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UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND LAW

Business School

**FOLLOWER UPWARD INFLUENCE TACTICS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIPS WITH JOB
PERFORMANCE RATINGS: THE IMPORTANCE OF LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX)
AND LEADER/FOLLOWER GENDER SIMILARITY**

by

Najla Ibrahim Alshenaifi

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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Business School

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Management

ABSTRACT

FOLLOWER UPWARD INFLUENCE TACTICS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIPS WITH JOB PERFORMANCE RATINGS: THE IMPORTANCE OF LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX) AND LEADER/FOLLOWER GENDER SIMILARITY

Najla Ibrahim Alshenaifi

This doctoral study focuses on upward influence tactics and the social exchange process which takes place between leaders and their followers. The research posits Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) dimensions as a theoretical mechanism for understanding how upward influence tactics work. More specifically, it analyses the roles of LMX dimensions in mediating the relationship between followers' upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. Furthermore, it seeks to understand the role of gender similarity in moderating the relationship between upward influence tactics and LMX dimensions. It goes on to query upward influence tactics' direct and non-linear relationships with job performance ratings, the differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of follower upward influence tactics and test their relationships with job performance ratings, and the use of these tactics in the Saudi context. The empirical research for the present study took place in public, private, and non-profit organizations in Saudi Arabia. This is a country which has not been the focus of research on influence tactics to date in the literature. Based on a sample of 389 leader-follower pairs, the results show a number of significant relationships. Results revealed that rationality and self-presentation tactics have positive relationships with job performance ratings while exchange of benefits and upward appeal tactics have negative relationships with job performance ratings. Moreover, LMX-loyalty mediates the relationship between upward influence tactics of rationality, ingratiation, upward appeal, coalition, and self-presentation with job performance ratings. LMX-affect mediates the relationship between upward influence tactics of upward appeal and coalition with job performance ratings. Gender similarity moderates the relationship between rationality,

ingratiation, upward appeal, coalition, and self-presentation tactics and LMX-loyalty. Specifically, the relationship between these tactics and job performance ratings are mediated by LMX-loyalty in case of the leader and the follower having the same gender. Additionally, non-linear relationships have been found between the use of coalition and upward appeal tactics and job performance ratings within Saudi culture. These latter findings suggesting non-linear effects for some upward influence tactics propose new avenues for conducting research in the area of influence tactics within differing cultural contexts. Finally, while rational persuasion and ingratiation were the most-used tactics, self-presentation was moderately used in Saudi culture. Assertiveness, upward appeal, coalition, and exchange of benefits were used far less by comparison in Saudi Arabian culture.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, Najla Ibrahim Alshenaifi, declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

FOLLOWER UPWARD INFLUENCE TACTICS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIPS WITH JOB PERFORMANCE RATINGS: THE IMPORTANCE OF LEADER-MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX) AND LEADER/FOLLOWER GENDER SIMILARITY

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
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Signed:

Date:

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Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

There is a plethora of research on the subject of leadership in the fields of management and business. Most of these studies draw on and support leader-centric theories, however, with very few studies focussing on the followers. The leader is seen as a hero, a figure deserving of praise and rewards for the superior performance of his/her team (Oc and Bashshur, 2013). As Kelley (2008) and Hollander (2007) have argued, this focus on leaders as drivers of organizational routine has resulted in a long tradition of leader-centred leadership research, which frames leader traits and behaviours as essential antecedents to leadership processes and outcomes (Oc and Bashshur, 2013). However, little attention has been paid to the other side of the leadership interaction, followership (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014; Blanchard et al., 2009; Kelley, 2008); the ratio of leadership to followership books is 120:1 (Bjugstad et al., 2006). Usually the view of leader–follower relationships is one-sided in that leaders influence followers; the other side – leaders influenced by followers – is rarely seen.

Although leaders normally receive more scholarly attention, there is growing awareness of followers' influence, specifically regarding how follower expectations and perceptions impact on the processes of leadership (Hollander and Offermann, 1990). Scholars have begun to 'reverse the lens' to study the other side of the proverbial coin, and are now mapping out the research terrain and methods concerning the topic of followership in ever-greater detail, highlighting follower-centric studies and followership approaches (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014; Bligh and Kohles, 2012; Shamir, 2007). Kelly (1988; 1992) and Chaleff (1995) are the scholars who have played major roles in drawing attention to the study of followership.

Followership plays a very important, some would say vital, role in any organization. Followers or subordinates in all workplaces around the world exist in much greater numbers than leaders or managers. Leadership and leaders' roles cannot be carried out without followers; it is an accepted wisdom that there is no leadership without followers (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). While leaders contribute a maximum of 20% to an organization's success, followers contribute an estimated 80% (Kelley, 1992). Consequently, followers are the main reason for organizational success or failure, making followership the core of leadership. Scholars have already attempted to produce definitions of followership. Crossman and Crossman (2011: 484) defined followership as:

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“A relational role in which followers have the ability to influence leaders and contribute to the improvement and attainment of group and organizational objectives. It is primarily a hierarchically upwards influence.”

One can identify multiple components of this definition: the first part indicates the relational role where that leader-follower interactions are mutually influential, as argued by Uhl-Bien (2006); the second part places emphasis on the power actively exerted by followers over their leaders; the third part describes this power as ‘upward influence’, a term which this thesis adopts in exploring the kinds of tactics adopted by followers to, as Crossman and Crossman state, achieve professional objectives. Therefore, the literature review of this thesis will be classified according to this definition.

Social psychologists have identified many methods of influencing behaviours such as physical and environmental control, behaviour modification, and use of body language (Ansari, 1989). It is estimated that organizational members spend nearly 70% of their working hours communicating: writing, reading, speaking, and listening (Robbins, 1990). Two forms of communication are common to an influence attempt: nonverbal (kinesis, proxemics, and paralanguage) and verbal (written and oral) (Ansari, 1989). Of these forms, “the most frequently studied are the words that people use to persuade others” (Kipnis, 1984, p. 181). This thesis focuses on verbal forms of influence directed toward someone higher in the formal hierarchy (upward influence).

1.2 Rationale of the study

The trend towards a more horizontal design in organizations in recent decades has led to a decline in the number of hierarchical levels and less-centralised control (Pfeffer, 1993). Moreover, organizations are facing the challenge of succeeding in highly uncertain environments, resources are becoming rarer, and the professional or business environment is becoming increasingly competitive (Epitropaki and Martin, 2013). As a consequence, there has been an increase in formal and informal power exerted by less-senior members of organizations to influence decisions that were previously the exclusive preserve of higher-level management (Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert, 2013; Pfeffer, 1997). Follower involvement in decision-making involves more upward requests for information, for resources, and for more authority (Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert, 2013; Farmer et al., 1997). Lower-level followers now have more opportunities and reasons to influence their superiors (Epitropaki and Martin, 2013; Castro et al., 2003; Farmer et al., 1997; Maslyn et al., 1996). The remit and functions of management have also changed to include greater awareness of the role played by followers in influencing professional outcomes (Uhl-Bien

et al., 2014). This is of major significance since important relationships have been found between upward influence tactics and several important outcomes; including job performance ratings (Yukl and Tracy, 1992; Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988), assessment of promotability (Thacker and Wayne, 1995), salary increase (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988), leader-member exchange (Botero, 2012), and trust (Su, 2010). Therefore, a better understanding of the dynamics of leadership, followership and upward influence, as well as of the context within which influence takes place, can be highly beneficial for today's leaders and organizations (Epitropaki and Martin, 2013).

There are a limited number of theories and studies available to help understand the influence tactics in organizations (Yukl et al., 2005; Castro et al., 2003; Terpstra and Ralston, 2002; Ferris and Judge, 1990). In addition, more information about how people at work influence their superiors is needed (Terpstra and Ralston, 2002; Ansari and Kapoor, 1987; Schilit and Locke, 1982).

Porter et al. (1981) suggest five categories that have an impact on the influence process: agent characteristics (e.g. need of power, Machiavellianism, locus of control); target characteristics (the power of the target and the cost involved in approaching the target); agent-target relationship (the interpersonal attraction between them); situational characteristics (e.g. organizational structure, ambiguity of the situation, resource scarcity) and agent belief system (e.g. agent's expected cost and benefit of the influence attempt). This study intends to address some aspects of these categories such as: demographic characteristics (gender) of both target (leaders) and agent (followers), and leader-member exchange (LMX) to address the agent-target relationship.

The present study thus seeks to fill two major gaps in the current research field: first, the need for greater scholarly attention paid to the nature of followership given its importance in the leadership process; second, the need for greater understanding of upward influence tactics and leader-member exchange (LMX) in non-Western settings.

1.3 Empirical research context

The current field study took place within a Saudi work setting which consisted of 389 dyads (followers and their leaders) from public, private and non-profit organizations in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is the largest country in the Arabian Gulf region, with a population of 30.17 million; women comprising 13.51 million while men 16.66 million (Central Department of Statistics and Information, 2016). Saudi Arabia was established in 1932 by King Abdulaziz Al Saud, and the KSA system of government is a monarchy without parliament or political parties, as the ruler by decree must be directly related to King Abdulaziz. Islam is the

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state religion of KSA and underpins the civil, cultural, economic, legal, political, and social fabric of the country (Mellahi, 2007). The country's political and legal constitution is governed by a strict interpretation of Islamic law, as defined by the Holy Qur'an (Mobaraki and Söderfeldt, 2010).

The social structure of Middle Eastern countries is based on ancient traditional and cultural principles (Robertson, Al-Khatib and Al-Habib, 2002). The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is a tribal, conservative country where Islamic instructions and Arabic cultural values are firmly followed (Elamin and Alomaim, 2011; Elamin and Omair, 2010) within a society that is family-based, paternalistic, and conservative in nature (Mobaraki and Söderfeldt, 2010; Hamdan, 2005; Sidani, 2005). KSA culture is characterised by unique cultural features that extend to underpin its professional values and practices (Robertson et al., 2002).

Geert Hofstede (2010) identified five basic dimensions characterising a national culture. This widely acclaimed framework has been used extensively in research conducted on the impact of culture in almost all disciplines. Hofstede investigated cultural orientations by studying different organizations and by separating the dominant corporate culture from the data. In his study he found significant differences between the national cultures of different countries and in response identified five theoretical dimensions that could be used to define such differences more clearly. Hofstede's five dimensions are: power distance, individualism Vs collectivism; masculinity Vs femininity, uncertainty avoidance and time orientation. The five dimensions were developed considering the "collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one category of people from another, and take into account the symbols, heroes, rituals and values representing "the deepest level of culture". The five dimensions in relation to Saudi Arabia are explained below:

Power Distance: The concept of power distance refers to the extent to which certain members of the society are accepted as superior over others. Consequently, individuals who are higher up in this hierarchy exert more control in decision making processes (Cronjé, 2011). In such societies, inequality in power distribution is not only accepted as a norm, but is often desired and is evident in all walks of life. Hofstede created a power distance index in order to rank countries in terms of the extent of their power distribution inequality; Saudi Arabia ranks quite high in this index, indicating that a strong hierarchical order exists in the country, and that power rests in the hands of a selected few.

Such differences in power levels are reflected in high income differences, and values such as obedience to elders and those higher up in the power order. Subordinates prefer to take orders as opposed to taking initiatives. People in such societies embrace values such as respect for authority and subordinates reciprocating their superior's guidance and protection through loyalty

and reverence (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015). Islamic teachings emphasize mutual respect and trust between followers and leaders (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015; Ahmed, 2011), and the Qur'an and Hadeeth repeatedly highlight the importance of leadership and of showing respect and obedience to one's leaders (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015; Ali, 1996, 2010).

Individualism versus Collectivism: Simply put, this dimension refers to whether people think as individuals or as a group (Cronjé, 2011). In collectivist societies the good of the community is placed before individual needs and the norms of the society are strictly followed. Collectivism denotes a preference for a close-knit social framework in which individuals can expect their relatives, clan, or other in-group members to look after them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty and respect (Hofstede, 2001; 1985). Individuals' thoughts and actions are influenced by the opinions of their peers and superiors while the opposite is seen in individualistic cultures. Saudi Arabia ranks high in terms of the extent to which it is collectivist, which takes the form of adherence to the values and practices of both one's family and one's tribe.

Moreover, Saudi leaders live in a society where family and friendship extend their influence to the functioning of professional organizations (Dedfar et al., 2003; Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). Family honour, or the status of the family in the eyes of others (Mosquera et al., 2002), is crucial in Saudi society. Thus, it is not surprising that the Saudi leader relies on family and friendship connections for achieving organizational goals (Al-Gahtani, Hubona and Wang, 2007).

One of the sources of Saudi collectivism is the Islamic work ethic (Robertson et al., 2002; Ali, 1992). The Islamic work ethic entails a notion of the workplace as a brotherhood (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006). Islamic religious principles bind the society together making it a uniform society which by and large thinks alike (Al-Ajam and Nor, 2013). That entails the wholesale acceptance or rejection of a new idea, action or initiative, which, of course, can be resolutely beneficial or detrimental to individuals within the group.

Masculinity versus Femininity: Masculinity refers to assumed values like assertiveness, performance, success, and competition, while femininity is usually associated with quality of life, maintaining warm personal relationships, service, care for the weak, and solidarity (Cronjé, 2011). Those in a feminine culture "work to live", whereas in a masculine society, the belief is that a person "lives to work" (Hofstede, 2001). According to Bjerke and Al-Meer (1993) Saudi Arabia is a "feminine" culture in the sense that Saudis are known to be "caring", "nurturing", emotional, and possess relatively little ambition to achieve.

Uncertainty Avoidance: Uncertainty avoidance refers to the extent to which the members of a society will feel comfortable in unstructured, unfamiliar, or uncertain situations (Cronjé, 2011). In

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high uncertainty avoidance societies such as Saudi Arabia, low stress, positive feelings prevail over strong emotions and aggressions. Saudi leaders, do not like conflict (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). Also, they are very loyal to their organizations (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993).

Long-term versus Short-term Time Orientation: This dimension refers to the extent to which a society focuses on the future. Long-term-oriented societies delay consumption and persist with their efforts while short-term-oriented societies are more likely to focus on the events and needs of the present and view future trends with scepticism (Cronjé, 2011). This dimension has been replaced by another dimension termed 'pragmatism' in Hofstede's new index (Hofstede, 2010). Hofstede explains: the normative nature of Saudi Arabian society can be seen in its low score on this dimension. People in such societies have a strong concern with establishing the absolute truth; they are normative in their thinking. They exhibit great respect for traditions, a relatively small propensity to save for the future, and a focus on achieving quick results.

In general, Arab culture is influenced deeply by the Islamic tradition and Bedouin values (Rice, 2003). Islam is perceived by its adherents to be a complete way of life, based on the teachings of the Qur'an and on the recorded sayings and behaviour of Prophet Muhammad 'Hadeeth' (Rice, 2003). Bedouin tribal heritage emphasis values such as loyalty, justice, generosity, reputations, and status (Rice, 2003). Loyalty to the family, then the clan, the tribe, and the nation is paramount (Rice, 2003). Arabs form strong personal relationships but blood ties always come first (Schuster and Copeland, 1996). An emphasis on status within the society is reflected in an authoritarian, "top man culture" in business as well as life in general; this results in a high degree of deference and conformity (Rice, 2003). Consultations between leaders and employees build on the Bedouin Arab principles of loyalty to the group and generosity (Rice, 2003).

Given that Saudi leaders are similar to Arab leaders, both of them strongly dislike the formal and impersonal notion of "business is business", and they prefer informality and the personal approach in their relationships with employees (Dedfar et al., 2003; Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). The basic rule of business in the Arab World is to establish a relationship first, build connections, and then come to the heart of business, a process that is very time-consuming (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). Once a relationship has been established, however, verbal agreements are absolute and an individual's word is his/her bond, and failure to meet verbally agreed obligations will certainly lead to a termination of the relationship, as well as a loss of trust in, and reputation of, the individual (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). Reputations once lost, even inadvertently, will not be recovered easily, if at all (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). Collectivist cultures pay more attention to the 'group' reputation (i.e. tribe reputation), which subsequently becomes a major facet of group members' individual reputations (Abosag and Naude, 2014).

1.4 Significance of the study

Interpersonal influence is a critical factor of organizational life, effective use of social influence helps employees attain power and increases access to tangible and intangible resources (Epitropaki and Martin, 2013). Upward influence is a fact of life in organizations, and operates to affect most of human resources activities (Ferris and Judge, 1990). The study of influence tactics is an important field because the methods that followers use to achieve goals in their organisation have important consequences for the culture of the organisation. This includes the way in which people relate to one another, career advancement, and on the quality of work relationships (Ansari et al., 2007; Cable and Judge, 2003; Ringer and Boss, 2000; Ralston et al., 1995). Yates (1985) argued that developing an understanding of how leaders and subordinates influence one another is key to creating effective leadership (Deluga and Perry, 1991). An understanding of influence processes will also facilitate an understanding of the many facets of organizational behaviour including decision making, organizational design, communication, motivation, and organizational development (Porter et al., 1981). Upward influence tactics facilitate participation and involvement in decision making at work (Deluga and Perry, 1991). Upward influence has been found to be an essential ingredient of overall leadership effectiveness and organizational effectiveness (Yukl, 1981; Ansari, 1989), and considered a relevant topic for research in organizational psychology (Ansari, 1989; Porter, Allen and Angle, 1981) and organizational communication research (Ansari, 1989; Jablin, 1985).

There is a dire need of research on upward influence (Ferris and Judge, 1990). On the basis of the above motivational factors (context and culture), this research decided on investigating a model of relational leadership that operates as a process and focuses on the upward influence and exchange relationship between a leader and a follower. In this regard, the research assumes that this model is required for explaining and tackling the theoretical mechanism by which upward influence tactics work. In this respect, this research is examining leader-member exchange role and gender similarity role in the upward influence process. In addition, the differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of upward influence tactics. Moreover, it is examining the non-linearity possibilities as well as the generalisability of influence tactics to Saudi culture.

It is necessary to ascertain the analysis technique that should be adopted to reveal the underpinning mechanisms of this type of influencing process. LMX dimensions roles act as mediators and hence it is essential to consider the context and nature of this mediation in order to fully comprehend the influence of LMX dimensions roles. A mediator is a variable that accounts for all or part of the relationship between a predictor and an outcome because the mediator is intermediated in the causal pathway from the independent variable to the dependent variable

(Baron and Kenny, 1986). Multiple mediation analysis technique (Preacher and Hayes, 2008a) was used to test the proposed functions of LMX dimensions. This study aims to enrich the literature on upward influence tactics by using an integrated multiple mediational model for LMX dimensions roles in the influence process. This model has been built through careful consideration of the current gaps in the relevant literature.

1.5 Research Objectives

- 1- To present an integrated framework of follower upward influence tactics derived from empirical literature.
- 2- To investigate the role of LMX dimensions (Affect, Loyalty, Contribution, Professional respect) in mediating the relationship between upward influence tactics and supervisor job performance ratings.
- 3- To investigate the role of gender similarity in moderating the relationship between upward influence tactics and LMX dimensions (Affect, Loyalty, Contribution, Professional respect).
- 4- To explore the linear and non-linear relationship between follower upward influence tactics and job performance ratings.
- 5- To explore differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of follower upward influence tactics and test their relationships with job performance ratings.
- 6- To explore the use of particular upward influence tactics in Saudi culture.

1.6 Contribution of the study

The present study integrates literature on relational leadership, LMX, followership, and upward influence tactics to bring together bodies of research that have not spoken well to one another. This study contributes to the general growing body of literature focussing on upward influence tactics. Many scholars (i.e. Ansari et al., 2015; Capezio et al. 2015; Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert, 2013; Botero, 2012; Ferris et al., 1990) have called for further developments in upward influence tactics research.

One of the main contributions of this study is its attempt to investigate the mechanism by which upward influence tactics related to job performance ratings. Although past studies have supported the assumption that the relationship between upward influence tactics and number of work related-outcomes is significant, how these relationships develop is still unclear. Specifically, the well-documented relationships between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings were not studied in terms of why these relationships occur.

This study advances the theory of upward influence tactics by hypothesising that a number of their effects are mediated by Leader Member Exchange (LMX) dimensions. It goes beyond previous research which was limited to simple direct associations between influence tactics and outcomes and broadens the perspective. The model in which upward influence tactics impacts job performance ratings through LMX dimensions was examined. Although there have been some indications that would suggest such potential relationships, no theoretical or empirical research has explicitly examined this rationale. Although numerous studies have examined the relationships between upward influence tactics and other outcomes, few of these studies have tried to explain why these relationships occur, or have applied theory and empirical methodology in attempt to understand them (Ferris and Judge, 1990; Ferris et al., 1990). Moreover, Ansari et al. (2015), after testing LMX as a moderator, argued that the competing hypothesis for LMX as a moderator could be that LMX acts as a mechanism of the relationship between upward influence tactics and work outcomes. These suggestions are speculative as the mechanism of mediation has not been investigated in this respect until now.

This study found the LMX dimensions of loyalty and affect mediate many of the effects of influence tactics. LMX thus offers an alternative theoretical explanation to the use of power for explaining influence tactics. The study provides support for the importance of LMX dimensions as multiple mediators in mediating the relationships between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. Additionally, this is the first time that the multiple mediational model has been investigated in the field of influence tactics.

Moreover, this is the first study that examines gender similarity as a moderator of the relationship between upward influence tactics and LMX dimensions. By focusing on these variables (LMX dimensions and gender similarity), the present study not only examines whether influence tactics affect job performance ratings but also examines the underlying processes. Previous attempts have typically included only liking and perceived similarity to subordinate as a potential intermediate linkage (Ferris et al., 1994; Judge and Ferris, 1993; Wayne and Ferris, 1990) and have utilized a limited set of follower influence tactics (e.g., Ferris et al., 1994; Wayne and Ferris, 1990;

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and Wayne and Liden, 1995 examined only ingratiation and self-presentation tactics); the present study, in comparison, investigates a broader set of tactics.

This thesis further adds to the existing literature by addressing the non-linear relationship between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. This came as a response to the call of Ferris and Judge (1990) for the need to address the possibility of not simply linear but also curvilinear relationships between upward influence tactics and work outcomes.

This study also contributes to the literature of upward influence tactics by exploring the differences between agent and target sources of reporting the use of follower upward influence tactics. This could explain some of the variation that has been found in the literature in term of the mixed findings relating to the relationships between upward influence tactics and work related outcomes. Also, this is the first study to use both the target and agent measure of Schriesheim and Hinkin (1990) in the same study.

One of the advantages of this study in the context of the wider field is its having been conducted in a non-Western environment. The literature repeatedly notes that the majority of upward influence tactics studies only apply to organizations based in the US, Europe, and, East Asia. This study thus complements existing studies by focussing on the less-covered topic of professional relations in the Middle East. Arab culture identified as a fourth cultural paradigm (Weir, 1993) besides the three most well-known paradigms (American, European, and Japanese cultural paradigms) (Obeidat et al., 2012). Furthermore, understanding how cultural differences in exercising influence are now an essential competency of the 'global' manager (Yukl et al., 2003). Little is known about the generalizability of upward influence tactics, their relationships with work outcomes, and LMX dimensions in Arab cultures. This study will provide some empirical validity for the proposed relationships in a Saudi organizational context.

Taken together, this study represents an attempt to fill in a significant gap in the literature which is hoped to increase knowledge about this topic and in turn to contribute significantly to the clarification of the debates in this important area of organisational behaviour research.

1.7 Structure of the Thesis

The leadership and followership literatures can be divided into four broad, overlapping categories within a fluid continuum (Crossman and Crossman, 2011). These categories are as follows: individualized or leader-centric theories, leader-centred theories which rely on follower perspectives, multiple leadership encompassing, and the followership literature. Taking that into

consideration and given that this study is concerned principally with followership, the literature review will be structured as laid out in; relational leadership, followership, and upward influence tactics.

This thesis is organized into nine chapters. The first chapter discusses the background of the research, rationale of the study, research objectives and the structure of the thesis. Chapter two is a critique of the leader-centric leadership literature and discusses the concept of relational leadership. Chapter three discusses the concept of followership. Chapter four is a review of the literature relating to followers' upward influence tactics and ends with a discussion of the hypotheses and conceptual framework of the study. The methodology used in the study is presented in chapter five, which explains research methods, research strategy, research procedure and measures required for data collection. Chapter six presents the analysis and findings. Chapter seven discusses the findings. Finally, chapter eight presents the conclusion, implications and future research.

Chapter 2: RELATIONAL LEADERSHIP

2.1 Introduction

People's thoughts, emotions, and actions are significantly shaped by their social interactions (Bandura, 1986). The characteristics and dynamics of a relationship between two people substantially control what information is produced and is known about them (Campbell et al., 2008). Multi-disciplinary researchers believe that social and behavioural science can be understood entirely from a relational perspective, and thus recognizing the importance of relationships in social cognition has important theoretical and practical implications for the study of leadership (Campbell et al., 2008). Followers and leaders live in a relational world where leadership is co-created in systems of interrelated relationships (Fairhurst and Uhl-Bien, 2012).

In response to the challenges presented by new technologies, global economic integration, and accelerated rates of change and ambiguity of today's organizations and market (Fitzsimons et al., 2011; Avolio et al., 1996), leaders need to reduce incumbent complexity and uncertainty created by such conditions for their followers (Maak, and Pless, 2006). However, this cannot be achieved by the 'great man' alone; leaders can no longer be seen as one isolated individual at the top of a pyramid (Maak and Pless, 2006). Leadership has to go beyond the traditional leader to a level where the leader becomes the co-ordinator and cultivator of relationships and shares with followers an image of the desired future for the organization (Maak and Pless, 2006). Gronn (2000) argues that leadership should be reframed in as a fluid and emergent process, rather than a fixed set of qualities or set actions, thus refashioning the concept of leadership as a social and relational process with an emotional component (Crawford, 2012). Within this context, leadership assumes new meaning as an essentially relational entity, and not one rooted primarily in a fixed authority or superiority (Drath, 2001).

Relational leadership is a new term in the leadership literature (Brower et al., 2000; Drath, 2001; Uhl-Bien, 2003; 2005; 2006) and as such the meaning of this term is still unclear and open to interpretation (Uhl-Bien, 2006). According to Lipman-Blumen (1996), the term relational in traditional management discourse is to refer to "...an individual likes people and thrives on relationships" (Uhl-Bien, 2006). However, this same term is used to describe something different for leadership in developing discourse – "a view of leadership and organization as human social constructions that emanate from the rich connections and interdependencies of organizations and their members" (Bradbury and Lichtenstein, 2000; Hosking et al., 1995). Leadership is a relationship that is jointly produced by leaders and followers (Howell and Shamir, 2005; Graen

and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Hollander, 1993; Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992). Uhl-Bien (2006) views leadership as occurring in relational dynamics throughout the organization. She identifies relational leadership as: "...a social influence process through which emergent coordination (i.e., evolving social order) and change (e.g., new values, attitudes, approaches, behaviours, and ideologies) are constructed and produced" (Uhl-Bien, 2006: 668). According to Boatwright et al. (2010), contemporary leadership scholars claim that organizations encourage leaders to employ and promote relational leadership behaviours to achieve and enhance worker satisfaction and organizational loyalty. Research into relational leadership has been somewhat overlooked in the leadership literature (Uhl-Bien, 2006). This chapter thus aims to review leadership theories and explore relational leadership theory.

Identification of studies

To obtain a sufficient number of relational leadership studies, a search of a number of databases – Emerald, Psych INFO, SAGE, JSTOR, WILEY, Science Direct and SpringerLink – was conducted. The keywords used in the search was 'relational leadership'. More than 800 hits were located through the initial search, just under 100 abstracts read in order to ascertain relevant studies that matched the criteria for inclusion which was that the article had to be published in peer reviewed journals, written in English, and contain the term "relational leadership" in the title. As a result, 45 empirical and theoretical papers were included as fulfilling the criteria.

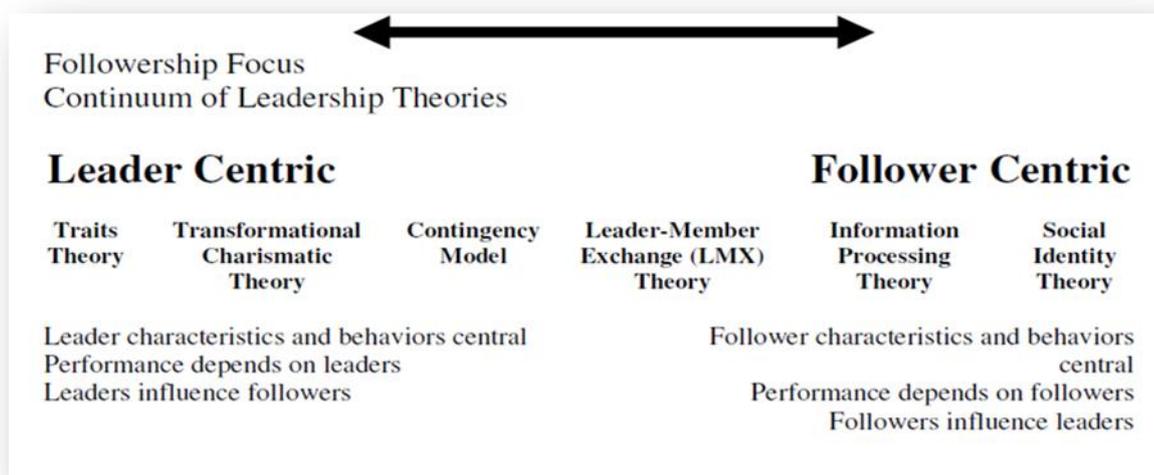
2.2 Reviewing leadership theories

The majority of early leadership theories and studies focussing on how and why leaders influence subordinates assume the leader to be an individual somewhat immune to the influence of his or her subordinates, and followers and organizational processes are treated as secondary (Fairhurst and Uhl-Bien, 2012; Baker et al., 2011). Many writers (e.g. Uhl-Bien et al., 2014, Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995, Hollander, 1993, Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992 and Meindl, 1990, 1995) criticize existing leadership theories for being too 'leader-centric' in terms of how these theories focus only on leader traits and behaviours (Howell and Shamir, 2005). The study of leadership necessarily entails a substantial consideration of the nature and effects of followership (Hollander, 2007; Burns, 1978; Hollander and Webb, 1955).

Followers are an important, albeit often overlooked, component in a number of popular leadership theories. Johnson (2009) categorized the major leadership theories according to their

degree of emphasis on followers and followership, ranging from leader-centric to follower-centric (see Figure 1). Moreover, a refined version of Johnson's (2009) figure has been made by the researcher after reviewing the new valuable followership review by Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) (see Figure 2).

Figure 1 Leadership theories (Johnson, 2009)



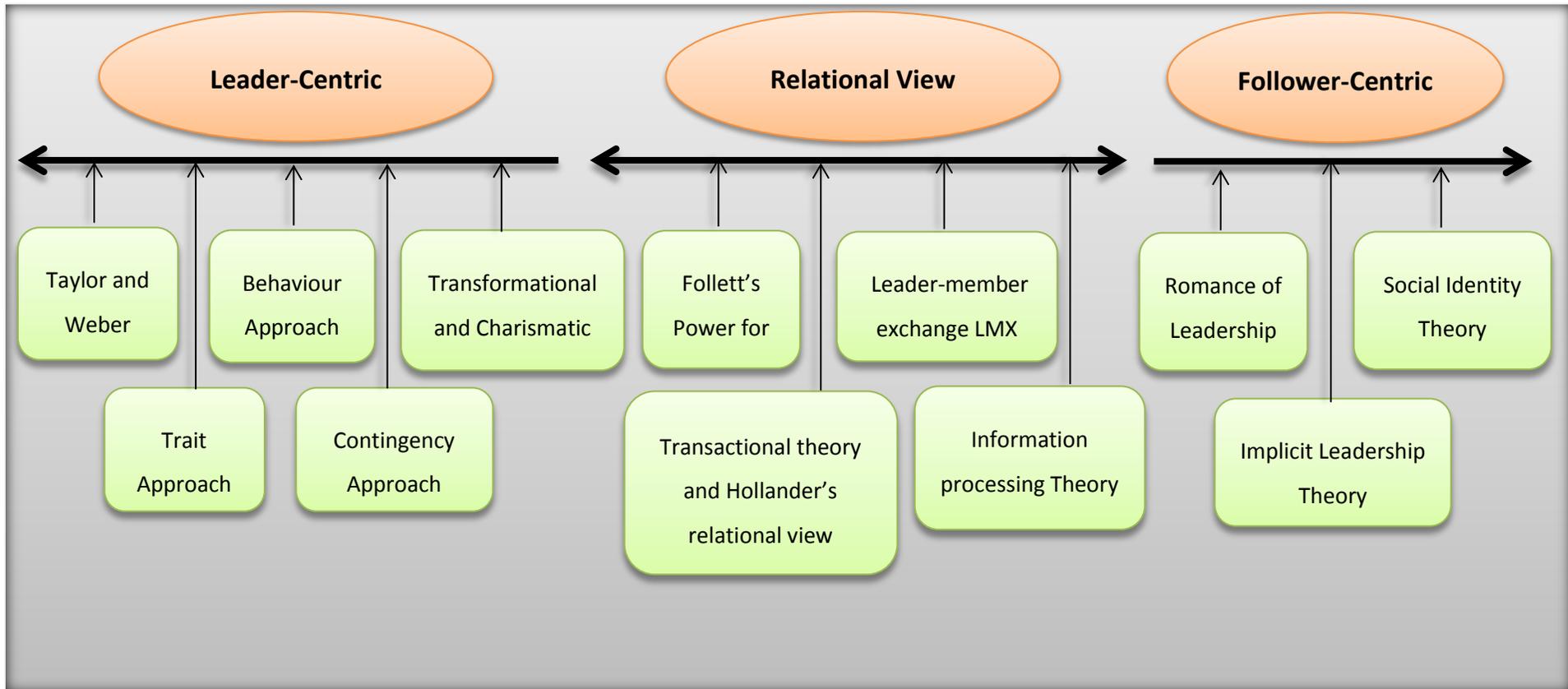
The next sections will discuss in more depth the major theories in the field according to their degree of emphasis on the leader-centric, follower-centric, and relational views (Figure 2).

2.2.1 Leader-centric theories

Leader-centric theories have reinforced the view of leaders as power-wielding actors (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014; Yukl and Van Fleet, 1992). The traditional view was that leaders gave orders to subordinates; this traditional view can be seen clearly in the work of the main contributor to scientific management theory, Frederick Winslow Taylor.

2.2.1.1 Frederick Winslow Taylor (1911, 1934) recognized the leadership role as ensuring subordinates' abilities to carry out work successfully and that subordinates needed to be closely directed by management. Moreover, **Weber's (1946)** principles of office hierarchy and levels of authority also show a firmly ordered system of super- and sub-ordination (Morasso and Mierzwa, 2012). These contributions strengthen the image of top-down authority based on command and control (Pearce and Conger, 2003).

Figure 2 Leadership theories adapted from Johnson (2009) and Uhl-Bien et al. (2014)



2.2.1.2 Traits approaches have neglected followers, believing that success or failure depends on the leader. They focus on the personality, characteristics, motivation, physical appearance and intelligence of the leader, qualities that differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Johnson, 2009; Crevani et al., 2007). This approach was popular in the late 1940s, regaining importance again in the last two decades (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014; Crevani et al., 2007).

2.2.1.3 Behaviour approaches have looked at the behaviours of leaders and how they could affect followers. Studies conducted at Ohio State and the University of Michigan focus on two types of behaviours exhibited by leaders: those that focused on the task and initiated structure into the work situation (e.g., goal-oriented behaviours); and those focussing more on interpersonal relations between leaders and followers, and how leaders might motivate followers by showing care and concern for them (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

2.2.1.4 The 'contingency' approach is based on the premise that the leader's effectiveness is dependent on (contingent upon) elements of the situation including followers. A major shift of leadership research occurred in the contingency models (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Johnson (2009) addressed three theories in this approach: (1) Fiedler's contingency theory (1967; 1978) where the leaders' influence depends on position power, task structure and leader/follower interpersonal relationships; (2) Path-Goal theory where according to House (1977: 1996), leaders influence followers' perceptions of task paths, if the leader can convince followers that carrying out the task will achieve the desired goals, followers will be motivated; and (3) the Situational leadership theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1969), the leadership style matching the readiness level of followers defined as the ability and willingness of followers to undertake tasks (Johnson, 2009). Moreover, Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) addressed (4) Decision making/normative theory (Vroom and Jago, 1978; Vroom and Yetton, 1973) seeing leaders as instructed to involve followers in decision-making processes, but only as much as necessary (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). In each of these approaches the role of followers becomes clear. Their capabilities, traits or preferences are said to determine what type of leader is most effective (Yukl, 2013; Lussier and Achua, 2007). However, in each of these theories followers are still non-actors; they are not behaving or explicitly reacting to leader behaviours, at best they are simply features of the leader's context (Oc and Bashshur, 2013).

2.2.1.5 Transformational and charismatic leadership theories focus on leaders' behaviours and their role in bringing about the success or failure of the group. Transformational leaders generate positive change in groups, organizations and societies (Burns, 2003). The notion of transformational leadership is widely popular because the leader is idealistically viewed as able to harmonise the collective and inspire it to achieve shared goals (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

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Charismatic leaders have strong emotional attachments with followers, employing a powerful influence over them (Johnson, 2009) and displayed confidence and articulation of a vision designed to inspire followers (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Beyer (1999) and Yukl (1998) take a different standpoint, however, claiming that theories of charismatic leadership promote a 'heroic leadership' stereotype, depicting leaders as heroic figures who independently accomplish everything (Howell and Shamir, 2005). Howell and Shamir (2005) have tried to correct this heroic bias in current charismatic leadership theories by focusing on charisma as a relationship that is jointly produced by leaders and followers. Campbell et al. (2008) claim that, far from being divinely bestowed upon favoured leaders, charisma arises from the two-way interactions of leader and followers. The last two studies (Campbell et al., 2008; Howell and Shamir, 2005) showing some shift to the relational view.

It is obvious from the cursory review above that early research and theories of leadership focused on leaders' traits and behaviours and the situation in which the leader performs (Campbell et al., 2008). Less attention has been paid to empirical investigation of followers' traits or to the interaction of leaders and followers (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). They considered the leader as the centre of attention and power, akin to the sun in our solar system (Hollander, 2007). An exclusive focus on leaders essentially limits the understanding of leadership, however, because it refuses to take into account the thoughts and actions of followers and of situational aspects (Densten and Gray, 2001). In the context of this theoretical basis, followers are viewed as passive receptors of leaders' decisions, or at best moderators of their influence (as with the contingency theory) (Oc and Bashshur, 2013; Shamir, 2007). In response to this leader-driven perspective, leadership researchers began to consider the importance of the follower and the focus started to shift – albeit only a little – towards the active role of the follower and how followers' traits and behaviours influenced leaders' perceptions (Oc and Bashshur, 2013; Campbell et al., 2008).

2.2.2 Follower-centric theories

A genuinely follower-centred model only emerged with the simultaneous developing of implicit leadership theories, as well as Meindl's (1995) constructionist model of leadership (Oc and Bashshur, 2013).

2.2.2.1 What **Meindl (1995)** called the '**Romance of Leadership**' has exerted a strong influence on both discussions in journals in the field and among practitioners looking for solutions to leadership as a solo activity (Crawford, 2012) and the importance of followers. Meindl (1995: 131) stated that: "In essence, leadership is very much in the eyes of the beholder; followers, not the

leader – and not the researchers – define it.” Meindl and colleagues describe leadership as a social construction created by followers (Meindl et al., 1985).

2.2.2.2 Implicit leadership theories (ILTs); these approaches represent the first shift from a leader-centred to a follower-centred perspective (Oc and Bashshur, 2013). It is suggested that followers have beliefs and schemas for leader behaviour that influence the extent to which they attribute effectiveness and normative evaluations such as ‘good’ or ‘bad’ to a leader (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). They encode leadership information via schemas and they form these ILTs through accumulated processes of socialisation (Schyns and Meindl, 2005; Epitropaki and Martin, 2004). Such embedded beliefs in the minds of followers regarding what makes an effective leader (for example, Lord et al., 1984) materialise into prototypes of a leader in any given professional scenario (Oc and Bashshur, 2013). Leaders who match the prototype are expected to be assessed more favourably by their followers (Oc and Bashshur, 2013).

2.2.2.3 Social identity theory: this theory tries to bridge follower-centric and relational views (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Leader effectiveness rests upon how leaders tailor their messages to the self-identity level of followers and modify those images if needed (Johnson, 2009). This theory rests on the assumption that both leaders’ and followers’ individual self-images are developed in part from the wider social group constituting the organization (Hogg and Reid, 2006; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

The organizational literature is rich in studies about leadership characteristics and dimensions reflecting the belief that leadership (good or bad) explains organizational outcomes (Bjugstad et al., 2006; Gilbert and Hyde, 1988). In spite of its obvious relevance to leadership, followership is rarely discussed. It is noticeable from the two sections above that there is a big difference between numbers of leader-centric theories versus follower-centric ones. The focus turns to developing leadership skills because the idea is that if the leader succeeds, the organization will be successful. However, this view ignores the fact that leaders need followers to achieve goals (Bjugstad et al., 2006). Howell and Costley (2001: 304) define followership as: “...an interactive role individuals play that complements the leadership role and is equivalent to it in importance for achieving group and organizational performance”. Followership completes and complements leadership, and therefore to distinguish followership from leadership is detrimental to scholarly advances in the field because one cannot understand the latter without taking into account the abilities, values and practices of the former. Both leaders and followers actively operate through mutual awareness of the other’s traits in order to achieve shared goals (Hollander, 1992). Rost (1993) contributed by giving followers more attention and recognition, defining leadership as: “...an influence relationship among leaders and followers who intend real changes that reflect

shared purpose”, this definition shedding light on the importance of followers and the reciprocal relationship between followers and leaders and its compatibility with social exchange theory (Hollander, 1978).

2.2.3 Relational view

It was not until the 19th century that research on linking leadership, followers and goal achievement matured (Morasso and Mierzwa, 2012).

2.2.3.1 The early voice of *Mary Parker Follett* in the 1920s and 30s challenged the traditional assumptions, paying attention to who gives orders and how these orders are received by subordinates (Hollander, 2007). Follett (1970) used the teacher–student relationship to present and describe the leader–follower relationship as an interactive one calling for more attention to be given to followership (Morasso and Mierzwa, 2012; Hollander, 2007). Follett argues that is the success of leader-follower relations which guarantees shared success, not the propensity of leaders to control followers (Graham, 2003; Follett, 1949). Follett (1927, 1949) claims that instead of seeing leaders and followers as commander and obedient, we need to understand that authority is an “intermingling of forces” between them wherein a self-generating process of control is created (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

2.2.3.2 Hollander’s relational view; Hollander (1971: 1978) was one of the earliest scholars to adopt a focus on leadership as a relational process (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014; Uhl-Bien, 2006), regarding it as a two-way influence and social exchange relationship between leaders and followers (Hollander, 1979). The basic idea is that leaders influence followers and vice versa (Graen et al., 1982). Hollander (1992) claims that leadership is a process not a person and despite the imbalance of power, influence can be exerted from both partners – followers and leaders – as a part of a social exchange process. This relationship is built over time and involves an exchange, or transaction, between leaders and followers (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Transactional theory has the same view: it emphasizes implicit social exchanges or transactions that exist between leaders and followers (Homans, 1961; Hollander, 1964; 1992). Transactional leadership refers to a fair exchange in which the leader gives something to followers and receives esteem in return (Homans, 1961). The transactional form of leadership focuses on relational factors, processed by follower perceptions of a leader’s legitimacy, values, intentions and competence (Hollander, 2007).

2.2.3.3 Information-processing theory concerns the cognitive processes that determine leaders and followers' behaviour. Leaders use schemas to determine which behavioural style to use; followers also use schemas when understanding and evaluating leaders' behaviours (Johnson, 2009). Lord, Brown, and Freiberg (1999) demonstrate that leaders' attempts to forge identities are constrained by the evaluations of followers. The process of identity creation essentially entails the input of both leader and follower (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

2.2.3.4 Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory: the predominant approach to the study of relationships in leadership is leader-member exchange theory (LMX) (Uhl-Bein, 2006). It highlights the relationship between leaders and followers and acknowledges the importance of the followers' role in leadership processes. It emphasizes the idea that both leader and follower mutually determine the quality of the relationship (Howell and Shamir, 2005). This approach identifies factors shaping supervisor-subordinate relations, and subsequent work attitudes as well as job performance ratings (Werbel and Henriques, 2009; Uhl-Bein, 2006). LMX theory was originally developed by Graen (1976) and expanded further by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995). LMX stresses the importance of all three domain of leader, follower and the relationship, yet, given the academic context to date, its wider function is to shift the focus away from the leader to focus primarily on the relationship (Howell and Shamir, 2005).

LMX theory had its early roots in vertical dyad linkage theory (VDL) developed by Graen and his colleagues (Cashman et al., 1976; Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen, 1976; Graen and Cashman, 1975), social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), and role theory (Huang et al., 2008; Brower et al., 2000; Katz and Kahn, 1966). The basic thrust of VDL theory was that leaders distinguish between subordinates through the way they supervise them (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995), leaders develop a much closer relationship with some subordinates (the in-group) in comparison to other subordinates (the out-group) (Cashman et al., 1976; Dansereau et al., 1975). As this stream of research developed and became known as LMX, in-group and out-group labels were dropped and the quality of the relationship measured on a continuum.

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995: 225) state that: "...the centroid concept of the (LMX) theory is that effective leadership processes occur when leaders and followers are able to develop mature leadership relationships (partnerships) and thus gain access to the many benefits these relationships bring". This theory describes how effective leadership relationships develop among dyad 'partners' (e.g., leaders and members or peers) to produce bases of leadership influence, as well as demonstrating the benefits of these leadership relationships for organizational outcomes (Uhl-Bien, 2006; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1991, 1995).

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Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) list the developmental stages that LMX theory passes through. The first stage focuses on leader behaviour as described by leader and follower. A difference in follower responses to questions about leaders was discovered, however leader-member dyads became the unit for analysis and the theory began to develop within the relationship domain. The second stage focuses on the relationship and its outcome. Studies working at this stage assess facets of the LMX relationship as well the relationship between LMX and organizational variables. Stage three consists of shifting the focus away from traditional notions of superior and subordinate to an examination of leadership as a partnership among dyadic members. Leadership Making model (Uhl-Bien and Graen, 1993; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1991) was developed for the purposes of bringing about this stage: it stresses the need to foster effective relationships within organizations and outlines ways in which this can be achieved. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1991) present the Life Cycle of Leadership-Making which begins with: (1) strangers (the initial testing phase interaction between the leader and follower), moving to (2) acquaintances where the leader and the follower develops exchange expectations based on the personal characteristics (i.e. attitudes and demographics) of both of them, finally reaching the stage of (3) a mature relationship based on the exchange evaluation of the follower and the leader, where partnerships are described as members having moved beyond their own interests, focussing instead on the bigger picture (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

A role-making model (Graen and Scandura, 1987) describes the interaction between leaders and subordinates that develops the shaping of the quality of their relationship. The role-making concept of LMX was extended to include social exchange and attribution theories (Uhl-Bien, Graen and Scandura, 1997; Dienesch and Liden, 1986). These models extended LMX theory by describing the processes by which relationships developed. The relationship is either reinforced or weakened. A high LMX is characterized by mutual trust, mutual obligation, positive support, interpersonal attraction, mutual liking, reciprocal influence, professional respect, contributory behaviours, loyalty and behaviours that extend outside the employment contract (Uhl-Bien, Graen and Scandura, 2000; Liden and Maslyn, 1998; Yukl, 1989; Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Liden and Graen, 1980; Graen and Cashman, 1975). The members are committed, competent, and conscientious subordinates (Liden and Graen, 1980; Dansereau et al., 1975). The in-group members have greater influence and autonomy in the work situation (Steiner, 1997).

Partners in mature leadership relationships experience reciprocal influence, mutual trust, respect and obligation. Followers here are willing to exert extra effort by engaging in activities, for example taking personal initiative, taking career risks to accomplish assignments and being good organizational citizens (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Graen, 1989).

On the other hand, a low LMX keeps the relationship within the boundaries of the employment contract (the follower completes the job but contributes nothing extra) (Brower et al., 2000) in parallel with limited reciprocal trust and support and few rewards from their supervisors (Botero, 2012; Krishnan, 2004; Deluga, 1998; Farmer et al., 1997; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Graen (2006) offers a further extension to LMX which he currently describes as the “new LMX–MMX theory of Sharing Network Leadership”. This occupies similar territory to what Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) called ‘Stage 4’ LMX research, where dyadic partnerships expand into group and network formations. Drawing on earlier framing organizations as composites of interdependent dyadic relationships or dyadic subassemblies (Graen and Scandura, 1987), this newly developed theory stresses the significance of both formal and informal influences on colleagues, as well as the wider network. “LMX being vertical and MMX is every direction but vertical” (Uhl-Bien, 2006: 276).

Leader-member exchange LMX creates significant relationships and positive effects with many outcomes (Ansari et al, 2015; Ansari et al., 2014; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Akinlade et al., 2011; Chang and Johnson, 2010; Atwater and Carmeli, 2009; Ilies et al., 2007; Hackett and Lapeirre, 2004; Schriesheim et al., 1999; Tierney et al., 1999 ; Wayne, Liden et al., 1999; Gerstner and Day, 1997; Ashkanasy and O’Connor, 1997; Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Deluga and Perry, 1991; Graen et al., 1990; Wakabayashi et al., 1988; Graen and Scandura, 1987; Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen and Cashman, 1975). These outcomes include subordinate performance, better objective performance, subordinate satisfaction (overall satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor), salary raises, organizational commitment, role clarity, promotion, career development, mutual influence, open and honest interaction, greater access to resources and knowledge, opportunities to advance professionally, decision-making latitude, support from supervisors, increased freedom, more meaningful or suitable professional assignments, greater number of opportunities to work alongside leaders, interpersonal attraction, organizational citizenship behaviour, and employee creativity. In addition, LMX has been positively associated with intrinsic personal rewards (Liden and Maslyn, 1998; Scandura et al., 1986; Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe, 2000; Scott and Bruce, 1994) such as autonomy, empowerment, and support (Bhal, Gulati, and Ansari, 2009)

Different measures of leader-member exchange (LMX) have been established: Graen and Uhl-Bien’s scale (1995) with 7 items (See Appendix-1) presents a different three-dimensional conceptualization of LMX comprising loyalty, respect and trust. Schriesheim et al. (1992a) developed a six-item measure with two items for each sub-dimension; Schriesheim et al. (1999) register mutual support, trust, liking, latitude, attention and loyalty. Liden and Maslyn (1998) developed a measure of LMX based on a series of three studies which cover four dimensions (see

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Appendices 2 and 3): mutual affect (e.g., friendship and liking), loyalty (e.g., loyalty and mutual obligation), contribution (e.g., performing work beyond what is specified in the job description), and professional respect (e.g., respect for professional capabilities). Researchers argue that any particular LMX relationship can be based on between one and all four dimensions. Liden and Maslyn further note that a fifth dimension, trust, was deleted because of a high degree of similarity with the dimension of loyalty (Brower et al., 2000). The work of Liden and Maslyn (1998) (multidimensional approach to LMX) has received increasing attention and researchers have started using this LMX-MDM (LMX multidimensional measure) to assess LMX in their research (Schyns et al., 2010; Brower et al., 2000; Schriesheim et al., 1999).

From the brief review above, the relational view treats leadership not as a trait or a behaviour of a leader but as a phenomenon generated through interactions between people acting in context (Fairhurst and Uhl-Bien, 2012; Fairhurst, 2007). Burns (1978: 19) defines leadership as a relationship between leaders and followers: "Leadership, unlike naked power-wielding, is thus inseparable from followers' needs and goals", thus leadership and followership are best seen as roles in relation to each other (Heller and van Til, 1982). Hollander (2007) claims this relationship means involving followers in desired mutual pursuits, calling this kind of leader–follower relationship a basic 'inclusive leadership,' particularly when encouraging practices that result in bonding elements such as loyalty and trust (Hollander 1958; 1978; 1992; 1995; 2006). Chang and Johnson (2010: 798) define leadership as: "...an inherently social process, such that rules, values and attitudes emerge from interactions between leaders and followers and the relationships they develop". Thus, it is clear that the relational view is the more balanced view, where the leaders and followers influence each other in ways that reflect their mutual purposes (Rost, 1991). The relationship is characterised by a 'partnering' of leader and follower for the purpose of effecting favourable outcomes (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). Given that the relational view path in the future research of leadership is compatible with the requirements of today's organizations. It is now widely accepted that leadership cannot be fully understood without considering the role of followers in the leadership process (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

2.3 Relational leadership theory

Uhl-Bien (2006) described two perspectives of relational leadership which are complementary but different in their implications. The first is an entity perspective that focuses on identifying attributes of individuals (e.g., leaders and followers) and their perceptions, cognition (e.g., self-concept), characteristics, intentions, behaviours (e.g., social influence, social exchange),

personality attributes, expectations and evaluations according to their relations with each other. This approach understands leadership as based on mutual influences enacted with the aim of accomplishing wider goals. Dachler and Hosking (1995: 3) describe this model as a 'subject-object' understanding of relationships: "social relations are enacted by subjects to achieve knowledge about, and influence over, other people and groups". The second approach is a relational perspective, one that is less well known, frames leadership as a process of constructing a set of privileged understandings of what leadership is. Knowledge is radically social in origin in this model, and is not the exclusive preserve of individual minds. The model thus focusses on processes of communication (e.g., dialogue) as providing the route to understanding leadership, as opposed to supposedly innate traits or typical behaviours (Uhl-Bien, 2006; Meindl, 1995; Hosking et al., 1995).

The entity perspective (Uhl-Bien, 2006) includes: (1) LMX theory; (2) Hollander's relational theory – these two theories have been explained in details earlier in the relational view section; (3) charismatic relationships which comprise social relationships between leaders and followers; (4) the relational and collective self as parts of a social self-concept which is defined as the extent to which individuals classify themselves in terms of their relationships with others. Two distinct constructs within it are the relational self which emanates from relationships with significant others, and the collective self which is based on identity with a group or social category; (5) social networks – LMX-MMX sharing network theory and triads, and (6) Rost's (1995) post-industrial leadership which is defined as what leaders and collaborators do together. Leaders compete with other leaders for collaborators while collaborators develop a relationship with leaders of their own choosing, not necessarily those who have authority over them. Leaders and collaborators may change places.

Uhl-Bien (2006) developed Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) as a basic framework for the study of leadership as a social process which construct emergent coordinative practices (e.g., evolving social order) and change (e.g., new approaches, values, attitudes, behaviours and ideologies). This framework views relationships both as an outcome of enquiry (e.g., How are leadership relationships produced?) and a context for action (e.g., How do relational dynamics contribute to structuring?). Uhl-Bien's RLT suggests that leadership could occur in any direction as it reflects a mutual influence process. It views leadership responsibility as lying with the collective and not just the individual leader (Uhl-Bien, 2006).

In the same vein, various studies have addressed relational leadership qualities or requirements. Hollander and Kelly (1992) and Hollander et al. (1996) present four relational qualities that most frequently differentiate good from bad leadership: perceptiveness, involvement, trustworthiness

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and reward. Study participants mentioned support as the intangible reward provided by a good leader in critical incident situations. Respondents illustrated the relational reward of support by recounting instances of the following: “Provided a clear message which helped me interact more effectively” (communicating); “Gave recognition to whoever provided the input” (fairness); “Problems were handled quickly, promptly and effectively” (action-oriented behaviour) and naturally “Backed up his staff” (support) (Hollander, 2007).

Goleman (1995) claims that leaders need to develop both intrapersonal understanding/self-knowledge and interpersonal relational skills because: “...self-awareness is fundamental to psychological insight” in order to fulfil their role as relational managers (Russell, 2003). To appropriately interpret follower responses, leaders also need to be able to assess their own reactions. Intrapersonal awareness is an integral component of developing interpersonal skills while intrapersonal knowledge involves an awareness of both the presence and causes of ways of relating (Russell, 2003)

In addition, Lapierre et al. (2012) addressed the importance of relational self-concept. Highly relational self-concept people define themselves in terms of connections and role relationships with significant others, benefiting the welfare of other partners while people with weak relational identity do not have these tendencies (Chang and Johnson, 2010; Brewer and Gardner, 1996). The expectation is that leaders with a strongly relational self-concept view themselves primarily in terms of the relationships they have with followers, and will be encouraged to engage in behaviours that would satisfy followers’ needs. Supporting this view, Chang and Johnson (2010) found that the more relational the self-concept of the leader the higher the quality of the relationship (i.e. LMX quality) was recorded by the follower. This trait-like quality is likely to influence the initial development of LMX because leaders with a higher propensity to relate are more likely to trust their followers and nurture the exchange relationship.

Research shows that relationship leadership behaviours, those used to help workers feel comfortable with themselves, the situation and each other (i.e. promoting mutual trust, and encouraging respectful and supportive working relationships), often lead to higher employee job satisfaction and stronger working relationships (Boatwright et al., 2010)

Leadership can be seen as a two-way influence relationship between a leader and a follower aimed at achieving mutual goals. In relationship-based approaches, the focus is on interpersonal relationships, most often between leader–member dyads, but also leadership relationships occur between a leader and groups, among triads and larger collectives (Uhl-Bien, 2006).

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter presents a review of relational leadership, in which leaders and followers are viewed as “relational beings” (Fairhurst and Uhl-Bien, 2012). It reviews leader-centric approach, follower-centric approach, and demonstrates the importance of the relational view in today’s organizations and how this view is the more balanced one. The relational leadership behaviours such as leader member exchange (LMX) is the predominant approach to the study of relationships in leadership (Uhl-Bien, 2006). Therefore, this theory could play a major role in achieving followers’ and leaders’ mutual goals and in their abilities to influence (which will be analysed in chapter four).

What this chapter also shows is that in spite of earlier calls and suggestions within the research field of leadership that a greater focus on followership would be beneficial to it (Hollander and Julian, 1969; Sanford, 1950), the study of followership has been largely absent from the leadership literature (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). In publications of the *Leadership Quarterly* dating from 1990 to 2008, only 14% of articles contain the word ‘follower’, or variants of it, in the abstract or title (Bligh, 2011) and if the search is further narrowed to include the word ‘followership’ the number is reduced to a handful of articles (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Therefore, to cover this area of literature and in line with Crossman and Crossman’s (2011) definition of followership (stated earlier in chapter one), the next chapter reviews the body of research relating to followership.

Chapter 3: FOLLOWERSHIP

3.1 Introduction

Given the ways in which the workplace is currently evolving, the scholarly study of relational leadership processes is becoming increasingly relevant to the wider community. Changes such as easier access to information and growing empowerment of lower-ranking employees are some of the reasons for why flexible leader-follower relationships, as opposed to a rigid command-and-control style of management, lead to organizational success. Additionally, the study of followership has grown as organizations seek new ways in which to select, train, and lead followers, and to gain the maximum benefit from them (Crossman and Crossman, 2011; Bjugstad et al., 2006; Chaleff, 2003).

Followership is a relatively new stream of leadership research that employs a similar follower-centred view, but that also expands the focus to include follower decisions, behaviours and attitudes to actively influence leaders and organizational outcomes (Oc and Bashshur, 2013). To date, followership is still a 'young' field and has not been studied in depth. The follower-centric literature is limited and in need of more empirically based and experimental research.

According to Agho (2009), this lack of research and appreciation of followership can be attributed to four factors. The first factor is the term itself: 'followership' is usually connected with negative images and unfavourable words such as 'passive' and 'weak'. Secondly, the hierarchical relationship between followers and leaders in bureaucratic organisations has distorted the interactive effects of leadership-followership on organizational growth and stability. Thirdly, there is a paucity of professional development programmes aimed at fostering more effective follower practices because of the persisting assumption that to follow is simply an instinct and not a learned skill. Finally, there has not been sufficient definition of effective, in comparison to ineffective, follower traits, both within scholarship and in the business world. This is partially due to a persisting tendency to focus on how leadership, and not followership, leads to success (Blanchard et al., 2009).

The importance of followership, however, has been recognised because of two publications by Kelley (1988) and Chaleff (1995), which have become key works in the field of followership. They have led to widespread consideration, in both the academic and popular press, for their seemingly novel proposal that followers play an active role in organisational success (Crossman and Crossman, 2011; Baker, 2007). After these publications and the Rethinking Followership Conference that took place in Claremont McKenna College in February 2006, it became evident

that a new subfield was emerging (Riggio et al., 2008); followership started to attract some serious consideration and attention. The word 'followership' is now accepted and commonly used in organizational vocabulary, and most leadership courses now include a section about followership. Johnson (2009) provides a full paper suggesting integrating material on followership into three leadership course units focussing on; introduction to leadership, theories of leadership, and the ethics of leadership. In his paper, Johnson suggests that instructors should be trained to highlight the mutual interdependence of leaders and followers and the followers' direct and substantial impact on ultimate organizational success (Johnson, 2009). Currently, followership is now taught as a stand-alone course in some universities, and leadership journals are publishing articles which focus on the concept of followership (Bligh and Kohles, 2012; Kelley, 2008).

Identification of studies

Aiming to review the body of followership literature, a search of a number of databases (Emerald, Psych INFO, SAGE, JSTOR, WILEY, Science Direct and SpringerLink) was conducted. The keyword used in the search was 'followership'. As followership was not paid much attention in the management field until the 1980s (Crossman and Crossman, 2011; Baker, 2007), studies published from 1975 are reviewed. The year 1975 was selected to see whether there was any significant work undertaken in the field before the 1980s. This is with the exception of two studies; Hollander and Webb's (1955), one of the first empirical studies to address the importance of followership, and Zaleznik's (1965) study, where he addressed one of the first followership styles. Just about 600 hits were located through the initial search, and 150 abstracts read in order to identify the relevant studies that matched the criteria for inclusion which were: i) in the field of management, ii) published in peer reviewed journals, and iii) written in the English language.

Other references were obtained via a manual search of the reference lists of the chosen studies. As a result, 39 papers and five chapters in books were included as fulfilling the criteria. It became apparent that the major works in the field such as those by Kelly (1988; 1992; 2008) and Chaleff (1995; 2008) were either chapters in books or conceptual (theoretical) studies. Therefore, the decision was made to include empirical papers, important chapters and unempirical (theoretical or conceptual) studies.

For organisational purposes, this chapter discusses:

- .1. The history of followership and the early work
- .2. The definitions of 'followers' and 'followership'

- .3. The characteristics of the studies
 - .3.1. Followership typologies or style
 - .3.2. Followers' traits and behaviours
 - .3.3. Followership and leadership style
 - .3.4. Followership and organisation outcome
 - .3.5. Implicit followership theories
 - .3.6. Followership reviews
- .4. Discussion
- .5. Conclusion

3.2 The history of followership and the early works

Studies vary about the inception and recognition of followers and followership. While some management scholars claim that Kelley's article 'In Praise of Followers' in 1988 was the beginning of the followership field, others argue that followership research began in 1955 (Baker, 2007). The lack of attention towards researching followers has changed little since Follett delivered her 'call to arms' in the 1930s (Bjugstad et al., 2006). This point of view is supported by a number of other scholars who claim that Mary Follett was indeed the earliest voice. It may be suggested then that followership, defined as an active role played by followers in shaping the interdependency of leader/follower interactions, is a perspective first promulgated in the 1930s (Baker, 2007).

The more general concept of 'followers' has been recognised and discussed since the beginning of the 20th century by psychologists such as Freud (1921), who discussed the psychological link between the leader and follower; anthropologists such as Mead (1949), who looked at the psychological relationship between a leader and followers; sociologists such as Sanford (1950), who examined leadership as an intricate relationship between the leader and the follower, and Homans (1961) who describes the processes of exchange between leaders and followers (Baker, 2007). Homans' work laid the foundations for social exchange theory and leader-member exchange (LMX) (Baker, 2007). Management scholars and literature did not address the vital role that could be played by followers in the leadership process until later. Some of the other early voices of followership from social psychologists such as Hollander and Webb (1955) bridged the

concepts of passive and active followers, their empirical study acknowledged the importance of followership and the recognition of followers. They indicated that leadership and followership were related in a positive direction, that the qualities associated with leadership and followers were interdependent, and that the characteristics of followership needed to be considered as a functional component of good leadership, concluding that individuals who were not desirable as leaders were not desirable as followers either. Another early study was by Zalesnik (1965) into the dynamics of subordinacy, suggesting the first typology of followers. Zalesnik's typology reflected a Freudian approach, focusing on dysfunctional followers, and was written for leaders (Kellerman, 2008). Twelve years later, Herold's (1977) study examined how leaders and followers could influence each other in the leader-follower relationship. Herold's study revealed that leaders' behaviours and attitudes differ as a function of their subordinates' performance and that the subordinates' behaviours and attitudes vary as a function of the leaders' behaviour; in other words, each party can influence the other.

In addition, Steger et al. (1982) proposed one of the first advanced typologies built on two dimensions: the followers' desire for self-enhancement and self-protection. They focused on followers seeking performance improvement and on helping leaders to understand different types of followers and how to motivate them. Subsequently, by publishing 'In Praise of Followers' and highlighting the need for study into and praise of followers, Kelley (1988) positioned followers and followership in the spotlight and thus started the era of followership.

3.3 The definitions of 'followers' and 'followership':

There are multiple uses of the term 'followership': as the opposite of leadership in discussions about the binary relationship between the two; as an activity that has both direct and indirect influence; and as a role or group noun for those existing in relation to leaders and influenced by them (Crossman and Crossman, 2011). One of the earliest definitions of followership was proposed by Hollander and Webb (1955: 166) as: "...the extent to which an individual is desired by potential leaders of a group functioning within a circumscribed institutional context".

Wortman (1982: 373) defined followership as a balanced perspective (followers and leaders):

"Followership is the process of attaining one's individual goals by being influenced by a leader into participating in individual or group efforts toward organizational goals in a given situation. Followership thereby becomes seen as a function of the follower, the leader, and situational variables."

Robert Kelley, the most influential and widely quoted followership pioneer, said that the word 'follower' "has its etymological roots in the Old High German *folaziohan*, which meant to assist, help, succour or minister to" (Kelley, 1992: 34). He defined followers as people who act with intelligence, independence, courage, and a strong sense of ethics.

"The people who are effective in the follower role have the vision to see both the forest and the trees, the social capacity to work well with others, the strength of character to flourish without heroic status, the moral and psychological balance to pursue personal and corporate goals at no cost to others, and, above all, the desire to participate in a team effort for the accomplishment of some greater common purpose" (Kelley, 1988: 146).

In the business sense, Bjugstad et al. (2006) defined followership as the ability to follow directives effectively and support the efforts of a leader to maximise a structured organization. On the other hand, Baker (2007) defined followership as a process of fulfilling the role of follower by supporting the views of a leader, and deliberately working to achieve common goals shared with the leader or organisation (Baker and Gerlowski, 2007).

Followers are defined by Kellerman (2008: 213) as the "subordinates who have less power, authority, and influence than their superiors and who, therefore, usually, but not invariably, fall into line", while followership is the response of those in subordinate positions (followers) to those in superior ones (leaders). Agho (2009) describes followership as the ability of subordinates to competently and proactively follow the commands and support their superiors to achieve organisational goals.

Leadership perspectives and hierarchal status affect most of the above definitions. In response to this, other definitions have tried to make the followership process more relational, such as Defee et al. (2009) who claim that followers may be distinguished on the basis of their style of thinking. For example, first, followers may be defined by their aptitude for critical thinking, which entails looking for better ways to do work, provide constructive criticism, and design creative solutions and directed thinking; followers maintaining the status quo and avoiding change. Second, Scope of responsibility includes Expanded – going beyond what is required, showing greater competence at in-role tasks and taking on extra-role activities, and Stable – maintaining stable responsibilities. Third, the desire for collaboration seen as Active – willing to assist others, work cooperatively and develop a network of relationships, and Passive – the opposite of active. Finally, the commitment orientation covering Group – showing commitment and challenging the leader's direction if it strays from mutually held goals, and Self where the focus is on completing tasks, and being

unlikely to disagree with the leader unless that impacts their own welfare. Defee et al. (2009: 69) describe the domain of followership as follows:

“Followership is a relational concept between a leader and follower in which the follower exhibits thinking, responsibility, collaboration, and commitment behaviours that define goal orientation and motivation(s) to succeed.”

In their valuable review of followership studies, Uhl-Bien et al. (2014: 96) define the term as: ‘the study of the nature and impact of followers and following in the leadership process’. The authors frame the concept as essentially incorporating a follower role, which is itself defined in relation to that of a leader, following behaviours (similarly defined in relation to leader), and outcomes related to leadership processes (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

Only a few followership scholars provide a concrete definition of followership. For example, the study by Stegers et al. (1982), which is one of the first pieces of research to articulate followers’ behaviours and attributes, did not define followers or followership. Defee et al. (2009) claim that no consensus definition exists to describe the concept and that even enthusiasts of followership have avoided creating specific definitions. According to Crossman and Crossman (2011), there is no commonly agreed definition of followership to date, so they provided their own, which was seen as complementing leadership, concurring with Carsten et al. (2010: 559) and their concept of followership being ‘upward leadership’.

“Followership is a relational role in which followers have the ability to influence leaders and contribute to the improvement and attainment of group and organizational objectives. It is primarily a hierarchically upwards influence” Crossman and Crossman (2011: 484).

The definitions provided by Crossman and Crossman (2011) and Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) are considered here to be the most representative definitions as they place a primary emphasis on the relational and practice-based nature of followership.

3.4 The characteristics of the studies:

Taking into consideration the substantial contributions made by Kelley (1988; 1992) and Chaleff (1995; 2008) in the field of followership, many papers have referred to their work. However, the greatest concern about their papers and texts is that most of them can be criticised because their results are not based on empirical studies (Baker, 2007). Empirical studies into followership are still limited, but more recent studies have begun to make a significant contribution to the followership field. This section addresses studies in the followership field. Twenty empirical

studies were found in the literature relating to followership (Hollander and Webb, 1955; Brown and Thornborrow, 1996; Dvir and Shamir, 2003; Thody, 2003; Miller et al., 2004; Baker and Gerlowski, 2007; Mushonga and Torrance, 2008; Agho, 2009; Blanchard et al., 2009; Carsten and Uhl-Bien, 2009; Defee et al., 2009; Antelo et al., 2010; Carsten et al., 2010; Sy, 2010; Baker et al., 2011; Kean et al., 2011; Prilipko et al., 2011; Hopton et al., 2012; Kohles et al., 2012; Whitely et al., 2012). Thirteen conceptual studies were found (Zaleznik, 1965; Stregers et al., 1982; Kelly, 1988; Bjugsted et al., 2006; Collinson, 2006; Hurwitz and Hurwitz, 2009; Johnson, 2009; Mushong et al., 2009; Lapierre and Bremner, 2010; Can and Aktas, 2012; Chou, 2012; Epitropaki et al., 2013; Junker and Dick, 2014). There were also six reviews (Baker, 2007; Kilburn, 2010; Crossman and Crossman, 2011; Zawawi et al., 2012; Oc and Bashshur, 2013; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014) and five book chapters (Kelly, 1992; 2008; Chaleff, 1995; 2008; Shamir, 2004; Potter and Rosenbach, 2006; Kellerman, 2008). After reviewing the papers and books in the field, six themes were identified in the literature.

3.4.1 Followership Typologies or Styles:

Eleven typologies were extracted from the literature (See Table 1):

3.4.1.1 Zaleznik's (1965) model was based on two dimensions; submission vs. control and activity vs. passivity. Zaleznik claimed that some followers are anti-authoritarian while others are submissive, thus identifying four follower types (Kean et al., 2011). These follower types include the Impulsive Subordinate who rebels against authority figures and is able to constructively override apathy and lack of organizational dynamism and forward movement. The Compulsive Subordinate tries to control and dominant via passive attitudes and behaviours, and often feels guilty about his or her felt desire to control. The Masochistic Subordinate actively seeks pain resulting from submission to control, while the Withdrawn Subordinate displays apathy towards, and a distrust of, workplace practices.

3.4.1.2 Stegers et al.'s (1982) study was the first to discuss follower behaviours and traits (Baker, 2007). Stegers and colleagues concluded that there were nine follower types, built on two dimensions of the follower's desire - namely self-enhancement and self-protection. The follower types are: Apathetic, Bureaucrat, Game Player, Donkey, Kamikaze, Deviant, Artist, Achiever and Super Follower (see Appendix 4).

3.4.1.3 Kelley's work served as a launching pad for the followership field. Kelley's Model (1988; 1992) categorised followers according to dimensions of criticism and independence in

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thinking (independent and dependent); acting (active and passive); or their engagement in creating positive energy for the organisation. From these two dimensions, five follower types are proposed (see Appendix 5). Alienated followers present effective follower traits (creative, talented, and well informed), but have begun to feel alienated in the system because of past experiences or being exposed to obstacles presented by leaders. They are negative, lack engagement, and tend to hide and avoid sharing information, also, they described as “troublemakers”. Conformist followers (‘yes’ people) are highly active and positive, but they do not have critical thinking abilities; they are dependent on their leaders for inspiration. Passive followers “the sheep” abstain from taking the initiative, lack a sense of responsibility, are not risk-takers, and undertake activities which require close monitoring and guidance. They are deemed to be ineffective. Exemplary followers “star followers”, in comparison, possess greater energy and positivity but have a tendency to interfere with directives. They display leader characteristics in that they are controlling, take risks, solve problems, and challenge the leader. Pragmatist followers (survivors) include some of the characteristics of the other four types. They are “middle of the road”, balancing tasks and performance within the organisation’s rules and culture and doing whatever is necessary to keep themselves safe.

Kelley’s model proposes the most popular and plausible typologies (Brown and Thornborrow, 1996; Blanchard et al., 2009) (see Appendix 6) and is used by seven studies examining followership and its relationships. Brown and Thornborrow (1996) tested followership types across three organizations, with the results showing that Conformists (“yes people”) are the most commonly found type. Pragmatists and Passive followers (“sheep”) come next while a less common type was the Exemplary follower. Alienated individuals are an even rarer breed.

Of the principal studies answering the call for empirical verification of Kelley’s work are those by Blanchard et al. (2009), who studied the relationship between followership style and outcome, and Mushonga and Torrance (2008) and Mushonga et al. (2009) who studied the relationship between followership and personality. Chou (2012) used Kelley’s model in developing a conceptual framework that explored Millennial Leadership and followership styles in the workplace. Results revealed that ‘Millennials’ will demonstrate the characteristics of exemplary followership style in the workplace. Moreover, Bjugstad et al. (2006) examined the relationship between Kelley’s followership styles and leadership styles while Can and Aktas’ (2012) study provided a theoretical framework to articulate the relationship between the cultural values of leaders and the Kelley’s followership types they prefer.

3.4.1.4 Thody (2003), working in the field of education studies, divided followers into positive and negative followers. Positive, effective follower types are Active-passives,

Entrepreneurs, Independents, Exemplary/exceptional followers, Loyalists, Interdependent followers, and Transactional followers. Negative effective followers are Alienates, Isolates, Dependants, Passives, Observers, Reluctant-resistive, Sheep, Plateaued followers, Machiavellians, Survivors and Yes-people.

3.4.1.5 Shamir (2004) framed follower types in terms of their motivations. Position-based followers affirm the formal positioning of their leaders; Calculated followers follow in order to achieve their personal aims; Safety-based followers trust that their leaders will provide them with security; Meaning-based followers wish to avoid chaos and view their leaders as providers of order and meaning; Identity-based followers, lastly, seek to draw their own self esteem from what they perceive to be the power and attraction of their leaders (adapted by Collinson, 2006).

3.4.1.6 Potter and Rosenbach's (2006) typology is based on the relationship between the follower and either the leader or the organizational goal, or both. The researchers refer to 'Relationship Initiative' and 'Performance' in order to identify four types of followers. A Partner is the ideal follower because they commit to both task and to developing an effective relationship with their leader. Politicians put their efforts into developing relationships more than tasks, while Contributors do the opposite. The fourth type is the Subordinate (adapted by Crossman and Crossman, 2011).

3.4.1.7 Collinson (2006) explores how follower identity is constructed in an organizational context. His Conformist Self is rooted in the Foucauldian idea that surveillance produces the disciplined self; building further on this central tenant of Foucauldian theory, his Resistant Self is the inevitable rebellion against extensive control, producing anti-leader sentiments and actions; his Dramaturgical self, finally, is an individual who is able to harness disciplinarian measures – e.g. performance reviews, audits, and targets – for his or her own ends.

3.4.1.8 Kellerman (2008) - from the perspective of political science- identified levels of follower engagement, dominance and deference. She grouped them into the following: Bystanders, who display interest in leaders and organizational goals but deliberately resist engagement with colleagues and leaders, placing self-interest first; Participants, who display minimal engagement and try to exert a certain level of influence; and Activists, who are proactive in supporting the cause of their own or of another colleague. Kellerman also identifies two extreme types: isolates, who are entirely disengaged from the group, and Diehards, who, conversely, exhibit unfettered devotion to leader and group, and who accept risks.

3.4.1.9 Chaleff (1995; 2008) in his book *The Courageous Follower* identified four types of follower resulting in two dimensions; the 'courage to support' and the 'courage to challenge the

leader's behaviour or policies'. Resource followers (low support, low challenge) do their best to retain their position but no more than that. Individualist followers (low support, high challenge) speak up when others are silent, are willing to challenge policies and procedures and have little respect for leaders. Leaders value Implementers (high support, low challenge) who give their full support, but are at risk because they will not take any action against leaders' mistakes. Partners (high support, high challenge) provide strong support for the leader and maintain the right to challenge the leader if needed.

3.4.1.10 Defee et al. (2009) claim that the transformational-transactional paradigm can be used to classify follower styles in the same way as applied to leaders. Transformational followers have critical thinking abilities, shoulder responsibilities, perform active collaboration, are committed to group goals, and accept changes. On the other hand, Transactional followers are more directed thinkers, are interested in maintaining their existing scope of responsibilities, are passive collaborators, are committed to goals, and prefer a stable environment.

3.4.1.11 Carsten et al. (2010) were the first to conduct an empirical study of followers' concepts of followership (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). They divide followers' constructs of followership into passive, active and proactive categories. Passive followers prefer to obey instruction, deferring to the leader's knowledge and expertise, and displaying loyalty to, and support for, his or her initiatives. Active followers give input which can shape initiative outcomes when given the opportunity, but remaining obedient and loyal regardless of whether they are in agreement with the actions of the leader or not. Proactive followers interact with leaders more as partners (partnership relations).

Taken together, there are differences, overlaps, similarities, and repetition between these typologies. For example, low desirable behaviour and low effectiveness might be classified together. Isolated, withdrawn, resource and passive followers could be classed together as low extremes (Kilburn, 2010). Other groups share highly desirable behaviour, commitment and effectiveness, as exemplary followers align with diehards, impulsive followers, achievers, super followers, effective followers and partners (Kilburn, 2010). Zawawie et al. (2012) support this argument regarding overlaps and repetition. For example, they claim that Alienated followers are the same as Individualists, while Resource followers are the conformists. Zawawie and colleagues provide an integration model of followers' classification (see Appendix 8). There is also an 'in-between' group consisting of conformists, implementers and participants. Some of those typologies were written for followers and others for leaders. Zalesnik (1965) focused on dysfunctional followers, preferring instead to support the cause of leaders, while Kelley promoted the 'exemplary follower', which was written for followers (Kellerman, 2008). Kelley (1992), Chaleff

(1995) and Kellerman (2008) have all developed typologies of followers which focus primarily on follower behaviour (Kean et al., 2011). According to Kilburn (2010), the four most notable and highly recognised followership typologies are those of Zaleznik (1965), Kelley (1988; 1992), Chaleff (1995) and Kellerman (2008). After analysing these four typologies, he noted that the activity level criteria are particularly valuable in identifying followers and that there is a similarity between the follower groups located in each of the typologies.

This review agrees with Kilburn's (2010) opinion about those four typologies, adding that of Carsten et al. (2010) which is considered more representative. One of the problems with the other typologies is that some of them are extremely general (for example, Thody, 2003); others narrow down the typology and are devoted only to motivation (for example, Shamir, 2004), or to identity (for example, Collinson, 2006). Others are not representative, one could argue, of all followers types (for example, Defee et al., 2009).

Followers may switch groups depending on their aims in a given scenario (Kean et al., 2011; Kilburn, 2010). For instance, with a changing leader or work environment, followers may change their behaviour, for example, becoming more passive, more engaged or more active.

3.4.2 Followers' traits and behaviours

This section addresses the studies that deal with followers' traits, behaviours, characteristics, and personalities. Regarding the followers' qualities, Kelley (1988) claimed that effective followers share four essential qualities: having the ability to determine their own goals, are committed to their organisations, build their competencies and are focused in their efforts as well as being courageous, honest, and credible. All of these qualities require independent and critical thinking skills, as well as enthusiasm, intelligence, and self-reliance (Kelley, 1988).

Brown and Thornborrow (1996) developed a questionnaire based on Kelley's model of followership and delivered 250 questionnaires to the staff of three British companies. In terms of the characteristics of followers, the results showed that the most significant positive characteristics of followers were reliability, initiative, trustworthiness, and responsibility, while the least desirable characteristics were unreliability, untrustworthiness, uncooperativeness, irresponsibility, laziness, and inefficiency. In term of followers being either 'born' or 'made', the overwhelming agreement among respondents was that people are not born to be followers, and that there was support for the idea that people can be taught how to be more effective followers.

Table 1 Followership's Typologies

Authors	Zaleznik	Steger et al.	Kelly	Thody	Shamir	Potter and Rosenbach	Collinson	Kellerman	Chaleff	Defee et al.	Carsten et al.
Year	1965	1982	1992	2003	2004	2006	2006	2008	2008	2009	2010
Name of study	The dynamics of subordinacy.	Following the leader: How to link management style to subordinate personalities.	The Power of Followership.	Followership in educational organisations: A pilot mapping of the territory.	Motivation of followers.	Followers as partners: The spirit of leadership.	Rethinking followership.	Followership: How Followers are Creating Change and Changing Leaders.	Creating new ways of following.	The role of followers in supply chains.	Exploring social constructions of followership: A qualitative study.
Journal/ book	Harvard Business Review	Management Review	(book)	Leadership and Policy in Schools	Encyclopaedia of Leadership (book)	Contemporary Issues in Leadership	Leadership Quarterly	(book)	The Art of Followership (book)	Journal of Business Logistics	Leadership Quarterly
Follower types	-Withdrawn -Masochistic -Compulsive -Impulsive	-Apathetic -Bureaucrat -Game player -Donkey -Kamikaze -Deviant -Artist -Achiever Superfollower	-Alienated -Passive -Conformists -Pragmatists -Exemplary	-Negative followers -Positive followers	-Position-based followers -Calculated -Safety-based followers -Meaning-based followers -Identity-based followers	-Subordinate -Politician -Contributor -Partner	-Conformist -Resistant dramaturgical	-Isolates -Bystanders -Participants -Activists -Diehards	-Resource -Individualist -Implementer -Partner	-Transformational followers -Transactional followers	-Passive -Active -Proactive

Bjugstad et al. (2006) argue that the most noteworthy characteristics of an effective follower are the willingness to tell the truth and the tendency to speak up and share opinions, while ineffective followers lack most of the above: they fail to give an honest opinion, they cover up problems, and they perpetuate a culture of fear and blame.

Agho (2009) developed a three-part questionnaire and distributed it to 302 senior-level executives. The survey aimed to find out what executives thought to be desirable qualities of both leaders and followers. The study found that honesty/integrity, competence, dependability, loyalty, and supportiveness were thought to be the five most notable characteristics of effective followers. The five least relevant characteristics were the ability to inspire, independence, ambition, the ability to be forward looking, and courage. Respondents agreed that leadership and followership skills have to be learned.

Antelo et al. (2010) assessed the followership attributes that subordinates bring to the work place when the leadership process is taking place. The list of attributes is as follows: interpersonal relationships, group relationships and functions, tolerance, conceptual understanding, learning and adapting to change, effective interaction, dependability in the context of the group, group input, emotional intelligence, the ability to support colleagues, flexibility and motivation to achieve goals. Their results revealed that reliability, the ability to support colleagues, group input and conceptual understandings were effective attributes. Learning and embracing change obtained the lowest rating. This is consistent with the findings of a quantitative study by Prilipko et al. (2011), which used a total sample of 400 members from six countries and attempted to illustrate comprehensively the functionality and importance of proposed follower attributes. They introduce the new perspective of followers' individual attributes based on the list of these proposed by Antelo et al. (2010) and Henderson (2008). Study participants here identified traits which they deemed critical to effective leadership and followership: reliability in the context of the group, supporting other group members, group input, and conceptual understanding - which indicate that respondents tend to prefer working in groups and in an atmosphere of togetherness. The results revealed that capacity to learn and embrace change obtained the lowest ratings and that there was no significant difference between male and female ratings of attributes.

Later, Carsten et al. (2010) adopted a qualitative methodology using interviews to achieve a more grounded understanding of what followership means to those acting in such roles and how followers view their own behaviours and roles when engaging with leaders. They tried to address the cognitions or behaviours associated with followership rather than the approaches used in the majority of other research, which tend to be leader-centric. Carsten and colleagues argue that followers' responses give rise to a different schema of followership, incorporating both support

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for formal hierarchies and obedience to authority (passive and active followers) as well as the more contemporary perception of followers as partners and co-producers (proactive followers) of leadership outcomes. For participants who believed that effective followers should behave passively, followership involved actions such as being obedient, being flexible and open to change, and not challenging the status quo. A more proactive view of followership implies less deference to leaders.

Baker et al. (2011) used two instruments in their study: (1) the Leadership Practices Inventory (Self only), to measure the two leadership dimensions of Challenging the Process and Enabling Others to Act, and (2) the Performance and Relationship Questionnaire, to measure respondents' attitudes about their own followership behaviours. Baker et al. aimed to find out if followers had the ability to share roles with leaders. The results showed that followers shared the characteristics of outstanding leaders, which suggests that there may be an overlap between leader and follower roles adoption. Followers expressed via their self-reported surveys that they possessed both exemplary follower and leader traits. Furthermore, these traits are associated both with leaders' abilities to evoke positive follower responses and with followers' abilities to respond positively to leaders' stimuli, thus improving follower performance. Particular leader traits are positively related to the characteristics expected of effective followers: receptivity to change, getting on with specified tasks, and cooperating with other group members.

The study by Miller et al. (2004) extends Fiedler's contingency model of leadership effectiveness on followership behaviour. Results indicate that what has been applied to leaders, in terms of the relationship between motivational disposition, situational favourability, and performance, can also be applied to followers' behaviour. The successful performance of leaders and followers is affected by followers' traits and by various features of the work situation. For example, task-oriented followers perform better in highly unfavourable conditions, while relations-oriented followers perform better in moderately favourable situations. In highly favourable situations, in contrast, followers who were relations-oriented performed better; this is the exception to Fiedler's contingency model. The organisation's performance was significantly related to the relations-oriented followers' feelings about their leaders, whereas there is no relationship with task-oriented individuals.

Regarding followers personalities, two studies have been found that address the relationship between followership typologies and personality. Mushonga and Torrance (2008) conducted an empirical investigation with 95 participants to study the relationship between followership (Kelley, 1988) and the 'big five' factor model of personality (extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism and openness). Results revealed the positive relationship between

extraversion and independent and critical thinking followers; that conscientiousness positively relates to actively engaged, independent, and critical followers. A conceptual study by Mushonga et al. (2009) examined a conceptual model of gender differences in the relationship between followership and personality using two of the subsets of followers found in Kelley's model (1992) (exemplary and passive followers) and two of the factors of personality (Conscientiousness and Neuroticism). The authors claim that the importance of this study lies in its provision of a unique insight into the leader-follower relationship, not just for the leader to know what types his/her followers are but also for the organisation in order to match follower types and leadership styles, thus improving job satisfaction and performance.

In response to followers' behaviours, Chaleff's (1995; 2003) theory of courageous followership identified five types of courageous behaviour: the courage to assume responsibility, the courage to serve, the courage to challenge, the courage to participate in transformation, and the courage to take moral action. Chaleff, one of the few writers on followership, suggests that followers assume the courage to question leaders' views and decisions, and that they should articulate constructive criticism, especially if the leader's performance is substandard. Despite Chaleff's support for speaking out or expressing concerns, however, other writers warn of the detrimental effect this may have on an employee's job security and career prospects (Collinson, 2006).

On the other hand, Lapierre and Bremner (2010) provide a theoretical explanation for the effects that employees can have on leaders' behaviour. In their paper they refer to the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) model, specifically the two types of employee behaviours that are typically studied by LMX researchers: in-role behaviour (what is listed in the job description) and extra-role behaviour (organisational citizenship behaviour). Researchers claim that by considering followership along a passive-to-proactive continuum, different manifestations of in-role, extra-role, upward influence and impression management behaviour are likely to occur, depending on where the followership is enacted along this continuum (see Appendix 7 for an explanation of these behaviours). Lapierre and Bremner (2010) cited the study of Carsten and Uhl-Bien (2009), which found that proactive followers used rational persuasion as an influence tactic with their leaders and where they explain that it may be the case that proactive followership could be associated with other tactics such as consultation, personal appeal, and legitimising.

Following behaviours (i.e. behaviours in relation to leaders) or followers' behaviours (such as upward influence tactics) still need more attention and more empirical investigation. Upward influence tactics as one of the effective behaviours of followers on the leadership process will be reviewed in detail in the next chapter.

3.4.3 Followership and leadership style:

Eight studies were found which relate to leaders and leadership style. Brown and Thornborrow (1996) tested which leadership style was preferred by followers in three UK companies (Halifax Building Society, REC, and Thorntons plc.) and what its relationship was with the followership types as identified by Kelly (1992). The four descriptions of leadership behaviour employed were Directive, Supportive, Participative and Achievement-oriented. The results indicated that subordinates in the Halifax Building Society preferred the achievement-oriented style to the supportive style. Most followers claimed that the dominant approach was more desirable than the achievement-focussed or supportive approach. Thus “yes people” tend to succeed to the greatest extent; survivors and sheep are also successful to a certain extent; while alienated group members were the least successful. At REC, subordinates placed a preference on a participatory approach to leadership as opposed to one that is primarily achievement-oriented; whereas the dominant leadership style was the directive one. Consequently, it can be seen that the directive style discourages exemplary subordinates and encourages yes-people, sheep, and survivors who were found in large numbers at REC. In Thorntons plc., a strong preference exists for participative and achievement leadership styles, the dominant style being directive. This reflected low numbers of exemplary workers and a large number of yes-people, sheep and survivors.

In other work, Dvir and Shamir (2003) conducted a longitudinal field study to test follower developmental characteristics as predictors of transformational leadership. Ninety direct followers and 724 indirect followers were involved. Results showed that followers’ starting levels of development, as indicated by the initial level of their self-actualisation requirements, their taking on board the organization’s ethics, their orientation in the context of the collective, their critical and independent way of thinking, their active input into tasks and self-efficacy, positively predicted transformational leadership for indirect followers, whereas it negatively predicted for direct followers.

In their conceptual study, Bjugstad et al. (2006) developed a model based on that of Kelly’s (1992) alienated, exemplary, passive and conformist follower styles and Hersey and Blanchard’s (1982) leadership styles model identifying telling, selling, delegating and participating styles. The researchers aimed to find out how these different types of followers and leaders could work together. For example, a telling style could work for conformist followers who have low desires; the delegating style could be a good match with exemplary followers; a participative style would help alienated followers to enhance their motivation, while a selling style should encourage passive followers.

Another conceptual study by Can and Aktas (2012) proposed a theoretical framework to make sense of the relationship between leaders' cultural beliefs and practices (individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculine and paternalistic values) to their preferred type of follower, as categorized and defined by Kelley (1992). The authors demonstrate that the greater the power distance, uncertainty avoidance and paternalistic values in the leader, the more they value dependent, uncritical thinking and passive behaviour among their followers. Individualism and masculinity, however, correlated with active input and independent critical thinking.

Regarding leaders' impact on followers, Collinson's (2006) suggests that leaders' impacts on follower identities is more complex than previously thought to be the case, indicating that leadership studies need to cultivate greater understanding in this area. Collinson argues that it is wrong to assume that leaders can always and successfully manipulate follower identities, arguing that the process in fact works both ways (i.e. followers can also manipulate leaders). Both identities of followers and leaders are inextricably linked, mutually reinforcing and likely to shift within specific contexts.

Agho's (2009) study revealed that followership skills should be viewed as pre-requisites for effective leadership. Kean et al.'s (2011) study revealed that followers play an active role in leadership and that following is a complex process based on followers' socially co-constructed views of leaders, relating to the different ways in which they follow (e.g., supporting others or being diplomatic), stand by (including disengagement with their leader) or resist following.

3.4.4 Followership and organisational outcome:

Organizations must pay attention to the values and practices of their followers in order to achieve success (Brown and Thornborrow, 1996). Chaleff (2003) and Kelley (1992) argue that 'exemplary', 'courageous' and 'star' followers are a pre-condition for successful organisations (Collinson, 2006). Agho's (2009) study demonstrates that levels of efficacy among both leaders and followers significantly affects professional performance, quality of work, standards of resulting work, employee satisfaction levels, group morale and levels of group cohesion.

Blanchard et al. (2009) used Kelley's model (1992) to study followership styles and employee attachment to an organisation (organisation commitment and job satisfaction). They examined two types of organisational commitment: (1) affective, defined as an employee's emotional attachment to, and identification with, the organisation, and (2) normative, defined as an employee's attachment to the organisation because of obligation. They also looked at two types

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of job satisfaction: (1) intrinsic, meaning components of a job necessitated by the work required, as well as a worker's felt experience of such work, , and (2) extrinsic, which refers to satisfaction with features like pay and working conditions. After surveying 331 university employees, they ascertained that active engagement is positively associated with job satisfaction (both intrinsic and extrinsic) and organisational commitment. In contrast, independent critical thinking is negatively related to organizational normative commitment and extrinsic job satisfaction. Independent critical thinking is also associated with affective commitment. Such findings suggest that the ability to evaluate one's job increases awareness of its negative aspects. Given the negative association with normative commitment which addresses employees' obligations to the organisation, this also indicates that highly critical thinkers are less likely to perceive that whatever benefits they receive from their organisation obligate them to remain there.

Hurwitz and Hurwitz's (2009) three-part conceptual papers about the 'romance' of followers demonstrate that good followers report higher career satisfaction, are promoted more often, and add greater value to their organisations and their effectiveness. The authors mentioned that their study did not argue against the importance of leadership but rather advocated the value of 'followership' - which the authors used instead of 'followership' to represent effective followers. Part 2 of the study revealed that followership could be understood as two separate competencies - leader support and personal manageability - which refer to situation-specific and generic followership behaviours respectively. In Part 3, the authors argue that a working knowledge of followership can facilitate organisational change and followership coaching.

Another follower-centric study by Kohles et al. (2012) revealed the importance of leader-follower communication about the vision integration process in organisations and how that related significantly to organisation commitment, job satisfaction, and performance.

Hoption et al. (2012) conducted two empirical studies about submitting to the follower label: followership, positive effects and extra-role behaviours. The results demonstrated the negative effects of the follower label (both on participants labelled as followers or self-labelled as followers in their job) whereby participants reported lower positive effects and fewer extra-role behaviours. These findings suggest that followers might be at risk of reinforcing their negative stereotypes by avoiding opportunities to showcase their abilities, resulting in poor outcomes for both leaders and followers.

3.4.5 Implicit followership theories and followers' identity

While a rich body of research into Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) has been established in the past 30 years (e.g., X & Y theory), there is a paucity of research on Implicit Followership Theories (IFTs) defined as an individual's personal assumptions about the traits and behaviours that characterise followers (Sy, 2010).

Carsten and Uhl-Bien (2009) conducted a quantitative study using a scale to measure employees' implicit followership theories such as the traits of good followers. The study revealed that employees think that followership can be anywhere on a scale from proactivity to passivity. The reason behind this variance, according to the researchers, may be that whether or not the leader perceives an employee's followership as effective is contingent upon the leader's expectations of the follower. Accordingly, followers should adapt their behaviours according to the situation and the expectations of their leader in order for the leader to consider followers to be effective (cited by Lapierre and Bremner, 2010).

In his study *What do you think of followers?*, Sy (2010) advanced understanding of implicit followership theories (IFTs). He included 1362 participants across five validation separate studies, asking managers to report traits and behaviours that characterise followers, which he then formed into a measure of IFTs. The IFTs instrument consists of 18 items that represent six factors. IFTs were accurately represented using first- and second-order structures: the Followership prototype (Industry, Enthusiasm and Good Citizens) and the Followership Anti-prototype (Conformity, Insubordination and Incompetence).

Later, Whiteley, Sy and Johnson (2012) conducted a study about leaders' conceptions of followers, which examined the relationship between Leaders' Implicit Followership Theories (LIFTs) (their conceptions of followers) and naturally occurring 'Pygmalion effects' (leaders' high performance expectations that improve follower performance). This involved 453 participants comprising 151 workgroup leaders and 302 workgroup followers. The results showed that Positive LIFTs lead to higher performance expectations, liking and relationship quality (LMX) which, in turn, affected follower performance. Therefore, LIFTs may serve as lenses that 'colour' leaders' expectations of their followers, influencing follower performance in a manner consistent with the Pygmalion effect. In addition, the performance expectations of leaders with less supervisory experience were more strongly influenced by their concept of followers.

In their 2010 theoretical study, Lapierre and Bremner argue that the stronger the match between employees' enactment of followership and leaders' IFT's, the more the leader will engage in risk-taking behaviours (participative and supportive leadership styles) coupled with less risk-mitigating

behaviours (directive and laissez-faire styles). Followers are more likely to be effective if their actions fit with their leaders' expectations.

In reviewing the implicit theories of leaders and followers (IFTs and ILTs), Epitropaki et al. (2013) demonstrates the ways in which the socio-cognitive approach has led to greater insight into the nature of leadership and followership. The researchers articulate common misunderstandings with regard to theories of implicit-leadership and implicit-followership, and explain their theoretical underpinnings. They review both direct and indirect measures as well as provide an overview of research to date, including a number of as-yet-unpublished studies focussing on affect, indirect assessment methods, and selective activation of implicit followership theories. They identify different levels of analysis applicable in the context of leader and follower schemas. Their work serves to highlight that ILTs and IFTs have significant practical implications for leadership and workplace outcomes. They suggest ways in which implicit- leadership and followership theories can be used in practical interventions. ILTs thus remain an important and relevant branch of research, while IFTs constitute a fresh and engaging direction for the field.

In their review of implicit theories (2014), Junker and Dick build a model to integrate past with present research. They show that employees form differing leader prototypes according organization culture, other employees and required tasks, and then compare would-be leaders to these established prototypes. The authors show that both followers and leaders benefit from a perceived fit with a positive prototype, but also, conversely, a perceived misfit with a negative prototype. Accordingly, both parties do not benefit when there is a misfit with an expected positive prototype, as well as with a negative prototype. Their review demonstrated the importance of taking into account prototypes and contexts in prototype activation and fit.

Although less attention has been paid to implicit followership theories, Sy's research suggests that implicit followership theories are important because they are associated with interpersonal outcomes of relationship quality, liking, trust and satisfaction (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

3.4.6 Followership reviews:

To date, six reviews of the followership literature have been identified. Firstly, Baker's (2007) review categorised the literature into why leadership is emphasised rather than followership, identifying the early voices of followership and followership's antecedents in addition to identifying the common themes found in the literature (ideas relevant to followers' and leaders' roles, followers being active rather than passive, leaders and followers sharing a common purpose,

and the relational nature of leaders and followers). Secondly, Kilburn (2010) studied four followership typologies - those of Zaleznik (1965), Kelley (1988; 1992), Chaleff (1995) and Kellerman (2008). This review was written for leaders, the author concluding that a greater understanding of followers equals a more informed leader, thereby creating a more effective leader.

Another review by Crossman and Crossman (2011) divided the literature into three groups: descriptive behavioural typologies (giving actual behaviours exhibited by followers which can be active or passive, disregarding, supporting or opposing their leaders); prescriptive behavioural typologies (concentrating on idealised behaviours that relate to those that followers should exhibit, rather than those that they actually exhibit) and situational theories (in terms of how compatible particular leadership and followership styles are when operating in relation to one another in certain contexts). The authors claim that understanding followership is likely to improve training and organisational performance.

Zawawi et al. (2012) divided the followership literature into follower classifications according to personality attribution (Kelley's 1992 followers' typology) as well as on propensity of followers to support leaders (Chaleff's 1995/2008 classification of followers). Both Kelley and Chaleff's models were integrated into a single diagram demonstrating follower types move in a positive linear direction resulting in a low-to-high personality follower category. This diagram also shows that followers with high degrees of attribution are also more inclined to support their leaders (see Appendix 8)

A review of Oc and Bashshur (2013) drew from social impact theory (SIT) (Latane, 1981) and research on power dynamics (e.g., French and Raven, 1959) to model the individual- and group-level determinants of follower influence and the ways in which group characteristics shape individual follower input. They show that the (social) influence of followers or followership is only influential when leaders rely on followers for knowledge acquisition or for reinforcing their self-image.

Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) provide the most recently-updated review of followership literature. This review classifies followership into role-based and constructionist views. The role-based approach affirms the assumed correlation of leadership and followership with common usages of the terms 'leader' and 'follower', and their normative professional implications. Constructionist approaches, in comparison, understand followership to arise out of a dynamic relational process. Uhl-Bien and colleagues argue that in order to better understand the leadership process the normative usages of leader and follower must be dispensed with and better understand the nature of leading and following. Moreover, appropriate methodological approaches need to be established if

researchers are interested in studying leading and following to see these behaviours in action (Fairhurst and Uhl-Bien, 2012). Uhl-Bien et al. introduce a formal theory of followership, list theoretical constructs that might apply, and provide examples of variables that could be included in the study of followership (such as followership characteristics, followership behaviours, and followership outcomes). According to Uhl-Bien et al. (2014), this followership theory offers promise for reinvigorating leadership research in a number of rich new ways: it moves us beyond leader-centric views to recognise the importance of follower roles and following behaviours, it recognises that leadership can flow in all directions; and it distributes responsibility for constructing leadership and its outcomes to all players (leaders and followers) in the leadership process.

3.5 Discussion

Followers contribute about three quarters of organisation's success while leaders contribute just one quarter (Kelley, 1992). In spite of this, assessments of leadership are well developed and advanced in comparison with interpretations of followership (Kelly, 1988). The foregoing findings demonstrate that followership is still an understudied discipline compared to leadership and that there is not yet enough follower-centric work (Baker, 2007; Uhl-Bien and Pillai, 2007). The leader-centric perspective focuses on the persona of the leader: those behaviours of leaders that cause certain reactions among followers and those that are more or less effective. The follower-centric perspective aims to frame the variety of constructs as shaped by the social processes that occur among followers and by significant contextual and situational factors (Uhl-Bien and Pillai, 2007).

In this review, it is noted that followership is more or less still studied according to its relationship with leadership and that the focus in follower-centric works is still on the constructions of leadership; research has yet to advance an understanding of follower-centred perspectives. Rather than considering how followers view their leaders and the leaders' behaviours, the focus on followership should be considers how followers view their own behaviours and roles (Carsten et al., 2010; Uhl-Bien and Pillai, 2007). Drawing on the foregoing review into followership, the key principal findings of the 44 papers and texts reviewed here are that there is a multiplicity of followership definitions but no agreed definition, which might cause confusion. Most followership definitions are affected by leadership; a few are emerging as independent definitions and are starting to define followership as it is. What is clear from the research to date is that both followers and followership are integral to the creation of leadership, and that leadership

processes associated with the concept consist of values and practices associated with both leading and following (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014).

In the field of followership, more than 10 typologies have been found; this is considered abundant compared with the leadership field. In addition, there are no agreed types or styles. The most representative typologies are those of Zaleznik (1965), Kelley (1988; 1992), Chaleff (1995), Kellerman (2008) and Carsten et al. (2010). The most popular typology is Kelley's model (1988; 1992) as it has been used in seven studies.

Moreover, many lists were found that represent followers' traits but no comprehensive complete list exists. The same criticism of leadership trait approaches can be applied to followership typologies (Kean et al., 2011; Mullins, 1999). There is bound to be some subjective judgment in determining who is regarded as a 'good' or successful follower against the list of possible traits which is very long with no agreement on the most salient ones. It is important to study the typologies, behaviours and traits empirically, as long that they can influence work performance, quality of work, job satisfaction, commitment to the organisation and other work related outcomes.

Furthermore, Implicit Followership Theories (IFT) could shape positive and negative followership. IFT acts as a lens that colours leaders' expectations of their followers. Positive IFT leads to high performance and high LMX (Whiteley et al., 2012). Followers can be more effective if their actions fit with leaders' expectations. That could encourage the researcher to dig more into the IFTs and learn how to activate them in a good manner.

In the literature, six reviews of followership have been found which is considered abundant for a very 'young' field. In addition, there are many conceptual studies within the field, but there is a shortage of empirical research. This may be the cause behind the weaknesses and delays witnessed in the development of the field. Furthermore, most of the studies were written for leaders.

From the review above, it has been noticed that there has been an increase in the number of followership studies in recent 10 years (about half of the 44 studies have been conducted in the last 10 years). This evolution or growth in studies constitutes evidence of the emergence of a new subfield about followership.

Followership is recognisable to scholars of leadership as they are familiar with traditional approaches to the study of leadership in the context of manager and subordinate roles (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). The difference in their approach to studying followership is that they "reverse the lens" – that is, they now view followers rather than leaders as causal agents (Shamir, 2007).

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Comparing the leadership and followership fields, some similarities could be seen; as at the beginning of the development of the leadership field, the followership field has also faced and witnessed some similar stages of development. The leadership field started in 1930 by concentrating on the theory of leaders' traits. It moved on to the Ohio and Michigan theories (the behavioural categories of leadership) in the 1930s and 1940s, followed by the styles theories in the 1940s. The followership field also started by addressing followers' typologies (styles), attributes and behaviours at the end of the 1980s, through the 1990s and into the beginning of the twenty-first century. Followership typologies and traits have drawn a sizeable portion of scholars' attention which is witnessed by the publication of 19 papers and texts. Some of the identified traits and types are common between the studies and some are not. Just as not all leaders are the same, followers also vary (Bligh and Kohles, 2012). Despite the huge amount of papers, research and books on leadership, there is still no precise and agreed definition of leadership, nor is there a 'best style' or 'greatest characteristics' of leadership (Mullins, 1999); this same scenario could also be applied to followership. That said, the same question raised by the traits approach in leadership, of whether leaders are born or made, has been raised in the followership field by Brown and Thornborrow (1996).

Subsequently, research into the field of followership is developing and expanding. Other studies have attempted to demonstrate parallels with the leadership field, for example, in the 1950s and 1960s, the leadership field witnessed a significant move towards contingency theories of leadership. On the other hand, one study into followership by Miller et al. (2004) tried to extend Fiedler's contingency model. In the 1970s and 1980s, the trend in leadership was for transformational and transactional leadership. Defee et al. (2009) in turn tried to apply that paradigm to followership. It could also be said that transformational leadership theory is similar to the theory of courageous followership put forward by Chaleff (1995; 2003). Transformational leadership comprising of idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Mullins, 1999), this could match the five behaviours constituting the theory of courageous followership: the courage to assume responsibility, the courage to serve, the courage to challenge, the courage to participate in transformation, and the courage to take moral action.

3.6 Conclusion

It has become obvious that the field of followership can no longer rely solely on leader-centric work or even the existing follower-centric work. Emerging studies of followership frame follower

behaviours and reactions as both drivers and results of leader behaviours (e.g., Collinson, 2006; Carsten et al., 2010). Followership literature is still in its infancy, and more experimental and empirical research, more work focussing on followership, and a much wider view of followership types, followers' behaviour, and influence tactics (how followers influence superiors) is required. Followers behaviours can have an effect on their leaders and their organisations. In line with Shamir's (2007) perspective of followership and the definition of Carsten et al. (2010: 543), "followership adopts the follower as the primary focus and explores how followership behaviours are related to organizational outcomes of interest". There is a need to validate followership measures and the relationship between followership and organisational outcomes. A much deeper understanding of follower characteristics and identities is required to bridge the gap and change negative stereotyping about followers. By expanding the study of followers to incorporate a consideration of how their behaviours influence, and are influenced by leaders, it will eventually become evident that until now follower input has been underestimated (Oc and Bashshur, 2013). An expansion of the theoretical understanding of followership necessarily entails the comprehension of power sharing, power distribution, and informal influence (Hollander and Offermann, 1990). Furthermore, a better understanding of followership will contribute to the improvement of organisational performance and all organizational and work related outcomes. Right now, followership should be in the middle of the map while everything else ought to sit on the periphery (Kelley, 2008). In response to the calls of Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) and Oc and Bashshur (2013) about studying followers' behaviour to understand followership, and in line with Crossman and Crossman's (2011) definition of followership (stated earlier in this chapter), the next chapter reviews an aspect of followers' behaviours which is the upward influence tactics literature.

Chapter 4: UPWARD INFLUENCE TACTICS

4.1 Introduction

Being able to influence one's boss, peers, subordinates or top management is often quoted as one of the key reasons behind an individual's success or failure (Cohen and Braford, 2005; Castro et al., 2003). Much managerial success and effectiveness hinges on the ability to influence others (Yukl and Falbe, 1990; Thacker and Wayne, 1995; Krishnan, 2004; Yukl et al., 2005). In order to accomplish work effectively through interpersonal networks, followers and leaders must succeed in influencing the behaviours of others, including their superiors (Akhtar and Mahmood, 2009). The type of behaviour one person uses to influence the attitude or behaviour of another person is called 'influence tactics' (Yukl et al., 2005; 2008). Most people do not exert influence over others for the sheer joy of changing their behaviour; they do so with a specific reason in mind (Krishnan, 2004). Employees use influence tactics to obtain their desired goals regardless of whether these goals are organisational or personal. Personal goals may include securing benefits such as better work assignments or career advancement (Schmidt and Kipnis, 1984; Ansari and Kapoor, 1987; Akhtar and Mahmood, 2009; Yukl and Tracy, 1992). Organisational goals include encouraging others to perform effectively, promoting new ideas or introducing new work procedures (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Yukl and Tracy, 1992).

Limited number of theories available to help understand the influence processes in organisations (Castro et al., 2003; Yukl et al., 2005). There are a limited number of studies which have actually examined influence tactics (Terpstra and Ralston, 2002; Farmer et al., 1997; Kipnis et al., 1980). The principal concern of the studies available has been downward influence (Porter et al., 1981) where the focus is on how to be a more commanding leader, how to give clear directions and how to ensure compliance. However, currently there is a greater requirement to manage laterally and upwards and less need to simply send instructions downwards (Cohen and Braford, 2005). There is a need for more information on how people at work influence their superiors, referred to as 'upward influence' (Schilit and Locke, 1982; Ansari and Kapoor, 1987; Terpstra and Ralston, 2002). Upward influence is the behaviour used to gain compliance or obtain a desired goal from those at higher levels in the formal organizational structure (Kipnis et al., 1980; Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Farmer et al, 1997).

In recent decades, organisations have evolved towards more horizontal designs (Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert, 2013) downsizing, right-sizing and flattening their structures or making other adjustments in response to economic pressures. This trend towards a more horizontal design has

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led to a decline in the number of hierarchical levels, resulting in less hierarchical control and more horizontal relationships (Pfeffer, 1993). Consequently, there has been an increase in the formal and informal power of lower-level members when it comes to influencing decisions that were previously the exclusive right of higher-level management (Pfeffer, 1997; Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert, 2013). Involvement in decision-making involves more upward requests for information, for resources, and for more authority (Farmer, Maslyn, Fedor, and Goodman, 1997; Botero et al., 2012; Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert, 2013). In addition, the information age helps the followers more readily and freely access information without referring back to their superiors (Morasso and Mierzwa, 2012). Thus, lower-level employees now have more reason and opportunities to influence their supervisors (Maslyn et al., 1996; Farmer et al., 1997; Castro et al., 2003). The ability to influence people over whom a leader has little or no formal authority is particularly important in organisations that have moved away from hierarchical forms of structure to more empowered forms (Yukl et al., 2005).

When one considers the many opportunities, rewards and threats present in organisational settings (Ferris et al., 1990) it seems reasonable to expect that people will find it advantageous to exert some upward influence and manage the impressions that others form of them. The study of influence tactics is an important field because the methods that employees use to achieve things in their organisation have important consequences for the organisation. This includes the way in which people relate to one another, career advancement, organisational effectiveness and the quality of work relationships (Ralston et al., 1995; Ringer and Boss, 2000; Cable and Judge, 2003; Ansari et al., 2007). Developing an understanding of how leaders and subordinates influence one another is the key to effective leadership (Yates, 1985; Deluga and Perry, 1991). An understanding of influence processes will also facilitate an understanding of the many organisational facets including decision making, communication, motivation and organisational development (Porter et al., 1981). Thus, an organisation in which subordinates use pressure and persistence to get things done may attract a very different type of workforce than one in which subordinates gain support through rational persuasion and fact-based logic (Cable and Judge, 2003). Organisations that effectively promote and manage upward influence through employee empowerment and involvement activities may enjoy greater organisational effectiveness as well as greater employee satisfaction (Schilit and Locke, 1982; Ralston et al., 1995; Egri et al., 2000; Akhtar and Mahmood, 2009). Upward influence therefore allows involvement in decision making at work (Olufowote et al., 2005) specifically because the concept of upward influence sits comfortably with the idea of the empowerment of subordinates (Maslyn et al., 1996).

Since Porter et al.'s (1981) earlier observation that upward influence receives less conceptual and empirical attention than that received by downward (e.g., leadership) or lateral influence (e.g.,

group dynamics), the interest in upward influence has increased (Schermerhorn Jr. and Bond, 1991). Part of the reason for this increased interest is that it mirrors shifts in power distribution in many organisations. Recent work in the area of followership has begun shifting and emphasising the possibility that followers actively have an influence over leaders (Oc and Bashshur, 2013). This is of major significance since significant relationships have been found between upward influence tactics and several important organisational outcomes, such as job performance ratings (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Yukl and Tracy, 1992), assessment of promotability (Thacker and Wayne, 1995), salary increase (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988), Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) (Botero, 2012) and trust (Su, 2010).

The aim of this chapter is to present a comprehensive review of the literature in this area. Thus the objectives of this chapter are:

1. To synthesise findings from a review of the empirical literature on upward influence tactics, since there is only one review of upward influence tactics studies within the literature (i.e. Terpstra and Ralston, 2002).
2. To present an integrated framework of follower upward influence that is derived from the empirical literature. Influence tactics literature has tended to be fragmented and there is a need to bring together the insights from the empirical literature in order to develop a more coherent, integrated framework to underpin future research in the field.

Identification of studies;

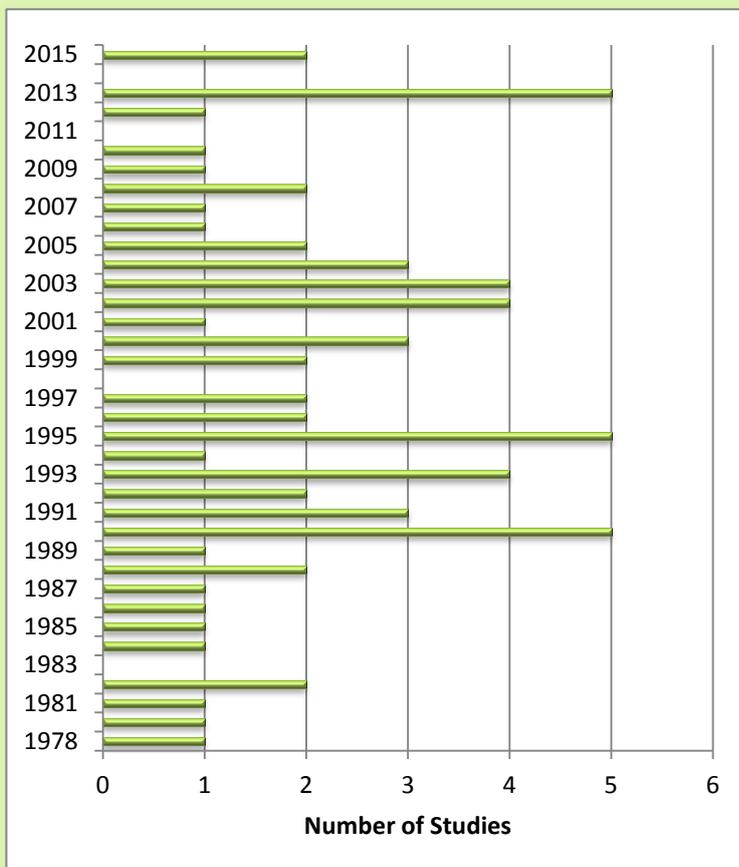
A search of the following databases - Emerald, Psych INFO, SAGE, JSTOR, WILEY, Science Direct, and SpringerLink - was conducted to locate empirical studies on influence tactics. The keywords used in the search were influence tactics, upward influence tactics, influence strategies and subordinates' influence. As influence studies were not carried out until the late 1970s (Mowday, 1978; Kipnis et al., 1980), Kipnis et al. (1980) and Mowday (1978) have been used as a starting point to review the published empirical studies to date. Over 1000 references were identified in the initial search. Almost 150 abstracts were read in order to ascertain relevant empirical studies which matched the primary criteria for inclusion in this review, which were as follows; empirical studies, studies specifically addressing upward influence tactics in management, published in peer reviewed journals (except the researcher's Master's thesis), and written in English.

Studies which were excluded were those which examined areas such as ingratiation unless they focus on follower ingratiation in leadership relationships. Impression management studies were

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also excluded unless they also addressed upward influence tactics (five studies found). Studies were excluded if they concentrated only on downward or lateral tactics. Moreover, this research tries to focus on studies that examined multiple influence tactics. Other references were obtained via a manual search for references listed in published studies. Google Scholar was also used to identify other research in the field. As a result, 70 papers were included in the present review as fulfilling the criteria; 51 papers studied upward influence, 11 papers examined all three directions of influence (upward, downward and lateral), three studies addressed upward and downward influences together, three studies re-examined and validated a previously used scale, and one review concerned upward influence tactics, and other review also added but it concerns the three directions of influence tactics (upward, downward and lateral). The incidence of upward influence studies started at a rate of one study per year during the early and mid-80s, the number of studies intensifying towards the late 80s, peaking in the 90s and beginning of the 21st century; the highest rate was 5 studies in 1990, 1995, and 2013 (See Graph-1). 23 studies have been conducted after 2002 (the date of the last review in the field)

Graph- 1 Upward influence studies rate



For organisation purposes, this review is classified as:

- .1. Upward influence
- .2. Influence tactics typologies and measures
- .3. Factors affecting upward influence process
- .4. Consequences of upward influence tactics
- .5. Key findings and discussion
- .6. Competing theoretical perspectives
- .7. Critique of upward influence tactics research and hypotheses

4.2 Upward influence

To achieve organisational goals, and to understand, influence and deal with others, power is used (Yulk, 2006). Power is defined by Pfeffer (1992, p. 45) as “the potential ability to influence behaviour, to change the course of events, to overcome resistance, and to get people to do things that they would not otherwise do”. Power and influence do not only occur in situations where the power holders possess a higher status or rank; there are also upward and lateral influence attempts (Elias, 2008).

The practice of or the desire for power by leaders is common and accepted in the workplaces; followers also desire to fulfil their need for power, albeit in different ways (Morasso and Mierzwa, 2012). The importance of understanding the power processes in workplaces is well documented in the literature, where the five-fold typology developed by French and Raven (1959) is the most popular (Elias, 2008). It consists of Legitimate power, Reward power, Coercive power, Expert Power, and Referent power. Plus information power which added later. These typologies are clustered into two categories; personal power and position power. By virtue of their hierarchical position, leaders in organisations have stronger position power than followers (Yukl and Falbe, 1991). This position power gives leaders access to tangible (e.g., rewards) and intangible (e.g., information) resources and allows them to exercise significant influence over their followers (Oc and Bashshur, 2013). However, followers, despite their weaker bases of power (Tjosvold, 1986; Yukl and Falbe, 1990), are not without their own influence (Oc and Bashshur, 2013). Two of these power typologies, expert power and referent power, can be possessed by followers (Yulk, 2006).

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The power of followers could be derived from their knowledge, expertise, whether they are admired or liked by the leaders, from their networks, and from their needs.

Over the past decade, significant developments have occurred in thinking about the participation of followers in the exercise of power in organisations (Hollander and Offermann, 1990) and the role of followers in influencing their leaders. This is simply because follower expectations and perceptions affect the process of leadership (Hollander and Offermann, 1990). The study of upward influence tactics was framed as part of organisational politics with a focus of examining how power was exercised (Terpstra and Ralston, 2002). Kipnis et al.'s (1980) work on influence tactics is guided by anecdotal evidence or armchair speculations that have been organised into rational classifications of power tactics (e.g. six bases of power of French and Raven, 1959) (Elias, 2008). Through these they began to question whether the six bases of power were sufficient to encompass all influence attempts (Elias, 2008). One problem with these classifications of power tactics, as Raven (1974) has pointed out, is that they overlap with each other. A further problem with the existing classifications of power tactics is that when influence acts are actually studied, it is found that people do not exercise influence in the ways predicted by rational classification schemes (Kipnis et al., 1980; Elias, 2008). That said, Kipnis et al. (1980) identified eight means of influence in the workplace (rational persuasion, ingratiation, exchange of benefits, upward appeal, coalition, assertiveness, blocking, and sanctions) comprising the most common typology in the field.

In general, other forms of influence have been found in the literature; these include Ingratiation theory (Jones, 1964), Impression management (Goffman, 1959), and Speaking up in the workplace which has been titled 'employee voice', or 'whistle-blowing'. Talking about these forms, Ingratiation theory, developed by Jones in 1964, is: "...a set of interpersonal influence tactics that function to enhance one's interpersonal attractiveness and ultimately gain favour with another individual" (Westphal and Stern, 2007; p. 270). Initially, it was treated as a one-dimensional construct (Higgins et al., 2003). However, ingratiation has come to be viewed as a multidimensional construct consisting of a variety of tactics: flattery or other enhancement, rendering favours, opinion conformity and self-presentation (Jones, 1964; Wortman and Linsenmier, 1977; Pandey and Bohra, 1984; Liden and Mitchell, 1989). Jones and Pittman (1982) categorised self-presentation tactics and were the first to distinguish the tactic of self-presentation - attempting to create an appearance of competence or that you are capable of completing a task - as separate from ingratiation (Higgins et al., 2003). In 1986, Godfrey and colleagues provided an empirical evidence to support their argument about differentiating between presenters' attempts to appear likable or competent.

Some researchers consider ingratiation tactics as similar to impression management given that impression management often focuses on ingratiation (Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Ferris and Judge, 1991). Social psychologists define impression management as the process through which people try to control the impressions other people form of them (Goffman, 1959). It is a behaviour initiated by a source to establish a particular identity or to "shape others' attributions of the actor's dispositions" (Jones and Pfttman, 1982, p. 233). When one appear in the presence of others, it is usually advisable and in one's best interests, to convey a favourable impression. Individuals thus try to influence and possibly shape the audience's perceptions through positive and constructive self-presentation (Goffman, 1959).

Moving to employee voice, Pyman et al. (2006: 543) define employee voice as "how employees raise concerns, express and advance their interests, solve problems, and contribute to and participate in workplace decision making". It is concerned more with employees having a say in decisions.

A number of researchers have combined these three strands of literature (i.e. Rao et al., 1995 integrated the impression management and upward influence tactics in one study). Although there is some overlap, researcher believes that upward influence tactics are more than just ingratiation or impression management or employee voice. Upward influence tactics covers these three areas plus other tactics that could be considered the opposite of ingratiation or impression management and its more than just having a say in decision making.

4.3 Influence tactics typologies and measures

The measurement of influence tactics began 36 years ago, when Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson (1980) developed the first comprehensive list of influence tactics. Since then, various tactics have been identified in parallel with the development of a range of measurements by pioneers in this field. Studies have used a variety of influence tactic types (see Table 2), these typologies having a degree of overlap in places. Four scales are found in the field: the Profile of Organisational Influence Strategies (POIS), the Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ), the Strategies of Upward Influence (SUI), and a separate measure developed for upward impression management. It must be noted that some of the research using these scales studied all three directions of influence together (downward, lateral and upward), while others concentrated only on upward influence. Four major measuring techniques have been used: self-report, reports on others' behaviour by target or peers, and a mix of both (see Table 3). Influence behaviours have been studied using a variety of research methods including survey questionnaires, scenarios, experimental simulations

and analysis of influence incidents obtained through interviews or open-ended questionnaires (Tepper et al., 1993; Fu and Yukl, 2000).

4.3.1 Profile of Organisational Influence Strategies (POIS)

The earliest taxonomy of influence tactics was developed by Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson (1980) by analysing critical incidents from descriptions of successful and unsuccessful influence attempts. The researchers conducted two studies, first by inductively deriving a taxonomy of interpersonal influence processes and using this to then develop measures for use in future investigations. They started by asking leaders to write essays about 'how I get my way'. Through content analysis, 370 influence tactics were recognised and classified into 14 categories. Next, they developed 58 survey questionnaire items from the 370 tactics and administered these to 754 employed graduate students. They ask how frequently in the last six months they had used any of these tactics to influence their managers, co-workers or subordinates. Factor analyses resulted in the identification of eight dimensions of influence: (1) assertiveness - e.g., expressing anger verbally, reminding repeatedly, demanding and bugging, (2) ingratiation - e.g., showing a need for help, acting very humbly/friendly, praising and making others feel good/important, (3) sanctions - e.g., threatening loss of promotion or unsatisfactory performance evaluation or giving no salary increase, (4) rationality - e.g., writing a detailed plan as justification or using logic/reasons/full information to convince others, (5) exchange of benefit - e.g., offering an exchange/help, reminders of past favours, (6) upward appeal - e.g., obtaining the formal/informal support of superiors, (7) blocking - e.g., threatening to notify an outside agency/ stop working or ignoring them, and (8) coalition - e.g., obtaining the support of co-workers and/or subordinates. This then formed the basis of a self-report questionnaire, the Profile of Organizational Influence Strategies (POIS). This study by Kipnis and colleagues was consequently considered a landmark in influence research and used as the foundation for much of the ensuing research into influence tactics.

Twelve studies used Kipnis et al. (1980) as a foundation collecting self-report data using an agent questionnaire (See Table 3). Five studies used Kipnis et al.'s scale to study upward influence in organisations from the perspective of the agent (follower) and the target (leader) (See table 3).

In 1982, Kipnis and Schmidt modified the original Kipnis et al. (1980) scales in order to develop a commercial version of POIS. Six upward influence tactics were identified; these were reasoning/rational persuasion, bargaining/exchange, assertiveness, higher authority, coalition and friendliness/ingratiation. Some tactics' names were changed and two tactics were later omitted - sanctions and blocking - due to infrequent use and conceptual problems (Schmidt and Kipnis,

1984; 1988; Yukl and Falbe, 1990). Kipnis and Schmidt and other researchers conducted several studies using the POIS form M for corporate use as self-report (See Table 3) and one study used it from the perspective of agent and target (see Table 3).

Sometime after affecting these changes, a major study was conducted by Schriesheim and Hinkin (1990) to critique, examine and refine Kipnis et al.'s (1980) subordinate influence subscales. Schriesheim and Hinkin claimed that although Kipnis et al.'s study which combined three subsamples (boss, co-workers and subordinates) yielded a good respondent-to-item ratio, this process generated interpretation problems. In particular, they claimed that the factor structure may not be replicable and that the scale may have contained some items that do not have strong validity. Schriesheim and Hinkin (1990) therefore conducted four studies to explore the quality of Kipnis et al.'s scales. The first study focusing on content validity, the second and third examining the factor structure of the scale, and the fourth examining a revised set of scale, designed to improve on those of Kipnis et al.. In all four studies, the measure under investigation consisted of the six Kipnis et al. (1980) subscales that assessed the tactics used by subordinates to influence superiors, including ingratiation, exchange of benefit, rationality, assertiveness/pressure, upward appeal and coalition.

Study 1 revealed that six of the 27 items did not have strong validity. In studies 2 and 3, several other scale items were shown to possess poor or marginal perceptual (factor-analytic) distinctiveness. In response to these results, Schriesheim and Hinkin (1990) produced a refined 18-item instrument to measure upward influence with enhanced content, validity and perceptual distinctiveness and with adequate scale reliability. Six tactics emerged: ingratiation, exchange of benefit, rationality, assertiveness/pressure, upward appeal, and coalition, while blocking and sanctions tactics were dropped (See Appendices 9-10).

Schriesheim and Hinkin's (1990) refined scale was focusing only on upward influence tactics. Thirteen studies used Schriesheim and Hinkin's (1990) scale (See Table 3). Schriesheim and Hinkin's (1990) refined POIS was also tested by Hochwarter et al. (2000) who assessed the relationship between Schriesheim and Hinkin's measure with several theoretically related constructs. Including the need for power, Machiavellianism, locus of control, self-monitoring, collective efficacy, job-induced tension, perceived organisational support, and perceptions of organisational policies. Results revealed modest support for Schriesheim and Hinkin's (1990) scale. They claimed that for some samples in Schriesheim and Hinkin's (1990) study, the reliability was low and they pointed out that the scale for each factor presented only a minimum number of items – three. There are major limitations with Hochwarter et al.'s (2000) study, for example using students, which means the limited range of variables in the study may not be representative of

the nomological network of relationships with upward influence. Another problem is that they used a single survey to measure all variables. In general, Schriesheim and Hinkin's (1990) POIS scale has been used in several studies as mentioned previously, providing support for its validity and reliability

4.3.2 Influence Behaviour Questionnaire (IBQ)

The Influence Behaviour Questionnaire IBQ was developed by Yukl and his associates as a target questionnaire where respondents were asked to rate what agents use, in terms of influence tactics, to influence their target. It includes scales to measure the six POIS tactics (ingratiation, exchange, rational persuasion, pressure, upward appeal and coalition) in addition to consultation, inspirational appeals, personal appeals and legitimating. Yukl and Falbe (1990) conducted two studies to determine firstly whether the findings of Kipnis et al.'s (1980) study could be replicated using a different methodology. Secondly to extend the research to include additional types of influence behaviour and objectives. They conceptualised six of Kipnis et al.'s (1980) dimensions and added two new tactics: inspirational appeal and consultation tactics. They measured the frequency of influence tactics and objectives as reported by agents and by targets. Yukl and Tracey (1992) also used the same version of the IBQ in their research which was completed only by targets. The researchers here excluded upward appeal tactics from their list and added personal appeal and legitimating tactics. To reiterate, four new tactics - inspirational appeal, consultation tactics, personal appeal and legitimating tactics - were included in the IBQ, inspired by the literature on leadership and power. The 1992 version of the IBQ (see Appendix 11) was used in three more studies, where participants reported their own experiences as targets and as agents, in four studies as an agent version, and in two studies as target (See Table 3).

Yukl and Seifert (2002) revised and extended the IBQ scale by including two more tactics: collaboration and apprising (see Appendix 12). This version was called IBQ-R and consisted of 11 influence tactics and four items for each scale (Yukl et al., 2008). Yukl et al. (2005) assessed the construct validity of two new tactics - collaboration and apprising - factor analysis provided strong evidence that these factors were distinct from the nine other influence tactics.

Yukl et al. (2008) later conducted four studies to evaluate the extended version of the IBQ-R and also created IBQ-G, a version which is useful for longitudinal studies. IBQ-G measures an agent's use of 11 tactics (see Appendix 13). Yukl et al. (2008) argued that the validity of this version (IBQ-G target version) does not generalise to agent versions of the IBQ. IBQ's agent versions is a parallel version but is used primarily for feedback interventions to help leaders compare the way

in which they perceive their own influence behaviour with the way it is perceived by others. Yukl et al. (2008) warned researchers away from any changes in wording through translation because of the sensitivity of the IBQ items, claiming that the meaning may not be equivalent when the items are translated. In most of their research, Yukl and his associates dealt with all three directions of influence: upward, downward and lateral.

4.3.3 Strategies of Upward Influence (SUI)

Strategies of Upward Influence (SUI) was developed as a cross-cultural measure of upward influence tactics by Ralston et al. (1993) to address the limitations of using the POIS or IBQ measures in other cultures. In order to form the tactic items in this scale, input was generated from individuals across cultures vis a vis Hong Kong Chinese, German, French and American (the POIS and IBQ both being from the US). Their results comprised a set of influence typologies that were significantly different from the Kipnis et al. (1980) taxonomy. The final tactics comprised good soldier, image management, personal networking, information control and strong-arm coercion, which were identified for the first time as influence tactics. Three dimensions were then added; organisationally sanctioned behaviour, destructive legal behaviour and destructive illegal behaviour. These three dimensions adapted by Ralston et al. (1993) from power classifications by power researchers (such as French and Raven, 1959; Mechanic, 1962; Raven, 1974) (see Appendix 14). Egri, Ralston, Murray and Nicholson (2000) developed the SUI explaining the perceptions of relative acceptability of the following four types of upward influence tactics (See Appendix 15). Organisationally sanctioned behaviour describes behaviours that tend to be directly beneficial to the organisation such as self-enhancement and ingratiation tactics, volunteering, helping subordinates develop their skills, developing mentor relationships, maintaining good working relationships with rational persuasion, showing expertise and the exchange of benefits. Non-destructive/legal behaviours, the 'me first' approach, sees self-interest as above the interests of others or the organisation, but are still behaviours that tend not to be harmful to the organisation. These include impression management tactics that promote one's visibility and reputation in the organisation, ingratiation, upward appeal, personalised help, and showing dependency and diplomacy. Destructive/legal behaviours, the 'get-out-of-my-way-or-get-trampled' approach are behaviours which are legal but they often tend to hurt others or the organisation. These tactics include information control, blocking and manipulative tactics such as obtaining and communicating information to discredit others, withholding information that would benefit others, and putting false information on a job resume. Destructive/illegal behaviours are illegal

and harmful to others and include coercive tactics such as blackmail, stealing valuable corporate documents and harassment. The SUI scale was used in just seven studies (See Table 3).

4.3.4 Impression Management Tactics

Ferris and colleagues developed several models to understand subordinates' impression management tactics. The first study (Ferris et al., 1989) proposed a model of impression management in organisations. Wayne and Ferris (1990) then developed a scale consisting of (1) Job-focused Tactics where individuals attempt to manipulate information to make a positive impression on the supervisor; (2) Supervisor-focused Tactics where individuals praise the supervisor and do personal favors for him/her (ingratiation) and (3) Self-focused Tactics characterised by behaviours intended to create the impression that the subordinate is a nice, polite person. Later, Ferris et al. (1990; 1994) removed self-focused tactics because it demonstrated poor reliability. The impression management scale was used as the agent self-scale in one study, as target report others in three studies, and as a combination of both target and agent in one study (See Table 3).

In addition to the measures above, some researchers have grouped influence tactics into three mega-categories calling these influence strategies. They include hard tactics - for example assertiveness, upward appeal and coalition; soft tactics - for example, ingratiation and exchange (Farmer et al., 1997), or only ingratiation tactic (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988); and rational strategy - for example, rationality, bargaining and some forms of exchange (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1985; 1988) or only rationality tactic (Farmer et al., 1997). These classifications have been adopted by other researchers (for example, Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Ralston et al., 2002 and Botero et al., 2012). Other researchers have clustered managers (when they influence their superior) into four influence types: shotgun which includes those who always use all six tactics, have higher scores in assertiveness, appeal to higher authority, and coalition; tacticians who use rational persuasion more than other tactics; ingratiators who use more friendliness or ingratiation in comparison to other tactics; and bystanders who score low in the usage of all six tactics (Kipnis, 1984; Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988). Farmer and Maslyn (1999) found support for the existence of three of the four styles identified by Kipnis and Schmidt; tactician, shotgun and bystander. Other researchers - for example Fu et al. (2004) - grouped the tactics into three broadly defined meta-categories: persuasive making use of rational persuasion, inspirational appeal and consultation; assertive using persistence, pressure and upward appeal; and relationship-based including those who give gifts, have informal engagement, personal appeal, socialise and exchange.

Table 2 Summary of Influence Tactics

Author	Mowday	Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson	Porter et al.	Schillit and Locke	Kipnis and Schmidt	Schriesheim and Hinkin	Yukl and Falbe	Wayne and Ferris	Krone	Yukl and Tracy	Ralston and Gustafson in Ralston et al.	Yukl & Seifert in Yukl et al. 2008
Year	1978	1980	1981	1982	1982	1990	1990	1990	1991	1992	1993	2002
Name of study	The exercise of upward influence in organisations	Intra-organisational influence tactics: Explorations of getting one's way.	The politics of upward influence in organisations	A study of upward influence in organisations	Profile of organisational influence strategies	Influence tactics used by subordinates: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis and Refinement of the Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson subscales	Influence tactics and objectives in upward, downward, and lateral influence attempts	Influence tactics, affect, and exchange quality in supervisor-subordinate interactions: a laboratory experiment and field study	Effects of leader-member exchange on subordinates' upward influence attempts.	Consequences of influence tactics used with subordinates, peers and the boss	Strategies of upward influence: A cross-national comparison of Hong Kong and American managers	Preliminary validation of an extended version of the Influence Behaviour Questionnaire
Tactics	Threats Legitimate authority Persuasive arguments Rewards manipulation	Assertiveness Ingratiation Rationality Sanctions Exchange of benefits Upward appeal Blocking Coalition	sanctions (positive and negative) informational (persuasion, manipulative persuasion, manipulation)	Assertiveness Rationality Sanctions Exchange of benefits Upward appeal Coalition manipulation adherence to rules	Assertiveness Ingratiation Rationality Exchange of benefits Upward appeal Coalition	Ingratiation Exchange of benefits Rationality Assertiveness Upward appeal Coalition	Pressure Upward appeal Exchange Coalition Ingratiating Rational persuasion Inspirational appeal Consultation	Job-focused tactics Supervisor-focused tactics Self-focused tactics	open persuasion strategic persuasion manipulation	Rational Persuasion Inspirational appeal Consultation Ingratiation Exchange Coalition Pressure Personal appeal Legitimizing	Ingratiation Rational Good soldier Image management Personal networking Information control Strong-arm coercion Organisationally sanctioned behaviour Destructive legal behaviour Destructive illegal behaviour	Rational persuasion Inspirational appeal Consultation Ingratiation Exchange Coalition Pressure Personal appeal Legitimizing Collaboration apprising

Table 3 Summary of methodologies and measures employed in the studies

	Measures						
	POIS			IBQ	SUI	Impression Management	
	Kipnis et al. 1980	Kipnis & Schmidt, 1982	Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990				
Agent Self-report	Kipnis et al. 1980 A Kipnis & Schmidt,1982 U Ansari & Kapoor, 1987 U Dreyer et al. 1989 U Jr & Bond, 1991 (U+D) Hinkin & Schrisheim, 1990 U Bhatnagar, 1993 (U+D) Akthar & Mahmood, 2009 U Vigoda & Cohen, 2002 A (some items from IBQ) Ansari et al., 2007 U (with other instruments) Yagil, 2006 U Capezio et al.,2015 U	Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984 U Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985 A Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988 U Wayne et al. 1997 U Krishnan, 2004 U Rao et al., 1995 U Deluga and Perry,1991 U Deluga, 1988 U	Farmer et al. 1997 U Botero et al., 2012 U Castro et al., 2003 U Alshenaifi, 2007 U Su, 2010 U Shim and Lee, 2001 U Olufowote et al.,2005 U Farmer & Maslyn,1999 U O'Neil, 2004 U Ringer and Boss, 2000 U Epitorpaki & Martin 2013 U Zhang, 2013 U	Cable & Judg, 2003 U Fu & Yukl, 2000 A (scenarios + some items similar to POIS) Yukl et al, 2003 (scenarios) U Fu et al., 2004 A	Trong Tuan 2013a U Trong Tuan 2013b U	Wayne & Ferris, 1990 U	
Target report others			Geertshuis et al., 2015 U	Yukl & Tracy, 1992 A Falbe and Yukl, 1992 A (critical incidents)		Ferris et al., 1990 U Dulebohn & Ferris, 1999 U Ferris et al., 1994 U	
Combination of Agent Self-report and Target report others	Schilit & Locke, 1982 U Erez, Rim & Keider,1986 (U+D) Yukl & Falbe, 1990 A Tepper et al, 1993 U (with other instruments) Dockery and Steiner, 1990 U	Thacker & Wayne 1995 U		{ Yukl et al, 1993 A Yukl et al, 1995 A Yukl et al, 1996 A (three used critical incidents)		Wayne & Liden, 1995 U	
Peer report					Ralston et al, 1993 U Ralston et al, 1995 U Egri et al, 2000 U Ralston et al, 2002 U Ralston et al, 2005 U		

Other researchers (i.e. Mowday, 1978; Porter et al., 1981; Krone, 1991) had other typologies of influence tactics (See Table 2). Porter et al. (1981) classified tactics as sanctions (both positive and negative), and informational including persuasion, manipulation and manipulative persuasion. Mowday (1978) asked participants to rate the likelihood of using five different methods of influence when attempting to influence a decision: (1) threat (e.g., to go to the school board), (2) appeals to legitimate authority (e.g., school board policies), (3) persuasive arguments, (4) rewards or exchange of favours, and (5) providing information to the individual in such a way that they are not aware they are trying to influence them (manipulation). Krone (1991) adopted an approach whereby methods of influence that had been previously identified were clustered: 1) open persuasion: the subordinate listens with empathy and provides a reasoned and fact-based argument for a particular course of action; 2) strategic persuasion: subordinates only partially take into account other actors and conditions while articulating their chosen outcome using manipulation of information techniques, managing their self-presentation and ingratiating themselves, and 3) manipulation through covert exercising of upward influence tactics. In the final case, the subordinate will tend to enhance his or her self-image through highlighting the shortcomings of colleagues, or by feigning empathetic listening while interacting with superiors.

4.4 Factors affecting the upward influence process

Porter et al. (1981) suggested five factors that impact upward influence; agent and target characteristics, agent-target relationship, situational characteristics (i.e. budget allocation, ambiguity, and resource scarcity) and agent belief systems (beliefs about action-outcome relationship, manifest needs-nPow and nAch-, and locus of control). Rao et al. (1995) identified three groups of factors: individual factors (the need for power, the goals of the influencer and expertise); situational factors (i.e. management style and information availability) and the subordinates' audience. Ferris et al. (1989; 1990) developed models which included antecedents, mediating variables and consequences of impression management. Their models consisted of demographic characteristics similarities, supervisor's affect toward subordinates, self-monitoring, formalisation and spatial distance. Ferris and Judge (1991) suggested several environmental antecedents of influence behaviour: ambiguity and formalisation, spatial distance, accountability and instrumentality while also addressing the role of individual differences in influence behaviour including actor and target characteristics, self-monitoring, self-attention, social anxiety, Machiavellianism and locus of control. Farmer et al. (1997) extracted several sets of variables which seemed to be related to particular types of influence: individual differences

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(Machiavellianism, locus of control, self-monitoring and subordinate tenure), relational influences involving perceptions of target power, the quality of the relationship between agent and target, and demographic factors. The sections below address all the factors that have been found in the empirical literature; the antecedents, mediators and moderators.

4.4.1 Antecedents of upward influence tactics

4.4.1.1 Influence tactics objectives/ goals of influence

The goals of influence are categorised into organisational goals and individual goals (Kipnis et al., 1980; Ansari and Kapoor, 1987). Individual goals include seeking assistance in one's job, favourable performance appraisal and personal benefit. Organisational goals include selling new ideas, getting more responsibility, assigning work to managers and convincing managers to work more effectively (Akhtar and Mahmood, 2009). Individuals vary in their strategy use in relation to their own objectives. They use soft words, ingratiation and impression management to secure personal benefits such as better work schedules from their bosses. Moreover, they use a combination of rational and non-rational tactics such as blocking, assertiveness, upward appeal and rational argument in order to pursue organisational goals (Kipnis et al., 1980; Kipnis and Schmidt, 1983; Ansari and Kapoor, 1987).

Kipnis et al. (1980) identified five objectives or reasons for using influence tactics. These were: (1) to assign work - for example, a new work assignment by the agent to the target person, a new responsibility; (2) to change behaviour encompassing an agent's efforts to get a target person to carry out a task faster or better, to change the action plan, work different days or hours or to get a target to change his or her work behaviour or work plan on a task already in progress; (3) to get assistance - for example, to ask for help to complete an assignment, to provide the information needed, to solve problems or to do their work; (4) to get support this involving getting the person to formally approve a proposal, plan, new product, request for resource, loan, or to help influence other people to support a proposed change and (5) to get personal benefits - for example, a pay increase, better work schedules or assignments, a promotion, or to get a person to do a personal favour not directly related to work. Three other studies addressed these five objectives; those of Schmidt and Kipnis (1984), Ereze et al. (1986) and Yukl et al. (1995).

Kipnis et al. (1980) found that respondents who sought personal assistance from their target used ingratiation tactics, while respondents who assigned work to targets used assertiveness. Respondents who tried to improve target performance used assertiveness and rationality

whereas respondents who tried to convince a target person to accept new ideas used rationality. Trying to get someone to change the way in which the work is done, or to accept an innovation, occurred more often in upward influence attempts than in lateral ones. Schmidt and Kipnis (1984) went on to classify Kipnis et al.'s (1980) five goals as follow; personal agent reasons, including gaining personal benefits such as more pay; obtaining a good performance evaluation; convincing bosses to think well of them and obtaining support on the job; and organisational objectives included gaining approval for new ideas or for a change or assigning work to a supervisor, telling them what to do, or convincing the supervisor to do their work better. Schmidt and Kipnis's (1984) findings indicated that leaders who exercised upward influence to achieve organisational goals evaluated their own work favourably, directed non-routinized work units and had power in their organisations.

Further examination of leaders by Erez et al. (1986) revealed that they tended to use strong tactics such as sanctions and blocking and that the reasons for this were to 'assign work' and 'improve performance'. 'Assistance on own job' was related to assertiveness from the perspective of the leader as agent and to rationality and exchange from the perspective of subordinates as targets. In order to obtain personal benefits, strong tactics such as sanctions and blocking were used on leaders, while weak tactics like exchange and manipulation were applied with co-workers.

Yukl and Falbe (1990) added a further three objectives to Kipnis et al. (1980): to request resources, request approval/sign off, and request information. Their results revealed consistency between the target and agent with regard to some influence objectives like requests for resources. The other influence objectives yielded less consistent results for agents and targets.

The pattern of shifts in tactic use was also revealed in the work of Yukl et al. (1995) who found that influence attempts with subordinates involved assigning tasks or changing behaviour, while with superiors they involved requests for approval, recourse, political support or personal benefits. A different pattern of influence tactics was used for each type of influence attempt with peers. For example, with subordinates, pressure was used to change behaviour or assign work, whereas with superiors it was used to obtain personal benefits. Relational persuasion and coalition tactics were mostly used to get support from peers and superiors for major changes in policies or programmes. Rao et al. (1995) found subordinates used ingratiation, bargaining, and assertiveness in seeking favourable assessment, but in pursuing their goals they use ingratiation. Olufowote et al.'s (2005) study revealed that employees manage self-serving attributions by using rationality when pursuing change for personal and/or organisational benefit and by using coalitions when pursuing just organisational benefits.

Goal directing influence has been found to be related to whichever tactics have been adopted, but this is not consistent across studies (Yukl et al., 1996; Aktar and Mahmood, 2009).

4.4.1.2 Other antecedents

Some studies mentioned other factors that may affect the upward influence process; for example, work setting as seen in the work of Schilit and Locke (1982) who suggest that structural differences between small or private organisations compared to larger or public ones have a significant impact on upward influence. Workers in small organisations used informal methods of upward influence, attributing success and failure to factors such as competence and interpersonal relationships, achieving increases in salary and productivity more so than workers in public or large organisations do. Moreover, Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert (2013) examined upward influence tactics in the virtual work setting, with their results revealing a new tactic: intermediation which replaces ingratiation in face-to-face settings. The three most frequently identified tactics in their research were rationality, intermediation and coalition. The intermediation tactic consists of consulting a trusted colleague of the supervisor and who might understand him/her in situations when the employee is unsure of the reaction of their supervisor. Those trusted colleague of the supervisor could help the employee convey their intentions and suggest the best way to approach the supervisor. The researchers suggest that virtual work contexts, in the form of remote work and technology-mediated communication, alter the way members of an organisation interact and are serving to constrain people's behaviour.

Rao et al. (1995) studied the effect of organisational cultures on the use of upward influence tactics finding that only subordinates in innovative organisations used less reason. It may be the case that, since innovative organizations place a strong emphasis on creativity and difference, their employees do not believe that reasoning is the most effective tactic for achieving their/the group's goals. About situational factors, spatial distance demonstrated significant negative effects for supervisor-focused influence tactics (Ferris et al., 1990).

Moreover, corporate social responsibility (CSR) shapes upward influence behaviour. Specifically, Trong Tuan (2013a) showed that ethical CSR positively correlates with organizationally beneficial upward influence behaviour (prescribed behaviours for organizational members which include caring for other stakeholders and acting in ways deemed to promote organizational sustainability). Ethical CSR negatively correlates with self-indulgent behaviour or destructive behaviour. A further study by Trong Tuan (2013b) shows that organizationally beneficial behaviour correlates positively to possessing a high level of emotional Intelligence (EI); a high level of EI, meanwhile, does not

facilitate self-indulgent behaviour or destructive behaviour. A balance between employees' caring feelings for themselves and for others aids the minimization of egoism in followers' upward influence behaviours.

Six studies addressed leader-member exchange (LMX) as antecedents; Deluga and Perry (1991) study revealed that higher quality LMX was positively associated with upward subordinate influence effectiveness, subordinate satisfaction and with superior effectiveness while negatively correlated with coalition, upward appeals and assertiveness tactics. Looking at a further division of employees, in-group and out-group subordinates, Krone (1991) found that in-group subordinates used significantly more open persuasion and strategic persuasion and significantly less manipulation in their upward influence attempts than out-group subordinates did. Moreover, Farmer et al. (1997) found that LMX was negatively related to use of soft strategies and found no relationship between LMX and rational strategies and hard tactics. Further research into the relationship between followers and their leaders was conducted by Krishnan (2004) who found that LMX related positively to reasoning (or rational persuasion) and friendliness tactics (or ingratiation), while it was negatively correlated with higher authority. Taking this line a step further, Botero (2012) explored LMX and Power Distance (PD) and their interaction as predictors of the use of hard, soft and rational strategies. For soft strategies, the results showed that the higher the perceptions of LMX and PD, the lower the likelihood of using these strategies. With rational strategies, LMX was the only factor related to the use of these strategies; those who perceived lower LMX relationships with their superiors were most likely to use rational strategies. Those who scored lower in PD used a greater number of hard strategies, while those who perceived their relationships with their supervisor as being low LMX were also less likely to use hard strategies. Moreover, Geertshuis et al. (2015) found LMX was positively associated with rational argument and negatively associated with ingratiation and assertive tactics.

In other domains, personal factors have been examined. Cable and Judge (2003) and Shim and Lee (2001) found the five-factor model of personality and personal characteristics affected the selection of influence styles. Cable and Judge (2003) used the five-factor model of personality (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experience). The study revealed that extroverts were more likely to engage in outgoing, expressive tactics - for example, inspirational appeal and ingratiation - while those who score high in agreeableness resisted legitimisation and pressure. Individuals who scored high on emotional stability were more likely to use ingratiation, personal appeal and exchange. Shim and Lee (2001) found that personal characteristics - for example, the need for achievement and self-monitoring - affected the selection of influence styles of project leaders. In that tacticians have a higher need for

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achievement than other influence styles, particularly bystanders also reporting more favourable target responses.

Another employee's personal factor was studied by Su (2010) who found employees' political tendencies related positively to the six influence tactics (ingratiation, exchange of benefits, upward appeal, assertiveness, coalition, rationality). Organisational socialisation related positively to the use of rationality but negatively to the use of assertiveness.

Finally, Farmer et al. (1997) found level of education and Machiavellianism predicted hard tactics, while soft tactics were predicted by high education, self-monitoring, and having external locus of control. High educator and those who not located at the same office with their supervisors reported using higher level of rational tactics. Capezio et al. (2015) found that leaders' Machiavellianism was significantly associated with followers' use of ingratiation but not with followers' use of assertive tactics.

4.4.2 Moderators of upward influence tactics relationships with outcomes

4.4.2.1 Culture

Cultural values, practices, and conditions shape the effects of influence. About 20 studies were found in the literature and the results revealed significant societal differences in the influence tactics initiated by subordinates. However, the results of cross-cultural upward influence projects suggest that US measures have some level of applicability in other cultures (Terpstra and Ralston, 2002). Culture makes a difference in strategy use (Ralston et al., 2001; 2005) and strategy effectiveness (Fu and Yukl, 2000).

When comparing tactics used between participants from different countries, the research has found that participants from the US differ from those from other countries regarding the likelihood of using upward influence (Fu and Yukl, 2000; Ralston et al., 2001; Yukl et al., 2003). Cultural values and traditions play a vital role in influence processes (Yukl et al., 2003). For example, US participants prefer to use soft tactics and rationality, while cultures with low individualism and high power distance such as Hong Kong prefer the use of hard strategies (Schermerhorn Jr and Bond, 1991).

In this domain, there are country comparison studies (for example, Schermerhorn Jr and Bond, 1991; Ralston et al., 1993; 1995; 2002; 2005; Fu and Yukl, 2000; Egri et al., 2000; Yukl et al., 2003; Fu et al., 2004; Botero et al., 2012) and studies examining the use of influence tactics in specific

countries; for example, Ansari and Kapoor (1978) and Bhatnagar, (1993) in India; Alshenaifi (2007) in Saudi Arabia; Ansari et al. (2007; 2007) in Malaysia; Su (2010) in Taiwan; Shim and Lee (2001) in Korea; Rao et al. (1995) in Britain; and Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert (2013) in Argentina.

In terms of comparison studies, 17 countries have been examined (Hong Kong, China, Germany, the Netherlands, India, Mexico, Switzerland, Thailand, Canada, France, Japan, New Zealand, Taiwan, Turkey, Thailand, and Colombia) with most studies using the US as the comparison. Firstly, Botero et al. (2012) reported no difference between the US and Colombian participants in their use of upward influence. Schermerhorn Jr and Bond (1991) investigated individual preferences in the use of upward and downward influence tactics by Hong Kong Chinese and Americans. Their results revealed that the Chinese were more likely to prefer assertiveness tactics, while the Americans preferred ingratiation, rationality and exchange. While in upward influence situations, both the Chinese and Americans preferred rationality and coalition. In downward influence situations, they preferred assertiveness, blocking, exchange, upward appeal, sanction and ingratiation as managerial tactics.

Staying with American/Chinese comparisons, Ralston et al. (1993) found that Hong Kong managers were more likely to employ tactics that involved controlling information within their network than Americans. By contrast, American managers reported the use of image management tactics. Americans see individually-oriented strategies that make one stand out as an excellent performer and that make one visible to one's superiors as the way to progress. However, the Hong Kong Chinese see low-key approaches that create competitive advantages and make the manager look good as the way to succeed at work. Later, Ralston et al. (1995) targeted Americans working in the US and in Hong Kong and Hong Kong Chinese working in Hong Kong; their study revealed that there were cross-cultural differences in upward influence strategies. American managers perceived rational persuasion and ingratiation as less risky and more acceptable, while Hong Kong Chinese managers saw personal networking and information control as more acceptable.

Attitudes about upward influence strategies were also studied by Egri et al. (2000) but across four cultural groups; Americans, Canadian-Anglophiles, Canadian-Francophiles and Mexicans. The results indicated that Canadian-Anglophone managers scored significantly higher on organisationally sanctioned behaviours than American managers, while Mexican managers scored the lowest. Regarding destructive/legal and destructive/illegal behaviours dimensions, Mexican managers scored significantly higher than Canadian-Francophone managers, who scored higher than both American and Canadian-Anglophone managers. There was no cultural group difference on the acceptability of non-destructive/legal behaviour.

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Fu and Yukl (2000) also compared US and Chinese managers and uncovered a further and new tactic in use; the use of gifts, a common occurrence in China. American managers rated rational persuasion and exchange as being more effective than Chinese managers for direct confrontation and the use of rational persuasion to influence people and resolve differences in an organisational setting. However, Chinese managers rated coalition, upward appeal and gifts as more effective. Coalition, upward appeal, the use of indirect approaches for difficult requests and gifts are a cultural tradition for the Chinese and are used to strengthen relationships in the workplace.

Cultural values and traditions also featured in the work of Yukl et al. (2003) who conducted two studies, the first study comparing American, Swiss and Chinese managers, the second American, Hong Kong and Chinese managers. Their studies revealed that Swiss and American managers achieved similar ratings on most of the tactics. The results showed that Western managers believed that rational, inspirational appeal and coalition tactics were more effective than Chinese managers. By contrast, Chinese managers believed that appeals to authoritative bodies might be a more effective tactic. Direct, task-oriented tactics were rated as more effective by Western managers than by Chinese managers. The Chinese managers had a higher evaluation of tactics involving personal relationships, an informal approach and an avoidance of confrontation. American managers rated coalition tactics as more effective than Chinese managers in influencing a boss to implement change.

Six different cultures, two each from Europe (Germany and the Netherlands), Asia (Hong Kong and India) and the Americas (Mexico and the US), were studied by Ralston et al., (2002). The results showed that the Americans and Dutch believed that the use of soft tactics was more acceptable than using hard tactics. In Hong Kong and Mexico, both cultures favoured hard tactics as opposed to soft tactics. Germans and Indians were neutral regarding both soft and hard tactics. Staying with Ralston and colleagues but moving in a slightly different direction, Ralston et al. (2005) studied upward influence ethics of managers in the US and Thailand. The results showed that, for destructive influence behaviour, culture was not significant, while it was significant regarding self-indulgent behaviours. Younger Thai and US managers viewed self-indulgent behaviours as being more acceptable than older managers did.

Given the implicit appearance of cultural values, this is a good place to discuss the work of Fu et al. (2004) who examined three cultural values (in-group collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and future orientation) in 12 countries (China, Japan, New Zealand, the USA, Mexico, India, Turkey, Thailand, Taiwan, the Netherlands, Hong Kong, and France). The persuasive strategy gained the highest overall rating for effectiveness across cultures. Surprisingly, the relationship-based strategy received the lowest rating. Managers operating in cultures with higher levels of

uncertainty avoidance are more likely to consider relationship-based and assertive strategies as effective and the persuasive strategy ineffective, in comparison with managers working in cultures with lower uncertainty avoidance. Managers from countries scoring high in terms of uncertainty avoidance more highly rated relationship-based strategies and gave lower ratings to the persuasive influence strategy. The results showed that uncertainty avoidance was significantly related to the mean ratings of relationship-based and persuasive influence strategies. Managers in collectivistic cultures rated the relationship-based influence strategy as more effective.

As well as cross-cultural work, some studies have examined upward influence tactics within specific cultures. Alshenaifi (2007) studied upward influence tactics used by Saudi male and female public sector employees. The results indicated that the use of influence tactics is varied and that highlighting self-image is a tactic used in Saudi culture; this refers to when an employee talks about the type of knowledge they have and highlight themselves. Sticking to single-culture research, Ansari et al. (2007) studied upward influence tactics in the Malaysian culture and found that employees have a tendency to endorse rational persuasion. They found that demonstrating expertise was the most effective (popular) tactic of influence while the least effective tactics were blocking, exchange and showing dependency. Shim and Lee (2001) studied the upward influence behaviour of Korean project leaders. The influence styles used by Koreans project leaders had an effect on team performance because of the influence they had on other people. Rao et al. (1995) studied British people and found that they did not use coalition for achieving personal goals while they used a wide range of strategies (except for ingratiation) in pursuing organisational goals.

The findings produced more evidence that cross-cultural differences were consistent with cultural values and traditions. The results showed that Western leaders differ to Eastern leaders. Each of them has different preferences although most of them agree on rationality as the most accepted tactic. In general, there are tactics that some cultures accept and consider their use completely appropriate, while other cultures would find the same tactics unacceptable, even considering use of them as disrespectful. For example, while gifts are accepted as influence tactics in China, other cultures would see them as a bribe leading to negative outcomes. In addition, exchange of benefit may also be accepted in some cultures and yet be considered unacceptable in others. While the studies above have addressed the Western and Eastern cultures, there is a scarcity in investigated upward influence tactics the Middle East cultures, especially Arab countries. More perspectives are needed from Middle East and Arab countries.

4.4.2.2 Demographic Factors

Starting with gender; the movement of women into management positions over the last 50 years has inspired an abundance of research into the similarities and differences between male and female managers (O'Neil, 2004). Similar debate exists concerning the differences between women's and men's choices of upward influence tactics. In relation to the effects of gender, the literature has yielded inconsistent results on the link between gender and influence tactics (Terpstra and Ralston, 2002; Akhtar and Mahmood, 2009). Eleven studies were found to address this; some studies support the idea that males and females influence their superiors in different ways (for example, Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Schermerhorn Jr and Bond, 1991; Castro et al., 2003; Knippenberg and Steensma, 2003; Ansari et al., 2007); however other studies do not. Studies which found no difference between gender and upwards influence tactic choice include those of Akhtar and Mahmood (2009) and O'Neil (2004). Dreher et al. (1989) and Ralston et al. (1993) found that there were very few differences between men and women in terms of using upward influence tactics.

Knippenberg and Steensma (2003) claimed that men used influence tactics more than women did. Specifically, Schermerhorn Jr and Bond (1991) found that females had stronger preference for rationality, compared with males. Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) found that women ingratiators achieved the highest performance evaluations by their male supervisors, while the highest performance evaluation was given to tactician male workers and supervisors. Castro et al.'s (2003) study results suggested that females who used higher levels of the 'shotgun' approach, upward appeals and coalition, and who reflected higher positive affects (that is, were interested, enthusiastic, confident, gregarious and excited) received higher job performance ratings. Additionally, Capestro et al. (2015) found that leaders' Machiavellianism was significantly and positive associated with followers' use of ingratiation for women, while the relationship between leaders' Machiavellianism and followers' assertiveness was significant and positive for men but non-significant for women.

Moreover, Ansari et al. (2007) found that employees used self-indulgent influence tactics like ingratiation and upward appeal more with their female managers than with males. In contrast, they reported more use of such influence tactics as expertise, exchange, and showing dependency with their male supervisor than with their female supervisor. Zhang (2013) shows that the effectiveness of hard influence tactics differs according to gender: when interacting with male supervisors, women least resorted to assertiveness, while men adopted the coalition tactics when dealing with female supervisors.

Studies suggest that hard influence tactics, such as assertiveness, upward appeal and coalition, may be less effective when employed by women; when women used hard influence tactics, the outcome may not be as positive as when men used the same tactics (Castro et al., 2003). This may be due to personality and stereotypical gender differences between men and women. This scenario raises questions about the possibility of success or failure of influence tactics if women subordinates use them with the same gender (female managers) or with the opposite gender (male managers).

Regarding age: Akhtar and Mahmood (2009) found that younger people use influence tactics more frequently than older people do, while older, successful managers use logical explanation and expertise with their superiors. Confirmatory evidence of this was found by Ralston et al. (2005) who established that life stage is a significant predictor variable in cross-cultural research. Ralston et al. (2005) found that younger Thai and US managers viewed self-indulgent behaviours as being more acceptable than older managers did. A further example is provided by Deluga and Perry (1991) who found that older subordinates are less likely to try and influence their superiors in comparison to younger subordinates.

4.4.2.3 Leadership Style

Seven studies were found in relation to this topic. Ansari and Kapoor's (1987) study investigated the link between influence tactics and three leadership styles: authoritarian, participative and nurturant-task. The results showed that individuals responding to authoritarian managers showed a greater tendency to employ non-rational tactics such as blocking, upward appeal and ingratiation. In contrast, those responding to nurturing tasks or to participative managers showed a greater tendency to choose rational persuasion. Looking at two different leadership styles – transactional and transformational - Deluga (1988) found perceived transactional leadership to be more strongly inversely related to reported employee upward influencing behaviour than transformational leadership. Transformational leadership was more closely associated with leader effectiveness and employee satisfaction (with the leader) than transactional leadership. Moreover, Epitropaki and Martin (2013) found perceptions of transformational leadership to be positively related to the use of soft and rational upward influence tactics, whereas transactional leadership was positively related to the use of soft and hard upward influence tactics. Focussing on the effects of transformational style leadership, Krishnan (2004) found that transformational leadership positively correlates to rational persuasion and ingratiation, but negatively relates to higher authority.

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Interestingly, Cable and Judge (2003) claimed that influence tactics used by subordinates are a reflection of a superior's leadership style. Their research revealed that subordinates used their superior's leadership style as an indication of which influence tactics they should use. The study concluded that managers were more likely to use influence tactics like consultation and inspirational appeal when their supervisor was a transformational leader. However, they were more likely to use exchange, coalition, legitimisation and pressure tactics when their supervisor displayed a laissez-faire leadership style. Employees were found to frequently use influence tactics such as ingratiation and upward appeal to influence autocratic supervisors, while they used manipulation, defiance, personalised help, showing dependency, and rational persuasion to influence participative managers (Ansari et al., 2007).

When it comes to the contradictory area of abusive leadership (subordinates' perception about to which extent their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviours, excluding physical contact) and supportive behaviour. Yagil (2006) examined the outcomes of supervisors' abusive and supportive behaviours in terms of upward influence tactics (i.e. forceful tactics and persuasive tactics). Their results indicated that abusive leadership was positively related to the use of forceful tactics. Of interest though, the opposite - the use of persuasive tactics - was not related to supportive leadership. In another area of leaders' behaviours - being fair or unfair. Ansari et al. (2007) found that employees used ingratiation and upward appeal with fair supervisors and reported more frequent use of tactics such as showing expertise, exchange and rational persuasion with unfair supervisors.

It goes without saying that influence tactics lead to success or failure depending on the leadership style of the leader on whom they are practised; thus, it is important to properly understand the relationship between upward influence tactics and leadership styles. Followers are unlikely to use hard forms of influence on managers whom they admire, for fear of placing a strain on their mutual relations and arousing negative feelings (Epitropaki and Martin, 2013). If employees view their leaders as transformational they are more likely to try to enhance their relations with both leader and organization, adopting the least aggressive forms of influence such as ingratiation in order to gain increased access to outcomes (Epitropaki and Martin, 2013). Managers should develop an awareness of behaviours, events, and leadership traits triggering an increased use of hard tactics and try to minimize them.

4.4.2.4 Other moderators

Other moderators were found in the literature such as the patterns of influence. For example, in initial influence attempts, personal appeal and ingratiation are used more frequently. Ingratiation, however, was more effective when used as part of a long-term strategy. In immediate follow-up influence attempts, exchange and legitimating tactics are used more often, while coalition and pressure tactics tend to be used in delayed follow-up influence attempts (Yukl et al., 1993). Ingratiation was used more frequently in combination with other tactics rather than used on their own while rational persuasion was generally used both alone and in combinations (Yukl et al., 1993). Maslyn et al. (1996) examined the use of influence after the employee met with initial resistance, and results indicated that subordinates are more likely to persist with the same supervisor rather than withdrawing or turning to a different manager. This is associated with high goal importance and poorer LMX. In terms of appropriateness, Bhatnagar (1993) found that reason tactics emerged as the most appropriate and effective influence tactic for both subordinates and superiors. Friendliness (or ingratiation) was the second most effective tactic, while bargaining (or exchange) and upward appeal were given low ratings.

Castro et al. (2003) show that Positive Affect (PA) moderates the relationship between influence tactics and job performance ratings. The researchers found that those possessing higher levels of PA received higher performance ratings when all influence tactics (i.e. the "shotgun" approach) were employed and when "hard" influence tactics were used.

Three studies investigated leader-member exchange LMX as moderator; Olufowote et al. (2005) demonstrated that high-LMX employees used rationality more than low-LMX employees in situations in which minimal change occurs. Thus, a positive association between LMX and rationality occurs primarily for low magnitude role changes. The relationship between change magnitude and rationality is positive for low-LMX employees but negative for high-LMX employees. In other words, when low-LMX employees are seeking major change, they try to not come across as self-serving. Looking at a further division of employees, in-group and out-group subordinates, Ansari et al. (2008) examined the moderating effect of leader-member exchange on the influence goals-ingratiatory behaviour relationship. Out-Group subordinates were found to dramatically increase the frequency of self enhancement tactic from organizational to personal goal condition. In- and Out- Group subordinates differed in the use of other enhancement ingratiation tactic in the organisational goal condition, but not in the personal goal condition. In-Group subordinates show a greater use of target enhancement tactic as compared to Out-Group subordinates. Out-Group members do not show much use of any type of ingratiation for organisational purposes. Self-enhancement tactics were used by Out-Group subordinates for

personal goals. Finally, Epitropaki and Martin (2013) studied relative Leader Member Exchanges (RLMX) and Perceived Organizational Support (POS). Specifically, in resource-constrained conditions (low RLMX and low POS), employees were likely to use soft tactics to influence their manager.

4.4.3 Mediators of upward influence tactics

4.4.3.1 Affect or liking

Five studies have been found in the literature using affect or liking as a mediator. All these studies only investigated impression management with the exception of one study (Wayne et al., 1997) which studied all upward influence tactics. Wayne and Ferris (1990) found that supervisor-focused tactics affected supervisor's liking for the subordinate. Ferris et al. (1990) found job-focused tactics led to much lower levels of supervisor affect toward the subordinate while the supervisor-focused tactics led to higher level of liking. These results were later supported by Ferris et al.'s 1994 study.

Wayne and Liden (1995) examined supervisors' liking of subordinate as the intervening variable in the relationship between impression management and performance ratings. The results revealed that a subordinate's use of impression management early in the relationship with a supervisor induces liking which in turn influences performance ratings made later. Wayne et al. (1997) found that favour-rendering (ingratiation) was positively related to managers' liking of subordinates.

4.4.3.2 Similarity to subordinates

Two studies were found in the literature studying similarity to subordinate as a mediator between influence tactics and work-related outcomes. Wayne and Liden (1995) examined supervisors' perceived similarity to subordinate as an intervening variable. The results revealed that a subordinate's use of impression management with a supervisor induces perceptions of similarity, which in turn influences performance ratings. Supervisor-focused impression management was positively related to a supervisor's perceived similarity to a subordinate, while self-focused impression management was negatively related to perceptions of similarity. Demographic similarity was also found to affect perceived similarity. Supervisors perceived themselves to be more similar to subordinates whose demographic profiles were similar to those of the supervisors than to those with dissimilar demographic profiles. Thus, demographic similarity and subordinate

impression management uniquely influence performance ratings through a supervisor's perceptions of similarity to a subordinate (Wayne and Liden, 1995). Wayne et al. (1997) found that favour-rendering (ingratiation) was positively related to managers' perception of similarity to subordinates. Moreover, the manager's perception of similarity related positively to performance and promotability assessment.

4.4.3.3 Other mediators

Manager's perceptions of the subordinate interpersonal skills; Wayne et al.'s (1997) study showed that employees who used reasoning received higher interpersonal skill assessments, while those who used bargaining (or exchange) and self-presentation received lower assessments. Employees who used assertive tactics were considered by their managers to have higher interpersonal skills. Manager's perception of the subordinate's interpersonal skills related positively to performance ratings and promotability.

Met expectation and person organisation fit; Vigoda and Cohen (2002) examined whether employees' influence tactics affected perceptions of organisational politics. [Pfeffer (1981:7) defined OP as actions undertaken to acquire, enhance, and use power to obtain preferred outcomes in situations having dissensus on choices.]. The results revealed a positive effect of influence tactics on the perception of organisation politics this effect mediated by employees' expectations being met. When individuals' expectations were not met, feelings of maladjustment regarding the organisation arise, perceptions of politics become more acute, and the entire work setting is perceived as unjust and unfair.

4.5 Consequences of upward influence tactics

Despite the fact that scholars have examined the effects of influence tactics on work outcomes over the past decades, there has been little time given to the task of carrying out a comprehensive assessment of the effects of influence tactics (Higgins et al., 2003). The empirical results of the relationship between influence tactics and outcomes and HR decisions are mixed, inconsistent and conflicted (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Wayne et al., 1997; Terpstra and Ralston, 2002; Higgins et al., 2003; Akhtar and Mahmood, 2009).

Twenty one studies found in the literature examined the relationship between influence tactics and different work outcomes and HR decisions. A few studies focused on immediate outcomes in

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terms of being either successful or unsuccessful. Successful influence attempts resulted in positive outcomes for the subordinates and the organisation and that the tactics used to achieve this were rational persuasion and exchange (Schilit and Locke, 1982). In addition, Ringer and Boss (2000) tested the effect of three variables - perceived power of subordinates, interpersonal trust, and the locus of control of subordinate - on the perception of success or perception of negative outcomes associated with influence tactics use. Their results revealed that individuals high in power tended to use all of the influence tactics and were also more likely to use the reasoning tactic. High interpersonal trust discourages the use of assertiveness and upward appeal; these two tactics are associated with possible negative outcomes.

Instead of simply focusing upon successful and unsuccessful influence attempts. Three studies (Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Yukl and Tracey, 1992; Yukl et al., 1996) studied all three directions of influence, finding evidence to suggest that the effectiveness of an influence attempt can be evaluated more precisely by distinguishing between three immediate outcomes: task commitments, task compliance, and task resistance. Task commitments when a target person agrees internally with an action or decision, is enthusiastic about it and is likely to exercise initiative and demonstrate unusual effort and persistence in order to carry out the request successfully. Task compliance when a target person carries out the requested action but is apathetic about it rather than enthusiastic, makes only a minimal or average effort and does not show any initiative. Task resistance when the target person is opposed to the requested action and tries to avoid doing it by refusing, arguing, delaying or seeking to have the request nullified.

Of these three studies, Falbe and Yukl's 1992 work identified the most effective tactics, consultation and inspirational appeal, although these tactics were used mostly in a downward and lateral direction and usually in combination with another tactic. The effectiveness of rational persuasion depended largely on how it was used. It was more effective when used in combination with soft tactics such as consultation, inspirational appeal or ingratiation than when used alone or with hard tactics such as pressure, coalition and legitimating. Ingratiation, personal appeal and exchange were moderately effective tactics. Exchange was effective and may not be considered as a hard tactic unless used in a very impersonal, manipulative way. The least effective tactics were pressure, coalition and legitimating; these seldom resulting in commitment, instead producing the most resistance. Their results also revealed that hard tactics could be useful for eliciting compliance, particularly when combined with rational persuasion. Combinations tend to be more successful than single tactics, but only when carefully chosen and when the outcome of the combination of tactics is reliant on the potency of these component tactics (Falbe and Yukl, 1992).

Other findings by Yukl and Tracey (1992) showed that consultation, rational persuasion and inspirational appeal were moderately effective in influencing task commitment. These correlated consistently with effectiveness ratings and were considered socially acceptable attempts at exerting influence. Pressure, coalition and legitimising were ineffective and also likely to be viewed as socially undesirable. Ingratiation and exchange were moderately effective for influencing subordinates and peers but ineffective for use with superiors. Ingratiation was more effective when used as part of a long-term strategy for improving upward relations rather than immediate influence. Personal appeal was moderately effective for influencing subordinates and peers while rational persuasion was the best predictor of effectiveness ratings made by the manager's superior. Moving to the third study, Yukl et al. (1996) found that influence tactics, agent power (referent, expert, legitimate and reward) and content factors (essential and enjoyable) independently affected influence outcomes. The agent with the most power used consultation, inspirational appeal and strong rational persuasion, and that usually resulted in target commitment. Target commitment was found likely to occur when the request was important and enjoyable.

Sixteen out of the 21 studies addressed some specific work outcomes including performance evaluation, promotability, salary, trust, psychosocial mentoring functions, career-related mentoring functions, burnout, and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). While the majority of these studies addressed upward influence tactics, Higgins et al. (2003) studied all three directions of influence. Dreher et al.'s (1989) study found that upward influence tactics affected salary allocation decisions; rationality tactics were used by women with higher salaries. Women who used exchange tactics tended to receive smaller salaries while men who used the same tactics earned higher salaries. Moving to managers, Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) found that 'shotgun' managers had the lowest performance ratings, earned less and had more job tension, physical and psychological stress than male tacticians. Male tacticians received the highest performance ratings but the same was not found for female tacticians. Regarding female managers, bystanders and ingratiation managers received the highest performance ratings. Exploring gender effects further, Tepper et al.'s (1993) results revealed that men who used strong upward influence tactics achieved higher performance ratings and more career-related mentoring functions (i.e. activities that prepare for advancement by providing exposure, protection, and challenging work). Women who used weak upward influence tactics achieved more psychosocial mentoring functions (i.e. providing counselling, acceptance, friendship and other activities self-confidence).

Furthermore, Wayne and Ferris (1990) found that job-focused tactics were negatively related to performance ratings while supervisor-focused tactics were positively related to performance ratings. These results were supported by the study of Ferris et al. (1990). Moreover, Thacker and

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Wayne (1995) discovered that ingratiation was significantly related to supervisors' perceptions of promotability in that it had a negative relationship with promotability, as did assertiveness. In comparison, reasoning was positively significantly related to supervisors' assessments of subordinates' promotability. Additionally, Dulebohn and Ferris' (1999) results indicated that the use of supervisor-focused tactics was associated with positive procedural justice evaluations, but that job-focused tactics were associated with negative evaluations. Geertshuis et al. (2015) found rational argument being positively predictive of performance ratings and assertiveness being negatively associated with ratings of performance.

Rao et al. (1995) found that employees who use ingratiation and reasoning were given a favourable performance assessment. However, the evidence suggests that people who exhibit both ingratiation and rationality tactics have a greater chance of succeeding in their careers (Higgins et al., 2003). Both of these tactics correlate more strongly with performance assessment than with extrinsic success (salaries and promotion), while assertiveness was found to have a moderately strong negative relationship with performance assessment and a positive relationship with extrinsic success (Higgins et al., 2003). Castro et al.'s (2003) results indicated that participants who scored highly on Positive Affect (PA) received higher performance ratings when more tactics were employed. PA was also useful when upward appeal and coalition were used.

Su (2010) added trust as an outcome with results revealing that the level of trust held by supervisors in their subordinates and the performance appraisals were influenced by both the supervisors' beliefs and feelings about influence style and the valence of attitudes towards the subordinate. Assertiveness was strongly and negatively associated with performance ratings and level of manager trust in the subordinate, while rationality positively predicated performance appraisals and trust. Yagil, (2006) studied the relationship between employees' burnout (i.e. emotional exhaustion, depersonalisation, and personal accomplishment) and upward influence tactics (i.e. forceful tactics and persuasive tactics). The results showed that forceful tactics were negatively related to personal accomplishment while the use of persuasive tactics was positively related to personal accomplishment.

In terms of the quality of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), Dockery and Steiner (1990) studied how LMX was related to upward influence tactics (ingratiation, assertiveness, rationality) in the early days of their employment and development of a new relationship with their manager. Subordinates reported that LMX was positively correlated with ingratiation and rationality but negatively with assertiveness, while managers reported that LMX was correlated positively with ingratiation and rationality. Finally, in other domain Trong Tuan (2013a) found positive relationship between organizationally beneficial upward influence behaviour and team processes.

On the other hand, Wayne et al.'s (1997) study showed that employees' influence tactics were not related directly to human resource decisions.

4.6 Key findings and discussion

4.6.1. Key findings are represented in frameworks: First; 3 frameworks have been introduced in this study as summary of the key findings of the studies reviewed here and shown in Figures 3, 4 and 5 where upward influence tactics, antecedents, moderators, mediators and outcomes are represented. Numbers beside each influence tactic and each outcome illustrate how many times that tactic or outcome was addressed in empirical studies. Figures 3, 4 and 5 only include the tactics that have been found to have significant relationships with outcomes. In these frameworks, papers that examined all three directions of influence were excluded, as were studies that used other scales rather than POIS, IBQ, SUI, upward impression management. The frameworks represent – soft tactics (Figure 3), rational tactics (Figure 4) and hard tactics (Figure 5). Although upward influence tactics can have an impact on tangible and intangible outcomes for followers, the results of many studies have often been inconclusive or mixed.

Starting with the tactics which have positive relationships; Rational persuasion (See Figure 4) can be considered as having a greater number of positive outcomes (nine times) with performance evaluation (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Rao et al., 1995; Wayne et al., 1997; Su, 2010), promotability (Thaker and Wayne, 1995; Wayne et al., 1997), trust (Su, 2010), salary (Dreher et al., 1989), and with LMX (Dockery and Steiner, 1990). Moreover, Supervisor-focused tactics (See Figure 3) have a positive relationship with performance ratings (Ferris et al., 1990; Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Dulebohn and Ferris, 1999).

Moving to the tactics which have negative relationships: Job-focused tactics (See Figure 3) have negative relationships with performance ratings (Ferris et al., 1990; Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Dulebohn and Ferris, 1999). Additionally, Self-presentation (See Figure 3) has a negative relationship with interpersonal skills which leads to negative performance ratings and has a negative relationship with promotability (Wayne et al., 1997).

Tactics that have mixed relationships: Ingratiation tactics (See Figure 3) has a greater number of positive relationships. It has five positive relationships with; performance ratings (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Rao et al., 1995; Wayne et al., 1997), promotability (Wayne et al., 1997), and LMX (Dockery and Steiner, 1990); and just one negative relationship with promotability (Thaker and Wayne, 1995). Furthermore, the Assertiveness tactic (See Figure 5) has a greater number of

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negative outcomes. It has six negative relationships; with performance ratings (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Su, 2010), trust (Su, 2010), promotability (Thaker and Wayne, 1995), LMX (Dockery and Steiner, 1990), and salary (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988); and two positive relationships with performance ratings (Wayne et al., 1997) and promotability (Wayne et al., 1997). Moreover, Exchange tactics (which some studies consider a soft tactic while others see it as a rational tactic-see Figures 3 and 4) have two negative relationships with salary (Dreher et al., 1989), and with interpersonal skills which leads to negative performance ratings and promotability (Wayne et al., 1997), and one positive relationship with salary (Dreher et al., 1989). Finally, both Upward appeal and Coalition tactics (See Figure 5) have two negative relationships with performance ratings and salary (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988) and one positive relationship with performance ratings through positive affect (Castro et al., 2003).

On the other hand, researchers who studied influence strategies (grouping the tactics as one group: hard, soft, rational) found LMX predicted a negative relationship with soft tactics (Farmer et al., 1997; Botero et al., 2012) (See Figure 3), and a negative relationship with rational tactics (See Figure 4), while a positive relationship was predicted with hard tactics (Botero et al., 2012) (See Figure 5). The framework shows some other antecedents of the upward influence tactics (See Figures 3, 4 and 5); however, the researcher has only presented LMX relationships as an antecedent to show how confusion exists in the literature over how to treat LMX. Some studies treat it as an antecedent (predictors) (e.g., Deluga and Perry, 1991; Krone, 1991; Farmer et al., 1997; Krishnan, 2004; Botero et al, 2012; Geertshuis et al. 2015), another three studies treat it as a moderator (i.e. Epitropaki and Martin, 2013; Ansari et al., 2008; Olufowote et al 2005), while another study treats it as consequences (outcome) (i.e. Dockery and Steiner, 1990).

Furthermore, the framework shows that different moderators affecting influence and outcome have been found in the literature; namely culture, leadership style, LMX, and demographic factors.

In addition, the framework shows the mediators that have been found in the literature (i.e. affect, interpersonal skills, and perception of similarity). Finally, it shows the most outcomes that have been studied in the literature (i.e. performance ratings, salary, promotability, trust, LMX).

Figure 3 Follower Upward Influence Tactics and their relationships with work-related outcomes (Soft tactics)

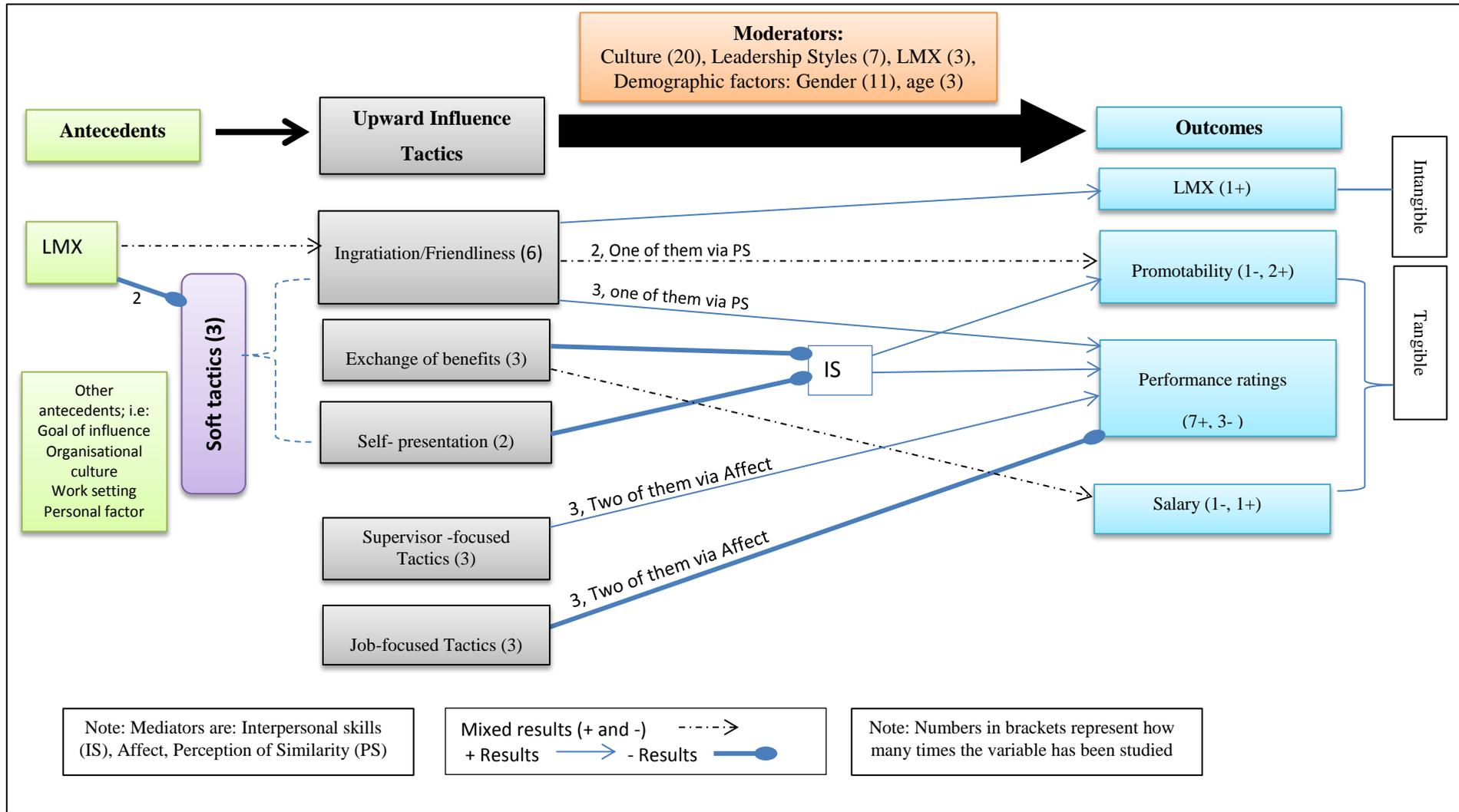


Figure 4 Follower Upward Influence Tactics and their relationships with work-related outcomes (Rational tactics)

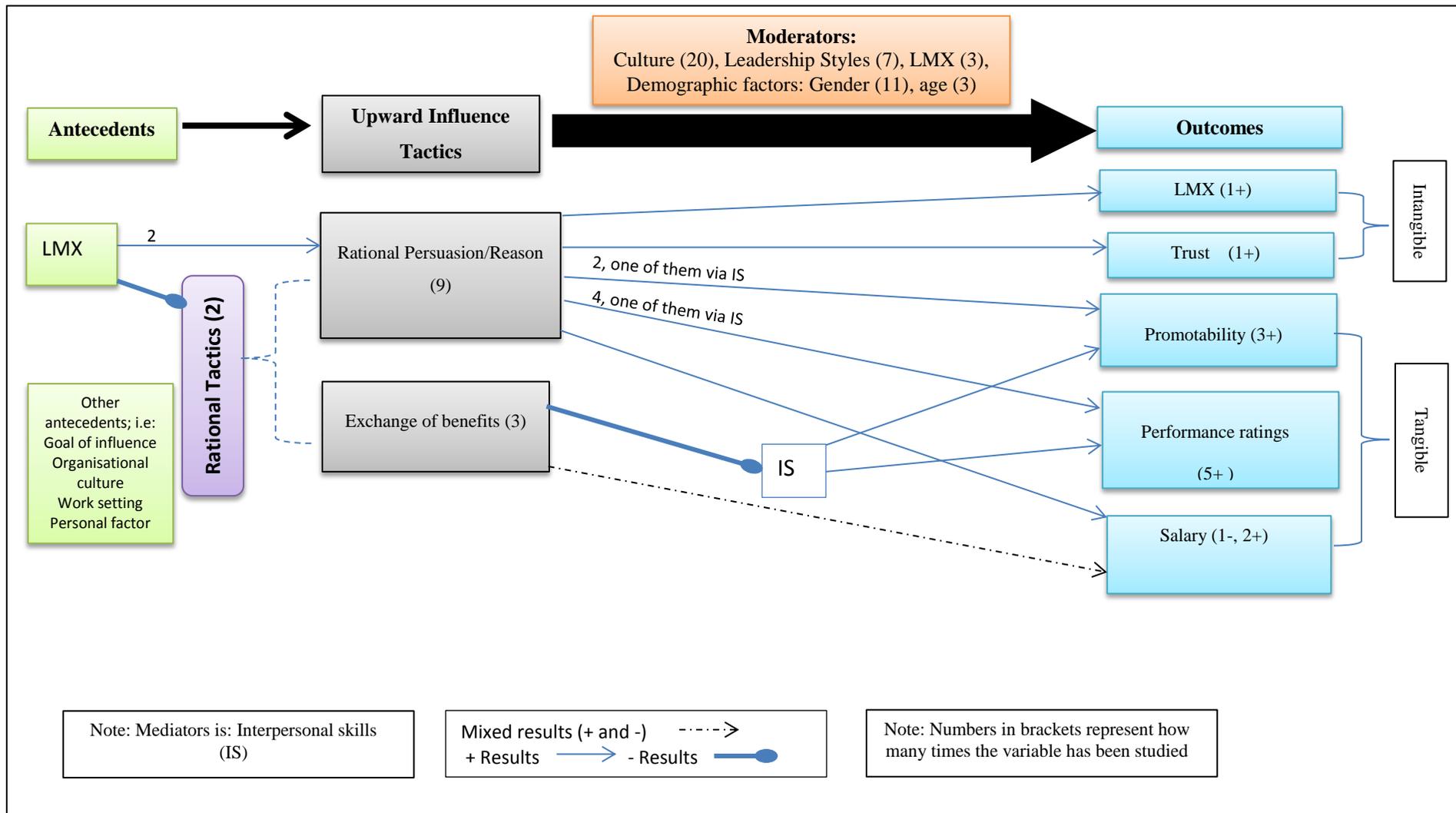
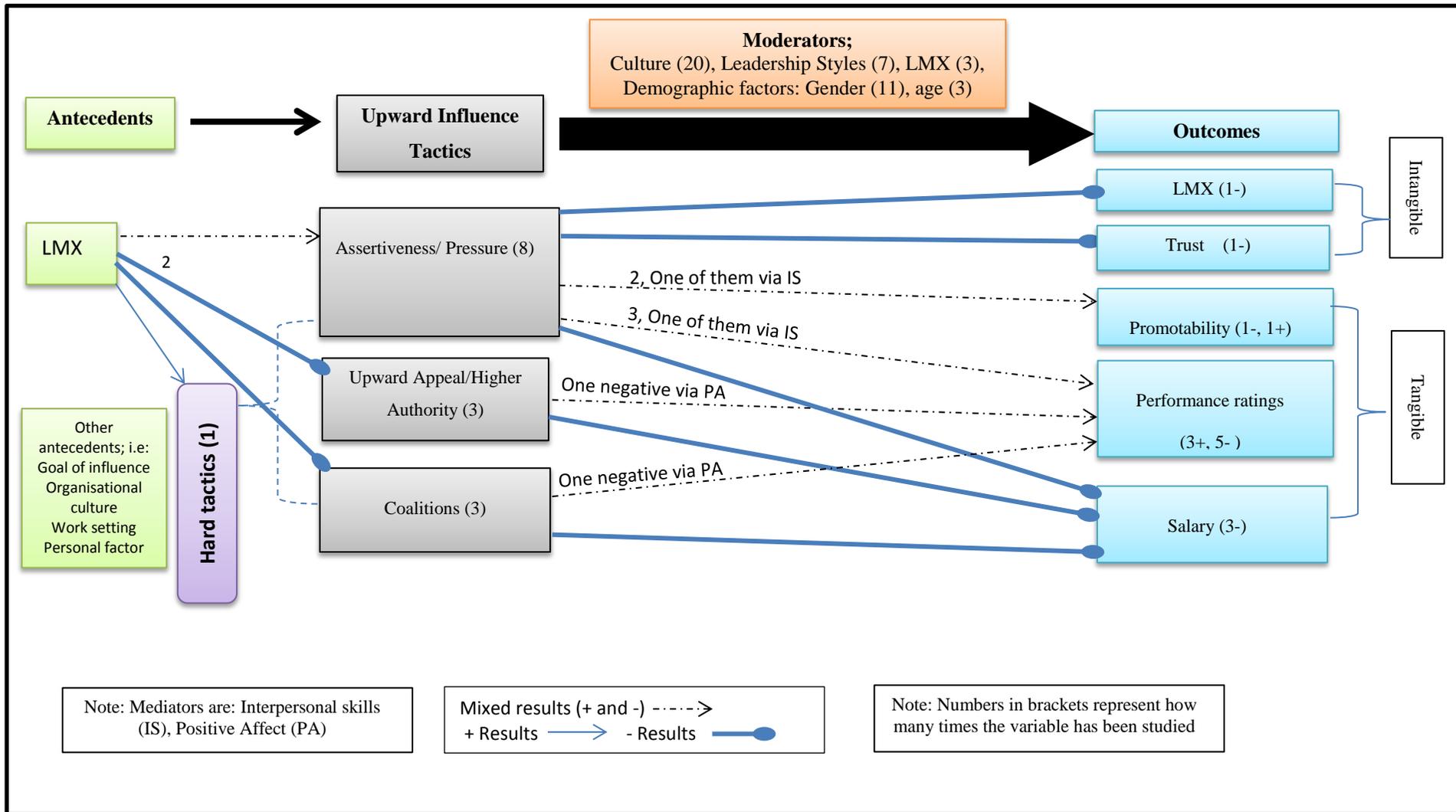
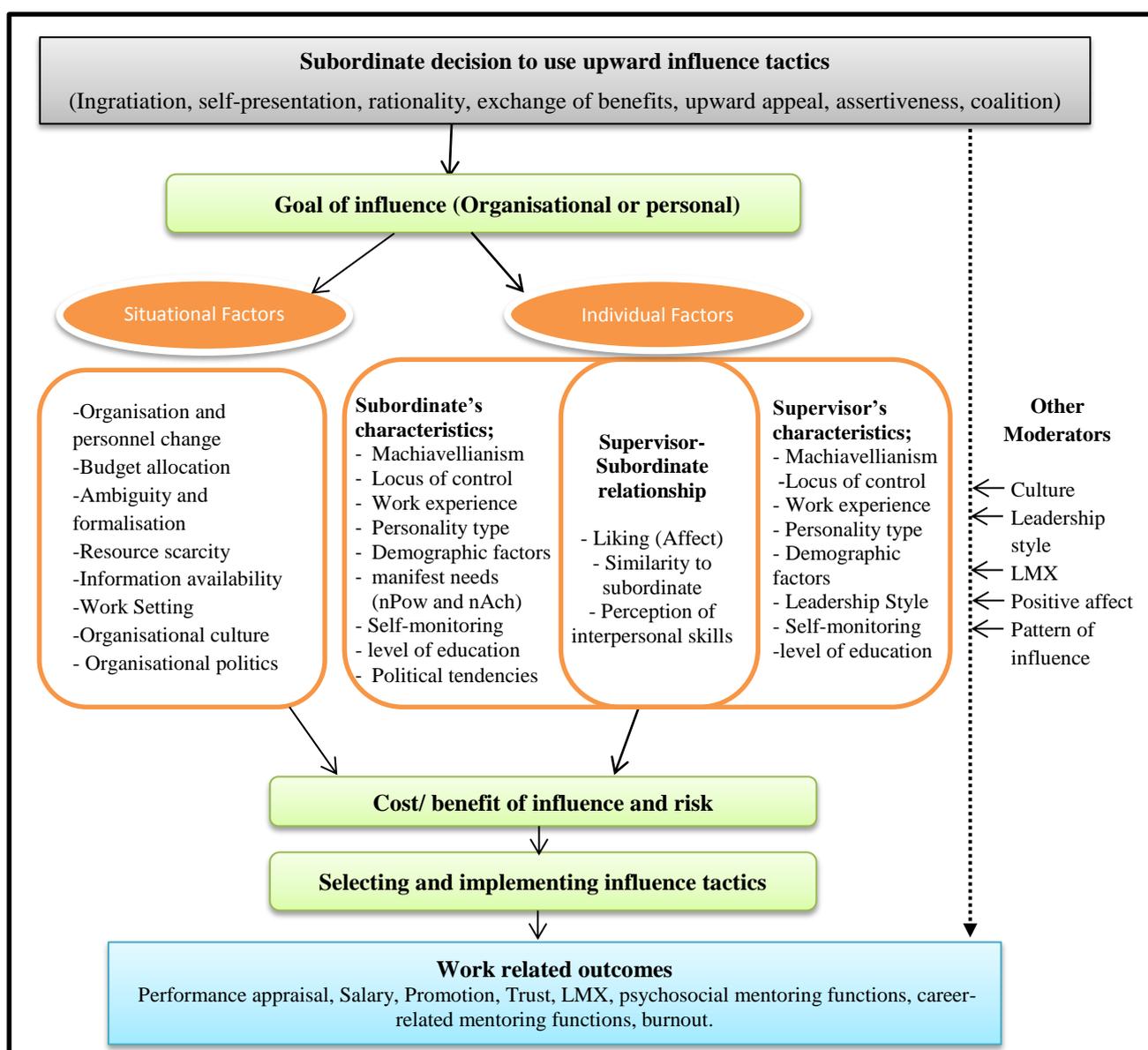


Figure 5 Follower Upward Influence Tactics and their relationships with work-related outcomes (Hard tactics)



Second; Figure 6 below is a suggested summary integrated framework after the critical review of upward influence tactics literature and consideration of other models of upward impression management (i.e. Ferris et al., 1990; Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Rao et al., 1995) and other models of upward influence tactics (i.e. Porter et al., 1981; Wayne et al., 1997; Terpstra and Ralston, 2002). This framework includes most of the factors that have been studied in relation to upward influence tactics which have been reviewed in this chapter.

Figure 6 Integrated framework of upward influence processes



4.6.2. Methodological Issues: Based on the studies reviewed here and on the frameworks above (Figures 3, 4 and 5) it is noticeable that there are inconsistent and mixed results. Differences in

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POIS, IBQ, SUI and other measures must be considered as a potential reason for the mixed findings. It is clear that more research is needed to solve controversies over the appropriate number of influence styles (Shim and Lee, 2001). While having multiple instruments for measuring a given construct is not inherently wrong, it is important to know whether each of these instruments is measuring the same underlying factors.

Debate continues in relation to influence tactics measures. Different scholars have tried to develop influence tactics measures; some have modified existing measures and others have created new ones. However, the POIS scale developed by Kipnis et al. (1980), both in its original and in its revised forms (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1982; and Schriesheim and Hinkin, 1990), has been the one most commonly applied in the field. It has been used in 41 studies (57.8%), with 32 of the 41 studies only studying upward influence tactics. POIS has been empirically and methodologically validated over the years (See Table 3). IBQ was used in nine studies; of these nine studies, just two addressed upward influence tactics. The SUI scale has limited use and has had limited application, with only seven studies. The impression management scale is used just in five upward influence studies (see Table 3). The reason behind the popularity of the POIS scale could be either that it was the first and most basic measure in the field or because of its ability to measure the three directions of influence and the upward influence tactics at the same time. On the other hand, the IBQ, which was based on the POIS scale, was used more often to study the three directions. Therefore, its accuracy or ability in measuring upward influence is not verified.

The major limitations of both the original and the refined versions of the POIS were that some researchers examined only self-perception of influence tactics and objectives, creating the possibility of systematic bias. Respondents may have exaggerated or faked their use of socially desirable influence tactics such as rational persuasion because of the sensitivity of information about upward influence tactics that may affect their relationships with their leaders. Yukl and colleagues tried to overcome this limitation by developing the IBQ as a target-report. Ralston and colleagues attempted to avoid the bias implicit in self-reports by asking the participants to report information about their co-workers' influence behaviour. However, this approach also has limitations, because the peer may not be precisely accurate in describing the influence tactics of his or her colleagues due to having a friendship/competitive relationship or exaggeration may also occur as with the previous last two methods.

On the other hand, another methodological issue exists concerning the fact that there has been a reliance on self-report measures (53.4%) which increases the potential for social desirability bias. This is particularly the case if the research has been based on sensitive topics where people tend to respond in ways that maintain a socially positive self-image (Yukl et al., 1996). Furthermore,

using a different source of agent, target, and peer could also explain some of the variations that have been found in the results.

Moreover, some of these studies used students as a sample: this will not give the same results as studies which use an appropriate target sample - experienced employees (11.4% of the studies used full-time students and 21% of the studies used evening MBA students who have full-time jobs). Finally, there are other methodological limitations found in some of the studies; for example, do these research studies capture the same or identical construct; and issues around common method variance, subjectivity of the measures and sample size. There is also a scarcity of longitudinal studies in the field, inclusion of which may help to minimise any effects of the initial survey on respondents' ratings.

4.6.3. Fragmentation of the Literature: The available literature is not guided by an overall theory. It is believed that three separate theoretical perspectives have informed the literature: Power Theory, Impression Management Theory and Ingratiation Theory. These three theories have had an influence on shaping the upward influence tactics, which may be why the literature relating to upward influence tactics is inconclusive (as explained earlier in this chapter). The study of upward influence tactics was framed in the beginning as part of organisational politics, with a focus on examining how power was exercised (Terpstra and Ralston, 2002). The research carried out by Kipnis et al. (1980) about influence tactics is guided by anecdotal evidence (Elias, 2008), which has been organised into rational classifications of power tactics (e.g., French and Raven, 1959). Through their research, they were able to identify eight methods of influence in the workplace. From another stance, Goffman's (1959) Impression Management Theory posits that being viewed by others in a favourable manner is the basic motivation of individuals, either inside or outside of organisations (Montagliani and Giacalone, 1998). Impression management tactics have different objectives to that of proactive tactics (Yukl and Michel, 2006) but there is still a lack of overall homogeneity. Ingratiation literature has had an impact on upward influence tactics literature because two tactics are related to this literature - ingratiation and self-presentation.

4.7 Competing theoretical perspectives

Important questions have been raised through this literature review about what underpins influence tactics and what the theoretical model or the mechanism is. Explanations could be based on different lines of argument.

A. The choice of upward influence tactics can be affected by the relationships between followers and leaders. Since influence processes are social, the nature of the relationship between

the agent and target is key to understanding the influence strategies used (Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert, 2013). Leader-Member Exchange (LMX), the more developed theory of those for consideration representing relational leadership, could explain influence processes. The concept of LMX according to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) is that effective leadership processes happen when leaders and followers are able to develop mature leadership relationships (partnerships) and thus gain access to the many benefits of this relationship.

B. Cognitive information processing (Hastie and Park, 1986) or Information-processing theoretical framework. This approach provides a theoretical framework for explaining how supervisors translate their perceptions of subordinate impression management into initial impressions, encode them into memory and later retrieve and decode them when rating the subordinate's performance ratings (Wayne and Liden 1995). The successful use of ingratiation by subordinates, for example, may lead a supervisor to form a positive impression of that subordinate and to attribute desirable qualities to him or her (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Based on these positive attributions and impressions, the supervisor may categorise the employee favourably. Thus influencing their immediate response such as affect and later decisions about the employee, including performance ratings and behaviour related to exchange quality (Wayne and Ferris, 1990).

C. The Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) developed by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, 1980), revised and extended by Ajzen (1991) into the Theory of Planned Behavior, also termed as the Fishbein behavioural intentions model. This theory argues that individuals consider the consequences of their actions before they decide whether or not to engage in certain behaviours. Its fundamental assumption is that any specific behaviour reflects the influence of individual factors (i.e. personality) as well as the influence of other external factors exclusive to the specific situation. When challenged with the need to decide on a course of action, individuals consider their beliefs about the consequences of existing alternatives, beliefs about the normative expectations of important individuals or groups and the required resources and potential impediments characterising the environment around them (Fu et al., 2004).

D. The exercise of influence can be viewed as a behavioural act directed toward the achievement of specific goals in the work place. Expectancy theory (Vroom, 1964) or expected utility model of preferences and behaviours (Steensma, 2007) assumed that the person exercising influence cognitively evaluates the probability of successful influence and the costs or benefits associated with alternative courses of action. It is expected that the influencer will choose the course of action that maximises the expected value of the outcome and the perceived probability of success (Mowday, 1978; Ringer and Boss, 2000; Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert 2013). Followers undertake a series of subjective cost-benefit analyses using salient available information. Some of the more explicit information available is the actor's knowledge of the results of past attempts at

social influence (Porter et al., 1981). Thus, individual 'expectancy set' regarding the efficacy of engaging in upward political influence will be at least in part determined by what has gone before (Porter et al., 1981). Expectancy theory could provide a useful framework for predicting and understanding the selection of upward influence tactics. According to the expected utility model (Steensma, 2007), choosing an influence tactic that minimises potential setbacks or has a lower perceived cost, is considered to be more beneficial (Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert, 2013).

4.8 Critique of upward influence tactics Research and Hypotheses:

Empirical research on upward influence has tended to focus on the tactics used (i.e. Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson, 1980; Porter et al., 1981; Schilit and Locke, 1982), the conditions under which influence tactics are employed (i.e. Mowday, 1978; Kipnis and Schmidt, 1983; Schmidt and Kipnis, 1984), and the effects of influence tactics on work outcomes such as performance evaluations and salary increases (i.e. Dreher et al., 1988; Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Although a number of empirical studies have demonstrated that upward influence tactics have significant influences on work-related outcomes, upward influence tactics research does have limitations. Those limitations are highlighted as follows:

(i) Lack of theory

Over the past three decades, the field of upward influence processes has received several contributions that have significantly enriched its knowledge base. Such contributions have been sporadic, examining a relationship here and another one there, however, and have covered isolated and unconnected gaps in knowledge (Ferris et al., 1990).

Thus the field is hampered by a fragmented theoretical underpinning, and the absence of an overall theory, and while certain components have been linked to each other, the field suffers from a lack of consolidation of how upward influence processes operate in organizational settings. A shift from research that shows whether influence tactics are effective to research that focuses on the issues of why influence tactics work, and the theoretical mechanism behind this process is needed.

The purpose of this thesis is to address this need and to develop the theory and advance the theoretical understanding of how upward influence tactics work. After reviewing the three strands of literature (relational leadership, followership, and upward influence tactics), presenting the frameworks of upward influence tactics derived from the literature, and reviewing the competing theories. Researcher took the decision to use Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory

to explain the theoretical mechanism of the upward influence process. The argument for using the LMX theory is based on three points.

1- It is suggested that the effectiveness of influence tactics depends, to a great extent, on contextual factors such as the quality of the leader-subordinate relationship (Deluga and Perry, 1991; Krone, 1991; Tepper et al., 1993; Farmer et al., 1997; Tepper, Eisenbach, Kirby and Potter, 1998; Cable and Judge, 2003; Sparrowe, Soetjipto and Kraimer, 2006; Yukl and Michel, 2006; Botero, 2012). The Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) model offers the best insight into the influence that an employee can have on a leader (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Ansari et al., 2008; Lapierre and Bremner, 2010,). Exchange behaviours involve influence tactics, communication strategies, impression management, and in-role or extra-role behaviours (Uhl-Bien et al., 2000). It could also be argued that, in the social exchange relationship, the employee thinks about the outcome of their actions and uses that to guide their behaviours and to accomplish desired goals (Meeker, 1971).

2- Liking (Affect) as a mediator between upward influence tactics and work outcomes has been found in five studies in the literature (i.e. Ferris et al., 1990; Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Ferris et al, 1994; Wayne and Liden, 1995; Wayne et al., 1997). Liking (affect) involves an emotional response directed toward a particular person or object (Sutton et al., 2013), and it is often conceptualised as the degree of interpersonal attraction in a relationship (Liden et al., 1993). Furthermore, liking has been found to be positively related to performance ratings (e.g., DeNisi and Stevens, 1981; Kingstrom and Mainstone, 1985; Cardy and Dobbins, 1986; Tsui and Barry, 1986; Turban et al., 1990; Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Judge and Ferris, 1993; Robbins and DeNisi, 1998; 1994; Varma et al., 1996; Varma and Pichler, 2007; Sutton et al., 2013), and reward behaviour (e.g., Kipnis and Vanderveer, 1971; Podsakoff, 1982; Pandey and Bohra, 1984). Furthermore, supervisors treat liked and disliked subordinates differently (Turban et al., 1990). Tedeschi and Melburg noted that "on a long term basis there are many potential gains for the liked person" (1984: 45), including better communication, trust, and ability to influence (Wayne and Liden, 1995). French and Raven (1959) described being liked as 'referent power' that provides the liked individual with influence (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Moreover, as the social psychology literature tells us, people like to be liked (Oc and Bashshur, 2013). By managing impressions or by being ingratiating, followers may be helping to fulfill their leader's affiliation needs (Cialdini and Goldstein, 2004).

Furthermore, as Dienesch and Liden (1986) suggested, liking is an important dimension of the leader-member exchange. Empirical support for the critical role of affect (liking) in the type of exchange that develops between supervisor and subordinate has been found in the work of Liden and Mitchell (1989); Liden, Wayne, and Stilwell (1993) and Wayne and Ferris (1990). In addition, interpersonal affect develops over time between follower and leader, and influences the performance ratings process (Varma and Pichler, 2007). Moreover, the quality of exchange between follower and leader is also a developmental process (Bauer and Green, 1996).

Research in the field of social psychology on information processing provides further insight regarding liking and disliking. The initial four stages in the processing of information are attention, categorisation, recall, and information integration (Hastie and Park, 1986). Information-processing models can be used to aid in the understanding of both supervisors' and their subordinates' reactions and behaviours (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Research has demonstrated how information about a person is encoded and sorted in one's memory and how the resulting mental representations are retrieved and transformed into social judgments, affective reactions, and decisions affecting behaviour (Srull and Wyer, 1989; Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Researchers have argued that, when individuals are required to form judgments about others, they re-access pre-formed judgements created during earlier interactions or from long-term memory (Hastie and Park, 1986). Srull and Wyer's (1989) model advances the idea that the behaviours are encoded according to generalised concept, and additionally form an overall assessment of the individual as either likeable or dislikeable (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). It is the evaluative concept that then forms the basis of the impression of the target: supervisors made judgments about the quality of exchange (LMX) by relying on their impressions of their subordinates. These impressions were probably based on supervisors' evaluative concepts (i.e liking) rather than general traits (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Thus, impression management or ingratiation by the subordinate may be particularly important initially, when the supervisor forms an impression of and categorises the subordinate (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Because ingratiation may favourably affect the way a supervisor categorises an employee, the supervisor may recall positive employee behaviours and ignore contradictory information (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). That could be applicable for other upward influence tactics as well.

- 3- Upward influence tactics is one of the antecedents of LMX (Nahrgang and Seo, 2015). Through the lens of role theory (Kahn et al., 1964), Nahrgang and Seo (2015) categorised LMX antecedents into four antecedents; leaders and member attributes (i.e. gender

similarity), attributes of the relationship (i.e. liking), leader and member actions and behaviours (i.e. upward influence behaviour), and contextual characteristics. Dienesch and Liden (1986) claimed that upward influence tactics are key inputs into the LMX. These upward influence tactics affect a leader's attribution which in turn affects the development and the formulation of the relationship between leader and follower (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). Then, decisions about the influencer (the follower) such as job performance ratings will be subsequently affected.

LMX theory is premised on notions of role theory (Graen, 1976). Role theory (Kahn et al., 1964) posits that members accomplish work through roles (activities or behaviours). Role behaviours develop through a series of role episodes in which a leader (the role sender) who holds a set of role expectations sends those expectations to the member (the role receiver) (Nahrgang and Seo, 2015). The role receiver then responds to those expectations, either through performance of role behaviours or through negotiating a different set of role expectations (Nahrgang and Seo, 2015). Then, the leader evaluates the member's responses. The patterns of exchanges over time (i.e. expectations, perceptions, cognitive evaluations, behavioural responses) form continuous role episodes (Graen, 1976; Katz and Kahn, 1978; Graen and Scandura, 1987).

Grounded in role theory, the relationship between a leader and a follower develops through a sequence of three steps where individuals "test" one another; these steps are *role taking*, *role making*, and *role routinisation* (Graen and Scandura, 1987). The first step is "Role taking" which is a trial phase where the leader tries to discover the member's motivations, limits and behaviours through a sequence of sent roles and received responses. This step is critical to the development of the relationship as the leader evaluates the member's performance and decides whether or not to initiate another role (Graen and Scandura, 1987). This step also contains the initial interaction between leader and member in which each member of the dyad brings unique characteristics, abilities, and attitudes to the interactions. This initial interaction is influenced by the socialisation process as well as the characteristics of leaders and members, and is posited to be an important determinant of the future state of the relationship (Graen and Cashman, 1975; Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Dockery and Steiner, 1990).

Then, the role-making step begins when the leader and member begin to define the nature of their relationship and how each will behave in different situations (Graen and Cashman, 1975). In this step, numerous exchanges take place such as the exchange of information, support, latitude, and resources (Graen and Scandura, 1987). This stage also contains features such as the extent of subordinate influence in decisions, the degree of subordinate authority and autonomy, and the degree of concern and trust exhibited by

the supervisor (Graen and Scandura, 1987). Over time, these exchanges develop into interlocking behaviours, which characterises the last step of role routinisation. In the role routinisation step, it is theorised that the relationship will stabilise as leaders and members arrive at mutual expectations from the interlocking of behaviours. This is characterised by relational dimensions such as trust, respect, loyalty, and liking (Graen and Scandura, 1987).

The role theory suggests that the personal characteristics of sender/receiver, aspects of interpersonal relationships, actions and behaviours of role sender/receiver, and context influence the role episodes/role-making process (Kahn et al., 1964). One of the actions and behaviours linked to role receiver characteristics is using upward influence tactics during this role-making process. Nahrgang and Seo (2015) argued that LMX antecedents (i.e. upward influence tactics) are likely to influence different stages of the relationship as it proceeds through the role-making process. LMX theory posits that leaders will form unique dyadic relationships with each follower over time through the role-making process (Nahrgang and Seo, 2015). During these steps, interaction behaviours of the dyad play critical roles to enhance the quality of LMX (Liden et al., 1993; Bauer and Green, 1996; Law et al., 2010). If the exchange based on their interaction is positive and satisfies the dyadic members, leader and members will continue to exchange; otherwise, there are no opportunities to develop a high-quality leader-member relationship (Law et al., 2010). In the role-taking phase, for example, how the follower behaves to influence his or her supervisor in the initial interaction will influence their future relationship. Additionally, in the role-making phase, the exchange process is mutual; both parties of the dyad influence the behaviour of the other (Uhl-Bien et al., 2000). Using upward influence tactics in this exchange process will also affect the future leader/follower relationship.

The arguments above support the major role of LMX in the influence process. Although there have been a few studies examining LMX and upward influence tactics, leadership scholars (e.g., Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Sparrowe et al., 2006) have emphasised the importance of studying influence tactics in the context of LMX (Yukl and Michel, 2006; Hunter et al., 2013; Ansari et al., 2015). Exchange quality has been generally related to a number of desirable outcomes for subordinates, such as greater influence in decision-making processes and more supervisor support and guidance (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Thus it would be to the subordinate's advantage for him or her to manage the quality of exchange present in his or her interactions with a superior, perhaps through the use of various impression-management tactics (Wayne and Ferris, 1990).

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This also applies to other upward influence tactics such as rationality. In this study, the researcher argues that upward influence tactics either build/nourish or reduce/damage the LMX quality depends on which tactics have been used.

The following section discusses the scholarly assessment of LMX. Graen (1976) was initially interested in accounting for the general effectiveness of work relationships; thus, LMX has been seminally framed as a global construct and measured as a unidimensional construct (Law et al., 2010). As Law et al.'s (2010) literature review shows, LMX is measured as a unidimensional construct in the majority of research in the field. A major drawback of earlier research, however, was that while the name of the construct implied that LMX involved exchanges between the leader and the follower, scholars failed to specify the content of the exchange (Law et al., 2010).

The role-making theory contributes much to the scholarly understanding of leader-follower exchanges, particularly in the context of LMX theory (Law et al., 2010), since these role episodes consist of continuous exchange processes. Role-making theory does not provide a systematic analysis, however, of what exactly is being exchanged (Law et al., 2010). Liden and Maslyn's (1998) multidimensional conceptualisation of LMX offers a detailed account of the exchange of behaviours and attitudes in the role-making process. A multidimensional measure of LMX is more meaningful when the researcher principally aims to ascertain the quality of the relationship, as well as the content of exchanges in dyadic relationships (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995; Law et al., 2010). According to Graen and Scandura (1987: 191), "The quality helix has been measured by the various empirical indicators including leader-member exchange, dyadic loyalty, dyadic support, and dyadic trust, among others". LMX dimensions are considered "currencies of exchange" -they are derived from the social exchange theory, attribution theory and the norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960) which each party in an LMX can bring to the relationship. The exchanges between leaders and followers do not fit into a single dimension (Dienesch and Liden, 1986); instead Dienesch and Liden (1986) argued that roles involve multiple dimensions, and hence conceptualising and measuring LMX as a multidimensional construct will provide theoretical clarity and precision in research. Moreover, some researchers have argued that LMX is better conceptualised and measured as a multidimensional construct (Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Vecchio and Gobdel, 1984).

The LMX currencies include (Liden and Maslyn, 1998; Ansari et al., 2007; Law et al. 2010):

(1) Affect (liking), which refers to the mutual affection of the dyad members for each other based primarily on interpersonal attraction rather than on work or professional values (go beyond the work situation);

(2) Loyalty, which refers to the expression of public/social support for the goals and personal characteristics of the other member of the LMX dyad;

(3) Contribution, which refers to the perception of the amount, direction, and quality of work-oriented activity each member puts forth toward the mutual goals (explicit or implicit);

(4) Professional respect, which refers to the perception of the degree to which each member of the dyad has built a reputation, within or outside the organisation, for excelling in his or her line of work. It also refers to the respect which each member has for the other based on professional value (Bhal and Ansari, 1996; Wayne et al., 1997).

The three dimensions of affect, loyalty, and professional respect are social currencies that focus on social exchange between leader and member, whereas the contribution dimension is a work-related currency (Maslyn and Uhl-Bien, 2001). To discuss these dimensions in further detail, the degree of mutual liking, in the field of social psychology, is considered as a significant variable in the study of interpersonal interaction (Day and Crain, 1992). Studies also show that liking influences leader-follower relationships (Deluga and Perry, 1994). Indeed, earlier research has shown that exchange quality is determined early on in the relationship and remains relatively consistent as it progresses (Deluga, 1994). Deluga (1998) argues that interpersonal attraction (affect) allows for leader-member compatibility to develop, that the resulting rapport encourages accurate perceptions of supervisor performance expectations and would, subsequently, improve subordinate performance (Law et al., 2010).

The second dimension, loyalty means a stable faithfulness to the target that remains constant indifferent situations (Law et al., 2010). High-quality of mutual trust can only be gained when at least one member of the dyad exhibits loyalty to the other member. Liden and Graen (1980) demonstrate that if leaders regarded a certain follower to be loyal to them they were more likely to entrust tasks to them requiring independent judgment and responsibility (Law et al., 2010).

The third dimension, professional respect, is also key to building high-quality LMX relationships and employee success (Dienesch and Liden, 1986). Leaders and followers might even anticipate levels or forms of professional respect prior to working with each other (Liden and Maslyn, 1998).

The fourth dimension, contribution, which is a work-related dimension, these work-oriented behaviours and/or performances are an important clue for the dyad to be able to develop high-quality relationships. Higher quality relationships lead to a greater exchange of valuable resources between leader and member (Bass, 1990). Subordinates who perform well receive resources and support in return for being looked on favourably by their leaders (Law et al., 2010). The high level of contribution to the dyad encourages employees to go beyond what is expected of them in terms of required tasks and encourages them to develop high-quality LMX with their supervisors (Law et al., 2010).

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The researcher decided to test LMX dimensions as mediators in the relationship between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings in order to comprehend the mechanisms of upward influence tactics. Given that Saudi Arabia is collectivist, ranks high in terms of power distance, and is paternalistic culture (Hofstede, 2001), affect, respect, and loyalty dimensions are expected to have a greater effect than the contribution dimension. The *affect* dimension has received ample scholarly attention, as discussed above (Point 2 of the arguments). A collectivist culture such as that of Saudi Arabia also favours a tight social framework in both domestic and organizational life (Bjerke, and Al-Meer, 1993; Alrwaitea, 2014). Saudis, as Moslems, are required to co-operate with others and to share one another's sorrows and happiness, and these friendly relationships among people are attributed to Islamic teachings (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). This constitutes a signifier for the importance of affect in such a culture.

Researchers (e.g. Alrwaitea, 2014) argue that loyalty is also a very important dimension in such culture. Loyalty involves a sense of truthfulness to the other member, something that is very observable in Saudi culture as loyalty has significant value within families/tribes in Saudi (Alrwaitea, 2014). Islamic teachings emphasize the importance of trust (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015); and Arabs prefer personalised relationships that are based on trust and respect (Elamin, 2012). In general, Saudis appear to be very loyal to their organisations (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993) and they are also trusting of their leaders (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015). Work relations in collective cultures (i.e. the Arab world) are built around a relationship of trust between employees, management, and the leader in contrast to those in western cultures that are more contractual in nature (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015).

Moreover, professional respect is well recognised in such culture because of the high power distance in Saudi culture. That could be attributed to the Moslem belief about the respect for authority in Islamic societies (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). Additionally, Arab traditions recognise status hierarchy (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993) and acknowledge the importance of respect. Saudi workers have a strong preference for respect and hierarchy - respect is upheld as a lifelong virtue (Alrwaitea, 2014). Islam highlights the importance of showing respect and obedience to one's leaders (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015).

In another hand, the researcher has selected to test job performance ratings as it is the most studied outcome in the upward influence tactics and LMX literatures. Performance evaluation is central to management functions, such as determining employee compensation and rewards, providing developmental feedback, and documenting administrative decisions (Cascio and Aguinis, 2005). Moreover, job performance ratings serve as the basis for many important P/HRM decisions (Ferris and Judge, 1990). In fact, Ghorpade and Chen (1995: 32) suggested that performance ratings are "inevitable in all organizations—large and small, public and private, local and multinational".

As a means of developing the hypotheses, this study adopts seven tactics regarded as relevant determinants of influence outcomes. Six tactics are to be found in Schriesheim and Hinkin's (1990) research: Rational Persuasion, Ingratiation, Coalition, Exchange of Benefits, Upward appeal and Assertiveness. The seventh tactic is Self-presentation. The following seven sections present the hypothesis of the direct relationship of the seven tactics with job performance ratings and the mediation relationships via LMX dimensions.

4.8.1 Rational persuasion

Rational persuasion is defined as using logical arguments and/or justifications and factual evidence to persuade or convince a target that a proposal or a request is worthwhile and consistent with shared objectives or that it will result in the attainment of task objectives (Schriesheim and Hinkin, 1990; Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Castro et al., 2003). Rational persuasion or reasoning is considered a universally socially acceptable tactic, seen as an appropriate means of pursuing influence goals (Yukl and Tracy, 1992; Farmer et al., 1997). It is the most commonly used method of upward influence tactics in most cultures (Kipnis et al. 1980; Kipnis, 1984; Schilit and Locke, 1982; Bhatnagar, 1993; Rao et al., 1995; Fu et al., 2001; Su, 2010; Botero et al., 2011). Rationality is also considered the safest tactic for the employee to use to generate compliance from their superior (Schermerhorn and Bond, 1991; Botero et al., 2012). Research has shown that there is a positive relationship between employees' use of rationality and evaluations made by the supervisor; it is also the tactic that has previously been found to most likely result in higher performance ratings (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Yukl and Tracey, 1992; Wayne et al., 1997; Higgins et al., 2003; Su, 2010;). The results of Wayne et al. (1997) showed that subordinates who reported using reasoning received higher interpersonal skill assessments from their manager. Dreher et al. (1989) found rationality was positively related to salary, and Thacker and Wayne (1995) found it related positively to subordinates' promotability. Higgins et al. (2003) acknowledged that individuals who use rationality have a greater chance of succeeding in their careers.

In addition, subordinates high in LMX have been shown to participate more in decision making, thus offering more direct opportunities for arguing a particular point of view, making requests, reasoning out, and convincing their leaders of their point of view (Farmer et al., 1997; Krishnan, 2004). Rational persuasion was related positively to LMX (Dockery and Steiner, 1990; Krishnan, 2004).

The researcher contends that by using the rationality tactic, the follower encourages and nourishes a good quality relationship with the leader. Given that Saudi culture (the study context) is characterised as collectivist, high power distance, avoiding uncertainty (Hofstede, 2001) and

paternalistic. In a such culture, using rational persuasion to convince the leader means the follower is considered as loyal, likable, respectable, and having a contribution to make. The reason for this is that this tactic is considered very safe (Botero et al., 2012); in addition, it relies on the use of logic and appropriate means of influence, which in turn makes the leader feel respected. In Saudi culture, respect is a core social value (Alrwaitea, 2014). Additionally, using rational persuasion could increase the credibility of the follower as they are using evidence, facts, information and detailed plans to convince the leader. This in turn will increase the efficacy of the affect and contribution dimensions: The leader's affection for the follower will grow because of their honesty, and the leader is likely to treat them as "trusted subordinates". The contribution dimension could be enhanced by rationality as the employee makes an effort to achieve a mutual goal. The rational persuasion tactic is also expected to encourage loyalty – it involves convincing the leader about a proposal or request that is consistent with a shared objective, which in turn shows how the follower is loyal/faithful to his/her organization/leader. Leaders appreciate honest and truthful relationships with their followers (Brown et al., 2005). In Saudi collectivist culture, values like loyalty, reputation, and saving face are very important and popular (Alrwaitea, 2014). Individuals in such a culture are expected to be loyal (or are forced to be loyal in the worst case) to meet the family/tribe expectations or requirements (Alrwaitea, 2014); these expectations are extended to the work place as well. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Rational persuasion is positively related to job performance ratings.

Hypothesis 2: LMX - Affect (Hypothesis 2a), LMX - Loyalty (Hypothesis 2b), LMX - contribution (Hypothesis 2c), and LMX - professional respect (Hypothesis 2d) mediate the positive relationships between rational persuasion with job performance ratings.

4.8.2 Ingratiation

Ingratiation is defined as when an agent seeks to get a target in a good mood or to think favorably/positively about the sender before making a request (Schriesheim and Hinkin, 1990; Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Yukl and Tracy, 1992). Tedeschi and Melburg (1984) define ingratiation as a set of assertive tactics that are used by organisational members to gain the approbation of superiors who control significant rewards for them (Kumar and Beyerlein, 1991). Flattery, praise and expressions of acceptance and agreement are used to increase the agent's attractiveness to the target (Tedeschi and Melburg, 1984; Liden and Mitchell, 1988;). Researchers addressing ingratiation behaviours classify them into four tactics (Jones, 1964; Wortman and Linsenmeier,

1977; Tedeschi and Melburg, 1984; Kumar and Beyerlein, 1991; Gordon, 1996; Ellis, West, Ryan and DeShon, 2002):

First, flattery or other enhancement which involves expressing favourable opinions and evaluations about the target person; it is the communication of enhancing statements to the target through flattery and praise. Second, rendering favours based on the idea that the target individual will feel a sense of obligation towards the ingratiating individual, as well as seeing the individual as a helpful, pleasant and friendly person. Third, opinion conformity which involves expressing an opinion or behaving in a manner consistent with the opinions, judgements or behaviour of the target individual, and finally self-presentation. Later, Jones and Pittman (1982) distinguished the tactic of self-presentation (attempting to create an appearance of competence or capability of completing a task) from ingratiation (Higgins et al., 2003). Ferris et al. (1991) noted that early research in social psychology confused ingratiation with self-presentation, even though they are clearly distinct behaviours with different consequences. Self-presentation is therefore treated as a separate tactic in this research.

Ingratiation has been among the most commonly used strategies (Kipnis et al., 1980; Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick and Mayes, 1980; Porter, Allen and Angle, 1981) and is considered as the second most popular influence tactic (Bhatnagar, 1993). It can be more effective when used as part of a long-term strategy of influence instead of as a tactic for immediately influencing a superior (Yukl and Tracy, 1992). Ingratiation appears to be used to increase one's attractiveness in the eyes of a more powerful person (Kumar and Beyerlein, 1991). Such enhanced attractiveness may increase a subordinate's chances of positive rewards by securing personal benefits, for example a pay increase, a day off, better work schedules or assignments, a promotion, or to get a person to do a personal favour not directly related to the work from their bosses (Kipnis et al., 1980; Kipnis and Schmidt, 1983; Ansari and Kapoor, 1987; Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Rao et al., 1995). A positive relationship between the use of ingratiation and the feeling of friendliness that the recipient experiences toward the ingratiation is probably because the tactic creates goodwill (Kipnis, 1984). In general, use of ingratiation is associated with the recipient liking the ingratiation (Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Thacker and Wayne, 1995; Wayne and Liden, 1995; Wayne et al., 1997). Research has shown that individuals who use ingratiation tend to receive favourable evaluations (Jones, 1964; Kipnis and Vanderveer, 1971; Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988). Wayne and Ferris (1990) have previously found that ingratiation was positively related to performance ratings and affected supervisors' perceptions of subordinates. Judge and Bretz (1994) also found that ingratiation behaviour predicted extrinsic (job and life satisfaction) and intrinsic (pay, promotions and status) career success. Higgins et al. (2003) showed that individuals who exhibit ingratiation behaviours appear to have a greater chance of succeeding in their careers and of achieving higher performance assessment.

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Greenwald (1980) and Steele (1988) claim that people make great efforts to reinforce their self-concepts. Schlenker and Leary (1982) argue that they may accomplish this through managing the impressions that others receive of them (Wayne and Liden, 1995). Such an activity can result in the follower being liked by his or her target (Wayne and Liden, 1995). Jones and Wortman (1973: 4) observed that "people find it hard not to like those who think highly of them" (Wayne and Liden, 1995). Ingratiation in this scholarly context involves a subordinate communicating feelings of liking and admiration to a supervisor, and doing favours for the supervisor; a supervisor who feels liked and admired by a subordinate will be more attracted to that subordinate (Wayne and Liden, 1995). Ingratiation tactics increase the target's liking for or affect toward the ingratiation (Wayne and Ferris, 1990).

Yukl et al. (2006) suggested that soft tactics which include recognition and praise can strengthen relationships between members (Hunter et al., 2013). A subordinate's successful ingratiation of themselves can cause supervisors to attribute desirable qualities to him or her (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). On the basis of these positive attributions and impressions, the supervisor may categorise the employee favourably; doing so may then influence the supervisor's immediate responses to the employee, such as affect, and later decisions about the employee, including performance ratings and behaviours related to exchange quality (Wayne and Ferris, 1990).

Moreover, ingratiation tactic reinforces professional respect as this tactic shows respect for the leader by thinking highly of them. In terms of loyalty, ingratiation influences the feeling of loyalty because the target will feel a sense of obligation towards the ingratiation individual (Jones, 1964; Tedeschi and Melburg, 1984). Additionally, derived from Islamic ethics, and family and tribal influences, Saudi collectivist values translate into strong "in-group" memberships that value close interpersonal exchange relationships for loyalty and respect (Hofstede, 2001).

In return, using ingratiation enhances the contribution dimension. Contribution involves extra-role behaviours which are expected to be done either as an obligation or as evidence that the ingratiation appreciates the target. Soft influence tactics (i.e. ingratiation) in downward influence signal that leader respects employees' contributions to the workgroup (Sparrowe et al., 2006). The same could be expected in upward influence as well.

Hypothesis 3: Ingratiation is positively related to job performance ratings.

Hypothesis 4: LMX- Affect (Hypothesis 4a), LMX- Loyalty (Hypothesis 4b), LMX- contribution (Hypothesis 4c), and LMX- professional respect (Hypothesis 4d) mediate the positive relationships between ingratiation with job performance ratings.

4.8.3 Self-presentation

Early research tended to confound ingratiation and self-presentation (Higgins et al., 2003), the two implicitly viewed as similar in their nature and effectiveness. Later research has demonstrated that ingratiation, is the effort to appear likeable whereas self-presentation is the effort to appear competent. They are clearly distinguishable behaviours with potentially quite different consequences (Ferris et al., 1994). Godfrey et al. (1986) and Jones and Pittman (1982) provided empirical evidence showing that self-presentation and ingratiation are indeed distinct tactics and should be treated as such. Therefore, it is theoretically and conceptually important to distinguish self-presentation and ingratiation as independent influence tactics (Higgins et al., 2003). Judge and Bretz (1994) define self-presentation as the act of revealing one's personal accomplishments or achievements, abilities and characteristics in order to present oneself in the most favourable manner. Self-presentation consists of making explicit verbal statements of one's own attributes to increase the likelihood of being judged attractive by the target person (Kumar and Beyerlein, 1991).

Ansari et al. (2007) studied the upward influence tactics used in Malaysian culture and found a tactic called showing expertise where the employee shows the manager the ability to compete, be responsible, have and use experience and highlight achievements, as one of the most effective and popular tactics of influence in that culture. A similar tactic to this was found by the researcher Alshenaifi (2007) in Saudi culture which is called "highlighting self-image". This refers to when an employee talks about the type of knowledge he/she has and the very important person (VIP) networks or people he/she is connected to - this strategy similar to 'self-presentation'. Ralston et al. (1993; 1995) also found American managers reported the use of image management tactics, the active presentation of oneself in a positive manner to all members of the organisation, but most notably to those in a superior position, a tactic which has some similarities with those described above.

Self-presentation has been found to be negatively related to target liking and to interpersonal assessments (Wayne et al., 1997). Ferris et al. (1994) regarded self-presentation to have a negative effect on performance ratings. By using self-presentation tactic individuals can be seen as conceited or arrogant (Jones and Pitman, 1982). However, although self-presentation strategies often fail (Cialdini and DeNicholas, 1989), targets may have positive reactions to agents' use of self-presentation (Schlenker, 1980; Ashforth and Humphrey, 1993).

Despite the results of the studies above the researcher is of the belief that this tactic has a different impact on job performance ratings in Saudi culture. Self-presentation was considered by Jones and Pittman (1982) to be among a number of tactics that individuals use as part of impression management. A subordinate's goal with these self-focused strategies is to create an

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image that a supervisor will perceive favourably (Wayne and Liden, 1995). However a number of authors discuss how impression management tactics such as self-presentation are highly culturally dependent and not always negative. In Saudi Arabian culture, personal relationships and networking are valued as being just as important as performing tasks (Badawy, 1980). In addition, self-presentation is considered far more acceptable in Saudi Arabia as a means to reinforce power distance (Alruwaila, 2014). The researcher believes that Saudi employees will highlight themselves and show their ability to compete, to network with others, and to show expertise as a tactic to influence their supervisors. Anwar and Chaker (2003) noted that Arab employees can achieve a higher likelihood of promotion based on their personal and tribal relationships. It is not surprising that the Saudi managers rely on family and friendship ties for getting things done within their organisations (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). Arabs have a great sense of pride and self-esteem based upon their tribal relationships (Ali, 1989) and their family/tribe names. When Arabs meet their peers for the first time, they tend to establish each other's family identity (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). Saudi Arabians believe that their family or tribe is a source of social prestige and hence can use it to compete. Therefore, the use of self-presentation (highlighting self-identity and achievement) is less likely to be viewed as breaking any norms of politeness which are more typically associated with Western cultures.

Regarding the leader-member exchange between leader and follower, the researcher argues that the self-presentation tactic could enhance the affect and the professional respect between leader and follower. This tactic includes highlighting the follower's competence, achievements, experiences, and responsibilities. As leaders are from the same culture and have the same orientation, self-presentation could cause perceptions of similarities between the leader and follower if they share the same or close level of family/ tribe; this in turn would create mutual liking and respect. In addition, leaders in general prefer and respect those followers who are committed and competent, and whose actions are consistent with the leaders' expectations (Graen and Cashman, 1975; Liden and Graen, 1980; Deluga and Perry, 1991). Moreover, this tactic includes extra-role behaviours and goes beyond what is stated in the job description because the follower wants to prove their capabilities, and this subsequently encourages the contribution.

Self-presentation could be a predictor of loyalty as well. Loyalty is a major value in Saudi Arabia. Saudi culture is paternalistic; the term 'paternalism' emerges from the concept of fatherly protection in return for loyalty and compliance (Fleming, 2005). Leaders are expected to be loyal to the employees who are competent, experienced and responsible. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 5: self-presentation is positively related to job performance ratings.

Hypothesis 6: LMX- Affect (Hypothesis 6a), LMX- Loyalty (Hypothesis 6b), LMX- contribution (Hypothesis 6c), and LMX- professional respect (Hypothesis 6d) mediate the positive relationships between self-presentation with job performance ratings.

4.8.4 Exchange of benefits

Exchange tactics involve explicit or implicit offers by an agent to provide a favour or benefit to a target in return for doing what the agent requests, indicating willingness to reciprocate at a later time or promising to share the benefits if the target helps the agent do the task (Schriesheim and Hinkin, 1990; Falbe and Yukl, 1992). Exchange tactics involve an individual offering to exchange services with another for mutual benefit (Castro et al., 2003). Bargaining has been given a low rating (Bhatnagar, 1993).

Some studies consider exchange of benefits as a rational or as soft tactic, while others consider it a hard tactic (Farmer et al., 1997). Falbe and Yukl (1992) claim that it may not be appropriate to consider a tactic as a hard one except in the case where it is used in a very impersonal, manipulative way. Falbe and Yukl's (1992) study revealed that exchange was only a moderately effective tactic. Supervisors often expect subordinates to accomplish their requests without the promise that something will be provided in return; inferring that supervisors may react negatively to the use of exchange (Wayne et al., 1997). They may instead perceive the use of exchange of benefits as haggling (Rao et al., 1995). Wayne et al.'s (1997) study revealed that subordinates who used exchange tactics received lower interpersonal assessments from their supervisors.

In paternalistic and high power distance cultures, people emphasise values such as respect for authority, and subordinates reciprocate their manager's guidance and protection through loyalty, reverence and deference (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006; Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015). Thus, the exchange in such cultures is based on loyalty and deference and not on benefits. Exchange of benefits could decrease affect and level of respect between leader and follower because the leader is likely to perceive the use of exchange tactics as a form of haggling for favours (Rao et al., 1995). This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 7: Exchange of benefits is negatively related to job performance ratings.

Hypothesis 8: LMX- Affect (Hypothesis 8a), LMX- Loyalty (Hypothesis 8b), LMX- contribution (Hypothesis 8c), and LMX- professional respect (Hypothesis 8d) mediate the negative relationships between exchange of benefits with job performance ratings.

4.8.5 Coalition

Coalition is defined as an agent looking for help from or endorsement from others to persuade a target to do something, or using the support of others as the reason for the target to agree (Schriesheim and Hinkin, 1990; Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Castro et al., 2003). Coalitions are used most often as a follow-up tactic after the target has already resisted a direct influence attempt by the agent (Yukl and Falbe, 1992). Yukl et al.'s (1995) results revealed that coalition tactics were used most often to get support from superiors for major changes in policies or programmes. It is a socially undesirable and least effective form of influence behaviour (Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Yukl and Tracy, 1992). That said, the mobilisation of others is an uncommon upward influence tactics (Kipnis, 1984; Yukl and Falbe, 1990). Subordinates, who attempt to exert influence by mobilising others, are likely to be regarded as behaving unreasonably (Su, 2010). Consequently, supervisors can become resentful or angry with the subordinate for trying to coerce or manipulate them (Yukl and Tracey, 1992). Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) found that those who used the coalition tactic received the lowest performance ratings. Research has also shown that coalition was not significantly related to outcome success (Falbe and Yukl, 1992). This would suggest that coalition tends to be viewed negatively by supervisors, resulting in negative appraisals of performance.

Deluge and Perry (1991) claimed that using social pressure from co-workers to gain compliance from management is contrary to the essence of high LMX relationships where the focus is on trust and mutual support. Su (2010) established that hard tactics were associated strongly and negatively with the managers' levels of trust in the subordinate. Thus, the coalition tactic could decrease the levels of respect and loyalty that exist between the leader and the follower.

The use of harsh tactics (i.e. coalition) is expected to relate negatively to liking (affect) (Wayne et al., 1997; Su, 2010), consequently resulting in unfriendly feelings about the subordinate. Pressure tactics can undermine personal trust and positive affect (Yukl and Michel, 2006). This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 9: Coalition is negatively related to job performance ratings.

Hypothesis 10: LMX - Affect (Hypothesis 10a), LMX - Loyalty (Hypothesis 10b), and LMX - professional respect (Hypothesis 10c) mediate the negative relationships between coalition with job performance ratings.

4.8.6 Upward appeal

Upward appeal is defined as a behaviour that depends on seeking the approval/ acceptance of those at higher organisational levels in order to influence their managers (Kipnis et al., 1980; Schriesheim and Hinkin, 1990; Castro et al., 2003).

This tactic is often described as an upward appeal to the target's superior to pressure the target to comply with the agent's request (Yukl and Tracy, 1992). In this case, typically, the supervisor is likely to question the credibility of the subordinate such that unfavourable repercussions for the future of the relationship are likely (Yukl and Falbe, 1990). Therefore, as this tactic involves threats and exceeds or breaks the chain of command, subsequent performance evaluation will be low and career development may be impeded.

Wayne et al. (1997) and Su (2010) contended that the use of upward appeal tactic is expected to relate negatively to liking (affect), consequently resulting in unfriendly feelings about the subordinate. Hard tactics were associated negatively with the managers' levels of trust in the subordinate (Su, 2010). Using tactics like "going over the boss's head" is contrary to the principle of LMX relationships – i.e. trust and mutual support (Deluge and Perry, 1991). Arabs respect authority and leadership (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015) whereas this tactic breaks the chain of command (hierarchical relationship) between follower and leader. Thus this tactic weakens affect, loyalty, and professional respect between follower and leader. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 11: Upward appeal is negatively related to job performance ratings.

Hypothesis 12: LMX - Affect (Hypothesis 12a), LMX - Loyalty (Hypothesis 12b), and LMX - professional respect (Hypothesis 12c) mediate the negative relationships between upward appeal with job performance ratings.

4.8.7 Assertiveness/Pressure

Assertiveness includes behaviours such as confronting the manager, becoming a nuisance, verbally expressing anger, making demands and threats, frequent checking and repeated/persistent reminders in an attempt to influence a target to carry out a request (Schriesheim and Hinkin, 1990; Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Wayne et al., 1997). It involves forceful, angry or confrontational behaviours (Castro et al., 2003) and it is one of the least effective tactics across all cultures (Fu et al., 2001). It is considered socially undesirable and an inappropriate form of influence behaviour (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Yukl and Falbe, 1990; Yukl and Tracy, 1992). Pressure may elicit reluctant compliance from a target, but it is unlikely to result in commitment

except in the rare situation in which the target already has some prior reason to be committed to the agent's request or proposal (Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Yukl and Tracy, 1992). Research with critical incidents indicates that pressure is most often used as a follow-up tactic after an initial influence attempt has already failed (Yukl and Tracy, 1992).

Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) found managers who used assertiveness received the lowest performance ratings and lower salaries. Su (2010) reported that assertiveness was strongly and negatively associated with performance rating and level of trust. Yagil (2006) found that forceful tactics were negatively related to personal accomplishment. Schilit and Locke's (1982) study concluded that both targets and agents reported that pressure tactics were likely to be unsuccessful, while Su (2010) found that assertiveness was strongly and negatively associated with performance ratings. Higgins et al. (2003) also described how assertiveness had a moderately negative relationship with performance assessment. In addition, Thacker and Wayne (1995) found that a subordinate's use of assertiveness was negatively related to promotability. Rao et al. (1995) postulated that employing a direct and forceful influencing approach may be interpreted as confrontational by the targets.

Pressure tactics weaken personal trust and positive affect (Yukl and Michel, 2006). Engaging in face-to-face confrontations with superiors contradicts the essence of LMX (Deluge and Perry, 1991) and it undermines the managers' levels of trust in the subordinate (Su, 2010). Additionally, the assertiveness tactic has been found to be negatively related to affect (Wayne et al., 1997; Su, 2010). Using such tactics elicits resentment and negative affect in most people. In Saudi culture, Islamic teachings emphasise mutual respect and trust between follower and leader (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015), and The Quran frequently highlights the importance of leadership and of showing respect and obedience to one's leaders (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015). Assertiveness tactics are expected to undermine respect, affect, and loyalty between leader and follower in Saudi culture. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 13: Assertiveness is negatively related to job performance ratings.

Hypothesis 14: LMX - Affect (Hypothesis 14a), LMX- Loyalty (Hypothesis 14b), and LMX - professional respect (Hypothesis 14c) mediate the negative relationships between assertiveness with job performance ratings.

4.8.8 The relationships between LMX dimensions and job performance ratings

Many previous theoretical and empirical studies (e.g., Dansereau et al., 1975; Kim and Organ, 1982) have argued that subordinate performance is an important determinant of exchange

quality (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Several prior individual and meta-analytic studies provided evidence to argue that LMX positively relates to job performance ratings (Gerstner and Day, 1997; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang and Chen, 2005; Bauer, Erdogan, Liden and Wayne, 2006; Walumbwa, Cropanzano and Hartnell, 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2011; Duarte, Goodson, & Klich, 1994). Gerstner and Day (1997) in their meta-analytic review of the LMX literature, reported that LMX correlated .31 with supervisory ratings of employee performance, and .11 with objective measures of employee performance.

Maslyn and Uhl-Bien (2001) showed that different currencies of LMX are likely to predict a variety of professional outcomes in a variety of ways. LMX-affect was shown to independently affect employees' satisfaction (Bhal et al., 2009), task performance and job dedication (Wang et al., 2008), and commitment (Bhal and Ansari, 2007; Lo et al., 2010). LMX-loyalty was found to significantly influence commitment (Lo et al., 2010; Jing-Zhou and Wen-Xia, 2011). Research has shown that affect, professional respect and loyalty dimensions of LMX possess a negative relationship with turnover intention (Schyns and Paul, 2005).

In the field of social psychology, degree of mutual liking has been affirmed as a critical variable in the study of interpersonal interaction (Day & Crain, 1992). Deluga (1998) argued that interpersonal attraction (affect) helped to develop leader-member compatibility, and that the rapport encouraged more accurate perception of supervisor performance expectation which in turn helped to improve subordinate performance (Law et al., 2010). Loyalty involves a sense of faithfulness to the target that is stable and generally consistent across different situations (Law et al., 2010). Liden and Graen (1980) found that leaders were more likely to ask loyal members to take on tasks that required independent judgment and responsibility. That in turn, results in evaluating the subordinate favourably (Law et al., 2010). Research results showed that leaders and members might develop perceptions of professional respect even before working with or meeting the other dyadic member (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). It is a type of social support or affirmation to the leader, therefore, professional respect could improve subordinate performance. Finally, contribution is a work-related dimension of the multidimensional LMX measure. These work-oriented behaviours and/or performances are an important clue for the dyad to develop high quality relationship. Members who performed well impress the leader and receive resources and support (Law et al. 2010). Based on that, we hypothesize that the LMX- affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect related positively to job performance ratings.

Hypothesis 15: LMX - Affect (Hypothesis 15a), LMX- Loyalty (Hypothesis 15b), LMX- contribution (Hypothesis 15c), and LMX - professional respect (Hypothesis 15d) related positively to job performance ratings.

(ii) Mixed findings

4.8.9 The role of gender similarity

Another topic which was not addressed clearly in the literature relating to upward influence, and which the researcher believes it can potentially make a significant contribution in advancing the theory, concerns gender similarity.

Given that similarity concerns the actual or perceived likeness between two individuals (Lefkowitz, 2000), and that liking and perceived similarity are highly correlated (Byrne, 1971; Liden et al., 1993), examining similarity between individuals in the workplace has been considered critical for understanding behaviour at work (Schneider, 1987). Research in social and cognitive psychology provides evidence for a strong link between similarity and affective relationships (Bhal et al., 2006). Turban and Jones (1988) found that subordinates who saw themselves as similar to the supervisor communicated more with the supervisor and were, in turn, rated as better performers by the supervisor (Turban et al., 1990).

In the context of LMX, recent research has suggested that demographic characteristics (such as gender, age, tenure) can play an important role in the quality of leader-member exchanges (LMX) (Epitropaki and Martin, 1999). Some studies have explored the impact of gender and demographic similarity on the quality of exchange (Bhal et al., 2007). Gender similarity is one of the antecedents of LMX (Nahrgang and Seo, 2015). According to Gerstner and Day (1997), simple demographic factors may not predict leader-member exchange but relational demography—the extent to which the individuals are similar – may (Bhal et al., 2007). Relational demography relies on the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) for its theoretical foundation (Wayne and Liden, 1995). According to this theory, individuals who possess similar individual characteristics and attitudes will perceive one another as similar and will be attracted to each other (Wayne and Liden, 1995). In developing the “similarity attraction paradigm”, Byrne (1971) argued that people like people who are similar to them more than they like people who are different. This paradigm suggests that individuals who share certain characteristics in common elicit positive responses in one another and hence form positive relationships (Varma and Stroh, 2001). Demographic similarity between supervisor and subordinate has been found to be positively related to a supervisor's liking of a subordinate (Wayne and Liden, 1995). In support of this, gender dissimilarity is shown to lead to poor quality of exchange (Green, et al., 1996). Green et al. (1996) found gender differences to have a significant effect on LMX, showing that LMX was of lower quality when the leader and the subordinate were of different genders (Epitropaki and Martin, 1999).

Several studies (Engle and Lord, 1997; Deluga, 1998; Phillips and Bedeian, 1994) have empirically supported the argument for impact of similarity in key dimensions of the quality of the relationship between individuals. Both Turban and Jones (1998) and Wayne, Shore, and Liden (1997), for example, report that demographic similarity (e.g., gender) impacts significantly on the perception of similarity and thus on the “liking” the supervisor develops for the subordinate (Varma and Stroh, 2001). Most of the research on the impact of liking on LMX relationships claims that gender is a predictor of affect, and subsequently of being selected for the in-group (leader-member exchange) (Varma and Stroh, 2001). The result, in terms of leader-follower relations, is that supervisors perceive themselves to be more similar to subordinates whose demographic profiles resemble their own and tend to include demographically similar subordinates in their in-groups more than they include other subordinates (Varma and Stroh, 2001). Women may like working with and for women better, and men may prefer working with and for men, in large part because of the greater ease of communicating and of understanding each other’s communication styles. Studies have shown that men and women are shown to use different sets of information to develop trust in others (Johnson and Swap, 1982); similarity probably allows two individuals with the same gender to anticipate each other (Meglino et al., 1991) and this behavioural predictability might increase the ease and quality of their interactions (Bhal et al., 2007). Similar people use a common communication system (Schein, 1985) and interpret the events in similar ways (Bhal et al., 2007). Similarity thus provides opportunity for initiating an interaction and because of the ease of communication and similarity in perceptions it leads to better quality of exchange in a leader-member dyad (Tsui and O’Reilly, 1989; Bhal et al., 2007).

Although the researcher have argued that the relationships between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings are mediated by LMX, the researcher expected the strength of these relationships to differ across leaders and followers who have the same gender or different gender. The researcher thinks that the indirect effect of LMX for upward influence tactics – job performance ratings would be strengthened by gender similarity between leader and follower and weakened by difference in gender.

Hypothesis 16: Gender similarity will moderate the strength of the mediated relationships between ingratiation (Hypothesis 16a), self-presentation (Hypothesis 16b), rational persuasion (Hypothesis 16c), upward appeal (Hypothesis 16d), coalition (Hypothesis 16e), exchange of benefits (Hypothesis 16f), and assertiveness (Hypothesis 16g), with job performance ratings via LMX dimensions (Affect, Loyalty, Professional respect, and contribution), such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when the leader’s gender differs from the follower’s gender.

4.8.10 The issue of non-linearity

Another issue to be addressed is found in the literature regarding the relationships between upward influence tactics and work outcomes. Although all the studies assumed these relationships to be linear, this study argues that some of these relationships could be **non-linear** in some instances. This came as a response to the call of Ferris and Judge (1990) for the need to address the possibility of curvilinear relationships between upward influence tactics and work outcomes. The argument is based on the mixed findings that have been found in the literature (see Figures 3, 4 and 5) and is based on the pattern of influence that some studies (i.e. Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Yukl et al., 1993) addressed. Researchers found some influence tactics could have a different effect if the agent continues to use them more frequently. For example, ingratiation was more effective when used as part of a long-term strategy to influence the leader (Yukl et al., 1993). Even though employees who used upward influence tactics could be met with initial resistance in attempts to achieve work-related outcomes, they keep using them (Maslyn et al., 1996).

Since influence tactics were initially developed by Kipnis et al. (1980), a number of researchers have grouped influence tactics into three mega-categories, calling these influence strategies (Falbe and Yukl, 1992; Farmer et al., 1997; Botero et al., 2012). The aim is to identify whether tactics in particular categories share similar characteristics or patterns of relationships. These influence strategies have the most mixed results (see Figure 3, 4 and 5) with all outcomes. The tactics of assertiveness, upward appeal and coalition, are generally categorised as hard tactics. It is of interest that when examined together as a group of influence tactics, hard tactics have been found to show results contradictory to those obtained typically for the individual tactics. For example, while just assertiveness has been found to have negative relationships with LMX, a positive relationship has been found when examining these hard tactics together (e.g. Deluga and Perry, 1991; Botero, 2012). This raises the possibility that although at low levels this tactic might initially has negative effect that either when combined with the other two tactics or if there is a higher use of this tactic, this can result in positive effects. This might be explained by the increasing pressure brought to bear on the supervisor by the employee's use of these hard tactics, specifically as a result of the increasing use of power and political skill exercised by the employee (Terpstra and Ralston, 2002). Power is thus defined as: "...the potential ability to influence behaviour, to change, to overcome resistance, and to get people to do things" (Pfeffer, 1992: 45). Power and influence can accrue as a result of upward influence attempts (Elias, 2008) and writers acknowledge that employees are motivated to exercise power in organisations (Hollander and Offermann, 1990). This suggests the possibility that a non-linear relationship might exist between these hard influence tactics and job performance ratings. Although initially negative relationships

would be expected, a positive relationship would result when these tactics are used with greater frequency by an employee. The researcher therefore suggests:

Hypothesis 17: There is a non-linear relationship between assertiveness (17a), upward appeal (17b) and coalition (17c) and job performance ratings such that there is a negative relationship at lower levels of use but this relationship becomes positive at higher levels of use.

Some writers have classified self-presentation as a hard tactic (i.e. Arif et al., 2011). This tactic describes when an employee draws the attention of their supervisor to their capabilities, accomplishments and achievements (Jones and Pittman, 1982; Godfrey, Jones and Lord, 1986). Studies have reported use of this influence tactic to have mixed results. For example, in relation to job interview evaluations, positive (Stevens and Kristof, 1995; Rudman, 1998;), no effects (Higgins et al., 2003; Higgins and Judge, 2004) as well as negative effects (Judge and Bretz, 1994; Gordon, 1996) have been found. Recently Fragale and Grant (2015) have suggested that the effects of self-presentation might be explained through a functionalist perspective of status conferral. They contended that individuals in groups and organisations best able to assist in achieving collective goals are those often granted higher status. Individuals who self-present point out how competent they are, and are therefore perceived as important to the group for achieving its tasks. Consequently, status is conferred through high-value signals such as positive job evaluations as well as financial rewards (Fragale, 2006; Abele and Wojciszke, 2007). However in addition to appearing competent, status conferral also depends on the extent to which individuals appear as willing to put the group's needs before their own and be altruistic (Fragale, 2006). Individuals are therefore also judged on how 'communal' they appear. In this respect, the use of self-presentation is also thought to have negative effects. It is suggested that self-presenters are perceived as arrogant and disliked due to negative attributions arising from their disregard for social norms of modesty (Godfrey et al., 1986). Cialdini and DeNicholas (1989: 626) wrote, "If there is an overarching lesson to be learned from the large body of work on impression management, it is that favorable self-presentation is a tricky business" (Cited in Wayne and Liden, 1995).

Within Saudi's paternalistic Arab culture, the use of networks and contacts to obtain employment and promotion often through familial or tribal relationships is recognised as commonplace (Bhuian, 1998; Alruwaileh, 2014). Researcher suggests that individuals would be far more accepting of the use of self-presentation as a means to achieve one's goals initially. Consequently, any negative effects arising from the use of this tactic are likely to occur at higher rather than lower levels of use. That could be consistent with other research which identified differential effects for self-presentation depending on whether it was indirect (referring to one's connections

in an attempt to promote oneself) and direct (referring to one's own capabilities) (Cialdini and Richardson, 1980; Finch and Cialdini, 1989). This may suggest different effect reflect the use of different forms of self-presentation by employees. Tal-Or (2010) found that those using indirect tactics were perceived as more manipulative than those using direct tactics of self-presentation. Therefore researcher suggests the following:

Hypothesis 18: There is a non-linear relationship between self-presentation and job performance ratings such that there is a positive relationship at lower levels of tactic use but negative effects at higher levels of use.

4.8.11 The differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of followers upward influence tactics and test their relationships with job performance ratings.

Another gap has been found in the literature concerning the differences between the agent and target in their reporting of the use of upward influence tactics and their relationships with job performance ratings. Five studies in the upward influence literature have used both agent and target sources to collect their data. There is strong research evidence (e.g., Schilit and Locke, 1982; Erez et al., 1986; Thacker and Wayne, 1995) that supervisors and subordinates differ in their perceptions about upward influence tactics. Studies that used a subordinate sample to measure upward influence tactics have different results than studies that used supervisors to measure subordinates' use of upward influence tactics (Ferris et al., 1990). That could also explain some of the variation or mixed results that have been found in the literature. Studies of upward influence tactics have spanned nearly three decades, starting around 1980 by Kipnis and colleagues, to date. Most of these past studies tended to rely on measuring perceptions of upward influence tactics solely from the subordinate's perspective. Nonetheless, a number of experts measured the upward influence tactics from both supervisors' and subordinates' perspectives (e.g., Schilit and Locke, 1982; Erez, Rim and Keider, 1986; Dockery and Steiner, 1990; Thacker and Wayne, 1995). The differences of the results could be due to self-report measures which increases the potential for social desirability bias. This is particularly the case if the research has been based on sensitive topics where people tend to respond in ways that maintain a socially positive self-image (Yukl et al., 1996).

Since there are differences in the use of upward influence tactics in perceptions of use by supervisors and subordinates and no studies addressed the differences, the purpose of this section is to investigate the differences between subordinates' and supervisors' perceptions of upward influence tactics relationships with job performance ratings across two samples (leaders

and followers) in the Saudi context. The importance of knowing whether supervisors and subordinates report of the use of the upward influence tactics similarly or differently is emphasised.

Hypothesis 19: There will be differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of followers upward influence tactics and their relationships with job performance ratings.

(iii) Generalisability

4.8.12 Generalisability of influence tactics to a Saudi culture

Most of the empirical research on influence tactics literature has been conducted in Western cultures and this research has provided some evidence that upward influence behaviours may be related to the cultural dimensions of power distance and individualism/collectivism. There is a need to test these tactics and their outcomes in different cultures. This is particularly pertinent in this age of multicultural, global organisations (Schermerhorn Jr. and Bond, 1991; Ralston et al., 1993, 1995; Terpstra and Ralston, 2002; Yukl et al., 2003; Botero et al., 2012). Given that, no studies have been conducted in Arab and Middle Eastern countries (except for Turkey), this thesis aims to determine whether upward influence tactics are used in a similar fashion in Saudi culture. The role of culture in choice and effectiveness of influence tactics (Ferris et al., 2002) has been suggested, thus leading to calls for additional cross-cultural research examining influence behaviours (Furst and Cable, 2008). Cross-cultural studies of influence tactics (e.g., Schermerhorn and Bond, 1991; Fu et al., 2004) have found that cultural values are associated with differences in preferences for the use of particular influence tactics across cultures. National cultures can be assessed along Hofstede's (1980) four dimensions. In terms of uncertainty avoidance, Saudi Arabian culture is classified as being high on uncertainty avoidance. It is considered a very religious culture and therefore religion is a source of perceived security. This culture has many precise laws for regulating behaviour (Hofstede, 1994). Employees in such a culture would be expected to rely on the use of facts, evidence and logical arguments to influence their superiors (i.e. rationality). In terms of power distance, Saudi society is characterised by a hierarchal authority system which could infer that regulations are contingent on the personality and power of individuals at the top of the hierarchy (Hofstede, 1994). For example, supervisors in Saudi Arabia make decisions both autocratically and paternalistically (Bhuiyan, 1998). In a high power distance culture like Saudi Arabia, the researcher argues that hard tactics such as assertiveness, coalition, and upward appeal are less likely to be employed because they pose a challenge to authority and to a supervisor's power (Su, 2010). The researcher therefore proposes that:

Hypothesis 20: Employees use the upward influence tactic of rational persuasion more than Assertiveness, Coalition, and Upward Appeal tactics in Saudi culture.

Saudi Arabia is considered a collectivistic culture where relationships are very influential with family and friends, and people are born into extended families or other groups (tribes) which continue to protect them in exchange for loyalty (Hofstede, 1980; 1994). In such cultures, supervisors are more likely to establish and focus on relationships with others, and these relationships serve as the basis for influencing others. Fu et al. (2004) found that supervisors in collectivistic cultures rated the relationship-based influence strategy (i.e. exchange of benefits) as more effective. The researcher believes that this case differs in Saudi Arabia; here the argument is that the exchange will be grounded on unquestioning loyalty. Saudi culture is a tribal society (Kelidar, 1978), where the tribe is the source of security and pride and gives its members a deeply rooted sense of belonging. This extends to the work environment, so it is not expected that employees will seek to influence others through relying on the exchange of benefits. While harmony and consensus in collectivist societies are the ultimate goals, it follows that the presence of a mutual relationship of friendliness and liking between a supervisor and an employee should create harmony. Researcher argues that this is likely to be achieved by ingratiation. A number of studies have shown that ingratiation is associated with recipient liking (Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Wayne et al., 1997). In paternalistic cultures, people in authority assume the role of parents and consider it an obligation to provide protection to others under their care, with the subordinates showing loyalty, deference, and compliance in return (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006). In addition, cultures with high power differences, organisations (and society) maintain inequality among members by stratifying individuals with respect to power, prestige, status, wealth, and authority (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006). It follows then, that in such cultures, an employee will be more likely to highlight their self-image and seek to ingratiate themselves with their supervisors by showing the ability to compete - i.e. self-presentation. Researcher therefore proposes the following:

Hypothesis 21: Employees use the upward influence tactics of Ingratiation and self-presentation more than Exchange of Benefits tactic in Saudi culture.

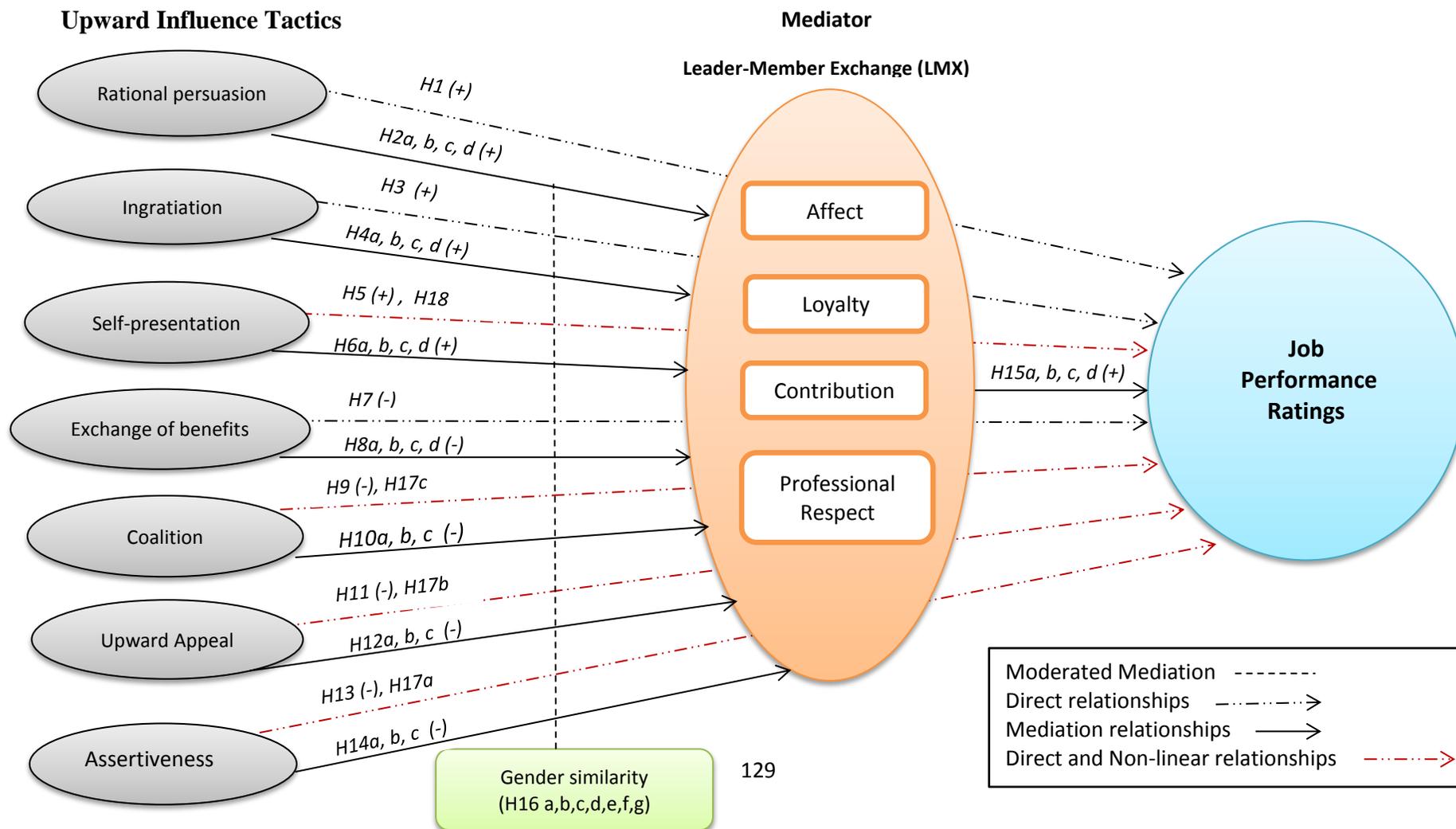
4.9 Conclusion:

This chapter is based on previous research on upward influence tactics and has sought to highlight some key areas of interest. The chapter has traced the early work in the field, highlighted key

insights from the research to date in areas of influence tactic typologies, measures, influence tactics and their objectives and goals. It has also identified the outcome of the use of influence tactics and the factors that appear to mediate and moderate influence tactics and has then provided and discussed the key findings of the literature. This chapter concluded by stating the gaps of the literature and addressing the hypothesis of this study. Finally, a research model of the relationships between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings, as conceptualised by this study, is presented in Figure 7 below.

4.10 Research Model

Figure-7 The proposed research model of the relationships between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings as conceptualised by this study.



Chapter 5: METHODOLOGY

5.1 Introduction

Research methodology provides reasons for using a particular research approach (Clough and Nutbrown, 2012). The first step in determining the research methodology is to provide a specification of the research purpose and philosophy that explain the reasoning behind the adopted approach. This chapter presents the research philosophy on which the present study was based in terms of the research paradigm. Moreover, it will go through the quantitative approach and the reasons why the quantitative approach was adopted in this study. Additionally, this chapter covers in detail a description of the sampling procedures and how the data is accessed and collected. This is followed by measurements, ethics, and data analysis techniques.

5.2 Research Purpose and Philosophy

This section discusses the research design including the research philosophy and research methodology that was considered suitable for this research. Each research is aimed to fill in an existing gap in the literature and to contribute to the existing body of knowledge (Hallebone and Priest, 2009). This can be done in different ways such as by scientifically identifying and investigating relationship between different variables (Punch, 2009).

Research can be mainly categorised based on its purpose under the following three categories: exploratory, descriptive and explanatory (Yin, 2013; Anderson, 2008). It is possible for a research to solve more than one purpose (Robson, 2002). Exploratory research is useful when clarification of some complex issue is required and in cases where there are few or no similar previous studies. It merely improves our knowledge about something which has lacked clarity (Hallebone and Priest, 2009). Descriptive research is used to describe the facts so in order to work towards finding a solution to the problem (Punch, 2009). It is "to portray an accurate profile of persons, events or situation" (Robson 2002:59). Explanatory research is useful in identifying causal relationship between variables (Saunders et al., 2011; Yin, 2013, Punch, 2009). Thus explanatory research will begin with a hypothesis regarding the relationship between the variables. Relating this discussion to this research, this thesis is both descriptive and explanatory in nature. It is describing the relationship between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. In addition, it is explaining the mediating role of LMX dimensions, the moderating role of gender similarities and

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explaining the possibilities of non-linear relationships. Moreover, it is describing the differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of upward influence tactics and describing the use of the tactics in Saudi culture.

The theoretical paradigm (the philosophy) of any research offers the underlying foundation that is the basis of the particular scientific investigation (Krauss, 2005). The term "paradigm" refers to "the progress of scientific practice based on people's philosophies and assumptions about the world and the nature of knowledge" (Collis and Hussey, 2003, p.46); it is about the nature of the relationship between theory and empirical data. There are two broad research paradigms; 'positivism' and 'interpretivism' (Krauss, 2005). Interpretativism paradigm is based on the phenomenological hypothesis that the essence of the object is multiple and cannot be attained or does not exist and accordingly there is dependence of the subject (the observer) and object (reality) (Girod-Séville and Perret, 2001). Positivism is based on the ontological hypothesis that the knowledge object has its own essence and also on the independence of subject and object (Girod-Séville and Perret, 2001). Positivism paradigm is a position where the goal of knowledge is to describe the phenomena that we experience, its foundation is empiricism, the idea that observation and measurement is the core of scientific endeavour (Sachdeva, 2009). Positivism assumes that "science quantitatively measures independent facts about a single reality" (Bryman, 2002, p.11), and this is the paradigm which forms the basis of this thesis. The aim was "to develop valid and reliable ways of collecting 'facts' about the research population, which can then be statistically analysed in order to produce explanations about how social world operates" (Gilbert, 2001, p. 32).

This research is aimed at studying upward influence tactics and job performance ratings and the quality of the relationship between leaders and followers. This will be done by using correlating variables using valid and reliable data in order to achieve generalizable conclusions. Researchers can use either of the two research approaches to test and generalise data- deduction and induction. Deduction is used when theory is to be tested and induction is generally used for formulation of a new theory (Gill et al., 2010). This research utilises the deductive approach. It tests a theory using empirical investigation (Bryman, 2004).

Therefore, the methodological approach of this study is descriptive and explanatory; it is following the deductive approach. The deductive approach involves the development of a conceptual and theoretical structure prior to its testing through empirical observation of the facts through data collection, it clearly specifies what is involved in the development of 'scientific knowledge' (Gill et al., 2010). "With deduction a theory and hypotheses are developed and a research strategy designed to test the hypothesis" (Saunders et al., 2011: 129). The research philosophy adopted in

this research is based on positivistic principles. Hence the data and variables involved in the research are critical in determining the statistical tests to be used. The research investigated the upward influence tactics and roles of LMX in that influence process. The study employed survey-based questionnaire to assess a proposed research model for understanding mediator, moderator and consequences of upward influence tactics in Saudi Arabia.

5.3 Justification of the Relevance of the Quantitative Approach

This section discusses the justification of adopting quantitative method. Quantitative methods are considered in line with positivist epistemology and deductive approach. In this research, researcher carried out a comprehensive review of the existing literature and this review resulted in several hypotheses. Based on these hypotheses a conceptual framework was formed which was presented at the end of the literature review section. This research examine the relationship between independent, dependent, mediator and moderator variables. The mediator is a variable that accounts for all or part of the relationship between an independent and a dependent variable because the mediator intervenes in the causal pathway from the predictor variable to the outcome variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986). A mediator establishes “how” or “why” upward influence tactics predicts or causes a specific outcome, while the moderator address “when” or “for whom” upward influence tactics most strongly predicts an outcome variable.

Quantitative research conceptualized as having a logical structure where theories determine the problems to which researchers address themselves in the form of hypotheses-derived general theories (Bryman, 1988). Within the quantitative approach, the use of survey-based questionnaire to collect the required data is dominant in the field of upward influence tactics and Leader-member exchange (LMX). In this field of investigation, the majority of the researchers have applied a positivist deductive approach aiming to describe and explain upward influence tactics in different contexts under different circumstances (see chapter four). Most of the studies in the field use surveys as analysis techniques (See table 3). The vast majority of leadership researchers have regularly used quantitative approaches, because quantitative methods can be used to test leadership theories; leadership domain is quantitative in nature (Antonakis et al., 2004). Thus the current study has followed this standard pattern by adopting the quantitative approach, as this research is based mainly on positivist principles and builds on existing upward influence tactics literature and therefore the use of a survey-based questionnaire is appropriate.

5.4 Data collection method

A survey strategy is one of the most appropriate strategies to test the hypotheses due to its structured format (Tharenou et al., 2007). Quantitative research and questionnaires generally focused on establishing causal relationships between the concepts of the study. That helps the researcher to establish whether there are associations among numerous variables that are reflected in the questionnaire (Davis, 1985). The reason for using this was to reflect employees' and leaders' attitudes and opinions related to upward influence tactics, Leader-member exchange quality (LMX), and job performance ratings and the relationships among these variables .

Surveys are usually associated with the deductive approach. It is a popular strategy in business and management research to answer questions like who, what, where, how much and how many. It therefore tends to be used for explanatory and descriptive research or "descriptive-explanatory studies" (Saunders et al., 2011). Surveys - questionnaires - have many advantages (Collis and Hussey, 2013; Saunders et al., 2011; Zikmund, 2003; De Vaus, 2002; Fink, 1995); (1) quick, (2) accurate means of assessing information about the population, (3) efficient allowing collection of a large amount of data from the population from which to generate findings at a low cost, (4) inexpensive compared to telephone surveys or personal interviews, (5) useful in gathering information to describe, compare, explain knowledge, attitudes, and behaviours, (6) allows the collection of quantitative data which are standardised and highly structured, can easily be analysed using descriptive and inferential statistics and allow for comparisons, (7) data can be used to suggest possible reasons for particular variables' relationships and to produce models of these relationships, (8) this approach avoids interview bias, and (9) convenient for participants as they can answer the questionnaire whenever they have time.

The disadvantages of surveys include non-response bias, the quality of responses, response rate and questionnaire fatigue (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Saunders et al., 2011). Researcher tried to overcome some of these limitations; to maximise response rates for this study, the researcher highlighted the confidentiality of respondents and followed up respondents regularly with emails, in person and with phone calls.

5.5 Research Procedure

As this study was conducted in Saudi Arabia, Riyadh was chosen as it is the capital city and as it is where most of the head offices of ministries and big institutions are located. Giving that organizations in Saudi Arabia are divided to three major subgroups of public sector, private sector,

and non-profit sector, stratified random sampling has been used. Stratified sampling is a classical survey sampling technique, which is used to estimate population parameters efficiently when there is substantial variability between subpopulations (Cochran 1977; Neyman 1934). It involves partitioning a population into disjoint strata, by grouping elements having similar values of one or more stratification variables (Podgurski et al. 1999). A stratified random sample is constructed by selecting a probability sample from each stratum independently (Podgurski et al. 1999). Therefore, random organizations from each subgroup –strata- were selected via stratified sampling. A total of 67 Saudi organizations were approached, those organizations represent (23 public, 36 private, 8 non-profit). The data were selected from all the three strata to make the sample representative for all different Saudi sectors.

In Saudi Arabia, there are twenty three ministries. All these 23 public ministries were contacted, seven ministries agreed to participate (2 of them nominate other representative; Ministry of Health nominated 4 hospitals to participate, and Ministry of Education nominated 2 academic institutions). Regarding the private sector in Riyadh as it is a huge sector (more than 300,000 organizations); Researcher used stratified random sampling. Stratified random sampling is a modification of random sampling in which researcher divide the population into two or more relevant and significant strata based on one or a number of attributes (Saunders et al., 2011). Six organizations were selected from each major industry -strata- ; financial, health, insurance, retail firms, telecommunication & technology, and consultations services. Thirty six organizations were approached, 16 organizations of them agreed to participate. Finally, in term of the non-profit sector, the ministry of social affair - which is responsible about all the non-profit bodies in Saudi - was approached; they nominated 8 charities, 2 of them agreed to participate.

Permission and agreement were obtained from Human Resources Management departments after explaining the objectives of the research. Cooperation has been obtained to conduct the survey among the organizations staff in the 31 organizations. They comprised 13 from the public sector (4 hospitals, 7 ministries, 2 academic institutions), 16 from the private sector (6 banks, 3 hospitals, 1 insurance company, 3 big retail firms, 1 consulting firm, 2 telecommunication and technology companies) and 2 non-profit organizations (See Appendix 18 for the organizations involved in this study).

Regarding the research technique; initially, the survey was an on-line survey but some organizations did not respond to this type of presentation so the researcher provided paper copies to those organizations (17 organizations used the on-line survey, 12 used hard copies, and 2 organizations used both because the response rate was low in the on-line survey, hard copies were provided).

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To clarify, in cooperation with the human resources departments, departmental heads were invited to a scheduled meeting, where the goals of the study were explained to them. Those who attended the meeting were given an online link to fill the on-line survey questionnaires (i.e. www.surveymonkey.com/s/BHR9ZQL) or the paper one if they preferred. Those who were selected as immediate followers for each leader (have been chosen randomly by the human resource department) were also invited to a scheduled meeting. The goals of the study were explained to them and they were also provided with an online link to fill the on-line survey questionnaires (i.e. www.surveymonkey.com/s/BHSQMYV) or the paper one if they preferred.

As this research involves dyad respondents (follower and manager), two questionnaires were prepared for each respondent of the dyad. To ensure that each dyad consists of a correct pair consisting of a leader and a follower supervised by them, identification numbers (codes) were given to both leaders and followers to match each leader with his/her employee. For example, the code for the leader questionnaire is marked as KSU01L, while the code for follower is KSU01F (The first three letters means the name of the organization – in this example King Saud University- then the number then L for leaders and F for followers). The questionnaires included instructions explaining the goals of the study, the confidentiality of their response and would not be exposed to any parties other than for academic research purposes, their rights, and contained statements which explained that their participation was voluntary. Each leader questionnaire has been emailed contained an instruction about the name of his/her employee which read: you will fill the questionnaire about your relationship with him/her, and his/her performance.

To order not to bias the results, supervisors were not allowed to review (evaluate) more than one subordinate; a leader might assess one follower in relation to the other and compare them rather evaluating them individually, which could affect the accuracy and credibility of the results.

As the questionnaires of this study are English, the back-translation method was used. Consistent with the suggested procedures by Brislin (1970), a bilingual individual made the initial translation from English to Arabic. A different bilingual person retranslated the questionnaire back into English. Finally, a third bilingual person checked the back-translated version and the original English to ensure equivalence. Comparisons were made between the two versions and any inconsistencies were modified and resolved.

Participants need to be contacted regularly in order to increase the response rate in survey research (Rodeghier, 1996). Therefore, emails were sent to guarantee that leaders and followers had received the survey questionnaires. This has been done a week after the questionnaires were sent. Two weeks after the first mailing, a reminder email, together with the link of the questionnaires, was sent to those who had not replied. A week after the second mailing, a further

follow-up was made in person, by sending emails, and making telephone calls. The collecting data process taken place in Riyadh the capital of Saudi Arabia, from beginning of January 2014 and completed in the end of March 2014.

5.6 Sample

The sample was chosen to be representative of the population under consideration for statistical purposes (Collis and Hussey, 2009). The data were collected from 924 Saudi male and female followers and leaders from various types of organizations in Saudi Arabia covering the, public, private and non-profit sectors. 1360 persons were targeted (680 pairs); 680 employees and 680 leaders. Out of the total 1360, 446 leaders and 478 followers completed the survey giving a response rate of 68%. When the matching process (by the identification numbers - codes) between leaders and their followers was carried out, the final sample constituted 389 pairs. This was because either the leader completed the survey and the employee did not or the opposite or most of the questions were left unanswered as well as some of the respondents (47 leaders and 85 followers) entered wrong (unknown) codes. Table below shows the demographic data for followers and leaders:

Table-4 illustrates the demographic data for the participants divided up into employees and their leaders. It can be seen from the table that the followers (478 followers) are more than leaders (446 leaders). The majority of leaders were male 58.5% while female was 41.5%. 54.4% of the leaders respondents were aged between 32 to 43 years old, while the minimum number represented were leaders aged 20 to 25 years old, 1.6% of the respondents. 62.1% of the leaders were working for the public sector while 2.5% work for the non-profit sector. In addition, 46.9% of the leaders' respondents have Bachelor's degrees, while the least have high school, 5.8%. 56.2% of these leaders had been working with their organizations for more than 7 years. On the other hand, 49.6% of the employees were female while 49.2% were male. 63.2% of the employee age ranged from 26 to 37 years old while the least number represented was employee aged 50 years or over, with 2.9%. In addition, 59.8% of the respondents have Bachelor's degrees, while the least number represented being employees with educational qualifications a diploma, with 11.9%. 61.5% of them are working in the public sectors, 54.2% of them had an experience in their organizations from 1-6 years. Moreover, 46.9% of them were supervised by their leader up to 2 years.

This study utilized a mixed sample from public, private, and non-profit sectors. While the public sector represented about 63.7% of the total sample, the private sector represented 34.7% (see

Appendix 18). Managers and employees from educational and health segments represented the majority of the public sector sample.

Table- 4: Sample demographic data

Demographic features		Followers		Leaders	
		Frequencies	Percentage	Frequencies	Percentage
Age	20-25	62	13.0	7	1.6
	26-31	182	38.1	73	16.4
	32-37	120	25.1	138	30.9
	38-43	58	12.1	105	23.5
	44-49	30	6.3	67	15.0
	50+	14	2.9	43	9.6
	Missing	12	2.5	13	2.9
	Total	478	100	446	100.0
Level of education	High School	58	12.1	26	5.8
	Diploma	57	11.9	37	8.3
	Bachelor's	286	59.8	209	46.9
	Higher education	71	14.9	158	35.4
	Missing	6	1.3	16	3.6
	Total	478	100	446	100.0
Organization type	Public	294	61.5	277	62.1
	Private	163	34.1	149	33.4
	Non-profit	18	3.8	11	2.5
	Missing	3	.6	9	2.0
	Total	478	100	446	100.0
Gender	Female	235	49.6	185	41.5
	Male	235	49.2	261	58.5
	Missing	6	1.3	-	-
	Total	478	100	446	100.0
Years of experiences	Less than a year	38	7.9	9	2.0
	1-3 years	153	32.0	62	13.9
	4-6 years	106	22.2	90	20.2
	7-9 years	56	11.7	67	15.0
	10-12 years	36	7.5	47	10.5
	13 years & more	82	17.2	159	33.7
	Missing	7	1.5	12	2.7
	Total	478	100	446	100.0
years of being supervised by your manager	Less than a year	107	22.4		
	1-2 years	203	42.5		
	3-4 years	92	19.2		
	5-6 years	28	5.9		
	7-8 years	16	3.3		
	9 years & more	18	3.8		
	Missing	14	2.9		
	Total	478	100		

5.7 Measures

Three measures were used in this study to meet the research objectives (See Appendix 17 for English and Arabic surveys).

A. Leaders and Followers scales

Follower Upward Influence Tactics: Schriesheim and Hinkin's (1990) POIS scale (see appendix- 12) was used to measure follower upward influence tactics. It consists of 18 items describing 6 influence tactics. One further tactic was added to the model called showing expertise/ self-presentation with 4 items describing it from Ansari et al. (2007). These items were: Influence him/her because of my competence; Make him/her believe that I am a very responsible person; tell him/her that I have a lot of experience with such matters and Highlight my achievements to him/her. Respondents were asked how frequently they used each tactic with their superior in the last 6 months. A 5-point Likert rating scale was used, ranging from 1= never use this tactic to influence him/her to 5= usually use this tactic to influence him/her. This scale has been used in Saudi culture previously and has strong validity and reliability (.90 Cronbach's alpha) after being translated into the Arabic language (Alshenaifi, 2007). Researcher also followed the procedure recommended by Yukl & Tracy (1992) and Falbe & Yukl (1992) in collecting data on followers' use of influence tactics from their immediate leaders. This was to avoid problems associated with social desirability bias previously found to affect self-report measures of influence tactics. The same measure has been used by asking the leaders about how frequently the employee used each tactic with him/her.

B. Followers scale

Leader-member exchange (LMX): Liden and Maslyn's (1998) multi-dimensional model of leader-member exchange (LMX-MDM) scale (see appendix- 3), comprising 12 items, was used to measure the quality of the relationship between respondents and their superiors. The LMX-MDM scale incorporates the dimensions of affect, loyalty, contribution and professional respect, with each dimension consisting of three items. The measure was assessed on a 7-point rating scale, ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

C. Leaders scale

Followers Job Performance ratings: leaders evaluated their follower's performance using the 7-item in-role performance scale (Williams and Anderson, 1991) (See appendix-20). This was rated using a 5-point scale, ranging from 1= strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree.

D. Gender similarities

Leaders and followers participants have been asked about their gender.

E. Control Variables

Control variables comprised age, education level, length of the relationship with the leader. Researcher controls for these variables because some of them may be significantly related to the performance rating as has been proved in various studies (e.g. Ng and Feldman, 2008; Quiñones et al., 1995).

5.8 Reliability

Table 5 below shows the reliability coefficient of leaders' and followers' measures.

Table- 5: Measures reliability

Measure	Items	Factors	Leaders	Employees
Upward Influence Tactics	22	7	$\alpha = .84$	$\alpha = .86$
Ingratiation			.78	.76
Rational			.82	.79
Exchange of benefits			.73	.77
Upward appeal			.92	.87
Coalition			.83	.81
Assertiveness			.65	.71
Self-presentation			.79	.78
LMX	12	4	-	$\alpha = .92$
Affect				.91
Loyalty				.86
Contribution				.60
Professional respect				.93
Employee performance	7		$\alpha = .84$	-

The above table shows the results of reliability test. These results indicated that all the scale items of the employees' questionnaire maintained clear consistent structure. The 12 items of the Leader-member exchange scale showed adequate reliability, Cronbach's alpha was .92. The 22 items of the follower upward influence tactics scale's Cronbach's alpha were between .71 and .87. As regards the LMX-contribution value of .60, it is important to note that some scholars such as Nunnally (1978) regarded a Cronbach's alpha between the minimum of .5 to the desired .7 and .8 (Field, 2013) as accepted reliable measures.

The scale items of the leaders' questionnaire maintained clear consistent structure in term of the 22 items of the follower upward influence tactics scale's cronbach's alpha were between .65 and .92. The 7 items of the employee performance scale cronbach's alpha was .84. Considering the issue of reliability in assertiveness (.65), other studies (Farmer et al., 1997; Kipnis and Schmidt,

1988; Kipnis et al., 1980) provided supportive evidence that assertiveness tactic has been used with lower reliabilities (i.e. .64).

5.9 Research ethics

Saunders et al. (2011) highlight the importance of the privacy rights of study members, protecting the data, confidentiality, right to withdraw and consent from participants. Moreover, “the researcher must consider important elements of the access process, for example explaining to the participants the purpose of the research, the kind of data needed, and the meaning of anonymity and confidentiality” (Anderson, 2008, p.59). This study took these major issues into consideration. A statement of consent was provided and confidentiality observed. Additionally, approval for the study was obtained from the University of Southampton ethics committee (No. 8319).

5.10 Analysis Approach for the Study

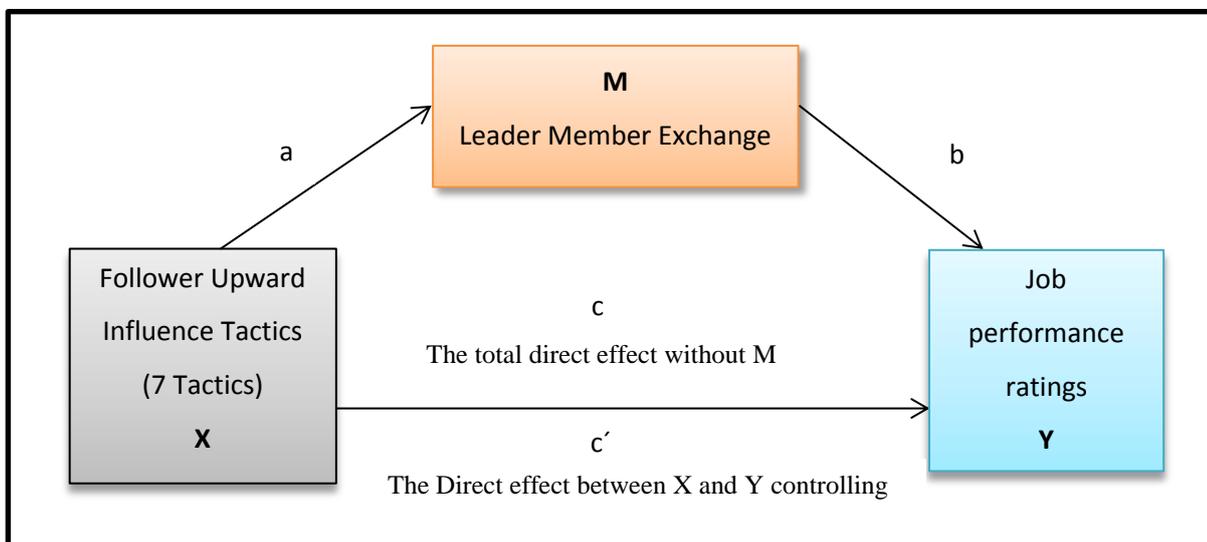
The data was analysed using Mean, correlations, multiple regression, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), Common method variance (CMV), mediation, and moderated mediation to assess the strength of the cause-and-effect relationships between the variables. The statistical software packages SPSS V21, SPSS MACRO (Process and indirect; written by Andrew Hayes (2008) for multiple mediation procedure and moderated mediation - <http://www.afhayes.com>) and AMOS Ver18 have been used to carry out these statistical tests.

5.10.1 Mediation analysis

Organisational behaviour scholars stressed the importance of moving forward to find explanations to observed phenomenon. For example, to understand the impact of personal and contextual factors on organisational outcomes it is essential to use mediation analysis (Wood et al., 2008). Given the explanatory descriptive purpose of this research, mediation analysis is useful in understanding how the mediating factors may affect the relationship between different variables. This can help us better explain the reason for observed relationships (Bollen, 1989). A mediation model identify and explain the mechanism that underlies an observed relationship between an independent and a dependent variable via the inclusion of a third variable (a mediator variable) (Baron and Kenny, 1986). It assists to explain the nature of the relationship and delivers a deep investigation of the underpinning mechanisms of this relationship.

A mediator is a variable that accounts for all or part of the relationship between an independent and a dependent variable because the mediator is intervening in the causal pathway from the predictor variable to the outcome variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Mediation analysis measures whether an independent variable (X) affects a dependent variable (Y) through one or more potential intervening variables, or mediators (M) - simple and multiple mediators (Preacher and Hayes, 2004; 2008a) (Figure 8). Testing for mediators is accomplished by using regression analysis or structural equation modelling (Ayman, 2004). When a complex model is proposed and the study design does not satisfy the conditions for structural equation modelling (SEM), researchers can use variations of the causal steps regression approach to mediation (Mackinnon, 2008).

Figure 8: Simple mediation diagram showing the initial idea of mediation analysis

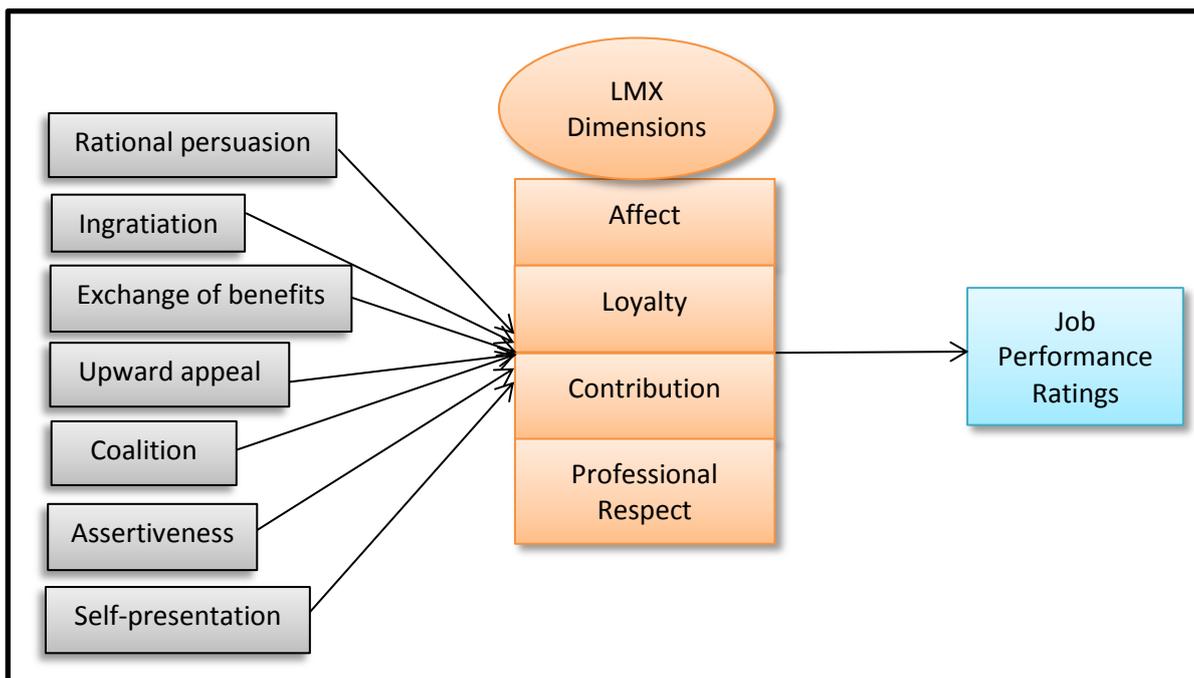


In order to conduct mediation the following aspects are critical (Baron and Kenny, 1986; Pearl, 2000): firstly, there should be some relationship between predictor (X) and outcomes (Y). Secondly, there is a significant relationship between (X) and mediator (M). Thirdly, (M) is also related to (Y). In such models adding (M) to the model will reduce the statistical strength of the relationship between (X) and (Y). But (M) can exist even if there is no relation between (X) and (Y) (Mackinnon, 2008). This could occur because the test of the mediated effect has more statistical power than the test of the overall effect of (X) on (Y) (Mackinnon, 2008).

In a simple mediation analysis that contains one mediator; direct effects include the path of X on Y, the path of X on M, the path of M on Y, and finally the path of X on Y through M. The mediators proposed in this study are multidimensional LMX (4 dimensions)(see figure 9). The multiple-mediator model is likely to provide a more accurate assessment of mediation effects in many research contexts (Mackinnon, Fairchild and Fritz, 2007).

This research used the multiple mediation macro introduced by Preacher and Hayes (2008a). Preacher and Hayes named their multiple mediator diagram a single-step multiple mediator model. Preacher and Hayes assured that, even though it comprises several mediators, no mediators affect each other. This multiple mediation macro illustrated two types of test: the product of coefficients and the bootstrap tests (resampling method).

Figure 9: the proposed mediation paths diagram



1- The product of coefficient strategy shows the total direct effect of X on Y, firstly without taking the mediator into consideration (c) and then considering the impact of mediation (c'). This can reveal the mediation effect as complete (the inclusion of one mediator or more removes the direct effect of X -the independent variable- on Y - the dependant variable) or partial (the inclusion of one mediator or more does not removes the direct effect of X on Y, part of the direct effect remains when controlling for the mediator) (Preacher and Hayes, 2008a). It is generally assumed that including a mediator will reduce the statistical strength of the relationship between predictor and outcome because the mediator will explain part of this relationship (Mackinnon et al., 2000). The magnitude of the relationship is reduced because the mediator explains part or all of the relationship (Mackinnon et al., 2000). Partial mediation may exist because psychological behaviour has a variety of causes; it is often unrealistic to expect that a single mediator would be explained completely by an independent variable to dependent variable relationship (Judd and Kenny, 1981).

2- Bootstrapping provide an evidence that the distributions of the measured variables in the sample closely approximate to the population distributions. The benefit of bootstrapping is that it requires no assumptions regarding the shape of the sampling distribution of the indirect effect or its constituent paths (Preacher and Hayes, 2008b). It is also useful to obtain accurate confidence limits, especially for complex models with more than one mediator (Mackinnon, 2008).

The product of the coefficient approach is better in testing the mediation effect when a large sample is used and the distribution of the sample is assumed to be normal while the bootstrap method can be a useful approach when the distribution of the sample may be considered abnormal (Mackinnon et al., 2002; Preacher and Hayes, 2008a). Furthermore, MacKinnon et al. (2004) compared bootstrapping to the product of coefficients approach in a large-scale simulation study and found that bootstrapping provided more power for detecting indirect effects than the product of coefficients strategy. Mackinnon et al. (2004) stated that asymmetric confidence limits based on the distribution of the product and bootstrap estimates together give more accurate mediation results. Therefore, this study combines the results from the two approaches to obtain conclusions about valid indirect effects. According to Shrout and Bolger (2002), bootstrapping can be useful in correcting errors in estimation of indirect effects and can rise the statistical power to detect them, it contains estimating the standard errors used in the calculation of p values and confidence intervals. It does so by creating a distribution by repeating re-sampling with the same data. Preacher and Hayes (2008a) recommends setting the significant level at $P < .05$ with 95% Bias corrected confidence intervals and 5000 as the desired number of bootstrap resamples to achieve valid mediation results.

Bootstrapping used to specify the contributed mediators to the mediation relationship. It is completely probable to find specific indirect effects to be significant in the presence of a non-significant full indirect effect (Preacher and Hayes, 2008a). Although specific indirect effect either may be large and significant, their sum may be small and non-significant (Preacher and Hayes, 2008a). Consequently, the results can be concluded to demonstrate full or specific mediation based on the contribution of all the proposed mediators to the mediation relationship (see Appendix 20 for the mediation results decision tree).

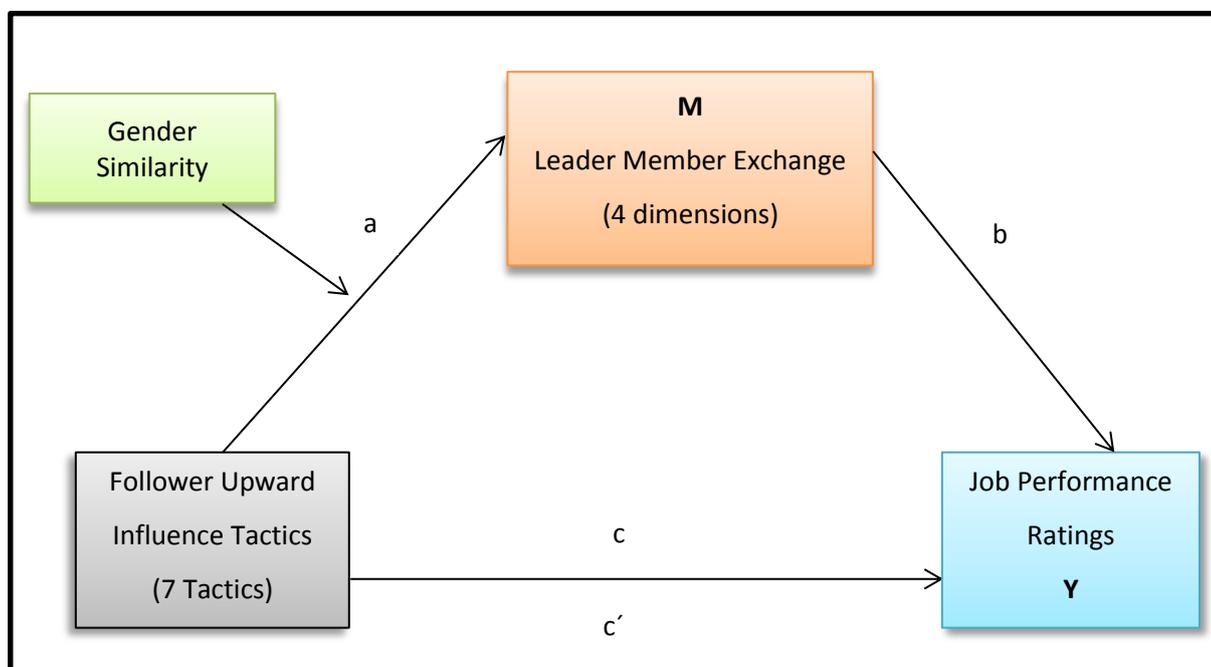
5.10.2 Moderated Mediation analysis

It is often of critical interest to determine whether or not a mediation effect remains constant across different contexts, groups of individuals, and values of the independent variable (Preacher et al., 2007). Preacher et al. (2007) define moderated mediation as

“. . . moderated mediation occurs when the strength of an indirect effect depends on the level of some variable, or in other words, when mediation relations are contingent on the level of a moderator” (Preacher et al., 2007, p. 193).

Moderated mediation happens if the mediating process that is responsible for producing the effect of the treatment on the outcome depends on the value of a moderator variable (Muller et al. 2005). In the present study the relationship between follower upward influence tactics and LMX dimensions could be affected by the gender similarity between the leader and follower. In other words, the follower’s influence tactics relation with leader member exchange dimensions may have a stronger effect under conditions of the follower and leader having the same gender (Figure 10) (See Appendix 21 for the statistical diagram from Hayes’s book, 2013).

Figure 10: Moderated Mediation Model



To assess moderated mediation (Muller et al., 2005; Preacher et al., 2007; Hayes, 2013), four conditions examined: (1) significant effects of each tactic on performance ratings; (2) significant interactions between the tactic and gender similarity; (3) significant effect of LMX dimensions on job performance ratings; and (4) different conditional indirect effect of tactic on performance ratings, via LMX dimensions, across same and different gender. The last condition, which is the essence of moderated mediation, establishes whether the strength of the mediation via LMX dimensions differs across the two levels of the moderator (Preacher et al., 2007). Moderated mediation is demonstrated when the conditional indirect effect of tactic on performance ratings, via LMX, differs in strength across same and different gender.

Chapter 6: DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a statistical analysis of the data using statistical software packages AMOS Ver18 and SPSS Ver21. It outlines the methods used and issues involved with the chosen approach specifically the confirmatory factor analysis, common method variance, the correlation matrix and descriptive statistics. It also discusses the direct relationship between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings, the multiple mediation role of leader member exchange (LMX), and the role of gender similarity as moderated mediation. Results of the non-linear relationships have been presented. In addition, the difference between employees and leaders reporting of the use of upward influence has been examined via one way Anova, ICC and rwg(j). Finally, the chapter discusses the use of upward influence tactics in Saudi Arabia.

6.2 Confirmatory factor analysis

Prior to commencing the hypothesis testing, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) has been conducted to establish the discriminant validity of all the measures used in this study.

6.2.1 CFA of upward influence tactics

CFA has been conducted for the follower upward influence tactics and three separate, estimated models have been compared. The first model loaded all tactics onto a 1-factor model. The estimated model demonstrated a very poor fit to the data (see Table 6). Next a 3-factor model grouping hard, rational and soft influence tactic items onto three separate factors has been estimated. Results demonstrated a poor fit to the data (see Table 6). Finally, a 7-factor model with each of the items loading onto its corresponding factor (7 tactics) has been estimated. This measurement model showed a much better fit to the upward influence tactics data for the leaders' and followers' scales (Table 6). Overall, the results showing a good fit for the 7-factor model and support the discriminant validity of the scales for the data relating to both followers' and leaders' upward influence tactics.

Table 6: A confirmatory factor analysis of follower upward influence tactics

Models		χ^2	Df	CFI	GFI	RMSEA
7-factors	Leaders	542.18	188	.91	.86	.07
	Followers	486.35	188	.92	.90	.06
3-factors	Leaders	1746.59	206	.62	.64	.14
	Followers	1518.43	206	.64	.71	.13
1 factor	Leaders	2355.97	209	.47	.50	.16
	Followers	2113.53	209	.47	.62	.15

All chi-square values are statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. df =degrees of freedom, CFI=comparative fit index ($\geq .90$; Hair et al., 2006), RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation (< 0.08 ; Hair et al., 2006). SRMR= standardized root mean square residual, GFI = Goodness of fit ($\geq .90$; Hair et al., 2006 – the higher the better).

6.2.2 CFA of leader member exchange

A CFA has been conducted for the leader member exchange (LMX) and two separate, estimated models have been compared. The first model loaded all LMX dimensions onto a 1-factor model. The estimated model demonstrated a poor fit to the LMX data (see Table 7). Next, a 4-factor model was constructed which grouped each dimension onto separate factors. Results showed a much better fit to the LMX data (see Table 7).

Table 7: A confirmatory factor analysis of LMX

Models	χ^2	Df	CFI	GFI	RMSEA
4-factors	156.05	48	.97	.94	.07
1 factor	785.367	54	.82	.73	.19

All chi-square values are statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. df =degrees of freedom, CFI=comparative fit index ($\geq .90$; Hair et al., 2006), RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation (< 0.08 ; Hair et al., 2006). SRMR= standardized root mean square residual, GFI = Goodness of fit ($\geq .90$; Hair et al., 2006 – the higher the better).

6.2.3 CFA of all variables

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) has been conducted of all study variables (upward influence tactics, leader member exchange, job performance ratings) to establish the discriminant validity

of measures used in the study. Five separate estimated models have been compared. The first model loaded all items from each of the scales onto a 1-factor model. The estimated model demonstrated a very poor fit to the data. Next, a 3-factor model was constructed which grouped influence tactics onto the first factor, leader member exchange dimensions onto the second and job performance ratings items onto the third factor. Again, results showed a poor fit to the data. Next, the researcher estimated a 5-factor model grouping influence tactics into 3 factors (soft tactics, rational tactics and hard tactics); leader member exchange dimensions were loaded onto the fourth factor, while job performance ratings were loaded onto a separate factor. Results again demonstrated a poor fit to the data. Next, the researcher estimated an 8-factor model grouping influence tactics into 3 factors (soft tactics, rational tactics and hard tactics); leader member exchange dimensions were loaded onto 4 separate factors (affect, professional respect, contribution, loyalty), while job performance ratings were loaded onto a separate factor. Again, results demonstrated a poor fit to the data. Finally, the researcher estimated a 12-factor model with each of the items loading onto its corresponding factor. This measurement model showed a much better fit to the data. Overall, the results show a good fit for the 12-factor model, which supports the discriminant validity of the scales (See Table 8).

Table 8: Confirmatory factor analysis for the study variables

Models		χ^2	Df	CFI	GFI	RMSEA
1-factor	Leaders UIT	7324.851	781	.32	.39	.14
	Followers UIT	6728.974	781	.35	.42	.14
3-factor	Leaders UIT	4107.918	776	.65	.61	.10
	Followers UIT	3818.963	776	.67	.64	.10
5-factor	Leaders UIT	4503.081	769	.72	.65	.09
	Followers UIT	3212.092	769	.73	.69	.09
8-factor	Leaders UIT	2847.248	751	.78	.69	.08
	Followers UIT	2553.46	751	.80	.74	.08
12-factor	Leaders UIT	1563.658	713	.91	.80	.05
	Followers UIT	1500.569	713	.92	.84	.05

All chi-square values are statistically significant at $p < 0.05$. df=degrees of freedom, CFI=comparative fit index ($\geq .90$; Hair et al., 2006), RMSEA=root mean square error of approximation (< 0.08 ; Hair et al., 2006), GFI = Goodness of fit ($\geq .90$; Hair et al., 2006 – the higher the better).

6.3 Common method variance (CMV)

In order to avoid problems associated with social desirability bias previously found to affect self-report measures of influence tactics the collection of data on employees' use of upward influence tactics from their immediate supervisors has been considered. Since upward influence tactics and job performance ratings were collected from leaders, the extent to which same-source bias affects data should be investigated. Harman's single factor test (Harman, 1976) has been performed to assess for common method variance. Items were entered from each variable (8 factors= 29 items) into the SPSS and an exploratory principal components factor analysis was performed, constrained to a one factor solution. This resulted in one factor accounting for 23.4 % of the total variance. This is well below the 50% cut-off value which suggested that CMV was not a serious issue in this data set (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Following recommendations by MacKenzie and Podsakoff (2012), a latent common factor was next created and included in the CFA. Regression weights have been constrained to the common factor to equal a. The square of the unstandardized results was found to be .13 (13%) which indicates the percentage of common method bias. Finally, a comparison between the standardised regression weights obtained with and without the common latent factor was included in the model. Results show the three items of upward appeal tactic (.3, .28, .31), the three items of assertiveness tactic (.35, .26, .5), and one item of coalition (.3) have differences greater than .2 which means that these tactics are affected by common method bias. There were no differences greater than .2 for the other items suggesting no significant problems with common method bias.

6.4 Descriptive statistics and Correlations

Before engaging with factor analysis statistics, it is beneficial to look at the matrix of interrelations among variables. Fairly significant correlation sizes among variables that convey factorability (Field, 2009) are expected. Table 9 below shows the descriptive data, means and standard deviations of the study variables. Pearson's correlation analysis found that job performance ratings were significantly and positively correlated with leaders' ratings of the use of ingratiation, rational persuasion, and self-presentation tactics. Performance ratings were positively and significantly associated with LMX affect, LMX loyalty, and LMX professional respect. This finding is supported by Wang et al. (2003) who found that the LMX affect was related positively to job performance ratings. Performance ratings were significantly and negatively correlated with

leaders' and followers' ratings of the use of exchange of benefits, assertiveness, upward appeal, and coalition tactics. In addition, age was related positively to job performance ratings.

Shifting the focus to leaders' ratings of the use of followers' upward influence tactics, ingratiation was positively related to performance ratings and LMX loyalty. However, exchange of benefits was negatively related to LMX affect and performance ratings. Rational persuasion was positively related to LMX loyalty and performance ratings. Assertiveness was negatively related to performance ratings. Upward appeal and coalition tactics were negatively related to LMX affect, LMX loyalty, and performance ratings. Self-presentation was positively related to LMX loyalty, education, and performance ratings. Out of all LMX dimensions, LMX loyalty and LMX affect relate most significantly to the tactics. This indicates the significance role of these dimensions.

Moving on to consider followers' ratings of their use of upward influence tactics, exchange of benefits was negatively related to education and performance ratings. Rational persuasion was positively related to age and education. Assertiveness was negatively related to LMX affect, LMX professional respect and performance ratings. Assertiveness positively related to the length of the relationship between leader and follower, and years of experience. Upward appeal was negatively related to LMX professional respect, LMX affect, age, education, and performance ratings. Coalition was also negatively related to LMX affect, LMX professional respect, age and performance ratings. Self-presentation was negatively related to LMX affect and LMX professional respect. In this set of followers' data, LMX affect and LMX professional respect relate most significantly to the tactics among the other LMX dimensions.

In terms of correlations between influence tactics, leaders' ratings of the use of ingratiation significantly and positively correlated with leaders' ratings of the use of exchange of benefits, rational persuasion, self-presentation and with followers' ratings of the use of ingratiation. Leaders' ratings of the use of exchange of benefits significantly and positively correlated with leaders' and followers' ratings of the use of: assertiveness, upward appeal, coalition, self-presentation and with followers' ratings of exchange of benefits; it is negatively correlated, however, with leaders' ratings of the use of rational persuasion. Leaders' ratings of the use of rational persuasion significantly and positively correlated with leaders' ratings of the use of self-presentation and negatively with leaders' ratings of the use of upward appeal. Leaders' ratings of the use of assertiveness significantly and positively correlated with leaders' ratings of the use of upward appeal, coalition, self-presentation and followers' ratings of the use of: exchange, assertiveness, upward appeal and coalition. Leaders' ratings of the use of upward appeal positively correlated with leaders' ratings of the use of coalition, and followers' ratings of the use of: exchange, assertiveness, upward appeal and coalition. Leaders' ratings of the use of coalition

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significantly and positively correlated with leaders' ratings of the use of self-presentation, and followers' rating of the use of: assertiveness, upward appeal and coalition.

Followers' ratings of the use of ingratiation positively related to followers' ratings of the use of exchange, rational persuasion, assertiveness, upward appeal and self-presentation. Followers' ratings of the use of exchange positively related to followers' ratings of the use of: assertiveness, upward appeal, coalition and self-presentation. Followers' ratings of the use of rational persuasion positively related to followers' use of assertiveness and self-presentation. Followers' ratings of the use of assertiveness positively related to followers' ratings of the use of upward appeal, coalition and self-presentation. Followers' ratings of the use of upward appeal positively related to followers' ratings of the use of coalition and self-presentation. Followers' ratings of the use of coalition also positively related to followers' ratings of the use of self-presentation. Some of these positive correlations between tactics have also been reported in other studies (e.g. Su, 2010; Wayne et al., 1997).

Table 9 shows the upward influence tactics' means (rated by leaders). Rational persuasion and ingratiation (mean = 3.82, 3.75 respectively) were the most used tactics. Self-presentation (mean = 2.94) was moderately used, while assertiveness was used less (mean = 1.87). By contrast, upward appeal, coalition and exchange of benefits (mean = 1.58; 1.62; 1.62 respectively) were used far less.

The upward influence tactics' means (rated by followers): rational persuasion (mean = 4.1, SD .96) and ingratiation (mean = 3.74; SD, 1.17) were the tactics most frequently used by Saudi employees, while self-presentation (mean = 3.12, SD = 1.15) was moderately used. By contrast, upward appeal (mean = 1.47, SD = .90), coalition (mean = 1.65, SD = .95) and assertiveness (mean = 1.95, SD = 1.01) were all used far less.

Interestingly, correlations results for assertiveness and rational persuasion in this study were similar to the average correlation found by Higgins et al. (2003) in their meta-analysis study. While the average correlation of ingratiation was higher in their study, the self-presentation correlation in this study was far stronger than that found by Higgins et al. (2003).

The only very high correlation that has been found in the matrix is between LMX -affect and LMX professional respect ($r = .82$).

Table 9: Descriptive statistical and bivariate correlations

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
1. L Ingratiation	3.75	1.08	1																							
2. L Exchange	1.62	.92	.17**	1																						
3. L Rational persuasion	3.82	.93	.15**	-.12*	1																					
4. L Assertiveness	1.87	.89	-.02	.45**	.01	1																				
5. L Upward Appeal	1.58	1.03	-.09	.46**	-.18**	.49**	1																			
6. L Coalition	1.62	.91	-.01	.41**	-.09	.46**	.66**	1																		
7. L Self- presentation	2.94	1.10	.18**	.19**	.32**	.24**	.09	.22**	1																	
8. E Age			.06	-.05	.04	-.07	-.08	.01	.07	1																
9. E Education			.08	.01	.06	.03	-.05	-.02	.12*	.15**	1															
10. E Organization type			.05	-.06	.03	.08	-.11*	-.14**	-.00	-.17**	-.07	1														
11. E Years of experience			-.03	-.07	-.06	-.06	-.07	.01	.03	.64**	.04	-.09	1													
12. E Years of relationship			.00	.08	-.06	.06	.03	.08	-.04	.22**	.02	-.12*	.43**	1												
13. E Ingratiation	3.74	1.18	.22**	.03	.01	.01	.02	-.05	.03	-.01	-.02	-.01	-.01	-.02	1											
14. E Exchange	1.46	.85	.07	.15**	-.01	.11*	.11*	.06	-.03	-.06	-.13*	-.05	.04	.04	.27**	1										
15. E Rational persuasion	4.11	.96	.06	.05	.08	.02	-.01	.05	.08	.12*	.15**	.04	.05	-.00	.18**	.02	1									
16. E Assertiveness	1.95	1.02	.06	.22**	-.00	.20**	.17**	.18**	.04	-.02	-.04	.07	.11*	.11*	.11*	.48**	.23**	1								
17. E Upward Appeal	1.47	.90	.02	.17**	-.06	.14**	.20**	.19**	.03	-.11*	-.10*	.01	.04	.01	.13*	.40**	.03	.45**	1							
18. E Coalition	1.65	.95	.03	.19**	-.03	.20**	.19**	.24**	.11*	-.11*	-.06	.04	-.02	.00	.08	.43**	.09	.49**	.62**	1						
19. E Self-presentation	3.12	1.17	.08	.11*	.05	.08	.07	.06	.15**	-.01	.03	-.01	-.00	.03	.27**	.27**	.33**	.31**	.24**	.35**	1					
20. LMX Affect	5.54	1.53	-.02	-.12*	.09	-.04	-.14**	-.17**	.05	-.02	-.07	.07	.01	-.06	-.02	-.06	-.04	-.15**	-.21**	-.16**	-.15**	1				
21. LMX Loyalty	4.83	1.48	.22**	-.03	.25**	-.04	-.17**	-.12*	.18**	.09	-.06	-.04	.08	.04	.02	-.04	-.01	.01	-.07	-.01	-.01	.22**	1			
22. LMX Contribution	5.59	1.24	.07	.03	.05	.03	-.01	-.01	.05	-.02	-.06	.02	.03	.10*	.06	-.02	.07	.00	-.08	-.09	-.05	.53**	.15**	1		
23. LMX Prof. respect	5.80	1.53	-.03	-.08	.02	.02	-.07	-.08	.09	-.05	-.09	.07	-.03	-.08	.02	-.07	-.01	-.11*	-.15**	-.14**	-.13*	.82**	.10*	.56**	1	
24. Performance ratings	4.20	.67	.10*	-.26**	.39**	-.19**	-.34**	-.24**	.17**	.11*	.09	.01	.08	-.02	-.08	-.21**	.05	-.13*	-.23**	-.16**	-.08	.24**	.31**	.08	.13**	1

Notes: N=389; means and standard deviations of Influence Tactics, and performance ratings scaled variables were based on a 1 to 5 scale metric. LMX scaled variables was based on a 1 to 7 scale metric.

6.5 Leader member exchange (LMX) dimensions as mediators

Mediation occurs when a particular predictor indirectly exerts its impact on a dependent variable through one or more intervening variables (Preacher and Hayes, 2008). In this study a mediator describes the concept or mechanism through which the upward influence tactics impacts the performance ratings in statistical way. The researcher hypothesised that the leader member exchange (LMX) dimensions of affect, loyalty, contribution, and professional respect will mediate the relationship between upward influence tactics (7 tactics) and job performance ratings. While the LMX measured by followers, the use of followers upward influence tactics is measured by their leaders. This study adopts Preacher and Hayes's Multiple Mediation method (2008) (Appendix 19). The mediation analysis process and findings are described and explained in two connected tables (A and B) for each tactic (see Appendix 20 for the mediation results decision tree).

Table (A): The result of the multiple mediation analysis are presented in tables according to the product of coefficient results in the tactics – LMX dimensions (X – Ms) and LMX dimensions – job performance ratings (Ms – Y) linkages. The results for the total (C= X on Y) and the direct effects (C' = X on Y controlling for M). Together these data determine whether the indirect effect is complete or partial.

Table (B): The bootstrap resampling results are based on 95% Bias Corrected and Accelerated Confidence Intervals (BCa of CI). According to the product of the coefficient strategy, the differences between the total and direct effects (C – C') is the mediation or indirect effect through the proposed mediators. The product of the coefficient shows the point estimate and the asymptotic critical ratio ($p < .05$ and $Z > (\pm) 1.96$). In addition, the bootstrap strategy shows when zero is included (no sign of mediation) or not included in the interval limits (sign of mediation). Bootstrapping is a computationally intensive method that is conducted by randomly drawing samples from the data set and estimating the indirect effect in each resampled data set. Repeating this process thousands of times constitutes an empirical approximation of the sampling distribution of $a*b$ that could be used to construct confidence intervals for the indirect effect (Preacher and Hayes, 2008).

Table 10 A: The product of coefficient results for Rational persuasion – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Total effect of rational persuasion on performance ratings (C path)									
Coefficient	SE			T	P				
.28	.0339			8.3081	.00				
The direct effect of rational persuasion on performance ratings controlling for LMX dimensions (C' path)									
Coefficient	SE			T	P				
.23	.0336			6.9412	.00				
The direct relationship in proposed mediation linkage									
Direct effect of rational persuasion on LMX dimensions					Direct effect of LMX dimensions on performance ratings				
a paths	Coeff.	SE	T	p	b paths	Coeff.	SE	T	P
Rational persuasion on Affect	.16	.0834	1.8738	.06	Affect on Performance	.10	.0358	2.9182	.00
Rational persuasion on Loyalty	.39	.0783	4.9756	.00	Loyalty on Performance	.09	.0218	4.0864	.00
Rational persuasion on Contribution	.06	.0676	.9052	.37	Contribution on Performance	-.03	.0298	-1.0770	.28
Rational persuasion on Professional respect	.03	.0838	.3233	.75	Professional respect on Performance	-.02	.0362	-.6744	.50

Table 10 B: The bootstrapping results for rational persuasion – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Mediators	Indirect effect					
	Product of Coefficient				Bootstrapping (5000) BC 95% CI	
	Effect Estimate	SE	Z	P	Lower	Upper
Full mediation						
Ab	.05	.0135	3.5848	.00	.022	.083
Specific mediation						
Affect	.01	.0103	1.5812	.11	.000	.048
Loyalty	.03	.0109	3.1718	.00	.016	.064
Contribution	-.00	.0028	-.6953	.49	-.0136	.0017
Professional respect	-.00	.0023	-.2922	.77	-.0152	.0044

The product of the coefficient result for rational persuasion – LMX dimensions – performance ratings mediation relationship, is different from zero with a point estimate of .05 and with an asymptotic critical ratio $Z = 3.5848$, $p < .01$, (confidence intervals limits: CI .022 to .083 does not include zero) (See Table 10 B). Therefore, there is evidence of partial mediation effect of LMX dimensions between rational persuasion and performance ratings as the direct effect of rational persuasion on performance ratings (C') is significant .23, $p < .01$ (see Table 10 A). There is only one specific indirect effect: LMX loyalty is the only significant mediator between rational persuasion and performance ratings, with a 95% BCa bootstrap (CI .016 to .064), as zero is not included in the interval limits (Table 10 B).

Table 11 A: The product of coefficient results for ingratiation – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Total effect of ingratiation on performance ratings (C path)									
Coefficient		SE			T			p	
.06		.0314			2.0327			.04	
The direct effect of ingratiation on performance ratings controlling for LMX dimensions (C' path)									
Coefficient		SE			T			p	
.03		.0305			1.0519			.29	
The direct relationship in proposed mediation linkage									
Direct effect of ingratiation on LMX dimensions					Direct effect of LMX dimensions on performance ratings				
a paths	Coeff.	SE	T	P	b paths	Coeff.	SE	t	p
Ingratiation on Affect	-.02	.0718	-.2952	.77	Affect on Performance	.13	.0379	3.3827	.00
Ingratiation on Loyalty	.30	.0675	4.4959	.00	Loyalty on Performance	.12	.0231	5.0468	.00
Ingratiation on Contribution	.08	.0578	1.4464	.15	Contribution on Performance	-.03	.0317	-1.0705	.29
Ingratiation on Professional respect	-.05	.0718	-.6513	.51	Professional respect on Performance	-.04	.0382	-1.1127	.27

Table 11 B: Bootstrapping results for ingratiation – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Mediators	Indirect effect					
	Product of Coefficient				Bootstrapping (5000) BC 95% CI	
	Effect Estimate	SE	Z	P	Lower	Upper
Full mediation						
Ab	.03	.0135	2.3597	.02	.005	.063
Specific mediation						
Affect	-.00	.0092	-.2945	.77	-.022	.015
Loyalty	.03	.0105	3.369	.00	.016	.062
Contribution	-.00	.0033	-.8645	.39	-.015	.001
Professional respect	.00	.0035	.5636	.57	-.003	.018

The product of the coefficient result for the ingratiation – LMX dimensions – performance ratings mediation relationship, is different from zero with a point estimate of .03 and with an asymptotic critical ratio $Z = 2.3597$, $p < .05$ (CI .005 to .063) (Table 11 B). Thus, there is evidence of complete mediation effect of LMX dimensions between ingratiation and performance ratings as the direct effect of ingratiation on performance ratings (C') is insignificant .03, $p > .01$ (Table 11 A). There is only one specific indirect effect: LMX loyalty is the only significant mediator between ingratiation and performance ratings, with a 95% BCa bootstrap CI of (.016 to .062) as zero is not included in the interval limits (Table 11 B).

Table 12 A: The product of coefficient results for self-presentation – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Total effect of self-presentation on performance ratings (C path)									
Coefficient	SE			T	P				
.10	.03			3.41	.00				
The direct effect of self-presentation on performance ratings controlling for LMX dimensions (C' path)									
Coefficient	SE			T	P				
.08	.03			2.63	.01				
The direct relationship in proposed mediation linkage									
Direct effect of self-presentation on LMX dimensions					Direct effect of LMX dimensions on performance ratings				
a paths	Coeff.	SE	T	P	b paths	Coeff.	SE	T	P
Self-presentation on Affect	.06	.0708	.8959	.37	Affect on Performance	.14	.0377	3.6067	.00
Self-presentation on Loyalty	.24	.0672	3.6468	.00	Loyalty on Performance	.11	.0228	4.8435	.00
Self-presentation on Contribution	.05	.0571	.9357	.35	Contribution on Performance	-.03	.0314	-.9474	.34
Self-presentation on Professional respect	.13	.0705	1.8587	.06	Professional respect on Performance	-.06	.0382	-1.4747	.14

Table 12 B: Bootstrapping results for self-presentation – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Mediators	Indirect effect					
	Product of coefficient				Bootstrapping (5000) BC 95% CI	
	Effect estimate	SE	Z	P	Lower	Upper
Full mediation						
Ab	.03	.0126	2.1199	.03	.005	.053
Specific mediation						
Affect	.01	.0099	.8709	.38	-.009	.035
Loyalty	.03	.0092	2.9226	.00	.013	.046
Contribution	-.00	.0024	-.6683	.50	-.013	.001
Professional respect	-.01	.0064	-1.1604	.24	-.028	.001

The product of the coefficient result for the self-presentation – LMX dimensions – performance ratings mediation relationship is different from zero with a point estimate of .03 and with an asymptotic critical ratio $Z = 2.1199$, $p < .05$ (CI .005 to .053) (Table 12 B). Therefore, there is evidence of partial mediation effect of LMX dimensions between self-presentation and performance ratings as the direct effect of self-presentation on performance ratings (C') is significant .08, $p < .01$ (Table 12 A). LMX loyalty is the only significant mediator between self-presentation and performance ratings, with a 95% BCa bootstrap CI of (.013 to .046) as zero is not included in the interval limits (Table 12 B).

Table 13 A: The product of coefficient results for exchange of benefits – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Total effect of exchange of benefits on performance ratings (C path)									
Coefficient		SE		T		P			
-.19		.0361		-5.2241		.00			
The direct effect of exchange of benefits on performance ratings controlling for LMX dimensions (C' path)									
Coefficient		SE		T		P			
-.17		.0344		-4.8692		.00			
The direct relationship in proposed mediation linkage									
Direct effect of exchange on LMX dimensions					Direct effect of LMX dimensions on performance ratings				
a paths	Coeff	SE	T	p	b paths	Coeff.	SE	t	P
Exchange on Affect	-.20	.0845	-2.3212	.02	Affect on Performance	.11	.0370	2.9246	.00
Exchange on Loyalty	-.04	.0820	-.5451	.59	Loyalty on Performance	.12	.0219	5.5437	.00
Exchange on Contribution	.03	.0686	.5226	.60	Contribution on Performance	-.01	.0309	-5.106	.61
Exchange on Professional respect	-.13	.0847	-1.5702	.12	Professional respect on Performance	-.04	.0371	-1.1709	.24

Table 13 B: Bootstrapping results for exchange of benefits – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Mediators	Indirect effect					
	Product of Coefficient				Bootstrapping (5000) BC 95% CI	
	Effect estimate	SE	Z	P	Lower	Upper
Full mediation						
Ab	-.02	.0139	-1.5391	.12	-.053	.006
Specific mediation						
Affect	-.02	.0116	-1.8242	.06	-.057	-.002
Loyalty	-.00	.0100	-.5432	.59	-.028	.014
Contribution	-.00	.0015	-.3667	.71	-.011	.002
Professional respect	.00	.0061	.9430	.34	-.002	.029

The product of the coefficient result for exchange of benefits – LMX dimensions – performance ratings mediation relationship, is **not different from zero** $p > .05$ and the Z is not larger than 1.96 (Table 13 B). One can conclude from this that there is no evidence of complete or partial mediation effect of LMX dimensions between exchange of benefits and performance ratings. The 95% confidence intervals CIs based on BCa (bias corrected and accelerated; 5000 bootstrap samples) for the effect estimate $-.02$ provide no evidence for mediation effect of LMX as the zero is included in the interval $(-.053 \text{ to } .006)$ (Table 13 B). There is no evidence for specific mediation either.

Table 14 A: The product of coefficient results for Coalition – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Total effect of Coalition on performance ratings (C path)									
Coefficient		SE			T			P	
-.18		.0364			-4.8589			.00	
The direct effect of coalition on performance ratings controlling for LMX dimensions (C' path)									
Coefficient		SE			T			P	
-.13		.0354			-3.6784			.00	
The direct relationship in proposed mediation linkage									
Direct effect of coalition on LMX dimensions					Direct effect of LMX dimensions on performance ratings				
a paths	Coeff.	SE	T	P	b paths	Coeff.	SE	T	P
Coalition on Affect	-.29	.0841	-3.4855	.00	Affect on Performance	.10	.0378	2.6942	.01
Coalition on Loyalty	-.19	.0817	-2.3012	.02	Loyalty on Performance	.11	.0222	5.2200	.00
Coalition on Contribution	-.02	.0689	-.2385	.81	Contribution on Performance	-.02	.0312	-.7095	.48
Coalition on Professional respect	-.14	.0850	-1.6296	.10	Professional respect on Performance	-.03	.0377	-.8872	.38

Table 14 B: Bootstrapping results for coalition – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Mediators	Indirect effect					
	Product of coefficient				Bootstrapping (5000) BC 95% CI	
	Effect estimate	SE	Z	P	Lower	Upper
Full mediation						
Ab	-.05	.0145	-3.2067	.00	-.084	-.018
Specific mediation						
Affect	-.03	.0139	-2.1413	.03	-.068	-.007
Loyalty	-.02	.0103	-2.1102	.03	-.049	-.001
Contribution	.00	.0016	.2265	.82	-.003	.010
Professional respect	.00	.0059	.7833	.43	-.003	.027

The product of the coefficient result for coalition – LMX dimensions – performance ratings mediation relationship, is different from zero with a point estimate of $-.05$ and with asymptotic critical ratio $Z = -3.2067$, $p < .01$ (CI $.084$ to $-.018$) (Table 14 B). Therefore, there is evidence of partial mediation effect of LMX dimensions between coalition and performance ratings as the direct effect of coalition on performance ratings (C') is significant $-.13$, $p < .01$ (Table 14 A). There are two specific direct effects: LMX affect and LMX loyalty are the only significant mediators between coalition and performance ratings, with a 95% BCa bootstrap CI of $(-.068$ to $-.007)$ ($-.0497$ to $-.0018$) respectively as zero is not included in the interval limits (Table 14 B).

Note that only one item of this tactic is affected by CMV. This test of multiple mediators has been repeated with just 2 of the other items of coalition. The results show no differences in terms of the importance of LMX but specific direct effects were found only for LMX affect (See Appendix 22 A and B for the results).

Table 15 A: The product of coefficient results for upward appeal – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Total effect of upward appeal on performance ratings (C path)									
Coefficient	SE			T			P		
-.22	.0314			-6.9968			.00		
The direct effect of upward appeal on performance ratings controlling for LMX dimensions (C' path)									
Coefficient	SE			T			P		
-.18	.0306			-5.7824			.00		
The direct relationship in proposed mediation linkage									
Direct effect of Upward on LMX dimensions					Direct effect of LMX dimensions on performance ratings				
a paths	Coeff.	SE	T	p	b paths	Coeff.	SE	t	p
Upward on Affect	-.21	.0751	-2.7783	.01	Affect on Performance	.10	.0366	2.7527	.01
Upward on Loyalty	-.24	.0721	-3.3451	.00	Loyalty on Performance	.10	.0218	4.7934	.00
Upward on Contribution	-.01	.0612	-.1970	.84	Contribution on Performance	-.02	.0304	-.6204	.53
Upward on Professional respect	-.10	.0756	-1.3440	.18	Professional respect on Performance	-.03	.0367	-.9403	.35

Table 15 B: Bootstrapping results for upward appeal – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Mediators	Indirect effect					
	Product of Coefficient				Bootstrapping (5000) BC 95% CI	
	Effect Estimate	SE	Z	P	Lower	Upper
Full mediation						
Ab	-.04	.0120	-3.5353	.00	-.072	-.020
Specific mediation						
Affect	-.02	.0107	-1.9631	.05	-.050	-.005
Loyalty	-.02	.0092	-2.7514	.01	-.050	-.009
Contribution	.00	.0012	.1881	.85	-.003	.008
Professional respect	.00	.0045	.7742	.44	-.002	.021

The product of the coefficient results for the upward – LMX dimensions – performance ratings mediation relationship is different from zero with a point estimate of $-.04$ and with an asymptotic critical ratio $Z = -3.5353$, $p < .01$ (CI $-.0720$ to $-.0200$) (Table 15 B). There is thus evidence of partial mediation effect of LMX dimensions between upward and performance ratings as the direct effect of upward on performance ratings (C') is significant $-.18$, $p < .01$ (Table 15 A). There are two specific direct effects: LMX affect and LMX loyalty are the only significant mediators between upward and performance ratings, with a 95% BCa bootstrap CI of $(-.050$ to $-.005)$ $(-.050$ to $-.009)$ respectively as zero is not included in the interval limits (Table 15 B). Note that this tactic is affected by CMV.

Table 16 A: The product of coefficient results for assertiveness – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Total effect of assertiveness on performance ratings (C path)									
Coefficient	SE	T			P				
-.15	.0376	-3.9388			.00				
The direct effect of assertiveness on performance ratings controlling for LMX dimensions (C' path)									
Coefficient	SE	T			P				
-.13	.0354	-3.6902			.00				
The direct relationship in proposed mediation linkage									
Direct effect of assertiveness on LMX dimensions					Direct effect of LMX dimensions on Performance ratings				
a paths	Coeff.	SE	T	P	b paths	Coeff.	SE	T	P
Assertiveness on Affect	-.07	.0872	-.7615	.45	Affect on Performance	.11	.0374	3.0386	.00
Assertiveness on Loyalty	-.06	.0840	-.7451	.46	Loyalty on Performance	.12	.0221	5.4244	.00
Assertiveness on Contribution	.04	.0703	.5879	.56	Contribution on Performance	-.03	.0311	-.8471	.39
Assertiveness on Professional respect	.03	.0872	.3694	.71	Professional respect on Performance	-.03	.0377	-.8951	.37

Table 16B: Bootstrapping results for assertiveness – LMX dimensions – job performance ratings

Mediators	Indirect effect					
	Product of Coefficient				Bootstrapping (5000) BC 95% CI	
	Effect estimate	SE	Z	P	Lower	Upper
Full mediation						
Ab	-.02	.0140	-1.2302	.22	-.049	.008
Specific mediation						
Affect	-.01	.0102	-.7398	.45	-.034	.008
Loyalty	-.01	.0102	-.7392	.45	-.032	.012
Contribution	-.00	.0023	-.4844	.63	-.013	.002
Professional respect	-.00	.0032	-.3422	.73	-.017	.004

The product of the coefficient results for assertiveness – LMX dimensions – performance ratings mediation relationship is not different from zero $p>05$ (Table 15 B), from which one can conclude that there is no evidence of complete or partial mediation effect of LMX dimensions between assertiveness and performance ratings. The above table shows that the 95% confidence intervals CIs based on BCa (bias corrected and accelerated; 5000 bootstrap samples) for the effect estimate; -.02 shows no evidence for mediation effect of LMX as the zero is included in the interval (-.049 to .008) (Table 15 B). There is no evidence for specific mediation as well. Note that this tactic is affected by CMV.

The researcher also conducted a goodness-of-fit test on the mediation relationships, as modelled by Preacher and Hayes (2008a), to assess the fit of the measurement model with the data provided. Table 17 below shows that the mediated effect between the independent and dependent variables through the proposed mediators is significant, $p < .05$. These results of the mediated relationships have been predicted by the multiple mediation tests. Table 18 provides a summary of the mediation findings.

Table 17: Goodness-of-fit test for multiple mediation models

Mediation relationship	Model Summary for dependent variable (Y) model					
	R-sq	adj R-sq	F	df 1	df 2	p
Upward appeal – LMX dimensions – Performance ratings	.2030	.1926	19.5121	5.0000	383.0000	.0000
Self-presentation – LMX dimensions – Performance ratings	.1488	.1377	13.3887	5.0000	383.0000	.0000
Coalition – LMX dimensions – Performance ratings	.1630	.1521	14.9180	5.0000	383.0000	.0000
Rational persuasion – LMX dimensions – Performance ratings	.2303	.2202	22.9151	5.0000	383.0000	.0000
Exchange of benefits – LMX dimensions – Performance ratings	.1840	.1733	17.2671	5.0000	383.0000	.0000
Assertiveness – LMX dimensions – Performance ratings	.1632	.1523	14.9380	5.0000	383.0000	.0000
Ingratiation – LMX dimensions – Performance ratings	.1359	.1247	12.0505	5.0000	383.0000	.0000

Table 18: Summary of the mediation findings

Hypotheses	Total effect estimate	Product of coefficient			Bootstrapping BC 95% CI		Mediation result
		SE	Z	P	Lower	Upper	
Rational persuasion – LMX D– Performance ratings	.05	.0135	3.5848	.0003	.0227	.0835	Partial mediation through LMX-Loyalty.
Ingratiation – LMX D– Performance ratings	.03	.0135	2.3597	.0183	.0055	.0630	Complete mediation through LMX-Loyalty.
Self-presentation – LMX D– Performance ratings	.03	.0126	2.1199	.0340	.0051	.0533	Partial mediation through LMX-Loyalty.
Coalition – LMX D– Performance ratings	-.05	.0145	-3.2067	.0013	-.0847	-.0182	Partial mediation through LMX-Affect and LMX-Loyalty.
Upward Appeal – LMX D– Performance ratings	-.04	.0120	-3.5353	.0004	-.0720	-.0200	Partial mediation through LMX-Affect and LMX-Loyalty.
Exchange – LMX D– Performance ratings	-.02	.0139	-1.5391	.1238	-.0530	.0065	No mediation.
Assertiveness – LMX D– Performance ratings	-.01	.0140	-1.2302	.2186	-.0498	.0089	No mediation.

6.6 The relationship between LMX dimensions and job performance ratings

Pervious (A) tables (from 10 to 16) show that LMX-affect and LMX-loyalty are the only two dimensions that have significant relationships with job performance ratings. Other dimensions; LMX- contribution and LMX-professional respect did not show any significant relationships with job performance ratings.

6.7 Gender similarity as a moderator between upward influence tactics and LMX dimensions

The results of the moderated mediation analysis are presented in Table 19. Moderated mediation is demonstrated when the conditional indirect effect of a tactic on performance ratings via LMX dimensions differs across same and different genders. The relationship between influence tactics and LMX dimensions differs when the gender of the leader and follower are the same compared to when they are not. To assess moderated mediation (Muller et al., 2005; Preacher et al., 2007; Hayes, 2013), four conditions examined: (1) significant effects of each tactic on performance ratings; (2) significant interactions between the tactic and gender similarity; (3) significant effect of LMX dimensions on job performance ratings, and; (4) different conditional indirect effect of a tactic on performance ratings, via LMX dimensions, across same and different genders. The last condition is the essence of moderated mediation, and establishes whether the strength of the mediation via LMX dimensions differs across the two levels of the moderator (Preacher et al., 2007). The five tactics that have been mediated by LMX dimensions were tested here;

In terms of ingratiation tactic results (Table 19), and to test condition 2, the researcher first examined whether the interactions of ingratiation with gender similarity were significant in predicting LMX dimensions. Results of the moderated regression of gender similarity on LMX dimensions were not significant. Next the researcher tested if the LMX dimensions are related to performance ratings. LMX affect and LMX loyalty was positively related to performance ratings. Then the researcher examined whether the magnitude of the conditional indirect effect of the tactic via LMX dimensions on performance ratings is different across same and different genders of leaders and followers. Results show that the indirect effects of ingratiation were stronger and significant for the same gender (leaders and followers), LMX-Loyalty =.04, $p < 0.01$; total indirect effect = .03, $p < 0.05$.

Regarding rational persuasion (see Table 19), condition 2 results of the moderated regression of gender similarity on LMX dimensions were not significant. Condition 3 results revealed that LMX affect and LMX loyalty were related positively to performance ratings. Condition 4 results show that the indirect effects of rational persuasion were stronger and significant for the same gender (leaders and followers), LMX-Loyalty = .04, $p < 0.01$; total indirect effect = .05, $p < 0.001$.

In terms of upward appeal (Table 19), condition 2 results relating to the moderated regression of gender similarity on LMX dimensions were not significant. Condition 3 results showed that LMX affect and LMX loyalty related positively to performance ratings. Condition 4 results show significant results: the indirect effects of upward appeal tactic were stronger and significant for the same gender (leaders and followers), LMX-Loyalty = $-.03$, $p < 0.01$; total indirect effect = $-.05$, $p < 0.001$. Note that this tactic is affected by CMV.

Coalition results (Table 19) show that condition 2 results of the moderated regression of gender similarity on LMX dimensions were not significant. Condition 3 results showed that LMX affect and LMX loyalty related positively to performance ratings. Condition 4 results show that the indirect effects of coalition tactics were stronger and significant for the same gender (leaders and followers), LMX-Loyalty = $-.03$, $p < 0.05$; total indirect effect = $-.05$, $p < 0.01$. Note that one item of coalition has been affected by CMV, thus this test has been repeated for coalition tactic with just 2 items (see Appendix 24). The result was the same for the total indirect effect but not for LMX loyalty.

In terms of self-presentation tactic (Table 19), condition 2 results relating to the moderated regression of gender similarity on LMX dimensions were not significant. Condition 3 results showed that LMX affect and LMX loyalty related positively to performance ratings. In comparison, condition 4 results show that the indirect effects of the self-presentation tactic were stronger and significant for the same gender (leaders and followers), LMX-Loyalty = .03, $p < 0.01$; total indirect effect = .03, $p < 0.05$.

Table 19: Moderated mediation results for upward influence tactics relationships with LMX across gender similarity levels

	Factors and Statistics	LMX Dimensions								Performance ratings		Moderated mediated Gender		Condition al indirect effect	SE	Z
		Affect		Loyalty		Contribution		Professional respect								
		Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Affect	Same			
Ingratiation	Ingratiation	.01	.23	.44*	.22	.28	.19	.20	.24	.03	.03			-.00	.01	-.28
	Gendrsimilr	-.28	.74	.39	.70	.74	.59	.65	.74			Loyalty	Same	.04**	.01	3.2
	Ingratiation X Gendrsimilr	-.04	.19	-.12	.18	-.16	.15	-.22	.19				Differ	.02	.02	1.0
	LMX Affect									.13**	.04	Contrib	Same	-.00	.00	-.72
	LMX Loyalty									.12***	.02		Differ	.00	.01	.32
	LMX Contribution									-.03	.03	Prof.	Same	.00	.00	.14
	LMX Professional respect									-.04	.04		Differ	.04	.03	1.0
	F	1.18		6.64***		1.30		.71		11.55***		Total indirect effect	Same	.03*	.02	2.1
	R ²	.01		.05		.01		.01		.13			Differ	.05	.03	1.4
Rational persuasion	Rationality	.21	.28	.77**	.26	.07	.23	.26	.28	.23***	.03	Affect	Same	.02	.01	1.4
	Gendrsimilr	-.26	.93	1.20	.87	.15	.75	.65	.93				Differ	.01	.03	.51
	Rationality X Gendrsimilr	-.04	.23	-.34	.22	-.01	.19	-.20	.23			Loyalty	Same	.04**	.01	3.0
	LMX Affect									.10**	.04		Differ	.01	.02	.52
	LMX Loyalty									.09***	.02	Contrib	Same	-.00	.00	-.55
	LMX Contribution									-.03	.03		Differ	-.01	.02	-.31
	LMX Professional respect									-.02	.04	Prof.	Same	-.00	.00	-.22
	F	2.32		8.85***		.43		.42		22.19***			Differ	.01	.02	.54
	R ²	.02		.07		.00		.00		.23		Total indirect	Same	.05***	.02	3.4
													Differ	.03	.03	.87

Table 19: Moderated mediation results for upward influence tactics relationships with LMX across gender similarity levels (Continued)

	Factors and Statistics	LMX Dimensions								Performance ratings		Moderated mediated		Condition al indirect effect	SE	Z
		Affect		Loyalty		Contribution		Professional respect								
		Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Affect	Same	Differ		
Upward Appeal	Upward	-.33	.24	-.64**	.23	-.05	.19	-.22	.25	-.18***	.03	Affect	Same	-.02	.01	-1.7
	Gendrsimilr	-.57	.41	-.61	.39	.08	.33	-.30	.41				Differ	-.02	.03	-.52
	Upward X Gendrsimilr	.12	.19	.35	.19	.03	.16	.11	.19			Loyalty	Same	-.03**	.01	-2.8
	LMX Affect									.10**	.04		Differ	.01	.02	.30
	LMX Loyalty									.10***	.02	Contribution	Same	.00	.00	.26
	LMX Contribution									-.02	.03		Differ	-.00	.01	-.01
	LMX Professional respect									-.03	.04	Prof. respect	Same	.00	.00	.31
	F	3.48*		4.59**		.188		.778		18.75***			Total indirect effect	Differ	.00	.03
	R ²	.03		.03		.00		.01		.19		Same		-.05***	.01	-3.4
	Adjusted R ²											Differ	-.01	.03	-.36	

Coalition	Coalition	-.03	.28	-.64*	.27	.12	.23	-.08	.28	-.13***	.04	Affect	Same	-.02	.01	-1.8
	Gendrsimilr	-.01	.44	-.73	.43	.33	.37	-.05	.45				Differ	-.05	.04	-1.2
	Coalition X Gendrsimilr	-.22	.23	.39	.22	-.12	.19	.05	.23			Loyalty	Same	-.03*	.01	-2.3
	LMX Affect									.10**	.04		Differ	.02	.03	.79
	LMX Loyalty									.11***	.02	Contribution	Same	.00	.00	.04
	LMX Contribution									-.02	.03		Differ	.01	.02	.62
	LMX Professional respect									-.03	.04	Prof. respect	Same	.00	.01	.34
	F	5.20**		2.68*		.325		.99		14.27***			Differ	.02	.03	.70
	R ²	.04		.02		.00		.01		.16		Total indirect effect	Same	-.05**	.02	-3.1
	Adjusted R ²												Differ	-.00	.04	-.04

Table 19: Moderated Mediation Results for upward influence tactics relationships with LMX across gender similarity levels (continued)

	Factors and Statistics	Self-presentation								Performance ratings		Moderated mediated		Conditional indirect effect	SE	Z
		Affect		Loyalty		Contribution		Professional respect				Gender				
		Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Coeff	SE	Affect	Same			
Self - Presentation	Self-presentation	.02	.24	.34	.23	-.01	.19	-.02	.24	.08**	.03	Affect	Same	.01	.01	.65
	Gendrsmilr	-.51	.63	.18	.60	-.07	.51	-.53	.63				Differ	.02	.04	.42
	Self-presentation X Gendrsmilr	.03	.20	-.09	.19	.06	.16	.13	.20			Loyalty	Same	.03**	.01	2.7
	LMX Affect									.13**	.04		Differ	.02	.02	.88
	LMX Loyalty									.11***	.02	Contribution	Same	-.00	.00	-.53
	LMX Contribution									-.03	.03		Differ	-.01	.01	-.59
	LMX Professional respect									-.05	.04	Prof. respect	Same	-.00	.01	-.68
	F	1.33		4.26**		.55		1.31		12.89***			Differ	-.04	.04	-1.0
	R ²	.01		.03		.00		.01		.15		Total indirect effect	Same	.03*	.01	2.1
													Differ	-.02	.04	-.41

Note: Different gender: 56 cases, same gender: 329 cases

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

6.8 The linear and non-linear relationships between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings.

The linear and non-linear regression between the follower upward influence tactics and job performance ratings has been examined. The non-linear regression has been tested to check the possibilities of a U shape and an inverted U shape in the graph of the relationship. Specifically, the demographic data were entered in step 1, the tactics terms were entered in step 2, followed by the squared tactics terms (which assess the possibility of a U shape or an inverted U shape) were entered in step 3. The tactics included in step 3 are assertiveness, upward appeal, coalition and self-presentation according to what have been theoretically driven in the hypotheses.

Table 20 below shows the regression results; follower age has a positive relationship with performance rating ($\beta = .12$, $p < 0.01$). Exchange of benefits and upward appeal tactics have negative relationships with the performance rating ($\beta = -.11$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.19$, $p < .01$ respectively), while rational persuasion and self-presentation tactics have strong positive relationships with the performance rating ($\beta = .30$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .13$, $p < .01$ respectively). Note that the upward appeal tactic is affected by CMV, but results from the employee data (see Table 23) support upward appeal tactic's findings.

Results show that the findings associated with the non-linear coalition squared term ($\beta = .43$, $p < 0.05$) indicates a positive and significant component to the relationship (i.e. a U-shape) between coalition and performance ratings (see Figure 11). Hypothesis 17, which predicts a non-linear relationship between hard upward influence tactics and job performance ratings (such that there is a negative relationship at lower level use, however, it becomes positive with higher use), was therefore partially supported (17c supported). Note that one item of the coalition tactic was affected by CMV; and the test has been repeated with just 2 items of coalition. The results show the same results as here (see Appendix 23 for these results).

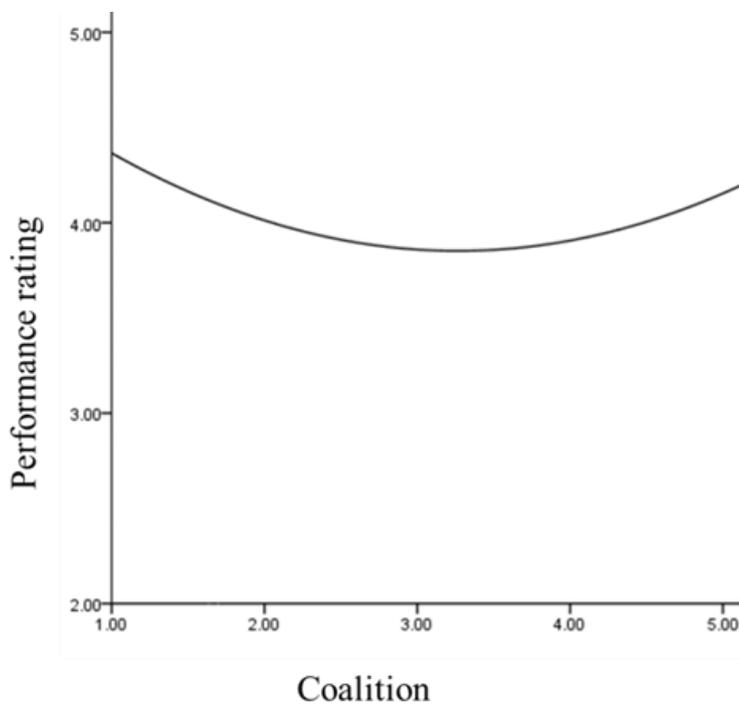
Moreover, results showed that the findings associated with the non-linear self-presentation squared term ($\beta = .69$, $p < 0.01$) indicate a positive and significant component of the relationship between self-presentation and performance ratings. This tactic have a positive linear relationship with job performance ratings and continue to have a positive relationship with increased use, therefore, hypothesis 18 is not supported.

Table 20: Regression

	Leaders UIT			
	Performance ratings			
	β	R2	$\Delta R2$	F
Step1				
Followers' age	.12**			
Followers' education	.08			
Length of Relationship	-.03	.02	.02	2.84**
Step2				
Ingratiation	.04			
Exchange	-.11*			
Rational	.30***			
Assertiveness	-.04			
Upward appeal	-.19**			
Coalition	-.05			
Self-presentation	.13**	.28	.26	13.79***
Step3				
Assertiveness-S	.23			
Upward appeal-S	.13			
Coalition-S	.43*			
Self-presentation-S	.69**	.32	.30	12.13***

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001 , N=398 dyad

Figure 11: The relationship between coalition tactic and performance ratings



6.9 The differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of followers upward influence tactics and test their relationships with job performance ratings (level of agreement)

One way ANOVA, interclass correlation coefficient (ICC1), and the rwg(j) values of within group agreement have been employed to address the differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of follower upward influence tactics.

6.9.1 One way ANOVA

One way ANOVA can be used to check if there are any significant differences between the means of the use of upward influence tactics, as reported by leaders and followers. For ingratiation tactic ($F = .024$, $p = .878$), assertiveness ($F = 1.115$, $p = .291$), upward appeal ($F = 2.531$, $p = .112$) and coalition ($F = .176$, $p = .675$), there were no statistically significant differences between leaders' and followers' mean values as determined by one-way ANOVA. However, there were statistically significant differences between leaders' and followers' mean ratings for exchange of benefits ($F = 6.292$, $p = .012$), rational persuasion ($F = 17.785$, $p = .000$), and self-presentation ($F = 4.479$, $p = .035$) tactics (See Table - 21).

Table 21: One way ANOVA

		M	SD	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	F	Sig.
Ingratiation	Leaders	3.75	1.09	3.64	3.86	.024	.88
	Followers	3.74	1.18	3.62	3.86		
Exchange of benefits	Leaders	1.62	.92	1.53	1.71	6.292	.01
	Followers	1.46	.86	1.38	1.55		
rational persuasion	Leaders	3.82	.93	3.73	3.92	17.785	.00
	Followers	4.11	.96	4.02	4.21		
Assertiveness	Leaders	1.88	.89	1.79	1.97	1.115	.29
	Followers	1.95	1.03	1.85	2.05		
Upward Appeal	Leaders	1.58	1.03	1.48	1.68	2.531	.11
	Followers	1.47	.90	1.38	1.56		
Coalition	Leaders	1.63	.92	1.54	1.72	.176	.68
	Followers	1.66	.95	1.56	1.75		
Self-presentation	Leaders	2.95	1.10	2.84	3.06	4.479	.04
	Followers	3.12	1.18	3.01	3.24		

N= 389

6.9.2 Interrater reliability and agreement:

Interclass Correlation Coefficient ICC(1) (Bliese, 2000), and $r_{wg(j)}$ values of within-group agreement (James, Demaree and Wolf, 1984; 1993) were calculated for each dimension of follower upward influence tactics. This was based on the author's interest in testing the consistency between measures of the same variable and the potential degree of agreement between leaders and followers. Table 22 shows that the perception of follower upward influence tactics did vary significantly across leaders and followers. The ICC1 values were low except in the upward appeal tactic which shows an acceptable value of ICC1 (.72). Two of the seven average agreement uniform and skewed null distribution values $r_{wg(j)}$ suggest lack of agreement (ingratiation and self-presentation). Rational persuasion and coalition tactics ranged between moderate to lack of agreement. Exchange and upward appeal ranged from weak to moderate agreement. Finally, assertiveness was ranged between weak to lack of agreement. Most of the results here are not achieving acceptable agreement between leaders and followers.

Table 22: ICC1 and $r_{wg(j)}$

Variable	ICC1	F	$r_{wg(j)}$ un	$r_{wg(j)}$ ss	Interpretation
Ingratiation	.52	197.56**	.15	0	Lack of agreement
Exchange	.53	39.21**	.68	.32	Weak, moderate agreement
Rational	.58	57.62**	.63	.13	Moderate to lack of agreement
Assertiveness	.40	236.94**	.47	0	Weak to lack of agreement
Upward appeal	.72	9.12**	.69	.33	Weak, moderate agreement
Coalition	.59	63.42**	.66	.25	Moderate to lack of agreement
Self-presentation	.48	89.98**	0	0	Lack of agreement

Note: .00 to .30 Lack of agreement; .31 to .50 Weak agreement; .51 to .70 Moderate agreement; .71 to .90 Strong agreement; .91 to 1.00 Very strong agreement (LeBreton and Senter, 2008)

Another regression test has been done for employees' data. Table 23 below shows that only the exchange of benefits and upward appeal tactics have negative relationships with performance ratings ($\beta = -.13$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.18$, $p < .01$ respectively). This shows that the results obtained from employees are similar to those obtained from leaders in just two tactics (exchange of benefits and upward appeal) and different in term of three tactics (self-presentation, rational persuasion and coalition). On the other hand, table 23 shows a non-linear relationship between upward appeal tactic and job performance ratings. The results show that the findings associated with the non-linear upward appeal squared term ($\beta = .82$, $p < 0.01$) indicates a positive and significant

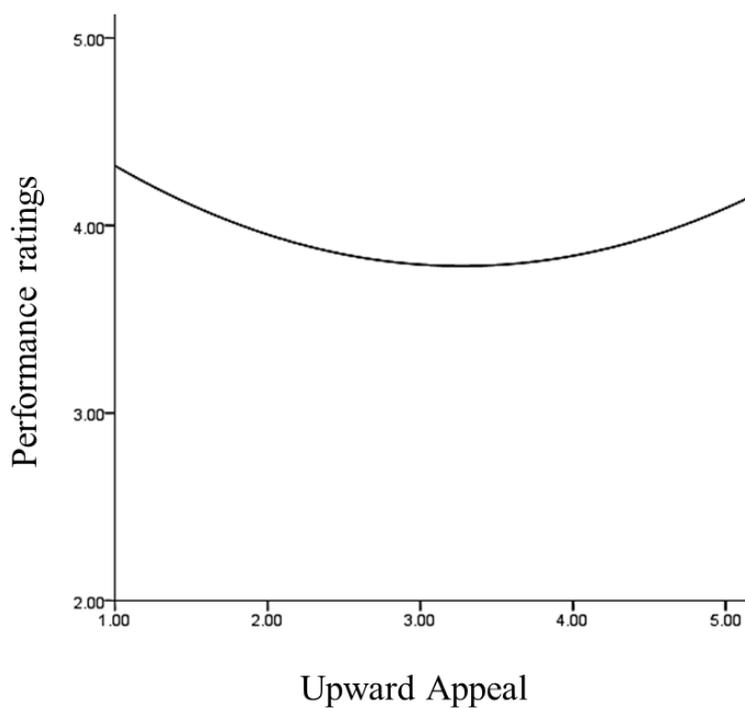
relationship (i.e. a U-shape) between upward appeal and performance ratings (hypothesis 17b supported) (see Figure 12).

Table 23: Regression (followers' data)

	Followers UIT			
	Performance ratings			
	β	R2	$\Delta R2$	F
Step1				
Followers' age	.12*			
Followers' education	.08			
Length of Relationship	-.03	.02	.02	2.84*
Step2				
Ingratiation	-.0			
Exchange	-.13*			
Rational	.07			
Assertiveness	.02			
Upward appeal	-.18**			
Coalition	-.00			
Self-presentation	-.01	.09	.07	3.67***
Step3				
Assertiveness-S	.44			
Upward appeal-S	.82**			
Coalition-S	-.33			
Self-presentation-S	-.08	.13	.09	3.66**

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$, N=398 dyad

Figure 12: The relationship between upward appeal tactic and performance ratings



6.10 The Use of Particular Influence Tactics in Saudi Arabia

Correlation table (Table 9) shows the means and standard deviations of upward influence tactics. Results show that, as hypothesised in hypothesis 20, rational persuasion (mean 3.82) was clearly used much more than assertiveness, coalition and upward appeal tactics (mean 1.87, 1.62 and 1.58 respectively). Results also supported hypothesis 21, that ingratiation and self-presentation (3.75 and 2.94 respectively) were used more than exchange of benefits (mean 1.62) which was used far less by comparison.

Table 24 Summary of hypotheses results

Hypotheses	Results
1 Rational persuasion is positively related to job performance ratings.	Supported
2 LMX - Affect (2a), LMX - Loyalty (2b), LMX - contribution (2c), and LMX - professional respect (2d) mediate the positive relationships between rational persuasion with job performance ratings.	2a- not supported 2b- supported 2c- not supported 2d- not supported
3 Ingratiation is positively related to job performance ratings.	Not supported
4 LMX- Affect (4a), LMX- Loyalty (4b), LMX- contribution (4c), and LMX- professional respect (4d) mediate the positive relationships between ingratiation with job performance ratings.	4a- not supported 4b- supported 4c- not supported 4d- not supported
5 Self-presentation is positively related to job performance ratings.	Supported
6 LMX- Affect (6a), LMX- Loyalty (6b), LMX- contribution (6c), and LMX- professional respect (6d) mediate the positive relationships between self-presentation with job performance ratings.	6a- not supported 6b- supported 6c- not supported 6d- not supported
7 Exchange of benefits is negatively related to job performance ratings.	Supported
8 LMX- Affect (8a), LMX- Loyalty (8b), LMX- contribution (8c), and LMX- professional respect (8d) mediate the negative relationships between exchange of benefits with job performance ratings.	8a- not supported 8b- not supported 8c- not supported 8d- not supported
9 Coalition is negatively related to job performance ratings.	Not Supported
10 LMX - Affect (10a), LMX - Loyalty (10b), and LMX - professional respect (10c) mediate the negative relationships between coalition with job performance ratings.	10a- supported 10b- supported 10c- not supported 10d- not supported

11 Upward appeal is negatively related to job performance ratings.	Supported
12 LMX - Affect (12a), LMX - Loyalty (12b), and LMX - professional respect (12c) mediate the negative relationships between upward appeal with job performance ratings.	12a- supported 12b- supported 12c- not supported 12d- not supported
13 Assertiveness is negatively related to job performance ratings.	Not Supported
14 LMX - Affect (14a), LMX- Loyalty (14b), and LMX - professional respect (14c) mediate the negative relationships between assertiveness with job performance ratings.	14a- not supported 14b- not supported 14c- not supported 14d- not supported
15 LMX - Affect (15a), LMX- Loyalty (15b), LMX- contribution (15c), and LMX - professional respect (15d) related positively to job performance ratings.	15a- supported 15b- supported 15c- not supported 15d- not supported
16 Gender similarity will moderate the strength of the mediated relationships between ingratiation (16a), self-presentation (16b), rational persuasion (16c), upward appeal (16d), coalition (16e), exchange of benefits (16f), and assertiveness (16g), with job performance ratings via LMX dimensions (Affect, Loyalty, Professional respect, and contribution), such that the mediated relationship will be weaker when the leader's gender differs from the follower's gender.	16a- P supported 16b- P supported 16c- P supported 16d- P supported 16e- P supported 16f- not supported 16g- not supported
17 There is a non-linear relationship between assertiveness (17a), upward appeal (17b) and coalition (17c) and job performance ratings such that there is a negative relationship at lower levels of use but this relationship becomes positive at higher levels of use.	17a- not supported 17b- Supported 17c- Supported
18 There is a non-linear relationship between self-presentation and job performance ratings such that there is a positive relationship at lower levels of tactic use but negative effects at higher levels of use.	Not Supported
19 There will be differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of follower upward influence tactics and test their relationships with job performance ratings.	Supported
20 Employees use the upward influence tactic of rational persuasion more than Assertiveness, Coalition, and Upward Appeal tactics in Saudi culture.	Supported
21 Employees use the upward influence tactics of Ingratiation and self-presentation more than Exchange of Benefits tactic in Saudi culture.	Supported

P = Partially

Chapter 7: DISCUSSION

7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results obtained from this study. The first sections centre on the direct relationship between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings, the role of Leader Member Exchange (LMX) dimensions as mediators for this relationship, and the relationships between LMX dimensions and job performance ratings. Following that, the role of gender similarity in moderating the relationship between upward influence tactics and LMX dimensions is discussed, followed by an examination of the non-linear relationships between a number of upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. Next, the differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of follower upward influence tactics and their relationships with job performance ratings are discussed. After that, a discussion follows on the use of particular upward influence tactics in the context of Saudi culture. Lastly, the discussion chapter ends with the strength and limitations of this study.

7.2 The direct relationship between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings

This is the first study to examine the effects of upward influence tactics on job performance ratings in a Saudi context. The results support a number of other studies in showing that upward influence tactics can influence a supervisor's perceptions of their subordinate's job performance ratings (e.g. Higgins et al., 2003; Su, 2010). Specifically, the regression result indicates that the use of influence tactics, namely rational persuasion, self-presentation, exchange of benefits and upward appeal tactics, significantly predicted job performance ratings by leader.

The results revealed that rational persuasion and self-presentation tactics have positive relationships with performance ratings. Previous research has shown that there is a positive relationship between employees' use of rational persuasion and evaluations made by the supervisor. It has also been found to be the tactic most likely to produce high performance ratings in most of the cultures that have been studied (Higgins et al., 2003; Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Ralston et al., 1995; Su, 2010; Wayne et al., 1997; Yukl and Tracey, 1992). It was expected that rational persuasion results in high job performance ratings in Saudi culture. In such a culture, the rational persuasion tactic acquires its power from the Islamic teachings. This tactic includes using

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logical arguments and factual evidence to convince the leader that the request is meaningful or valuable (Schriesheim and Hinkin, 1990) which involves a process of consulting with the leader. This tactic intersects with the process of consultation, or shura in Islam. Consultation or Shura is central to relationships in the Arab World (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). In Islam, Shura essentially means a decision-making process involving consultative decision-making (Khan, 2002). Many Quranic verses emphasise the importance of Shura: for example, "...and consult with them on the matter" (3:159), or "those who conduct their affairs by counsel" (43:38). Decisions are made "after consulting" is expected under Islamic teachings (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). An Arabic custom and tradition grounded in Islamic teachings emphasises consulting partners, friends and relatives on an organisational or daily basis (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). Therefore, using rational persuasion to convince the leader will result in the follower's being looked on favourably, as he or she is following Islamic teachings, and subsequently will attain a good job performance rating. Another explanation for why use of rational persuasion can result in high performance ratings could be that this tactic is the safest tactic (Botero et al., 2012). Rational persuasion indicates the level of knowledge that has been held by the follower as he/she is using evidence, proposals and detailed written plans to convince the leader about the task/request. Leaders in turn appreciate and prefer followers with good knowledge, and who are skilled and experienced (Liden and Graen, 1980).

Saudi culture is high in power difference, and, like other, similar societies, reinforces inequality among its citizens by stratification of individuals and groups according to power, prestige, wealth, status, gender and authority (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006). The way people address each other in organisations also reflects status differences. Socio-economic status is critical in Saudi culture - a tribal culture where belonging to a tribe is a source of support, power and pride for individuals. Moreover, Saudis believe that their family name or tribe is a source of social prestige and hence tend to use it to compete. Thus, one explanation for the relationship between self-presentation tactic and job performance ratings could be that a supervisor from the same, or a similar, tribal level as the employee will be influenced by the positive self-presentation of the employee. Since Saudi Arabians can be promoted according to their personal and tribal relationships (Anwar and Chaker, 2003) this could potentially lead also to achieving a positive job performance rating. Therefore such a tactic results in a positive relationship with job performance ratings. Furthermore, certain studies have argued that self-presentation can also be indirect (meaning the tendency to draw attention to one's connections in order to advance one's professional standing) (Cialdini and Richardson, 1980; Finch and Cialdini, 1989). Saudis might therefore wish to boast, for example, about their tribal connections as a way of enhancing their professional presentation in front of their leader. Another explanation could be that Saudi Arabia is a predominantly oral

society where making the “speech agreeable to ear” and where repetition as a means for keeping attention are major features of the oral tradition (Zaharna, 1995). In such societies there is high interpersonal involvement between speaker and audience, and the speaker strives for emotional and involved responses from the audience (Zaharna, 1995). Thus, leaders in such a culture, thought of in this context as the audience, can be influenced by how the follower (the speaker) presents him/herself verbally, in terms of highlighting his/her experience, competence, responsibility and achievements. Subsequently, the leader might evaluate the follower’s performance ratings positively. In general, this result is inconsistent with the findings of Wayne et al. (1997), who found that those who used self-presentation were given a lower interpersonal skills and lower assessment rating.

Upward appeal tactics have a negative relationship with job performance ratings. The upward appeal tactic involves threats to take the matters under dispute directly to the supervisor’s superior, the possible explanation for this result being that this is the most transparent, deliberate and planned tactic. It differs from other tactics because it is difficult to hide, and it is a more visible and tangible form of behaviour compared to some other influence tactics. Employees and supervisors know if the employee is engaged in such behaviour because someone more senior to them usually informs them of the issue. In Saudi Arabia, a culture characterised by high power distances (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993; Hofstede, 1994) and where respect is a basic and lifelong virtue (Alrwaitea, 2014), the use of upward appeal is generally seen as showing lack of respect. The use of this tactic is therefore likely to be associated with lower job performance ratings. This result supports the American view of the upward appeal tactic, as resulting in resentment towards the agent, but contradicts the Chinese view (although China’s culture is high in power distance) about having someone with higher authority resolve an emerging disagreement (Fu and Yukl, 2000). This raises a concern about the extent to which Hofstede’s cultural values dimensions are accurate. The researcher contends that although China and Saudi Arabia are both ranked as having a high power distance and collectivist cultures, the results regarding the upward appeal tactic differ because of cultural differences. China’s culture is a blend of socialism and Confucianism (Ralston et al., 1993). It is a long-term orientation culture (originally Confucian dynamism) includes strong orientation toward ordering relationships by status, thrift, and having a sense of shame, and respect for tradition (Hofstede and Bond, 1988). Higher power distance with Confucianism in China come from respect for the elderly people while within Saudi Arabia the collectivism is based on the tribal level more. Bian and Ang (1997, p. 3) claim that:

“... Confucianism relates individuals to their significant others, such as father and uncle in the family, and teacher and master in one’s career. This lays both the abstract and the concrete foundations for *guanxi* to operate in Chinese societies”.

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Guanxi means the system of social networks (relations) and influential relationships that facilitate business and other dealings (Fu and Yukl, 2000). In China interactions with another are viewed as part of a whole relationship, i.e. hierarchical relationships that exist in the workplace are also replicated in a social setting (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). A Chinese individual with a personal or organisational problem naturally turns to his or her *guanxiwang*, or “relationship network” for assistance (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). Further, an individual is not limited to his or her own *guanxiwang*, but may tap into the networks of those with whom he or she has *guanxi* (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). Therefore, the Chinese prefer to use indirect forms of influence (i.e. upward appeal) that involve the assistance of a third party (Bond, 1991) if they have any organizational problem (the third party could be *guanxiwang* or those with whom he or she has *guan-xi*). Indirect forms of influence from the Chinese perspective provide a way to avoid losing face and damaging *guan-xi* (Fu and Yukl, 2000). Thus they see the upward appeal tactic as an acceptable form of influence. The researcher asserts that, in turn, the Saudi Arabians see this tactic as unfaithfulness or disloyalty because, by using the upward appeal tactic, the employee is going over the boss’s head. This behaviour obviously reflects disrespect for the chain of command in Saudi culture. It could to a chilling of professional relations, especially if the leader is from the same tribal level as the follower. It could also cause losing face which is crucial in Saudi culture. Saudi culture tends towards short-term orientation (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). This concept relates to the encouraging of values associated with both past and present (e.g. respect for tradition and fulfilment of social duties) (Hofstede and Minkov, 2010). Thus using the upward appeal tactic in Saudi Arabia is regarded as showing a lack of respect for tradition and a neglect of one’s social duties. Another explanation could be that while Chinese prefer to avoid direct confrontation (Yukl et al., 2003), researcher believes that Saudis, in turn, do not have that preference.

A negative relationship between an employee’s use of exchange of benefits tactic and job performance ratings has been found. This is consistent with Kipnis and Schmidt (1998) who found that shotgun leaders (those who use exchange and assertiveness tactics more than do others) attracted the lowest performance ratings. This finding is also consistent with Wayne et al. (1997) who found that those who adopted the exchange of benefits tactic received a lower-rating when being assessed. It contradicts Fu and Yukl’s (2004) findings, however, that Americans favour the exchange of benefits tactic as they consider it to be effective. The high level of individualism and pragmatic interest in achieving immediate goals in American culture may encourage the use of exchange tactics by Americans (Fu and Yukl, 2000). Offering an incentive or explicit exchange is a direct, confrontational approach used for gaining consensus regarding a hard request, and this approach may be more consistent with American customs for resolving conflicts (Fu and Yukl,

2000). However, supervisors often expect subordinates to accomplish their requests without their needing to promise that something will be provided in return. This suggests that supervisors may react negatively to the use of bargaining (Wayne et al., 1997). The researcher believes that this is particularly the case in collectivist cultures like Saudi Arabia, where relationship prevails over task and resources should be shared (Alrwaitea 2014). The importance of long-term relationships may make employees more hesitant about the effectiveness of using exchange of benefit tactics. In Saudi culture, offering an impersonal exchange of benefit may cause one or both parties to diminish their professional standing (lose face). Consequently, exchange for loyalty as well as obtaining protection from family (or tribes) is far more acceptable as Saudi Arabia is a tribal society. In a paternalistic culture such as Saudi Arabia, furthermore, people in authority assume the role of parents and consider it an obligation to protect those under their care. Subordinates, in turn, reciprocate this by showing loyalty, deference and compliance to the paternal leadership (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006).

Patterns of employment, occupation, and service in public organizations differ substantially from those in private organizations. In most countries, the salaries of public employees are lower than those of private sector employees, promotion is slower, the focus is more on seniority in the reward systems, there are stricter reporting relationships, the levels of accountability are higher, and there are more rules and regulations (Solomon, 1986; Rainey, 1991; Robertson and Seneviratne, 1995). On the other hand, public organizations usually offer a stable work environment and higher job security; some even offer the challenge of serving a large and heterogeneous population (Tummers and Knies, 2013).

The predominance of the public sector in the sample of this study could have some implications for the findings. The structural differences of public organizations have a greater impact on upward influence activity when compared to private ones (Schilit and Locke, 1982). Researcher thinks that in public organizations, employees used more methods of upward influence and attributed success and failure to such factors as competence and interpersonal relationships more frequently than did workers in private organizations.

Public organizations have considerable goal complexity and goal ambiguity (Rainey and Bozeman, 2000). Moreover, public sector employees must deal with frequently changing agendas and unstable coalitions (Ring & Perry, 1985). Managing conflict, convincing people, and getting people to work together in such public organizations becomes a critical skill (Hooijberg and Choi, 2001). In an organization with substantial goal complexity and goal ambiguity, it could be useful for employees to use more upward influence tactics such as rational persuasion and self-presentation to resolve work complexity and maximize role clarity. Skills like encouraging people, listening

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carefully to what people say, and integrating many differing, but complementary, ideas are critical to public sector leadership (Denhardt and Pregovisk, 1992; Hooijberg and Choi, 2001). Moreover, using tactics such as exchange of benefits and upward appeal should be avoided in public sector environments. Such tactics could make the situation worse in the environment of public organizations.

Contrary to what has already been hypothesized, assertiveness and ingratiation tactics did not show any significant relationship with job performance ratings in the regression test. This could be because the assertiveness tactic is largely seen to be unreliable. Also, this tactic has low Cronbach alpha coefficient which could explain the absence of further relationships. As regards to ingratiation, the researcher believes that this tactic is used by Saudis as a common practice without any hidden agenda behind using it, and thus speculates that Saudis do not seek a good performance rating from their leader by using ingratiation. In addition, ingratiation tactic could work through other mechanisms which have been established in the following section.

7.3 The mediation role of LMX dimensions

The current research sheds light on the highly important role of Leader Member Exchange (LMX) dimensions in mediating the relationship between upward influence behaviours and job performance ratings in the Saudi context. Looking at the current findings on LMX dimensions as complete or partial mediators, the differences in the effectiveness of these dimensions in the Saudi organisational context are considered accordingly. The overall results reveal that a complete, mediational role of LMX quality was confirmed for the ingratiation tactic with job performance ratings through LMX-loyalty. In addition, a partial, mediational role of LMX quality was found for rational persuasion and self-presentation tactics with job performance ratings through LMX-loyalty. Moreover, a partial, mediational role of LMX quality was found for coalition and upward appeal tactics with job performance ratings through LMX-loyalty and LMX-affect.

7.3.1 LMX-loyalty

The LMX-loyalty dimension plays an important role in mediating the relationship between five upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. Both Islamic and Bedouin values and practices heavily influence Arab culture (Rice, 2003), strong Bedouin traditions or heritage ensure that values such as justice, loyalty, status and generosity remain important in Arab society (Rice, 2003). Bedouin traits influence the behaviour of all Arabs regardless of education, economic status, political views or religion (Almaney, 1981). Loyalties run in the following order: to one's

family, clan, tribe and nation (Rice, 2003). Arabs tend to secure strong social relations but put familial ties above all else (Schuster and Copeland, 1996). The importance of status in society manifests itself in an authoritarian “top man culture”, both in business and in every day life. This results in high levels of deferential and conforming behaviour (Rice, 2003). The ideals of Islam are also responsible for shaping Arabic culture as it presents itself today, particularly honesty, flexibility, trust and loyalty (Ali, 1995). In his multiple publications (1984 and 1990), Dadfar argued that Arab culture is fundamentally different from Western culture, in terms of the extent to which it upholds religious values and practices, as well as the importance placed on loyalties – first to immediate, then to extended family, tribe and religious sect (Obeidat et al. 2012). Family is centrally important to Arab culture, and the concept of extends to incorporate extended family and the wider community also. People do not only feel obligated to (save and maintain face for) their families but also to their wider social networks: mutual obligations are not only limited to family and kinship but also to non-kin ties in which people are expected to help each other as if they were fulfilling obligations to their family members (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). Such a collectivist culture results in a strong sense of the importance of social groupings and a high degree of social cohesion (Ali, 1993). Further details of the impact of the 5 upward influence tactics on LMX- loyalty are provided in the following sections.

7.3.1.1 Ingratiation tactic: complete mediation through loyalty

Ingratiation appeared to enhance LMX-loyalty, and LMX quality in turn acts to influence job performance ratings. Ingratiation appeared to be the strongest factor in terms of triggering LMX-loyalty. This could be because Saudi culture places a high degree of importance on maintaining relationships. Loyalty means that both parties publicly and visibly express their support for each other’s actions and characters, and that the loyalty is mutual (Liden and Maslyn, 1998; Sin et al., 2009). The ingratiation tactic generated loyalty because the leader who is being ingratiated will feel a sense of obligation towards the ingratiating individual (Jones, 1964; Tedeschi and Melburg, 1984). As a consequence, they will be loyal to them as loyalty is a mutual process between follower and leader (Law et al., 2010). Another explanation for why ingratiation appeared to be the strongest means of inducing LMX-loyalty could be that ingratiation, praise or flattery (or other enhancement) are fairly universal human behaviours, supported by Abraham Lincoln quote: “everyone likes a compliment”. Followers may be proactive in determining the quality of their LMX relationships with leaders by engaging in behaviours targeted at positively altering the perceptions that leaders form of them (Dulebohn et al., 2012). Ingratiation or praise is considered a common practice in Saudi culture. Saudis practice ingratiation with genuine sentiment and with a disinterested goal in mind. Many Arab sayings support such values, for example: “ Do good to

people in order to enslave their hearts” and, “Be generous to a person and you would win him/her”. The ‘good’ and ‘generous’ could be in just saying a compliment. Therefore, the ingratiation tactic is a way to obtain, earn, enhance or achieve loyalty between or from leader and follower. Also, leaders are more likely to ask loyal followers to execute tasks that require independent judgment or responsibility (Liden and Graen., 1980; Scandura et al., 1986).

Saudi Arabia is a collectivist (Hofstede, 1994) and paternalistic (Alshamasi, 2012) culture, and paternalism ensures that both parties remain loyal to one another (Pellegrina and Scandura, 2006). Studies show that Saudis appear to be very loyal to their organisations (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993) and have trust in their leaders (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015). The aforementioned result regarding loyalty found in this study thus becomes particularly significant in a society that respects hierarchy and power (Ansari et al., 2004; Alshamasi, 2012; Alrwaitea, 2014). Relationships are hierarchically arranged into superiors and subordinates (Alrwaitea, 2014). Seniors (superiors or elders) are respected and obeyed; and the tendency is to appease the superior, no matter what (Ansari et al., 2008; Alshamasi, 2012; Alrwaitea, 2014). Saudi collectivist values are interpreted as strong, “in-group” memberships that value close interpersonal exchange relationships, as well as loyalty and respect (Hofstede, 2001).

In the relevant literature, there are no studies on similar mediation relationships for LMX dimensions as mediators between ingratiation and job performance ratings. However, some studies (which investigated LMX as a moderator) show that ingratiation is more effective with high-LMX subordinates (Hunter et al., 2013). Ansari et al. (2008) highlighted the fact that the use of ingratiation is not time-bound, and that the choice of an ingratiation tactic may be a function of the quality of exchange (LMX) between the subordinate and the leader. Their findings revealed that, in general, in-group subordinates show a greater use of the ingratiation tactic compared to the out-group subordinates. Based on a sample from Turkey, Erdogan and Liden (2006) demonstrated that in-group people in collectivist cultures are more likely to use soft tactics like ingratiation (Ansari et al., 2008).

7.3.1.2 Rational persuasion and self-presentation tactics: partial mediation through loyalty

Using rational persuasion and self-presentation tactics increases the degree of loyalty between leader and follower. The loyalty dimension of LMX reflects the extent to which both leader and member show mutual obligation (Liden and Maslyn, 1998).

The rational persuasion tactic encourages LMX-loyalty because rational persuasion includes convincing the leader of the worth of a proposal or a request that is consistent with a shared

objective for the organisation, which indicates the level of the follower's honesty and loyalty to the organisation or the leader. Leaders prefer honest and truthful relationships with followers (Brown et al., 2005). This kind of influence tactic includes consultation, and a general wish among Arabs to see a more consultative and participatory management style has been noted in several studies (see, for example, Ali, 1993). The consultative style desired is an interactive type of leadership where the manager acquires others' opinions before deciding on an executive plan (Flamholtz, 1990). The Qur'an indicates that rewards will be for "those whose affairs are a matter of counsel between them". In such an environment of rationality and consultation with the leader, loyalty could also be increased, perhaps as a response or a reward. In Saudi culture loyalty is very important and popular; Saudis are loyal to their tribe/leader and make sure that they meet their expectations (Alrwaitea, 2014). The environment where the followers reason with their leaders, leads to considerable interpersonal attraction, mutual trust, strong loyalty, comfortable communication, and bi-directional influence (Krishnan, 2004). Hunter et al. (2013) found that rationality is more likely to promote shared beliefs and higher quality relationships with the leader. Rational persuasion tactics are more common and more likely to be effective when the employee trusts the supervisor (Yukl et al., 2006). Saudi employees will chose soft methods of persuasion or appeals to reason because Saudis appreciate the 'caring' and 'nurturing' environment that is engendered by paternalistic leaders (Alshamasi, 2012). Saudi leaders act or behave towards employees in a sensitive and supportive way, much the same as a father does (Alshamasi, 2012).

In term of self-presentation, subordinates want to promote themselves and highlight their achievements to the leader whenever it's possible. In collectivist cultures, an employee will self-present to their leader as an influential person, whether by direct means of tribe, wealth, academic position, experience or political influence, or via indirect means such as referring to one's powerful connections and using these connections for personal benefits in the workplace (Alrwaitea, 2014). According to Alrwaitea (2014) these behaviours could change the recipient's attitude toward the self-presenter in a positive manner. Moreover, Arab culture is influenced deeply by Bedouin values (Rice, 2003). On one hand, the major characteristics of Bedouin culture are pride and self-esteem; on the other hand, loyalty is also a basic value for them (Rice, 2003). Results show that self-presentation is a predictor of loyalty, which is a fundamental, shared value in Saudi Arabia. Saudi culture is paternalistic, which entails offering fatherly protection in return for loyalty and compliance (Fleming, 2005). Leaders are expected to be loyal to the employees who self-present themselves as competent, experienced and responsible. Leaders prefer subordinates who are committed, competent and loyal, and whose actions are consistent with the leaders' expectations (Graen and Cashman, 1975; Liden and Graen, 1980; Deluga and Perry,

1991). Another explanation could be that the loyalty would be higher between a self-presenter employee and the leader. Because the leader believes the self-presenter employee and influenced by him/her when they represent themselves positively. Leader, for example, will defend his/her subordinate in front of others (which indicates loyalty) based on previous subordinate's speech which he/she made it agreeable to the ear in an oral society like Saudi.

7.3.1.3 Upward appeal and coalition tactics: partial mediation through loyalty

Using upward appeal and coalition tactics diminishes LMX-loyalty. Upward appeal and coalition tactics are categorised as hard tactics (Farmer et al., 1997). In Saudi Arabia's collectivist and paternalistic culture, superiors should be respected and obeyed without exception; thus anger and hostility against a superior are suppressed and displaced (Ansari et al., 2008; Alshamasi, 2012; Alrwaitea, 2014). Using such hard tactics is considered as disrespectful because these tactics may include strong, offensive forms of behaviours and contradict the essence of loyalty which is "both parties' public support of each other's actions and characters" (Sin et al, 2009: p. 1049). Loyalty is also defined as the expression of public support for the goal and personal characters of both leader and follower (Graen and Scandura, 1987). Neither of the two tactics strengthen the relationship between leader and follower; instead, the leader is neglected and ignored. If a loyal person values his or her association with the leader (DelVecchio, 1998), the use of such hard tactics can hardly be said to display desire to maintain this association. Whereas a loyal person defends and supports the leader's interests (DelVecchio, 1998), using coalition and upward appeal tactics with the leader surely undermines the realisation of such interests. The critical aspect of LMX loyalty emphasizes perceived goal congruence and being a good team member (Dienesch and Liden, 1986, p. 625) and using hard tactics contradicts the essence of this definition because leader and follower goals are not longer congruent. Findings from previous studies have found that leaders often develop dependent and crucial relationships with the most loyal subordinates (Graen and Cashman, 1975). These hard tactics (upward appeal and coalition tactics) oppose the more fundamental ideal of loyalty in Saudi paternalistic culture (Alrwaitea, 2014).

No studies on similar mediation relationships. However, Deluga and Perry (1991) found that higher LMX resulted in a strong aversion to utilising upward appeal and coalition. These findings are not surprising and may reveal the trusting nature of high LMX. Use of these strategies (going over the boss's head and mobilising co-workers) would surely undermine any trust and it is contrary to the very nature of high LMX (Deluga and Perry, 1991). Hard tactics could be perceived by leaders as damaging to their dignity; they are likely to make the leader resentful, and can undermine trust (Yukl et al., 2006).

7.3.2 LMX-Affect

LMX-affect mediates the relationship between two upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. Arabs tend to value people and relations over tasks (Rice, 2003), and regard it as essential, in business, to establish relationships and connections before turning to business affairs (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). Saudis place a very high value on relationships (Alrwaitea, 2014), and daily affairs very much revolve around strong interpersonal ties and affections (Abosag and Naude, 2014). A basic liking of someone has been noted as an integral facet in these interpersonal ties and relationships (Robbins and DeNisi, 1994). Interpersonal liking is shaped by similarities, prestige (social reputation), reciprocity, personality, and attraction (Abosag and Naude, 2014). Further details of the impact of LMX-affect on the relationships between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings are provided in the following discussion.

7.3.2.1 Upward appeal and coalition tactics: partial mediation through affect

Using upward appeal and coalition tactics also diminishes LMX-affect. Affect refers to a mutual liking that both parties have for each other (Sin et al., 2009). Dienesch and Liden (1986: 625) defined affect as "the mutual affection members of the dyad have for each other based primarily on interpersonal attraction rather than work or professional values". Mutual liking between leader and member is assumed to be integral to developing an ongoing LMX to varying degrees (Dienesch and Liden, 1986; Liden and Maslyn, 1998). Affect is associated with the feelings that each party has toward the other based on liking and friendship (Liden and Maslyn, 1998). The results of this study show that using upward appeal and coalition tactics reduces the affect between leader and follower. As these are hard tactics, applying them destroys the relationship/friendship between leader and follower, and both tactics incorporate strong forms of coercive behaviour. One involves going over the leader's head and the other includes mobilising others to coerce the leader. The use of these harsh tactics (coalition and upward appeal) results in unfriendly/negative feelings about the subordinate, thus proving that pressure tactics weaken positive affect (Yukl and Michel, 2006). Moreover, social relationships in Saudi culture are very strong between members of a family/tribe (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993; Alrwaitea, 2014), something that is also evident in organisational life. Saudis prefer a tight social framework in organizations (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). 'Doing favours', for example providing social support or business assistance, and shows a willingness to be flexible, personal qualities highly valued in cultures experiencing high levels of uncertainty (Abosag and Naude, 2014). Going above and beyond usual expectation in terms of social obligations in the context of relationship in Saudi culture is likely to increase mutual affection within it (Abosag and Naude, 2014). Tactics like

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upward appeal and coalition, in comparison, might appear to be selfish to leaders. A further explanation for the finding could be that levels of affection are shaped by perceived social standing and reputation (Byrne, 1971). It follows, then, that if such hard tactics are employed where follower and leader are, say, from the same tribe, follower's reputation among others and mutual affection would surely decrease greatly. Once lost, reputation is not something easily regained in cultures such as that found in Saudi Arabia (Hutchings and Weir, 2006). The results of this study show that an employee who has no mutual liking for, or level of, friendship with their leader (because of using hard tactics) may be given low job performance ratings. Upward appeal and coalition contradict the meaning of friendship, in turn endangering and destroy the follower/leader relationship (van Knippenberg and Steensma, 2003). Moreover, such tactics are contrary to the very nature of high LMX (Deluga and Perry, 1991).

These results above demonstrate that some of the upward influence tactics can be significant predictors of the quality of the exchange relationships between followers and their leaders. According to role theory (Katz and Kahn, 1978), actions and behaviours of the follower (i.e. upward influence tactics) influence the role-making process (Kahn et al., 1964). Role theory describes accomplishing work through a chain of role episodes that include expectations, responses and evaluations (Graen and Scandura, 1987). The phases of the relationship between a leader and a follower are role *taking*, role *making*, and role *routinisation* (Graen and Scandura, 1987). The researcher believes that using upward influence tactics in the "Role taking" phase which is the initial interaction (critical to the development of the relationship) creates a specific stage in the employee/leader relationship as the leader in this stage evaluates and learns about the follower. Based on their assessment, the leader then decides about the future state of the relationship (Graen and Cashman, 1975; Dienesch and Liden, 1986). During the role-making step, the nature of this relationship is formalised (Graen and Cashman, 1975). Various exchanges take place in this stage, thus, which upward influence tactics are going to be used here is also critical for the whole relationship. In the role routinisation step, the relationship is more stable and leaders and followers have mutual expectations from the interlocking of behaviours (Graen and Scandura, 1987). The researcher believes also that using upward influence tactics in this stage also could either enhance or diminish the relationship between follower and leader.

Upward influence tactics (LMX antecedents) are likely to influence different stages of the relationship as it proceeds through the role-making process (Nahrgang and Seo, 2015). Therefore, it may be advantageous for a follower to manage the quality of exchange that develops in the dyad by using certain upward influence tactics. In the LMX context, using upward influence tactics

to strengthen the exchange relationships between leaders and their followers can be explained in light of the influence of these tactics on the affect and loyalty dimensions of LMX. These LMX dimensions provide an explanation for the behaviours and attitudes that are being exchanged in the role-making process (Law et al., 2010). The indirect influence means that employees' upward influence tactics first enhance or diminish the affect and loyalty of the exchange process depending on which tactics have been used, which ultimately leads to them acquiring or losing the desired performance ratings. Since no previous studies have investigated similar mediation findings, the current study considered this an opportunity to add new insights to the network of upward influence tactics and LMX literature in high power distance and collectivist cultures in general and in the Saudi context in particular.

Boyatzis (1982) found that public sector managers showed more concern for close relationships than their private sector counterparts (Hooijberg and Choi, 2001). If high-quality LMX is linked to higher employee performance, then public managers may wish to engage in behaviours that can lead to high-quality relationships with as many employees as possible (Hassan and Hatmaker, 2015). Leaders in public organizations may adopt different behaviours than leaders in private sector organizations (Hooijberg and Choi, 2001). The same could be expected for public and private sector employees in terms of influence behaviours. Research suggests that certain behaviours including supporting, recognizing, and consulting and traits such as honesty and integrity are particularly important for the development of high-quality LMX relationships (O'Donnell, Yukl, and Taber 2012; Yukl, O'Donnell, and Taber 2009). These behaviours compared to the results of this study could be presented by rational persuasion, ingratiation, and self-presentation upward influence tactics; these tactics have strong positive influence on the relationship between managers and followers (LMX- loyalty dimension).

Contrary to some of the hypotheses, empirical evidence has shown that there is no sign of a mediational effect of LMX dimensions on the exchange of benefits and assertiveness tactics with job performance ratings. One possible explanation could be that these two tactics work through other mechanism or mediators. Another possible explanation could be that the use of exchange of benefits may be a function of the subordinate's comparable power (Deluga and Perry, 1991). The quid pro quo could serve as a control mechanism that keeps both the superiors' and subordinates' power aspirations in check (Deluga and Perry, 1991). Moreover, the exchange of benefits tactic is less relevant to the quality of LMX relationships (Yukl et al., 2006). Regarding assertiveness, the possible explanation is that this tactic is the hardest tactic; it falls outside the norms of the relationships between follower and leader in Saudi Arabian culture. Furthermore, this tactic has low Cronbach alpha coefficient which could explain the absence of any relationships.

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Contrary to the researcher's expectations, the linkages between all upward influence tactics and LMX-professional respect and LMX-contribution were not significant. The reason for this may be that the relatively high correlations between the LMX-Affect and LMX-professional respect (.82) generate multicollinearity. Moreover, the scale's Cronbach's alpha was low for LMX-contribution (.60). If multicollinearity is not the reason for why results relating to professional respect were insignificant, another possible reason could be that the professional respect dimension is the 'perception of the degree to which each member of the dyad has built a reputation, within or outside the organization, of excelling at his or her line of work' (Dienesch and Liden 1986, p. 626). This definition clearly shows that professional respect emanates from the work task and job goals (Wang et al., 2008), while in Arab and specifically Saudi organizations relationships prevails over task (Alrwaitea 2014). Another explanation could be that leaders may prefer more work-related currencies, while followers may favour more socially related currencies (Dockery and Steiner, 1990; Liden et al., 1997). Since the LMX quality in this study was measured by followers, social currencies (LMX-Loyalty and LMX-Affect) were obtained significant results more than other currencies. However, that does not undermine the salience of these two currencies of LMX as these currencies might be crucial to other organizationally outcomes or might be crucial in another culture.

The partial mediation of LMX dimensions in the relationship between rational persuasion, self-presentation, upward appeal, and coalition upward influence tactics and job performance ratings give an indicator about the possibility role of other mediators. In leadership research, partial mediation is more common than complete mediation (Howell et al., 1986). Moreover, Partial mediation may exist because psychological behaviour has a variety of causes; it is often unrealistic to expect that a single mediator would be explained completely by an independent to dependent variables relationship (Judd and Kenny, 1981). The effects of a leader's/follower's behaviour on the criteria may not be totally explained by the mediator being studied; there may be a direct effect of leadership on the criteria or other mediated relationships which are excluded from the predictive model (Howell et al., 1986). It is unlikely that existing leadership models include all possible mediators for a given leader/follower behaviour (Howell et al., 1986). Other personal (i.e. followers' and leaders' characteristics, political tendencies, personality type), situational and organizational factors (i.e. organizational culture, work setting, organizational politics), and the cost, risk and benefit of the influence, all of these factors and others, are potential factors could affect the relationship between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings (see Figure 6).

7.4 The direct relationship between LMX dimensions and job performance ratings

The results show that LMX-loyalty and LMX-affect have positive relationships with job performance ratings in the Saudi culture. Maslyn and Uhl-Bien (2001) showed that different currencies of LMX are likely to predict various work outcomes in a variety of ways. Earlier studies have demonstrated significant relationships between LMX dimensions and employee outcomes in general. For instance, the LMX-affect was shown to independently affect employees' satisfaction (Bhal et al., 2009), task performance and job dedication (Wang et al., 2008), and commitment (Bhal and Ansari, 2007; Lo et al., 2010). LMX-loyalty was also found to significantly and separately influence commitment (Lo et al., 2010; Jing-Zhou and Wen-Xia, 2011). The affect, professional respect and loyalty dimensions of LMX have been shown to possess a negative relationship with turnover intention (Schyns and Paul, 2005). Results of this study indicate that LMX-affect and LMX-loyalty are related positively to job performance ratings in Saudi culture. Finding that only these two dimensions predict job performance ratings could be an indicator of the nature of Saudi culture. Saudi Arabia is ranked as a feminine culture (Hofstede, 1984), in the sense that Saudis are emotional, "caring" and "nurturing" (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). In collectivist cultures, people draw upon the 'we' identity, and value group goals, collective needs and emotionally depend on society (Fu et al., 2004). Thus, supervisors emphasise personal attributes or relationship-based factors such as loyalty and affect when they rate the performance of followers (Wang et al., 2008).

One can describe Saudi society as hierarchical: that is to say, it is high on power distance (Hofstede, 1991). In cultures of this kind, subordinates tend to submit to authority, accept already-established social hierarchies, and they expect their leaders to be paternalistic (Alshamasi, 2012). Sustaining congenial relations is important to a collectivist society (Triandis, 1994). Following Hofstede, it is proposed that citizens of collectivist societies are more likely to submit to group and intra-organisational influence. Since they cannot easily distance themselves from the various groups to which they belong, they will most likely be influenced by the norms of these groups (Vitell et al., 1993). These groups protect the interests of their members, but in turn expect permanent loyalty (i.e., adherence to group norms) (Vitell et al., 1993). Based on this evidence, it is anticipated that two currencies of LMX – affect and loyalty – that fit well in the cultural rubrics of Saudi Arabia will have a greater impact on job performance ratings.

7.5 Gender similarity as moderated mediation

The results show that gender similarity moderates the relationship between five influence tactics: rational persuasion, upward appeal, coalition, ingratiation and self-presentation and LMX dimension of loyalty.

Gender similarity leads to higher effect in a leader-member dyad (Bhal et al., 2007). Gerstner and Day (1997) found that relational demography is a predictor of leader-member exchange. Research in social psychology (e.g. Berscheid and Walster, 1969; Byrne, 1971; Harrison, 1976) provides evidence for a strong link between similarity and affective relationships (Bhal et al., 2007). Several studies (Engle and Lord, 1997; Deluga, 1998; Phillips and Bedeian, 1994) have empirically confirmed the impact of similarity as a key dimension on the quality of the relationship that develops between individuals. Usually, individuals tend to have higher affect with others who are similar to their own selves (DeNisi and Williams, 1988). Varma and Stroh (2001) found that both male and female supervisors exhibit a positive bias toward subordinates of the same gender and rate such members higher. Wayne et al. (1994) suggested that members with same-sex leaders would be more likely to develop high-quality exchanges than members with opposite-sex leaders. Similarly, a study by Duchon et al. (1986) revealed that gender similarity does predict “in-groupness”. When the leader and the direct report are of the same gender, the relationship is more likely to be characterised as an “in-group” (high-quality LMX) relationship. Pelled and Xin (2000) found a positive association between gender similarity of dyads and LMX, also, Tsui and O’Reilly (1989) found direct reports in mixed-sex dyads were rated as performing less effectively and were liked less than direct reports of same-sex dyads. Same gender supervisor–subordinate dyads are likely to have a common understanding of their role expectations, and this translates into higher LMX quality, job satisfaction, commitment and performance ratings (Bakar McCann, 2014). Any differences between leader and follower can potentially lead to a distanced relationship and even conflict, which of course does not aid in the establishing of LMX interpersonal relationships (Uhl-Bien, 2006).

Men and women are shown to use different sets of information for the purposes of establishing trust in other people (Johnson and Swap, 1982). It is likely that similarity allows two people of the same sex to mutually predict the other person’s thoughts and actions, and such behavioural predictability (Meglino et al., 1991) can enhance the expediency and quality of their professional collaborations (Bhal et al., 2007). Similar people use a common communication system (Schein, 1985) and interpret events in similar ways. Bhal et al. (2007) indicate that these mechanisms might operate in gender similarity and that they are important for LMX. Similarity thus provides opportunity for initiating an interaction, and, because of the ease of communication and similarity

in perceptions, it leads to better quality of exchange in a leader-member dyad (Tsui O'Reilly, 1989; Bhal et al., 2007). In addition, similarity has been found to have a positive effect on communication and integration in social groups (Tsui and O'Reilly, 1989). For example, Lincoln and Miller (1979) found that increased demographic similarity affected frequency of communication, and that race and gender were positively related to number of friendship ties (Tsui and O'Reilly, 1989).

It appears that the cause of relational demographic - gender similarity - effects may be a combination of a high level of attraction based on similarity (similarity-attraction paradigm - Byrne, 1971) and strong communication among the interacting members of the dyad (Roberts and O'Reilly, 1979). Therefore, if the follower who has the same gender as his/her leader uses ingratiation, rational persuasion and self-presentation tactics, this has a resulting positive effect on LMX, and specifically the loyalty dimension. The possible explanation for this is that gender similarity between follower and leader has been found to be positively related to a supervisor's liking of a subordinate (Tsui and O'Reilly, 1989; Qudge and Ferris, 1993; Wayne and Liden, 1995). According to Byrne's similarity-attraction theory, individuals who possess similar individual characteristics and attitudes will perceive one another as similar and will be attracted to each other (Byrne, 1971). This "birds of a feather flock together" concept posits that similarity leads to interpersonal attraction (Bakar and McCann, 2014). Thus, using these soft and rational tactics could increase the level of liking that exists within the same gender dyad, and consequently increase the LMX quality (LMX-loyalty). Another explanation is that since both leader and follower have the same communication manner, they understand each other and as a result may develop friendship ties. Females like to work with and for females, and males prefer working with and for males, because of the greater ease of communicating and of understanding each other's communication styles.

In order to achieve greater understanding of the relational dynamics at work, research on relational demographics suggests the need to consider relational norms within specific cultures (Tsui et al., 2002; Tsui, Wang and Xin, 2006). In non-Western cultures, relational demography is tied closely to local cultural norms, values, behaviours and attitudes (Bakar and McCann, 2014). Saudi culture's pronounced social norms dictate that men socialize with other men, and women socialize with other women (Alrwaitea, 2014). Such a norm is further reinforced by the values and practices of Islam (Bakar and McCann, 2014). A leader-member exchange relationship could be based on a similarity that is consistent with relational norms (which may inspire greater adherence to ideals such as that of loyalty) (Bakar and McCann, 2014). Therefore, in Saudi Arabia soft and rational tactics; self-presentation, ingratiation, and rational persuasion tactics encourage and increase LMX-loyalty when leader and follower have the same gender.

The opposite result was found in the case of coalition and upward appeal tactics as they show negative relationships with LMX in the case of same-gender dyads. Using these hard tactics harms LMX-loyalty between leader and follower of the same gender. These tactics are perceived as pushy and rude (Zhang, 2013). A possible explanation could be that these hard tactics hamper communication between follower and leader because they include going over the boss's head and mobilising others against him/her. This in turn means that a sense shared by leader and follower of the same gender that they are friends is unlikely to result. Another explanation could be that the power these two tactics exert and the harm they could cause for LMX-loyalty would be stronger if the follower and leader are of the same gender, since the follower's behaviour is not what was expected by the leader behaviour (based on the assumption that people of the same gender are more likely to be able to accurately predict each other's' thoughts and actions).

Another explanation for the results found here could be that the usual means of sharing ideas are frequent meetings and face-to-face contact (with both one's peers and with one's superiors or subordinates) (Han et al., 1998). Madhavan and Grover (1998) describe such practices as the "richness of personal interaction". Arabs prefer to communicate in person as opposed to electronically (Robertson et al., 2001). In the Gulf cultures (i.e. Saudi culture) communication draws its fullest meaning from the context; the people present, events happening currently, and the wider environment are all integral to full comprehension of what is being communicated (Rice, 2003). This kind of communication in Saudi culture could happen more between men and men or between women and women because Saudi culture applies a system of gender separation to most aspects of public, organizational, and private life (Baki, 2004). Therefore, such an impact resulting from these upward influence tactics would be clearer and stronger between follower and leader from the same gender as they communicate more often.

The results here provide reasonable support for Byrne's similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971). Previous research testing Byrne's similarity-attraction hypothesis has been conducted in the context of Western culture. This thesis has assumed the validity of the similarity-attraction association in Saudi culture.

7.6 Non-linear relationships between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings

A key finding which emerged from this study was the non-linear relationships that existed between the influence tactic of coalition (leader sample) and upward appeal (employee sample)

and job performance ratings. The findings showed that, as the use of upward appeal and coalition increased, job performance ratings dropped, and then as it exceeded to a certain point, it started to show a positive effect.

This was expected because as the employee brings more pressure to bear on the supervisor through the use of political skill, they eventually succeed in their goals. Initially, coalition attempts are perceived negatively by the supervisor who may view these as a challenge to their power; or because employees hesitate in the beginning and are not sure if their action will be successful. However, when the coalition is formed, the supervisor clearly is more likely to respond to these increasing collective demands. It may be that the tribal nature of Saudi society makes this more likely to be the case.

As previously discussed, social ties are very strong between members of a family (or tribe) or friends in Saudi (Alrwaitea, 2014). These relationships serve as the basis for influencing others. In Saudi culture, family and friends remain influential even in the context of non-familial or professional groups (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). Family and tribe, and the power these two types of social networks have on individuals, are essential to social cohesion. Therefore, the researcher believes that the coalition tactic could derive its strength (after increased use) from the pressure of the tribe. The follower could employ the tribe's power to pressure the leaders by forming and mobilising a group of people from the same tribe as the leader (or the same tribe's level). In cultures characterised by collectivism and high power distance (Hofstede, 2001; House et al., 2004), a high value is placed on loyalty and obligations to family/tribe members. Thus, it would be expected that the leader is affected by, and obligated to respond to, this kind of influence.

Most research looking at influence tactics in collectivist cultures has focused on the cultures of East Asia. Whereas these collectivist societies emphasise in-group harmony, other collectivist cultures such as those in Latin America as well as in Arab cultures regard the preservation of honour to be even more important (Triandis et al., 1988). Although individuals in Saudi culture will close ranks against those perceived to be out of the group, they openly compete with one another in order to further their own interests (Friedman 1989). This has been used to explain why in-group serving bias has not been found to be particularly high in Saudi Arabia (Al-Zharani and Kaplowitz 1993). Together this suggests not only that coalition might be used more frequently in Saudi culture than perhaps in other cultures, but also that managers might be more susceptible to the influence of coalition particularly at higher levels of use. This would demonstrate the extent to which the individual is well placed within tribal and familial networks.

Another explanation could be that the kind of coalition meant here is not a very strong form; rather, it is an informal model of coalition which depends on seeking out the leader of a group of

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people that shares the same demands (requests) and convincing them. Interestingly, informal groups more closely resemble typical Arab working culture than do formalised teams (Rice, 2003). Also this is based on the knowledge that Saudi managers typically prefer informality and the personal approach (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993).

Moving onto the non-linear results of the upward appeal tactic. One possible explanation for the initial negative effects is that upward appeal is the most transparent and deliberate tactic. It differs from other tactics because it is difficult to hide, and it is more tangible kind of behaviour compared to other influence tactics. The Saudi culture is characterised by high power distance and where respect is a basic and lifelong virtue (Alrwaitea 2014), thus the use of upward appeal is likely to be seen as conveying a lack of respect. The use of this tactic is therefore likely to be associated with a lower job performance rating in the beginning. Afterwards, this tactic showed a positive effect with job performance rating (with increased use). The researcher believes that this was expected because the employee puts more pressure on the supervisor. Furthermore, through the use of political skills, they eventually succeed in their goals. Therefore, an upward appeal tactic initially is perceived negatively by the supervisor who may view it as a challenge to their power. However, the supervisor eventually succumbs and thus responds to the increasing pressure. It could be also that tribal nature of Saudi Arabia plays an important role in making the increasing positive effects of upward appeal more likely. Socioeconomic status is particularly significant in the Saudi culture; it is a tribal culture where belonging to a tribe is a source of support, power and pride for individuals (Alrwaitea 2014). In such cultures, employees are more likely to establish relationships and often these relationships serve as the basis for influencing others. Collectivist societies such as Arab cultures emphasise the preservation of honour (Triandis et al 1988). In this, saving face is very important and popular (Alrwaitea, 2014). Thus, using indirect forms (upward appeal tactic) of influence could provide a way to avoid losing face (Fu and Yukl, 2000) in front of their managers. They also use the power of tribe to get an acceptance for their request from their supervisor's supervisor especially, if they are from the same level of tribe. Moreover, within the same context of preservation of honour, managers will respond and succumb to his/her employee's request to avoid losing face as well. Another possible explanation is that, employee could use this tactic as a follow-up, or as a second trial, if his/her initial influence attempts (by using soft tactics) did not work. Furthermore, some tactics can be used as initial attempts to create influence; whereas other tactics are employed more effectively as follow-up attempts (Yukl et al., 1993).

Regarding the demographic data, employee age was found to be related positively to performance ratings, which has been supported by other studies (i.e. Waldman and Avolio, 1986;

McEvoy and Cascio, 1989). This suggests that older subordinates are perhaps content with their careers and have a great deal of experience, and so their evaluation will be higher accordingly.

7.7 The differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of follower upward influence tactics and test their relationships with job performance ratings

Results show that the leader represents a different picture to the one presented by the follower in the use of some tactics. Both followers and leaders' results show that negative relationships between the use of upward appeal and exchange of benefits tactics with job performance ratings. Additionally, only leaders reported the relationships between followers' use of rational persuasion, self-presentation, and coalition tactics with job performance ratings.

Supporting these findings, others studies that examined relationships and behaviours at work (such as LMX) demonstrate that supervisors and subordinates do not report the same results in their exchange relationships (Schriesheim et al., 1998; Campbell et al., 2003; Xin, 2004; Hwa et al., 2009). For instance, Xin (2004) found that managers' perceptions of LMX quality are not always in harmony with those of their leaders (Hwa et al., 2009).

Relatively few studies focussing on upward influence use both subordinate and supervisor measures of upward influence tactics (i.e. Erez et al., 1986; Yukl and Falbe, 1990; Thacker and Wayne, 1995). Thacker and Wayne (1995) found some differences between subordinates and supervisors. While leaders report that their followers used ingratiation, rational persuasion and assertiveness, the followers just report using ingratiation as predictors of the likelihood of promotion. Yukl and Falbe (1990) found that assertiveness and upward appeals tactics achieved significant results for both agents and targets. Erez et al. (1986) indicated that followers use rational persuasion, assertiveness, upward appeal and coalition tactics, while leaders indicate just the use of exchange of benefits.

The inconsistent finding between leaders' and followers' results underscores the presence of perceptual distortion that invades the cognitive process of work-related decisions (Thaker and Wayne, 1995). Social desirability bias in agents' self-reports constitutes one possible reason for these discrepancies (Yukl and Falbe, 1990; Ansari et al., 2008). Subordinates are not always accurate judges of their own influence simply because exerting influence can have unintended effects upon the target (Thaker and Wayne, 1995). The researcher postulates that employees represented their behaviour in a favourable light and over-reported their use of socially desirable

tactics; they also down-played or denied their use of the tactics that are unaccepted socially. People usually strive to control their public image (Greenwald, 1980; Steele, 1988), they may achieve that, for example, through the use of impression management, or attempting to control or manage the impressions that other people form (Wayne and Liden, 1995). This could be understood within the framework of attribution theory (see Streufert and Streufert, 1969; Hastorf et al., 1970; Ross, 1977); in the context of Locke's (1976) and Vroom's (1964) views on individual defensiveness (people protect their self-esteem by taking credit for successful experiences and blaming others for unsuccessful experiences) (Schilit and Locke, 1982); and within impression management theory (Goffman, 1959; Tedeschi et al., 1971), which asserts that an individual likes to be seen by himself and others in the "best light" possible. The positive image that is portrayed by the individual is most likely intended to protect his/her self-esteem (Schilit and Locke, 1982).

The potential explanations for the three upward influence tactics that show differences between leader and follower are discussed below.

7.7.1 Coalition tactic:

A likely explanation is that coalition influences the supervisor's affective reaction to the subordinate (Thacker and Wayne, 1995). Previous studies have demonstrated a relationship between affective reaction and subordinates' performance rating (Tsui and Barry, 1986; Wayne and Ferris, 1990; Thacker and Wayne, 1995). Results for coalition thus support DeNisi and Willianis's observation (1988) that information relating to employees' performance is not a thoroughly objective process, and is significantly shaped by a supervisor's subjective impressions of his subordinates (Thacker and Wayne, 1995). Therefore, only leaders reported the use of this tactic by their employees because leaders are more cautious and notice such behaviours. Another possible explanation could be that, due to the sensitivity of the information about such tactics, followers might be hesitant about disclosing their views about coalition.

7.7.2 Rational persuasion tactic:

Regarding the literature on information processing, seemingly objective information may be provided by subordinates which superficially appears to be immune to perceptual distortion (e.g., Cummings and Schwab, 1973; Thacker and Wayne, 1995). Detailed action plans, logical arguments, facts, and careful explanations may serve as a guide to the supervisor's cognitive processes in a positive manner, a suggestion that is likely to be supported by those who support such a manifestation in the performance appraisal process. Thus leaders could be perceiving more of these tactics and subsequently react to them by evaluating the follower constructively.

7.7.3 Self-presentation tactic:

A possible explanation for this may be because this tactic is accepted culturally in Saudi Arabia (Alrwaitea, 2014). Subordinates may adopt this tactic and exert it as a display of self-confidence; leaders may interpret it differently, perhaps as an obvious attempt to show competence. Thus, the issue is how this tactic is cognitively interpreted. Supervisors are cognitively busy and regarded as experiencing cognitive overload due to their intense information-processing responsibilities (Fiske, 1993). On the other hand, individuals who present themselves well are able to successfully draw attention to their capabilities and achievements. They are therefore seen as competent by their busy supervisor. Supervisors value competent employees and will respond by conferring on them with favours and rewards (Blau, 1964).

In general, these differences also could be interpreted in the domain of intentionality. For example, while a follower may perceive an assertiveness tactic as a display of competence or self-confidence, leaders may interpret it differently, perhaps as an attempt to control (Thacker and Wayne, 1995). Differences in intentions or in how intentions are interpreted could cause this difference between leaders' and followers reporting of the use of follower upward influence tactics relationships.

7.8 The use of particular influence tactics in the Saudi context

A number of writers have highlighted national culture as a significant contextual factor likely to affect both the use and impact of upward influence tactics (Ralston et al., 1993; 1995; Terpestra and Ralston, 2002). This is the first study to examine the relationship between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings in an Arab culture, specifically in the Saudi context. The results have lent support to this thesis' hypothesis that rational persuasion, self-presentation, and ingratiation tactics are used in Saudi culture more than assertiveness, upward appeal, coalition, and exchange of benefits.

Consistent with other research, rational persuasion was reported to be used by employees with greater frequency than any other influence tactics in most of the cultures that have been studied e.g. USA, China, Turkey, France, and India among others (Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl and Falbe, 1990; Schermerhorn and Bond, 1991; Yukl and Tracey, 1992; Ralston et al, 1995; Rao et al., 1995; Wayne et al., 1997; Fu et al., 2004; Ansari et al., 2007). Rational persuasion appears to be the preferred influence tactic in Saudi Arabia. In such a culture, the use of rational persuasion could be derived from Islamic teachings (Shura). Rational persuasion incorporates the use of logic

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together with evidence to convince the leader, and also requires a process of consulting with the leader. Islamic/Arabic customs and traditions emphasise consulting with partners, friends and relatives on an organisational or daily basis (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993). Indeed, making decisions 'after consulting' is expected according to the Islamic teachings (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993).

Assertiveness was used far less frequently than the other influence tactics in Saudi Arabia; in fact it has been identified as one of the least-used and least-effective tactics across all cultures (Rao et al., 1995; Fu et al., 2001; Terpstra-Tong and Ralston, 2002). Saudi Arabians may be less prone to use assertiveness tactics because they anticipate resistance. Furthermore, people in high power distance societies emphasise values such as respect for authority (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015). Hofstede (2001) argued that Arabs are expected to have a high acceptance of unequal authority by virtue of their high power distance, which is usually reflected in their respect for authority and leadership (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015). On the other hand, the Quran and Hadeeth (Ali, 1996, 2010) frequently highlight the importance of leadership and of showing respect and obedience to one's leaders (Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015). Islam emphasises the need for mutual respect between employees and employers (Ahmed, 2011; Tlaiss and Elamin, 2015). Thus, a tactic like assertiveness is rarely used in such culture.

Similarly, coalition and upward appeal influence tactics were also judged not to have been used very frequently by employees. This consistent with Bhatnagar (1993) results. A possible explanation for this finding is the fact that Saudi Arabia is classified as a high distance power culture (Hofstede, 1994). This reflects Saudi family structure, where members are expected to comply with the decisions and directions of the father without question. This in turn is transferred to the workplace, where hierarchies are the norm and are rarely questioned. These norms pervade all aspects of society and promote acceptance of inequalities in power distribution (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006). Saudi society is high in uncertainty avoidance (Bjerke and Al-Meer, 1993), which suggests that employees may prefer to be told exactly what to do instead of being exposed to ambiguity through use of hard tactics.

Regarding ingratiation and self-presentation tactics: the influence tactic used most frequently after rational persuasion was ingratiation, and again this has been found to be used frequently across many, differing cultures (e.g., the USA) (Kipnis et al., 1980; Ralston et al., 1995; Rao et al., 1995; Bhatnagar, 1993) and it is one of the less-risky and more-widely accepted tactics (Ralston et al., 1995). Moreover, praise is considered as a common practice in Saudi culture; people habitually use eulogies to praise families/tribes and sometimes to praise their managers. Thus, it is not surprising that ingratiation is one of the important tactics in such a culture. The use of such

tactics do not pose major risks and do not damage relationships, so people feel generally comfortable using ingratiation (Zhang, 2013)

The use of self-presentation was found to be moderately used by employees, which is consistent with other studies examining influence tactics in high power distance contexts (Ralston et al., 1995). However, it has been found to be a highly used tactic in Malaysian culture (Ansari et al., 2007), as well as in American culture; Americans prefer to use image management tactics that make one stand out as an excellent performer (Ralston et al., 1993). Dutch employees view the use of image management as a positive way to exert influence (Ralston et al., 2002). Ralston et al. (1993) found that the Chinese did not use the self-presentation tactic; instead, they prefer the low-key approaches that create competitive advantages and make the leader look good as the way to succeed in work. Alrwaitea (2014) confirmed the use of this tactic by Saudis and the benefits they enjoy as a result.

Exchange of benefits tactic appears to not have been used very frequently in Saudi culture, which consistent with Bhatnagar (1993) results and inconsistent with the findings of Fu et al. (2004) who found that managers in collectivist cultures used the exchange of benefits tactic. This also differs from the case of Americans and Canadians, who prefer exchange tactics (Schermerhorn Jr and Bond, 1991; Egri et al., 2000; Fu and Yukl, 2000). This could be because of the individualistic culture that exists in the USA. The exchange of benefits in Saudi paternalistic culture is based on loyalty not on what the benefits. Saudis reciprocate manager's guidance and protection through loyalty, and therefore the exchange tactic is seldom used.

7.9 Strengths and limitations of the study

This research promises a number of strengths. First, the present study integrates literature on relational leadership – LMX and upward influence tactics to bring together complex bodies of research that have largely developed independently of each other. New perspectives have been brought to the study of upward influence tactics in organisations by examining leader-member exchange dimensions as mediators and gender similarity as a moderator. Furthermore, LMX-loyalty and LMX-affect dimensions act as a mechanism of the relationship between many upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. Moreover, gender similarity found to have a major impact.

Second, this study is testing the non-linear relationships between some upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. This added new avenues for upward influence tactics research. A third strength of this study lies in its examination of the difference between leaders' and followers'

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reporting of the use of follower upward influence tactics and their relationships with job performance ratings. This could explain some of the variation that has been found in the literature.

Fourth, this study adds to the relatively few investigations of the full range of related upward influence tactics and to the even smaller number of studies conducted outside the USA. It is the first study of upward influence tactics and its relationship with job performance ratings in an Arab country, such as Saudi context, that have not previously been looked at.

Data relating to upward influence tactics and job performance ratings have been collected from leaders (the same source) and at a single point in time, which could give rise to concerns about common method variance (Cook and Campbell, 1979). The evidence for common method variance has been detected for only 2 tactics (assertiveness and upward appeal tactics). Thus, evidence is offered that the results of this study were not a result of same-source variance except for these 2 tactics. The confidence in the findings obtained for; rational persuasion, ingratiation, self-presentation, and exchange of benefits tactics, showed significant effects for upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. Moreover, several procedure remedies have been used to reduce the likelihood of response bias, such as assuring participants of the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses and by separating scales items (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Regarding the two tactics that have evidence for common method variance, results relating to the upward appeal tactic were supported by followers' set of data. On the other hand, no significant results have been found for the assertiveness tactic from both set of data of the followers and the leaders.

These findings, however, also need to be interpreted within the context of the limitations. The first of these relates to the statistically significant relationships between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings identified in the study. However, this does not provide evidence of causation. As such, although upward influence tactics influence outcome variables such as job performance ratings, the current study could not examine reciprocal relationships. For example, it is impossible to determine from the approach used here whether the rational persuasion tactic leads to increased job performance ratings or whether increased job performance ratings leads to high levels of using rational persuasion tactic. Although the assumed direction in this study might seem logical, it could be that employees attempt to influence their leaders, in response to job performance ratings.

A second limitation is that this study only covers organisations in Saudi Arabia, which limits its applicability to other cultural contexts different to that of Saudi Arabia. Research suggests that cultural variation is an integral component of any study of human behaviour (for example, Hofstede et al., 1999). Cross-cultural studies have pointed out basic differences between Western,

Middle Eastern and Eastern cultures in particular in terms of the underlying value dimensions held by people (Abdelmoteleb, 2012). An obvious example taken from the current study is the collectivist nature of Saudi society, which contrasts with the more individualistic cultures of the West (Hofstede, 1980). A basic aspect of collectivism is the felt need for people of a certain culture to form groups, and to actively encourage social interdependence and compromise (Tafarodi and Swann, 1996). Saudis perceive themselves in terms of their relations to one another, and thus emotions reflect such relations to a greater extent. Such a facet of Saudi culture might account for the results differentiating between leaders rating of followers upward influence tactics and followers ratings of followers upward influence tactics.

In terms of the measurement, the upward influence tactics measured in this study have been collected from the agent and the target. Currently, there is no agreement in the field literature on what constitutes the full range of influence tactics. Indeed, there are now a number of alternative measures being used by researchers, which can make it difficult to compare findings between studies. Differences in supervisors' sensitivity to employees' use of tactics (selective recall of past events like assertiveness, coalition or upward appeal) could bias some of the results. Other studies also advocate taking measures of influence tactics from employees themselves rather than from the target – an approach also adopted by this thesis, which found different results from the leader sample.

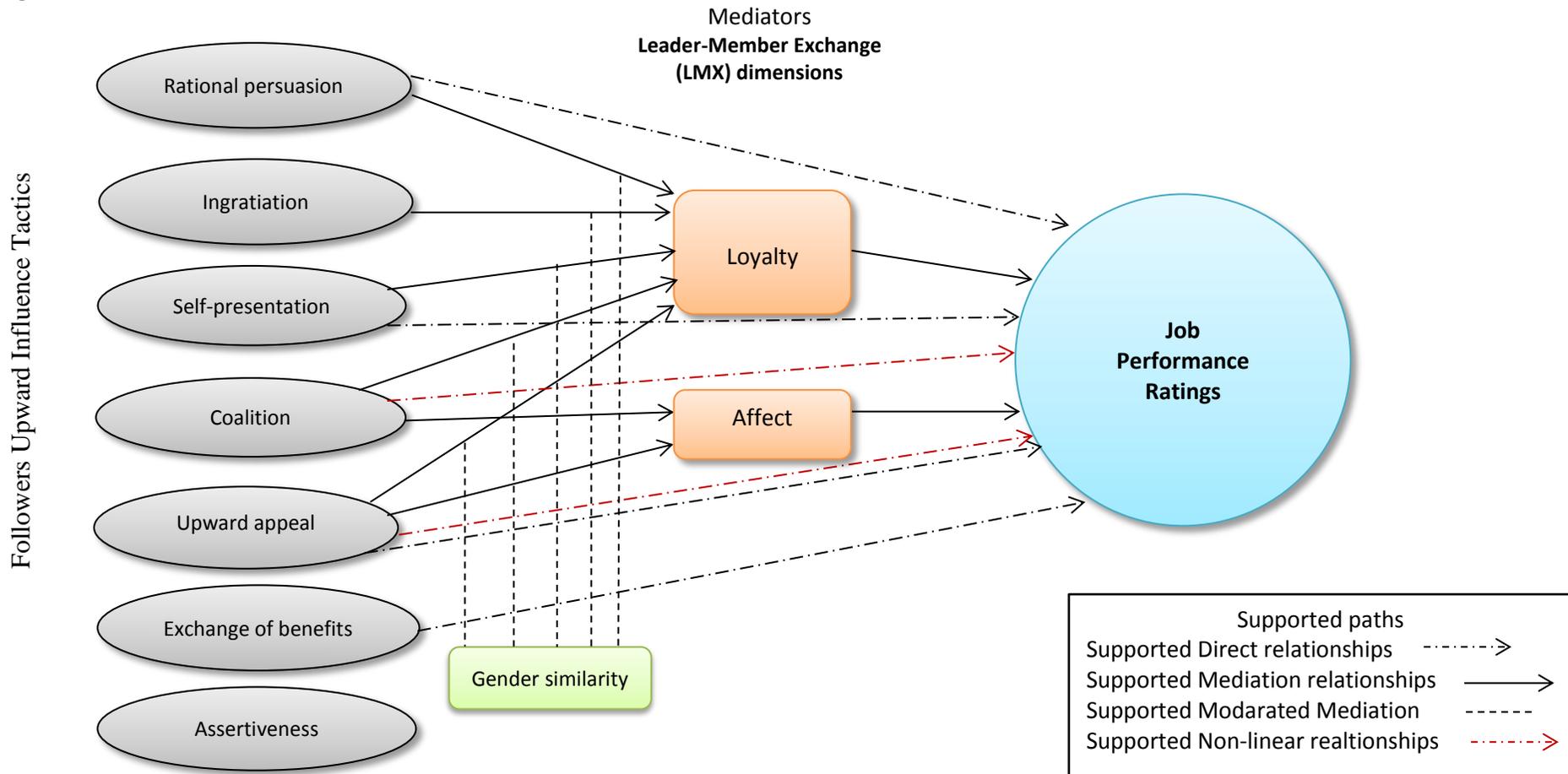
The measure of job performance ratings is a subjective measure of performance; it would be desirable to have an 'objective' measure of follower performance ratings. Past research has shown that the quality of the relationship between leader and subordinate influences job performance evaluations (Janssen and Van Yperen, 2004; Liden et al., 1997). In addition, the quality of leader-member exchange LMX was measured by followers. It has been suggested that followers' LMX are the more reliable means for assessing the quality of the relationship (Scandura et al., 1986; Krone, 1991).

The researcher notes that the Cronbach's alpha of assertiveness and LMX-contribution are low which make their relationships with other variables less reliable. These scales need to be expanded or reconstructed to enhance their reliability. A sign for multicollinearity between LMX-professional respect and LMX-affect has also been found (.82). Multicollinearity between variables may decrease the size of interactions (Morris et al., 1986).

Another limitation of this study is associated with predominance of the same gender dyad (84%) – this is because the male–female dichotomy is highly preserved by Saudi society, and most organisations have separate male and female sections.

7.10 The Final Model of the Study

Figure 13: The final Model



Chapter 8: CONCLUSION

8.1 Introduction

This concluding chapter is divided into three main parts. The summary of research findings is presented in the next section. This is followed by a statement of the implications of the research for theory and practice. This chapter ends with a brief discussion of future work that could be undertaken as a continuation of this research.

8.2 Summary of research findings

The present study integrates literature on relational leadership, LMX, followership, impression management, ingratiation theory and upward influence tactics to bring together bodies of research that have not spoken well to one another. Bringing together these literary fields helps in combining knowledge to generate a more complete understanding of upward influence tactics.

Gaining a better understanding of the followership and followers' behaviour, such as the use and effects of upward influence tactics in differing cultural contexts, is important, as business continues to globalise and organisations adopt more horizontal structures. Bodies of literature focussing on relational leadership, followership and upward influence tactics have been reviewed to highlight the often-overlooked, active role of followers in leadership. By thinking about followership as behaviours and relational interactions, we open up possibilities for seeing leadership and followership in more meaningful ways (Uhl-Bien and Ospina, 2012). The aim of the study was to follow this train of thought by studying the followers' behaviour and the role of relational leadership (LMX). The study revealed a number of findings. First, the upward influence tactics literature is fragmented and not guided by an overall theory. Second, rational persuasion and self-presentation tactics have a positive relationship with job performance ratings while exchange of benefits and upward appeal tactics have a negative relationship with job performance ratings. Third, leader-member exchange (LMX) dimension of loyalty mediate the relationship between upward influence tactics of rational persuasion, ingratiation, upward appeal, coalition and self-presentation tactics with job performance ratings. Moreover, LMX dimension of affect mediate the relationship between upward influence tactics of upward appeal and coalition tactics with job performance ratings. Fourth, LMX-loyalty and LMX-affect related positively to job performance ratings. Fifth, gender similarity moderates the relationship between upward influence tactics of rational persuasion, ingratiation, upward appeal, coalition, and self-presentation tactics with LMX - loyalty. Sixth, non-linear significant relationships have been found

that may be considered far more culturally contingent; the effects of the coalition and upward appeal influence tactics on job performance ratings show negative effects in low-level use and then positive effects in higher-level use. Researcher believes that examining non-linear effects of upward influence tactics across cultures may help to shed a new perspective on why inconsistent results have been found for the effects of influence tactics in differing contexts. Seventh, there are differences between leaders' and followers' reporting of the use of follower upward influence tactics. Finally, rational persuasion and ingratiation were the most-used tactics, self-presentation was moderately used, assertiveness, upward appeal, coalition and exchange of benefits were used less by comparison in Saudi Arabian culture.

8.3 Implications

The present study has some implications for theory and practice which are discussed below.

8.3.1 Theoretical implications

This study has introduced new perspectives from which to approach upward influence tactics research. Initially important was its identifying of a current lack of theory in the field of upward influence tactics. Second, this study has added an integrated framework of upward influence tactics which may help future researchers. Third, identifying Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) dimensions as mediators is a useful step in advancing and extending upward influence tactics research by showing that upward influence tactics influence the quality of the relationship between follower and leader. This is the first study examining LMX dimensions as mediators between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings. Results show that the real picture is far more complex and that the resulting work outcome (job performance ratings) depends on the quality of the relationship between follower and leader. The current study demonstrates complete and partial mediating role of LMX dimensions in linking some of the follower's upward influence tactics with job performance ratings. In so doing, the researcher suggests the dyadic exchange quality as one of the explanatory mechanisms for this relationship and opening up the way to consider other mediators.

Fourth, the results of this study tell a story about the role of gender similarity in influencing behaviours. The results support the notion of the similarity-attraction paradigm, as well as the notion that influence tactics may vary in effectiveness solely on the basis of the gendered nature of the follower/leader relationship.

Fifth, some of the results point to the varied effectiveness of some tactics in various contexts. In this study, the self-presentation tactic, for example, appears to have a positive relationship with job performance ratings; nevertheless, it has a negative relationship in other study. This suggests that context may indeed play a strong role in influencing the tactics. Thus, the researcher highlights the need for future research that examines the role of the influence attempt context. Sixth, this study responds to the call by many researchers for more empirical research to investigate the matched perceptions of both leaders and followers on the use of upward influence tactics.

Finally, examining the nonlinearity relationships has proved fruitful to furthering the understanding of upward influence tactics and opening the researcher up to new trains of thought. In this respect, this is the first study which responds to the call of Ferris and Judge (1990) for the need to address the possibility of curvilinear relationships between upward influence tactics and work outcomes.

8.3.2 Practical implications

Human interactions in the context of an organisation can sometimes result in conflict (Fu et al., 2004). This conflict can be aggravated by differences in styles of influence, as well as ignorance of a range of other, tenable styles. People often respond negatively to values and practices different to their own, and non-biased perception is prevented by people's tendency to interpret others' behaviour in the context of their own values (Fu et al., 2004). Use of unsuitable styles might not only result in ineffective professional conduct but might also create conflict itself (Fu et al., 2004). It would be useful, therefore, to gain an understanding of influence styles across cultures; such information would be of use in organizational leadership, team management, as well as other contexts (Fu et al., 2004).

As upward influence tactics are inevitable in work organisations (Gandz and Murray, 1980) and cannot be eliminated or ignored (Wayne et al., 1995), it is advantageous for employees and leaders to consider the ways in which different types of influence tactics are likely to work, how they are employed, their appropriateness, and their effectiveness. Empirically-based guidelines and training programmes or short courses would aid an effective use of influence tactics, and in the process would improve influential skills required to achieve desired aims through provision of advice regarding which tactics are likely to result in the most success and to the establishing of solid work relationships. Moreover, including this subject in career planning programmes or in mentoring programmes would be useful, by clarifying and explaining the followers' behaviours

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(upward influence tactics) and their consequences. Career planning management system would strike a balance between staff personal development and the needs and aims of the organization (Wu and Guan, 2009). Staff should show willingness and ability to work and organisations should be sensitive to each member of staff's personality, attitudes, performance level and potential for development. This could result in 'win-win' situations for both leaders and employees, as well as for the organisation as a whole.

Dulebohn et al. (2012) argue that the effectiveness of certain leadership behaviours is a function of how followers respond to such behaviours, as well as the wider social context in which behaviour occurs. These findings help to show that leadership consists of follower-leader interaction and depends on the wider and much more complex interaction in a social context. Leaders should be aware of the fact that relationship quality is important and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) is affected by upward influence tactics. Through an enhanced understanding of quality leader-member exchanges, organisations may seek to proactively foster more secure and fruitful supervisor-subordinate relations (Hwa et al., 2009).

In general, enhancing work-related interaction through guiding, coaching, sharing, communicating and delegation (Bauer and Green, 1996) can result in better employee outcomes (Bhal et al., 2007). Furthermore, by focusing on different aspects of their relationships with their superiors (i.e. loyalty and affect in Saudi), and their behaviours (upward influence tactics), leaders and followers can succeed in influencing each other positively. A greater understanding of how upward influence tactics work and how the two LMX dimensions influence different outcomes would help followers and leaders to use their relationships more fruitfully in the organisational context. In addition, LMX-affect and LMX-loyalty dimensions are more likely to improve the level of job performance ratings in collectivistic cultures - Saudi culture. Thus, organizations/leaders could benefit from focusing on enhancing these two dimensions.

Mechanisms such as workplace simulation or classroom role-plays can be employed to allow leaders to learn about, and practice dealing with followers' coalition tactics (Zhang, 2013) and upward appeal tactics. As it can be seen from this study, followers' use of continuous coalition and upward appeal tactics on leaders could alter the result. The leader should be taught the importance of understanding what the employees desire by looking beyond the behavioural aspect of their upward influence attempt and discover the real meaning and intention behind it (Zhang, 2013). Should the message and request behind the coalition behaviour be beneficial to work outcomes, the supervisors must help or comply; on the other hand, should the request be unreasonable, the supervisor should react professionally (Zhang, 2013).

Upward influence tactics can be used for personal goals as well as for organisational goals. When leaders are better able to react to these upward influence behaviours, the followers' satisfaction levels improve and organisational functioning may also improve in the long term (Zhang, 2013).

Bennis states that 'Leadership is grounded in relationship' (2007: 3); that is, followers must consider both their relationship with their supervisors and their objectives of influence attempt before using particular tactics (Ansari et al., 2008). Enhancing and maintaining positive relationships between leaders and followers promotes organisational success; and training supervisors and followers in behaviours may be an effective way to promote LMX quality (Bhal et al., 2009). Graen et al. (1982) undertook one of the few studies that set out to train managers to develop high-quality relationships (Dulebohn et al., 2012).

Moreover, organisations' leaders and human resources experts should view the use of upward hard tactics as a possible symptom of a problematic LMX quality. Therefore, interventions should be directed toward both dyads. Focusing efforts toward developing quality LMX could further assist in creating awareness of the nature of quality exchange (Goertzen and Fritz, 2004).

Organisations must ensure that supervisors understand how to implement the "art of performance appraisal" [see Bernardin and Beatty (1984) for an extended discussion of performance appraisal issues]. Organisations and decision makers should be cautious in how individuals are evaluated, as evaluation accuracy can be affected by the follower's upward influence tactics. Furthermore, if supervisor evaluations are used as the basis for key organisational decisions (i.e., pay, promotions), then there is the potential for individuals to receive desired outcomes because of their use of some upward influence tactics rather than more job-related criteria. Thus, managers need to be more cautious and evaluate the extent to which their compensation practices reward some upward influence tactics over skills of greater importance. Moreover, businesses may wish to provide training on issues relating to gender to managers so as to help them to appreciate how personal bias impact on the performance evaluation process (Varma and Stroh, 2001).

8.4 Directions for future research

This study has thrown up many promising starting points for future research. First, additional studies are needed which attempt to replicate the findings that are obtained here in the context of Saudi Arabia, as well as studies that examine the use of upward influence tactics more widely in an Arab context. Next, studies to date have only focused on a narrow range of outcomes; mostly

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this has involved tangible outcomes such as promotion, performance assessment and salary. Further studies examining the effects of influence tactics on outcomes not previously explored, such as flexible working, training opportunities, work-life balance, commitment, access to resources, implementing organizational change, organization and work effectiveness, and career progression are needed as the potential outcomes are likely to be affected by upward influence tactics. Additionally, a large area that remains underexplored is the extent to which influence tactics affect intangible outcomes such as prestige, status, respect, affiliation, recognition and fairness.

Much remains unclear as to the potential mechanisms through which influence tactics operate; indeed, future studies need to shift from research that shows whether influence tactics are effective, to research that simultaneously focuses on the issues of why influence tactics work by examining the theoretical mechanism(s) behind this, thus building more comprehensive theoretical frameworks. Findings from such research could then underpin the understanding of influence processes and their outcomes, and in so doing, employees and organisations may both begin to reap far greater benefits. In this regard, the findings presented here suggesting significant, non-linear relationships between the coalition and upward appeal tactics and performance rating is of considerable interest. This infer that the relationships between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings are far more complex, and that the influence of cultural factors as a result may be more nuanced. The researcher recommends that future research should include the possibility of non-linear relationships which may offer new insights into understanding how and why influence tactics can produce inconsistent effects.

Because the findings of some upward influence tactics have been inconsistent across studies, analysis of other moderators and mediators is needed. This study found evidence relating to the importance of studying other mediators, since LMX dimensions are found to partially mediate some of the relationships in this study. Examples of suggested mediators could be followers' and leaders' characteristics, the cost of influence, situational factors, agent belief system and others. Further research should control for structural variables (such as public and private organizations) that may affect the choice and success of the influence attempt. There is still room for theoretical improvement and extensions of empirical research on upward influence tactics via studying these mediators. The upward influence tactics research field needs to grow to maturity, considering that it has been the subject of study for over three decades.

Future research should incorporate other cultural dimensions, such as paternalism. Paternalism has been added to the discussion of cultural value dimensions (James et al., 1996). This study found LMX-loyalty and LMX-affect to be effective in a paternalistic culture - Saudi Arabia, this

suggests that it may be worth testing for paternalism in different cultures, as paternalism has been perceived negatively in the Western context (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006). The aim in future research is to consider to a greater extent the role played by culture in influencing leader-follower relations, especially given the wealth of empirical research showing that management of one's emotions in response to different situations differs widely from culture to culture. Additionally, the future research should consider adopting meso- and macro-level variables (like other economic and political variables) of culture, rather than just Hofstede's culture values dimensions (Ralston et al., 2005). Other values such as post-materialist values and modernist survival values must also be taken into account (Ralston et al., 2005).

More research is needed in studying gender differences in upward influence processes, as research has also revealed that the social roles of males and females in Western societies are more similar than they are in Asian societies (Schermerhorn Jr. and Bond, 1991; Terpstra and Ralston, 2002).

The quantitative approach was adopted in this study. Data gathered through a questionnaire may limit the full worth or complexity of views regarding upward influence tactics, and thus a qualitative or mixed-methods approach might give another insight into the topic. Such an approach would aim to gain further insight into the relationships between upward influence tactics and outcome variables. An interpretation of interview data findings may also provide insight into the relationships between the role of upward influence tactics and LMX dimensions in enhancing work-related outcomes that would otherwise not be captured by a quantitative approach.

As conjectured by Ferris et al. (1989), further research needs to be conducted on the conditions which give rise to opportunistic behaviour on the part of employees, the consequences of influence tactics, and how influence tactics and political dynamics impact on others in the workplace (Wayne and Ferris, 1990).

Longitudinal research is also called for on how follower performance- and non-performance-related behaviours affect exchange quality at various stages of the supervisor-subordinate relationship (Wayne and Ferris, 1990). Researchers are able to study reciprocal relationships between variables using the longitudinal design (Mackinnon, 2008). A careful examination with longitudinal design will provide robust evidence related to the impact of upward influence tactics on the LMX relationship. Another future research direction is the investigation of upward influence tactics over time in the development of the LMX relationship; perhaps the value and dynamics of the upward influence tactics will shift after leader and follower spend some time

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interacting with each other (Dockery and Steiner, 1990). Such longitudinal studies allow for a deeper understanding of how upward influence tactics operate, change, and developed over time.

Future research should investigate possible causes and consequences of different patterns of upward influence tactics ratings across dyads. Another area of concern for expanding this field of study is how new technology in the work place (i.e. virtual context) may change behavioural processes in the organisation. New forms of upward influence tactics such as the intermediation tactic which was identified by Steizel and Rimbau-Gilabert in 2013 demand more in-depth study. Moreover, these new technologies and new digital lifestyles demand a better understanding of LMX as face-to-face interaction is becoming less common.

Finally, more also needs to be learned about how influence tactics are perceived, interpreted and reacted to (Castro et al., 2003). A major issue that should be considered by future researchers is the issue of intentionality of the upward influence. Ferris et al. (1994) pose assumptions about the intentions of influence. While one may interpret the follower's use of ingratiation tactic, for example, as an effort to bring about a desired outcome, the follower may not have had a conscious aim in mind, and may have simply done so out of respect for protocol or manners. Moreover, behaviours may or may not reflect the real intentions (Fishbein, 1967). Thus, the issue of intentionality continues to pose a challenge.



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Appendices

Appendix – 1 Leader Member Exchange LMX – 7 items

Recommended Measure of LMX (LMX 7)

1. Do you know where you stand with your leader ... do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do? (Does your member usually know)

Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Very Often
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2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs? (How well do you understand)

Not a Bit	A Little	A Fair Amount	Quite a Bit	A Great Deal
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3. How well does your leader recognize your potential? (How well do you recognize)

Not at All	A Little	Moderately	Mostly	Fully
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4. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work? (What are the chances that you would)

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
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5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out," at his/her expense? (What are the chances that you would)

None	Small	Moderate	High	Very High
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6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so? (Your member would)

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
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7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader? (Your member)

Extremely Ineffective	Worse Than Average	Average	Better Than Average	Extremely Effective
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Notes: Continuous scale of sum of 5-point items (1 left to 5 right). Leader's form consists of same seven items asked about member of (leader in parentheses). Expected agreement between leader and member reports is positive and strong and used as index of quality of data.

Appendix – 2 (LMX Dimension Definitions)

Table 1. LMX Dimension Definitions^a

Affect:	The mutual affection members of the dyad have for each other based primarily on interpersonal attraction, rather than work or professional values. Such affection may be manifested in the desire for and/or occurrence of a relationship which has personally rewarding components and outcomes (e.g., a friendship).
Loyalty:	The expression of public support for the goals and the personal character of the other member of the LMX dyad. Loyalty involves a faithfulness to the individual that is generally consistent from situation to situation.
Contribution:	Perception of the current level of work-oriented activity each member puts forth toward the mutual goals (explicit or implicit) of the dyad. Important in the evaluation of work-oriented activity is the extent to which the subordinate member of the dyad handles responsibility and completes tasks that extend beyond the job description and/or employment contract; and likewise, the extent to which the supervisor provides resources and opportunities for such activity.
Professional Respect:	Perception of the degree to which each member of the dyad has built a reputation, within and/or outside the organization, of excelling at his or her line of work. This perception may be based on historical data concerning the person, such as: personal experience with the individual; comments made about the person from individuals within or outside the organization; and awards or other professional recognition achieved by the person. Thus it is possible, though not required, to have developed a perception of professional respect before working with or even meeting the person.

Note: a. These definitions were provided to the six expert judges at the Midwestern university. The judges were asked to indicate which dimension they felt that each item was intended to measure by writing the letter A, L, C, or P to indicate the appropriate dimension. When they were not sure, they were asked to write either “change” (meaning that the item might be acceptable if rewritten) or “drop” (it’s hopeless) next to the item in question.

Appendix – 3 (LMX-MDM scale - LMX multidimensional measure, Liden & Maslyn, 1998)

- I like my supervisor very much as a person
- My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend
- My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with
- My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question
- My supervisor would come to my defence if I were ‘attacked’ by others
- My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake
- I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description
- I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor’s work goals
- I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor
- I am impressed with my supervisor’s knowledge of his/her job
- I respect my supervisor’s knowledge of and competence on the job
- I admire my supervisor’s professional skills

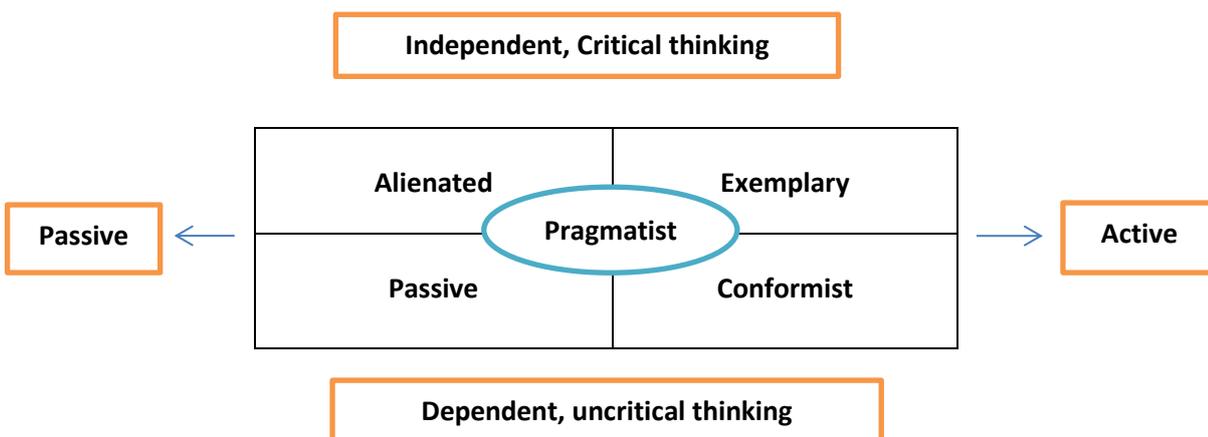
Appendix – 4 Stegers et al. 1982

Figure 1
Followership Types Derived From the Enhancement/Failure Avoidance Conflict

		Protection of self and/or extended self*		
		High	Medium	Low
Enhancement of Self and/or Extended Self	High	The Game Player	The Achiever	The Kamikaze
		Substitutes status for performance. Focuses on political cues. Defensive. Uses power relations to resist change.	Productive. Persistent goal setter. Needs feedback. Definite movement for change.	High energy level. Productive. Organization change stressed. Occasional folly. Could be costly for the organization.
	Medium	The Bureaucrat	The Super Follower	The Artist
		Productive. Enjoys status symbols but recognizes personal limits. Very low risk. Maintains status quo.	Productive. Average achiever. Some movement for change. The ultimate follower.	Productive. Positive attitude towards change. Must watch risk levels. Many times works for self-satisfaction but enjoys recognition.
	Low	The Apathetic	The Donkey	The Deviant
		Nonproductive. Defensive. Withdrawn. Apathy actually represents fear.	Low level of productivity. Has no interest in formal system of status and rewards. No movement unless pushed.	Impossible to motivate. Could-not-care-less attitude. High turnover rate. Can be destructive.

*Extended self would apply primarily to one's family but, under some conditions, might also apply to one's work group.

Appendix – 5 (Kelley , 1988-1992)



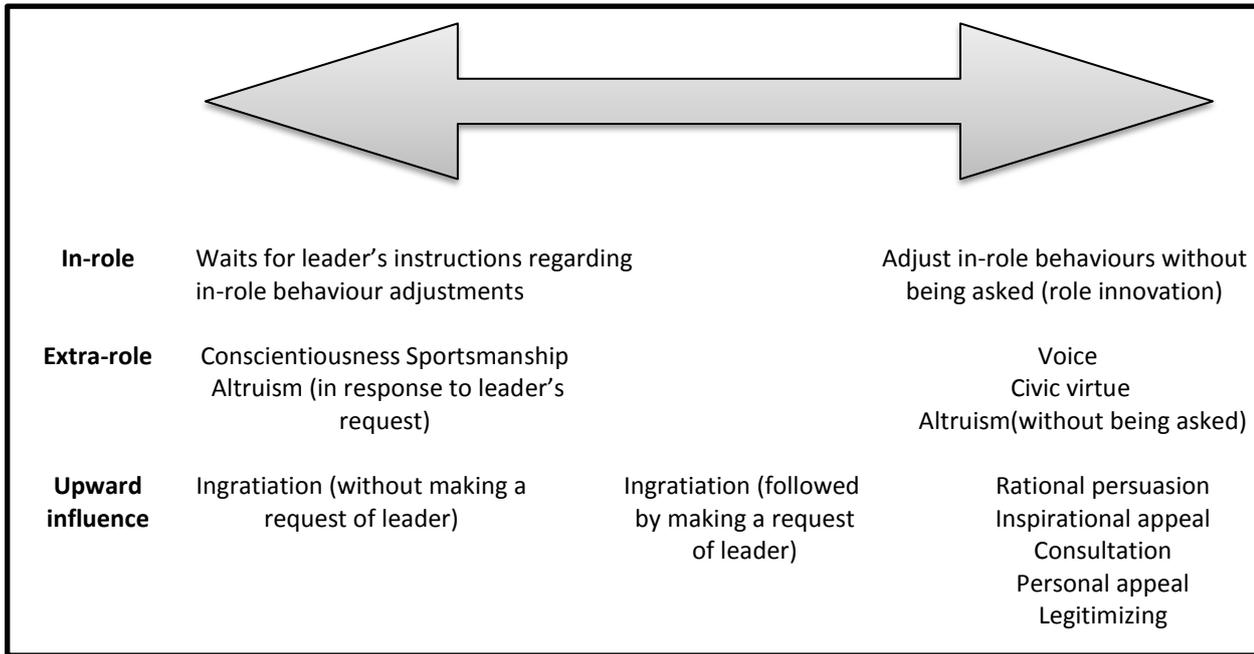
List of References

Appendix – 6 Kelley’s scale

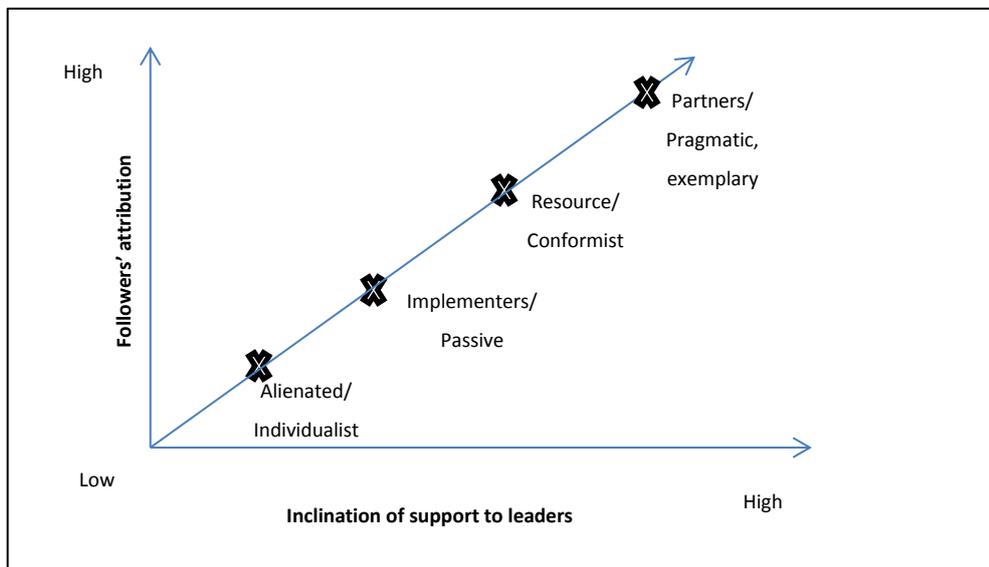
KELLEY’S FOLLOWERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE AS PUBLISHED IN KELLEY (1992) “THE POWER OF FOLLOWERSHIP”						
Instructions: For each statement, please use the scale below to indicate the extent to which the statement describes you. Think of a specific but typical followership situation and how you acted.						
Rarely		Occasionally				Almost Always
0	1	2	3	4	5	6
___ 1. Does your work help you fulfill some societal goal or personal dream that is important to you?						
___ 2. Are your personal work goals aligned with the organization’s priority goals?						
___ 3. Are you highly committed to and energized by your work and organization, giving them your best ideas and performance?						
___ 4. Does your enthusiasm also spread to and energize your co-workers?						
___ 5. Instead of waiting for or merely accepting what the leader tells you, do you personally identify which organizational activities are most critical for achieving the organizations priority goals?						
___ 6. Do you actively develop a distinctive competence in those critical activities so that you become more valuable to the leader and the organization?						
___ 7. When starting a new job or assignment, do you promptly build a record of successes in tasks that are important to the leader?						
___ 8. Can the leader give you a difficult assignment without the benefit of much supervision, knowing that you will meet your deadline with highest-quality work and that you will “fill in the cracks” if need be?						
___ 9. Do you take the initiative to seek out and successfully complete assignments that go above and beyond your job?						
___ 10. When you are not the leader of a group project, do you still contribute at a high level, often doing more than your share?						
___ 11. Do you independently think up and champion new ideas that will contribute significantly to the leader’s or the organization’s goals?						
___ 12. Do you try to solve the tough problems (technical or organizational), rather than look to the leader to do it for you?						
___ 13. Do you help out other co-workers, making them look good, even when you don’t get any credit?						
___ 14. Do you help the leader or group see both the upside potential and downside risks of ideas or plans, playing the devil’s advocate if need be?						
___ 15. Do you understand the leader’s needs, goals, and constraints, and work hard to help meet them?						
___ 16. Do you actively and honestly own up to your strengths and weaknesses rather than put off evaluation?						
___ 17. Do you make a habit of internally questioning the wisdom of the leader’s decision rather than just doing what you are told?						
___ 18. When the leader asks you to do something that runs contrary to your professional or personal preferences, do you say “no” rather than “yes”?						
___ 19. Do you act on your own ethical standards rather than the leader’s or group’s standards?						
___ 20. Do you assert your views on important issues, even, though it might mean conflict with your group reprisals from the leader?						
Key: Activity Items: 2,3,4,6,7,8,9,10,13,15						
Independent Thinking Items: 1,5,11,12,14,16,17,18,19,20						

TYPOLOGY/SCORE RELATIONSHIP		
Typology	Activity Level Score	Independent Thinking Score
Effective	High	High
Passive	Low	Low
Survivors	Mid	Mid
Alienated	Low	High
Yes People	High	Low
Note: High = Greater than 40 Mid = Between 20 and 40 Low = Less than 20		

Appendix – 7 (followers' display of In-role, Extra-role behaviours, & Upward Influence Tactics - from Lapierre & Bremner, 2010)



Appendix – 8 (integration of followers' classification – from Zawawi et al, 2012)



Appendix- 9 Tactics definitions, From Schriesheim and Hinkin, 1990

- Ingratiation, (seeking to get a target in a good mood or to think favorably of the sender before asking the target to do something)
- Exchange of benefit, (offering an exchange of favors with a target, indicating willingness to reciprocate at a later time , promising to share the benefits if the target help)
- Rationality , (using logical arguments and factual evidence to persuade a target that a request will result in the attainment of task objectives)
- Assertiveness/ pressure , (using demand, threats, and persistent reminders to influence a target)
- Upward appeal , (A behavior that depends on seeking the approval/ acceptance of those in a higher position within the organization prior to making a request)
- Coalition. (seeking the aid of others to persuade a target to do something or using the support of others as reason for the target to agree)

Influence Tactics

Description	This measure, developed by Schriesheim and Hinkin (1991), resulted from a refinement of the measure of influence tactics originally developed by Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980). The measure uses 18 items to describe six types of behaviors used by subordinates to influence their supervisors. The categories of tactics are ingratiation, such as making a supervisor feel important; exchange of benefits, such as offering to make a personal sacrifice if the supervisor would do a request; rationality, such as using logical arguments to convince a supervisor; assertiveness, such as repeatedly reminding the supervisor of what the subordinate wanted; upward appeal, such as making a formal appeal about a supervisor to higher levels in the organization; and coalition, such as obtaining the support of co-workers to back up a request.
Reliability	Coefficient alpha values ranged from .73 to .84 for ingratiation, .74 to .76 for exchange of benefits, .78 to .80 for rationality, .73 to .76 for assertiveness, .79 to .82 for upward appeal, and .83 to .87 for coalition (Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990).
Validity	Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis of the 18-item measure in two independent samples showed that items loaded on the dimensions as expected and that the six dimensions were empirically distinct (Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990).
Source	Schriesheim, C. A., & Hinkin, T. R. (1990). Influence tactics used by subordinates: A theoretical and empirical analysis and refinement of the Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson subscales. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 75(3), 246-257. Items were taken from Table 1, p. 250, and Table 4, p. 255. Copyright © 1990 by the American Psychological Association. Reprinted with permission.
Items	Respondents are asked to describe how frequently in the last 6 months they had used each influence tactic on their boss. Responses are obtained using a 5-point Likert-type scale where 1 = <i>never use this tactic to influence him/her</i> and 5 = <i>usually use this tactic to influence him/her</i> .

Ingratiation items:

1. Acted very humbly to him or her while making my request
2. Acted in a friendly manner prior to asking for what I wanted
3. Made him or her feel good about me before making my request

Exchange of benefits items:

1. Reminded him or her of past favors that I did for him or her
2. Offered an exchange (e.g., if you do this for me, I will do something for you)
3. Offered to make a personal sacrifice if he or she would do what I wanted (e.g., work late, work harder, do his or her share of the work, etc.)

Rationality items:

1. Used logic to convince him or her
2. Explained the reasons for my request
3. Presented him or her with information in support of my point of view

Assertiveness items:

1. Had a showdown in which I confronted him or her face-to-face
2. Expressed my anger verbally
3. Used a forceful manner; I tried things such as demands, the setting of deadlines, and the expression of strong emotion

Upward appeal items:

1. Obtained the informal support of higher-ups
2. Made a formal appeal to higher levels to back up my request
3. Relied on the chain of command—on people higher up in the organization who have power over him or her

Coalition items:

1. Obtained the support of co-workers to back up my request
2. Obtained the support of my subordinates to back up my request
3. Mobilized other people in the organization to help me in influencing him or her

Definition of Influence Tactics

Tactic	Definition
Rational persuasion	The person uses logical arguments and factual evidence to persuade you that a proposal of request is viable and likely to result in the attainment of task objectives.
Inspirational appeal	The person makes a request or proposal that arouses enthusiasm by appealing to your values, ideals, and aspirations or by increasing your confidence that you can do it.
Consultation	The person seeks your participation in planning a strategy, activity, or change for which your support and assistance are desired, or the person is willing to modify a proposal to deal with your concerns and suggestions.
Ingratiation	The person seeks to get you in a good mood or to think favorably of him or her before asking you to do something.
Exchange	The person offers an exchange of favors, indicates willingness to reciprocate at a later time, or promises you a share of the benefits if you help accomplish a task.
Personal appeal	The person appeals to your feelings of loyalty and friendship toward him or her before asking you to do something.
Coalition	The person seeks the aid of others to persuade you to do something or uses the support of others as a reason for you to agree also.
Legitimizing	The person seeks to establish the legitimacy of a request by claiming the authority or right to make it or by verifying that it is consistent with organizational, policies, rules, practices, or traditions.
Pressure	The person uses demands, threats, or persistent reminders to influence you to do what he or she wants.

List of References

Appendix – 12 the tactics definitions, from (Yukl et al , 2008)

Table 1
Definition of the 11 proactive influence tactics

Rational persuasion	The agent uses logical arguments and factual evidence to show that a request or proposal is feasible and relevant for important task objectives.
Consultation	The agent asks the target person to suggest improvements or help plan a proposed activity or change for which the target person's support is desired.
Inspirational appeals	The agent appeals to the target's values and ideals or seeks to arouse the target person's emotions to gain commitment for a request or proposal.
Collaboration	The agent offers to provide assistance or necessary resources if the target will carry out a request or approve a proposed change.
Apprising	The agent explains how carrying out a request or supporting a proposal will benefit the target personally or help to advance the target's career.
Ingratiation	The agent uses praise and flattery before or during an attempt to influence the target person to carry out a request or support a proposal.
Personal appeals	The agent asks the target to carry out a request or support a proposal out of friendship, or asks for a personal favor before saying what it is.
Exchange	The agent offers something the target person wants, or offers to reciprocate at a later time, if the target will do what the agent requests.
Legitimizing tactics	The agent seeks to establish the legitimacy of a request or to verify that he/she has the authority to make it.
Pressure	The agent uses demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders to influence the target to do something.
Coalition tactics	The agent enlists the aid of others, or uses the support of others, as a way to influence the target to do something.

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Appendix - 13 (IBQ-G) from Yukl et al (2008)

Target IBQ-G

Person to be described:

Instructions: The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn more about the different ways people try to influence each other in work organizations. Please describe how much the person indicated above uses each type of behavior in an effort to influence

you. For each behavior item, select one of the following response choices, and write the number for your choice on the line provided.

- 1 I can't remember him/her ever using this tactic with me
- 2 He/she very seldom uses this tactic with me
- 3 He/she occasionally uses this tactic with me
- 4 He/she uses this tactic moderately often with me
- 5 He/she uses this tactic very often with me

If an item does not apply to your situation, then use the #1 response. Please try to avoid letting general impressions of the person bias your answers. Before you begin it is helpful to look over the 11 different types of influence tactics so that you do not get them confused with each other.

This person . . .

Rational persuasion

- ___ 1. Uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.
- ___ 2. Explains clearly why a request or proposed change is necessary to attain a task objective.
- ___ 3. Explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective.
- ___ 4. Provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.

Exchange

- ___ 5. Offers something you want in return for your help on a task or project.
- ___ 6. Offers to do something for you in exchange for carrying out a request.
- ___ 7. Offers to do a specific task or favor for you in return for your help and support.
- ___ 8. Offers to do something for you in the future in return for your help now.

Inspirational appeal

- ___ 9. Says a proposed activity or change is an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.
- ___ 10. Describes a clear, inspiring vision of what a proposed project or change could accomplish.
- ___ 11. Talks about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change.
- ___ 12. Makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.

Legitimizing

- ___ 13. Says that his/her request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies.
- ___ 14. Says that a request or proposal is consistent with a prior agreement or contract.
- ___ 15. Verifies that a request is legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.
- ___ 16. Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.

Apprising

- ___ 17. Explains how the task he/she wants you to do could help your career.
- ___ 18. Describes benefits you could gain from doing a task or activity (e.g., learn new skills, meet important people, enhance your reputation).
- ___ 19. Explains how a proposed activity or change could help you attain a personal objective.
- ___ 20. Explains why a proposed activity or change would be good for you.

Pressure

- ___ 21. Demands that you carry out a request.
- ___ 22. Uses threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something.
- ___ 23. Repeatedly checks to see if you have carried out a request.
- ___ 24. Tries to pressure you to carry out a request.

Collaboration

- ___ 25. Offers to help with a task that he/she wants you to carry out.
- ___ 26. Offers to provide resources you would need to do a task for him/her.
- ___ 27. Offers to show you how to do a task that he/she wants you to carry out.
- ___ 28. Offers to provide any assistance you would need to carry out a request.

Ingratiation

- ___ 29. Says you have the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out a request.
- ___ 30. Praises your past performance or achievements when asking you to do a task for him/her.

- ___ 31. Praises your skill or knowledge when asking you to do something.
- ___ 32. Says you are the most qualified person for a task that he/she wants you to do.

Consultation

- ___ 33. Asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.
- ___ 34. Consults with you to get your ideas about a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or implement.
- ___ 35. Encourages you to express any concerns you may have about a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or implement.
- ___ 36. Invites you to suggest ways to improve a preliminary plan or proposal that he/she wants you to support or help implement.

Personal Appeals

- ___ 37. Appeals to your friendship when asking you to do something.
- ___ 38. Says he/she needs to ask for a favor before telling you what it is.
- ___ 39. Asks you as a friend to do a favor for him/her.
- ___ 40. Asks for your help as a personal favor.

Coalition

- ___ 41. Mentions the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking you to support it.
- ___ 42. Gets others to explain to you why they support a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or help implement.
- ___ 43. Brings someone along for support when meeting with you to make a request or proposal.
- ___ 44. Asks someone you respect to help influence you to carry out a request or support a proposal.

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Appendix- 14 The SUI tactics (from Terpstra-Tong and Ralston, 2002)

Ingratiation/ Friendliness	Deliberately wait for a good time when the target is in good mood before seeking compliance. Agent may also make the target feel good of himself/herself by praising, acting in a friendly and/or humbly way, inflating the importance of compliance and pretending to be submissive to the target's expertise.
Rational Persuasion/Reason	Use logical arguments and reasons to convince the target to comply.
Good Soldier	Get ahead through hard work that benefits the organization.
Image Management	Actively present oneself in a positive manner across the entire organization.
Personal Networking	Develop and utilize an informal organizational social structure for one's own benefit.
Information Control	Control information that is restricted from others in order to benefit oneself.
Strong-arm Coercion	Use illegal tactics, such as blackmail, to achieve personal goals.
Organizationally Sanctioned Behavior	Behaviors directly beneficial to the organization such as self-enhancement (obtaining an MBA) and personal ingratiation tactics
Destructive Legal Behavior	Behaviors that directly harmful to others or the organization, such as obtaining and communicating information to discredit others)
Destructive Illegal Behavior	Behaviors harmful to others and illegal such as blackmailing, stealing valuable document and harassment

A.1. Strategies of upward influence items

1. Try to increase their credibility by obtaining a diploma or advanced degree, such as an MBA
2. Spread rumors about someone or something that stands in the way of their advancement
3. Volunteer for undesirable tasks to make themselves appreciated by the superior
4. Hire a criminal to seriously injure a competitor for a promotion
5. Try to influence the boss to make a bad decision, if that decision would help them to get ahead
6. Learn the likes and dislikes of important people in the organization in order to avoid offending these people
7. Use detrimental information to blackmail a person who is in a position to help them get ahead in the organization
8. Become well known within the organization by volunteering for high profile projects
9. Support the views of important people in the organization, even when they do not agree with these views
10. Use their network of friends to discredit a person competing with them for a possible promotion
11. Withhold information to make someone else look bad
12. Identify and work for an influential superior who could help them advance
13. Attempt to act in a manner that they believe will result in others admiring them
14. Take credit for a job well done performed by their subordinates
15. Use their technical expertise to make the superior dependent upon them
16. Demonstrate the ability to get the job done
17. Threaten to quit the company if their demands are not met
18. Put a listening device, such as a tape recorder, in the office of a competitor for a promotion to get information about this person
19. Threaten to give valuable company information to someone outside the organization if their demands are not met
20. Help subordinates to develop their skills so that the subordinates, in turn, will be in a position to help them attain their objectives
21. Offer sexual favors to a superior
22. Blame others for their own mistakes
23. Dress the way successful business people dress
24. Try to create a situation where a competitor for a promotion might be caught using illegal drugs or engaging in some other illegal activity
25. Try to get the answers to a job promotion examination to insure that they would score higher than others taking the exam
26. Put false information on a job resume to make themselves look better than they really are
27. Behave in a manner that is seen as appropriate in the company
28. Develop an in-depth knowledge of the work assignments

List of References

29. Try to develop contacts who might be able to provide detrimental information about one of their competitors for a promotion
30. Ask to be given the responsibility for an important project
31. Make sure that the important people in the organization hear of their accomplishments
32. Not bypass the superior and go to someone at a higher level in the organizational chain of command for fear of alienating the superior
33. Steal secret corporate documents and give them to another company in return for a better job at the other company
34. Maintain good working relationships with other employees, even if they dislike these other employees
35. Seek to build a relationship with a senior person who could serve as a mentor
36. Make anonymous, threatening phone calls to psychologically stress a competitor for a promotion
37. Work overtime, if necessary, to get the job done
38. Quit the company to take a better job with a new company.

A.2. Item allocation for the influence style hierarchy dimensions

- Organizationally sanctioned behavior items: 3, 8, 16, 20, 23, 28, 30, 32, 34, 35, 37
- Nondestructive/legal behavior items: 9, 12, 13, 14, 15, 17, 31, 38
- Destructive/legal behavior items: 2, 5, 10, 11, 21, 22, 26, 29
- Destructive/illegal behavior items: 4, 7, 18, 19, 24, 25, 33, 36.

Appendix -16: Job Performance ratings items from (Williams & Anderson 1991)

Scale Items	IRB
1. Adequately completes assigned duties.	<u>.83*</u>
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.	<u>.88*</u>
3. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	<u>.87*</u>
4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	<u>.83*</u>
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	<u>.52*</u>
6. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform. (R)	<u>.64*</u>
7. Fails to perform essential duties. (R)	<u>.72*</u>

Leader Questionnaire

Dear participant,

My name is Najla AlShenaifi, a researcher at School of Management, University of Southampton. I am working in a research team led by Professor Nicholas Clarke, Head of Organisational Behaviour/Human Resource Research Group at the university.

For some time research has indicated the advantages of involving employees in decision making processes in organizations. We are hoping to conduct research that seeks to extend our understanding of the psychological processes by which this happens. Specifically, we want to find out more about how the nature of the relationship between leaders and their followers influences important outcomes such as job performance ratings. The outcome of this research is to produce a set of recommendations about the factors that influence the dynamic of the relationship between leaders and followers and how this may offer new insights into decision making processes.

As this study will use pairs participants (leader and one of his/her employee) we will provide you (via email) with the name of one of your employee that you will fill the questionnaire about your relationship with him/her, and his/her performance. This questionnaire should take approximately 5-10 minutes, please tick the response that best describes your opinion, there are no right or wrong answers. Completing the questionnaire constitutes your consent to participate.

Please fill up this questionnaire and submit it as soon as possible or by,,2014 at the latest. Your response is important to the success of this study and the success of understanding the organizational behaviours in general which will benefit organization's future. All the information being collected will be kept in the strictest confidence and used for research purposes only.

Thank you very much for your help in advance.

Sincerely,

NajlaAlshenaifi

Researcher , School of Management, University of Southampton

Highfield, SO17 1BJ

United Kingdom

e-mail: na1g12@soton.ac.uk

List of References

Section. A

Code number:

Age: 20-25 26-31 32-37 38-43 44-49 50+

Gender: Male Female

Education: High school Diploma Bachelor Higher education

Type of organization: Public Private

Marital status: single married divorce widower

Do you have children: none 1-2 3-4 5-6 7 and more

How long have you been supervising your employee? Years

How long have you been worked in this organization? Years

Do you see this employee on a daily base ?. Yes No

Section. B

1. Please indicate the scale of the most appropriate response represents how frequently in the last 6 months your employee had used these tactics with you to influence you?

		Never use this tactic 1	2	3	4	Usually use this tactic 5
1	Acted very humbly to me while making his/her request					
2	Acted in a friendly manner prior to asking for what he/she wanted					
3	Made me feel good about him/her before making the request					
4	Reminded me of past favours that he/she did for me					
5	Offered an exchange (e.g. if you do this for me, I will do something for you)					
6	Offered to make a personal sacrifice if I would do what he/she wanted (e.g. work late, work harder, do his/her share of the work,..etc)					
7	Used logic to convince me					
8	Explained the reasons for his/her request					
9	Presented me with information to support his/her point of view.					
10	Had a showdown in which he/she confronted me face-to-face					
11	Expressed his/her anger verbally					
12	Used a forceful manner; he/she tried things such as demands, the setting of deadlines, and the expression of strong emotion.					
13	He/she obtained the informal support of higher-ups					
14	He/she made a formal appeal to higher levels to back up his/her request					

15	He/she relied on chain of command- on people higher up in the organization who have power over me					
16	Obtained the support of co-workers to back up his/her request					
17	Obtained the support of his/her subordinates to back up his/her request					
18	Mobilized other people in the organization to help him/her in influencing me					
19	Influence me because of his/her competence					
20	Make me believe that he/she is a very responsible person					
21	Tell me that he/she has a lot of experience with such matter					
22	Highlight his/her achievements to me					

2. Please indicate the scale of the most appropriate response represents your subordinate performance

		Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	Strongly Agree 5
1	Adequately completes assigned duties					
2	Fulfils responsibilities specified in job description					
3	Performs tasks that are expected of him/her					
4	Meets formal performance requirements of the job					
5	Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation					
6	Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obligated to perform					
7	Fails to perform essential duties					

Debriefing

Study Title: Follower upward influence tactics and their relationships with job performance ratings: The importance of leader-member exchange (LMX) and Leader/Follower gender similarity.

Researcher: Najla Ibrahim Alshenaifi

Ethics number: 8319

Thank you so much for participating in this study. Your participation was very valuable. It has been acknowledged that you are very busy and very much appreciate the time you devoted to participating in this study. There was some information about the study that could not be discussed with you prior to the study, because doing so probably would have impacted your actions and thus skewed the study results. This form explains these things to you now. The study focuses on three research objectives which are:

- (1) To explore the relationship between follower upward influence tactics (ingratiation, assertiveness, upward appeal, exchange of benefits, self-presentation, rational persuasion, and coalition) and job Performance ratings.
- (2) To investigate the role of LMX in mediating the relationship between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings.
- (3) To investigate the role of gender in moderating the relationship between upward influence tactics and job performance ratings.

List of References

These findings will contribute in extend the understanding of the psychological processes of involving employees in decision making processes in organizations. Specifically, find out more about how the nature/dynamic of the relationship between leaders and their followers influences important outcomes such as job performance ratings. This study did not use any deception to mislead the participants.

We hope this clarifies the purpose of the research, and the reason why we could not tell you all of the details about the study prior to your participation. If you would like more information about the research, you may be interested in the following :

- 1- Botero, Isabel C., Elizabeth A. Foste, and Kristin M. Pace. (2012), 'Exploring Differences and Similarities in Predictors and Use of Upward Influence Strategies in Two Countries', *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, Vol. 43, No. 5, PP. 822-832.
- 2- Terpstra-Tong, J. and Ralston D. A. (2002), 'Moving toward a global understanding of upward influence strategies: An Asian perspective with directions for cross-cultural research', *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, Vol.19, No. 2, pp. 373-404.
- 3- Farmer, S., Maslyn, J., Fedor, D., and Goodman, J. (1997), 'Putting upward influence strategies in context', *Journal of organizational behaviour*, Vol. 18, pp. 17-42.
- 4- Yukl, G., Guinan, P. J., & Soitolano, D. (1995), 'Influence tactics used for different objectives with subordinates, peers, and superiors', *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 20, No. 3, pp. 272-296.
- 5- Hinkin, T. R. and Schriesheim, C. A. (1990), 'Influence tactics used by subordinates: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis and Refinement of the Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson subscales', *Journal of applied psychology*, Vol. 75, No. 3, pp. 246-257.
- 6- Kipnis, D.; Schmidt, S. M.; & Wilkinson, I. (1980), 'Intra-organizational influence tactics: Explorations of getting one's way', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 65, pp. 440–452.

If you have any questions or concerns, you may contact me: Najla Alshenaifi (na1g12@soton.ac.uk) (najlashenifi@hotmail.com) .

It is very important that you do not discuss this study with anyone else until the study is complete. Our efforts will be greatly compromised if participants come into this study knowing what is about and how the ideas are being tested. Once again results of this study will not include your name or any other identifying characteristics. .

If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this research, or if you feel that you have been placed at risk, you may contact the research support officer, Angela Faux (risethic@soton.ac.uk) or Dr Martina Prude, Head of Research Governance, Research Governance Office, University of Southampton, Southampton, SO17 1BJ. (mad4@soton.ac.uk).

Follower/ Employee Questionnaire

Dear participant,

My name is Najla AlShenaifi, a researcher at School of Management, University of Southampton. I am working in a research team led by Professor Nicholas Clarke, Head of Organisational Behaviour/Human Resource Research Group at the university.

For some time research has indicated the advantages of involving employees in decision making processes in organizations. We are hoping to conduct research that seeks to extend our understanding of the psychological processes by which this happens. Specifically, we want to find out more about how the nature of the relationship between leaders and their followers influences important outcomes such as job performance ratings. The outcome of this research is to produce a set of recommendations about the factors that influence the dynamic of the relationship between leaders and followers and how this may offer new insights into decision making processes.

As this study will use pairs participants (leader and one of his/her employee) you will fill the questionnaire about your relationship with your direct supervisor. This questionnaire should take approximately 5-10 minutes, please tick the response that best describes your opinion, there are no right or wrong answers. Completing the questionnaire constitutes your consent to participate.

Please fill up this questionnaire and submit it as soon as possible or by,, 2014 at the latest. Your response is important to the success of this study and the success of understanding the organizational behaviours in general which will benefit organization's future. All the information being collected will be kept in the strictest confidence and used for research purposes only.

Thank you very much for your help in advance.

Sincerely,
NajlaAlshenaifi
Researcher
School of Management, University of Southampton
Highfield, SO17 1BJ
United Kingdom
e-mail: na1g12@soton.ac.uk

List of References

Section. A

Code number:

Age: 20-25 26-31 32-37 38-43 44-49 50+

Gender: Male Female

Education: High school Diploma Bachelor Higher education

Type of organization: Public Private

Marital status: single married divorce widower

Do you have children: none 1-2 3-4 5-6 7 and more

How long have you been supervised by your supervisor? Years

How long have you been worked in this organization? Years

Do you see your manger on a daily base ?. Yes No

Section. B

1. Below are a number of questions that ask you for your opinions on your experience about your relationship with your leader.

		Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree 7
1	I like my supervisor very much as a person							
2	My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend							
3	My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with							
4	My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question							
5	My supervisor would come to my defence if I were 'attacked' by others							
6	My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake							
7	I do work for my supervisor that goes beyond what is specified in my job description							
8	I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor's work goals							
9	I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor							
10	I am impressed with my supervisor's knowledge of his/her job							
11	I respect my supervisor's knowledge of and competence on the job							
12	I admire my supervisor's professional skills							

2. Please indicate the scale of the most appropriate response represents how frequently in the last 6 months you had used these tactics with your supervisor to influence him/her

		Never use this tactic 1	2	3	4	Usually use this tactic 5
1	Acted very humbly to him/her while making my request					
2	Acted in a friendly manner prior to asking for what I wanted					
3	Made him/her feel good about me before making my request					
4	Reminded him/her of past favours that I did for him/her					
5	Offered an exchange (e.g. if you do this for me, I will do something for you)					
6	Offered to make a personal sacrifice if he/she would do what I wanted (e.g. work late, work harder, do his/her share of the work,..etc)					
7	Used logic to convince him/her					
8	Explained the reasons for my request					
9	Presented him/her with information in support of my point of view.					
10	Had a showdown in which I confronted him/her face-to-face					
11	Expressed my anger verbally					
12	Used a forceful manner; I tried things such as demands, the setting of deadlines, and the expression of strong emotion.					
13	Obtained the informal support of higher-ups					
14	Made a formal appeal to higher levels to back up my request					
15	Relied on chain of command- on people higher up in the organization who have power over him/her					
16	Obtained the support of co-workers to back up my request					
17	Obtained the support of my subordinates to back up my request					
18	Mobilized other people in the organization to help me in influencing him/her					
19	Influence him/her because of my competence					
20	Make him/her believe that I am a very responsible person					
21	Tell him/her that I have a lot of experience with such matter					
22	Highlight my achievements to him/her					

Debriefing

Study Title: Follower upward influence tactics and their relationships with job performance ratings: The importance of leader-member exchange (LMX) and Leader/Follower gender similarity.

Researcher: Najla Ibrahim Alshenaifi

Ethics number: 8319

Thank you so much for participating in this study. Your participation was very valuable. It has been acknowledged that you are very busy and very much appreciate the time you devoted to participating in this

List of References

study. There was some information about the study that could not be discussed with you prior to the study, because doing so probably would have impacted your actions and thus skewed the study results. This form explains these things to you now. The study focuses on three research objectives which are:

1. To explore the relationship between follower upward influence tactics (ingratiation, assertiveness, upward appeal, exchange of benefits, self-presentation, rational persuasion, and coalition) and job Performance ratings.
2. To investigate the role of LMX in mediating the relationship between upward influence tactics and job Performance ratings.
3. To investigate the role of gender in moderating the relationship between upward influence tactics and job Performance ratings.

These findings will contribute in extend the understanding of the psychological processes of involving employees in decision making processes in organizations. Specifically, find out more about how the nature/dynamic of the relationship between leaders and their followers influences important outcomes such as job performance ratings. This study did not use any deception to mislead the participants.

We hope this clarifies the purpose of the research, and the reason why we could not tell you all of the details about the study prior to your participation. If you would like more information about the research, you may be interested in the following :

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- 2- Terpstra-Tong, J. and Ralston D. A. (2002), 'Moving toward a global understanding of upward influence strategies: An Asian perspective with directions for cross-cultural research', *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, Vol.19, No. 2, pp. 373-404.
- 3- Farmer, S., Maslyn, J., Fedor, D., and Goodman, J. (1997), 'Putting upward influence strategies in context', *Journal of organizational behaviour*, Vol. 18, pp. 17-42.
- 4- Yukl, G., Guinan, P. J., & Soitolano, D. (1995), 'Influence tactics used for different objectives with subordinates, peers, and superiors', *Group & Organization Management*, Vol. 20, No. 3, pp. 272-296.
- 5- Schriesheim, C. A. and Hinkin, T. R. (1990), 'Influence tactics used by subordinates: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis and Refinement of the Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson subscales', *Journal of applied psychology*, Vol. 75, No. 3, pp. 246-257.
- 6- Kipnis, D.; Schmidt, S. M.; & Wilkinson, I. (1980), 'Intra-organizational influence tactics: Explorations of getting one's way', *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 65, pp. 440-452.

If you have any questions or concerns, you may contact me: Najla Alshenaifi (nal12@soton.ac.uk) (najlashenifi@hotmail.com) .

It is very important that you do not discuss this study with anyone else until the study is complete. Our efforts will be greatly compromised if participants come into this study knowing what is about and how the ideas are being tested. Once again results of this study will not include your name or any other identifying characteristics. .

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Arabic Versions

Leaders/ Managers Questionnaire

أخي المدير/ أختي المديرة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته,,

أسمي نجلاء ابراهيم الشنفي ... طالبة دكتوراه وباحثه في كلية الإدارة ، في جامعة ساوثامبتون في المملكة المتحدة ، أعمل ضمن فريق بحثي بإشراف البروفيسور نيكولاس كلارك ، رئيس السلوك التنظيمي / مجموعة أبحاث الموارد البشرية في الجامعة.

أشارت الأبحاث الحديثة في مجال الإدارة للمزايا المتعددة لإشراك الموظفين في عملية صنع القرار في المنظمات ، لذا يسعى فريق البحث لإلقاء الضوء على هذه الظاهرة لتوسيع الفهم للجوانب النفسية المسؤولة عنها. على وجه التحديد ، هدفنا معرفة المزيد حول كيفية تأثير طبيعة العلاقة بين المديرين والموظفين على نتائج العمل مثل الأداء الوظيفي. نتائج هذا البحث تمثل مجموعة من التوصيات حول العوامل التي تؤثر على ديناميكية العلاقة بين المديرين والموظفين وكيف يؤثر ذلك على تقديم رؤى جديدة في عمليات صنع القرار وإشراك الموظفين.

وحيث ان هذه الدارسة تعتمد على زوج من المشاركين (اي مدير/ه أو مشرف/ه و أحد موظفيه/ا) سوف نرسل لكم (عبر البريد الإلكتروني أو عبر رسالة) اسم احد من موظفيك/ موظفاتك ، ونرجو منك ملء الاستبيان حول علاقتك معه/ا ، ادائه/ا وتدريبه/ا . هذا الاستبيان يستغرق حوالي 10-5 دقائق ، يرجى منك وضع علامة على الاجابة التي تصف رأيك ، لا توجد إجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة، كما أن استكمال الاستبيان يشكل موافقتك على المشاركة.

يرجى ملء هذا الاستبيان وتقديمه في أقرب وقت ممكن أو بتاريخ كحد أقصى. مشاركتك مهمة لنجاح هذه الدراسة و فهم السلوكيات التنظيمية بصفة عامة مما سيعود بالنفع على مستقبل منظماتك والمنظمات المماثلة. وستبقى جميع المعلومات التي سيتم جمعها في سرية تامة وستستخدم لأغراض البحث فقط.

كما ننوه ونحيطكم علما بأنه لن يتم الاطلاع على إجاباتكم إلا من قبل الباحثة فقط لذلك نرجو تقديم إجاباتكم بمنتهى الشفافية والصراحة ، لنتمكن من الحصول على نتائج حقيقية غير مضلله او متحيزه

شكرا جزيلا لتعاونكم

Sincerely,

Najla Alshenaifi

PhD student and Researcher , School of Management, University of Southampton

Highfield, SO17 1BJ

United Kingdom

email: nalg12@soton.ac.uk

*الرمز :

العمر : 20-25 □ 26-31 □ 32-37 □ 38-43 □ 44-49 □ 50+ □

الجنس : ذكر □ انثى (نعتذر لك عن استخدامنا لصيغة المذكر في الأسئلة التالية لوصف كلا الطرفين المدير والموظف سواء المذكر والمؤنث وذلك لتلافي التشتت في تكرار بعض الحروف مثال :موظفك/موظفتك ، معه/معها ، قدم/قدمت ،،، ونقدر تفهمك)

التعليم : ثانوي □ دبلوم □ بكالوريوس □ تعليم جامعي عالي □

نوع المنظمة : قطاع حكومي □ قطاع خاص □ قطاع غير ربحي جمعيات خيرية □

الحالة الاجتماعية : اعزب □ متزوج □ مطلق □ ارملة □

هل لديك اطفال : لا □ 1-2 □ 3-4 □ 5-6 □ 7+ □

عدد سنوات خبرتك في هذه المنظمة؟..... سنه

عدد سنوات إشرافك على هذا الموظفسنه

هل تري موظفك هذا بشكل يومي : لا □ نعم □

1. يرجى الإشارة إلى الإجابة الأنسب التي تمثل عدد المرات التي استخدم مروضك احد الطرق التالية معك للتأثير عليك في الأشهر الستة الماضية

5 يستخدم هذه الطريقة عادة	4	3	2	1 لم يستخدم هذه الطريقة ابدا	
					1 تصرف بلباقة وتواضع عندما تقدم بالطلب
					2 تصرف بأسلوب ودي مسبقا قبل ان يتقدم بالطلب
					3 حرص على تكوين انطباع جيد وكسب رضاي قبل التقدم بالطلب
					4 يذكرني بالخدمات السابقة التي قدمها لي
					5 يعرض علي تبادل (مثل اذا فعلت ذلك لي سأفعل شيء لك بالمقابل)
					6 عرض علي ان يقوم بتوضيحية شخصية في حال لو حققت له ما يريد (مثل العمل لساعات متأخرة- العمل بمجهود اكثر- او ان ينجز عملي عني)
					7 استخدم المنطق لإقناعي
					8 شرح أسباب طلبه بوضوح
					9 قدم الطلب مع المعلومات التي تدعم وجهة نظره
					10 واجهني بشكل حاسم وجها لوجه
					11 أبدى الغضب والاستياء لفظيا

List of References

					استخدم القوة حيث جرب معي طرق كالإلحاح، ووضع مده معينة لتنفيذ مطالبه، والتعبير عن مشاعره بشكل قوي ومباشر	12
					حصل على دعم غير رسمي من الجهات العليا مثل المسؤولين الأعلى درجة مني	13
					ناشد رسميا المستويات العليا لتدعمه في طلبه بشكل رسمي	14
					اعتمد على اشخاص في مستويات عليا في المنظمة لديهم سلطة علي	15
					حصل على دعم من زملائه في العمل لتعزيز طلبه	16
					حصل على دعم مرؤوسيه (موظفيه) في العمل بخصوص طلبه - إن وجدوا	17
					قام بتحريك اناس اخرين في المنظمة لمساعدته في التأثير علي	18
					أثر علي بسبب قدراته و كفاءته	19
					يشعرنى دائما بأنه شخص مسؤول	20
					حرص على إعلامي بالخبرة التي يمتلكها في هذا الأمر	21
					وضح و أبرز إنجازاته لي	22

2. يرجى الإشارة إلى الاجابة الأنسب التي تمثل أداء موظفك

5 أقبل بشدة	4	3	2	1 ارفض بشدة		
					يؤدي المهام الموكلة على الوجه الأنسب والأكمل	1
					يؤدي المسؤوليات المحددة في الوصف الوظيفي	2
					يؤدي الواجبات المتوقعة منه	3
					يمتلك متطلبات الأداء الرسمية للوظيفة	4
					يشارك في الأنشطة التي من شأنها أن تؤثر بشكل مباشر علي تقييم ادائه	5
					يتجاهل مهام عمل ملزم بأدائها	6
					لا يستطيع اداء مهام ضرورية	7

أنتهى

خلاصة :

اسم الباحث :نجلاء الشنفي ، رقم لجنة الأخلاقيات : ٨٣١٩

نعلم مدى انشغالكم ونقدر لكم ما خصصتموه من وقت للمشاركة في هذه الدراسة فتقبلوا فائق الشكر ... هناك معلومات متعلقة بطبيعة

الدراسة لم نستطع مناقشتها معك قبل الدراسة حيث انها كانت قد تؤثر على اجابتك وبالتالي تؤثر على النتائج.
هذه الورقة توضح لك ما يلي:

تهدف الدراسة إلى البحث في العلاقة بين الطرق التي يستخدمها المرؤوسون للتأثير على الرؤساء وعلاقتها بنتائج العمل ، حيث تتلخص اهداف الدراسة على ثلاثة اهداف بحثية هي:

1. البحث في العلاقة بين الطرق التي يستخدمها المرؤوسون للتأثير على الرؤساء) التملق ، الإصرار ، اللجوء إلى أعلى ، تبادل المنافع ، إبراز الذات ، الإقناع المنطقي ، وتكوين الأحزاب أو التحالفات (وننتائج العمل) الاداء الوظيفي.
2. البحث في دور العلاقة التبادلية بين الرئيس والمرؤوس في التأثير على العلاقة بين الطرق التي يستخدمها المرؤوسون للتأثير على الرؤساء ونتائج العمل .
3. البحث في دور نوع الجنس في التأثير على العلاقة بين الطرق التي يستخدمها المرؤوسون للتأثير على الرؤساء ونتائج العمل .

النتائج ستساهم في زيادة الفهم للعملية النفسية المتعلقة بإشراك الموظفين في عمليات اتخاذ القرار في المنظمات .تحديدا ستساعد النتائج في الكشف أكثر عن كيف تؤدي طبيعة العلاقة بين المدراء والموظفين الى نتائج مهمة : الأداء الوظيفي .هذه الدراسة لم تستخدم أية أساليب مخادعة لتضليل المشاركين .

نأمل ان يكون ذلك قد اوضح الهدف من البحث ، اذا كنت ترغب في معلومات أكثر عن البحث قد تستفيد من المراجع التالية:

- 1- Botero, Isabel C., Elizabeth A. Foste, and Kristin M. Pace. (2012), 'Exploring Differences and Similarities in Predictors and Use of Upward Influence Strategies in Two Countries', Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology, Vol. 43, No. 5
- 2-TerpstraTong, J. and Ralston D. A. (2002), 'Moving toward a global understanding of upward influence strategies: An Asian perspective with directions for crosscultural research', Asia Pacific Journal of Management, Vol.19, No. 2.
- 3- Farmer, S., Maslyn, J., Fedor, D., and Goodman, J. (1997), 'Putting upward influence strategies in context', Journal of organizational behaviour, Vol. 18, pp. 1742.
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- 6- Kipnis, D.; Schmidt, S. M.; & Wilkinson, I. (1980), 'Intraorganizational influence tactics: Explorations of getting one's way', Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 65.

من المهم الا تقوم بمناقشة هذه الدراسة مع اي احد حتى ينتهي العمل في هذا البحث .مجهودنا سيتأثر بشكل كبير اذا اطع المشاركين على محتوى الدراسة وكيفية اختبار وطرح الافكار .مرة اخرى نتائج هذه الدراسة لن تتضمن اسمك او اي صفات تعريفية .في حال كان لديك اي اسئلة او تحفظات يرجى الاتصال ب :نجلاء الشنيفي على البريد التالي
(nalg12@soton.ac.uk)

اذا كان لديك اسئلة حول حقوقك كمشارك في هذا البحث ، او اذا شعرت انك ستتضرر من هذه الدراسة فنرجو الاتصال بموظف الابحاث انجيلا فوكس(risethic@soton.ac.uk)

Employee Questionnaire

أخي الموظف / أختي الموظفة

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

أسمي نجلاء ابراهيم الشنفي ... طالبة دكتوراه وباحثه في كلية الإدارة ، في جامعة ساوثامبتون في المملكة المتحدة، أعمل ضمن فريق بحثي بإشراف البروفيسور نيكولاس كلارك ، رئيس السلوك التنظيمي / مجموعة أبحاث الموارد البشرية في الجامعة. أشارت الأبحاث الحديثة في مجال الإدارة للمزايا المتعددة لإشراك الموظفين في عملية صنع القرار في المنظمات ، لذا يسعى فريق البحث لإلقاء الضوء على هذه الظاهرة لتوسيع الفهم للجوانب النفسية المسؤولة عنها .على وجه التحديد ، هدفنا معرفة المزيد حول كيفية تأثير طبيعة العلاقة بين المديرين والموظفين على نتائج العمل مثل الأداء الوظيفي. نتائج هذا البحث تمثل مجموعة من التوصيات حول العوامل التي تؤثر على ديناميكية العلاقة بين المديرين والموظفين وكيف يؤثر ذلك على تقديم رؤى جديدة في عمليات صنع القرار وإشراك الموظفين.

حيث ان هذه الدراسة تعتمد على زوج من المشاركين (اي مديره/ او مشرفه/ وأحد موظفيه/ا) نتمنى منك ملء استبيان حول علاقتك مع مديرك/مديرتك المباشر. هذا الاستبيان يستغرق حوالي 5-10 دقائق ، يرجى منك وضع علامة على الاجابة التي تصف رأيك ، لا توجد اجابات صحيحة أو خاطئة، كما أن استكمال الاستبيان يشكل موافقتك على المشاركة.

يرجى ملء هذا الاستبيان وتقديمه في أقرب وقت ممكن أو بتاريخ كحد أقصى .مشاركتك مهمة لنجاح هذه الدراسة و فهم السلوكيات التنظيمية بصفة عامة مما سيعود بالنفع على مستقبل منظمك والمنظمات المماثلة وستبقى جميع المعلومات التي سيتم جمعها في سرية تامة وستستخدم لأغراض البحث فقط. كما ننوه ونحيطكم علما بأنه لن يتم الاطلاع على اجاباتكم إلا من قبل الباحثة فقط لذلك نرجو تقديم اجاباتكم بمنتهى الشفافية والصراحة ، لنتمكن من الحصول على نتائج حقيقية غير مضللة أو متحيزة. شكرا جزيلاً لتعاونكم

Sincerely,
Najla Alshenaifi
PhD student and Researcher
School of Management, University of Southampton
Highfield, SO17 1BJ
United Kingdom
email: na1g12@soton.ac.uk

*الرمز :

العمر: 20-25 □ 26-31 □ 32-37 □ 38-43 □ 44-49 □ 50+ □

الجنس : ذكر □ أنثى □ (نعتذر لك عن استخدامنا لصيغة المذكر في الأسئلة التالية لوصف كلا الطرفين المدير والموظف سواء

والمؤنث وذلك لتلافي التشتت في تكرار بعض الحروف مثال :موظفك/موظفتك ، معه/معها ، قدم/قدمت ،،، ونقدر تفهمك)

التعليم : □ ثانوي □ دبلوم □ بكالوريوس □ تعليم جامعي عالي

نوع المنظمة : □ قطاع حكومي □ قطاع خاص □ قطاع غير ربحي جمعيات خيرية

الحالة الاجتماعية : □ اعزب □ متزوج □ مطلق □ ارمل

هل لديك اطفال : □ لا □ 1-2 □ 3-4 □ 5-6 □ +7 □

عدد سنوات خبرتك في هذه المنظمة؟..... سنه

منذ متى وهذا المدير مشرف عليكسنه

هل تري مديرك بشكل يومي : □ لا □ نعم

1. فيما يلي مجموعة من الأسئلة التي تتطلب منك رأيك حول علاقتك مع مديرك

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
موافق بشدة						غير موافق بشدة	
							1 تعجبني شخصية مديري كثيرا
							2 مديري من عينة الأشخاص الذين تود أن تكون صديقا لهم
							3 العمل مع مديري ممتع
							4 دوما مديري يدافع عن عملي امام الرؤساء ، حتى من دون معرفة كاملة للقضية القائمة
							5 مديري يدافع عني اذا هوجمت من قبل الآخرين
							6 يدافع عني امام الآخرين في العمل إذا ارتكبت خطأ بريئا (غير مقصود)
							7 أنجز أعمال لمديري اكثر من ما هو مطلوب في وصفي الوظيفي
							8 مستعد لبذل مجهود إضافي حتى أنجز مهام العمل التي طلبها مديري
							9 لا أمانع في بذل قصارى جهدي من أجل مديري
							10 معجب بمدى معرفة مديري بعمله
							11 أحترم مدى معرفة وقدرات مديري في عمله
							12 تعجبني مهارات مديري المهنية

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2. يرجى الإشارة إلى الإجابة الأنسب التي تمثل عدد المرات التي استخدمت إحدى الطرق التالية مع مديرك للتأثير عليه خلال الأشهر الستة الماضية

5 استخدم هذه الطريقة عادة	4	3	2	1 لم استخدم هذه الطريقة ابدا	
					1 تصرفت بلباقة وتواضع عند التقدم بطلب ما
					2 تصرفت بأسلوب ودي مسبقا قبل التقدم بأي طلب
					3 الحرص على تكوين انطباع جيد وكسب رضاه قبل التقدم بالطلب
					4 ذكرته بالخدمات السابقة التي قدمتها له
					5 عرضت عليه تبادل ، مثل :إذا فعلت ذلك لي سأفعل شيء لك بالمقابل
					6 عرضت عليه أن أقوم بتضحية شخصية في حال لو حقق لي ما أريد ، مثل :العمل لساعات متأخرة ،بذل مجهود أكثر ، أو أن أنجز عمله بدلا عنه
					7 استخدمت المنطق لإقناعه
					8 شرحت أسباب الطلب بوضوح
					9 قدمت الطلب مع المعلومات التي تدعم وجهة نظري
					10 واجهته بشكل حاسم وجها لوجه
					11 عبرت عن غضبي لفظيا
					12 استخدمت القوة حيث جربت اشياء كالإلحاح ، ووضع اوقات معينة لتنفيذ مطالبي ، وعبرت عن مشاعري بشكل قوي ومباشر
					13 حصلت على دعم غير رسمي من الجهات العليا مثل المسؤولين الأعلى درجة منه
					14 ناشدت رسميا المستويات العليا لتدعمني في طلبي بشكل رسمي
					15 اعتمدت على أشخاص في مستويات عليا في المنظمة ممن لديهم سلطة على مديري
					16 حصلت على دعم من زملائي في العمل لتعزيز طلبي
					17 حصلت على دعم المرؤوسين التابعين لي في العمل لدعم طلبي (إن وجدوا)
					18 قمت بتحريك اناس آخرين في المنظمة لمساعدتي في التأثير عليه
					19 أثرت عليه بما أملك من قدرات وكفاءات
					20 أشعره دائما بأني شخص مسؤول

					أحرص على إعلامه بالخبرة التي أمتلكها في هذا الأمر	21
					أوضح وأبرز إنجازاتي له	22

خلاصة :

اسم الباحث: نجلاء الشنفي ، رقم لجنة الأخلاقيات : ٨٣١٩

نعلم مدى انشغالكم ونقدر لكم ما خصصتموه من وقت للمشاركة في هذه الدراسة فقبلوا فائق الشكر ... هناك معلومات متعلقة بطبيعة الدراسة لم نستطع مناقشتها معك قبل الدراسة حيث انها كانت قد تؤثر على اجابتك وبالتالي تؤثر على النتائج. هذه الورقة توضح لك ما يلي:

تهدف الدراسة إلى البحث في العلاقة بين الطرق التي يستخدمها المرؤوسون للتأثير على الرؤساء وعلاقتها بنتائج العمل ، حيث تتلخص اهداف الدراسة على ثلاثة اهداف بحثية هي:

4. البحث في العلاقة بين الطرق التي يستخدمها المرؤوسون للتأثير على الرؤساء) التملق ، الإصرار ، اللجوء إلى أعلى ، تبادل المنافع ، إبراز الذات ، الإقناع المنطقي ، وتكوين الأحزاب أو التحالفات (وننتج العمل) الاداء الوظيفي.

5. البحث في دور العلاقة التبادلية بين الرئيس والمرؤوس في التأثير على العلاقة بين الطرق التي يستخدمها المرؤوسون للتأثير على الرؤساء ونتائج العمل .

6. البحث في دور نوع الجنس في التأثير على العلاقة بين الطرق التي يستخدمها المرؤوسون للتأثير على الرؤساء ونتائج العمل .

النتائج ستساهم في زيادة الفهم للعملية النفسية المتعلقة بإشراك الموظفين في عمليات اتخاذ القرار في المنظمات .تحديدا ستساعد النتائج في الكشف أكثر عن كيف تؤدي طبيعة العلاقة بين المدراء والموظفين الى نتائج مهمة: الأداء الوظيفي .هذه الدراسة لم تستخدم أية أساليب مخادعة لتضليل المشاركين . نأمل ان يكون ذلك قد اوضح الهدف من البحث , إذا كنت ترغب في معلومات أكثر عن البحث قد تستفيد من المراجع التالية:

- 1- Botero, Isabel C., Elizabeth A. Foste, and Kristin M. Pace. (2012), 'Exploring Differences and Similarities in Predictors and Use of Upward Influence Strategies in Two Countries', Journal of Cross Cultural Psychology, Vol. 43, No. 5
- 2-TerpstraTong, J. and Ralston D. A. (2002), 'Moving toward a global understanding of upward influence strategies: An Asian perspective with directions for crosscultural research', Asia Pacific Journal of Management, Vol.19, No. 2.
- 3- Farmer, S., Maslyn, J., Fedor, D., and Goodman, J. (1997), 'Putting upward influence strategies in context', Journal of organizational behaviour, Vol. 18, pp. 1742.
- 4- Yukl, G., Guinan, P. J., & Soitolano, D. (1995), 'Influence tactics used for different objectives with subordinates, peers, and superiors', Group & Organization Management, Vol. 20, No. 3.
- 5- Schriesheim, C. A. and Hinkin, T. R. (1990), 'Influence tactics used by subordinates: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis and Refinement of the Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson subscales', Journal of applied psychology, Vol. 75, No. 3.

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6- Kipnis, D.; Schmidt, S. M.; & Wilkinson, I. (1980), 'Intraorganizational influence tactics: Explorations of getting one's way', Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol. 65.

من المهم الا تقوم بمناقشة هذه الدراسة مع اي احد حتى ينتهي العمل في هذا البحث. مجهودنا سيتأثر بشكل كبير اذا اطع المشاركين على محتوى الدراسة وكيفية اختبار وطرح الافكار. مرة اخرى نتائج هذه الدراسة لن تتضمن اسمك او اي صفات تعريفية. في حال كان لديك اي اسئلة او تحفظات يرجى الاتصال ب: نجلاء الشنفي على البريد التالي
(na1g12@soton.ac.uk)

اذا كان لديك اسئلة حول حقوقك كمشارك في هذا البحث ، او اذا شعرت انك ستتضرر من هذه الدراسة فنرجو الاتصال بموظف الابحاث انجيلا فوكس (risethic@soton.ac.uk)

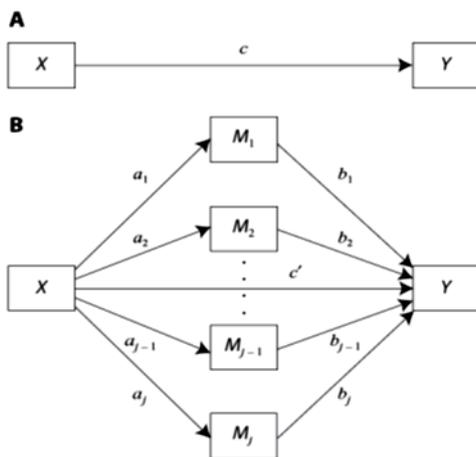
Appendix 18: Saudi organizations involved in the study

Name of the organization	Type	segments within sectors	Code	Employees No. (Approximate)	Sample (pairs)	Total sample
King Saud University	Public	Educational	KSU	11050	31	Total sample of Public sector: 248 Pairs
National Guard Hospital	Public	Health	NGH	18595	67	
King Khaled University Hospital	Public	Health	KKUH	7000	16	
Ministry of Municipal and Rural Affairs	Public	Service	MOMRA	3800	57	
Human Rights Commission	Public	Human Rights	HRC	205	3	
Ministry of Health	Public	Health	MOH	+186303	18	
National Industrial Clusters Development Program	Public	Industrial	NICDP	45	4	
Ministry of Labour	Public	Service	MOL	4683	6	
Institute of Public Administration	Public	Educational	IPA	2000	13	
King Khalad Eye Specialized Hospital	Public	Health	KKESH	960	9	
King Fahad Medical City	Public	Health	KFMC	8234	7	
Ministry of Education	Public	Educational	MOE	+190000	16	
Ministry of Economy and Planning	Public	Economy	MOEP	4260	1	
Riyadh Bank	Private	Financial	RB	5559	7	Total sample of Private sector: 135 Pairs
Toyota company	Private	Retail firms	TOYOT	840	31	
Tawuniya company	Private	insurance	TAWNY	320	8	
Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency	Private	Financial	SAMA	2600	4	
Saudi Telecom Company	Private	Telecommunication and technology	STC	17000	20	
ARASCO Company	Private	Retail firms	ARASCO	260	3	
Riyadh Care Hospital	Private	Health	CARE	670	2	
Saudi Kuwait Finance House	Private	Financial	SKFH	44	4	
IMAR Urban Consultants	Private	Consulting firms	IMAR	70	7	
Dalah Hospital	Private	Health	DALAH	2300	6	

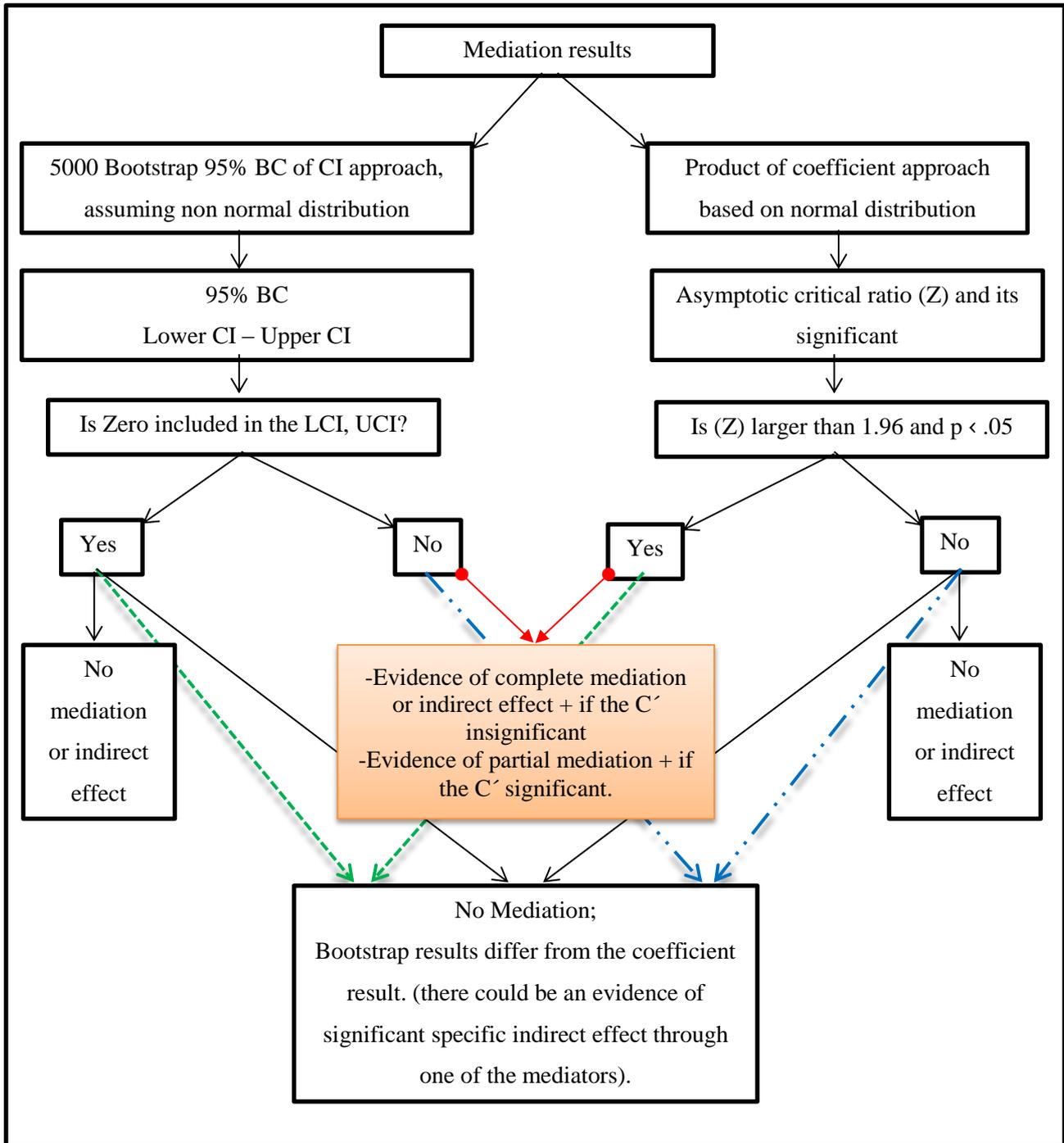
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ABSL	Private	Telecommunication and technology	ABSL	160	4	
Sultan Bin Abdulaziz Humanitarian City	Private	Health	SBAHC	1900	18	
Bank AlJazira	Private	Financial	BAJ	1943	9	
Gulf Bank	Private	Financial	GB	67	3	
Jeraisy Group	Private	Retail firms	JG	380	1	
Arab National Bank	Private	Financial	ANB	4596	8	
King Khalad Foundation	Non Profit		KKF	80	1	Total sample of Non Profit sector: 6 Pairs
Nahda Society	Non Profit		Nahda	147	5	

Appendix 19: illustration of a multiple mediators model (adapted from Preacher and Hayes, 2008)

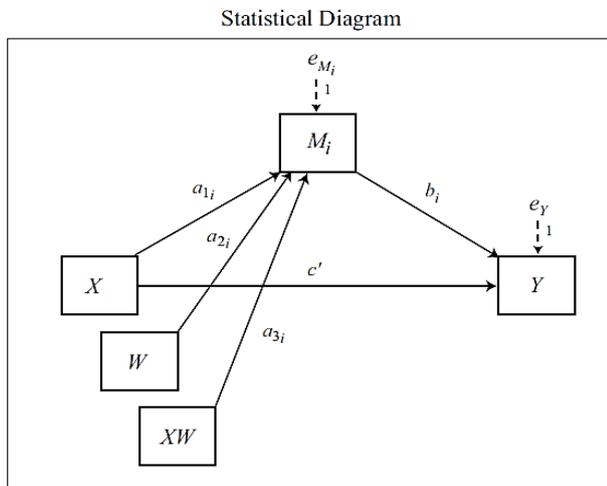


Appendix 20: the mediation results decision tree



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Appendix 21: Statistical diagram for Model 7 A. Hayes (2013)



Conditional indirect effect of X on Y through $M_i = (a_{1i} + a_{3i}W)b_i$

Direct effect of X on Y = c'

Note: Model 7 allows up to 10 mediators operating in parallel.

Appendix 22 A: Mediation results of 2 items Coalition - LMX dimentions - job performance ratings

Total effect of X on Y (C path)									
Coefficient		SE		T		P			
-.11		.03		-3.47		.00			
The direct effect of X on Y controlling for M (C' path)									
Coefficient		SE		T		P			
-.08		.031		-2.56		.01			
The direct relationship in proposed mediation linkage									
Direct effect of Coalition on LMX dimentions					Direct effect of LMX dimentions on Performance ratings				
a paths	Coeff.	SE	T	P	b paths	Coeff.	SE	T	P
Coalition on Affect	-.21	.075	-2.80	.00	Affect on Performance	.11	.037	2.97	.00
Coalition on Loyalty	-.11	.073	-1.57	.11	Loyalty on Performance	.11	.022	5.32	.00
Coalition on Contribution	.01	.061	.187	.85	Contribution on Performance	-.02	.031	-.75	.45
Coalition on Professional respect	-.11	.076	-1.48	.14	Professional respect on Performance	-.03	.038	-1.04	.29

Appendix 22 B: The bootstrapping results for 2 items Coalition - LMX dimintions - job performance ratings

Mediators	Indirect effect					
	Product of Coefficient				Bootstrapping (5000) BC 95% CI	
	Effect Estimate	SE	Z	P	Lower	Upper
Full mediation						
Ab	-.03	.012	-2.60	.00	-.067	-.007
Specific mediation						
Affect	-.02	.012	- 2.05	.04	-.058	-.005
Loyalty	-.01	.009	- 1.51	.13	-.037	.004
Contribution	-.00	.001	-.182	.85	-.008	.00
Professional respect	.00	.005	.859	.39	-.002	.026

Appendix 23: Regression (coalition - 2 items)

	Leaders UIT			
	Performance ratings			
	β	R2	$\Delta R2$	F
Step1				
Followers' age	.12*			
Followers' education	.08			
Length of Relationship	-.03	.02	.02	2.84*
Step2				
Ingratiation	.04			
Exchange	-.12*			
Rational	.30***			
Assertiveness	-.05			
Upward appeal	-.21**			
Coalition	-.01			
Self-presentation	.12*	.28	.26	13.71***
Step3				
Assertiveness-S	.23			
Upward appeal-S	.17			
Coalition-S	.49*			
Self-presentation-S	.63**	.32	.29	12.07***
*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001 , N=398 dyad				

