independent constructs can vary from the mean of all cases (Simionescu 2015). The obtained results for this research have shown that there are 38 outliers when data cleaning is conducted, in accordance with $p < 0.001$ (Farber & Kadmon 2003). The obtained result is attached in [Appendix D](#). This is named 'table for detecting outliers'. For reference, it is worth remembering that PMAH_1 is a result of $1 - \text{CDF.CHISQ}(\text{MAH}_1, \text{no.})$. To sum up, although this study has discovered some outliers, all outliers are retained. This is on account of the three significant reasons as noted above.

8.2 Non-response bias

According to Feng et al. (2018), non-response or late-response bias can be generated, when there is a distinct difference from a sample between late-responders and early responders. It was reported that non-response bias can be found within descriptive studies. Within public management research, non-response bias can bring about a threat to the validity of the data. Hence, non-response bias should not be neglected (Vogel & Jacobsen 2021). Armstrong & Overton (1977) insisted that so as to pursue the generalisability of the data results, it is vital for a researcher to review non-response bias. That is to say, before the sample is generalised to the population, non-response bias should be tested. Among survey respondents, it cannot exclude the possibility that all respondents would answer the questions consistently. Armstrong & Overton's study in 1977 referred to three methods of estimation, comprised of comparisons with known values for population, subjective estimates and extrapolation. When contemplating the preceding research in HRM, a time-trend extrapolation test is chosen for this study (Tsaor & Lin 2004; Shih & Chiang 2005).

With regard to a time-trend extrapolation test, this study utilises a t-test technique from SPSS. A t-test is referred to as one of inferential statistics to find out whether there is a difference between two groups. For this study, two groups exist including a group for early respondents and a group for late respondents. Each group has 15 respondents in the very

front or in the back. According to Poncet et al. (2016), applied researchers have usually realised that a t-test can be properly used, when distributions appear normal or large sample sizes are secured. However, Poncet et al.'s study in 2016 demonstrated that even a t-test was more significant under asymmetric distributions than under the normality of the data distribution. According to Pallant (2007), with samples larger than 30, the violation of normality is irrelevant for the t-test and the Anova test. Hence, without concerns that distributions should appear normal, researchers can opt for a t-test, when comparing two groups. Fifty-two items are included for an analysis. As noted above, two groups exist, comprised of a group for early participants and a group for late participants. Each group has 15 participants in the very front or in the back. The obtained results for this study showed that the significance value for Levene's test is higher than .05. Therefore, a group for early respondents and a group for late respondents share the same variances. In this context, the t-values concerning the equal variance test assumed can be employed, when referencing Haddoud's research in 2015. In addition, the t-values regarding Sig (2-tailed) are non-significant, as p-values for all items are higher than .05. As a result, the obtained results highlight that there is no distinction between a group for early respondents and a group for late respondents. The data used for this study is in line with a generalisation of population. The obtained result is attached in [Appendix E](#). This is titled 'table for non-response bias test'.

8.3 Common method bias

According to Park et al. (2007), common method bias is referred to as a methodological error which can be often generated, when all variables within a conceptual framework are measured by one common method. As a typical example, a survey questionnaire is presented. In addition to this, Park et al.'s study in 2007 insisted that common method bias can largely affect the construct validity. Within public management studies, Jakobsen & Jensen (2015) indicated that owing to response tendency such as social desirability, common method bias in each item can be easily found. Hence, researchers should

endeavour to develop survey designs to avoid common method bias. In addition, Somers (2018) insisted that due to sanguine view of the perceptual data in the public sector, concerns regarding common-method bias have tended to be neglected. However, for the quality of measurements, the degree of common method bias should be tested.

So as to assess the level of common method bias, Harman's single-factor test can be conducted. For reference, an extraction method is the principal component analysis (Fuller et al., 2016; Khoreva & Wechtler 2018). Regarding the exploratory factor analysis in SPSS, the unrotated factor solution is investigated to determine the necessary factors which can account for the variance within the variables. When one general factor accounts for more than 50% of the variances within the variables, it can be said that common method bias exists (Liu 2009; Tehseen et al., 2017a). The obtained results for this thesis indicate that the first factor accounted for 27.170% of the variances. The obtained result is attached in Appendix F. Therefore, through Harman's single-factor test, this research confirms that there is no common method bias within the variables. To sum up, common method bias isn't existent for this thesis.

8.4 Data distributions

The normal distribution is referred to as a continuous probability distribution which is symmetrical around the centre of all scores (Ahsanullah et al., 2014). The normal distribution has specific features, such as a symmetrical shape, being equal among the mean, median and mode, empirical rule, skewness and kurtosis. To be more specific, a skewness of zero can be assumed (Nadarajah 2005). As mentioned earlier, identifying the normality of the data distributions can't be essential when utilising PLS-SEM. This is because Jannoo et al. (2014) stated that as PLS-SEM is a non-parametric technique, distributional assumptions aren't imposed. In contrast, covariance-based SEM assumes normality of data distributions. When data distributions aren't normal, covariance-based SEM estimates can be found to be inaccurate, especially for small sample sizes. On the contrary, PLS-SEM estimates can be

accurately demonstrated, even for small sample sizes (Zhang et al., 2019). It was reported that the normality of data distributions can't be frequently met in social science discipline (Hair Jr et al., 2017). Nevertheless, when contemplating the normality of the data distributions for SEM, a research can avoid facing problems in parameter estimates, such as standard errors (Kusi et al., 2021). As a guide, the standard error can imply how accurate the mean of a sample can be compared to the mean of a true population. In the context of PLS-SEM, although normality of data distributions isn't necessary, it would be crucial to examine whether the distribution of the sample could be 'a rational representation' (Samani 2016). This should be evaluated through skewness and kurtosis values, after looking through missing values and outliers (Yeom & Ham 2008). For reference, when the data set is lower than 2000, the shapiro-wilk test can be also employed (Razali & Wah 2011). Academically, a distribution with positive skewness denotes some cases with lengthen on the left side. On the contrary, a distribution with negative skewness refers to some cases with small values which lengthen on the left side. Kurtosis refers to the level of the peakedness of a distribution. Both skewness and kurtosis values should be in a range of -2 to +2 (Prasojo et al., 2020). To sum up, the normality of data distributions isn't required since this study opts for utilising PLS-SEM for measuring the formative higher order construct. Nevertheless, both the skewness and kurtosis are calculated through SPSS. The obtained results demonstrated that values of the skewness and kurtosis are in a range of -2 to +2. The obtained result is attached in [Appendix G](#).

8.5 PLS-SEM analysis

Measurement model (outer model) and structural model (inner model) are compartmentalised in this section. Most importantly, 'the repeated indicator approach' is highlighted for this research, since this study is grounded upon the reflective-formative second order constructs. Becker et al. (2012) stated that respecting the reflective-formative higher order constructs, the repeated indicator approach is most appropriate, as less biased

and more accurate parameter estimates can be secured, in comparison with other approaches, such as the two stage and hybrid approaches. For instance, concerning the repeated indicator approach, the weights of the first order constructs on the second order constructs and the path coefficient towards endogenous variables are more accurate than two step approach (Ramayah et al., 2018). At first, the reflective first order constructs are evaluated such as indicator reliability, internal consistency reliability including composite reliability and cronbach's alpha, and the construct validity comprised of convergent validity and discriminant validity. Referentially, to examine the construct validity, Campbell & Fiske (1959) suggested two aspects comprised of convergent validity and discriminant validity. According to Sözbilir (2021), in PLS-SEM, CFA can be carried out to evaluate the measurement model. Likewise in PLS-SEM, CFA is hailed as a method for scale development and validity analysis. Following this, the formative higher order construct is evaluated. For instance, weights of the first order variables on the formative higher order constructs and the nomological validity are rendered. The formative higher order construct denotes employee silence with personal motives for this thesis. Finally, the structural model results are furnished including the model fit index and the path analysis. A set of moderators will be set up after measuring the outer model.

8.5.1 Measurement model (Outer model)

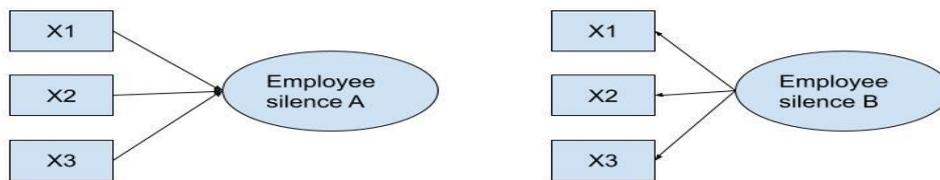
According to Hair et al. (2019), researchers utilising PLS-SEM should examine the measurement models as the first step; it is crucial to grasp two different criteria for both reflective and formative constructs. If the required criteria can be met for the measurement model, the structural model can be evaluated after then.

Prior to conducting the assessments of the measurement model, researchers should decide reflective or formative constructs (latent variables). In theory, reflective constructs cause their indicators. On the other hand, formative constructs view indicators as causing change

within the latent variables (Roberts et al., 2010). Thus, formative indicators are deemed as not interchangeable. Reflective indicators are considered as interchangeable. This is because the nature of latent variables can't be influenced. In a similar vein, regarding validity, correlations are not considered for formative indicators.

To help comprehending two constructs below, an example of two constructs is illustrated. For instance, 'Employee silence A' denotes formative construct. 'Employee silence B' stands for reflective construct.

Figure 16: The Formative and reflective constructs in the first order variable



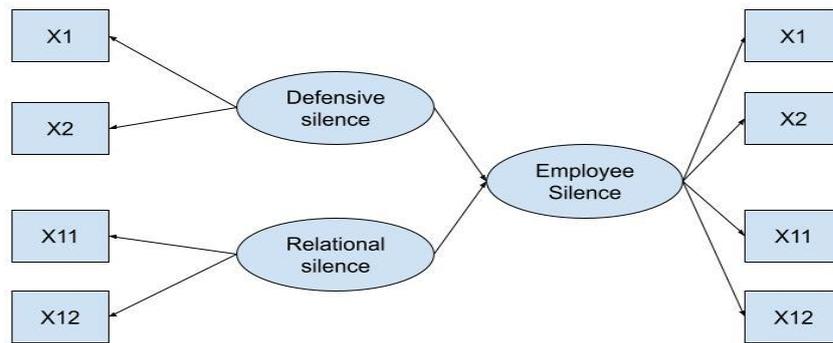
Source: the Author (2022)

Likewise, before conducting the assessments of the measurement model, the first order construct or the second order construct should be addressed by a researcher. According to Wetzels et al. (2009), pertaining to the second order model, also known as the higher order model as well as the hierarchical component model, the second order model which incorporates two-layer structures of constructs is appropriately employed in the context of PLS-SEM. Furthermore, it is vital to grasp four sorts of the second order constructs. The second order construct can be reflective or formative. Specifically, type 1 is the reflective-reflective measurement model. Type 2 is the reflective-formative measurement model. Type 3 is the formative-reflective measurement model. Type 4 is the formative-formative

measurement model. Type 2 implies a general concept which can possibly mediate the effect on endogenous constructs (Crocetta et al., 2021). Having reviewed factor analysis from previous studies regarding the multidimensional silence motives, this study has adopted type 2 'the reflective-formative measurement model'. As a result, employee silence is deemed as 'formative constructs'.

According to Chin (1998a), when the second order is reflective, the general idea is manifested by diverse concrete dimensions. In contrast, when the second order is formative, a combination of diverse concrete dimensions can be underlined in a general idea. It appears that the second order model method becomes predominant, in order to grasp a higher degree of abstraction as well as constructs which could imply the influences from the underlying constructs (Febrian et al., 2018). Accordingly, it is believed that the second order model can allow the path model to be parsimonious and more reasonable (AlNuaimi et al., 2021). So as to pursue the theoretical parsimony, this study adopts the second order constructs in PLS-SEM. As a guide, theoretical parsimony refers to the principal that a grand theory should find the simplest explanation. This study refers to Crocetta et al.'s study in 2021 to comprehend four types of the second order constructs. Based upon the Crocetta et al.'s figures, an example of the reflective-formative measurement model is illustrated as below; this is based upon the repeated indicator approach. All variables can be reutilised for the higher order construct as indicators, such as X1, X2, X11 and X12.

Figure 17: An Example of type 2 'the reflective-formative measurement model'



Source: the Author (2022)

From a critical view point, according to Latan & Ramli (2013), when the model category is associated with type 1 or type 4, the repeated indicator approach can be more suitable. In contrast, the two-stage approach can be applied to type 2 or type 3. However, it would be crucial to contemplate both the model category and the path analysis model at the same time, when selecting an approach of the higher order construct. This is because Matthews et al. (2018) stated that concerning reflective-formative (type 2) and formative-formative (type 4), when the relation from the low order constructs to the second order constructs is formative, the second order construct variance can be mostly explained by the low order constructs, such as the R-Squared value. Therefore, when other variables point to the second order construct, other variables which point to the second order construct can lead to insignificance and small impacts on the second order construct. Such a phenomenon is due to the low order constructs. In this context, when considering the path analysis model for this thesis, there are no other variables that point to the higher order construct, excluding the low order constructs of employee silence. Accordingly, as the repeated indicator approach can feature less biased and accurate parameter estimates, the repeated indicator approach has been highlighted for this research.

Pertaining to the two-stage approach, analysis can be conducted, utilising computed scores as indicators of the second order construct. In contrast to the repeated indicator approach,

the two-stage approach emphasises upon two steps in sequence. Latent variable scores of the first order constructs can be obtained at the first stage. The scores of the first order constructs can be used as single items for the second order construct. In practice, when considering an endogenous variable as the higher order construct, the two-stage approach could be more suitable to adopt (Van Riel et al., 2017).

Finally, similarly to the pilot study, an abbreviation of each latent variable is elucidated as below. This is needed to avoid confusion concerning the name of latent variables and the second order constructs for the full-scale study, while utilising PLS-SEM.

1. Task Interdependence in a Team is abbreviated to 'TAS'.
2. Interactions with Others can be abbreviated to 'INT'.
3. Low Job Autonomy is abbreviated to 'LJA'.
4. Low Fairness of Job rotation is abbreviated to 'LFJ'.
5. Ambiguity of Appraisal Policies is abbreviated to 'AMB'.
6. Higher Supervisor Discretion is abbreviated to 'HSD'.
7. Low Rater Accountability is abbreviated to 'LRA'.
8. Benefits for Ratees can be abbreviated to 'BRE'.
9. Benefits for Raters can be abbreviated to 'BRR'.
10. Managerial Acceptance is abbreviated to 'MRA'.
11. Index-Based Acceptance is abbreviated to 'IBA'.
12. Employee Silence with Personal Motives is abbreviated to 'EMS'.

For reference, concerning control variables, age is marked as 'Age'; Gender is abbreviated to 'Gen'; Tenure is abbreviated to 'TEN' and Job Grades can be abbreviated to 'GRA'.

Concerning employee silence with personal motives, The Acquiescent Silence Dimension is abbreviated to 'ASD'. The Defensive Silence Dimension is abbreviated to as 'DSD'. The Disengaged Silence Dimension is abbreviated to 'DED'. The Opportunistic Silence Dimension is abbreviated to 'OSD'. The Relational Silence Dimension is abbreviated to 'RSD'.

Table 27: Higher order construct in the research model

Higher order construct	The Elements of second order construct
EMS	ASD, DSD, DED, OSD and RSD

8.5.1.1 Measurement model of the reflective first order constructs

- *Reliability (Indicator Reliability and Internal Consistency Reliability including Cronbach's Alpha and Composite Reliability)*

At first, indicator reliability (individual item reliability) is tested by checking the numbers of 'outer loadings' in PLS-SEM (Chang et al., 2016; Kumar & Purani 2018). In other words, through the items with outer loadings (the indicators' loadings), indicator reliability of reflective indicators can be evaluated (Hulland 1999). According to Afthanorhan (2014), indicator reliability refers to investigating how much the variance of indicators can be elucidated by the corresponding latent construct. According to Wong (2013), 0.7 or higher is ideally preferred. The threshold level could be 0.4 or higher, depending on types of studies. However, Wong's results imply that values close to 0.7 can be normally acceptable as a preferred way. When firstly checking outer loadings, it was reported that two items with loadings such as, INT_4 (Q2_4) and LFJ_2 (Q4_2) are either below 0.5 or 0.4. According to Hair et al. (2011), it is recommended to drop weaker indicators with outer loadings. This is because weaker indicators with outer loadings are likely to affect validity. Furthermore, when dropping weaker indicators, it would be easier for a researcher to secure higher values of composite reliability. Thus, INT_4 (Q2_4) and LFJ_2 (Q4_2) have been dropped. As below, the obtained result demonstrates that all of the individual items can have acceptable values of indicator reliability.

Figure 18: Indicator Reliability

Latent Variables	Indicators	Indicator Reliability (i.e., loadings ²)
AMB	Q5_5	0.909

	Q5_4	0.904
	Q5_2	0.902
	Q5_3	0.893
	Q5_1	0.853
ASD	Q11_2	0.966
	Q11_1	0.962
BRE	Q8_2	0.873
	Q8_1	0.835
	Q8_3	0.792
	Q8_4	0.693
BRR	Q9_3	0.92
	Q9_4	0.858
	Q9_2	0.781
	Q9_1	0.753
DED	Q11_3	0.946
	Q11_4	0.945
DSD	Q11_6	0.955
	Q11_5	0.952
HSD	Q6_2	0.905
	Q6_1	0.895
	Q6_3	0.846
	Q6_4	0.732
IBA	Q10_4	0.933
	Q10_5	0.917
	Q10_3	0.909
INT	Q2_3	0.872
	Q2_2	0.854
	Q2_1	0.843
	Q2_5	0.736
LFJ	Q4_5	0.897
	Q4_3	0.831
	Q4_1	0.787
	Q4_4	0.793
LJA	Q3_3	0.863
	Q3_5	0.833

	Q3_4	0.809
	Q3_2	0.716
	Q3_1	0.705
LRA	Q7_3	0.926
	Q7_5	0.901
	Q7_2	0.901
	Q7_4	0.894
	Q7_1	0.892
MRA	Q10_1	0.92
	Q10_2	0.817
OSD	Q11_7	0.936
	Q11_8	0.932
RSD	Q11_9	0.968
	Q11_10	0.968
TAS	Q1_2	0.965
	Q1_1	0.859
	Q1_4	0.756
	Q1_3	0.641
	Q1_5	0.626

Pertaining to CFA analysis for validating the measurement model, the construct reliability, convergent validity and discriminant validity should be evaluated. Additionally, also noteworthy is the significance of the indicator's loadings; these should be achieved by using 'the bootstrapping re-sampling procedure'. According to Sheko & Braimllari (2018), the bootstrapping re-sampling procedure refers to 10,000 subsamples of the original sample, so as to acquire both the t-statistic and p-values. Accordingly, this research has discovered that all of the indicator's loadings are significant as below:

Figure 19: The Significance of the indicator's loadings (the bootstrapping re-sampling procedure)

Latent Variables	Indicators	Original Sample	Sample Mean	Standard Deviation	T Statistics	P Values
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TAS	Q1_1	0.833	0.776	0.174	4.775	0
	Q1_2	0.963	0.802	0.195	4.927	0
	Q1_3	0.623	0.727	0.179	3.473	0.001
	Q1_4	0.78	0.791	0.156	4.991	0
	Q1_5	0.666	0.71	0.169	3.95	0
MRA	Q10_1	0.834	0.833	0.166	5.03	0
	Q10_2	0.907	0.842	0.156	5.835	0
IBA	Q10_3	0.906	0.874	0.115	7.884	0
	Q10_4	0.931	0.911	0.097	9.642	0
	Q10_5	0.922	0.902	0.111	8.298	0
ASD	Q11_1	0.962	0.962	0.007	133.215	0
	Q11_2	0.966	0.966	0.005	187.243	0
DED	Q11_3	0.942	0.942	0.009	99.909	0
	Q11_4	0.949	0.949	0.007	145.202	0
DSD	Q11_5	0.956	0.956	0.007	133.893	0
	Q11_6	0.951	0.951	0.009	103.225	0
OSD	Q11_7	0.93	0.929	0.012	76.209	0
	Q11_8	0.938	0.938	0.009	107.702	0
RSD	Q11_9	0.968	0.968	0.005	201.585	0
	Q11_10	0.968	0.968	0.005	198.486	0
INT	Q2_1	0.843	0.842	0.02	42.948	0
	Q2_2	0.853	0.853	0.018	46.978	0
	Q2_3	0.87	0.87	0.014	63.109	0
	Q2_5	0.738	0.738	0.033	22.117	0
LJA	Q3_1	0.719	0.713	0.065	11.076	0
	Q3_3	0.731	0.725	0.063	11.558	0
	Q3_3	0.841	0.84	0.032	26.646	0
	Q3_4	0.803	0.798	0.042	19.186	0
	Q3_5	0.853	0.844	0.035	24.39	0
LFJ	Q4_1	0.795	0.788	0.036	22.218	0
	Q4_3	0.84	0.833	0.031	26.713	0

	Q4_4	0.782	0.791	0.036	21.909	0
	Q4_5	0.891	0.892	0.014	63.831	0
AMB	Q5_1	0.853	0.853	0.018	48.547	0
	Q5_2	0.904	0.903	0.011	83.265	0
	Q5_3	0.892	0.892	0.015	60.595	0
	Q5_4	0.902	0.903	0.012	77.777	0
	Q5_5	0.908	0.908	0.012	76.167	0
HSD	Q6_1	0.897	0.897	0.012	76.059	0
	Q6_2	0.906	0.906	0.011	79.417	0
	Q6_3	0.843	0.842	0.021	40.824	0
	Q6_4	0.731	0.728	0.04	18.303	0
LRA	Q7_1	0.893	0.893	0.016	56.727	0
	Q7_2	0.901	0.901	0.014	66.192	0
	Q7_3	0.93	0.927	0.011	86.997	0
	Q7_4	0.894	0.893	0.015	57.892	0
	Q7_5	0.897	0.898	0.013	71.077	0
BRE	Q8_1	0.821	0.818	0.027	30.991	0
	Q8_2	0.875	0.872	0.018	48.109	0
	Q8_3	0.804	0.809	0.031	25.583	0
	Q8_4	0.697	0.694	0.047	14.978	0
BRR	Q9_1	0.742	0.74	0.043	17.153	0
	Q9_2	0.796	0.796	0.021	37.661	0
	Q9_3	0.918	0.919	0.008	113.711	0
	Q9_4	0.853	0.853	0.016	51.724	0

Secondly, internal consistency reliability is evaluated, by using ‘cronbach’s alpha’ and ‘composite reliability’. Cronbach’s alpha concerns how closely a set of survey items can be related as a group. However, there was an issue of underestimating true reliability (Peterson & Kim 2013).

In the same manner, composite reliability is hailed as a well-known alternative to cronbach's alpha (coefficient alpha) in the context of PLS-SEM. Nonetheless, it appears that in comparison with cronbach's alpha, composite reliability can be hailed as a preferred way by many scholars. This is on account of higher values regarding composite reliability in PLS-SEM (Dash & Paul 2021). When referring to Hair et al.'s study in 2019, composite reliability might be liberal. On the other hand, cronbach's alpha might be conservative. In theory, Brunner & SÜß (2005) defined composite reliability as being equal to the total amount of true score variance relative to the total scale score variance. As emphasised earlier, Chen et al. (2009) indicated that values of composite reliability should transcend the minimum of 0.70. This is theoretically based upon Nunnally's benchmark for composite reliability (Rahimnia & Hassanzadeh 2013). The obtained results as below have shown that values of composite reliability transcend 0.70. According to Nurshabrina & Adrianti (2020) values greater than 0.70 can stand for the good reliability of the measurement model, respecting cronbach's alpha. However, Nunnally & Bernstein (1994) proposed that values greater than 0.60 can be regarded as acceptable. According to Ursachi et al. (2015, p. 681), 'a general accepted rule is that α of 0.6-0.7 indicates an acceptable level of reliability, and 0.8 or greater a very good level. However, values higher than 0.95 are not necessarily good, since they might be an indication of redundancy'. Therefore, except for MRA (a coefficient alpha of 0.689) close to 0.70, values of cronbach's alpha refer to the good reliability of the measurement model. Nonetheless, in the realm of business and social sciences, a coefficient alpha close to 0.70 can be also considered as reliable and consistent (Moorthy et al., 2012). As a result, internal consistency reliability is well achieved.

Figure 20: Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability for internal consistency reliability

Latent Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
AMB	0.936	0.951
ASD	0.924	0.963
BRE	0.815	0.877
BRR	0.848	0.898
DED	0.882	0.944
DSD	0.9	0.952

HSD	0.869	0.91
IBA	0.909	0.943
INT	0.845	0.897
LFJ	0.849	0.897
LJA	0.856	0.89
LRA	0.944	0.957
MRA	0.689	0.861
OSD	0.853	0.932
RSD	0.933	0.967
TAS	0.889	0.883

For reference, the figure below entitled 'figure 21' is the obtained result of internal consistency reliability which includes INT_4 (Q2_4) and LFJ_2 (Q4_2). Although INT_4 (Q2_4) and LFJ_2 (Q4_2) were dropped after having reviewed indicator reliability, figure 21 is presented to compare values of composite reliability between figure 20 and figure 21. This is because as noted, Hair et al.'s study in 2011 proposed removing weaker indicators with outer loadings. Interestingly, after having dropped weaker indicators with outer loadings, figure 20 has shown higher levels of internal consistency reliability in a relative sense.

Figure 21: Internal consistency reliability including INT_4 and LFJ_2

Latent Variables	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability
AMB	0.936	0.951
ASD	0.924	0.963
BRE	0.815	0.876
BRR	0.848	0.898
DED	0.882	0.944
DSD	0.9	0.952
HSD	0.869	0.91
IBA	0.909	0.943
INT	0.72	0.823
LFJ	0.817	0.873
LJA	0.856	0.89
LRA	0.944	0.957
MRA	0.689	0.861
OSD	0.853	0.932
RSD	0.933	0.967

TAS	0.889	0.884
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- *Validity (Construct Validity consisting of Convergent Validity and Discriminant Validity)*

As a third step, convergent validity is evaluated, in accordance with a criterion called 'Average Variance Extracted' (AVE) (Fornell & Larcker 1981). According to Purwanto (2021), convergent validity refers to the magnitude of the correlation. When a concept can be measured by two different instruments, the measured value of a concept from two different instruments should be highly correlated (Ko et al., 2017). When checking AVE, all AVE values should be greater than the threshold of 0.5 (Naala et al., 2017; Gupta et al., 2021). The obtained result for this thesis shows that all AVE values are greater than 0.5.

Figure 22: Convergent validity (AVE)

Latent Variables	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
AMB	0.796
ASD	0.929
BRE	0.642
BRR	0.69
DED	0.894
DSD	0.909
HSD	0.718
IBA	0.846
INT	0.685
LFJ	0.686
LJA	0.62
LRA	0.815
MRA	0.757
OSD	0.872
RSD	0.937
TAS	0.609

Finally, discriminant validity is evaluated, in accordance with 'Fornell-Larker criterion'. In theory, discriminant validity can denote that similar concepts or measures of constructs

should be distinct (Hair et al., 2020). Fornel-Larker criterion stands for drawing a comparison between the square root of AVE in each construct and the correlation coefficients among the latent constructs (Măță et al., 2020). If the square root of AVE is higher than other correlation values, discriminant validity is demonstrated. Accordingly, through an analysis of Fornell-Larcker criterion, discriminant validity is well achieved for this thesis.

Figure 23: Discriminant validity (an analysis of Fornell-Larcker criterion)

	AMB	ASD	BRE	BRR	DED	DSD	HSD	IBA	INT	LFJ	LJA	LRA	MRA	OSD	RSD	TAS
AMB	0.892	0.49	0.116	0.44	0.371	0.397	0.38	-0.08	0.414	0.674	0.402	0.652	-0.106	0.283	0.373	0.024
ASD	0.49	0.964	0.197	0.55	0.775	0.792	0.47	-0.043	0.451	0.456	0.315	0.559	-0.11	0.519	0.685	-0.048
BRE	0.116	0.197	0.801	0.469	0.296	0.292	0.222	0.023	0.405	-0.048	-0.086	-0.035	0.018	0.451	0.347	0.062
BRR	0.44	0.55	0.469	0.831	0.491	0.48	0.504	-0.038	0.57	0.308	0.175	0.425	-0.079	0.467	0.472	0.019
DED	0.371	0.775	0.296	0.491	0.946	0.789	0.414	-0.079	0.44	0.359	0.25	0.435	-0.115	0.639	0.716	-0.027
DSD	0.397	0.792	0.292	0.48	0.789	0.953	0.409	-0.033	0.472	0.362	0.253	0.419	-0.068	0.641	0.769	-0.042
HSD	0.38	0.47	0.222	0.504	0.414	0.409	0.847	0.017	0.358	0.345	0.145	0.407	-0.058	0.308	0.366	-0.001
IBA	-0.08	-0.043	0.023	-0.038	-0.079	-0.033	0.017	0.92	-0.027	-0.069	-0.012	-0.063	0.768	0.001	-0.018	0.295
INT	0.414	0.451	0.405	0.57	0.44	0.472	0.358	-0.027	0.828	0.274	0.175	0.337	-0.033	0.481	0.483	0.095
LFJ	0.674	0.456	-0.048	0.308	0.359	0.362	0.345	-0.069	0.274	0.828	0.503	0.661	-0.085	0.139	0.322	0.052
LJA	0.402	0.315	-0.086	0.175	0.25	0.253	0.145	-0.012	0.175	0.503	0.788	0.463	0.005	0.074	0.25	-0.009
LRA	0.652	0.559	-0.035	0.425	0.435	0.419	0.407	-0.063	0.337	0.661	0.463	0.903	-0.116	0.214	0.389	0.012
MRA	-0.106	-0.11	0.018	-0.079	-0.115	-0.068	-0.058	0.768	-0.033	-0.085	0.005	-0.116	0.87	-0.031	-0.094	0.244
OSD	0.283	0.519	0.451	0.467	0.639	0.641	0.308	0.001	0.481	0.139	0.074	0.214	-0.031	0.934	0.616	0.024
RSD	0.373	0.685	0.347	0.472	0.716	0.769	0.366	-0.018	0.483	0.322	0.25	0.389	-0.094	0.616	0.968	-0.015
TAS	0.024	-0.048	0.062	0.019	-0.027	-0.042	-0.001	0.295	0.095	0.052	-0.009	0.012	0.244	0.024	-0.015	0.78

The Square root of AVE is presented in **bold type**

To summarise, a table concerning the measurement model of the reflective first order constructs is presented as below:

Table 28: A Summary table regarding measurement model of the reflective first order constructs

Type	Criterion	Where to Find in SmartPLS 3	Outcome
Indicator Reliability	Close to the Preferred level of 0.7	PLS Algorithm (Outer Loadings)	Demonstrated
The Significance of the indicator's loadings	P Values	Bootstrapping (Outer Loadings)	Demonstrated
Internal Consistency Reliability	Cronbach's Alpha	Construct Reliability and Validity	Demonstrated

Internal Consistency Reliability	Composite Reliability	Construct Reliability and Validity	Demonstrated
Convergent Validity	AVE	Construct Reliability and Validity	Demonstrated
Discriminant Validity	Fornell-Larcker Criterion	Discriminant Validity	Demonstrated

As a guide, prior to assessing the measurement model of the formative higher order constructs, a Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) in the reflective first order constructs should be addressed. Before evaluating the structural relationships in PLS-SEM, collinearity should be checked to make sure that the regression outcomes won't be influenced by any bias. Accordingly, Kock (2015) noted that the full collinearity test can measure not merely vertical but also lateral collinearity. Within the factor-based PLS-SEM algorithms, VIFs of 5 or lower can be applied. The obtained results are lower than 5. Multicollinearity wouldn't be an issue within this data sample.

Figure 24: Full collinearity VIFs

Latent Variables	Full VIFs
AMB	2.340
BRE	1.298
BRR	1.284
HSD	1.424
INT	1.540
LFJ	2.415
LJA	1.434
LRA	2.332
TAS	1.182

8.5.1.2 Measurement model of the formative higher order construct

- *Validity*

In the formative higher order construct, internal consistency reliability, convergent validity (redundancy analysis) and discriminant validity are unnecessary, due to the issue of uncorrelated measures (Tehseen et al., 2017b). As the formative higher order construct is multidimensional, redundancy analysis for confirming convergent validity can be omitted. When it comes to the formative second order construct, the validity of formative variables should be examined on two levels, such as 'the indicator (first) and the construct (second) levels' (Amaro & Duarte 2016). When referring to Amaro & Duarte's validity criterion, the indicator level can be hailed as weights of the first order constructs on the higher order variables, when imposing the hierarchical research model. Besides, the construct level can be understood as the second order construct level within the hierarchical model.

According to Ringle & Sinkovics (2009), concerning the indicator level, the significance of the estimated indicator weights and relevance should be examined to identify whether or not the individual first order variable can be actionable drivers of the second order variable. First and most importantly, if a weight is greater than 0.1, such a sign can be in line with the underlying theory. Besides, when each weight of the first order constructs can be significant towards the construction regarding the formative higher order variable, a satisfying level of validity can be empirically achieved. Additionally, higher t-statistics can imply that there is a strong relationship between the higher order construct and the first order construct (Tehseen et al., 2020). For reference, the t-ratio known as t-statistics and t-value can be alternatively employed, instead of the corresponding p-value to find out obvious evidence against null hypotheses. The threshold can be either 1.64 or 1.96 (Kock 2016). When referring to Jiang's thesis in 2021, the implication of the second order construct should be elucidated in detail. For instance, when the total effects of each first order construct under the formative higher order construct can be similar, it is believed that each first order construct has 'equal relevance' towards the formative higher order construct. As can be seen, the obtained results have shown that each first order construct can contribute to the higher order construct. Weights of the first order constructs are all significant at p-values

less than 0.001. As a result, the validity of formative higher order construct is demonstrated at the first level.

Figure 25: Weights of the first order constructs on the higher order construct

Second Order Construct	First Order Constructs	Weight	T Statistics	P Values
EMS	DED	0.231 ***	42.648	< 0.001
	DSD	0.236 ***	43.404	< 0.001
	OSD	0.210 ***	28.486	< 0.001
	RSD	0.238 ***	39.090	< 0.001
	ASD	0.233 ***	35.117	< 0.001

P-value of 0.05, p-value of 0.01** and p-value of 0.001****

At the construct level, within the path model, the significance of the relation between the second order construct and another latent variable should be investigated to confirm ‘the nomological validity’. When referring to Amaro & Duarte’s validity criterion for the repeated indicator approach, it is vital to grasp whether or not the formative variable can carry the intended meaning within the research model. Hence, the obtained results for this thesis have shown the significant relationships between the higher order construct and the first order constructs.

Figure 26: The Nomological validity

Second Order Construct	Latent Variables	Weight	T Statistics	P Values
EMS	BRE	0.303 ***	4.644	< 0.001
	BRR	0.234 ***	4.153	< 0.001

P-value of 0.05, p-value of 0.01** and p-value of 0.001****

Finally, to detect the collinearity between the formative indicators, VIF scores of the latent construct in the formative higher order construct should be assessed. When measuring VIF

scores within the formative construct, the threshold of 10 could be employed (Rabaai & Gable 2012). However, VIFs of 5 can be ideally preferred in the social sciences (Neshkova 2014). To sum up, the obtained results as below have shown that there is no multicollinearity problem.

Figure 27-a: VIF values for the formative higher order construct

	EMS
ASD	3.265
DED	3.551
DSD	4.210
OSD	1.939
RSD	2.783

Figure 27-b: Full VIFs for the formative higher order construct

	Full VIFs
EMS	1.748

In summary, it can be said that the measurement model for this research has acceptable or satisfying values of collinearity, reliability and validity. Accordingly, the structural model can be analysed in the following section. A summary table is presented as below:

Table 29: A Summary table concerning measurement model of the formative higher order construct

Type	Criterion	Where to Find in SmartPLS 3	Outcome
The Indicator Level	1. The Weights of > 0.1 2. P Values	Bootstrapping	Demonstrated
The Nomological Validity	1. The Weights of > 0.1 2. P Values	Bootstrapping	Demonstrated
Collinearity	VIFs of < 5	Collinearity Statistics (VIF)	Demonstrated

8.5.2 Structural model (Inner model)

Model fit index and the structural relationship are presented within this section. According to Richter et al. (2016), the aim of structural model is to predict the relationships between the input layer data and the output layer data. By extracting the bootstrapping result in PLS-SEM, outcomes including the moderating analysis are highlighted within this section. With respect to standardised beta coefficients, the strength of the effect of each independent construct can be compared with the dependent constructs. In addition, the two relation's course can be found, in positive or negative ways (Hassan et al., 2020). To avoid confusion, when comparing the strength regarding the effect of each independent construct towards the dependent variables, β concerning the unstandardised path coefficients isn't necessary (Cheah et al., 2020). This is because each independent construct is based upon various types of units, such as percent and the monetary values (Glen 2016). By interpreting standardised beta coefficients (the original sample coefficient in PLS-SEM), the relative importance of each coefficient can be easily interpreted (Aghili & Amirkhani 2021).

8.5.2.1 Model fit index

When referring to the PLS fit indices from the SmartPLS website, the higher order models which cover the repeated indicators can have limitations for the general applicability.

In other words, the calculations of some fit indices can't be demonstrated in fit summary within PLS SEM (SmartPLS, no date-b). Nonetheless, concerning the goodness of fit index in the formative higher order construct, Standardised Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) should be addressed (Hasan & Bao 2022). In theory, the SRMR denotes the root mean square discrepancy between the observed and implied correlations. When a value is close to 0, a perfect fit can be secured or reported. SRMR of < 0.08 can be deemed as a perfect fit in PLS-SEM (Tepe 2016). The obtained result of SRMR is below 0.08.

Figure 28: SRMR

Saturated model	Estimated model
0.059	0.070

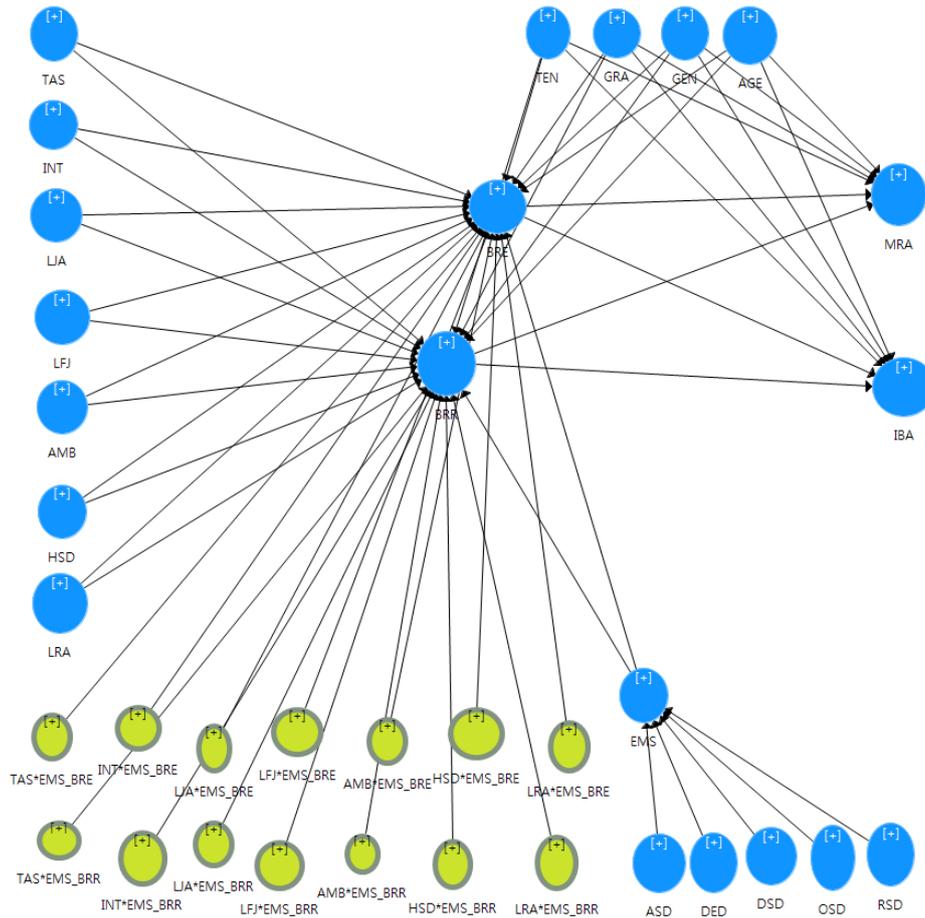
8.5.2.2 Structural relationship

In order to measure path coefficients and their significance levels, at first, it is worth noticing that p-value of < 0.05 refers to the significance between constructs. For reference, p-value of $< 0.05^*$, p-value of $< 0.01^{**}$ and p-value of $< 0.001^{***}$ are employed for this thesis. A p-value less than 0.05^* refers to powerful evidence against the null hypothesis. The lower the p-value, the more powerful the evidence (Agustiningsih et al., 2016).

According to Hummel & Maedche (2019), even though exploratory studies can adopt p-value of < 0.10 , it is appropriate to opt for p-value of < 0.05 . This is because p-value of < 0.10 could be labelled as a posterior probability of the null hypothesis being true over 20 percent (Colquhoun 2017). When referring to Purwanto's study in 2021, it explains that the understandable R-Squared value can be dependent upon the research context. The R-Squared value, known as the coefficient of determination, refers to the proportion of variance within the dependent construct which can be elucidated by the independent construct. Therefore, The R-Squared value theoretically refers to the model's in-sample explanatory power and the amount of variance (%) for the endogenous variable. In other words, The R-Squared value can stand for the conjoined effects of all independent constructs on a dependent construct (Pangesti et al., 2016; Manfrin et al., 2019). When referring to Hair et al.'s guidelines in 2019, The R-Squared value < 0.25 is hailed as weak. The R-Squared value < 0.5 is deemed as moderate. The R-Squared value < 0.75 is considered as substantial. For reference, when contemplating the sphere of business with management, The R-Squared value < 0.3 is regarded as very weak. The R-Squared value $0.3 < R < 0.5$ is hailed as weak. The R-Squared value $0.5 < R < 0.7$ is considered as moderate. The R-Squared value $R > 0.7$ is deemed as strong (Zikmund et al., 2000).

To help interpreting path coefficients and their significance levels, the path analysis model within PLS-SEM is illustrated as below:

Figure 29: The Path analysis model



As in the following, standardised path coefficients, p-value and the R-Squared value for the path analysis are presented (Figure 30-a). Standardised path coefficients, p-value, the R-Squared value and description for the path analysis are followed by the moderating effect (Figure 30-b).

Figure 30-a: Standardised path coefficients, p-value and the R-Squared value

Relationships	Standardised Coefficients	P Value	R ²	Description
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	(Beta)			
TAS → BRE	0.008	0.909	0.423	Insignificant
TAS → BRR	-0.015	0.773	0.508	Insignificant
INT → BRE	0.235 ***	< 0.001	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate
INT → BRR	0.266 ***	<0.001	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
LJA → BRE	-0.104 *	0.048	0.423	Negative, Significant, Moderate
LJA → BRR	-0.030	0.538	0.508	Insignificant
LFJ → BRE	-0.120	0.104	0.423	Insignificant
LFJ → BRR	-0.066	0.250	0.508	Insignificant
AMB → BRE	0.132	0.059	0.423	Insignificant
AMB → BRR	0.123 *	0.023	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
HSD → BRE	0.033	0.573	0.423	Insignificant
HSD → BRR	0.234 ***	< 0.001	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
LRA → BRE	-0.242 ***	< 0.001	0.423	Negative, Significant, Moderate
LRA → BRR	0.119	0.077	0.508	Insignificant
EMS → BRE	0.294 ***	< 0.001	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate
EMS → BRR	0.222 ***	< 0.001	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
BRE → IBA	0.026	0.652	0.054	Insignificant
BRE → MRA	0.055	0.321	0.038	Insignificant
BRR → IBA	-0.066	0.233	0.054	Insignificant
BRR → MRA	-0.114*	0.026	0.038	Negative, Significant, Weak

P-value of 0.05, p-value of 0.01** and p-value of 0.001****

The figure above refers to the determinants of perceived appraisal politics including TAS, INT, LJA, LFJ, AMB, HSD, LRA and EMS towards the perception of appraisal politics consisting of BRE and BRR. In addition, the impacts of perceived appraisal politics including BRE and BRR on the acceptance of appraisal system comprised of IBA and MRA are presented.

Concerning the determinants of perceived appraisal politics, the relationships of INT → BRE, INT → BRR, LJA → BRE, AMB → BRR, HSD → BRR, LRA → BRE, EMS → BRE and EMS → BRR are significant.

Respecting the effect of perceived appraisal politics, the relation of BRR → MRA is significant.

Figure 30-b: The Moderating effect (interaction term)

Relationships	Standardised Coefficients (Beta)	P Value	R ²	Description
TAS*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	0.005	0.920	0.423	Insignificant
TAS*EMS → BRR (Interaction Term)	-0.034	0.504	0.508	Insignificant
INT*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	-0.068	0.167	0.423	Insignificant
INT*EMS → BRR (Interaction Term)	-0.033	0.476	0.508	Insignificant
LJA*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	0.037	0.457	0.423	Insignificant
LJA*EMS → BRR (Interaction Term)	0.014	0.761	0.508	Insignificant
LFJ*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	0.049	0.522	0.423	Insignificant
LFJ*EMS → BRR (Interaction Term)	0.095*	0.046	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
AMB*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	-0.041	0.564	0.423	Insignificant
AMB*EMS → BRR (Interaction Term)	-0.015	0.803	0.508	Insignificant
HSD*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	0.158 **	0.008	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate
HSD*EMS → BRR (Interaction Term)	-0.057	0.222	0.508	Insignificant
LRA*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	0.195 **	0.004	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate
LRA*EMS → BRR (Interaction Term)	0.017	0.695	0.508	Insignificant

P-value of 0.05, p-value of 0.01** and p-value of 0.001****

The figure above only illustrates the moderating effect of employee silence between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics. The interaction terms including LFJ*EMS → BRR, HSD*EMS → BRE, and LRA*EMS → BRE are significant.

With regards to control variables, path coefficients, p-value and the R-Squared values are given as below. Although most control variables are insignificant in this research, it is vital to note that as control variables can limit the influence of other extraneous constructs, 'the internal validity' of this thesis can be reinforced. Depending on the existence or non-existence respecting control variables, path coefficients and their significance levels can vary. As a result, control variables can make the results in the path analysis model much more accurate (Al-Surmi et al., 2020).

Figure 31: Control variables

Relationships	Standardised Coefficients (Beta)	P Value	R ²
AGE → BRE	0.028	0.613	0.423
AGE → BRR	0.033	0.524	0.508
AGE → IBA	0.065	0.368	0.054
AGE → MRA	0.050	0.529	0.038
GEN → BRE	-0.004	0.924	0.423
GEN → BRR	0.024	0.537	0.508
GEN → IBA	-0.081	0.112	0.054
GEN → MRA	-0.057	0.321	0.038
TEN → BRE	0.039	0.563	0.423
TEN → BRR	-0.027	0.689	0.508
TEN → IBA	0.105	0.218	0.054
TEN → MRA	-0.053	0.528	0.038
GRA → BRE	0.022	0.710	0.423
GRA → BRR	0.065	0.228	0.508
GRA → IBA	0.034	0.605	0.054
GRA → MRA	0.142*	0.048	0.038

P-value of 0.05, p-value of 0.01** and p-value of 0.001****

As shown in the figure above, the significant relationship is found between job grades and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system. The higher the job grades, the more managerial acceptance there is.

With reference to the effect size (F Square), firstly, the F Square value of 0.02 is hailed as small. The F Square value of 0.15 is deemed as medium. Finally, the F Square value of 0.35 is regarded as large (Purwanto & Sudargini 2021). The effect size (F Square) denotes a measure of strength concerning each exogenous variable within the path model (López-Bonilla & López-Bonilla 2017). In theory, the effect size can be referred to as the difference in two groups' means divided by the variable's standard deviation. In addition, the effect size (F Square) can be understood as the change in the R-Squared value, when a particular independent construct is removed from the path model (Al-Emran et al., 2018). When referring to Richter et al.'s study in 2020, the effect sizes can further support the findings of structural relationships and their significance within the path model.

Figure 32: The Effect sizes (F Square)

Relationships	Effect Size	Description
INT → BRE	0.049	Small to Medium
INT → BRR	0.073	Small to Medium
LJA → BRE	0.012	Small
AMB → BRR	0.015	Small
HSD → BRR	0.073	Small to Medium
LRA → BRE	0.043	Small to Medium
EMS → BRE	0.078	Small to Medium
EMS → BRR	0.053	Small to Medium
BRR → MRA	0.010	Small
LFJ*EMS → BRR (Interaction Term)	0.008	Small
HSD*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	0.045	Small to Medium
LRA*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	0.030	Small to Medium

Next up, pertaining to the Q^2 , the threshold of the Q Squared value is above zero. The Q Squared values higher than zero can signify that the values of the research model are well re-constructed (Hadi et al., 2016). The Q Squared values higher than 0.25 and 0.50 can be

considered as medium and large predictive relevance, when reviewing the Q Squared values of the dependent variables in blindfolding in PLS-SEM (Hair Jr et al., 2020). To sum up, through the Q Squared value, the predictive relevance in terms of the research model can be evaluated. The obtained results as below have indicated that all endogenous variables can represent a satisfying predictive relevance respectively.

Figure 33: The Q Squared values of endogenous constructs

Endogenous variables	BRE	BRR	EMS	IBA	MRA
The Q Squared Value	0.229	0.328	0.679	0.040	0.015
Description	Small to Medium Predictive Relevance	Medium to Large Predictive Relevance	Large Predictive Relevance	Small Predictive Relevance	Small Predictive Relevance

Finally, specific indirect effects are illustrated. As noted earlier, type 2 ‘the reflective-formative measurement model’ can imply a perspective of complete mediating effects. In this light, low order constructs can’t share a common cause. However, these constructs can create a general concept which can mediate impacts on the endogenous construct (Chin 1998b). In addition, at the end, the significance respecting the full mediating effect of perceived appraisal politics is furnished between the determinant of perceived appraisal politics and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system, such as INT → BRR → MRA.

Accordingly, specific indirect effects are set out as below:

Figure 34: Specific indirect effects

Relationships	Standardised Coefficients (Beta)	P Value	R ²	Description
ASD → EMS → BRE	0.069 ***	< 0.001	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate
ASD → EMS → BRR	0.048 ***	< 0.001	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
DED → EMS → BRE	0.068 ***	< 0.001	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate
DED → EMS → BRR	0.047 ***	< 0.001	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
DSD → EMS → BRE	0.070 ***	< 0.001	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate
DSD → EMS → BRR	0.048 ***	< 0.001	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
OSD → EMS → BRE	0.062 ***	< 0.001	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate

OSD → EMS → BRR	0.043 ***	< 0.001	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
RSD → EMS → BRE	0.070 ***	< 0.001	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate
RSD → EMS → BRR	0.049 ***	< 0.001	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
INT → BRR → MRA	-0.030*	0.043	0.038	Negative, Significant, Weak

P-value of 0.05, p-value of 0.01** and p-value of 0.001****

The figure above illustrates a general concept of employee silence in the research model, as employee silence can mediate the relations between the low order constructs and the endogenous constructs. The relationships including ASD → EMS → BRE, ASD → EMS → BRR, DED → EMS → BRE, DED → EMS → BRR, DSD → EMS → BRE, DSD → EMS → BRR, OSD → EMS → BRE, OSD → EMS → BRR, RSD → EMS → BRE and RSD → EMS → BRR are significant. Therefore, a general concept of employee silence is well furnished for this study.

Furthermore, the complete mediating effect of perceived appraisal politics (BRR) is found between the determinant of perceived appraisal politics (INT) and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system. As a negative coefficient is presented, managerial acceptance of the appraisal system is decreased when perceiving the appraisal politics of benefits for raters attributed to interactions with others. In other words, interactions with others (in the political context at work) can negatively affect managerial acceptance of the appraisal system, owing to benefits for raters of the appraisal politics.

8.6 Testing a set of hypotheses

In this section, hypotheses are tested, based upon the analysis as illustrated above.

Table 30: Testing a set of hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: The factors of the job environmental dimension affect perceived appraisal politics	
H1a: Task interdependence in a team increases perceived	No support

appraisal politics	
H1b: Interactions with others augment perceived appraisal politics	Full support
H1c: Low job autonomy influences perceived appraisal politics	Partial support towards BRE
H1d: Low fairness of job rotation elevates perceived appraisal politics	No support
Hypothesis 2: The factors of the rater dimension influence perceived appraisal politics	
H2a: Ambiguity of appraisal policies increases perceived appraisal politics	Partial support towards BRR
H2b: Higher supervisor discretion augments perceived appraisal politics	Partial support towards BRR
H2c: Low rater accountability affects perceived appraisal politics	Partial support towards BRE
Hypothesis 3: Employee silence impacts upon the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics	
H3a: Employee silence affects the relationship between the factors of the job environmental dimension and perceived appraisal politics	Partial support from LFJ*EMS to BRR
H3b: Employee silence influences the relationship between the factors of the rater dimension and perceived appraisal politics	Partial support from HSD*EMS to BRE from LRA*EMS to BRE
H3c: Employee silence augments perceived appraisal politics	Full support
Hypothesis 4: Perceived appraisal politics mediate the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system	
H4a: Perceived appraisal politics affect managerial acceptance of the appraisal system in public organisations	Partial support from BRR to MRA
H4b: Perceived appraisal politics fully mediate the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system	Partial support INT → BRR → MRA
H4c: Perceived appraisal politics affect index-based acceptance of the appraisal system in public organisations	No support
H4d: Perceived appraisal politics fully mediate the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and index-based acceptance of the	No support

When taking a look at the table above, concerning hypothesis 1, it is believed that task interdependence in a team can't significantly influence perceived appraisal politics. However, interactions with others can fully affect perceived appraisal politics, such as towards benefits for ratees (path 0.235; $p < 0.001$) and benefits for raters (path 0.266; $p < 0.001$). Low job autonomy can negatively affect benefits for ratees (path: -0.104; $p < 0.05$). On the other hand, low fairness of job rotation can't affect perceived appraisal politics. From among the factors in the job environmental dimension, there is a strong effect size respecting the construct of interactions with others in a relative sense (F Square towards BRR: 0.073).

Respecting the factors of the rater dimension for hypothesis 2, ambiguities of appraisal policies can significantly affect benefits for raters (path 0.123; $p < 0.05$). Higher supervisor discretion can likewise influence benefits for raters (path 0.234; $p < 0.001$). In contrast, low rater accountability can negatively influence benefits for ratees (path -0.242; $p < 0.001$). From among the elements in the rater dimension, higher supervisor discretion refers to a stronger effect size in a relative sense (F Square towards BRR: 0.073).

Regarding hypothesis 3, employee silence with personal motives can fully augment perceived appraisal politics, such as towards benefits for ratees (path: 0.294; $p < 0.001$) and benefits for raters (path: 0.222; $p < 0.001$).

More noteworthy is that employee silence can influence the relation between low fairness of job rotation and benefits for raters (path: 0.095; $p < 0.05$).

Employee silence can affect the relation between some factors of rater dimension and benefits for ratees, such as HSD*EMS (path 0.158; $p < 0.01$) and LRA*EMS (path 0.195; $p < 0.01$). The interaction term 'HSD*EMS' covers a relatively higher effect size (F Square 0.045), compared to LRA*EMS (F Square 0.030).

What's interesting is that although low fairness of job rotation doesn't affect perceived appraisal politics, an interaction term of LFJ*EMS can influence benefits for raters, changing the nature of the relation. Furthermore, even though low rater accountability negatively affects benefits for ratees, the interaction term of 'LRA*EMS' positively affects benefits for ratees. While higher supervisor discretion affects benefits for raters, the interaction term of 'HSD*EMS' affects benefits for ratees.

Figure 35: The Comparison between in interaction terms and without interaction terms

Relationships	Standardised Coefficients (Beta)	P Value	R2	Description
LFJ*EMS → BRR (Interaction Term)	0.095*	0.046	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
LRA → BRE	-0.242 ***	< 0.001	0.423	Negative, Significant, Moderate
LRA*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	0.195 **	0.004	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate
HSD → BRR	0.234 ***	< 0.001	0.508	Positive, Significant, Moderate
HSD*EMS → BRE (Interaction Term)	0.158 **	0.008	0.423	Positive, Significant, Moderate

P-value of 0.05, p-value of 0.01** and p-value of 0.001****

Pertaining to hypothesis 4, the construct of benefits for raters affects managerial acceptance of the appraisal system (path -0.114; $p < 0.05$). Furthermore, benefits for raters can fully mediate the relation between interactions with others and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system in a negative way (path -0.030; $p < 0.05$).

8.7 A Chapter summary

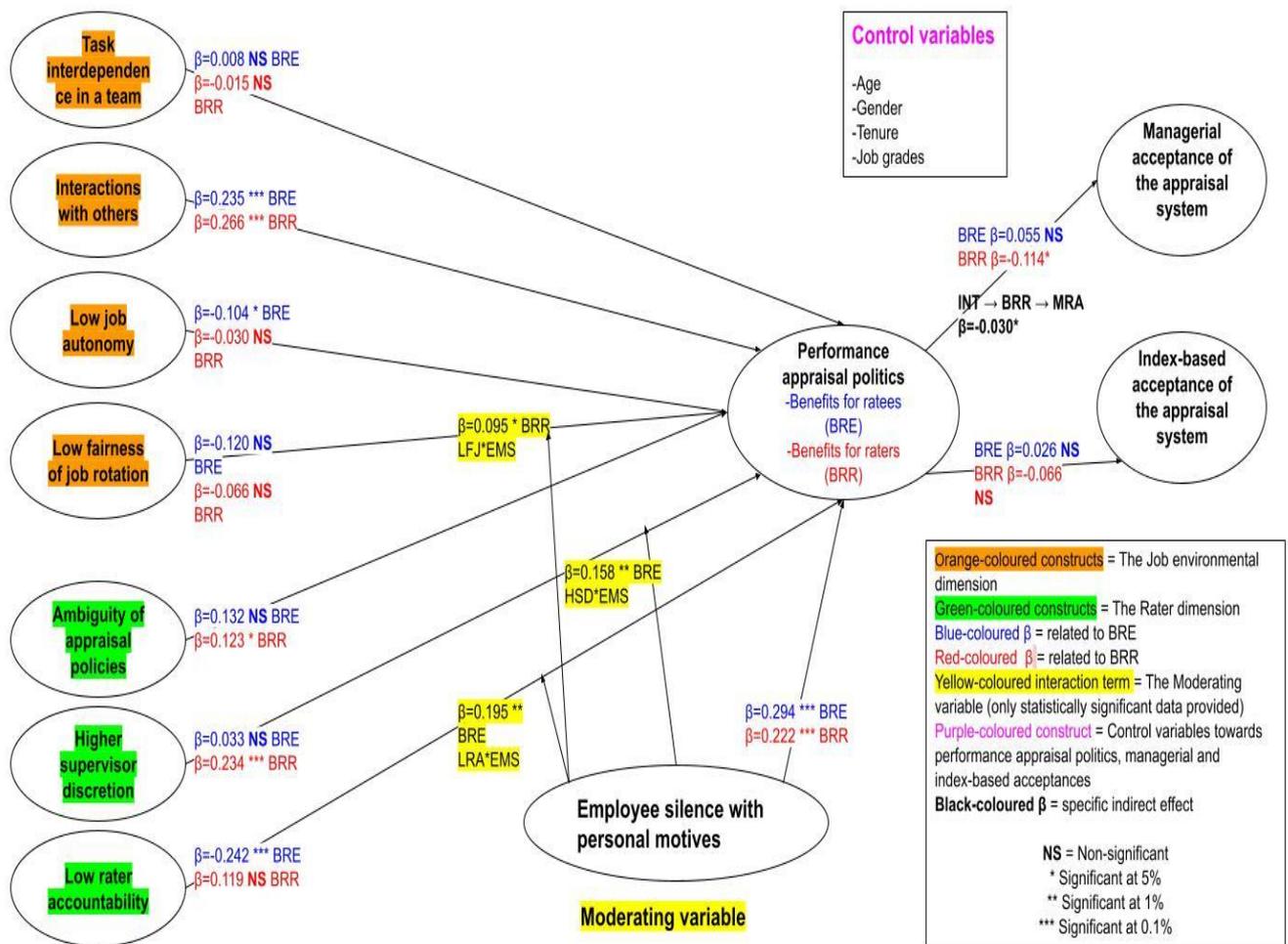
Pertaining to missing values and outliers, this research has followed complete case analysis, dropping missing values. Regarding outliers, it is quite complicated to deal with a set of data inconsistent with the majority of data set. Hence, through SPSS, the test of mahalanobis distance has been conducted, so as to detect multivariate outliers. Even though this study

has identified some outliers, all outliers haven't been discarded. This is owing to three academic reasons, such as the significance of data values for this thesis, 10-time rule and generalisability. In the case of non-response bias, the obtained results indicated that the significance value for Levene's test is above .05. Since p-values for all indicators are above .05, the t-values concerning Sig (2-tailed) are non-significant. Therefore, it has been demonstrated that there is no distinction between two groups, such as a group for early participants and a group for late participants. With regards to common method bias, through the test of Harman's single-factor, this research confirms that there is no common method bias within the variables. The obtained results for this thesis have confirmed that first factor accounted for 27.170% of variances. With respect to data distributions, the normality of data distributions isn't necessary for PLS-SEM. Nevertheless, the test of skewness and kurtosis has been demonstrated, so as to uphold whether or not the sample of data set is close to a rational representation.

In the case of measurement model of the reflective first order constructs, through the section of indicator reliability, INT_4 (Q2_4) and LFJ_2 (Q4_2) have been dropped. This is because these indicators were lower than 0.5 and 0.4. In practice, values close to 0.7 or higher than 0.7 have been acceptable as a preferred way. With respect to internal consistency reliability, cronbach's alpha and composite reliability have been well demonstrated. Additionally, in terms of validity, convergent validity for AVE and discriminant validity for Fornell-Larcker criterion and HTMT criterion have been well achieved. Within the reflective first order constructs, the issue of multicollinearity hasn't been irrelevant to this sample. Full VIFs has been evaluated for the reflective first order constructs. Respecting the formative higher order constructs, when referring to Amaro & Duarte's validity criterion, the indicator level can be regarded as weights of the first order constructs on the second order construct. Based upon the weights of > 0.1 and p-values, the indicator level has been well demonstrated. The significance of the relationship between the higher order construct and a latent variable has been examined to confirm 'the nomological validity'. Likewise, based on the weights of > 0.1 and p-values, the nomological validity has been well demonstrated. VIF values for the formative higher order construct and

Full VIFs for the formative higher order construct have been evaluated. There is no multicollinearity problem for the formative second order construct. Concerning the structural model, including model fit index and structural relationships, SRMR of < 0.08 can be hailed as a perfect fit in PLS-SEM. The obtained result of SRMR is below 0.08 for this study. In the case of the effect size (F Square), the F Square value of 0.02 is hailed as small. The F Square value of 0.15 is deemed as medium. Finally, the F Square value of 0.35 is regarded as large. The effect sizes (F Square) of this thesis are discovered in the category between small and medium. Respecting the Q Squared values, the obtained results have shown that all endogenous constructs can have the satisfying predictive relevance. Also noteworthy is that specific indirect effects have been furnished for type 2 'the reflective-formative measurement model' and the full mediating effect of appraisal politics. Consequentially, based upon the path analysis within PLS-SEM, 4 hypotheses have been addressed within this chapter. Respecting the path analysis (structural relationships), a summary figure is presented as below:

Figure 36: A Summary figure of the path analysis



Chapter 9 Discussion

This chapter aims to answer three different research questions as stated earlier. Firstly, the research gaps, model and research questions are recalled. Following this, by reviewing the relevant literature, results and findings with a set of hypotheses are addressed. These can be contrasted against the literature. Likewise, a chapter summary is set out at the end.

9.1 The Research gaps, model and research questions

Despite the awareness that inaccuracy in performance ratings can be deemed as the result of politically motivated performance manipulations (St-Onge et al., 2009; Greguras & Reb 2017), precious few scholars in South Korea raised the questions concerning the determinants and the effect of perceived appraisal politics within the public sector. Hence, this thesis has explored the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system. According to Gong et al. (2009), most civil servants believed that employee appraisals within the public sector in South Korea can be politically distorted. However, it was challenging to conceptualise perceived appraisal politics, while differentiating rater biases. Besides, the review of relevant literatures (within section **2.4** and **3.4**) showed that few studies within the public sector in South Korea took note of the context and the effect of perceived appraisal politics. Respecting the determinants of perceived appraisal politics, despite the importance of the factors of the rater dimension, the elements of the ratee dimension are emphasised recently to grasp the perceived organisational politics in employee appraisals in South Korea.

The context of the public sector in South Korea deserves attention. It is entering a period of change; some scholars have insisted that the bureaucratic totem pole can't fit in the information age, especially for the process of decision making. Lee (2018d) explained that

rather than stressing the viewpoint of the bureaucracy system, the severalty of public officials should be addressed in the process of decision making. Recently, Bang et al. (2020) illustrated that within the context of the public sector in South Korea, the public organisations are required to play a crucial role in both the essential public duty and corporate social responsibility. Representatively, job creation has been underlined to fulfil their corporate social responsibility. For reference, respecting the local public institution under the local autonomous entity, as of the end of 2018, around 30 percent of new officials made their way into public posts in South Korea. However, according to Lee (2018e), compared to major developed countries, the policy of job creation in the public sector can be imperfect, owing to the lack of decent job creations. It seems that further actions should be required for decent job creations. Above all things, in future, it is worth considering how to manage the increasing number of public officials in South Korea. In this respect, the author believes that a fair appraisal system should be established. This is because Kim (2021) discovered that the civil servants of the MZ generation in South Korea are more sensitive to procedural and distributive fairness. Also notable is that in South Korea, the central administrative agency has operated the central assessment centre since 2006, by utilising the competency assessment system in the public sector (Kwon & Chung 2021). However, it is still challenging to control the seniority system and to fairly connect individual performance with advancement opportunities within the context of performance appraisals; the seniority system can be linked to perceived organisational politics (Park 2019b).

As noted above, in the field of the public administration in South Korea, perceived organisational politics and perceived appraisal politics have been neglected, due to the research interests in HR functions derived from performance appraisals. Recently, Park & Lee's study in 2021 revealed that perceived organisational politics can negatively affect performance of government, highlighting the implication of perceived organisational politics in the public sector. There has been minimal attention dedicated to employee silence in the context of perceived appraisal politics, as well as respecting the relation between the perception of appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system.

As a result, in an attempt to address the shortcomings of the previous researches, the author has developed the research model as shown in **Figure 9**. The research model covers key components, such as the determinants of perceived appraisal politics, employee silence with personal motives, performance appraisal politics (perceived appraisal politics) consisting of benefits for ratees and for raters, managerial and index-based acceptance of the appraisal system. As previously stated, concerning the determinants of perceived appraisal politics, task interdependence in a team, interactions with others, low job autonomy and low fairness of job rotation belong to the job environmental dimension. Ambiguity of appraisal policies, higher supervisor discretion and low rater accountability belong to the rater dimension for this research.

Along with the research model, this study sought to answer the following three research questions as below:

Research question 1: What are the determinants of perceived appraisal politics?

Research question 2: How does employee silence affect the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics?

Research question 3: How does perceived appraisal politics intervene in the relationship between its determinants and the acceptance of the appraisal system?

So as to answer three different research questions, four main hypotheses have been proposed.

Hypothesis 1 (and its sub-hypotheses including H1a, H1b, H1c and H1d): The factors of the job environmental dimension affect perceived appraisal politics

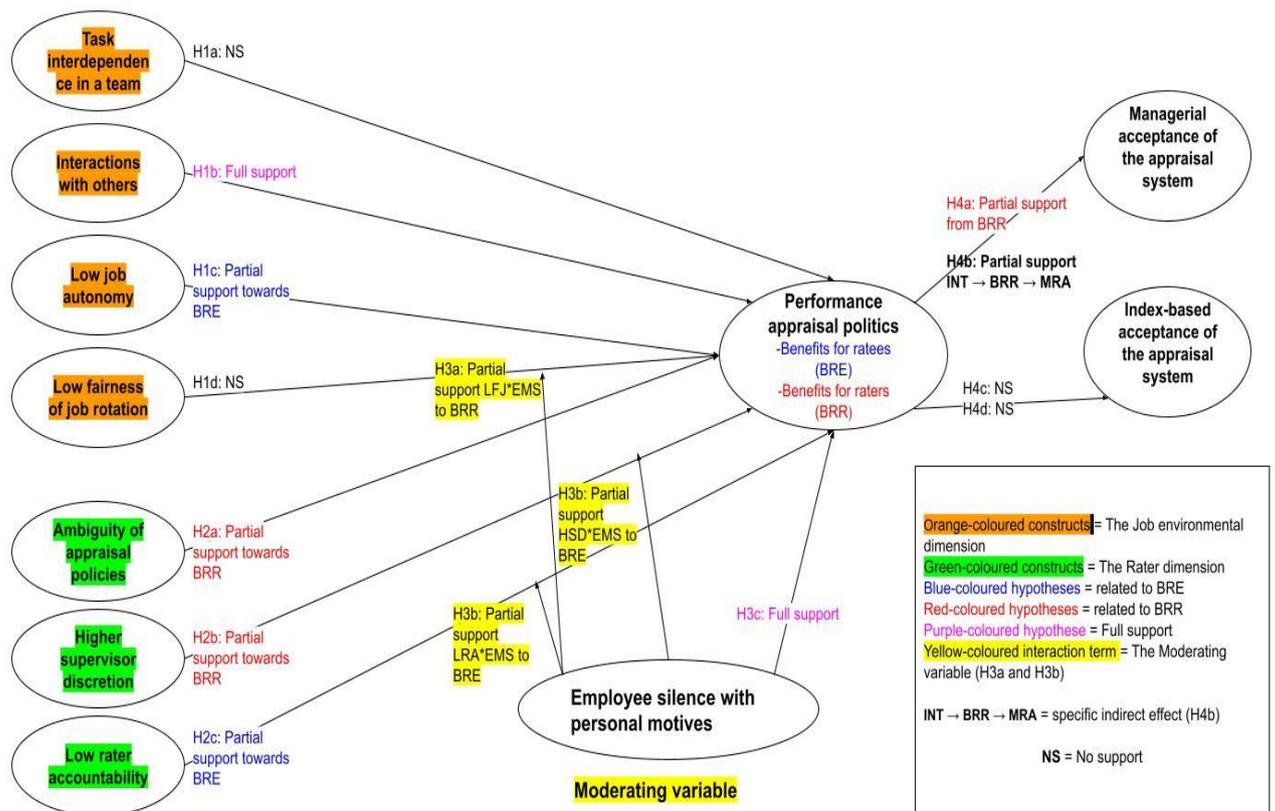
Hypothesis 2 (and its sub-hypotheses including H2a, H2b and H2c): The factors of the rater dimension influence perceived appraisal politics

Hypothesis 3 (and its sub-hypotheses including H3a, H3b and H3c): Employee silence impacts upon the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics

Hypothesis 4 (and its sub-hypotheses including H4a, H4b, H4c and H4d): Perceived appraisal politics mediate the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system

All research hypotheses have been tested within chapter 8. In addition to table 30 named ‘Testing a set of hypotheses’, 14 sub-hypotheses are simply illustrated in **Figure 37** as below:

Figure 37: All sub-hypotheses in figure



9.2 What are the determinants of perceived appraisal politics? (RQ1)

With regards to the elements of the job environmental dimension, a set of hypothesis 1 including H1a, H1b, H1c and H1d are firstly addressed.

No relationship between task interdependence in a team and the perception of appraisal

politics was confirmed. This is contrary to Park's study in 2014 within the private sector in South Korea. In contrast to the private sector in South Korea, the finding of this study implies that the results of team performance far outweigh the individual contribution of team performance in the context of performance ratings. This is because when tasks should be performed by all individuals in a team, raters in the public sector could evaluate individual behaviour in a team. However, it was quite ambiguous to evaluate personal behaviour in a team (Kim 2005). Hence, by and large, the outcomes of team performance become vital in the public sector in South Korea, when tasks are performed independently in a team. Likewise, in the Asian context, supervisors tend to pay more attention to overall team performance through task interdependence in teams, rather than evaluating the individual contribution of performance (Ali et al., 2019). When referring to Bowman's study in 1999 which stressed trait and behaviour-based systems, raters may find it difficult to assess who accomplished the intended goals; it can trigger perceived appraisal politics in the private sector. On the other hand, according to Rosenauer et al. (2016), although it was claimed that task interdependence can lead to a bias against others, team leaders with higher cultural intelligence can maximize merit of task interdependence in a team. As a result, diversity climate and team performance can be enhanced. Besides, Arnold & Tafkov (2019) illustrated that in line with economic theory, task interdependence in a team can enhance team performance, when managers can be provided with discretion over team bonus allocation. However, based upon behavioural theory, there can be no impacts of task interdependence in a team; supervisors can't incorporate all relevant information for making decisions. Hence, rather than taking account of the contribution from task interdependence, raters may prefer utilising different criteria for employee appraisals. Thus, it is probable that task interdependence in a team can be irrelevant to performance rating. Accordingly, no relation between task interdependence in a team and the perception of appraisal politics can be demonstrated. Referentially, in isolation from perceived organisational politics, it is likely that task interdependence in teams can lead to positive effects, such as employee satisfaction (Galup et al., 2008).

Resultingly, H1a isn't supported.

This research discovered the relationship between interactions with others and the perception of appraisal politics. Likewise, during interpersonal interactions in the work place, perceived organisational politics can be mostly discovered (Cohen 2016). Besides, as long as individuals can hold the lower level of emotional intelligence, individuals can easily perceive organisational politics in the work place (Meisler & Vigoda-Gadot 2014). In a similar vein, according to Bizzi (2018), the centrality of an employee within the social network can disturb employee appraisals; the rater's rating biases can be perceived. In the context of South Korea, Kim et al. (2018d) revealed that the political behaviour of supervisors and colleagues can be mostly attributed to interactions with others at work. For reference, the issue of interactions with others can be mitigated by both distributive and procedural fairness.

Resultingly, H1b is fully supported.

Concerning low job autonomy, contrary to the writer's expectation, the negative relationship between low job autonomy and benefits for ratees was confirmed in this thesis. When referring to O'Connor & Morrison's study in 2001, perceived organisational politics can be negatively correlated with the degree of job autonomy as a situational predictor of perceived organisational politics. The lower the job autonomy employees can hold, the higher the level of organisational politics employees can perceive. On the contrary, this research implied that the higher degree of job autonomy can lead to benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics. However, contrary to some previous studies which typically referred to the relation between low job autonomy and perceived organisational politics, there was a research indicating that job autonomy can lead to perceived organisational politics (Sultan et al., 2015). Interestingly, Lin et al. (2013) insisted that within the public institutions, bureaucratic and hierarchical structures can normally restrict decision-making within management practices. Compared to the top managers of a company, individuals can be involved with the decision-making to obtain personal benefits in public organisations, through job autonomy. Therefore, there exists a reasonable link between job autonomy and

benefits for ratees, not for benefits for raters.

Resultingly, H1c is partially supported.

Respecting low fairness of job rotation, no relationship was confirmed towards the perception of appraisal politics. According to Jirjahn & Poutsma (2013), job rotation can contribute to both multitasking abilities and a basis of work organisation. Thus, job rotation should be positively related to the use of performance appraisals. Yoon & Kim (2019) implied that as certain jobs are highly associated with evaluation criteria, a fair system of job rotation should be established. It appears that some employees within the private sector in South Korea believed that the features of job rotation can be relevant to perceived appraisal politics. On the other hand, within the public sector in South Korea, Kim & Lee (2018) explained that compared to private organisations which seek effectiveness, public organisations adopt the system of job rotation, based upon either regulation or formality. Hence, the impact of the job rotation system could vary, depending on situations. Rather than the rotation which pursues effectiveness for performance, the formalities of the rotation system are highlighted within the public sector. Thus, it is quite probable that the job rotation system by itself doesn't have a significant impact upon perceived appraisal politics.

Resultingly, H1d isn't supported.

With reference to the factors of rater dimension, a set of hypotheses 2 is addressed comprised of H2a, H2b and H2c.

This study referred to the relation between ambiguity of appraisal policies and benefits for raters of the appraisal politics. It is generally believed that the deficiency of rules or policies can be associated with perceived organisational politics (Khuwaja et al., 2020). However, when contemplating the perception of appraisal politics, it is necessary to look closer respecting benefits for ratees and for raters. In addition to evaluative goal ambiguity, it

appears that ambiguity of appraisal policies could influence the individual perception respecting employee appraisals within the public sector (Chun & Rainey 2005). When referring to Kim & Lee's study in 2018, on account of the context of policy ambiguity, rank-and-file employees within the public sector were more dissatisfied with the outcomes of appraisal ratings. On the other hand, in line with the relation between the context of ambiguity and an authoritative supervisor in organisations, it can be perceived that ambiguity of appraisal policies triggers benefits for raters of perceived appraisal politics.

Resultingly, H2a is partially supported.

The relationship between higher supervisor discretion and benefits for raters of appraisal politics was confirmed. In a similar vein, a higher degree of autonomy and perceived organisational politics was found, when focusing upon the manager's perception (Elbanna 2016). Under the approach of supervisor-driven subjective performance evaluation, the higher degree of supervisor discretion can trigger the manipulative behaviour by raters (Tabassum et al., 2021). Additionally, it can be perceived that supervisor discretion may be utilised for benefiting supervisors or raters, abiding by rating standards (Bang 2014). Besides, when concentrating upon an employee's viewpoint, an employee is dissatisfied with the results of employee appraisals attributed to a rater's discretion and authority. It can be perceived that the outcomes of employee appraisals are linked to unreasonable consequences, such as profits for managers (Shin & Park 2004).

Resultingly, H2b is partially supported.

This thesis implied that rater accountability can affect benefits for ratees. Contrary to the writer's expectation, low rater accountability negatively affected benefits for ratees in this thesis. The finding of this study is similar to Ahn & Cho's outcomes in 2018, especially for a local autonomous entity in South Korea as well as the impact of a high level of felt accountability (Hochwarter et al., 2007). In the literature chapter, the author adduced examples of rater accountability. Procedural and outcome accountabilities in the

management context were furnished. Besides, downward and upward accountabilities in the appraisal context were elucidated. As rater accountability stands for raters who are accountable for the accuracy of appraisal ratings (Palmer & Feldman 2005), the author believed that low rater accountability can be involved with the perception of appraisal politics. However, when referring to Curtis et al.'s study in 2005, performance ratings can be more lenient in the context of downward accountability. Besides, the effect of upward accountability seldom can exist in practice. According to Sohn & Kang (2020), the ratee's expectations of appraisal feedback can also influence rater accountability. As a result, due to the pressure of face-to-face feedback towards employees, it is likely that rater accountability causes benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics.

Resultingly, H2c is partially supported.

Overall, interactions with others, job autonomy (benefits for ratees), ambiguity of appraisal policies (benefits for raters), higher supervisor discretion (benefits for raters), rater accountability (benefits for ratees) and employee silence are the determinants of perceived appraisal politics within the public sector in South Korea. In the following section, the contents of employee silence will be elucidated.

9.3 How does employee silence affect the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics? (RQ2)

According to Longenecker & Gioia (1994, p. 47), 'people recognise that everyone seeks some form of influence to protect their own interests'. This is because organisations are political arenas in which all employees can be a political player. When referring to Cho & Yoo's research in 2014, employee silence can be explained as strategic action by individuals to seek their own interests at work. The author firstly addressed the relation between employee silence and perceived appraisal politics, after reviewing Kwon & Kim's study in

2017 which found the correlation between employee silence and perceived organisational politics. Interestingly, some studies proposed that when organisational politics can be perceived, individuals may prefer remaining silent (Sulphrey 2020). In addition, chances are that the moderating effect of employee silence changes the nature of the relation between a predictor and an outcome, as stressed earlier. Kim & Kim (2018) illustrated that the moderating effect of defensive silence can change the relation between the presentation of opinion and carrying a plan into practice in South Korea, in opposition to acquiescent silence. Referentially, punishment caused defensive silence; collectivism generated acquiescent silence in South Korea (Rhee et al., 2014). With this in mind, a set of hypotheses 3 is addressed, including H3a, H3b and H3c.

Pertaining to H3a, employee silence exerted influence on the relationship between the factor of the job environmental dimension and the perception of appraisal politics, only for low fairness of job rotation towards benefits for raters. As noted earlier, the variable of low fairness of job rotation is based upon procedural fairness. When contemplating the relation among procedural fairness, employee silence and benefits for raters of the appraisal politics, it was implied that employee silence may alter the relation between procedural fairness and the reaction of procedural fairness (Whiteside & Barclay 2013). In a similar vein, this research showed that employee silence can alter the relation between a low fairness of job rotation and benefits for raters of the appraisal politics.

Resultingly, H3a is partially supported.

Respecting H3b, this thesis confirmed that employee silence affected the relation between the factors of the rater dimension and perceived appraisal politics. To be more specific, employee silence can influence the relation between higher supervisor discretion and benefits for ratees, as well as between low rater accountability and benefits for ratees. Concerning the interaction term of the relation between a higher supervisor discretion and employee silence, contrary to the relation between supervisor discretion and benefits for raters of the appraisal politics, employee silence changed the nature of the relation

between supervisor discretion and perceived appraisal politics. Similarly, when referring to Latham & Russo's study in 2008, it is likely that individuals choose being silent in the political context of employee appraisals, which may alter the relation between the rater's characteristic and the rater's behaviour. Regarding the interaction term of the relation between low rater accountability and employee silence, benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics were perceived. This is contrary to the relation between rater accountability and benefits for ratees as noted above. When referring to Ferris et al.'s study in 2008 and Lee et al.'s research in 2017, it is quite probable that employee silence and low rater accountability can be discussed in the context of an informal appraisal mechanism. When the informal appraisal feedback is hailed as a predominant trait in the work place, individuals can be more silent. Besides, raters don't hold their accountability. This study showed that employee silence altered the nature of the relation between rater accountability and benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics.

Resultingly, H3b is partially supported.

With reference to H3c, as expected, employee silence with personal motives perked up not merely benefits for ratees but also benefits for raters. According to Srivastava et al. (2019), employee silence can sometimes trigger unforeseeable outcomes in the work place. When referring to Park & Lee's study in 2021, in public organisations in South Korea where the perceptions of organisational politics or appraisal politics can be quite new, it is worth taking note of the effect of silence behaviour towards perceived organisational politics. In this context, a relational silence motivation can be proposed as it has repeatability in many cases (Milliken et al., 2003). In a similar vein, it is vital to note that employee silence with a relational motive can augment the perceived status of supervisors (Tangirala & Ramanujam 2008). According to Jung & Park (2013), depending on the subject, such as either raters or colleagues, the impact of silence behaviour can differ. Interestingly, when individuals are silent towards their superiors, the political behaviour of supervisors in employee appraisals can be easily perceived.

Resultingly, H3c is fully supported.

9.4 How does perceived appraisal politics intervene in the relationship between its determinants and the acceptance of the appraisal system? (RQ3)

First off, respecting H4a, a negative relation between benefits for raters and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system was confirmed. The finding of this study implied that benefits for raters of the appraisal politics can lower managerial acceptance of the appraisal system. In a similar vein, perceived political behaviour at work can lead to organisational cynicism in South Korea (Chung 2021). As stressed earlier, as a means of control by raters, raters can consider benefits for raters of the appraisal politics as crucial. However, the job grade of rank-and-file employees who accounted for 38 percent of this study can be sceptical of benefits for raters of the appraisal politics. Again, the job grades of a general employee and an assistant manager have no experiences respecting the roles of raters. In addition, based upon the fulfilment of the psychological contract, the author assumed that benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics will influence the acceptance of the appraisal system, especially for managerial acceptance. However, although benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics can be involved with the fulfilment of the psychological contract, it would be difficult to predict the relation between benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system. Rather than the acceptance of the appraisal system in this context, organisational commitment or organisational citizenship can be considered for further studies (Jeon & Hong 2019).

Resultingly, H4a is partially supported.

Secondly, with reference to H4b, the full mediating role of benefits for raters between interactions with others and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system was confirmed. Likewise, the negative relationship was confirmed. The variable of interactions with others

reflected interactions and relations with co-workers in a political environment for this study. As a further study in the future, emotional commitment might be addressed in this context (Ramkumar 2019). Nevertheless, it is crucial to note that interactions with others in a political environment could trigger the negative attitudes of individuals, when referring to Gotsis & Kortezi's study in 2010. Also noteworthy is that owing to raters reluctant to re-balance the exchange relationship (Crawford et al., 2019), interactions with others can lower managerial acceptance of the appraisal system.

Resultingly, in line with H4a, H4b is partially supported.

Finally, as index-based acceptance of the appraisal system can't be down to the perception of appraisal politics, no relationships were confirmed in terms of H4c and H4d. When re-considering the micro issue respecting the acceptance of the appraisal system, the perception of manipulative ratings by raters can't be consistent with index-based acceptance. Additionally, when referring to Kim et al.'s study in 2018b, it anticipated that the NPM paradigm in South Korea can be no longer vital in the context of the acceptance of the appraisal system, on account of paradigm shifts in the public sector. Thus, public officials can nowadays pay less attention to both a micro level and cognitive issue (Ihn 2021).

Resultingly, H4c and H4d aren't supported.

9.5 A Chapter summary

By answering three research questions, this chapter explicates the results and findings with a set of hypotheses.

Firstly, job autonomy, interactions with others, ambiguity of appraisal policies, higher supervisor discretion, rater accountability and employee silence were addressed as the determinants of perceived appraisal politics within the public sector in South Korea. Secondly, it was confirmed that employee silence can alter the nature of the relation

between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics. For instance, when considering the relation among the procedural fairness of job rotation, employee silence and benefits for raters of the appraisal politics, it was found that employee silence can change the relation between a low fairness of job rotation and benefits for raters of the appraisal politics. Finally, the complete mediating role of perceived appraisal politics (benefits for raters) was confirmed. It can be said that owing to supervisors reluctant to re-balance the exchange relation in the context of performance appraisals, the negative relationship between interactions with others and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system can be explicated. Respecting the relation between benefits for raters of the appraisal politics and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system, it was worth noting that perceived political behaviour at work can lead to organisational cynicism in South Korea. Also noteworthy, 38 percent of rank-and-file employees were included in this study. Thus, the author had assumed that benefits for raters of the appraisal politics may lower managerial acceptance of the appraisal system, as previously stated.

Chapter 10 Conclusion

This chapter aims to underline theoretical and practical implications of this thesis. Firstly, in the section of main conclusions, the author addresses four different objectives, based upon the results and findings of this study. Concerning the first objective, the comparison between the literature of perceived organisational politics and the findings relevant to perceived appraisal politics by the author will be presented (related to the determinants of perceived appraisal politics). Respecting the second objective, the comparison between the literature of the rater's perception of appraisal politics and the finding of this study including diverse job grades will be illustrated (related to the determinants of perceived appraisal politics). Regarding the third objective, the comparison between the job environment and the rater dimensions for this research will be underlined (related to the determinants of perceived appraisal politics). Pertaining to the fourth objective, the comparison between benefits for ratees and benefits for raters of the appraisal politics will be set out (related to the effects and the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics). Secondly, with reference to the section of contributions and implications, the author explicates how the findings of this study can be deemed as crucial for HR practice, policy and theory developments. Thereafter, the limitations of research are furnished. In the case of the limitations of study, outliers, the generalisation of findings and others will be addressed. At the end of this chapter, the direction of future study is set out.

10.1 Main conclusions

According to Hodgkinson et al. (2018), employee appraisals can mainly focus on individuals' performance potential so as to attain the goals of the organisation. However, in practice, supervisors may politically utilise employee appraisals to secure their self or department benefits. To be more specific, supervisors can intentionally reflect the punishment motive against employees or motivational motive towards employees within performance ratings,

known as performance appraisal politics (Elhadi 2020). The author paid attention to the personal perception regarding the phenomenon of appraisal politics, due to the subjectivity involved for OB studies. It appears that in addition to the public sector in South Korea, other countries likewise find it difficult to cope with perceived appraisal politics as the macro environment, when referring to Elhadi's study in 2020. Pertaining to performance appraisals, gaps between a theory and a reality can naturally exist, due to the expected frequency of rater behaviour (Gorman et al., 2017). According to Ghorpade & Chen (1995), when underlining an organisational perspective, failing to reward good performance (the inaccuracy in performance ratings) can often be generated by raters, which can lead to negative outcomes in organisations. The author insisted that the inaccuracy in performance ratings can be hailed as the deliberate manipulation by raters. This is because raters can view employee appraisals as a means to an end, when referring to Longenecker & Ludwig's research in 1990. In comparison with Western and other Asian countries, few studies in South Korea explored the determinants or the impacts of perceived appraisal politics, despite the significance of perceived fairness of the appraisal system. Thus, the author explored the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics between its determinants and acceptance of the appraisal system in the public sector in South Korea. Recently, processual features were addressed as a factor influencing perceived appraisal politics. According to Nawi & Ismail (2021), it is probable that the lack of communication can be deemed as a crucial driving factor. After having considered few relevant studies in the public sector in South Korea, the author referred to the job environmental and the rater dimensions in line with a recent path-analytic research. Henceforward, the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics was addressed between its determinants and acceptance of the appraisal system. The author has believed that the impact of perceived appraisal politics can vary in a wide variety of cases at work.

To conclude this thesis, four different research objectives are re-called. The first objective is to explore the relation between the job environment dimension and the perception of appraisal politics. The second objective is to examine the relation between the rater

dimension and the perception of appraisal politics. The third objective is to evaluate the moderating effect of employee silence on the relationship between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics. The fourth objective is to explore the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics between its determinants and the acceptance of the appraisal system.

Respecting the first objective as stated above, based upon the job environmental factors of perceived organisational politics, this research refers to task interdependence in a team, interactions with others, low job autonomy and low fairness of job rotation. From among these, interactions with others (towards benefits for ratees and for raters) and job autonomy (towards benefits for ratees) trigger perceived appraisal politics.

More importantly, it can be said that regardless of the appraisal process, individuals can perceive the political behaviour by raters, through the job environmental factors. In a similar vein, job complexity was addressed as the element of the job environment which can affect performance ratings (Ohme & Zacher 2015). Concerning interactions with others, in line with the literature of perceived organisational politics, individuals easily perceive the manipulative behaviour by raters attributed to interactions with others in this research. In a similar vein, when socially interacting with others such as supervisors or colleagues in the political environment, individuals can perceive the political behaviour by others (Kacmar & Carlson 1997). In this context, the social penetration theory can be addressed as it indicates that interpersonal communication can be further changed, depending on personal relations (Tang et al., 2021). Respecting low job autonomy, contrary to the literature of perceived organisational politics, job autonomy affects benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics for this study. According to Ferris et al. (2002), job autonomy can result in the lower degree of perceived organisational politics. On the other hand, job autonomy can often affect the relation between supervisors and employees. This is because Charoensukmongkol (2021) stated that individuals can exercise free will on their jobs. As previously stated, individuals can attempt to be involved in the decision-making to acquire personal benefits through job autonomy in the work place. To sum up, in line with the literature of perceived organisational

politics, interactions with others fully affect perceived appraisal politics. On the contrary to the literature of perceived organisational politics, job autonomy results in benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics. More importantly, public employees in South Korea can perceive the political manipulation by raters, through some factors of the job environmental dimension.

Pertaining to the second objective as highlighted above, this thesis reveals that some factors of the rater's perception in appraisal politics lead to the general perception of appraisal politics. This is owing to the data set of this study including diverse job grades. Again, ambiguity of appraisal policies, higher supervisor discretion and low rater accountability were addressed as the rater dimension for this study. Except for rater accountability, both ambiguity of appraisal policies and higher supervisor discretion have significant impacts upon benefits for raters of the appraisal politics. On the other hand, the finding of this study implies that rater accountability influences benefits for ratees. Concerning ambiguity of appraisal policies, in line with the rater's perception of appraisal politics by Dhiman & Singh's study in 2007, all individuals in the public sector in South Korea generally deem ambiguity of appraisal policies as a determinant of perceived appraisal politics for this study. As stressed earlier, from the job grade of a general employee to the job grade of executives or higher, diverse job grades were included in this study. With reference to higher supervisor discretion, higher supervisor discretion affects perceived appraisal politics, such as benefits for raters. This is in line with the supervisor's perception of organisational politics (Gargiulo 1993). As noted earlier, individuals can believe that the outcomes of employee appraisals attributed to a rater's discretion and authority can be associated with profits for raters, when referring to Shin & Park's study in 2004. Regarding low rater accountability, although it can belong to rater's perception of the appraisal politics, low rater accountability can likewise belong to the organisational dimension as a determinant of perceived appraisal politics. On the contrary to the literature of low rater accountability, rater accountability affects benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics in this study; this can be in line with the literature of a lower status audience. For instance, Mero et al. (2007)

likewise focused on the rater's perspective that feel pressured to give some face-to-face feedback, which turns out to be the inflated ratings by raters. To sum up, in line with the supervisor's perception of appraisal politics or organisational politics, ambiguity of appraisal policies and higher supervisor discretion affect the perception of appraisal politics, such as benefits for raters. Additionally, when taking note of the rater's perspective, in line with the literature of a lower status audience, rater accountability influences the perception of appraisal politics, such as benefits for ratees.

With reference to the third objective, rather than simply thinking of an omnipresent phenomenon in organisations, this study focused on the fact that in political working environments, individuals tend to remain silent as a strategy (Sulastri & Wulansari 2018; Song et al., 2019). This research identified the casual relation between employee silence with personal motives and the perception of appraisal politics in this study. Furthermore, the author also took note of the moderating effect of employee silence, which can alter the nature of the relation between a predictor and an outcome within organisations.

Referentially, it is worth noticing that employee silence can respond sensitively to the relation between low procedural fairness and employee attitudes (Huang & Huang 2016). Recently, Ko & Cho (2020) hold forth the possibility that employee silence can affect various sorts of management practices in different shapes. It seems that the concerns of silence motives become crucial in the context of South Korea. When comparing the job environmental dimension and the rater dimension in this research, the moderating effect of employee silence was only stressed between low fairness of job rotation and benefits for raters of the appraisal politics. As no relation was confirmed between low fairness of job rotation and benefits for raters, this study underlines the significance concerning the moderating effect of employee silence (towards the job environmental dimension).

On the other hand, two factors of the rater dimension, such as higher supervisor discretion (towards benefits for raters) and low rater accountability (towards benefits for ratees) affected perceived appraisal politics respectively; it is interesting to note that the moderating effect of employee silence changed the directions of path coefficients and their

significance probability between the rater dimension and the perception of appraisal politics in this research. To sum up, the moderating effect of employee silence changed the nature of the relation between low fairness of job rotation and perceived appraisal politics (benefits for raters), although no relation was confirmed between low fairness of job rotation and perceived appraisal politics. Pertaining to the rater dimension including higher supervisor discretion and low rater accountability, it was found that the moderating effect of employee silence changed the directions of path coefficients and their significance probability, such as the difference between rater accountability and low rater accountability.

With reference to the fourth objective, this study denoted that benefits for raters of the appraisal politics negatively affect managerial acceptance of the appraisal system. However, no relationship was confirmed between benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system. In this context, the author addressed the fulfilment of the psychological contracts. Nonetheless, Guest (1998) insisted that managers and subordinates can simply pay attention to agreements of employee appraisals, appraisal reviews and goal setting by itself, rather than the fulfilment of the psychological contracts by subordinates. Furthermore, it isn't possible for subordinates to have inflated ratings every time. More studies are required to grasp benefits for ratees of the appraisal politics, based upon the fulfilment of the psychological contracts. Again, benefits for raters of appraisal politics fully mediate the relation between interactions with others and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system (a negative regression coefficient as noted earlier). Accordingly, it would be necessary to minimise perceived appraisal politics within the public sector in South Korea.

10.2 Contributions and implications

With regards to theoretical implication, the author describes how the findings of this thesis can contribute literatures and benefit from the existing theory. This would be helpful for

academics who wishes to build new theories, in accordance with concomitant variables in the work place. In addition, concerning practical implication, the author explicates how the findings of this study can help HR practitioners and government policy makers to grasp the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics, and the moderating role of employee silence. Key messages for HRM/OB scholars, HR practitioners and government policy makers are illustrated in tables 31-33.

10.2.1 Theoretical implication

The findings of this thesis can have implications for the perception of organisational politics, employee silence with personal motives, perceived appraisal politics and the acceptance of the appraisal system within the public sector in South Korea. This is because the findings of this study underline/expand the use of existing theories, such as 1) John's theory of self-serving behaviour (John 1999), 2) Pfeffer's theory of power in decision making (Pfeffer 1981), 3) Game theory in the social sciences (Neumann & Morgenstern 2007), and 4) Vroom's expectancy theory (Vroom 1964). In line with 1) John's theory of self-serving behaviour, this research expands the idea that organisational politics is inherent in performance appraisals at a group level, beyond the issue of self-serving in performance appraisals at an individual level; organisational politics can be generally defined as the comprehensive framework for both individual and group political activities (Vredenburg & Maurer 1984; Hochwarter 2012). In this context, the situational factors and constraints in the work environment can affect the perception of appraisal politics. As a further discussion, John's study in 2006 insisted that a number of studies on performance appraisals render the lack of concern with context, such as the discrete context which underlines the social and environmental psychologies at work. Hence, this thesis contributes to expanding the discrete context of the task or social factors to elucidate the relation between the job environmental dimension and perceived appraisal politics. In line with 2) Pfeffer's theory of power in decision making, this research underlines the role of power in decision making with regards to performance

ratings. Pfeffer's theory claimed that OB scholars should contemplate the concept of power in the work place. However, the role of power at work can be neglected, owing to an ambiguous issue. Pfeffer's theory implied that power always exists in organisations in many different forms. Nonetheless, when power is legitimated, supervisors are able to obtain the authority to exercise their power in public organisations. Since enactment of an act on government performance evaluation of 2006, public leaders in South Korea have gained their authority for performance appraisals legitimately. As a result, Pfeffer's theory can help to grasp the political context and the role of power in the process of employee appraisals. In line with 3) Game theory in the social sciences, this study adds on the link between employee silence and perceived appraisal politics. For reference, pay off matrix, conflict and competition are mainly underlined in this theory. Besides, perceived appraisal politics can be identified, by contemplating the symbiotic relations between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics. Game theory is defined as a means of interpreting strategic actions, considering the expected reactions of others. Individual judgements or actions can be grounded upon framing and overconfidence. HRM or OB scholars could consider the symbiotic relations between the determinants of strategic actions, such as silence motives (Camerer 1997; Mowbray et al., 2015). Thus, this thesis implied that when the disadvantages outweigh the benefits, individuals would prefer being silent. This can also alter the nature of the relation between a determinant and an impact of appraisal politics. By taking account of both 2) Pfeffer's theory and 3) Game theory in the social sciences, this thesis highlights the determinants of perceived appraisal politics, such as the rater dimension and employee silence as well as the moderating role of employee silence. In line with 4) Vroom's expectancy theory, the negative relation concerning the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics on acceptance of the appraisal system is stressed. Instrumentality from performance to outcome is mainly addressed. Valence from outcome to reward is likewise discussed by OB scholars. Vroom et al. (2015) illustrated that the impediment of goal attainment causes a negative valence. When a negative valence can be found, not having the outcome is preferred. However, this study adds on the negative relation between perceived appraisal politics and acceptance of the appraisal system. In a

similar vein, Lee (2012) implied that when effort-performance expectancy is violated, the negative relation between perceived appraisal politics and individual reactions can be demonstrated in public organisations in South Korea.

On the other hand, this research based on existing theories contributes to the literature in a number of diverse ways. First off, the job environmental dimension based upon the model of organisational politics perception can influence perceived appraisal politics. The exceptions include two latent variables proposed for the South Korean context in the previous studies (task interdependence in a team and low fairness of job rotation); the existing variables derived from the model of organisational politics perception can significantly affect perceived appraisal politics in the public sector in South Korea. For instance, again, interactions with others are fully supported. Low job autonomy is partially supported towards benefits for ratees. When employees have low job autonomy, the perceived manipulation respecting benefits for ratees can be decreased. It is said that in general, low job autonomy can influence the perception of organisational politics. However, the finding of this study has referred to an inverse result in the context of employee appraisals. As a result, thinking in a different way against a claim from proceeding studies, individuals who have high job autonomy can perceive the appraisal politics in the process of performance ratings, such as benefits for ratees in the public sector in South Korea. In summary, the determinants of perceived organisational politics and perceived appraisal politics can be regarded as similar. However, their influenceability can differ, in positive or negative ways.

Secondly, the findings of this study have signified that all individuals including rank-and-file employees can perceive the elements derived from the rater's perspective which can affect the perception of appraisal politics. As stated earlier, ambiguity of appraisal policies, supervisor discretion and rater accountability can differently influence the perception of appraisal politics within this study towards benefits for ratees and for raters respectively.

Thirdly, mostly owing to the relational silence motive in South Korea, it can be said that public employees are being silent in the work place. Therefore, relational silence motive can play a further role as a third variable which can affect the strength of the relation between exogeneous and endogenous variables in HRM & OB studies.

Fourthly, the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics is firstly demonstrated. Despite the negative awareness concerning the antecedents of rating distortion or the inaccuracy in performance ratings in South Korea (Park 2017; Park 2018c), the author pointed out that the acceptance of the appraisal system has been increased (Park 2019c). Hence, this research proposed that perceived appraisal politics may intervene in the relation between its determinants and the acceptance of the appraisal system. In contrast to an assumption, a determinant of perceived appraisal politics can lower managerial acceptance of the appraisal system, due to the effect of appraisal politics (benefits for raters). In a similar vein, Murphy (2020) has intimated that the perception of self-serving behaviour on the part of appraisers can decrease the acceptance of performance feedback in organisations.

Finally, this research ultimately contributes to the increasing awareness that the distortion of performance ratings can be deemed as the result of perceived appraisal politics in the public sector in South Korea. According to Murphy & Cleveland (1995), rating behaviour can be attributed to the two sorts of supervisor motivations, such as the motivation to rate accurately and the motivation to distort ratings. It is crucial to note that raters can often be motivated to inflate or deflate performance ratings, when accurate ratings can lead to the possibility of negative results at work. Accordingly, it can be foreseen that all individuals including subordinates and other supervisors can easily perceive the appraisal politics in organisations.

Table 31: Key messages for HRM/OB scholars

Year /	Theme	Existing theories /	Relevance to the	Key messages of this
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Researcher		Key points	current study	thesis for academics
1999 / John	A multi-level theory of self-serving behavior in and by organizations	John's theory of self-serving behaviour / Self-serving can be perceived in a wide variety of organisational phenomena, such as performance appraisals at an individual level	The determinants/ mediating role of perceived appraisal politics	Organisational politics is inherent in performance appraisals within the public sector in South Korea at a group level
1981 / Pfeffer	Understanding the role of power in decision making	Pfeffer's theory of power in decision making / Power can exist in the context of organisational setting	The determinants of perceived appraisal politics	Pfeffer's theory can be applied in the field of public administration in South Korea, as raters have gained the maintenance of power and authority since 2006
2007 / Neumann & Morgenstern	Theory of games and economic behavior	Game theory in the social sciences / Where the disadvantages outweigh the benefits, supervisors can behave to maintain their positions	The moderating role of employee silence with personal motives	Where the disadvantages outweigh the benefits, individuals can choose being silent to maintain their positions
1964 / Vroom	Work and motivation	Vroom's expectancy theory: expectancy theory of work and motivation / When a negative valence can be found, not having the outcome is preferred	The full mediating effect of perceived appraisal politics	When instrumentality and valence are violated, the negative relation between perceived appraisal politics and acceptance of the appraisal system can be illustrated

10.2.2 Practical implications

This study furnishes a number of implications for HR practitioners and government policy makers within the public sector in South Korea. These will be elucidated by the following sub-sections, such as a) managerial implications and b) government policy implications.

a) Managerial implications for HR practitioners

Firstly, owing to the lower managerial acceptance of the appraisal system attributed to benefits for raters, it is vital to reduce perceived appraisal politics. Besides, when contemplating the full mediating role of benefits for raters between interactions with others (cliques) and managerial acceptance of the appraisal system in this study, HR practitioners should propose training not only ratees but also raters on how to treat others to minimise perceived appraisal politics. Recently, Memon et al. (2020) revealed that it would be better to design training plans which can lead to a strong sense of emotional attachment between subordinates and managers, as well as colleagues at work. This may lower the perception of organisational politics in performance appraisals. Nevertheless, when HR practitioners practically put efforts to mitigate cliques, employees' resistance to organisational change would occur (Cho & Choi 2014). According to Van Dijk & Van Dick (2009), the definition of resistance to organisational change concerns the individual utilisation of self-enhancement strategies against a threat to work-based identity. Mostly owing to personality or individual cynicism, employees resist organisational change (Stanley et al., 2005; Oreg 2006). In the context of South Korea, perceived organisational politics can largely trigger the resistance to organisational change, rather than leader visions (Cho & Choi 2014). To avoid the resistance to organisational change, the significance of distributive fairness in employee appraisals can help public employees grasp why perceived appraisal politics should be minimised (Kim et al., 2018d). As a guide, it is normally believed that the issue of cliques can negatively affect organisational culture (Onwuegbuchunam 2019). This is because knowledge in organisations can only be shared in certain cliques (Kimble 2020). In the context of South Korea, Oh et al. (2018) claimed that most studies in the public sector focused on the elements or issues of

hierarchy, group cultures and networks for organisational performance. Hence, this thesis newly considers interactions with others (cliques) to be a part of organisational culture in the public sector in South Korea, when referring to Western studies above. Overall, HR practitioners should contemplate both a strong sense of emotional attachment between all individuals and the importance of distributive fairness in employee appraisals, when designing training plans. For reference, cliques can be deemed as a part of organisational culture in the public sector in South Korea.

Secondly, through job autonomy in the public sector in South Korea, employees can play a part in the decision-making to obtain personal benefits in performance appraisals. Thus, HR practitioners should consider separating job autonomy into different factors, such as work scheduling autonomy and decision-making autonomy (Dong et al., 2021). It is normally believed that job autonomy has positive effects on employee well-being. However, when categorising job autonomy into several factors, the negative impacts of job autonomy on employee well-being can be generated, such as work place and work time of job autonomy (Kubicek et al., 2017). In addition, within the public sector in South Korea, Kang & Lim (2020) pointed out that when civil servants in the central administrative agency have a higher level of job autonomy, a strong sense of job responsibility can arise. However, rather than pursuing co-operation with colleagues, individuals may only focus on taking care of personal jobs even in a team. Regarding the central administrative agency, HR practitioners in the central administrative agency should adjust the balance of job autonomy, comprised of work scheduling and decision-making autonomies. As decision-making autonomy is relatively high in the central administrative agency in South Korea, civil servants can obtain their benefits out of employee appraisals. On the contrary, in the public institution in South Korea, the degree of decision-making autonomy is relatively lower in comparison with the central administrative agency. As public officials believe that job autonomy is not linked to the appraisal system for the public institution, the affirmative aspects concerning the use of job autonomy is overlooked (Jin & Kim 2015). According to Choi (2019b), during the conduct of work, public employees should guarantee not simply work scheduling but also decision-

making autonomies impartially. This is because innovative behaviour at work can arise in South Korea, in addition to lowering perceived organisational politics. Overall, HR practitioners in the public institution should map job autonomy onto employee appraisals. In contrast, HR practitioners in the central administrative agency should adjust the balance of job autonomy, such as work scheduling and decision-making autonomies.

Thirdly, this thesis has implied that rater accountability (upward and downward) can arouse perceived appraisal politics, such as benefits for ratees. Thus, rather than focusing on the rater's superiors (upward accountability) and the importance of feedback between supervisors and subordinates (downward accountability), it can be critical for HR practitioners to train raters to perceive themselves as accountable for an outcome and a procedure, for the accuracy in performance ratings (Mero et al., 2014). Although outcome accountability can be neglected due to the issue of validity, it is of importance to remind raters of both procedural and outcome accountabilities (Brtek & Motowidlo 2002). In short, to reduce the perception of appraisal politics, HR practitioners should train raters to perceive themselves as accountable for a procedural, and an outcome by itself. According to Park & Shin (2014), both procedural and outcome accountabilities can be secured, when focusing on discovering the endowment of raters in the context of South Korea. Nonetheless, when HR practitioners can keep underlining the objectivity and ethics during the training sessions of performance appraisals, raters may steadily perceive themselves as accountable for a procedure, and an outcome. Raters accountable for an outcome and a procedure are able to mitigate perceived appraisal politics (Dhiman & Singh 2007). John Bernardin et al. (2016) implied that ratees may react to performance indicators in a positive way, when raters understand the implicit meaning of objectivity for the procedure of employee appraisals. Thus, rather than approaching a topic from a new viewpoint including the mood of raters, the intrinsic attitudes of raters for employee appraisals should be studied in the context of South Korea (Cho & Han 2008). Overall, HR practitioners should emphasis on the objectivity and ethics for an outcome and a procedure of employee appraisals.

Lastly, depending on the existence or non-existence of employee silence, HR practitioners can flexibly forecast perceived appraisal politics within the public sector in South Korea. Although it is challenging for supervisors or line managers to keep track of diverse personal motives of silence behaviour, HR managers can estimate a general climate of organisational silence or employee silence. For instance, Hamstra et al. (2021) illustrated that the lower level of perceived manager trustworthiness can predict employee silence which may be hampering work/organisational functioning. On the other hand, Jeon & Park (2021) stated that HR practitioners should be mindful of the fact that there are many sector switchers from the private to the public sectors in South Korea. It is found that a few sector switchers struggle with comprehending the political features of performance appraisals in the public sector. Besides, when there are many sector switchers in public enterprises, individuals may choose being silent. Also noteworthy is that owing to the career discontinuity in the private sector, many female employees wish to work for the public institution after child birth (Woo 2010). Although principal-agent problems can be equally applied to both the private and the public sectors concerning the distortion of performance ratings, HR practitioners in the public sector should take into account the inherent role of employee silence at work (Kwon 2005; Lee et al., 2017). For reference, the perspective of agency theory can be deemed as an underlying theory to grasp the uncertainty in performance ratings or results (Nilakant & Rao 1994; Evans & Tourish 2017). Overall, HR practitioners especially for the public institution can forecast perceived appraisal politics, keeping in mind the existence of employee silence. Most importantly, HR practitioners within the public sector should contemplate the ratio of sector switchers from the private sector henceforward.

For reference, concerning table 32, the section of HR practice is relevant to the sections of managerial implications and comments. Regarding table 33, the section of HR practice is relevant to the sections of policy implications and comments. Tactical level HR practice concerns training, appraisal, staffing and remuneration. Strategic level HR practice mainly concerns commitment of resources, HR strategy, vision, mission and organisational diversity culture (Shen et al., 2009).

Table 32: Key messages for HR practitioners in the public sector in South Korea

Managerial implications	Key messages of this thesis for HR practitioners	Comments	HR practice
<p>It is vital to reduce perceived appraisal politics attributed to cliques, before hindering acceptance of the appraisal system</p>	<p>A strong sense of emotional attachment between individuals can lower perceived appraisal politics</p> <p>For reference, cliques can be regarded as a part of organisational culture in the public sector in South Korea</p>	<p>Training plans for raters and ratees should cover the contents as below:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) The significance of distributive fairness in employee appraisals 2) A strong sense of emotional attachment between individuals 	<p>Tactical level HR practice</p>
<p>It is vital to divide job autonomy into two factors, such as work scheduling and decision-making autonomies</p>	<p>The balanced work scheduling and decision-making autonomies can lower perceived appraisal politics</p>	<p>For HR practitioners in the central administrative agency, it is necessary to adjust imbalance between work scheduling and decision-making autonomies</p> <p>For HR practitioners in the public institution, it is necessary to link job autonomy with the system of performance appraisals</p>	<p>Strategic level HR practice</p>
<p>It is vital to train raters to perceive themselves as accountable for an outcome and a procedure</p>	<p>Raters accountable for an outcome and a procedure can lower perceived appraisal politics</p>	<p>Training plans for raters should cover the contents as below:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) The significance of objectivity 2) The significance of ethics 3) The intrinsic attitudes of raters 	<p>Tactical level HR practice</p>
<p>It is vital to consider the existence or non-existence of employee silence to flexibly predict perceived appraisal politics</p>	<p>Some sector switchers to the public sector may choose being silent against perceived appraisal politics</p>	<p>For HR practitioners in the public institution, it is necessary to grasp the existence of employee silence, such as public enterprises</p>	<p>Strategic level HR practice</p>

b) Policy implications for government policy makers

Firstly, when the perception of political behaviour is predominant in the work place, different treatment can naturally occur, due to the social proximity as a driving factor. This can negatively affect organisational performance (Kwon 2017b). Therefore, so as to minimise the perception of political behaviour and different treatment, Jeong & Kim (2021, p. 8) proposed that it is vital for policy makers to establish an organisational culture to embrace diversity in South Korea. This is because 'distinctively, post-colonialism and orientalism co-exist in Korean major companies'. The organisational cultures in Korean major companies are deemed as the political context in management practices (Kim & Lee 2021). This may disturb the growth of organisational capacities for delivering public services to citizens in South Korea (Robertson 2018). Most importantly, CIPD (2022) underlined clarity, equality and diversity which should run through all aspects of HR policies in the work place. Nonetheless, ambiguous rating criteria and standards out of HR policies affects perceived appraisal politics. Following this, perceived appraisal politics can trigger workplace bullying in South Korea (Song & Kim 2017). According to the National Human Rights Commission of Korea (2017), the MZ generation replied that from among 1506 employees, around 71 percentage of individuals experienced workplace bullying, which is higher than the older generations before 2017. Especially for the 20s and 30s, around 73 percentage of either public or private employees suffered from workplace bullying in 2017. According to OECD (2021), per 100,000 people, South Korea encountered the highest number of suicides from among the member countries of OECD in 2020. Surprisingly, the rate is accelerating among 20s (12.8%) and 30s (0.7%) for the last ten years. There may be diverse reasons why such a tragedy occurred. However, Shin (2019) warned that workplace bullying attributed to different treatment or cliques can steadily lead to a high rate of suicide in South Korea for the young generations. To set up the organisational culture to embrace diversity in the public sector in South Korea, the following three points should be presented; 1) the prognosis of diversity in public organisations, 2) the continual education or training for public employees and 3) a mentoring program can be addressed. For instance,

when leaders seek hiring individuals with a varied career, it would be easier to forecast the diversity in public organisations in South Korea (Ahn 2021). Additionally, line managers are encouraged to involve in operational level HR practice, such as educating employees, networking and communication (Shen et al., 2009). Overall, perceived appraisal politics can lead to workplace bullying. As workplace bullying triggers a high rate of suicide in South Korea, government policy makers should propel the public organisations forward to pursue diversity at work.

Secondly, government policy makers should consider utilising frequent appraisals for feedback richness, regardless of performance rewards. Selvarajan & Cloninger (2012, p. 3077) maintained that 'frequent appraisals contribute to better interactions between manager and employees'. As a result, feedback richness can affect perceived reactions of individuals to the appraisal features, such as perceived fairness and accuracy of performance appraisals (Lee & Yang 2018). With reference to the frequency of employee appraisals in the public sector in South Korea, performance evaluation in the central administrative agency is still conducted once a year. Sreejith & Mathirajan (2020) claimed that depending on the frequency of evaluation and fixation with organisational goals, the drawback of the appraisal system can be found or not. According to Wood (2017), frequent feedback and effective performance standard-setting can create a synergy effect which leads to acceptance of the appraisal system. The ongoing nature of informal feedback can make behavioural change between the planning stage and the formal review of employee appraisals. However, within in-group collectivist cultures, the impacts of frequent informal feedback could be minimal (Chiang & Birtch 2010). In conjunction with employees, frequent feedback in both formal and informal ways should be discussed for employee development (Ciancetta & Roch 2021). In the context of South Korea, when the goal of public organisations isn't very detailed, the frequent appraisals for feedback richness can't work properly in the work place (Kim & Kim 2015). Such a phenomenon can extend nonmetric indicators of performance measurement (Kang 2007). Government policy makers in South Korea may exchange their opinion with the Government Performance Evaluation

Committee pertaining to the goals of public organisations for performance assessment. Nonetheless, government policy makers can refer to the viewpoint of citizens to connect the public values and organisational goals. This is in line with the administrative paradigm, on the basis of NPG (Chung & Kim 2014). Citizens’ involvements and participants can be a good help in initialising the clear goal of public organisation (Stoker 2006). Overall, government policy makers should establish the clear goal of public organisations to make frequent appraisals work effectively.

Finally, when the perception of appraisal politics is high, government policy makers can propose dividing performance appraisals into two assessments, such as the assessment for development and for rewards (Swanepoel et al., 2014). The design of performance appraisals is usually weighted towards viewpoints of the assessment for rewards, despite the significance of the assessment for development. From the past, performance appraisals can stress a consultation process for development (Beer 1981). Abedi et al. (2018) stated that the agreement of KPI between a manager and an employee is a priority for development. For reference, policy makers can play a crucial role in determining the extent of the importance of the assessment for development before splitting into two assessments (Boswell & Boudreau 2002). Concerning the public sector in South Korea, nonmetric relative evaluation widely prevails for the assessment for rewards. Therefore, metric absolute evaluation can be alternatively addressed (Kim et al., 2021). Although raters would find it useful to conjugate the nonmetric relative evaluation in public organisations to increase their reliability of decision making, individuals can have a distrust of the appraisal system (Lee & Choi 2010b). Overall, metric absolute evaluation can be alternatively utilised for the assessment for rewards. Regarding the assessment for development, it is a well-known fact that the agreement of nonmetric or metric appraisal indicators between raters and ratees should be prioritised, prior to conducting the assessment for development.

Table 33: Key messages for government policy makers in the public sector in South Korea

Policy implications	Key messages of this thesis	Comments	HR practice
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	for government policy makers		
It is vital to establish the organisational culture to embrace diversity to avoid workplace bullying	Perceived appraisal politics can lead to workplace bullying Workplace bullying can lead to a high rate of suicide in South Korea	Hiring Individuals with a varied career can promote the organisational culture to embrace diversity A mentoring program should be furnished	Tactical + Strategic level HR practices
It is vital to contemplate frequent appraisals for feedback richness	Frequent appraisals can lower perceived appraisal politics However, the clear goal of public organisations should be prioritised	The public values should be investigated to compensate the defect of organisational goals	Tactical + Strategic level HR practices
It is vital to divide performance appraisals into two assessments, such as the assessment for rewards and for development	Metric absolute evaluation can be used for the assessment for rewards, when the perception of appraisal politics is high	The agreement of appraisal indicators should be prioritised for the assessment for development	Tactical + Strategic level HR practices

10.3 The Limitations of research

Firstly, with respect to outliers, this research has retained all outliers for the issue of generalisability. However, nowadays, it is contended that all outliers can be discarded for the structural model robustness checks in PLS-SEM (Al Azizah & Mulyono 2020).

Robustness stands for a situation where meaningful statistical properties can be generated, although all assumptions of the research model aren't satisfied (Hsu et al., 2006).

Referentially, non-linear effects, endogeneity and unobserved heterogeneity are comprised of the structural model robustness checks in PLS-SEM (Gim & Cheah 2020). The issue of non-linearity can be hailed as a limitation of study, when utilising PLS-SEM (Zhang & Zhang 2019; Sarstedt et al., 2020; Basco et al., 2021). Although 'standard conceptualisations' in the path models of PLS-SEM can indicate that cause-effect relationships are based on a linear fashion, it is argued that in some cases, cause-effect relationships might be a non-linear fashion (Trial,

no date). This is because diverse line forms, such as curves can be sometimes generated between constructs in PLS-SEM (Sacristán-Díaz et al., 2018). On a side note, according to Rondan-Cataluña et al. (2015), in consideration of non-linear relationships between variables, PLS-SEM has been chosen as a priority. Nonetheless, when referring to Sarstedt et al.'s study in 2020, so as to identify whether or not the relationships between two constructs are either linear or non-linear, Regression Equation Specification Error Test (RESET) can be conducted. Hence, the scores of resulting variables can be used for RESET through Stata. Stata is deemed as the software for statistics and data science. Therefore, this writer will consider the use of RESET through Stata for a future study. It appears that the issue of non-linearity for the field of management becomes vital for the purpose of predictions (Eromafuru 2020; Eccarius & Lu 2020).

Secondly, this thesis is relevant to a preliminary study. This is due to the limitations of the relevant literatures. For instance, some constructs concerning the determinants of perceived appraisal politics or acceptance of the appraisal system have been newly addressed but required to re-consider the indicators of constructs in the future. According to Caillier (2014), although the preliminary study can limit generalisations, it can show a beneficial starting point which other researches can utilise to build upon. Overall, instead of confirming a theory, this thesis helps to introduce the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics between its determinants and acceptance of the appraisal system in the public sector in South Korea.

Thirdly, there is the limitation respecting the generalisation of findings. Although this thesis expands the scope of an existing study for the public sector in South Korea, it is still challenging to say that the findings of this study can denote a generalisation within the public sector. According to Goodman & Blum (1996), the odds are that a particular scope or group can lead to a biased sample or lack of generalisability. Hence, in the future, the technique of random sampling can be contemplated for the generalisability (Hiebl & Richter 2018).

Fourthly, given the exchange relationships between raters and ratees in the process of performance appraisals (Elicker et al., 2006), a longitudinal study can effectively help to comprehend the full mediating role of perceived appraisal politics. Kuvaas (2006, p. 516) enunciated that 'the data gathered at one point in time can make it impossible to draw inferences of causality' respecting the context of employee appraisals. Moreover, according to Haddoud et al. (2021), owing to the cross-sectional nature of the data, the relations empirically found can be deemed as associations, rather than causal links. Based upon theoretical underpinning, the causal links should be presented. Hence, a longitudinal study can deserve consideration in the future.

Finally, the more control variables should be addressed. Even though this research covers age, gender, tenure and job grades as control variables. Through a dummy variable (the general government vs. the public institution), the detailed sector can be controlled in the future. Similarly, the features of a particular sector should be controlled for the perception of organisational politics, when referring to Vigoda-Gadot & Kapun's study in 2005.

10.4 The Direction of future study

Firstly, more factors respecting the job environmental dimension, rater dimension and employee silence with personal motives should be explored in the future, so as to grasp the general determinants of perceived appraisal politics within the public sector in South Korea. Similarly, Kapoutsis & Thanos (2018) claimed that more experimental studies on the subject of perceived organisational politics should be examined, as the job environment influences can trigger subjective performance ratings.

Secondly, the various sorts of dimension can be proposed for the determinants of perceived appraisal politics. In addition to the rater and ratee dimensions, the factors of middle or line

manager dimensions can be explored in the future. It was found that line manager HR implementation is also influenced by political considerations in the work place (Sikora & Ferris 2014). In a similar vein, when the perception of organisational politics is low, middle managers tend to report a higher practice success, regardless of the trust of top management (Lampaki & Papadakis 2018). Thus, it is meaningful to figure out factors influencing perceived appraisal politics in each perspective, such as the rater, line manager and ratee dimensions.

Thirdly, in order to minimise perceived appraisal politics, it would be crucial to identify a mediation effect between the determinants of perceived appraisal politics and the perception of appraisal politics. For instance, Jin (2021) underlined the impact of authentic leadership in South Korea.

Fourthly, although the perception of organisational politics has a negative impact upon work and organisational engagement (Jain & Ansari 2018), perceived appraisal politics may cover a bright side, as internal tactics in private organisations (Maslyn et al., 2017). Academically, it is worth investigating the effect of perceived appraisal politics as a strategy (Kyeremeh & Pimpong 2018). Sheehan et al. (2016) proposed that the political skill of managers can trigger high involvement towards the work practices. Eldor (2017) adduced proactive, creative and adaptive behaviour by subordinates in political environments. To think outside the box, various attempts should be required to grasp the deliberate manipulations by supervisors in detail. It appears that in South Korea, most scholars hold the same view as to the negative sides of perceived political behaviour by supervisors both in the public and private sectors (Kim & Cho 2019; Bae 2020).

Fifthly, so as to grasp the general view of a means of control (benefits for raters), it is necessary to discover an organisation where the appraisal tools for peer reviews can be utilised. The perception of political behaviour may be linked with the horizontal appraisal of colleagues (Ingley & Van Der Walt 2002). When peer appraisals are conducted in

organisations, it can be implied that subordinates could resonate with the supervisor's viewpoint in performance appraisals (Bettenhausen & Fedor 1997).

Sixthly, pertaining to the effect of perceived appraisal politics, cognitive dissonance theory as an underpinning theory can be explored. For reference, concerning the relevant research model, a variable of an uncomfortable psychological state should be included (Jeong et al., 2019). Cognitive dissonance theory suggests that human beings pursue psychological coherency between beliefs or thoughts and a personal behaviour to avoid dissonance (Festinger 1957). According to Jarcho et al. (2011), rationalisation can be deemed as a key factor in decreasing cognitive dissonance. It is obvious that employees can't endure discrepancy between an attitude and behaviour. Furthermore, in line with the self-consistency approach, individuals can go through cognitive dissonance between behaviour/cognition and an individual standard for morality (Maertz Jr et al., 2009). Therefore, when underlying asymmetric tension was found, it is likely that raters would re-evaluate their attitudes of perceived appraisal politics.

Finally, respecting the determinants of perceived appraisal politics, in addition to simply understanding factors influencing perceived appraisal politics, it would be critical to identify casual relationships among factors affecting perceived appraisal politics. By utilising Interpretative Structural Modelling (ISM) and fuzzy Decision-Making Trial and Evaluation Laboratory Technique (DEMATEL), the author with the supervisory team divided factors into different clusters to find out driving elements. This has currently been prepared for publication.

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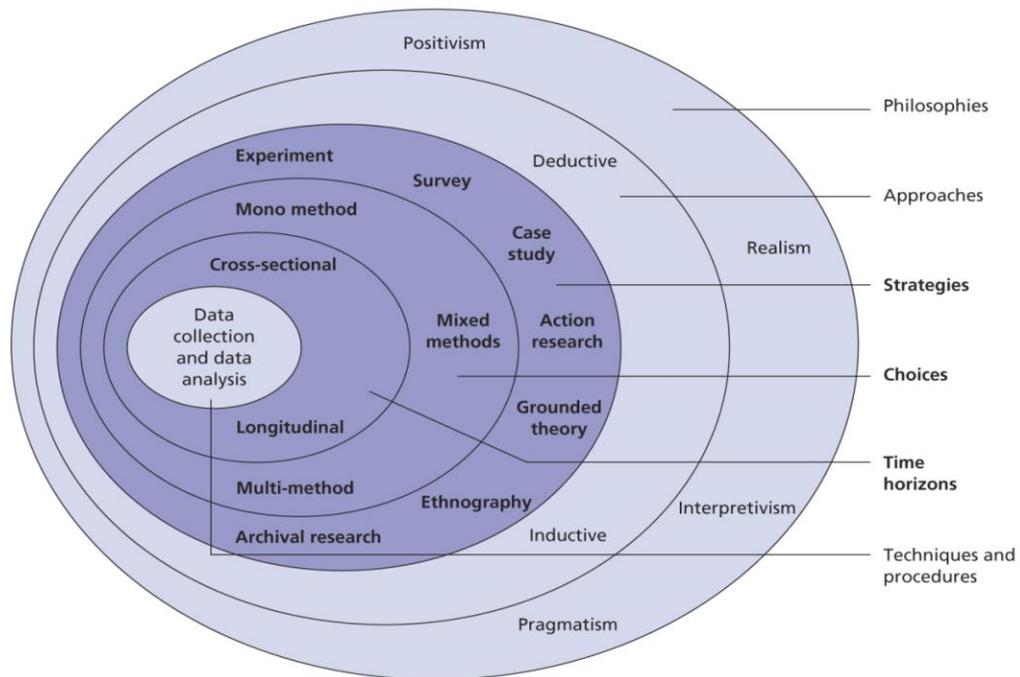
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Appendices

Appendix A: The Research onion diagram



Source: 'The Research onion diagram' p. 130 (Saunders et al., 2016); the diagram above can be illustrated or reproduced, based on written permission by Mark Saunders, Philip Lewis and Adrian Thornhill

Appendix B-a: The Survey question (for the English version)



To whom it may concern,

Hello I am Jin-Woong Yoo currently doing a PhD course in Management at University of Plymouth.

I am conducting a doctoral research under the supervisory team in the Plymouth Business School. The aim of this research is to explore “the determinants of performance appraisals and political characteristics within the public sector”.

With your consent, I would like to ask you to complete this survey.

Your response will be kept confidential and any information made by your participants will be processed to be anonymous, in accordance with the research ethics policy.

Your honest and sincere responses will help to contribute to increasing the quality of this research area, concerning performance appraisals within the public sector.

Thanks for sparing your valuable time.

The survey takes about around 15 minutes to complete.

If you have any questions pertaining to this research, please feel free to contact me via e-mail.

■ The Supervisory team: Dr. Tripathi, Dr. Roh, Dr. Haddoud

■ Researcher: Jin-Woong Yoo

■ Address: Cookworthy Building 510, Drake Circus, Devon, Plymouth, United Kingdom, PL4 8AA

■ Mobile:

■ E-mail:

In the following questions, if you wish to choose “Strongly disagree”, please tick ①, “Disagree”,

please tick ②,

“Neither agree nor disagree”, please tick ③, “Agree”, please tick ④,

“Strongly agree”, please tick ⑤.

Q1. First of all, here are questions regarding teamwork

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I have to check with other team members to do my work properly					
2. I have to work closely with my team members to do my work properly					
3. I spend plenty of time exchanging information or cooperating with other team members					
4. I have to exchange plenty of information concerning my work					
5. I have a high level of dependence on other team members to achieve my job duties					

Q2. Next up, here are the questions concerning interactions with others in organisations

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. My co-workers help themselves, but not others					

2. My co-workers help others who can benefit themselves					
3. I have seen people deliberately distort information requested by others for the purpose of personal profits, either withholding it or by selectively reporting it					
4. It is very crucial to have good relations with other departments when help is needed					
5. People in my organisation tend to select employees who can benefit them					

Q3. Here are the questions regarding job autonomy

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I can revise performance goal settings					
2. I can revise performance criteria depending on the circumstances					
3. I can decide my schedule to do my jobs					
4. I can decide the process of my jobs					
5. I can decide my jobs without discussing it with my supervisors					

Q4. Here are the questions with regard to job rotation

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. In my organisation, employees can raise opinions in the process of decision-making for					

job rotation					
2. In my organisation, an influential manager's opinion can't affect the process of decision-makings for job rotation					
3. In my organisation, standard criteria are consistent and applied for job rotation					
4. In my organisation, employees can raise objections to job rotation					
5. In my organisation, the decision-making for job rotation is fair					

Q5. Here are the questions concerning performance management and performance

appraisals

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. The appraisal goal is clear					
2. The process of performance appraisal is certain					
3. The appraisal criteria is certain					
4. Performance outcomes are addressed for employees					
5. Performance outcomes are addressed for supervisors					

Q6. Here are the questions concerning supervisor discretion

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5

1. My supervisor conducts my performance appraisal according to his/her subjectivity					
2. My supervisor conducts my performance appraisal according to his/her experience					
3. My performance appraisal could change considerably if I were evaluated by another rater					
4. My supervisor has plenty of discretion in conducting my performance evaluation					

Q7. Here are the questions regarding rater accountability

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. My supervisor endeavours to explain the process of performance appraisals, so as to ask for understanding of the process					
2. My supervisor provides me with adequate feedback					
3. My supervisor's boss is interested in my supervisor's accountability when conducting performance appraisals					
4. When the process of a performance appraisal isn't smooth, my supervisor consults with his or her boss					
5. Raters have accountability while conducting performance appraisals					

Q8. Here are the questions regarding the tendency of raters

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
1. My supervisor inflated performance ratings that benefit me, such as a wage increase and promotion					
2. My supervisor inflated performance ratings, owing to the consideration of document records					
3. My supervisor is reluctant in giving me low ratings that could result in negative impacts upon me					
4. If absolute evaluation is possible, my supervisor goes for the absolute evaluation to avoid excessive competition among employees					

Q9. Here is another set of questions with regard to the tendency of raters

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. When my supervisor needs cooperation, my supervisor gives high ratings					
2. My supervisor can give high/ low ratings depending on favouritism					
3. My supervisor gives low ratings to teach rebellious employees a lesson					
4. My supervisor gives low ratings to have me leave the organisation					

Q10. Here are the questions regarding the acceptability of the appraisal system

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
1. I believe the appraisal system is necessary for my organisation					
2. I am satisfied with my appraisal outcomes					
3. I believe the current system is suitable for the organisational strategic planning					
4. I believe the current system adequately measures individual performance					
5. The performance appraisal item well reflects the distinct features of my job					

Q11. Here are the questions regarding silence behaviours

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
	1	2	3	4	5
1. I passively withhold ideas to change, based upon resignation					
2. I keep my idea as there is no benefit for me, based upon resignation					
3. I withhold ideas as I don't want to be involved in organisational issues					
4. I am reluctant in sharing my ideas when there is little impact on me					
5. I withhold my ideas to avoid suffering a disadvantage, based upon my fears					
6. I withhold my ideas to avoid a negative response, based upon my fears					
7. I withhold my opinions, allowing others to face difficult conditions in the organisation					
8. I withhold my ideas as I don't want to share the profits derived from my ideas					
9. I withhold my ideas as I don't want hurt					

others' feelings					
10. I withhold my ideas to avoid strained relations with colleagues or supervisors					

12. Finally, here are the questions for respondents

12-1. what is your current job group?

1. Administration
2. Research service
3. Technical post
4. Other specific service

12-2. what is your continuous service year in your organisation?

1. below 5 years
2. 5~10 years
3. 11~15 years
4. 16~20 years
5. above 20 years

12-3. what is your job grade?

1. General employee
2. Assistant manager
3. Chief of department
4. Deputy manager
5. Head of department
6. Section chief
7. Executives or higher

12-4. what is your gender?

1. Male
2. Female

12-5. what is your age?

1. 20s
2. 30s
3. 40s

4. 50s
5. over 60s

12-6. what is your educational background?

1. A High school graduate or lower
2. Attending university
3. Bachelor's degree or junior college graduate degree
4. Master's degree
5. PhD degree or higher

12-7. what is the name of your organisation you belong to?

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I would like to extend my gratitude to all those who took part

Appendix B-b: The Survey question (for the Korean version)



안녕하십니까?

저는 플리머스 대학교 박사과정 재학중인 유진웅 입니다.

현재 저는 "공공부문 개인별 성과평가 요인 및 특성"에 대한 연구를 진행하고 있으며, 연구를 위해 귀하께 설문을 부탁 드리고자 합니다.

본 설문지를 통해 수집된 자료는 연구 윤리 규정에 따라 익명 처리할 것이며, 오직 연구 목적으로만 사용 될 것입니다.

귀하의 솔직하고 성의 있는 응답이 연구에 많은 도움이 될 것입니다.

귀하의 시간을 내어주셔서 감사합니다.

예상 소요시간은 약 15 분 입니다.

귀하와 귀사의 무궁한 발전을 기원합니다.

■ 지도교수진: Dr. Tripathi, Dr. Roh, Dr. Haddoud

■ 연구자: 유진웅

■ 주소: Cookworthy Building 510, Drake Circus, Devon, Plymouth, United Kingdom, PL4 8AA

■ 전화번호:

■ 이메일:

“전혀 그렇지 않다”고 생각하시면 ①을, “그렇지 않다”고 생각하시면 ②을, “보통이다”라고 생각하시면 ③을, “그렇다”라고 생각하시면 ④을, “매우 그렇다”고 생각하시면 ⑤을 선택 하는 방식으로 응답해 주십시오.

문1. 먼저 귀하의 업무 과정에서 다른 동료와 협업 관계에 대한 질문입니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 나는 팀원들과 함께 업무를 지속적으로 점검하고 확인해야 한다.					
2. 나의 업무를 적절히 수행하기 위해 팀원들과 긴밀히 협력해야 한다					
3. 나는 팀원들과 협동이나 업무정보를 교환하는 데 많은 시간을 할애한다					
4. 나는 팀원들과 많은 업무 정보를 교환해야 한다					
5. 나는 과업을 완수하는 데 있어서 팀에 대한 의존도가 높다					

문2. 다음은 동료들의 기회주의적 행동에 대한 질문입니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 나의 동료들은 남을 돕지 않고 자신만 챙긴다					
2. 동료가 나를 돕는다면 이는 개인의 이득을 얻기 위해서이다					
3. 동료들은 자신의 개인적인 이득을 위해 의도적으로 업무 정보를 왜곡하거나 선별적으로 보고한다					

4. 도움이 필요할 때 타 부서와의 관계가 매우 유용하다					
5. 우리 조직 사람들은 자신 개인에게 도움이 될 만한 사람을 고용하는 경향이 있다					

문3. 다음은 귀하의 업무과정에서 직무자율성에 대해 여쭙겠습니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 나의 직무는 업무과정에서 달성해야 하는 성과목표를 수정할 수 있다					
2. 나의 직무는 상황에 맞게 성과평가 기준을 변경할 수 있다					
3. 나의 직무는 업무 진행 일정에 관한 자율성을 보장한다					
4. 나는 내가 일하는 방법(일의 절차 등)을 결정할 수 있다					
5. 나는 내가 달성해야 하는 것을 스스로 변경할 수 있다					

문 4. 다음은 귀하가 소속된 조직의 직무순환에 대한 질문입니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 우리 조직은 직무순환 결정에 개인의 선호가 반영된다					
2. 우리 조직은 직무순환 결정에 영향력이 있는 상급자의 의견이 반영되지 않는다					
3. 우리 조직은 직무순환 결정을 객관적 자료에 근거하여 결정한다					
4. 우리 조직은 직무순환 결정에 대해 추후 이의를 제기할 수 있다					

5. 우리 조직은 직무순환이 공정하다					
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문5. 다음은 귀하가 소속된 조직의 성과관리 및 성과평가에 대한 질문입니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 성과평가 목표 가 분명하게 제시된다					
2. 성과평가 절차 가 분명하게 제시된다					
3. 성과평가의 기준 은 모호하지 않고 분명하다					
4. 성과평가 결과가 어떻게 활용 되는지 직원들 에게 분명하게 제시된다					
5. 성과평가 결과가 어떻게 활용 되는지 평가자 에게 분명하게 제시된다					

문6. 다음은 성과평가 시 상사의 재량에 대한 질문입니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 나의 상사는 자신의 주관적 기대에 따라 성과평가를 수행한다					
2. 나의 상사는 자신의 개인적 경험에 따라 성과평가를 수행한다					
3. 나의 성과평가는 누가 평가하느냐에 따라 결과가 다르게 나온다					
4. 나의 상사는 성과평가에 많은 재량권이 있다					

문 7. 다음은 성과평가 시 상사의 책무성에 대한 질문입니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다

	않다				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 나의 상사는 성과평가 과정에서 구성원들에게 관련 내용과 과정을 설명하고 이해를 구하기 위해 노력한다					
2. 나의 상사는 성과평가 과정과 결과에 대해 시기 적절하게 피드백을 준다					
3. 우리 조직에서 평가자의 상사는 평가자가 책임감을 갖고 성과평가에 임하는지 관심이 많다					
4. 평가자는 성과평가가 원활하게 진행되지 않을 때 평가자의 상사와 의논해서 처리한다.					
5. 우리 조직의 평가자는 책임감을 가지고 평가를 수행한다					

문8. 다음은 성과평가 시 상사의 경향에 대한 첫 번째 질문입니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 나의 상사는 나의 보상을 위해 성과평가 결과를 부풀린다					
2. 나의 상사는 나의 성과가 문서 기록에 남을 것을 고려해 높은 평가등급을 준다					
3. 나의 상사는 나에게 부정적인 결과를 줄 수 있는 성과평가를 꺼린다					
4. 나의 상사는 구성원들 사이의 과도한 경쟁을 막기 위해 절대평가가 가능한 경우에는 동일한 평가등급을 준다.					

문9. 다음은 성과평가 시 상사의 경향에 대한 두 번째 질문입니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
--	-----------	--------	------	-----	--------

	않다				
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 나의 상사는 나의 협력이 필요하거나 부탁 할 일이 있을 때 평가 결과를 부풀린다					
2. 우리 조직에서는 상사의 개인적인 선호나 친분관계가 성과평가 결과에 영향을 미친다					
3. 나의 상사는 나를 길들이기 위해 낮은 평가 등급을 준다					
4. 나의 상사는 내가 조직에서 떠나도록 하기 위해 낮은 평가등급을 준다					

문10. 다음은 귀하의 성과평가 수용도에 대한 질문입니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 나는 우리 조직의 성과평가 시스템이 조직을 위해 필요하다고 생각한다					
2. 나는 성과평가 결과에 대해 만족한다					
3. 나의 성과평가 결과는 조직의 운용 및 경영 전략을 수립하는 데 활용된다.					
4. 나는 우리 조직의 평가 지표가 나의 업무 특수성을 잘 반영한다고 생각한다					
5. 세부 평가 항목은 개인의 역량을 평가하기 위한 적절한 지표로 구성되어 있다					

문11. 다음은 직장에서 귀하의 행동에 대한 질문입니다.

	전혀 그렇지 않다	그렇지 않다	보통이다	그렇다	매우 그렇다
	1	2	3	4	5
1. 말을 한다고 해도 상황을 바꿀 수 없다고 생각하기 때문에 나의 생각을 제시하는 것을 체념한다.					
2. 말한다고 해서 좋을 것이 하나도 없다고 생각하기 때문에 나의 생각을 제시하는 것을 체념한다.					
3. 회사문제에 개입하고 싶지 않기 때문에 나의 생각을 제시하는 것을 꺼려한다.					
4. 개인적으로 나에게 미치는 영향이 적을 때 나의 생각을 제시하는 것을 꺼려한다					
5. 말해서 불이익을 당하는 것이 두렵기 때문에 나의 생각을 제시하는 것을 꺼려한다					
6. 부정적 반응이나 피드백이 우려되기 때문에 나의 생각을 제시하는 걸 꺼려한다					
7. 다른 사람들이 실수를 해서 문제가 생기는 걸 원하기 때문에 나의 생각을 제시하는 걸 꺼려한다					
8. 내 지식이나 아이디어에서 생기는 이익을 다른 사람에게 주고 싶지 않기 때문에 나의 생각을 제시하는 것을 꺼려한다					
9. 상대방이나 관련자들의 기분을 상하게 하고 싶지 않기 때문에 나의 생각을 제시하는 것을 꺼려한다					
10. 상대방이나 관련자들과 사이가 불편해지는 것이 싫기 때문에 나의 생각을 제시하는 것을 꺼려한다					

12. 마지막으로 통계분류를 위한 응답자 개인에 대한 질문입니다.

12-1. 현 직장에서 귀하의 직군은 어떻게 되십니까?

1. 사무/행정직
2. 연구직
3. 기술직
4. 기타 특정직

12-2. 귀하의 현 직장 재직기간은 어느 정도입니까?

1. 5년 미만
2. 5~10년
3. 11~15년
4. 16~20년
5. 20년 초과

12-3. 귀하의 현재 직급은 무엇입니까?

1. 사원급
2. 대리급
3. 과장급
4. 차장급
5. 부장급
6. 본부장·실장급
7. 임원 이상

12-4. 귀하의 성별은 어떻게 되십니까?

1. 남성
2. 여성

12-5. 귀하의 연령은 어떻게 되십니까?

1. 20대
2. 30대
3. 40대
4. 50대
5. 60대 이상

12-6. 학교는 어디까지 마치셨습니까?

1. 고등학교 졸업 (또는 그 이하)
2. 대학 재학 중
3. 대학 졸업(학사/전문학사 졸업)

- 4. 석사 졸업
- 5. 박사 졸업

12-7. 귀하의 소속은 어떻게 되십니까?
()

귀한 시간을 내어주신 귀하께 다시 한번 감사 인사 드립니다.

Appendix C: The Approval letter



Date: 7 September 2021

Dear Jinwoong Yoo,

Ethical Approval Application No: FREIC1920.09rev
Title: Performance appraisal politics within the public sector in South Korea

Thank you for your application to the Faculty Research Ethics & Integrity Committee (FREIC) seeking ethical approval for your proposed research.

The committee has considered your amended application and is fully satisfied that the project complies with Plymouth University's ethical standards for research involving human participants.

Approval is for the duration of the project. However, please resubmit your application to the committee if the information provided in the form alters or is likely to alter significantly.

The FREIC members wish you every success with your research.

Yours sincerely
(Sent as email attachment)

Mr Derek Shepherd
Chair - Business Panel
Faculty Research Ethics & Integrity Committee
Faculty of Arts, Humanities & Business

Derek Shepherd, Chair - Business Panel, Faculty Research Ethics & Integrity Committee, Faculty of Arts, Humanities & Business, Roland Levinsky Building, University of Plymouth, Drake Circus, Devon PL4 8AA, United Kingdom
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Appendix D: Table for detecting outliers

Mahalanobis distance test

Mahalanobis Distance Test	
MAH_1	PMAH_1
190.7834	0
147.0829	0
141.963	0
140.5538	0
136.6136	0
134.2843	0
134.0055	0
129.4903	0
128.2551	0
121.6667	0
119.7051	0
110.5302	0
109.7794	0
109.3101	0
109.2809	0
108.8124	0
108.4495	0
107.704	0
105.8658	0
105.7986	0
104.7829	0
104.4881	0
104.4848	0
104.4623	0
102.9554	0
102.5525	0
102.3926	0
102.1507	0
101.8861	0
101.2413	0
101.1829	0
100.4673	0
99.92891	0
98.22659	0
95.71327	0
94.55768	0
93.92758	0
93.29689	0
93.00305	0.01
92.52614	0.01
91.53269	0.01
91.2447	0.01
90.90517	0.01
89.0235	0.01
88.94069	0.01
88.52433	0.01
87.88388	0.01

87.3549	0.02
86.97977	0.02
86.75376	0.02
86.10617	0.02
85.61271	0.02
84.40108	0.03
83.02397	0.03
82.98293	0.03
82.95163	0.03
82.91404	0.03
82.85102	0.03
82.68457	0.03
82.48313	0.03
82.36344	0.04
82.2601	0.04
81.8082	0.04
81.46418	0.04
81.36788	0.04
81.23435	0.04
81.16734	0.04
80.4708	0.05
79.66881	0.05
79.52526	0.06
79.38624	0.06
79.31871	0.06
78.69245	0.06
78.09597	0.07
77.87402	0.07
77.62712	0.07
77.62683	0.07
77.58242	0.07
77.32395	0.08
76.77661	0.08
76.5818	0.09
76.35278	0.09
75.42838	0.1
75.34052	0.1
75.13544	0.11
75.0752	0.11
74.83497	0.11
74.71458	0.11
74.52448	0.11
74.08168	0.12
73.95901	0.12
73.90722	0.12
73.67368	0.13
72.54819	0.15
72.4078	0.15
72.35885	0.15
72.0449	0.16
72.03058	0.16
71.7437	0.16
70.78756	0.18
70.27449	0.19
70.01802	0.2
69.89182	0.2

69.8039	0.21
69.67194	0.21
69.52436	0.21
69.05788	0.22
68.82853	0.23
68.41078	0.24
67.83492	0.26
67.76887	0.26
67.49936	0.26
66.9697	0.28
66.89261	0.28
66.73457	0.29
66.68145	0.29
66.48201	0.29
66.39915	0.3
65.97016	0.31
65.85741	0.31
65.60852	0.32
65.28033	0.33
64.98148	0.34
64.76043	0.35
64.36297	0.36
64.3586	0.36
64.20134	0.37
64.1215	0.37
63.36539	0.39
63.29123	0.4
63.27609	0.4
62.58807	0.42
62.3714	0.43
62.17129	0.43
62.13544	0.44
61.99248	0.44
61.90694	0.44
61.89031	0.44
61.65515	0.45
61.59064	0.45
61.48012	0.46
61.05435	0.47
60.902	0.48
60.88505	0.48
60.77602	0.48
60.47391	0.49
60.31826	0.5
60.16167	0.51
59.93963	0.51
59.69857	0.52
59.67996	0.52
59.55841	0.53
59.39922	0.53
59.32332	0.54
59.09988	0.55
59.06424	0.55
58.8747	0.55
58.76738	0.56
58.59502	0.56

58.57481	0.56
58.2396	0.58
58.23796	0.58
58.17678	0.58
57.96059	0.59
57.72332	0.6
57.68869	0.6
57.63626	0.6
57.63197	0.6
57.42037	0.61
57.23155	0.61
57.21053	0.61
57.07418	0.62
57.07371	0.62
56.98027	0.62
56.97769	0.62
56.95933	0.62
56.94161	0.62
56.54193	0.64
56.34398	0.65
56.31023	0.65
56.29973	0.65
56.1368	0.65
55.81464	0.66
55.24717	0.68
55.17222	0.69
55.09716	0.69
54.56918	0.71
54.55101	0.71
54.54323	0.71
54.30953	0.72
54.27008	0.72
53.9031	0.73
53.84483	0.73
53.82904	0.73
53.76317	0.73
53.7238	0.73
53.7026	0.73
53.43644	0.74
53.18281	0.75
53.17923	0.75
53.15596	0.75
52.8356	0.76
52.76116	0.76
52.74169	0.77
52.64547	0.77
52.30768	0.78
52.21876	0.78
52.14785	0.78
52.11842	0.78
51.84807	0.79
51.49669	0.8
51.30128	0.81
51.23396	0.81
51.03216	0.81
50.95205	0.82

50.76199	0.82
50.5614	0.83
50.32356	0.83
50.32176	0.83
50.21559	0.84
50.07355	0.84
49.55814	0.85
49.38194	0.86
49.1708	0.86
48.8986	0.87
48.67454	0.87
48.55499	0.88
48.37215	0.88
48.32295	0.88
48.26802	0.88
48.22491	0.88
48.02295	0.89
47.92369	0.89
47.60242	0.9
47.57315	0.9
47.38746	0.9
47.30854	0.9
47.22168	0.9
46.98797	0.91
46.93272	0.91
46.91972	0.91
46.89573	0.91
46.84891	0.91
46.79991	0.91
46.56217	0.91
46.35695	0.92
45.99399	0.92
45.97798	0.92
45.94796	0.92
45.94646	0.92
45.82603	0.93
45.79362	0.93
45.74761	0.93
45.65053	0.93
45.5339	0.93
45.31052	0.93
45.25979	0.93
45.19591	0.94
45.12591	0.94
45.10618	0.94
45.08884	0.94
44.96555	0.94
44.91884	0.94
44.88575	0.94
44.76278	0.94
44.65733	0.94
44.6283	0.94
44.06226	0.95
44.01398	0.95
43.77046	0.95
43.74437	0.95

43.64996	0.95
43.55815	0.96
43.47607	0.96
43.45408	0.96
43.21551	0.96
42.94113	0.96
42.75409	0.96
42.3782	0.97
42.35566	0.97
42.16767	0.97
42.10948	0.97
42.08775	0.97
42.01828	0.97
41.57823	0.97
41.46196	0.97
41.2584	0.98
41.05994	0.98
40.93963	0.98
40.67801	0.98
40.55454	0.98
40.21259	0.98
39.70576	0.98
39.52387	0.99
39.45322	0.99
39.19307	0.99
38.91112	0.99
38.76982	0.99
38.74263	0.99
38.65352	0.99
38.57803	0.99
38.19847	0.99
38.154	0.99
38.03493	0.99
37.85415	0.99
37.731	0.99
37.65544	0.99
37.41548	0.99
37.36299	0.99
37.3347	0.99
37.29168	0.99
37.27934	0.99
37.12059	0.99
37.04217	0.99
37.00043	0.99
36.89903	0.99
36.86426	0.99
36.8168	0.99
36.72378	0.99
36.60132	0.99
36.56648	0.99
36.49553	0.99
36.22292	1
35.91725	1
35.85631	1
35.81835	1
35.79118	1

35.55991	1
35.49671	1
34.97504	1
34.96956	1
34.91641	1
34.29522	1
34.08426	1
33.87762	1
33.77288	1
33.6488	1
33.3227	1
33.07292	1
33.00411	1
32.70417	1
32.68778	1
32.63794	1
32.04529	1
31.89143	1
31.8462	1
31.45361	1
31.29956	1
31.22482	1
31.21563	1
30.51514	1
30.07924	1
30.02107	1
29.59534	1
29.56077	1
29.44634	1
29.42894	1
29.05035	1
28.9746	1
28.87705	1
28.87155	1
28.60146	1
28.55088	1
28.37646	1
28.16694	1
27.69315	1
27.54007	1
27.51734	1
27.50047	1
26.93679	1
26.58809	1
26.40515	1
26.36675	1
26.35413	1
26.19442	1
26.1914	1
26.00841	1
26.00253	1
25.97222	1
25.21128	1
25.1959	1
24.99504	1
24.86405	1

24.84151	1
24.56248	1
24.41427	1
24.06034	1
23.20074	1
23.19173	1
22.93693	1
22.28062	1
22.13019	1
22.05814	1
21.42292	1
21.08538	1
20.92151	1
19.93933	1
19.33292	1
19.22627	1
18.27067	1
18.02385	1
17.993	1
13.97115	1
13.31793	1
11.31176	1
11.09453	1

Appendix E: Table for non-response bias test

	Independent Sample Test			
	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means	
	F	Sig	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference
TAS_1	1.306	0.263	0.095	-0.467
			0.097	-0.467
TAS_2	0.211	0.650	0.075	-0.467
			0.075	-0.467
TAS_3	0.000	1.000	0.314	-0.400
			0.314	-0.400
TAS_4	1.572	0.220	0.177	-0.467
			0.178	-0.467
TAS_5	0.497	0.487	0.219	-0.533
			0.219	-0.533
INT_1	0.461	0.503	0.266	-0.333
			0.269	-0.333
INT_2	1.295	0.265	1.000	0.000
			1.000	0.000
INT_3	0.611	0.441	0.457	-0.267
			0.457	-0.267
INT_4	0.834	0.369	0.771	-0.133
			0.771	-0.133
INT_5	0.232	0.634	0.774	-0.133
			0.774	-0.133
LJA_1	2.653	0.115	0.635	-0.200
			0.635	-0.200
LJA_2	2.681	0.113	0.772	-0.133
			0.772	-0.133
LJA_3	0.000	1.000	0.338	-0.333
			0.338	-0.333
LJA_4	0.107	0.746	0.752	-0.133
			0.752	-0.133
LJA_5	0.107	0.746	0.875	0.067
			0.875	0.067

LFJ_1	0.000	1.000	0.363	-0.333
			0.363	-0.333
LFJ_2	2.075	0.161	0.638	-0.200
			0.638	-0.200
LFJ_3	0.287	0.596	0.745	0.133
			0.745	0.133
LFJ_4	0.036	0.851	0.706	-0.133
			0.706	-0.133
LFJ_5	0.565	0.458	0.868	0.067
			0.868	0.067
AMB_1	0.589	0.449	0.862	0.067
			0.862	0.067
AMB_2	0.195	0.662	0.650	0.200
			0.650	0.200
AMB_3	0.029	0.866	0.767	0.133
			0.767	0.133
AMB_4	1.453	0.238	0.541	0.267
			0.541	0.267
AMB_5	0.779	0.385	0.167	0.600
			0.167	0.600
HSD_1	1.543	0.224	0.210	-0.467
			0.211	-0.467
HSD_2	0.636	0.432	0.121	-0.533
			0.121	-0.533
HSD_3	2.294	0.141	0.716	-0.133
			0.717	-0.133
HSD_4	1.683	0.205	0.319	-0.333
			0.320	-0.333
LRA_1	0.558	0.461	0.675	0.200
			0.675	0.200
LRA_2	0.427	0.519	0.387	0.400
			0.388	0.400
LRA_3	1.452	0.238	0.482	0.333
			0.482	0.333
LRA_4	0.027	0.871	0.749	0.133
			0.749	0.133
LRA_5	0.180	0.675	0.571	0.267

			0.571	0.267
BRE_1	0.071	0.792	0.074	-0.533
			0.074	-0.533
BRE_2	3.217	0.084	0.291	-0.333
			0.292	-0.333
BRE_3	2.303	0.140	0.403	-0.267
			0.403	-0.267
BRE_4	0.258	0.616	1.000	0.000
			1.000	0.000
BRR_1	3.604	0.068	0.463	-0.267
			0.464	-0.267
BRR_2	1.365	0.252	0.579	-0.267
			0.579	-0.267
BRR_3	0.858	0.362	1.000	0.000
			1.000	0.000
BRR_4	0.926	0.344	0.828	0.067
			0.828	0.067
MRA_1	0.052	0.821	0.517	-0.267
			0.517	-0.267
MRA_2	0.056	0.815	0.106	-0.667
			0.106	-0.667
IBA_1	0.000	1.000	0.618	-0.200
			0.618	-0.200
IBA_2	1.632	0.212	0.754	-0.133
			0.754	-0.133
IBA_3	0.188	0.668	0.342	-0.400
			0.343	-0.400
EMS_1	0.233	0.633	0.587	0.267
			0.587	0.267
EMS_2	0.094	0.761	0.712	0.200
			0.712	0.200
EMS_3	0.123	0.729	0.380	0.400
			0.380	0.400
EMS_4	1.288	0.266	0.882	0.067
			0.882	0.067
EMS_5	0.551	0.464	0.174	0.667
			0.175	0.667

EMS_6	0.071	0.792	0.277	0.533
			0.277	0.533
EMS_7	0.038	0.846	0.749	0.133
			0.749	0.133
EMS_8	0.002	0.968	0.726	-0.133
			0.726	-0.133
EMS_9	0.763	0.390	0.628	-0.200
			0.629	-0.200
EMS_10	0.727	0.401	0.870	-0.067
			0.870	-0.067

Appendix F: Table for common method bias test

Harman's single-factor test

Total Variance Explained						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	15.487	27.170	27.170	15.487	27.170	27.170
2	5.840	10.245	37.415	5.840	10.245	37.415
3	4.842	8.494	45.910	4.842	8.494	45.910
4	2.757	4.837	50.747	2.757	4.837	50.747
5	2.516	4.415	55.162	2.516	4.415	55.162
6	2.180	3.825	58.987	2.180	3.825	58.987
7	1.852	3.249	62.236	1.852	3.249	62.236
8	1.691	2.966	65.203	1.691	2.966	65.203
9	1.396	2.449	67.652	1.396	2.449	67.652
10	1.324	2.324	69.975	1.324	2.324	69.975
11	1.135	1.990	71.966	1.135	1.990	71.966
12	0.996	1.748	73.714			
13	0.814	1.428	75.142			
14	0.750	1.316	76.457			
15	0.726	1.273	77.730			
16	0.645	1.131	78.861			
17	0.605	1.061	79.922			
18	0.581	1.019	80.941			
19	0.559	0.980	81.921			
20	0.534	0.936	82.857			
21	0.529	0.928	83.785			
22	0.499	0.875	84.661			
23	0.477	0.837	85.497			
24	0.451	0.791	86.288			
25	0.441	0.774	87.063			
26	0.425	0.746	87.809			
27	0.410	0.720	88.529			
28	0.390	0.685	89.213			
29	0.372	0.653	89.866			
30	0.364	0.638	90.505			

31	0.340	0.596	91.101			
32	0.331	0.581	91.682			
33	0.324	0.568	92.249			
34	0.314	0.551	92.800			
35	0.289	0.506	93.306			
36	0.280	0.490	93.797			
37	0.261	0.458	94.255			
38	0.248	0.435	94.690			
39	0.246	0.432	95.122			
40	0.228	0.400	95.522			
41	0.222	0.389	95.910			
42	0.214	0.375	96.285			
43	0.201	0.353	96.639			
44	0.198	0.347	96.985			
45	0.186	0.326	97.311			
46	0.179	0.314	97.625			
47	0.165	0.289	97.915			
48	0.155	0.272	98.187			
49	0.147	0.258	98.445			
50	0.140	0.245	98.690			
51	0.130	0.228	98.917			
52	0.123	0.216	99.133			
53	0.112	0.196	99.330			
54	0.107	0.188	99.518			
55	0.103	0.180	99.698			
56	0.092	0.162	99.860			
57	0.080	0.140	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

Appendix G: The Test of skewness and kurtosis

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistics	Statistics	Std. Error	Statistics	Std. Error
TAS_1	406	-1.020	0.121	1.245	0.242
TAS_2	406	-0.840	0.121	0.652	0.242
TAS_3	406	-0.272	0.121	-0.810	0.242
TAS_4	406	-0.566	0.121	-0.194	0.242
TAS_5	406	-0.311	0.121	-0.531	0.242
INT_1	406	-0.811	0.121	0.629	0.242
INT_2	406	-0.830	0.121	0.412	0.242
INT_3	406	-1.101	0.121	0.929	0.242
INT_4	406	1.019	0.121	0.909	0.242
INT_5	406	-0.403	0.121	-0.726	0.242
LJA_1	406	-0.316	0.121	-0.688	0.242
LJA_2	406	0.047	0.121	-0.880	0.242
LJA_3	406	-0.354	0.121	-0.238	0.242
LJA_4	406	-0.438	0.121	-0.287	0.242
LJA_5	406	-0.085	0.121	-0.772	0.242
LFJ_1	406	-0.019	0.121	-0.649	0.242
LFJ_2	406	0.600	0.121	0.149	0.242
LFJ_3	406	-0.127	0.121	-0.512	0.242
LFJ_4	406	-0.230	0.121	-0.522	0.242
LFJ_5	406	0.004	0.121	-0.408	0.242
AMB_1	406	-0.640	0.121	0.264	0.242
AMB_2	406	-0.578	0.121	-0.026	0.242
AMB_3	406	-0.315	0.121	-0.395	0.242
AMB_4	406	-0.340	0.121	-0.499	0.242
AMB_5	406	-0.347	0.121	-0.385	0.242
HSD_1	406	0.031	0.121	-0.709	0.242
HSD_2	406	0.077	0.121	-0.580	0.242
HSD_3	406	0.171	0.121	-0.429	0.242
HSD_4	406	0.379	0.121	-0.172	0.242
LRA_1	406	-0.325	0.121	-0.478	0.242
LRA_2	406	-0.268	0.121	-0.559	0.242
LRA_3	406	-0.441	0.121	-0.267	0.242
LRA_4	406	-0.335	0.121	-0.233	0.242
LRA_5	406	-0.419	0.121	-0.191	0.242
BRE_1	406	-0.825	0.121	0.546	0.242
BRE_2	406	-0.405	0.121	-0.233	0.242
BRE_3	406	-0.318	0.121	-0.334	0.242
BRE_4	406	-0.067	0.121	-0.640	0.242
BRR_1	406	-0.610	0.121	-0.199	0.242
BRR_2	406	-0.122	0.121	-0.915	0.242
BRR_3	406	-0.759	0.121	-0.019	0.242
BRR_4	406	-0.932	0.121	0.260	0.242
MRA_1	406	-0.475	0.121	-0.364	0.242
MRA_2	406	-0.096	0.121	-0.339	0.242
IBA_1	406	-0.240	0.121	-0.452	0.242
IBA_2	406	0.011	0.121	-0.604	0.242
IBA_3	406	-0.084	0.121	-0.455	0.242
EMS_1	406	-0.213	0.121	-0.798	0.242
EMS_2	406	-0.270	0.121	-0.732	0.242
EMS_3	406	-0.353	0.121	-0.513	0.242

EMS_4	406	-0.259	0.121	-0.398	0.242
EMS_5	406	-0.288	0.121	-0.595	0.242
EMS_6	406	-0.249	0.121	-0.675	0.242
EMS_7	406	-0.605	0.121	-0.298	0.242
EMS_8	406	-0.688	0.121	0.208	0.242
EMS_9	406	-0.026	0.121	-0.749	0.242
EMS_10	406	-0.055	0.121	-0.729	0.242