



**T.C.
YEDITEPE UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

A Study on the Relationship Between Managerial Influence Tactics and Organizational Commitment with the Moderating Role of Androgynous Leadership

**by
K. Güniz Bekrek**

**Submitted to the Graduate Institute of Social Sciences
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
Philosophy of Doctorate Program in Organizational Behavior**

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YEDİTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

A...Study...on...the...Relationship...Between...
Managerial Influence...Tactics...and...Organizational Commitment
with the Moderating...Role...of...Androgynous Leadership

by

Kübra Güniz BEKREK

Approved by:

Prof.Dr. Ülkü DİCLE
(Supervisor)



Prof.Dr. Ali Erkan EKE

Doç.Dr. Murat ÇİNKO



Yrd.Doç.Dr. Senem GÖL BEŞER



Yrd.Doç.Dr. Lebriz TOSUNER FIKES



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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment and to study the moderating effect of androgynous leadership style in Turkish business life. The study also tries to explain gender differences in managerial influence tactics in Turkey.

The results of this study show that rational persuasion, collaboration, ingratiation are positively related with affective commitment and negatively with continuance commitment. While on the contrary, pressure tactics are negatively related with affective commitment and positively with continuance commitment.

The business challenges of the new decade requires a transformation at the value system for managerial and organizational effectiveness (Sargent and Stupak, 1989). The new model proposes an androgynous style- integration of stereotypically “masculine” and “feminine” behaviours for effective leadership. The results indicated that androgynous leadership style strengthens the relationship between managerial influence tactics and affective commitment.

The presence of the differences between female and male in their values, beliefs, and other factors can affect how individuals utilize the influence tactics in their business interactions with subordinates or peers, and upward relationships with their supervisors. The results revealed that female leaders use rational persuasion more than their male colleagues.

This study intends to provide contribution to business literature by pointing out the managerial implications of influence tactics for managers in today’s diverse business environment. In addition, it highlights the significance of a requirement for a transformation at the value system for managerial and organizational effectiveness from a leadership standpoint.

ÖZET

Bu araştırma, yöneticilerin astlarını ikna etmek ve etkilemek için kullandıkları etkileme taktikleri ile çalışanların örgüte bağlılıkları arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını ortaya koymayı ve bu ilişkide androjen liderliğin ılımlaştırıcı (moderating) etkisini belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Ayrıca, bu çalışmanın bir başka amacı da Türkiye’de yöneticilerin astlarını ikna etmek ve etkilemek için kullandıkları etkileme taktiklerinin toplumsal cinsiyet açısından bir farklılık gösterip göstermediğini incelemektir.

Araştırma bulguları, Türkiye’de yöneticilerin sırasıyla rasyonel ikna, meşrulaştırma ve işbirliği etkileme taktiklerine sıklıkla başvurduğunu göstermektedir. Araştırma sonuçlarında, rasyonel ikna, işbirliği ve yağcılık etkileme taktiklerinin, çalışanların örgüte duygusal bağlılıkları ile pozitif yönlü bir ilişkiyi, devamlılık bağlılıkları ile ise negatif yönlü bir ilişkiyi yansıttığı görülmüştür. Baskı etkileme taktiğinin ise çalışanların örgüte duygusal bağlılıkları ile negatif yönlü bir ilişkiyi, devamlılık bağlılıkları ile ise pozitif yönlü bir ilişkiyi yansıttığı görülmüştür.

Bu araştırma sonuçlarına göre yöneticilerin astlarını ikna etmek ve etkilemek için kullandıkları etkileme taktikleri ile çalışanların örgüte duygusal bağlılıkları arasındaki ilişki, liderin androjen liderlik özelliklerine sahip olup olmamasına göre farklılık göstermektedir. Androjen liderlik tarzı, etkileme taktikleri ile çalışanların örgüte duygusal bağlılıkları arasındaki ilişkiyi güçlendirmektedir. Ayrıca, bu çalışmada kadın liderlerin rasyonel ikna taktiğini erkek meslektaşlarından daha fazla kullandıkları belirlenmiştir.

Küreselleşmenin etkisinin yanı sıra, artan rekabet koşullarının ve yoğun teknolojik gelişmelerin yaşandığı günümüzde, geleneksel örgüt yapıları ile birlikte geleneksel liderlik rolleri de değişmektedir. Başvurulan etkileme taktikleri, yöneticilerin liderlik etkinliğini ve performansını belirleyen en önemli becerilerden biri olarak kabul edilmektedir (Falbe ve Yukl, 1992). Bu bağlamda, bu çalışma artan rekabet koşulları altında liderlik etkinliklerini arttırmayı amaçlayan yöneticiler için hazırlanacak eğitim programlarında yön gösterici olabilir.

1. INTRODUCTION

Since the twentieth century, scientific research on leadership has focused on traits, skills, behaviors, the relationship between the leader and the follower, situational or contingent factors that determine the ability of the leader to influence followers, and realize organizational goals. Each stream of research has defined leadership according to its own perspective and interpreted the results in different ways. Although the definitions vary in many respects, such as who exerts influence, what is the intended purpose of the influence, in what manner the influence is exerted, and how the outcomes of the influence attempt differs, most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person over other people to guide, structure, and facilitate activities and relationships in an organization (Yukl, 2002).

Understanding power and influence behavior is generally viewed as essential and vital to understand organizational behavior (Allen&Porter, 1983 as cited in Fairholm, 2009) since such behavior affects both individual and organizational effectiveness (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988).

Given that organizations are by definition composed of interpersonal relationships and interdependencies (Katz and Kahn, 1978 as cited in Church & Waclawshi, 1999), one could argue that the process of influence is an inherent requirement for any and every individual role in a given social system-whether formally or informally based (Church & Waclawshi, 1999).

Yukl and his colleagues (Yukl & Fable, 1990; Yukl, Lepsinger, & Lucia, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) have identified eleven proactive influence tactics that are relevant for influencing subordinates (downward influence attempts), peers (lateral influence attempts), and superiors (upward influence attempts) in large organizations. The eleven proactive influence tactics that Yukl and his colleagues (Yukl & Fable, 1990; Yukl, Lepsinger, & Lucia, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) have identified are rational persuasion, apprising, collaboration, exchange, pressure tactics, coalition tactics, legitimating tactics, consultation, ingratiation, inspirational appeals and personal appeals.

Research indicates that possible outcomes of the influence attempts can be defined as commitment, compliance and resistance (Yukl, 2002). When the target person internally agrees with a decision or request and shows extra effort to effectively implement the decision, *commitment* occurs as an influence outcome. On the other hand, when the target person does not show extra effort and feel enthusiastic about the decision or request, but willing to do what the agent asks, it is described as *compliance*. When the target person is opposed to the proposal or request, *resistance* occurs. Yukl and colleagues (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl, Kim & Falbe, 1996) studied the relationship between proactive influence tactics and task commitment. The results of the studies indicated that soft tactics (consultation, ingratiation, inspirational appeal and personal appeal) are positively related to task commitment, whereas the relationship of hard tactics (exchange, pressure, coalition tactics, and legitimating tactics) to task commitment is negative or non-significant. In these researches, the dependent variable was task commitment, not organizational commitment. Since influence is “*the essence of leadership*” (Yukl, 2002) and organizational commitment is considered as a useful measure of organizational effectiveness (Steers, 1975 as cited in Brown, 2003), the present study aims **to examine the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment.**

Globalization, rapid technological changes, increased competitiveness has influenced the nature of work and created new forms of organizations. Today’s organizations no longer rely on traditional hierarchy. They are becoming more flexible where the decisions are made by teams and the lateral organizing mechanisms supersede the traditional role of leaders. The business challenges of this new decade also require a transformation at the value system for managerial and organizational effectiveness (Sargent and Stupak, 1989). The new model proposes an androgynous style- integration of stereotypically “masculine” and “feminine” behaviors for effective leadership. Results of previous leadership studies indicate that stereotypically “feminine” behaviors characterize relations-oriented (Yukl, 2002) or employee/people-oriented (Blake and Mouton, 1964) leadership styles whereas stereotypically “masculine” behaviors characterize task-oriented (Yukl, 2002) or production-oriented (Blake and Mouton, 1964) leadership styles. However, the changing nature of management requires an androgynous leader who blends a task-

oriented and a relations-oriented leadership style for successfully achieving organizational goals and maintaining organizational effectiveness. This present study aims **to examine the moderating effect of androgynous leadership behavior on the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment.**

As the pace of change increases, more theory development and research on leadership seems needed, especially in different cultures around the world (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001). The presence of the differences between female and male in their values, beliefs, and other factors can affect how individuals utilize the influence tactics in their business interactions with subordinates or peers, and upward relationships with their supervisors. The study also plans to identify the most frequent type of influence tactic that is being used within Turkish business environment and aims **to emphasize the differences in the use of managerial influence tactics between female and male in Turkish business environment.**

1.1. Purpose of the research

The purpose of the study is:

1. To examine managerial influence tactics and its impacts on organizational commitment as an influence outcome;
2. To examine the moderating effect of androgynous leadership behavior on the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment;
3. To study the differences between female and male in the use of managerial influence tactics;
4. To identify the most frequent type of influence tactic that is being used in Turkish companies.

1.2. Research questions

The study attempts to concentrate on the following research questions that need further analysis:

1. “Is there a significant relationship between “*managerial influence tactics*” and “*organizational commitment*”?”
2. “Which influence tactics are most likely to result in organizational commitment?”
3. “Do androgynous leadership behaviors strengthen the relationship between “*managerial influence tactics*” and “*organizational commitment*”?”
4. “What is the most frequent type of managerial influence tactic that is being used in Turkish business context?”
5. “Do female and male leaders differ in the use of managerial influence tactics?”

1.3. Importance and originality of the study

Research indicates that possible outcomes of the influence attempts can be defined as commitment, compliance and resistance (Yukl, 2002). Research (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl, Kim, & Falbe, 1996) on this subject mainly focused on task commitment of employees. What makes this research unique is that the researcher aims to examine whether or not there is a significant relationship between “*managerial influence tactics*” and “*organizational commitment*”.

Although the androgynous leadership style has been discussed frequently in the management literature and has seemingly gained widespread acceptance (Bolton & Humphreys, 1977; Sargent, 1981 as cited in Korabik & Ayman, 1987), there is no empirical research in support of the moderating effect of the androgynous leadership on the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment conducted in Turkish business literature. Research analyzing the outcomes of the influence

tactics based on androgynous style -a blend that integrates traditional “masculine” roles and values with traditional “feminine” ones would contribute to the literature about the different ways managerial influence tactics may be used in today’s diverse business environment.

The presence of the differences between female and male in their values, beliefs, and other factors can affect how individuals utilize the influence tactics in their business interactions with subordinates or peers, and upward relationships with their supervisors. This knowledge would benefit leaders in their daily practice of leadership and in such practical aspects of business such as the creation and execution of employee programs to create a motivated and dedicated workforce. Thus, the study intends to provide a significant contribution to Turkish business literature both by representing managerial implications of influence tactics to managers of today’s diverse organizations and by highlighting the significance of differences between female and male in their use of managerial influence tactics in a country where the role of women and social-cultural values are changing.

1.4. The content of the study

This study covers seven chapters. *Chapter 1* introduces the purpose of the research and the research questions to be addressed as well as the conceptual model. *Chapter 2* covers the literature review of the research concepts starting with managerial influence tactics. The operational definition and dimensions of managerial influence tactics are reviewed. It is followed by organizational commitment and androgynous leadership literatures. The leadership literature is reviewed chronologically to allow a deeper understanding of the construct. *Chapter 3* defines the relationships between the concepts reviewed. Hypotheses are formed in this chapter based on the literature review. *Chapter 4* gives information about the research design, the data collection procedures and sampling methods. This chapter also covers the information about the measurement instruments and the definition of the variables. *Chapter 5* covers the findings of the research. *Chapter 6*

evaluates and discusses the research findings and compares the proposed conceptual model and the modified model which is formed by the results of the study. *Chapter 7* is the conclusion section that includes the limitations of the study and suggestions for the future research.

1.5. The conceptual model of the study

The model of this study is formed after a detailed review of the literature based on the research questions mentioned above and is depicted in Figure 1.1.

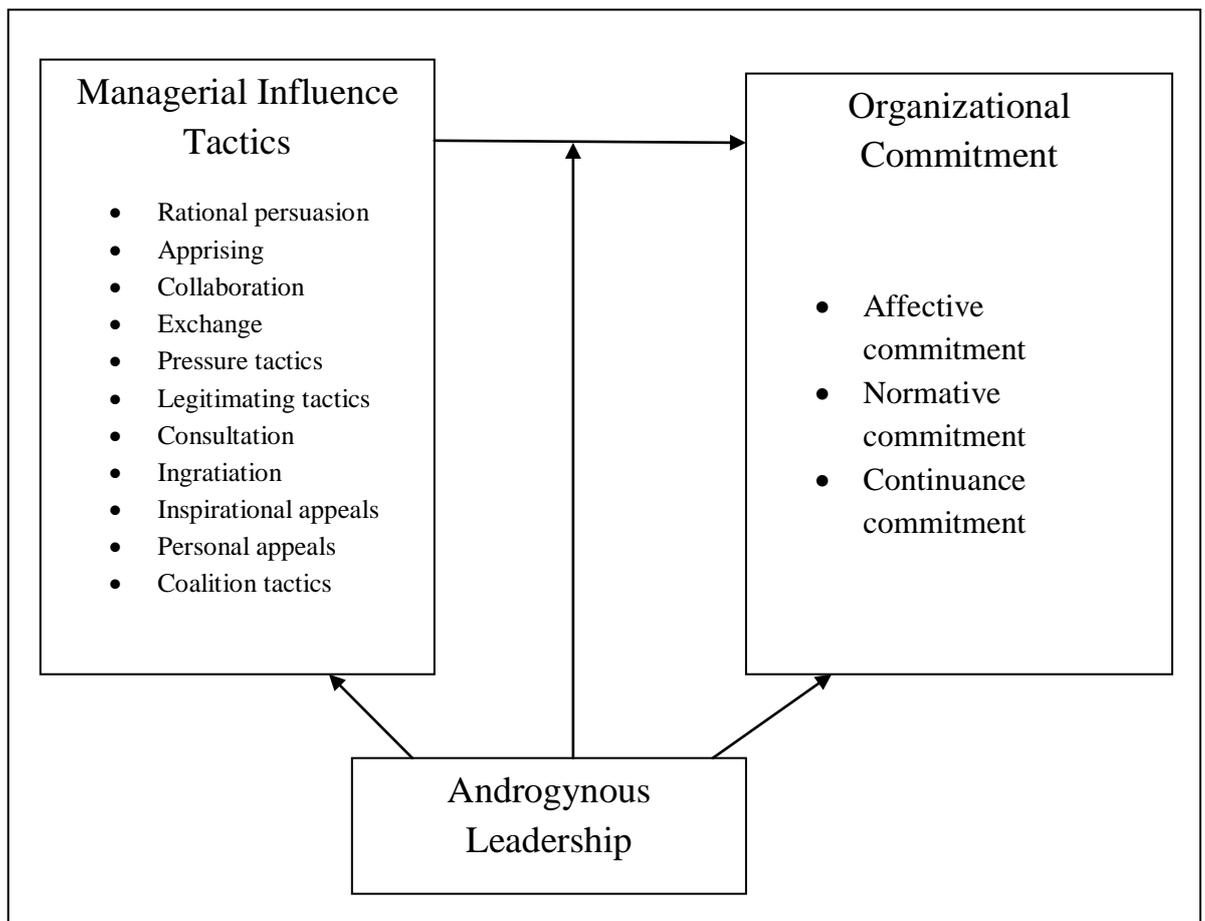


Figure 1.1. The proposed model

According to this model, there is a relationship between each managerial influence tactic and organizational commitment. Some of the tactics result in affective commitment; some result in continuance commitment and some result in normative commitment. Androgynous leaders will employ different managerial influence tactics and generate higher commitment in their followers. On the other hand, the leadership style of the leader moderates the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment. In other words, the chosen managerial influence tactic will result in higher levels of commitment if the leadership style is androgynous (consisting of both relations-oriented (feminine) and task-oriented (masculine) leadership behaviors).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter covers a review of the relevant literature on managerial influence tactics, organizational commitment and androgynous leadership. In order to understand and study the concepts in depth, power and leadership literature is also reviewed.

2.1. MANAGERIAL INFLUENCE TACTICS

Chester Barnard (1938) suggested that an organization is a cooperative, social system which is composed of individuals and groups who come together to achieve the common organizational goals. Although the formal structure of an organization provides a rational framework for composing a group under the same constitution, it is a fact that this formal structure is not enough to compose *oneness*. There are some obstacles on the way for goal attainment such as the order of priorities of organizational goals, the contradictions between individual or subunit goals and common goals, the chosen ways (the *means*) to accomplish them, and the driving force (motivation) to achieve the agreed-upon goals. Thus, organization members often use various social influence tactics to accomplish a cooperative system, a unified whole (Porter, Harold & Allen, 2003). Social influence process is related to almost every member of the organization. Intentionally or unintentionally, every organization member experiences social influence process. Leaders, managers or supervisors try to influence their subordinates (downward influence), whereas the colleagues attempt to influence each other (lateral influence). Even the subordinates try to influence their managers or supervisors (upward influence) in everyday life of organizations.

Therefore, understanding power and influence behavior is generally viewed as essential and vital to understand organizational behavior (Allen & Porter, 1983 as cited in Fairholm, 2009) since such behavior affects both individual and organizational effectiveness (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Schilit & Locke, 1982). To understand how people are able to influence each other, especially their subordinates (downward influence attempts) in organizations

(Mintzberg, 1983; Pfeffer, 1981, 1992 as cited in Yukl, 2002), the researcher first wants to discuss the concepts of power and authority.

2.1.1. Concepts of power, authority and influence

Although the process of interpersonal influence and social power has been examined in the organizational behavior literature as synonyms by a few researchers (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977), the two constructs are two distinct terms. Briefly, *power* as a capacity to influence can be distinguished from *influence* as the actual use of power by specific behavior that changes others' behavior or cognition (e.g. Farmer & Aguinis, 2005; French & Raven, 1959; Keltner, Gruenfeld, & Anderson, 2003; Raven, Schwarzwald, & Koslowsky, 1998; Schwarzwald, Koslowsky & Agassi, 2001 as cited in Klocke, 2009).

Power and authority are also two terms that have been used in different ways almost at every research. Power, basically, involves the capacity of the agent to influence the target, whereas authority involves the rights, obligations and duties associated with particular positions in an organization or social system (Yukl, 2002). In an organizational setting, authority can be seen either in formal form or informal form. Formal authority is derived from a recognized organizational structure with delineated lines of responsibility and influence. Informal authority may exist outside of discernible organizational role definitions (Faeth, 2004). Chester Barnard (1938) by observing authority that is granted by subordinates pointed out the conditions that increase subordinates' compliance or vice versa decrease. According to Barnard (1938), followers will comply with authority if the orders are understood, are consistent with the objectives of the organization, are compatible with the interests of the subordinate and are within the physical and mental capabilities of the subordinate. Within organizational structure, those who have knowledge or experience, which equips them for leadership, are usually granted as authority, even though they are not formally assigned.

When the literature on power is reviewed, it is observed that the construct has been subject to different social science studies such as philosophy, political science, sociology and

psychology. Philosophers such as Hobbes, Machiavelli and Weber have formed the basis of the studies on the constructs of power and influence and paved the way for more empirical research.

According to English philosopher Hobbes (1588-1679), regarded as the founding father of modern political philosophy, every human being is driven by passion (fear, love, hope, pain, etc.) in predictable ways and equal in body and mind. As every human being is capable of killing each other (equal in body) or at least capable to use his or her own mind to persuade the others to kill (equal in mind), Hobbes claims that there is no natural source of authority to order their lives together. But, the fear of one's own death impels human beings to enter into a social contract, where they surrender from their natural rights and submit to the absolute authority of a sovereign. According to Hobbes, as the price of self-preservation, human beings accept the authority of this sovereign.

Machiavelli (1469-1527), in his best known work, *the Prince*, focuses on power from a different point of view and expresses that a new prince unlike a hereditary prince must exercise power in violent and non-violent forms to build a structure that will endure and stabilize his newfound power. Machiavelli advises the new prince to build authority in the first place rather than coercive power, because according to Machiavelli, people believe obedience is more morally appropriate and the continued existence of all types of governments depends on the support of masses. He points out that coercive power (violence) ought not to be used unless absolutely necessary, as it tends to engender resistance and so pose a threat to the prince's security.

Among these, Max Weber (1864-1920) is one of the first social scientist, theorist that comes in mind when the subject is power. In his socio-political studies, Weber focuses on how the legitimate order has occurred in different societies at different historical periods. He argues that "*any relationship within which one person could impose his will, regardless of any resistance from others*" can be defined as power and claims that authority exists when there is a belief in the legitimacy of that power. In other words, power is the ability to achieve the desired goals despite resistance. Legitimacy, on the other hand, is the belief that structures, decisions, officials, or leaders possess the quality of "rightness," or moral

goodness, and therefore their commands should be accepted because of this quality- regardless of the specific content of the called for acts (Weber, 1924). It may also be defined as the formula by which individuals accept a power and consider their obedience as a just commitment.

Weber's works brought methodological renovation to social sciences (specifically to comprehensive sociology), as they focus on the subjective meaning of social action. His methodology dealt not with the techniques of research such as sampling and statistical analysis but with establishing the true value of explanations of human actions and institutions using "**verstehen** (understanding)", which can be defined as man's attempt and capacity for making sense of his own and other human actions by introspection and socio-monitoring.

Weber defined sociology as "*a science which attempts the interpretative understanding of social action in order thereby to arrive at a causal explanation of its course and effects... Action is social insofar as, by virtue of the subjective meaning attached to it by the acting individual (or individuals); it takes account of the behavior of others and is thereby oriented in its course* (Weber, 1921/1968, p.4)." Weber stressed the difference between the social sciences and natural sciences, and defended that it is hard to create a law that would hold true in all cases when human behavior is concerned. Weber conceived of sociology as a comprehensive science of action. Differing from many of his predecessors, Weber's primary focus was on the subjective meanings that human actors attach to their actions in their mutual orientations within specific social-historical contexts (Coser, 1977).

Weber was a representative of anti-positivist tradition and argued that no scientific system is ever capable of reproducing all concrete reality. He invented a typological term, the ideal type, which provided the basic method for comparative study in analyzing social or economic phenomena. According to Weber (1903-1917/1949):

"An ideal type is formed by the one-sided emphasis of one or more points of view and by the synthesis of a great many diffuse, discrete, more or less present and occasionally absent *concrete individual*

phenomena, which are arranged according to those one-sidedly emphasized viewpoints into a unified *analytical* construct (p. 90).”

In other words, an ideal type is an analytical construct like a measuring rod which helps the researcher to ascertain similarities as well as deviations in concrete cases.

Considering sociology as a science of action, Max Weber classified social action under four major types:

1. Purposeful or Goal-oriented Rational Action (Zweckrational)
2. Value-oriented Rational Action (Wertrational)
3. Emotional or Affective Motivation Action
4. Traditional Action

Purposeful or Goal-oriented Rational Action (Zweckrational) can be defined as action in which the means to attain a particular goal are rationally chosen. For example; the action of an engineer who builds a bridge to cross a river with the most efficient technique. Value-oriented Rational Action (Wertrational) is characterized by striving for a goal, which in itself may not be rational, but which is pursued through rational means within an ethical or religious context. For example; a captain who refuses to leave his ship as it sinks. Affective action is anchored in the emotional state of the person rather than in the rational weighing of means and ends. It may, for instance, consist in an uncontrolled reaction to some exceptional stimulus. For example; a mother slapping her child. Traditional action is guided by customary habits of thought, by reliance on what Weber called "the eternal yesterday". The great bulk of all everyday action to which people has become habitually accustomed approaches this type. According to Weber (1921/1968):

“Action, especially social action which involves social relationships, may be oriented by the presence of a legitimate order (p.4).”

Weber’s use of the ideal type as an analytical tool and his classification of types of social action permitted him to make systematic typological distinctions, as for example between types of authority, and also provided a basis for his investigation of the course of Western historical development. Weber distinguished three ideal types of legitimate authority;

1. **Rational-legal authority:** Authority may be based on rational grounds and anchored in impersonal rules that have been legally enacted or contractually established. In this case, obedience was owed to the legally established hierarchy such as state office, business, or military. In other words, it was obedience to the authority of an established position, or rank (Wren, 2005).

2. **Traditional authority,** on the other hand, which predominates in pre-modern societies, is based on the belief in the sanctity of tradition, of "the eternal yesterday." It is not codified in impersonal rules but inheres in particular persons who may either inherit it or be invested with it by a higher authority. In other words, obedience was owed to the person who occupied the traditionally sanctioned position of authority (Wren, 2005).

3. **Charismatic authority,** finally, rests on the appeal of leaders who claim obedience, loyalty because of their extraordinary virtuosity, whether ethical, heroic, or religious.

This typology of various forms of authority relations is important on several counts. Its sociological contribution rests more especially on the fact that Weber, in contrast to many political theorists, conceived of authority in all its manifestations as characteristic of the relation between leaders and followers, rather than as an attribute of the leader alone.

According to Weber (1924), during the second half of the 19th century, a new organizational form had started emerging, in which leadership and authority was derived from a more rational framework than was the case before. Weber defended that previously authority was derived from either charisma or tradition, and believed that it was more rational in the new, bureaucratic organizational form.

Weber's interest in the nature of power and authority, as well as his pervasive preoccupation with modern trends of rationalization, led him to concern himself with the operation of modern large-scale enterprises in the political, administrative, and economic realm. Weber argued that in all relevant spheres of modern society, men could no longer engage in socially significant action unless they joined in a large-scale organization.

Therefore, Weber claimed that bureaucracy is the characteristics that the organizations need in order to operate on a rational base, and is the most efficient way of getting organized. According to Weber (1921/1968):

“From a purely technical point of view, a bureaucracy is capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency, and is in the sense of formally the most rational known means of exercising authority over human beings. It is superior to any form in strict conformity, in stability, in the tightness of its discipline, and its reliability (p. 223)”

Weber developed an ideal model of bureaucracy and identified key features of bureaucratic organizations. An ideal bureaucracy should have hierarchical authority (positions organized in a hierarchy with a clear chain of command), division of labor (jobs broken down into simple, routine and well-defined tasks), formal rules and regulations (system of written rules and standard operating procedures), impersonality (uniform application of rules and controls, not according to personalities), formal selection (people selected for jobs based on technical qualifications) and separation of personal from official property (managers are career professionals who work for fixed salaries, not owners of units they manage).

However, Weber also criticized bureaucracy for its tendency to impose excessive controls on employees, putting them into what he termed an iron cage. Weber noted the dysfunctions of bureaucracy in terms of the impact that it had on individuals. Its major advantage, efficiency in attaining goals, made it unmanageable in dealing with individual cases. The impersonality, so important in attaining efficiency of the organization, was dehumanizing. Weber was also very concerned about the impact that rationalization and bureaucratization had on socio-cultural systems. Weber pointed out that bureaucracy generated an enormous degree of unregulated and often unperceived social power by its very nature and warned that those who control these organizations could control the quality of the life. In other words, bureaucracy tends to result in oligarchy, or rule by the few officials at the top of the organization. Weber explained that in a society dominated by large formal organizations, there is a danger that social, political and economic power will become concentrated in the hands of the few who hold high positions in the most influential of these organizations.

Weber emphasized that bureaucracies could become more powerful than society, and become an end to them, instead of a means for serving society.

Weber had also aimed to distinguish and establish the relationship between class, status and party. Weber stated that classes (economically determined relationship in various markets); status (non-economic qualities such as honor, prestige, religion, ethnicity, race) groups and parties (affiliations in the political domain) are phenomena of the distribution of power within a community. According to his terminology, the factor that creates class is unambiguously economic interest, and indeed, only those interests involved in the existence of the market. In other words, classes emerge because of common economic interests in the possession of goods and opportunities for income under particular historical and cultural conditions. When economic conditions prevail, as in the case of capitalism, property and lack of property are the reasons behind all class situations. Status groups, on the other hand, are based on consumption patterns rather than on the place in the market or in the process of production. People from different economic classes may be members of the same status group, if they share the same specific style of life. Parties are the means responsible for representing class, and/or status interests. Party is a grouping for exercise of political power whose structure differs according to the kind of communal action which they struggle to influence.

Apart from the sociological and political studies on power, the social psychological study of power and influence finds its origin in Kurt Lewin's theories. Lewin (1941) revolutionized the study of leadership by introducing the concept of social power in terms of the differential between interpersonal force and resistance. Lewin (1941,1951) in his field theory established the foundation for the psychological formulation of social power and influence. He considered power as the possibility of inducing force on someone else, or, more formally, as the maximum force person A can induce on person B divided by the maximum resistance that B can offer (Bruins, 1999). Lewin's approach had a major impact on French and Raven's taxonomy of social-power tactics (1959) and even more so on Raven's Interpersonal Power Interaction Model (IPIM) (1992). Following Lewin, French and Raven (1959) described leadership in terms of differential power relationships and

defined influence as a force the agent exerts on the target to induce a change in the target's behaviors, opinions, attitudes, goals, needs, and values.

In brief, although the process of interpersonal influence and social power has been examined in the organizational behavior literature as synonyms (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977), the two constructs are two distinct terms. Influence is determined by power and authority; but it is not identical. Influence is the process, means through which power is exercised and authority is legitimated in social interactions.

2.1.2. Sources of power

With the impact of Lewin's approach, French and Raven (1959) classified different types of power according to their source and developed a taxonomy that influenced much of the research on this subject. According to French and Raven's initial Taxonomy (1959), there are five different bases of power: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent and expert power. An additional sixth basis, named informational power, has been added later (Raven, 1969 as cited in Bruins, 1999).

When the target person perceives that the agent controls important resources and rewards desired by the target person, the target person complies based on *reward power*. Or vice versa, if the target person perceives that the agent has control over punishment, in order to avoid, the target person complies based on *coercive power*. Both reward and coercive power depend on the agent's ability to award positive and negative outcomes, respectively on the target person (Bruins, 1999). When the target person complies because he or she believes the agent has the right to make request and the target person has the obligation to comply, it is called *legitimate power* (Yukl, 2002). *Referent power* is derived from the desire of others to please an agent toward whom they have strong feelings of affection, admiration and loyalty (French & Raven, 1959). If the target person believes that the agent has the specialized knowledge and technical skills, he or she carries out the request even without questioning. The ground of this personal power is *expert power*. The subsequent

source of power is the power of controlling the necessary information and it is called *information power*.

Although critics have noted that French and Raven's sources of power are neither conceptually distinct nor defined in a parallel way (Bass & Stodgill, 1990), their work has remained an important foundation for subsequent research in power and authority. With the intention of overcoming the criticisms on French and Raven's model, Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) offered a revision and defined the sources of power. According to Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) reward power is the ability to offer things that the target desires or to remove things that the target does not desire; whereas coercive power is the opposite of reward power. The leader may or may not actually have that power, but the important point is the perception that the leaders have the power to reward the target. Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) identified legitimate power as the ability to make another person feel obligated or responsible and indicated that mandated job responsibilities, rank, or title serve to legitimize the leader's directives. French and Raven (1959) identified three sources of legitimate power: cultural values, position authority, and designation by a legitimate agent. According to Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989), the ability to administer to another person's feelings of personal acceptance or approval is called referent power. Studies have shown that followers who perceive the approval and acceptance of their leader tend to perform better, report greater job satisfaction and role clarity, and achieve better attendance (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985 as cited in Faeth, 2004). But Bass (1960) noted that referent power can be lost if the one who seeks approval fails to find it. Eventually, such rejections become too painful and are replaced by the follower's rejection of the leader's power. Within French and Raven's taxonomy of social power, expert and legitimate power have been shown to be the most effective and enduring (Podsakoff & Schriesheim, 1985 as cited in Faeth, 2004). The perception of expertise, superior knowledge, or access to information in combination with trust and mutual goals grants the leader with expert power (Ascher, 2001).

Another conceptualization source of power that is widely accepted is the dichotomy between "position power" and "personal power" (Bass, 1960; Etzioni, 1961 as cited in Yukl, 2002). Positional power includes potential influence derived from legitimate

authority (legitimate power), control over resources and rewards (reward power), control over punishments (coercive power), and control over information (information power); whereas personal power includes potential influence derived from task expertise (referent power) and potential influence based on friendship and loyalty (expert power).

Although in many occasions the term “influence” is used interchangeably with power and influence tactics, research demonstrated that power alone is not sufficient in explaining a leader’s effectiveness in influencing people (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Morrman & Fetter, 1990 as cited in Lee & Salleh, 2008). According to Yukl (2002), the study of influence is the “bridge between the power approach and the behavior approach to leadership”.

2.1.3. The Influence Process and Models of interpersonal influence

Based on the earlier taxonomies of power and authority, Kelman (1958) attempted to explain influence process with a dynamic model and proposed three different types of influence processes, called “instrumental compliance”, “internalization” and “personal identification” (Yukl,2002).

According to Kelman (1958), these three processes may occur at the same time depending on the target and the agent in the influence process. In “instrumental compliance” process, the agent influences the target because the target person aims to obtain a tangible reward or aims to avoid a punishment controlled by the agent (reward power and coercive power). When the target intrinsically desires to support or implement the agent’s proposal as it corresponds with the target’s values, beliefs, and self-image, “internalization” and subsequently commitment occurs regardless of any rewards or promises. On the other hand, when the target person imitates the agent’s behavior or adopts the same attitudes to please the agent, “personal identification” occurs (Yukl, 2002). In this type of influence process the agent relies upon the target’s need for acceptance or esteem to gain compliance (Kelman, 1974).

To establish how the influence process between the agent and the target function, Kipnis (1976) developed the Power Act Model. According to this model, leaders choose influence strategies based upon their social resources, the constraints upon their use of power, the anticipated resistance of the target and the perceived costs and benefits of various influence tactics. This model states that one's choice of a "means of influence" depends mainly on the resources one has available (such as on the power bases one possesses), on one's inhibition to invoke a power basis (as determined by one's estimate of the costs of using a power basis, one's subjective values and attitudes, individual differences, and social norms), and on the resistance that one expects on the part of the target toward the influence attempt (Bruins, 1999).

In 1992, based on his earlier work on the sources of social power, Raven developed the Power/Interaction Model of Interpersonal Influence. This model describes the process of interpersonal influence in terms of the agent. According to Raven (1992), the agent is a rational decision maker who weighs the costs and benefits of the influence attempt and the influence process is based on the agent's bases of power and leadership motivation, and the perceived costs and benefits of various influence strategies.

2.1.4. Types of proactive influence behavior

The descriptive power of these behavioral models was constrained by a lack of clarity regarding the classification of influence tactics (Faeth, 2004). The literature on influence behavior pointed out that the earliest empirical research is conducted by Marwell and Schmitt (1967). They identified five categories of "compliance-gaining" behaviors by factor analysis as rewarding activity, punishing activity, expertise, activation of impersonal commitments, and activation of personal commitments.

With their seminal study on the influence tactics used by people at work, Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson (1980) grouped a list of 370 influence tactics into 14 categories by critical incidents method. Factor analysis of their research narrowed those categories into eight

different dimensions that people use as tactics when influencing others; assertiveness, ingratiation, rationality, sanctions, exchange, upward appeals, blocking and coalitions.

Later, related research (Kipnis et al., 1984; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Tepper, Brown, & Hunt, 1993; Bruins, 1995) has introduced the idea of two basic influence dimensions known as hard and soft influence tactics and created new meta-categories which are classified according to the “extent to which using particular influence tactics takes control over the situation and the target and does not allow the target any latitude in choosing whether to comply” (Tepper, Brown, & Hunt, 1993 as cited in Faeth, 2004). In other words, the dimension soft versus hard defines how much freedom a tactic leaves to the target to yield or to resist to the influence attempt (Fable & Yukl, 1992; Howard, Blumstein & Schwartz, 1986; Kipnis, 1976; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985). The category of hard influence tactics consists of tactics that are relatively controlling and coercive, while the category of soft tactics consists of tactics that allow target the freedom to choose whether or not to comply (van Knippenberg et. al., 1999). This distinction between hard and soft influence tactics has been particularly helpful in research regarding the use of combinations and sequences of influence tactics (Case et al., 1988; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl, Falbe & Youn, 1993).

Building on the earlier work, Yukl and his colleagues (Yukl & Fable, 1990; Yukl, Lepsinger, & Lucia, 1992; Yukl & Tracey,1992) have identified eleven proactive influence tactics that are relevant for influencing subordinates (downward influence attempts), peers (lateral influence attempts), and superiors (upward influence attempts) in large organizations. The eleven proactive influence tactics that Yukl and his colleagues (Yukl & Fable, 1990; Yukl, Lepsinger, & Lucia, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) have identified are studied in this research and each tactic is explained briefly. According to Yukl (2008, p.160);

- *Rational persuasion* involves the use of explanations, logical arguments, and factual evidence to show that a request or proposal is feasible and relevant for attaining important task objectives.
- *Apprising* also involves the use of facts and logic, but the benefits described are for the target person. With this tactic the agent

explains why a request or proposal is likely to benefit the target person as an individual.

- *Collaboration* involves an offer to provide necessary resources or assistance if the target person will carry out a request or approve a proposal.
- *Exchange* involves the explicit or implicit offer to provide something the target person wants in return for carrying out a request.
- *Pressure tactics* include threats, warnings, and assertive behavior such as repeated demands or frequent checking to see if the target person has complied with a request.
- *Coalition tactics* involve getting help from other people to influence the target person.
- *Legitimizing tactics* involve attempts to establish one's legitimate authority or right to make a particular type of request.
- *Consultation* occurs when the agent encourages the target person to participate in the planning of an activity or implementation of a change process, aiming the target person's support to a decision already made by the agent.
- *Ingratiation* is behavior that the agent uses before or during an influence attempt that makes the target person feel better about the agent such as giving compliments, acting especially friendly or expressing confidence in the target's ability.
- *Inspirational appeals* involve an emotional or value-based appeal to arouse the target person's needs, values, hopes and ideals to develop enthusiasm and commitment.
- *Personal appeals* involve asking someone to do a favor, carrying out a request or supporting a proposal out of friendship or loyalty.

2.1.5. Research on managerial influence tactics

As mentioned above, Kipnis and colleagues (1980, 1985) and Yukl and colleagues (1990, 1992, 2008) are two predominant scholars that researched the identification of influence tactics. Kipnis et. al (1980) provided the starting point of the history of influence tactics and identified eight influence tactics; ingratiation, rationality, assertiveness, exchange, upward appeals, sanctions, coalitions, and blocking. Yukl et. al. (1990) extended the work of Kipnis and created a new taxonomy consisting of eleven proactive influence tactics and a new questionnaire (Influence Behavior Questionnaire).

Research on the use of influence tactics has focused on a broad range of variables including direction of influence attempt (Mowday, 1978; Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; Erez & Rim, 1982; Case et al., 1988; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl, Guinan & Sottolano, 1995), objective of influence attempt (Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson, 1980; Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984; Erez, Rim & Keider, 1986; Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl, Guinan & Sottolano, 1995), outcome of the influence attempt, personal and contextual variables (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Dubrin, 1991; Erez & Rim, 1982), frequency of tactic use (Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984; Yukl & Tracey, 1992), sequencing of influence tactics, combination of influence tactics (Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984), and effectiveness of tactic use (Mowday, 1978; Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

The studies on the direction of the influence attempts show that there are three directions that the influence attempt is exerted; upward influence attempt, downward influence attempt and lateral influence attempt. Recent research (Gupta & Case, 1999) has suggested a fourth direction of influence – directed outward to those outside of one's own organization (Faeth, 2004). It is obvious that this fourth direction of influence attempt will be subject to future research because of the importance of influencing clients, funders or political institutions.

The literature on the use of influence tactics indicate that the chosen influence tactic depends on the direction of the influence attempt. The study of Kipnis, Schmidt and

Wilkinson (1980), the data of 165 working business students gathered by critical incidents method indicated that rationality was the most common tactic in upward influence attempts; assertiveness and sanctions were used most often in downward attempts; and upward appeal, exchange of benefits and ingratiation were used in lateral attempts.

Erez and Rim (1982) studied the influence behavior of 125 managers and discovered that the choice of influence tactics was related not only to the direction of the influence attempt, but also to the size of the organization, the profession of the manager and their span of control. As in Kipnis, Schmidt and Wilkinson's (1980) study, managers were most likely to use rationality to influence their bosses. Managers in large organizations, however, were more likely to exert influence in this direction than in smaller organizations where managers preferred to rely on coworkers. Managers with more than 16 subordinates were more likely to exercise negative forms of influence than those supervising a smaller group (Faeth, 2004).

To research whether managers use different tactics depending on the relative status of the agent and the target, Yukl and Tracey (1992) developed a model. According to this model, (1) consistency with prevailing social norms and role expectations about use of the tactic in that context, (2) agent possession of an appropriate power base for use of the tactic in that context, (3) appropriateness for the objective of the influence attempt, (4) level of target resistance encountered or anticipated, and (5) costs of using the tactic in relation to likely benefits determine the selection of influence tactics (Yukl, 2002). In three studies using survey questionnaires or descriptions of influence incidents (Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl, Falbe & Youn, 1993; Yukl & Tracey, 1992), support for the hypothesis that exchange, pressure, ingratiation, and legitimating tactics are used more in a downward and lateral direction than upward, was found. Other studies (Gravenhorst & Boonstra, 1998; Erez, Rim & Keider, 1986; Kipnis et al., 1980; Savard & Rogers, 1992; Xin & Tsui, 1996 as cited in Yukl, 2002) have found moderately consistent results.

Another important variable in the study of influence behavior is the objective of the influence attempt. Several studies (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Kipnis et al., 1980; Erez et al., 1986; Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984) have focused on determining whether there is any

relationship between the objectives of an influence attempt and the target's choice of tactics (Yukl, 2002).

Building on prior research (Erez et al., 1986; Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl and Falbe, 1990), by using diaries and influence incidents Yukl, Guinan and Sottolano (1995) identified five major types of influence objectives: (1) assign work, (2) change target behavior, (3) get assistance, (4) get approvals, resources, or political support, and (5) get personal benefit (Yukl, 2002).

The first objective, "assign work" covers the influence attempts that intend to appoint the target for new tasks or new responsibilities. The second objective, "change behavior" refers to using influence tactics to alter the target's behavior of doing things in a different way or manner. Objectives such as requesting help to solve a problem, introducing an unfamiliar task, asking help to complete the work of the agent enter the third objective type, "get assistance". Tangible and intangible rewards such as pay raises and promotions, group belonging, changes in personal status and personal favors are included in the "get personal benefit" objective (Yukl, Guinan & Sottolano, 1995 as cited in Faeth, 2004). This study indicated that assigning work and seeking a change in behavior were made most often in a downward direction; and that attempts to get support or gain personal benefits were usually directed upward. There was some support for their hypothesis that attempts to get assistance were mostly directed laterally. The research demonstrated that most of the nine influence tactics (rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals, personal appeals, ingratiation, exchange, pressure, legitimating and coalition tactics) could be used effectively to assign work, change behavior, get assistance and get support. When an agent was seeking personal benefit, however, the choice of tactics was limited to personal appeals, exchange and pressure (Yukl, Guinan & Sottolano, 1995 as cited in Faeth, 2004).

The literature on influence tactics present that different influence tactics are used for people having high versus low self-esteem (Schwarzwald & Koslowsky, 1999 as cited in van Knippenberg et al., 2007), for individuals having high versus low status (Stahelski & Paynton, 1995 as cited in van Knippenberg et al., 2007), for individuals scoring high versus low on the Machiavellianism scale (Falbo, 1977; Farmer et al., 1997; Grams &

Rogers, 1990; Vecchio & Sussmann, 1991 as cited in van Knippenberg et al., 2007), for transactional and transformational leadership styles (Deluga & Souza, 1991 as cited in van Knippenberg et al., 2007), for different levels of education (Farmer Maslyn, Fedor,&Goodman 1997 as cited in van Knippenberg et al., 2007), for in-group versus out-group targets (Bruins, 1997), and for different cultural and social norms (Fu & Yukl, 2000; Xin & Tsui, 1996 as cited in van Knippenberg et al., 2007).

The earliest research on the outcomes of the influence attempts was Barnard (1938)'s description of the tendency of followers to exhibit various degrees of compliance, which he labeled "zones of indifference". The researchers that followed Barnard defined the possible outcomes of the influence attempts as commitment, compliance and resistance (Yukl, 2002). When the target person internally agrees with a decision or request and shows extra effort to effectively implement the decision, *commitment* occurs as an influence outcome. On the other hand, when the target person does not show extra effort and feel enthusiastic about the decision or request, but willing to do what the agent asks, it is described as *compliance*. When the target person is opposed to the proposal or request, *resistance* occurs.

Yukl and colleagues (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl, Kim, & Falbe, 1996) studied the relationship between proactive influence tactics and task commitment. The results of the studies indicated that soft tactics are positively related to task commitment, whereas the relationship of hard tactics to task commitment is negative or non-significant. Along with the referent power of the agent, the influence tactics like consultation, inspirational appeals or strong rational persuasion without pressure were most likely to result in target commitment (Yukl et al., 1996). Research with influence incidents suggests that the tactics most likely to elicit target commitment are *rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals, and collaboration* (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl et.al., 1996, 2005 as cited in Yukl, 2008). Yukl (2008) indicates that besides the above four "core" tactics, *appraising* sometimes results in commitment, *ingratiation* is sometimes effective as a supplementary tactic when used in combination, *pressure* is most likely to have an adverse effect on target commitment and the remaining tactics may elicit target compliance but seldom result in commitment.

2.2. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

2.2.1. Definition of organizational commitment

The topic of organizational commitment has been the subject of much theoretical and empirical effort in the field of organizational behavior, human resource management and industrial/organizational psychology (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Mowday, Steers & Porter, 1997; Porter, Steers, Mowday & Boulian, 1974; Stevens, Beyer, & Trice, 1978 as cited in Noor Harun & Noor Hasrul, 2006).

A review of the theoretical literature on the organizational commitment construct shows that very little consensus exists among the scholars and researchers on how the construct can be defined conceptually. As the construct develops and evolves over the years, scholars from the various disciplines give their own conceptual definitions as to how the construct should be conceptually defined (Noor Harun & Noor Hasrul, 2006). Therefore, the researcher wants to review the historical development of organizational commitment to present how the construct was defined conceptually by various researchers.

2.2.2. Historical development of Organizational Commitment literature

When the historical development of the construct is reviewed, Becker (1960)'s side-bet theory is one of the first studies that attempts to advance a comprehensive conceptual framework about organizational commitment. This theory suggests that the individual is bound to the organization because of some factors (such as income or hierarchical position) that is valued by the individual and will be lost or deemed worthless, if the individual leaves the organization. This exchange-based approach name these valued factors or hidden investments as side-bets (Cohen & Gattiker, 1992). According to Becker(1960)'s side-bet theory, the threat of losing these investments, along with a

perceived lack of alternatives to replace or make up for the loss of them, commits the person to the organization (Cohen, 2007).

Etzioni (1961) argues that employee's organizational commitment should be evaluated according to the power and authority of the organization over employees on a continuum; positive involvement with an organization on one side and negative involvement referred as alienation on the other side. According to Etzioni (1961), there are three zones on that continuum that form three different commitments: *Alienative Commitment* for the high alienation zone, *Moral Commitment* for the high commitment zone and *Calculative Commitment* for the middle zone. Moral commitment and alienative commitment are treated as affective forms of organizational attachment, and calculative commitment is treated as an instrumental form of organizational attachment (Penley & Gould, 1988).

Kanter(1968) focusing on employee involvement within an organization defines organizational commitment as "*the process through which individual interests become attached to the carrying out of socially organized patterns of behavior which are seen as fulfilling those interests, as expressing the nature and needs of the person.*" (Kanter, 1968). She proposes three types of commitment: continuance, cohesion and control commitment. Continuance commitment is commitment to the *social roles* without affectivity, acting according to punishment and rewards, costs and profits, similar to compliance (Kelman, 1958 as cited in Kanter, 1968). Cohesion commitment is commitment to the *social relationships*, similar to identification (Kelman, 1958 as cited in Kanter, 1968). Control commitment is commitment to *norms, moral values* of the individual, similar to internalization (Kelman, 1958 as cited in Kanter, 1968). Kanter differs from Etzioni that three kinds of commitment are not independent but have interaction in between.

Staw and Salancik (1977) define organizational commitment as "a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by actions to beliefs that sustain activities and involvement".

Mowday, Porter and Steers define organizational commitment as 'the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization' (Mowday,

Porter, & Steers, 1982 as cited in Avolio et. al., 2004). Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian (1974) characterize it by three psychological factors: desire to remain in an organization, willingness to exert considerable efforts on its behalf and belief in and acceptance of its goals and values hold (Noor Harun & Noor Hasrul, 2006).

O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) propose that there are three dimensions of psychological attachment: compliance, identification, and internalization. Compliance refers to attachment based on the expectation of receiving extrinsic rewards such as pay and employment as the result of work activities. Identification refers to attachment based on valued membership in, and affiliation with the organization. Internalization refers to attachment based on the congruence between organizational and individual values (Harris, Hirschfeld, Feild & Mossholder, 1993).

In this study, Meyer and Allen's (1991) Commitment model is used where, organizational commitment is considered as a psychological state that categorizes the employee's relationship with the organization. Three components of commitment have been identified, each of which ties the employees to their organization. Affective Commitment(AC) has been defined as an employee's emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization. It is assumed that employees with a strong affective commitment will remain in the organization because they *want to*. The second component of commitment is defined as Continuance Commitment(CC) which depends on employees' awareness of the costs of leaving the organization. It is assumed that employees with a strong continuance commitment will remain in the organization because they *need to*. The third component, Normative Commitment(NC) rests on employees' obligatory feelings towards coworkers or management. It is assumed that employees with a strong normative commitment will remain in the organization because they *feel an obligation* to do so, in other words it is the right thing to do so (Meyer & Allen, 2004).

2.2.3. Research on Organizational Commitment

2.2.3.1. Antecedents of organizational commitment

Prior research suggests that work experiences, personal and organizational factors serve as antecedents to organizational commitment (Allen & Meyer, 1990, 1996; Eby, Freeman, Rush, & Lance, 1999; Meyer & Allen, 1997 as cited in Avolio et. al., 2004).

Organizational culture, climate, work experience, age, personal characteristics and competence, job satisfaction, structure of the job and leadership style are factors that have an impact on organizational commitment (Mowday, Porter, Steers & Boulian, 1974; Meyer & Allen, 1990; Meyer et al., 2001 as cited in Eren & Çekmecelioglu, 2007).

Research shows that age and organizational tenure is positively related to organizational commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997). As employees get older, and work for the same organization, they become more committed to their organization. Married people are more likely to be committed to their current organization than unmarried counterparts.

Considering that people with low levels of educations generally have more difficulty changing jobs, level of education is also expected to have a negative relationship with organizational commitment (Steers, 1977 as cited in Chughtai & Zafar, 2006).

Irving, Coleman, & Cooper (1999) found that internal locus of control is associated with affective commitment and external locus of control was associated with continuance commitment.

Research also indicates that perceived trust in the supervisor, ability to be involved with the job, and feelings of job satisfaction are major determinants of *organizational commitment* (Brown, 2003).

Dunham, Grube, & Castaneda (1994) examined how participatory management and supervisory feedback influenced employee levels of affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The researchers found that when supervisors provided feedback about performance and allowed employees to participate in decision-making, employee levels of affective commitment was stronger than both continuance and normative.

Irving, Coleman, & Cooper (1997) investigated the relationship between affective, continuance, and normative commitment and the outcome measures of job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Results revealed that job satisfaction was positively related to both affective and normative commitment.

Researches focusing on employee work experiences suggest that employees whose work experiences are consistent with their expectations and satisfy their basic needs tend to develop stronger affective attachment to the organization (Dunham et al., 1994; Hackett et al., 1994; Meyer et al., 1993 as cited in Stallworth, 2004).

2.2.3.2. Consequences of organizational commitment

In general, organizational commitment is considered as a useful measure of organizational effectiveness (Steers, 1975 as cited in Brown, 2003). In particular, “Organizational commitment is a “multidimensional construct” (Morrow, 1993 as cited in Brown, 2003) that has the potential to predict organizational outcomes such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure, and organizational goals” (Meyer & Allen, 1997 as cited in Brown, 2003). Research shows that employees who are committed to their current organization are less likely to leave their organization and more likely to show extra performance.

2.3. ANDROGYNOUS LEADERSHIP

2.3.1. Definition of Leadership

Leadership has been defined differently in many theories focusing on different aspects of the construct. The term "leadership" is often confusing because of imprecise terms used such as power, authority, management, administration, control and supervision to describe the same phenomena (Yukl, 2002). Therefore, it is difficult to determine a single definition and it depends on the objective and purpose of the researcher. The various definitions of leadership in the literature pointed out that some scholars (Bass, 1990) see leadership as an extraordinary personality characteristic, some (Bowers and Seashore, 1966) define leadership as a behavior or process, some (Mescon, 1958) view leadership from the goal achievement point of view, some (Dion, 1968) define as multi-dimensional pattern and a reciprocal relationship (as cited in Çeri-Booms, 2009). Yet, most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves an influence process whereby intentional influence is exerted by the leader over followers.

This study focuses on a new leadership style “androgynous leadership”, which is influenced by the previous studies of leadership defined in the literature. As each leadership theory contributed to another theory following it, it is important to cover the historical development of the leadership literature briefly. The researcher believes that each perspective on leadership studies throughout the history should briefly be overviewed before defining “androgynous leadership” concept operationally.

2.3.2. Historical development of leadership studies

When the historical development of the leadership studies is reviewed, the *Great Man Theory* offered by the nineteenth-century philosopher Thomas Carlyle seems to be the first theory. Focusing on respected leaders of that time who occupied significant positions,

Thomas Carlyle promoted the idea that anyone in a leadership position must deserve to be there by virtue of his or her characteristics or personal traits. Three main categories of personal characteristics were included in the search for the ‘great man’: physical features such as height, age, appearance, ability characteristics such as intelligence, knowledge, and fluency of speech, personality traits such as dominance, emotional control and expressiveness, and introversion-extraversion (Bryman, 1992 as cited in Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001).

Table 2.1. The main leadership traits and skills identified by Stogdill in 1974

Traits	Skills
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adaptable to situations • Alert to social environment • Ambitious and achievement-orientated • Assertive • Cooperative • Decisive • Dependable • Dominant (desire to influence others) • Energetic (high activity level) • Persistent • Self-confident • Tolerant of stress • Willing to assume responsibility 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Clever (intelligent) • Conceptually skilled • Creative • Diplomatic and tactful • Fluent in speaking • Knowledgeable about group task • Organized (administrative ability) • Persuasive • Socially skilled

Source: http://www.leadership-studies.com/documents/mgmt_standards.pdf

The first major trend in researching leadership, *trait theories*, like Great Man Theory, focused on common traits of successful leaders. These theories proposed that (1) people are born with inherited traits, (2) it is genetic and (3) people with the right combination of these traits are considered as leaders, and (4) identifying these common traits would help others develop their leadership capacities. Stogdill (1974) reviewed the studies that had

been reported between 1949 and 1970 and showed that several universal traits and skills were indeed associated with leadership (Bass, 1990) . Table 2.1. above lists the main leadership traits and skills identified by Stogdill in 1974.

With the rationale that concentrating on studying observable behavior may be more operationally useful than looking at traits, *behavioral theories of leadership* focused on what leaders actually do, rather than who and what they are. This second major trend in researching leadership emphasized leader behavior. The most influential four main researches that studied the leadership behavior were:

- 1- University of Iowa Studies(1939)
- 2- Ohio State University Studies (1955)
- 3- University of Michigan Studies (1961)
- 4- Managerial Grid (1964)

In 1939, Kurt Lewin and his colleagues researched the decision making process of the leaders and identified three different leadership styles: autocratic leadership style, democratic leadership style and laissez-faire leadership style. According to their study, leaders who make the decisions without consulting, dictate the work methods, centralize the decision making process and limit participation are considered as Autocratic; leaders that delegate authority, encourage participation and involve the subordinates in the decision making process are considered as Democratic leaders; whereas leaders who let the subordinates make their own decisions and complete work and minimize his/her involvement in decision making process are considered as Laissez-Faire leaders.

In 1955, the series of questionnaire-based *Ohio State studies* identified two important behavioral dimensions of leader behavior:

1. Initiating structure

Initiating structure refers to the extent to which a leader was likely to define and structure his/her role and the roles of group members in the search for goal attainment. It is basically structuring work and work relationships to meet job goals.

2. Consideration

Consideration is defined as the extent to which a leader had a job relationship characterized by mutual trust and respect for group members' ideas and feelings.

In 1961, Rensis Likert and colleagues conducted *University of Michigan studies* and found three types of leader behavior differentiating between effective and ineffective managers: task-oriented behavior, relationship-oriented behavior and participative leadership (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001).

Blake and Mouton's (1964) *Managerial Grid* which is an example of 'high-high' theory of effective leadership, stated that effective leaders are both people and task oriented.

Realizing that no "one best way" is valid and operative to comprehensively describe the leadership construct, the researchers concentrated on identifying the most appropriate or effective leadership style that best fits to different situational factors and contingencies.

In 1967, Fiedler developed a measure that measures the leader's basic approach to managing the people, which indicates whether a person is task-oriented or relationship-oriented. His questionnaire contained 18 pairs of adjectives, and the leaders were asked to describe the person they least preferred to work with. The low *Least Preferred Coworker* score indicated that the person is "task oriented" and the high LPC score indicated that the person is "relationship oriented". According to Fiedler; leaders that put the task first, leaders that are hard on those who fail, leaders that consider competence as a key attribute, likes detail and leaders whose self-esteem is based on task competition are considered as task-oriented, whereas leaders who like to please others, put people first and consider loyalty as a key attribute are considered as relationship-oriented.

In 1969, Hersey and Blanchard developed an approach called "*situational leadership*" to determine the most effective style of influencing, considering the direction and support a leader gives, and the readiness of followers to perform a particular task. This theory was based on the amount of direction (task behavior) and socio-emotional support (relationship behavior) a leader must provide given the situation and "the level of maturity" of the

followers. Hersey & Blanchard argued that the readiness of followers is the key situational variable, when determining the appropriate leadership style to use in a given situation. On a continuum, the willingness and ability of a follower to take responsibility for directing his/her own behavior is shown. As the level of follower's maturity/readiness increases, the leader should begin to reduce his/her task behavior and increase relationship behavior until the follower reach a moderate level of maturity. As the follower begins to move into an above average level of maturity, the leader should decrease both. Once the maturity level is identified, the appropriate leader style is determined. According to the model, there are four leadership styles: Telling (high task behavior–little relationship behavior), Selling (high task behavior–high relationship behavior), Participating (little task behavior–lot of relationship behavior) and Delegating (little task behavior – little relationship behavior). Although the empirical evidence for the theory is deficient, this theory has been a popular basis for leadership training for many years (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001).

In 1971, based on a paper by Evans (1970), House (1971) developed a theory in which the relationship between the Ohio State measures of leader consideration and leader initiating structure and follower perceptions of path-goal relationships were assessed (House, 1996). This *Path-Goal theory* of House (1971) was developed to describe the way that leaders encourage and support their followers in achieving the goals they have been set by making the path that they should take clear and easy. According to this theory, it is the duty of the leader to assist his/her followers in attaining their goals such as cleaning the road for the employees and getting rid of the problems on the way leading to defined goals and to provide the direction or support needed to ensure that their goals are compatible with the overall goals of the organization (House, 1996).

In 1973, Vroom and Yetton proposed a *Decision-Making Model* that provides a set of rules that help to indicate which decision procedure is appropriate and will be most effective in a given situation. They distinguished five decision procedures, namely two types of autocratic decision, two types of consultative decision and one joint decision by leader and group. This model predicted that the effectiveness of these decision procedures depends on several aspects of the situation, including the amount of relevant information held by the leader and subordinates, the likelihood subordinates will accept an autocratic decision, and

the extent to which the decision problem is unstructured (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001). For example; according to this model, when the decision quality is important and followers possess useful information then the two types of autocratic decision are not the best model.

In 1974, House & Mitchell identified four leadership behaviors: Directive path-goal clarifying behavior, supportive leader behavior, participative leader behavior and achievement-oriented leader behavior (as cited in House, 1996). Directive leaders let their subordinates know what is expected of them, schedule the work to be done, and give specific guidance to their subordinates on how to accomplish tasks (This may be used when the task is unstructured and complex; the follower is inexperienced). Supportive leaders are friendly and show concern for their subordinates' needs (This approach is best when the work is stressful or boring). Participative leaders consult with their subordinates and use their suggestions before making a decision (This approach is best when the followers are expert and their advice is both needed and they expect to be able to give it). Achievement-oriented leaders set challenging goals and expect followers to perform at their highest levels (This approach is best when the task is complex).

In 1975, George Graen and colleagues proposed a model named *Vertical Dyad Linkage* and *Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)* which maintains that the leader and each individual member of a work group have a unique "dyadic" relationship. The general point of this theory is that leaders differentiate between subordinates and that group average perceptions are not necessarily the best reflection of leader behavior (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001).

In contrast to early studies on leadership, more recent studies have redefined the leadership construct as a relationship between the leader, the followers and the task/situational characteristics (Bass, 1990 as cited in Park,1997). Leaders that exchange with their followers, giving what they want in return for what he/she desires such as following prescribed tasks to pursue established goals are defined as *transactional* leaders (Burns, 1978), whereas the leadership style that paves the way to leaders and followers for engaging in a mutual process of raising one another to higher levels of morality and motivation is defined as *transformational leadership* (Bass, 1985). Although Burns' seminal work on political leaders introduced the distinction of transactional leaders from

transforming leaders to literature, it was first articulated by Downton (1973) to account for the differences among revolutionary, rebellious, reform, and ordinary leaders (Bass, 2004).

In 1978, James Burns, on the basis of his historical studies of American presidents and of revolutionary movements and ideologies of 20th century, proposed that leaders practice either transforming leadership or transactional leadership. According to Burns (1978), transactional leadership is based on making mutually beneficial arrangements with their followers, whereas transforming leadership represents a creative form of interaction between leaders and followers in which both sides play a dynamic role in influencing the other's perceptions and actions (Khanin, 2007). According to Burns (1978), political transactional leaders motivated associates by exchanging rewards for services rendered (Bass, 2004).

In 1985, Bass proposed the *transactional-transformational paradigm* as a theoretical and empirical approach in leadership studies. Bass (1985) extended the definition of a transactional leader to the military, industrial, public, and educational sectors and defined transactional leadership as allocating punishments and rewards. According to Bass (2004), transactional leaders: (1) recognize what their associates want to get from their work, and try to see that they get it, if their performance so warrants (2) exchange rewards and promises of reward for appropriate levels of effort, and (3) respond to the needs and desires of associates as long as they are getting the job done.

Bass (1985) defined transformational leadership as assisting followers to enhance their performance by using various complementary methods. According to Bass (2004), transformational leaders: (1) raise associates' level of awareness of the importance of achieving valued outcomes and the strategies for reaching them, (2) encourage associates to transcend their self-interest for the sake of the team, organization, or larger policy, and (3) develop associates' needs to higher levels in such areas as achievement, autonomy, and affiliation, which can be both work related and not work related.

Table 2.2. Comparison of Transactional and Transformational Leadership (Covey, 1992)

Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Builds on man’s need to get a job done and make a living • Is preoccupied with power and position, politics and perks • Is mired in daily affairs • Is short-term and hard data orientated • Focuses on tactical issues • Relies on human relations to lubricate human interactions • Follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems • Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line, maximize efficiency, and guarantee short-term profits 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Builds on a man’s need for meaning • Is preoccupied with purposes and values, morals, and ethics • Transcends daily affairs • Is orientated toward long-term goals without compromising human values and principles • Focuses more on missions and strategies • Releases human potential – identifying and developing new talent • Designs and redesigns jobs to make them meaningful and challenging • Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce overarching values and goals

Source: http://www.leadership-studies.com/documents/mgmt_standards.pdf

As presented in Table 2.2., Transactional and transformational leaders differ from each other. Transactional leaders display behaviors associated with constructive and corrective transactions (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The constructive style is labeled “contingent reward” and the corrective style is labeled “management-by-exception”. Contingent reward and management-by-exception are two core behaviors associated with 'management' functions in organizations. Transactional leadership defines expectations and promotes performance to achieve these levels.

Contingent reward: Transactional leaders recognize the roles and tasks required from their followers to reach desired outcomes, clarify these expectations, create the confidence they need and reward their followers when the goals and specified performance levels are attained. This exchange process is viewed as a transactional process, in which the leader clarifies what the follower need to do for a reward.

Management-by-exception: In transactional process, if the leader clarifies the standards that the follower need to meet and actively seeks deviations from these standard procedures before the irregularities and deviations happen, it refers to management-by-exception (active). The leaders who exhibit management-by-exception (active) also punish followers who do not meet the clarified standards. On the other hand, if the leader does not take any action before anything wrong happens or before the standards are not met, it refers to management-by-exception (passive). Those leaders take action only if irregularities and deviations have occurred. As this kind of leadership is being perceived as there is “no leadership” or as an avoidant type of leadership, it is considered as one of the passive / avoidant leadership style along with the laissez-faire style. The results of the empirical studies show that management-by-exception (passive) has negative effects on followers’ attitudes and behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Transformational leadership, on the other hand, is a process of influencing in which leaders change their associates’ awareness of what is important, and move them to see themselves and the opportunities and challenges of their environment in a new way (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Key aspects of transformational leadership are idealized influence (attributed and behavioral), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

Idealized influence: Transformational leaders have associates who view them in an *idealized* way, and as such, these leaders exercise much power and influence over their followers (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The followers that identify themselves with their leaders, admire, trust and develop strong feelings to the leaders whom they work with. Transformational leaders arouse and inspire their followers and show them a vision of what can be accomplished through extra personal effort. Moreover, these leaders consider

their followers' needs over their own needs. This kind of behavior creates positive feelings; followers respect and admire their leader. Although idealized influence was seen alike to "charisma" in previous studies (Conger & Kanungo, 1987) and in initial conceptualization of Avolio and Bass' (2004) study, later on, there has been a distinction on that dimension: idealized influence behavior and idealized influence attributed. According to Avolio and Bass (2004), idealized influence can be evaluated as both a behavior and an impact in the eye of the follower. Thus, idealized influence (behavior) refers to the leaders' charismatic actions which cover emphasizing the importance of unified aim of achieving organizational goals by talking about the values, beliefs and ethical implications of the decisions. On the other hand, idealized influence (attributed) refers to the attribution of the followers about the leader, whether the leader is regarded as charismatic or powerful.

Inspirational motivation: Leaders who act as a model for their followers, inspire them to achieve shared organizational goals and also their personal goals, are regarded as transformational leaders. These inspiring transformational leaders talk about the future optimistically, communicate clearly about the vision and show their followers the possible ways to attain both organizational and personal goals. By so, these leaders enhance meaning, promote positive expectations about what needs to be done (Bass, 1988 as cited in Bass & Avolio, 2004) and motivate their followers.

Intellectual stimulation: In order to develop their followers' problem-solving capacity, transformational leaders help their followers to think about new ways to the old problems, encourage their followers to question both their own and the leaders' beliefs, assumptions, and values (Bass & Avolio, 2004). According to Bass (1985 as cited in Bass & Avolio, 2004):

"Leaders become transforming and intellectually stimulating to the extent that they can discern, comprehend, conceptualize, and articulate to their associates the opportunities and threats facing their organization, as well as its strengths, weaknesses, and comparative advantages. It is through intellectual stimulation of associates that the status quo is questioned and that new, creative

methods of accomplishing the organization's mission are explored
(cited in Bass & Avolio, 2004, p.27).

Individualized Consideration: Transformational leaders, in addition to above three dimensions, also treat each of his or her followers uniquely and pay attention to their personal needs. Besides, these leaders also act as a mentor or coach and expand those needs in an attempt to maximize and develop their full potential. To do so, transformational leaders assign tasks on an individual basis, provide opportunities and develop organizational cultures supportive of individual growth (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Although transactional and transformational leadership is presented as two mutually exclusive leadership styles, in 1985, Bass (1985) proposed a model for the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership, suggesting that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership in predicting effects on followers' satisfaction and other outcomes.

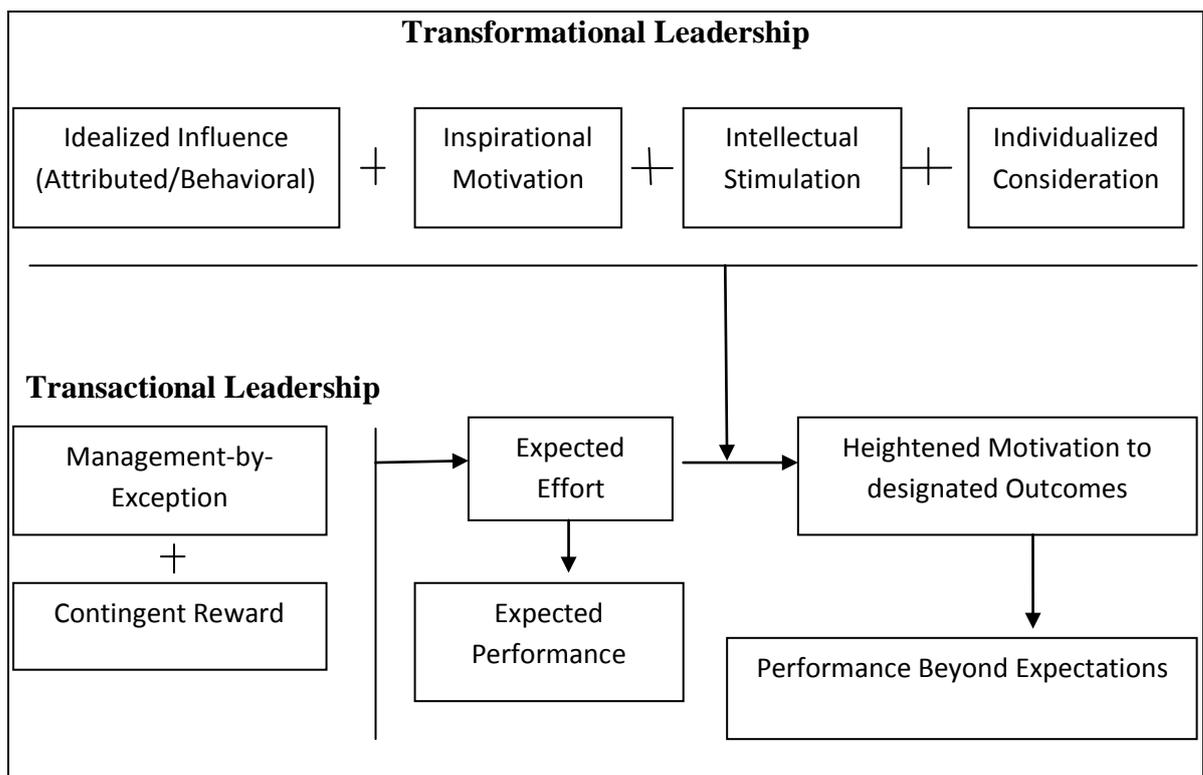


Figure 2.1. The Augmentation Model of Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Source: Bass & Avolio (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Manual and Sampler Set

This full range model of leadership, developed by investigating the leaders in public and private organizations and the earlier leadership theories such as task-oriented versus relationship-oriented, directive versus participative leadership, affirm that “*previous leadership models have fallen short in explaining a “full range” of leadership styles*” (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1990 as cited in Bass & Avolio, 2004, p.1).

The augmentation model of leadership proposes that the full range of potential is achieved through both leadership styles, not either one versus the other style of leadership. According to this model, transactional leadership provides a basis for effective leadership, but a greater amount of extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction is possible by augmenting transactional leadership with transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

For initial evidence, some researcher (Waldman & Bass, 1986; Avolio, Bass & Yammarino, 1988; Selzter & Bass, 1990 as cited in Bass&Avolio, 2004) confirmed this augmentation effect among various samples of industrial managers, military officers and part-time MBA students by using Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. The same augmentation effect has also been confirmed by some researcher (Waldman, Bass & Yammarino, 1990) using a different measurement instrument, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) by which initiation and consideration dimensions of leadership were substituted as the measure of transactional and transformational leadership styles (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

In summary, Table 2.3. presents the historical development of leadership studies. Research up to early 1980 basically focused on the traits, behaviors and situational factors, contingencies that affect the leadership style. Globalization, rapid technological changes, increased competitiveness has influenced the nature of work and created new forms of organizations. Today’s organizations no longer rely on traditional hierarchy. They are becoming more flexible where the decisions are made by teams and the lateral organizing mechanisms supersede the traditional role of leaders. The business challenges of this new decade also require a transformation at the value system for managerial and organizational effectiveness (Sargent and Stupak,1989). The new perspectives on leadership try to explain how certain leaders (transformational, charismatic, transforming, inspirational, visionary,

value-based) are able to achieve extraordinary levels of motivation, admiration, commitment, respect, trust, dedication, loyalty, and performance for successfully achieving organizational goals and maintaining organizational effectiveness.

Table 2.3. Historical development of leadership studies

Great Man Theories	1920's	Thomas Carlyle
Trait Theories	1948	Stodgill
Behaviorist Theories		
University of Iowa	1939	Kurt Lewin
University of Michigan	1961	Rensis Likert
Ohio State University		
Managerial Grid	1964	Blake & Mouton
Contingency Theory		
Least Preferred Co-Worker	1967	Fiedler
Situational Leadership		
Situational Leadership	1969	Hersey & Blanchard
Normative Leadership	1973	Vroom & Yetton
Path-Goal Model	1974	House & Mitchell
Transactional Theory		
Leader-Member Exchange	1975	George Grean
Transformational Theory		
Transformational Theory	1978	Burns
Transformational Theory	1985	Bass

Source: Bekrek, G. (2011). Unpublished Dissertation

Research (Waldman & Bass,1986; Seltzer & Bass,1990; Waldman, Bass & Yammarino,1990; Howell & Avolio, 1993 as cited in Bass&Avolio, 2004) demonstrate that transactional leadership provides a basis for effective leadership; however, employees that augment transactional leadership with transformational leadership show much more extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction.

The full range of potential is achieved through both, not either one versus the other style of leadership. Most leaders engage in both transactional and transformational leadership behaviors, but do so in differing amounts (Bass, 1985). Transformational and transactional leadership, then, are viewed as augmenting the traditionally researched leadership styles of initiating structure and consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Seltzer & Bass, 1990 as cited in Maher, 1997), which is considered as alike to “androgynous leadership” in this study.

2.3.3. Leadership and Gender

When the historical development of leadership studies is reviewed, it is seen that the earliest theories of leadership, the afore mentioned *Great Man Theory of Leadership* focused on the common traits of successful leaders. These theories proposed that (1)people are born with inherited traits, (2)it is genetic and (3)people with the right combination of these traits are considered as leaders, and (4)identifying these common traits would help others develop their leadership capacities. With the assumption that the right combination of traits that leaders are born with, separated leaders from followers, researchers began to focus on identifying leadership in terms of personality and characteristics. This point of view to leadership led the literature to the second stream of theories of leadership, *Trait Theories of Leadership*.

The earliest theories that focus on gender differences in leadership style are based on the premise that leadership is biologically determined. According to this theory, leadership is biologically determined, and it is behaviorally demonstrated and innate to man. At this point, the researchers point out to take attention that leadership is associated with man (as it is obvious from the name of the theory, Great Man Theory), and throughout the literature

the inspected personality and characteristics of these leaders are accepted as traits of effective male leaders. Therefore, it is hard for women to attain a position of leadership. Many researchers have insisted that there are few differences in the innate abilities of male and female managers (Oakley, 2000; Dobbins & Platz, 1986; Powell, 1993 as cited in Appelbaum, Audet & Miller, 2003). The research focusing on the hypothesis that women and men are biologically different in terms of leadership paved the way for the studies (Kold, 1999; Shimanoff & Jenkins, 1991) that focus on the similarities of women and men, instead of their differences, and their equivalence in effectiveness.

The first theory on gender differences emphasizes on biologically determined sex differences and the second theory on gender differences in leadership focuses on the premise that leadership styles of male and female differ as a result of their gender role. According to this gender role theory, *being a man or a woman means enacting a general role as a function of one's biologically determined sex* (Appelbaum et al., 2003, p.46). In other words, gender is a socially constructed variable that is based on biological sex type. Thus, there are certain behaviors that have been associated with masculinity and being a man, whereas there are certain behaviors that have been associated with femininity and being a woman. Throughout the socialization process, women learn how to be feminine and men learn how to be masculine. Gender is institutionalized and impacts how we think about all aspects of our lives and how members of society develop ideas and values about appropriate gender-related behavior, jobs, and activities (Young & Hurlic, 2007).

When the organizational setting is considered, it is a fact that people have expectancies from their leaders based on their gender roles, which usually overlap with their biological sex. From the perspective of social role theory (Eagly, Wood & Diekmann, 2000), these leadership roles have an influence on leaders' behavior. According to Eagly and Johannessen-Schmidt (2001):

Aspects of gender roles that are especially relevant to understanding leadership pertain to *agentic* and *communal* attributes (Eagly et al., 2000). Agentic characteristics, which are ascribed more strongly to men than women, describe primarily an assertive, controlling, and confident

tendency – for example, aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, daring, self-confident, and competitive. In employment settings, agentic behaviors might include speaking assertively, competing for attention, influencing others, initiating activity directed to assigned tasks, and making problem-focused suggestions.

Communal characteristics, which are ascribed more strongly to women than men, describe primarily a concern with the welfare of other people - for example, affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturing, and gentle. In employment settings, communal behaviors might include speaking tentatively, not drawing attention to oneself, accepting others' direction, supporting and soothing others, and contributing to the solution of relational and interpersonal problems (p.783)

Parallel to the studies on gender differences, the leadership studies focused on the behaviors (instead of innate personality and characteristics) of the individuals who act as a leader of a group or organization. The impact of gender on leadership style should emerge especially on measures of style that reflect the agentic norms associated with the male gender role and the communal norms associated with the female gender role (Eagly & Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001). The results of the research on *Behavioral Theories of Leadership* resulted in two primary leadership components: *initiation of structure* and *consideration* (Fleishman, 1951; Fleishman, 1953; Fleishman, 1957; Halpin & Winer, 1957 as cited in Brown, 2003). The most common distinction was introduced by Bales (1950) and developed further in the Ohio State studies on leadership. In these mentioned research, task-oriented style, which was labeled as *initiation of structure*, included behaviors such as encouraging subordinates to follow rules and procedures, maintaining high standards for performance, and making leader and subordinate roles explicit. Interpersonally oriented style, which was labeled as *consideration*, included behaviors such as helping and doing favors for subordinates, looking out for their welfare, explaining procedures, and being friendly and available (Eagly & Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001). According to Fleishman & Harris (1962 as cited in Brown, 2003):

“*Consideration* includes behavior indicating mutual trust, respect, and a certain warmth and rapport between the supervisor and his/her group. This dimension appears to emphasize a deeper concern for group members’ needs and includes such behavior as allowing subordinates more participation in decision making and encouraging more two-way communication.

Initiating Structure includes behavior in which the supervisor organizes and defines group activities and his/her relation to the group. Thus, s/he defines the role s/he expects each member to assume, assigns tasks, plans ahead, establishes ways of getting things done, and pushes for production. This dimension seems to emphasize overt attempts to achieve organization goals” (p.43-44 as cited in Brown, 2003, p.10).

Relations-oriented leadership behaviors focus on the quality of the relationship with followers, whereas, *task-oriented* leadership behaviors focus on the task to be accomplished by followers (Bass, 1990). Although male and female leaders did not differ on task-oriented style in Eagly and Johnson (1990)’s meta-analysis, the very small tendency for women to be more interpersonally oriented than men was significant. The results of the further studies supported the hypothesis that masculinity is significantly correlated with the reported use of a task-oriented leadership style, femininity is significantly correlated with the reported use of a relations-oriented leadership style (Powell, 1989).

The gender difference research on leadership styles further focused on whether or not there is a gender difference between *democratic* versus *autocratic* leadership (or the similar dimension of *participative* versus *directive* leadership). According to this leadership, leaders either behave democratically and allow subordinates to participate in decision making or behave autocratically and discourage subordinates from participating in decision making. Although democratic versus autocratic style is a narrower aspect of leader behavior than task-oriented versus interpersonally oriented style (Bass, 1990), the democratic-autocratic dimension also relates to gender roles, because one component of

the agentic norms associated with these roles is that men are relatively more dominant and controlling—in other words, more autocratic and directive—than women are (Eagly & Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001). In other words, men were more autocratic or directive than women, and women were more democratic or participative than men.

More recent studies on gender differences in leadership style have examined transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire styles. According to Eagly and colleagues' (2001) meta-analysis, women exceeded men on the transactional scale of contingent reward and three transformational scales: the attributes version of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration; whereas men exceeded women on the transactional scales of active management-by-exception and passive management-by-exception and on laissez-faire leadership. In other words, female leaders were rated more transformational than male leaders and also engaged in more of the contingent reward behaviors, which are a component of transactional leadership; whereas male leaders were generally more likely to manifest the other aspects of transactional leadership such as active and passive management by exception (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Besides the theories that ground the differences between female and male leaders on either biologically determined, innate sex differences or socially determined gender role differences, some researchers also focus on the impact of environmental factors and attitudinal drivers such as attitude toward leadership, experience, self-confidence, and the corporate environment.

This classic dichotomy of leadership behavior provided a framework for characterizing leadership behavior as either relations-oriented or task-oriented; as either people-concerned or production-concerned; as either authoritarian/autocratic or democratic; as either transformational or transactional. Viewing leadership behavior from dual perspective paved a way to describing leadership behaviors as an “*either/or*” phenomenon.

Over time, the conceptualization of key constructs in both gender and leadership researches have undergone comparable change (Figure 2.2). The view of conceptualizing gender as one dimensional with femininity and masculinity as opposite ends has been

replaced with an independent two-dimensional view of gender, wherein an individual could be judged to be relatively high, moderate, or low on separate dimensions of femininity and masculinity (Vecchio, 2002).

	Gender Research	Leadership Research
Single Dimension	Feminine ←→ Masculine	People ←→ Production
Independent Dimensions		
Multiple Dimensions		

Figure 2.2. Shifting views in gender and leadership research

Source: Vecchio, 2002

The parallel development of these shifting conceptualizations of gender and leadership has coincided with attempts to merge the major dimensions of these conceptualizations by equating “femininity” with consideration or relations-oriented leadership and “masculinity” with initiating structure or task-oriented leadership. According to Vecchio (2002):

“At an intuitive but superficial level, one can see how a stereotypic view of gender-based behaviors may merge with a stereotypic view of leader behaviors. For example, Maier (1992, 1999) argued that the theories of managerial leadership could be configured around a purportedly inherent incompatibility in the task – people dimension. As illustrations, Maier

highlighted such “masculine/feminine models” as McGregor’s (1960) Theory X – Theory Y, Likert’s (1967) Systems 1 – 4, the Ohio State approach’s (Stogdill, 1974) initiating structure – consideration, Managerial Grid’s (Blake & Mouton, 1978) concern for production – concern for people, the Contingency Model of Leadership’s (Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler & Chemers, 1982) task oriented –relationship oriented, Vroom–Yetton–Jago decision model’s (Vroom & Jago, 1978, 1988; Vroom & Yetton, 1973) autocratic - consultative/group responses, and Situational Leadership Theory’s (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977, 1982) task behavior – relationship behavior” (p.646).

As a result, there occurred a need for replacing the view of conceptualizing leadership styles as one dimensional with the view of conceptualizing leadership styles as two dimensional or multi-dimensional. In other words, a leader could also be judged (like the concept of gender) to be relatively high, moderate, or low on separate dimensions of task-oriented (initiating structure, authoritarian/autocratic, transactional) and relations-oriented (consideration, democratic, transformational) leadership style.

2.3.4. Androgynous Leadership

Parallel to the view that masculinity and femininity are no longer two opposite sides on a continuum, but independent two dimensions, in 1974, Sandra Bem (1974) originally developed a measurement instrument, Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). This instrument assesses the extent to which the definitions of desirable female and male attributes are reflected in an individual’s self-description in a particular culture (Bem, 1974). One of the results of this bi-dimensional point of view is that there is an ideal combination, which is psychological *androgyny*. In 1976, Bem received the American Psychological Association’s Distinguished Scientific Award for introducing the concept of “psychological androgyny” into the literature. According to Bem (1974), individuals who manifest both high masculine and feminine characteristics are conceptualized as

“androgynous” and claimed that “...androgynous persons are psychologically advantaged compared with masculine, feminine and undifferentiated individuals (Bem, 1974).”

In 1979, Powell and Butterfield recognized the potential applicability of androgyny concept to management: *“If the more effective person is androgynous, then the more effective manager may be androgynous as well”* (Powell & Butterfield, 1989, p.217). The earlier studies on this subject pointed out that men were seen as better suited for managerial positions than women (Bowman, Worthy & Greyser, 1965 as cited in Powell & Butterfield, 1989) and the profile of a successful manager is masculine (Schein, 1973,1975 as cited in Powell & Butterfield, 1989). According to Powell and Butterfield (1989), *“the call for a blending of masculine and feminine styles of behavior sounds very much like the familiar prescription for a “high-high” manager, in both concern for production and concern for people* (Blake & Mouton, 1964 as cited in Powell & Butterfield, 1989, p.218).”

In 1981, along with the increasing numbers of women entering in management, Alice Sargent (1981) proposed that the definition of “good manager” should be expanded by including the feminine behavior in managerial positions. According to Alice Sargent (1981):

Androgyny provides a significant integrating concept for a number of areas within the field of organizational behavior. It provides both a theoretical framework and a practical process for helping men and women become effective managers while retaining and expanding their concepts of themselves as human beings. Stereotyped sex roles can become conceptual prisons from which it is difficult to escape. Androgyny, by encouraging an individual to encompass the entire range of human behaviors, provides an open-ended path to growth and development (Sargent,1981, p.37).

In 1989, Alice Sargent and Ronald J.Stupak (1989) published an article in Training and Development Journal, where they claimed that androgynous behavior can enhance a range of managerial functions, such as conducting performance appraisals, building, developing

and maintaining team effectiveness, assisting in the career development of employees, using a variety of decision-making styles, dealing with conflict, responding to new ideas and dealing with stress. According to them, androgynous managers are capable of dealing with feelings and task accomplishment, with support and direction, with morale and productivity at the same time, and this qualifications ensure effectiveness.

In 1996, Daewoo Park proposed a model of gender-role identity and leadership style, which consists of four parts: (1) antecedents of gender-role identity, (2) relations between gender-role identity and leadership style, (3) relations between leadership style and its outcomes, and (4) androgynous leadership style (Figure 2.3).

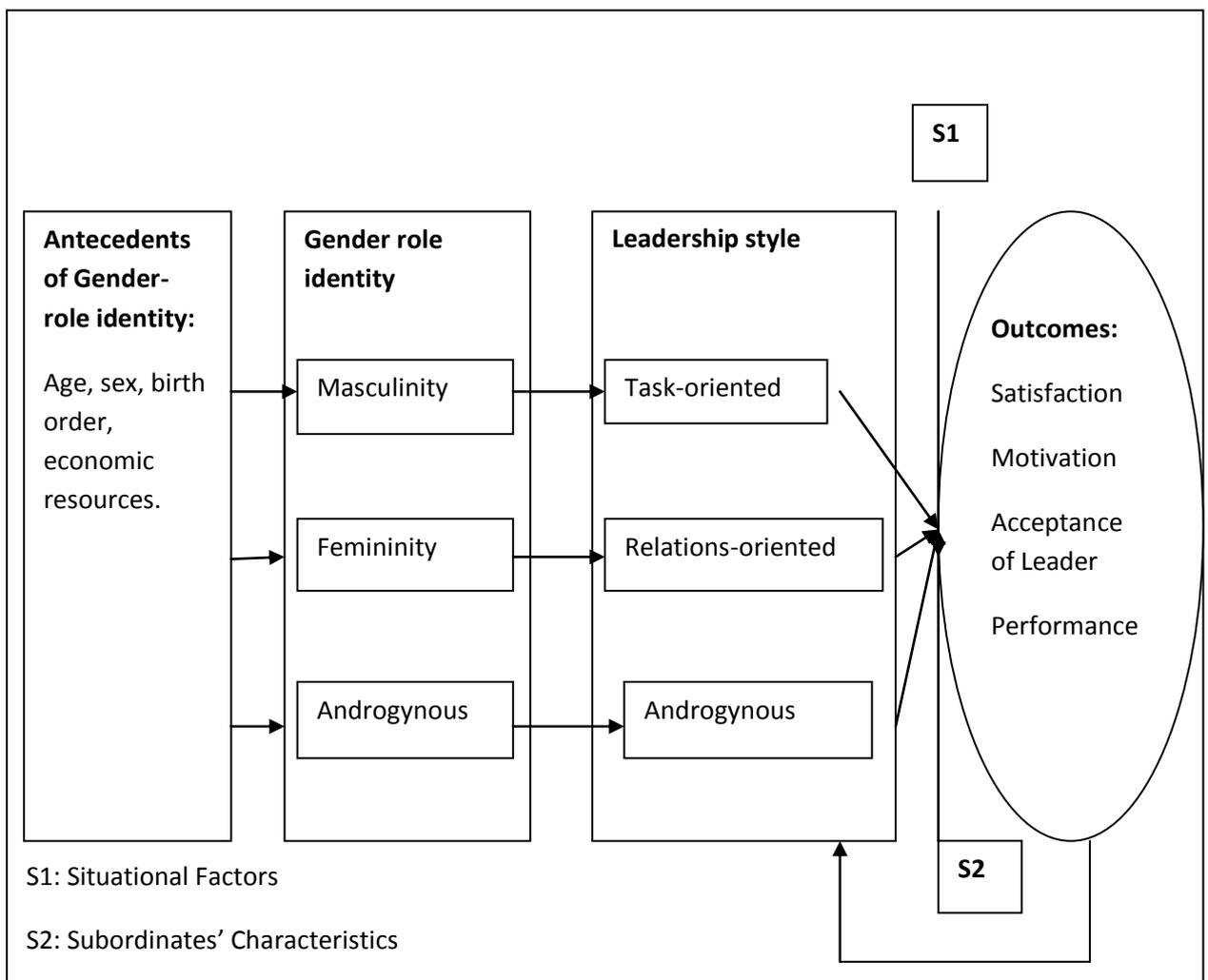


Figure 2.3. The model of gender-role identity and leadership style

Source: Park, 1996.

According to this model, gender-role identity is formed, influenced or changed by various factors such as age, biologically determined sex, birth order. The results of the studies on the relationship between gender-role and leadership style point out that masculinity is significantly correlated with a task-oriented leadership style; whereas femininity is significantly correlated with relations-oriented leadership style (Korabik, 1982 as cited in Park, 1996). As androgyny is a combination of masculinity and femininity, the studies on gender-role identity propose that effective leaders/managers need to exhibit the best qualities of both masculine and feminine leadership styles (Blanchard & Sargent, 1984). This model suggests that organizational outcomes such as high performance and effectiveness depend on the leadership style, situational factors and subordinates' characteristics, as in Fiedler (1967)'s contingency theory and House (1971)'s path-goal theory (Park, 1996).

Although Hollander (1985) argues that trait theories of leadership have been generally disappointing in explaining different leadership styles, the relationship between leader behavior (leadership style) and gender role has been studied recently by many scholars (Bass, 1990; Eagly and Karau, 1991 as cited in Park, 1997).

The androgynous leadership style has also been discussed frequently in the management literature and has seemingly gained widespread acceptance (Bolton & Humphreys, 1977; Sargent, 1981 as cited in Korabik & Ayman, 1987). Most of the research on this subject focused on the perception of androgynous leadership (Arkkelin & Simons, 1985; Powell & Butterfield, 1979, 1984 as cited in Korabik & Ayman, 1987) or the effectiveness of androgynous managers (Baril, Elbert & Mahar-Potter, 1987 as cited in Korabik & Ayman, 1987). However, evidence that an androgynous style is an optimal managerial style has not been clearly shown (Powell & Butterfield, 1979, 1989; Powell, Butterfield & Parent, 2002 as cited in Vecchio, 2002).

Recent studies on leadership that mainly focus on transactional and/or transformational leadership also examined the relationship between transformational leadership and androgyny. The results of these studies can be evaluated under two different perspectives:

1. Gender balance perspective
2. Gender resistance perspective (female advantage perspective)

The gender balance perspective, promotes a new ideal of leadership that mixes notions of masculinity and femininity, asserting that: “. . . transformational leadership requires a gender balance rather than the traditional leadership stereotype of masculinity” (Hackman et al., 1992). These studies stress that transformational leaders may employ a more androgynous style calling for the best in both masculine and feminine sex-typed behavior (Hackman et al., 1992; Kark, 2000) and demonstrate that transformational leadership correlates strongly with both feminine and masculine gender characteristics.

The second stream of study that reflects aspects of gender resistance perspective, stresses the “female advantage” in transformational leadership, or even more radically, posits that transformational leadership itself is a feminine form of leadership for both men and women (Kark, 2000).

Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen (2003) conducted a meta-analysis of gender differences using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire normative database. Their results showed that female leaders were rated more transformational than male leaders and also engaged in more of the contingent reward behaviors, which are a component of transactional leadership; whereas male leaders were generally more likely to manifest the other aspects of transactional leadership such as active and passive management by exception (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Although presented differently, transformational and transactional leadership are not necessarily mutually exclusive. Bass (1995) claims that both leadership styles can be observed in a leader. Bass & Steidlmeier (1999) affirm that transactional and transformational leadership styles are interrelated and the best of leadership emerges when they are used together. Thus, in this study androgynous leadership will be operationally defined as considering that leaders who combine transactional leadership style with transformational leadership style are “androgynous”.

3. PROPOSED MODEL OF THE STUDY AND THE HYPOTHESES

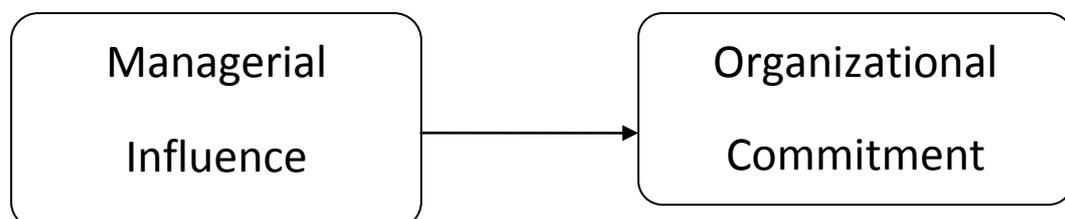
This chapter covers the proposed conceptual model with a detailed literature review. The relationships between the research concepts and the hypotheses to be tested are also presented in this chapter.

3.1. The relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment

A desirable outcome for most influence attempts is the target person's commitment to carry out the agent's request (Yukl, 2008). Yukl and colleagues (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl, Kim, & Falbe, 1996) studied the relationship between proactive influence tactics and task commitment. The results of the studies indicated that soft tactics are positively related to task commitment, whereas the relationship of hard tactics to task commitment is negative or non-significant. Research with influence incidents suggests that the tactics most likely to elicit target commitment are *rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals, and collaboration* (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl et.al., 1996, 2005 as cited in Yukl, 2008). Yukl (2008) indicates that besides the above four "core" tactics, *apprising* sometimes results in commitment, *ingratiation* is sometimes effective as a supplementary tactic when used in combination, *pressure* is most likely to have an adverse effect on target commitment and the remaining tactics may elicit target compliance but seldom result in commitment.

In these researches, the dependent variable was task commitment, not organizational commitment. Thus, in this study the researcher aims to examine whether or not there is a significant relationship between each "managerial influence tactics" and "organizational commitment".

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment.



H1a: Rational persuasion is positively related with affective commitment.

H1b: Apprising is positively related with normative commitment.

H1c: Collaboration is positively related with affective commitment.

H1d: Exchange is positively related with continuance commitment.

H1e: Pressure tactics are *negatively* related with affective commitment.

H1f: Legitimizing tactics are positively related with continuance commitment.

H1g: Consultation is positively related with affective commitment.

H1h: Ingratiation is positively related with normative commitment.

H1i: Personal appeals is positively related with continuance commitment.

H1j: Coalition tactics is positively related with continuance commitment.

H1k: Inspirational appeals is positively related with affective commitment.

3.2. The relationship between managerial influence tactics and androgynous leadership

Effective leaders must have the skill to recognize when to use different tactics of influence as well as the skill necessary to effectively carry out these influence attempts (Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson, 1980; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl, 1998; Bolino & Turnley, 2003 as cited in Lee & Salleh, 2008). Research has shown that leaders who have reciprocal relationships with their subordinates become skillful in influencing the subordinates.

Empirical studies support the hypothesis that effective leaders using downward influence tactics should understand the nature of the managerial influence, “which” influence tactics are appropriate, and “how” and “when” to use those tactics (Yukl & Falbe, 1990). The literature suggests that (1) the pursuit of visionary influence objectives is a distinguishing feature of transformational leadership, (2) *transactional and transformational leaders employ different kinds of influence strategies or tactics to obtain follower conformity*, and (3) transactional and transformational leaders elicit different patterns of follower conformity (Kelman, 1958; Howell, 1988; Tichy & Devanna, 1986 as cited in Lee & Salleh, 2008).

It may be predicted that transactional leaders frequently exert influence by offering to reciprocate or exchange favors (i.e., exchange tactics). However, it may be expected that transformational leaders employ more personally involving influence tactics (e.g., personal

appeals, inspirational appeals, consultation, and rationality) than their transactional counterparts (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl, 1998). Inspirational appeals tactic is expected to be associated with transformational leadership who often inspire others to change their beliefs and values and raise the subordinate's enthusiasm towards a request (Yukl, 2002). In addition, transformational leaders that let their subordinates participate to the decision-making process and let them suggest ways to improve a proposal or help plan an activity usually apply consultation tactics (Yukl, 2002; Yukl et al., 1996; Yukl & Seifert, 2002; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). The transformational leaders, using rational persuasion tactics, create an environment that encourages the reframing of problems through the use of explanations, factual evidence, and logical arguments (Yukl, 2002; Yukl & Seifert, 2002). Thus, the researcher proposes that leaders who augment transactional leadership style with transformational leadership style, "androgynous leaders" will employ different managerial influence tactics.

Hypothesis 2: The mean values of the managerial influence tactics with respect to leaders are not equal.

3.3. The relationship between androgynous leadership and organizational commitment

The androgynous leadership style has been discussed frequently in the management literature and has seemingly gained widespread acceptance (Bolton & Humphreys, 1977; Sargent, 1981 as cited in Korabik & Ayman, 1987). Most of the research on this subject focused on the perception of androgynous leadership (Arkkelin & Simons, 1985; Powell & Butterfield, 1979, 1984 as cited in Korabik & Ayman, 1987) or the effectiveness of androgynous managers (Baril, Elbert & Mahar-Potter, 1987 as cited in Korabik & Ayman, 1987).

Furthermore, organizational commitment is a "multidimensional construct" that has the potential to predict organizational outcomes such as performance, turnover, absenteeism, tenure, and organizational goals" (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Research shows that employees who are committed to their current organization are less likely to leave their organization and more likely to show extra performance.

Research has linked *organizational commitment* to leadership behaviors that are *relations-oriented* and *task-oriented*. Jermier & Berkes (1979) discovered that employees who were allowed to participate in decision-making had higher levels of commitment to the organization (as cited in Brown, 2003). DeCotiis & Summers (1987) found that when employees were treated with consideration, they displayed greater levels of commitment. Bass's (1985) transformational leadership and transactional leadership categories represent the most recent descriptions of *relations-oriented* and *task-oriented* leadership behaviors (Brown, 2003).

In numerous studies, transformational leaders were found to generate higher commitment in their followers (Avolio, 1999; Avolio & Yammarino, 2002; Bass, 1998 as cited in Bass&Avolio, 2004). For instance, Koh, Terborg and Steers (1995) noted greater organizational commitment of school teachers and students if their principals were rated more transformational. Fuller, Patterson, Hester, and Stringer (1996) reported in a meta-analysis greater follower compliance if their leaders were more transformational than transactional. Bycio, Hackett, & Allen (1995) reported positive correlations between the leadership behaviors of charisma, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and contingent reward and affective, continuance, and normative commitment (Brown, 2003).

Thus, the researcher proposes that there is a difference at the mean values of organizational commitment dimensions with respect to leaders who have an androgynous style and who do not.

Hypothesis 3: The mean values of organizational commitment dimensions of leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are not equal.

3.4. The moderating role of androgynous leadership

Empirical studies support the hypothesis that effective leaders using downward influence tactics should understand the nature of the managerial influence, “which” influence tactics are appropriate, and “how” and “when” to use those tactics (Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Leaders who augment transactional leadership style with transformational leadership style, “androgynous leaders” are capable of both analyzing the situation properly and taking the necessary action.

A moderator is “a qualitative (e.g., sex, race, class) or quantitative (e.g., level of reward) variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable” (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p.1174). According to the literature review, the researcher proposes that androgynous leadership style moderates the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment. In other words, the researcher proposes that the chosen managerial influence tactic will result in higher levels of commitment if the leadership style consists both transformational (relations-oriented) and transactional (task-oriented) leadership behaviors which means an androgynous style.

Hypothesis 4: Androgynous leadership will positively strengthen the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment.

3.5. Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study is:

1. To examine managerial influence tactics and its impacts on organizational commitment as an influence outcome;
2. To examine the moderating effect of androgynous leadership behavior on the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment;
3. To study the differences between female and male in the use of managerial influence tactics;
4. To identify the most frequent type of influence tactic that is being used in Turkish companies.

3.6. Research questions of the study

The study attempts to concentrate on the following research questions that need further analysis:

1. “Is there a significant relationship between “*managerial influence tactics*” and “*organizational commitment*”?”
2. “Which influence tactics are most likely to result in organizational commitment?”

3. “Do androgynous leadership behaviors strengthen the relationship between “*managerial influence tactics*” and “*organizational commitment*”?”
4. “What is the most frequent type of managerial influence tactic that is being used in Turkish business context?”
5. “Do female and male leaders differ in the use of managerial influence tactics?”

3.7. The proposed model of the study

The model of this study is formed after a detailed review of the literature around the research questions mentioned and is depicted in Figure 3.1.

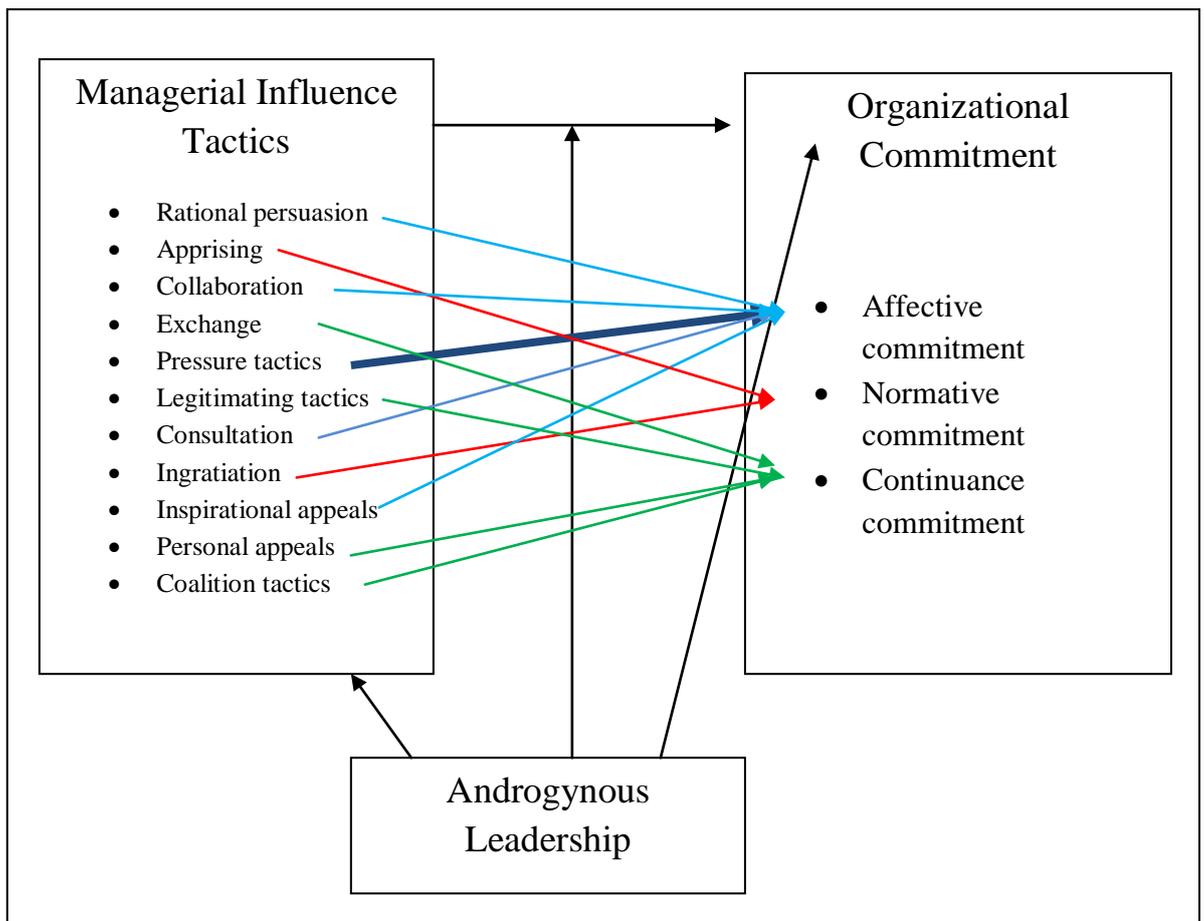


Figure 3.1. The proposed model

According to this model, there is a relationship between each managerial influence tactic and organizational commitment. Some of the tactics result in affective commitment; some

result in continuance commitment and some result in normative commitment. Tactics like rational persuasion, collaboration, consultation and inspirational appeals are positively related with affective commitment; whereas pressure tactics are negatively related with affective commitment. Tactics like exchange, legitimating tactics, personal appeals and coalition are positively related with continuance commitment. Apprising and ingratiation are positively related with normative commitment. Androgynous leaders will employ different managerial influence tactics and generate higher commitment in their followers. On the other hand, the leadership style of the leader moderates the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment. In other words, the chosen managerial influence tactic will result in higher levels of commitment if the leadership style is androgynous (consisting of both relations-oriented (feminine) and task-oriented (masculine) leadership behaviors).

3.8. The Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment.

H1a: Rational persuasion is positively related with affective commitment.

H1b: Apprising is positively related with normative commitment.

H1c: Collaboration is positively related with affective commitment.

H1d: Exchange is positively related with continuance commitment.

H1e: Pressure tactics are *negatively* related with affective commitment.

H1f: Legitimating tactics are positively related with continuance commitment.

H1g: Consultation is positively related with affective commitment.

H1h: Ingratiation is positively related with normative commitment.

H1i: Personal appeals is positively related with continuance commitment.

H1j: Coalition tactics is positively related with continuance commitment.

H1k: Inspirational appeals is positively related with affective commitment.

Hypothesis 2: The mean values of the managerial influence tactics with respect to leaders are not equal.

Hypothesis 3: The mean values of organizational commitment dimensions of leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are not equal.

Hypothesis 4: Androgynous leadership will positively strengthen the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment.

4. THE RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter covers the issues about the research design that best fits the purpose of this research. Then, information on the sample, data collection, measurement and hypotheses testing are presented.

4.1. The research approach

In this study, quantitative research method was used. The research initially studies whether or not there is a relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment and whether androgynous leadership behavior strengthens the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment. The study also plans to identify the most frequent type of influence tactic that is being used in Turkish companies and compare the findings based on sex differences to emphasize the differences between female and male in the use of managerial influence tactics in Turkish business organizations. Thus, the design of the study is descriptive.

The nature of the research design is correlational, and it is cross-sectional.

4.2. The data collection method

The framework Meredith et.al. (1989) have developed have been a classification of paradigms for research. As shown in Table 4.1., Meredith et.al. (1989) introduced the methodologies that ought to be used for the perspectives and mechanisms defined on two dimensions, rational/existential and natural/artificial.

Survey Research is chosen as an appropriate method, as this study aims to examine empirically the perceptions of the respondents about their leaders` behavior and leadership style and its impact on organizational outcomes. Considering the research questions to be answered, the researcher chose questionnaire method as the most appropriate method to collect data.

As the relationships between the concepts were examined within a proposed model, this research was also based on a conceptual modeling method.

Table 4.1. A Framework for Research Methods (Adopted from Meridith et.al., 1989)

		Sources of information used in the research			
		NATURAL		ARTIFICIAL	
Epistemological Structure of the Research Process	RATIONAL		Direct Observation of Object Reality	People's Perceptions of Object Reality	Artificial Reconstruction of Object Reality
		Axiomatic			*Reason/Logic/Theorems *Normative Modeling *Descriptive Modeling
		Logical Positivist/Empiricist	*Field Studies *Field experiments	*Structured Interviews *Survey Research	*Prototyping *Physical Modeling *Laboratory experiments *Simulation
	EXISTENTIAL	Interpretive	*Action Research *Case Studies	*Historical analysis *Delphi *Intensive Interviews *Expert panels *Futures/scenarios	*Conceptual Modeling *Hermeneutics
		Critical Theory		*Introspective Reflection	

4.3. Sampling methods and Sample selection

The sample of the pilot study was chosen by snowball sampling method. The researcher contacted to an employee in four different sectors (media, health insurance, chemical and textile industries) and asked that person to find other appropriate people to form a sample group.

The data of the initial study was collected by random sampling from a list that was obtained from Istanbul Chamber of Commerce. As planned, to sample an egalitarian profile by including both sectors, service and manufacturing, the companies that operate in Istanbul from both sectors and employ both genders were selected.

4.4. Data Collection

The data of the initial study was collected by :

1. Hard copy: The data was collected by contacting to Human Resources Departments of the chosen companies and sending the traditional paper and pen form of the survey with sealed envelope. 159 questionnaires out of 350 were collected (45.5 % response rate)
2. Online survey: As the expected number of responses could not be reached with traditional paper and pen form, the questionnaire was uploaded on an online web-site, called “www.freeonlinesurveys.com”. 76 respondents completed the questionnaire through this web-site; but only 40 were fully completed.

4.5. The study design and measurement scales

Data was collected by three different measurement instruments in Turkish. The questionnaires were translated into Turkish by the researcher and backtranslated by two bilingual academicians. The items that had discrepancies were corrected and back-translated once again.

4.5.1. Influence Behavior Questionnaire

Managerial influence tactics have been studied with several research methods, such as critical incidents, laboratory experiments, and field experiments. The method used most often to study proactive influence tactics is a behavior description questionnaire (Yukl, Seifert & Chavez, 2008). Two different questionnaires were developed for survey research

on proactive influence tactics, Profiles of Organizational Influence Strategies (POIS) and Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ).

In this study, the latest version of IBQ is used (Appendix A). The early version of the IBQ scale measured six tactics (rational persuasion, exchange, ingratiation, pressure, coalition, and upward appeals) which were similar to items in the POIS. The former version of the IBQ included scales to measure four additional proactive tactics based on the leadership and power literature such as consultation, inspirational appeals, personal appeals, and legitimating (Yukl et al., 2008). Several years ago the IBQ was revised and extended to include two additional tactics (Yukl & Seifert, 2002).

The IBQ is an 44 item (4 items for each 11 dimensions), self-scoring questionnaire. The respondents are asked to rate their supervisor/manager using a 5-point Likert scale with anchors labeled: 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.

After the pilot study, due to the excessive number of questions in the survey form, a few modifications were done on the measurement instruments.

According to Yukl et al. (2008):

Confirmatory factor analysis provides one way to assess whether scales have adequate convergent and discriminant validity, and it is appropriate when the ordering of questionnaire items is random. This type of analysis is not appropriate for the IBQ-G, because grouping items together under the scale name may bias the results for convergent and discriminant validity and make it difficult to interpret positive results. However, a confirmatory factor analysis for the target IBQ-R provides results that can be generated to IBQ-G (Yukl et al., 2008, p. 612)

Although the original IBQ sorted the items under the name of the relevant influence tactic, the researcher mixed the items in order to be able to conduct factor analysis.

4.5.2. Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Meyer & Allen's (1997) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) was used in this study. The Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ) is an 18 item (6 items for each dimensions), self-scoring questionnaire. The original survey measures three forms of employee commitment, based on the Three-Component Model of Commitment (Meyer&Allen, 2004). Each form of employee commitment, affective commitment (desire-based), normative commitment (obligation-based) and continuance commitment (cost-based) is measured by three separately scored and well-validated scales (Meyer & Allen, 2004) to identify the profile of employee commitment within an organization.

Responses to each 6-item commitment scales are rated by using a 5-point Likert scale with anchors labeled: 1 = strongly disagree, 2 = disagree, 3 = neither agree nor disagree, 4 = agree, 5 = strongly agree. Examples of items from the OCQ questionnaire include: (a) *affective commitment*– I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization; (b) *continuance commitment* - it would be very hard for me to leave my organization right now, even if I wanted to; and (c) *normative commitment* - this organization deserves my loyalty.

4.5.3. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Form 5X)

One of the instruments that can be considered as a measure of *relations-oriented* and *task-oriented* leadership behaviors is Fleishman's (1951, 1953) Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Other possible instruments that can be considered as measures of *relations-oriented* and *task-oriented* leadership behaviors include Blake & Mouton's (1964) Managerial Grid, Hersey & Blanchard's (1969) Situational Leadership Questionnaire, and Fiedler's (1967) Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) Scale. In these questionnaire forms, leadership behaviors are separated into two different categories under different headings:

- (a) *consideration* (measure of *relations-oriented* leadership behaviors), and
- (b) *initiating structure* (measure of *task-oriented* leadership behaviors).

The literature review reveals that there are studies that support the relationship between androgynous leadership style and *relations-oriented and task-oriented* leadership behaviors such as Blake & Mouton's (1964) Managerial Grid, and Bass & Avolio's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X).

In Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ Form 5X), Bass & Avolio (1995) categorized three subscales:

- (a) idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration are considered *transformational leadership* (measures of *relations-oriented* leadership behaviors);
- (b) contingent reward, management-by-exception (active), and management-by-exception (passive) are considered *transactional leadership* (measures of *task-oriented* leadership behaviors); and
- (c) laissez-faire is considered *non-leadership* (measures neither *relations-oriented* nor *task-oriented* leadership behaviors).

In this study, the androgynous leadership was measured by Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire which has been developed by Bass(1985) and has recently been revised in 2004. The MLQ-5X short form is a 45 item (36 leadership items and 9 outcome items), self scoring questionnaire. The respondents are asked to rate their supervisor/manager using a 5-point Likert scale with anchors labeled: 1 = Not at all 2 = Once in a while 3 = Sometimes 4 = Fairly often 5 = Frequently, if not always.

The transactional leadership scales include *management-by-exception (active)*: "Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards", and *contingent reward*: "Gives me what I want in exchange for my support".

The transformational leadership scales, followed by a representative item, include *idealized influence (attributed)*: "Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group", *idealized influence (behavior)*: "Emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission", *inspirational motivation*: " Talks optimistically about the future", *intellectual stimulation* :

“Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate”, and *individual consideration*: “Spends time teaching and coaching”.

In addition, the MLQ-Form 5X assesses a passive/avoidant leadership factor, Management-by-exception (passive) and laissez-faire leadership. A representative item of *management-by-exception (passive)* is “ Wait for things go wrong before taking action”, whereas a representative item of *laissez-faire leadership* is “Avoid getting involved when important issues arise”.

Because of the low response rate to questionnaires in Turkey, the laissez-faire leadership items and the outcomes of leadership items of the MLQ were excluded from the survey.

4.5.4. Demographic variables

In this research, the respondents were asked to answer seven items that define their demographic profiles such as their age, gender(sex), education level, their position in the current organization, their tenure in the current organization, the sector in which the organization operates and the gender (sex) of the leader that the respondent reports directly.

4.6. Pilot study

The pilot study was conducted during April 2010 and May 2010. 50 questionnaire forms were distributed to four contact persons from four different sectors (textile, media, health insurance and chemical). 39 questionnaires returned with a 78% response rate. As a result of the pilot study, the questions (outcomes of leadership) that will not be used in further analysis had been extracted from the survey forms.

4.7. Definition of variables

Definition of the variables with their page numbers and abbreviation of each item are listed in Appendix E. The measurement scales of the research variables are listed in Appendix F.

5. RESEARCH FINDINGS

In this chapter the researcher presents the research findings including the general profile of the respondents and the relations between the demographic variables. It also reveals the results of the hypotheses testing and explains the relationships between the study concepts. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16 was used for the analysis of the data.

5.1. Descriptive statistics of the study

The data collected from the study was analyzed through descriptive statistics to form the bases of the data analyses. In order to understand the general profile of the sample, the frequencies of the demographic variables were calculated.

The results of the descriptive statistics methods are presented in Table 5.1. The results indicate that 43.7 % of the respondents of the study are female (87 female) whereas 56.3% are male (112 male). The majority of the respondents (58.8 %) are between the ages of 26 of 35 and 25.1 % of them are between 36-45 years. More than half of the respondents (51.8%) have at least undergraduate degrees. Among the categories that represent the position held in the organization, 17.2% are top management, 27.3% are middle level managers and the rest of the respondents are administrative and technical staff (55.5%). 39.2% of the respondents have been working in the current organization between 5 to 10 years, whereas 24.6 % between 1 to 3 years, 17.1% between 3 to 5 years and 14.6% between 10 to 15 years. The respondents that have been working in the same organization over 15 years are only 9 people (4.5%). When the gender of the leader is considered, it can be stated that the leaders of the respondents are mostly male (27.8% female and 72.2% male leaders). This indicates that the profile of the leaders in Turkish business did not change much and is still traditionally male-dominated.

According to the results, a typical respondent of the study can be defined as:

- a male
- at the age between 26 and 35
- with at least an university degree
- working as an administrative/technical staff

- in the current organization for 5 to 10 years
- with a male leader

Table 5.1. Frequencies of the Demographic Variables ($n=199$)

Variable	Frequency	Percentage
GENDER		
Female	87	43.7
Male	112	56.3
AGE		
18-25	18	9
26-35	117	58.8
36-45	50	25.1
45+	14	7.0
EDUCATION		
High School	68	34.2
Undergraduate	61	30.7
Master degree&Phd	42	21.1
Other (elementary)	28	14.1
POSITION		
Top-Management	34	17.2
Middle level mgmt	54	27.3
Staff	109	55.5
TENURE		
1-3 years	49	24.6
3-5 years	34	17.1
5-10 years	78	39.2
10-15 years	29	14.6
15 years and +	9	4.5
LEADERGENDER		
female	55	27.8
male	143	72.2

5.2. Factor Analysis and Reliability Tests of Research Concepts

5.2.1. Factor Analysis and Reliability Tests of Managerial Influence Tactics

To learn more about the different ways people try to influence each other in work organizations, a 44 item, self-scoring behavior description questionnaire, Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ) was used (Yukl, Seifert & Chavez, 2008).

The results of KMO and Barlett's test of sphericity indicated that the data of the study is appropriate to apply the factor analysis (KMO= 0.876, $X^2_{\text{Barlett Test}}(528)= 3832.917$, $p=0.000$).

The questions were analyzed using Principal Component Analysis and Varimax Rotation Method with Kaiser Normalization. The questions which have lower than 0.50 value for Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA), the questions which have similar factor loadings under different factors or the ones with factor loadings lower than 0.45, and the questions which formed a factor alone were extracted from the analysis and the factor analysis was repeated. From the final factor analysis of Influence Behavior Questionnaire, 33 questions that form 7 factors with initial eigenvalues equal to 1 and above were obtained. These 7 factors explained 67.005% of the total variance (Table 5.1). Cronbach's alpha is used to assess the internal consistency of the variables in IBQ for measuring the reliability of each managerial influence tactic and it is observed that all 7 factors surpassed the lower limit of .70.

Table 5.2. Factor Analysis of managerial influence tactics in the study

Name	Item statements	Item Loadings	Variance explained	Cronbach Alpha
Collaboration	Offers to help with a task that he/she wants you to carry out.	.749	31.977	.904
	Offers to provide resources you would need to do a task for him/her.	.728		
	Describes benefits I could gain from doing a task or activity	.687		
	Says a proposed activity or change is an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.	.677		
	Explains how a proposed activity or change could help me attain a personal objective	.653		
	Offers to provide any assistance you need to carry out a request.	.648		
	Gets others to explain to me why they support a proposed activity or change that he/she wants me to support or help implement.	.622		
	Explains why a proposed activity or change would be good for me.	.593		
	Explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective.	.572		
Pressure	Makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change	.494	11.338	.791
	Demands that I carry out a request.	.786		
	Repeatedly checks to see if I have carried out a request.	.733		
	Uses threats or warnings when trying to get me to do something.	.731		
	Tries to pressure me to carry out a request.	.697		
Ingratiation	Mentions the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking me to support it.	.594	6.301	.851
	Says I am the most qualified person for a task that he/she wants me to do.	.794		
	Praises my skill or knowledge when asking me to do something.	.755		
	Says I have the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out a request.	.712		
Exchange	Praises my past performance or achievements when asking me to do a task for him/her.	.630	5.566	.822
	Offers something I want in return for my help on a task or project.	.836		
	Offers to do something for me in the future in return for my help now.	.747		
	Offers to do a specific task or favor for me in return for my help and support.	.724		
Rational Persuasion	Offers to do something for me in exchange for carrying out a request.	.675	4.644	.817
	Uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.	.780		
	Describes a clear, inspiring vision of what a proposed project or change could accomplish.	.598		
	Explains clearly why a request or proposed change is necessary to attain a task objective.	.577		
Legitimizing tactics	Invites me to suggest ways to improve a preliminary plan or proposal that he/she wants me to support533	3.880	.768
	Says that his/her request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies.	.808		
	Says that a request or proposal is consistent with a prior agreement or contract.	.794		
Personal Appeals	Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.	.628	3.298	.702
	Appeals to our friendship when asking me to do something.	.782		
	Ask me as a friend to do a favor for him/her.	.756		
	Says he/she needs to ask for a favor before telling me what it is.	.608		
		TOTAL	67.005%	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.876		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi Square	3832.917	
		df	528.000	
		sig.	.000	

Although the number of the factors defining each managerial influence tactic did not coincide with the original scale, the factor structure displays the characteristic features of the nature of the relationship between managers and employee in Turkish business environment. The original questionnaire comprises 11 influence tactics, whereas the factor analysis of this data set exhibits 7 influence tactics. When the excluding factors, consultation, coalition, apprising and inspirational appeals are examined, it is observed that these concepts do not take place in the nature of manager-employee relationship in Turkish business life. Tactics like pressure, exchange, ingratiation, and legitimating tactics exactly correspond with the literature.

5.2.2. Factor Analysis and Reliability Tests of Organizational Commitment

The results of KMO and Barlett`s test of sphericity indicated that the data of the study is appropriate to apply the factor analysis (KMO= 0.814, $X^2_{\text{Barlett Test}}(105)= 917.166$, $p=0.000$).

The questions were analyzed using Principal Component Analysis and Varimax Rotation Method with Kaiser Normalization. The questions which have lower than 0.50 value for Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA), the questions which have similar factor loadings under different factors or the ones with factor loadings lower than 0.45, and the questions which formed a factor alone were extracted from the analysis and the factor analysis was repeated. From the final factor analysis of organizational commitment questionnaire, 16 questions that form 3 factors with initial eigenvalues equal to 1 and above were obtained. These 3 factors explained 53.357% of the total variance (Table 5.2). Cronbach`s alpha is used to assess the internal consistency of the variables in OCQ for measuring the reliability of each organizational dimension. It is observed that the reliability of normative commitment is lower than the acceptable limit of 0.60 (Cronbach`s alpha value=0.485). Thus, Normative Commitment dimension is extracted from the analysis and the 2 factors (Affective commitment and Continuance commitment) that surpass the lower limit of .70 were used in further analysis.

Table 5.3. Factor Analysis of Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

Name	Item statements	Loadings	Variance explained	Cronbach Alpha
Continuance Commitment	I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this department	.725	30.881	.806
	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this department	.705		
	One of the few negative consequences of leaving this department would be the scarcity of available alternatives	.688		
	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my department	.672		
	Right now, staying with my department is a matter of necessity as much as desire	.656		
	I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my department	.642		
Affective Commitment	I owe a great deal to my organization	.820	14.466	.774
	This organization deserves my loyalty	.641		
	This department has a great deal of personal meaning for me	.634		
	I really feel as if this department's problems are my own	.612		
	Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my department now	.610		
	I would feel guilty if I left my organization now	.551		
Normative Commitment	I would be very hard for me to leave my department right now, even if I wanted to	.780	8.010	.485
	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now	.713		
		TOTAL	53.357%	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.814		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi Square	917.166	
		df	105.000	
		sig.	.000	

Although the items that form the factors (dimensions) of the organizational commitment did not represent the original categorization, the group of the items under each factor seems to be meaningful, when the nature of the profile of Turkish workforce and the influence of culture is considered.

5.2.3. Factor Analysis and Reliability Tests of Transformational Leadership

The results of KMO and Bartlett's test of sphericity indicated that the data of the study is appropriate to apply the factor analysis (KMO= 0.913, $X^2_{\text{Bartlett Test}}(78)= 1562.27$, $p=0.000$).

The questions were analyzed using Principal Component Analysis and Varimax Rotation Method with Kaiser Normalization. The questions which have lower than 0.50 value for Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA), the questions which have similar factor loadings under different factors or the ones with factor loadings lower than 0.45, and the questions which formed a factor alone were extracted from the analysis and the factor analysis was repeated. From the final factor analysis of MLQ, 13 questions that form 2 factors with initial eigenvalues equal to 1 and above were obtained. These 2 factors explained 60.987% of the total variance (Table 5.4). Cronbach's alpha is used to assess the internal consistency of the variables in MLQ for measuring the reliability of transformational leadership dimensions.

Table 5.4. Factor Analysis of Transformational Leadership

Factor Name	Item statements	Item Loadings	Variance explained	Cronbach Alpha
Transformational leader(attributes)	Act in ways that build respect	.806	30.709	.859
	Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group	.782		
	Consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	.781		
	Display a sense of power and confidence	.748		
	Treat as individuals rather than just as a member of the group	.667		
Transformational leader(behavior)	Spend time teaching and coaching	.794	30.279	.889
	Help me to develop my strengths	.731		
	Express confidence that goals will be achieved	.723		
	Get others to look at problems from many different angles	.669		
	Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	.615		
	Instill pride in others for being associated with me	.613		
	Talk about most important values and beliefs	.604		
	Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	.604		
TOTAL			60.987%	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.913		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi Square	1462.27	
		df	78.000	
		sig.	.000	

Although the items that form the factors (dimensions) of transformational leadership did not represent the original categorization, the group of the items under each factor seems to be meaningful.

It is observed that the items that form the first factor represent the characteristics of transformational leader, whereas the items that form the second factor represent the behavior patterns of transformational leader. Thus, the researcher named the first factor as “transformational leader (attribute)” and the second as “transformational leader (behavior)” by consulting to thesis advisor.

5.2.4. Factor Analysis and Reliability Tests of Transactional Leadership

The results of KMO and Barlett`s test of sphericity indicated that the data of the study is appropriate to apply the factor analysis (KMO= 0.680, $X^2_{\text{Barlett Test}}(45)= 505.266$, $p=0.000$).

Table 5.5. Factor Analysis of Transactional Leadership

Name	Item statements	Item loadings	Variance explained	Cronbach Alpha
Contingent Reward	Make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	.829	26.853	.770
	Express satisfaction when the expectations are met	.730		
	Discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	.729		
	Provide me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	.714		
MBE(active)	Keep track of all mistakes	.868	18.145	.645
	Direct my attention toward failures to meet standards.	.789		
	Focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards.	.596		
MBE(pass.)	Wait for things to go wrong before taking action	.731	16.533	.503
	Fail to interfere until problems become serious	.660		
	Demonstrate that problems must become chronic before I take action	.654		
TOTAL			61.531 %	
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.680		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi Square	505.266	
		df	45.000	
		sig.	.000	

The questions were analyzed using Principal Component Analysis and Varimax Rotation Method with Kaiser Normalization. The questions which have lower than 0.50 value for Measures of Sampling Adequacy(MSA), the questions which have similar factor loadings under different factors or the ones with factor loadings lower than 0.45, and the questions which formed a factor alone were extracted from the analysis and the factor analysis was repeated. From the final factor analysis of MLQ, 10 questions that form 3 factors with initial eigenvalues equal to 1 and above were obtained. These 3 factors explained 61.531% of the total variance (Table 5.5). Cronbach's alpha is used to assess the internal consistency of the variables in MLQ for measuring the reliability of transactional leadership dimensions. Except for the management-by-exception (passive) scale of transactional leadership, Cronbach's alpha value is above the generally agreed lower limit of .60. Thus, the management-by-exception (passive) dimension is extracted from the further analysis.

According to Bass & Avolio (2004);

Another form of management-by-exception leadership is more passive and "reactive": it does not respond to situations and problems systematically. Passive leaders avoid specifying agreements, clarifying expectations, and providing goals and standards to be achieved by followers. This style has a negative effect on desired outcomes—opposite to what is intended by the leader-manager. In this regard it is similar to laissez-faire styles—or "no leadership." both types of behavior have negative impacts on followers and associates. Accordingly, both styles can be grouped together as 'passive-avoidant leadership'.

Even though, the Cronbach's alpha value of management-by-exception (active) scale is above the generally agreed lower limit of .60, the total transactional leadership scale is below the generally agreed lower limit (Cronbach's alpha value of transactional leadership = . 588). Thus, androgynous leaders were defined as leaders who are above the median of transactional leadership (contingent reward only) and above the median of transformational leadership (attribute and behavior).

5.3. Mean Values of the Research Concepts

In order to determine which influence tactic is mostly preferred by Turkish leaders to influence their subordinates, the mean values of each tactic is examined. The findings indicate that among the managerial influence tactics, statistically rational persuasion is the most observed influence tactic that the leaders use in Turkish business life. Similar to the findings of Kipnis et al. (1984) and Pasa (2000), managers most likely to prefer rationality/reason at their downward influence attempts. The second most preferred influence tactic, legitimating tactics also show that leaders prefer the tactics that ground on logic, facts and legitimate authority in Turkey. The mean values for the study concepts on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) are exhibited in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6. Mean Values of the research concepts

Concepts	Mean Values
Rational Persuasion	2.9108
Legitimating tactics	2.8241
Collaboration	2.5427
Ingratiation	2.3354
Pressure	2.2884
Exchange	1.7136
Personal Appeals	1.6097

When the mean values of leadership styles are examined, it is observed that among all, leaders in Turkey closely monitor for mistakes, and errors and take corrective action as quickly as possible when they occur (Table 5.7). They specify the standards for compliance and tries to prevent the ineffective performance, even punishing their followers for being out of compliance with those standards. However, when the mean values of transformational and transactional leadership are compared, it is observed that the mean values of the dimensions for transformational and transactional leadership styles are found to be close to each other. This means that leaders engage in both transformational and/or transactional leadership styles in Turkey.

Table 5.7. Mean Values of the research concepts

Concepts	Mean Values
Transformational Leadership (attributes)	2.2905
Transformational Leadership (behavior)	2.3514
Transformational Leadership	2.1892
Contingent Reward	2.2230
Management-by-exception(active)	2.5405
Transactional Leadership	2.1239
Affective Commitment	3.0330
Continuance Commitment	2.7332

When the mean values of organizational commitment dimensions are examined, it is observed that employees are more affectively committed to their organization.

5.4. The Revised Model

As a result of the factor analysis, there occurred a need to make some modifications at two of the proposed hypothesis.

The purpose of the study is:

1. To examine managerial influence tactics and its impacts on organizational commitment as an influence outcome;
2. To examine the moderating effect of androgynous leadership behavior on the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment;
3. To study the differences between female and male in the use of managerial influence tactics;
4. To identify the most frequent type of influence tactic that is being used in Turkish companies.

The study attempts to concentrate on the following research questions that need further analysis:

1. “Is there a significant relationship between “*managerial influence tactics*” and “*organizational commitment*”?”
2. “Which influence tactics are most likely to result in organizational commitment?”
3. “Do androgynous leadership behaviors strengthen the relationship between “*managerial influence tactics*” and “*organizational commitment*”?”
4. “What is the most frequent type of managerial influence tactic that is being used in Turkish business context?”
5. “Do female and male leaders differ in the use of managerial influence tactics?”

With this direction and the results of the factor analysis, the researcher hypothesize that :

Hypothesis 1: There is a relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment.

H1a: Rational persuasion is positively related with affective commitment and negatively with continuance commitment.

H1b: Collaboration is positively related with affective commitment and negatively with continuance commitment.

H1c: Ingratiation is positively related with affective commitment and negatively with continuance commitment.

H1d: Personal appeals is positively related with affective commitment and negatively with continuance commitment.

H1e: Legitimizing tactics are *negatively* related with affective commitment but positively with continuance commitment .

H1f: Exchange is *negatively* related with affective commitment but positively with continuance commitment .

H1h : Pressure tactics are *negatively* related with affective commitment but positively with continuance commitment .

Hypothesis 2: The mean values of the managerial influence tactics with respect to leaders are not equal.

Hypothesis 3: The mean values of organizational commitment dimensions of leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are not equal.

Hypothesis 4: Androgynous leadership will positively strengthen the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment.

The revised model of this study is formed after the modifications that have been made as a result of the factor analysis and is depicted in Figure 5.1.

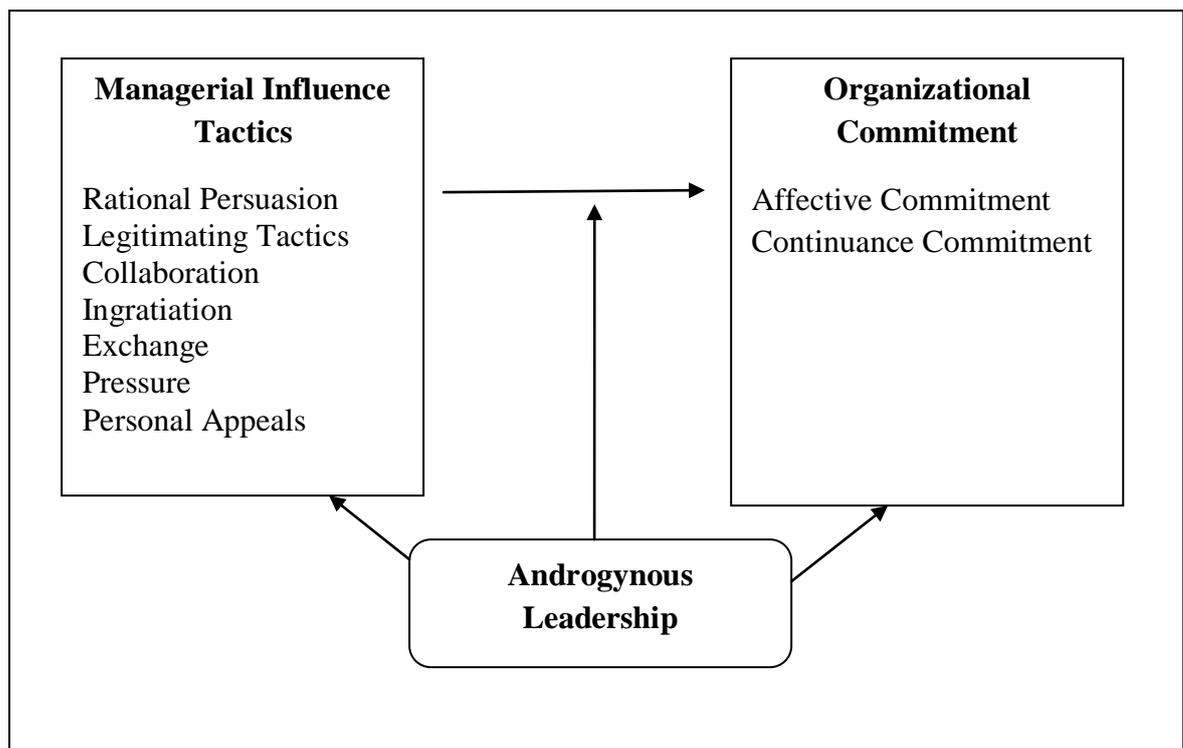


Figure 5.1. The Revised Model

5.5. Inferential statistics of the study

The hypotheses of the study were tested with different analysis techniques after linearity between the variables is found by correlation and scatter diagrams.

To test the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment, Pearson's correlation analysis was performed after the data was examined for marginal values with scatter/dot graphs and the linearity between the explored relationships were proven. The positive and significant r values indicated that there is a linear and positive relationship between each managerial influence tactic and hypothesized organizational commitment dimension. The negative and significant r values indicated that there is a linear but reverse relationship between each managerial influence tactic and hypothesized organizational commitment dimension. The R^2 values indicated the total variance explained by each variable.

Pearson analysis results show that there is a positive, but weak relationship ($r=0.285$; $p=0.00$) between rational persuasion and affective commitment and the total explained variance is 8.12 % , which is considered to be low.

Pearson analysis results show that there is a negative relationship ($r= -0.535$; $p=0.00$) between rational persuasion and continuance commitment and the total explained variance is 28.62%. Thus, the results **supported** that *“Rational persuasion is positively related to affective commitment and negatively with continuance commitment.”*

Pearson analysis results show that there is a positive, but weak relationship ($r=0.210$; $p=0.00$) between collaboration and affective commitment and the total explained variance is 4.41 % , which is considered to be low.

Pearson analysis results show that there is a negative relationship ($r= -0.356$; $p=0.00$) between collaboration and continuance commitment and the total explained variance is 12.67%. Thus, the results **supported** that *“Collaboration is positively related with affective commitment and negatively with continuance commitment.”*

Pearson analysis results show that there is a positive, but weak relationship ($r=0.231$; $p=0.00$) between ingratiation and affective commitment and the total explained variance is 5.34 % , which is considered to be low.

Pearson analysis results show that there is a but negative relationship ($r= -0.337$; $p=0.00$) between ingratiation and continuance commitment and the total explained variance is 11.36%. Thus, the results **supported** that *“Ingratiation is positively related with affective commitment and negatively with continuance commitment.”*

Pearson analysis results show that there is not a linear relationships between personal appeals and both organizational commitment dimensions, affective and continuance commitment. Thus, it indicates that *“Personal appeals is positively related with affective commitment and negatively with continuance commitment.”* **is not supported.**

Pearson analysis results show that there is not a linear relationships between legitimating tactics and both organizational commitment dimensions, affective and continuance commitment. Thus, it indicates that *“Legitimizing tactics are negatively related with affective commitment but positively with continuance commitment.”* **is not supported.**

Pearson analysis results show that there is not a linear relationships between exchange tactics and both organizational commitment dimensions, affective and continuance commitment. Thus, it indicates that *“Exchange tactics are negatively related with affective commitment but positively with continuance commitment.”* **is not supported.**

Pearson analysis results show that there is a negative relationship ($r= -0.332$; $p=0.00$) between pressure tactics and affective commitment and the total explained variance is 11.02% .

Pearson analysis results show that there is a positive relationship ($r=0.238$; $p=0.00$) between pressure tactics and continuance commitment and the total explained variance is 5.66%. Thus, the results **supported** that *“Pressure tactics are negatively related with affective commitment but positively with continuance commitment .”*

To test whether or not there is a difference at the mean values of leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not have in the use of each managerial influence tactic, independent samples t-tests were performed.

The results indicate that mean values of the leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are different when collaboration is considered ($t(172.781)=11.312$, $p=.000$). When the mean values of leaders that use collaboration as an influence tactic were compared, the mean values of androgynous leaders were found higher than the leaders who do not have an androgynous leadership style ($\mu_{\text{andro}}=3.3107$, $sd=.70415$; $\mu_{\text{non-and}}=2.0782$, $sd=.80754$)

Table 5.8. Independent samples t-test results

	And.leader	N	Mean	Std.Dev	t value	p value
Collaboration	1	75	3.3107	.70415	11.312	.000
	0	124	2.0782	.80754		

The results indicate that mean values of the leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are different when pressure is considered ($t(192.747)= -2.519$, $p=.013$). When the mean values of leaders that use pressure as an influence tactic were compared, the mean values of androgynous leaders were found lower than the leaders who do not have an androgynous leadership style ($\mu_{\text{andro}}=2.0720$, $sd=.79908$; $\mu_{\text{non-and}}=2.4194$, $sd=1.14151$)

Table 5.9. Independent samples t-test results

	And.leader	N	Mean	Std.Dev	t value	p value
Pressure	1	75	2.0720	.79908	-2.519	.013
	0	124	2.4194	1.14151		

The results indicate that mean values of the leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are different when exchange is considered ($t(119.435)= 3.247$, $p=.002$). When the mean values of leaders that use exchange as an influence tactic were compared, the mean values of androgynous leaders were found higher than the leaders who do not have an androgynous leadership style ($\mu_{\text{andro}}=1.9733$, $sd= .97310$; $\mu_{\text{non-and}}=1.5565$, $sd= .69173$)

Table 5.10. Independent samples t-test results

	And.leader	N	Mean	Std.Dev	t value	p value
Exchange	1	75	1.9733	.97310	3.247	.002
	0	124	1.5565	.69173		

The results indicate that mean values of the leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are different when ingratiation is considered ($t(197)= 7.608$, $p=.000$). When the mean values of leaders that use ingratiation as an influence tactic were compared, the mean values of androgynous leaders were found higher than the leaders who do not have an androgynous leadership style ($\mu_{\text{andro}}=3.0033$, $sd=.92770$; $\mu_{\text{non-and}}=1.9315$, $sd=.98378$)

Table 5.11. Independent samples t-test results

	And.leader	N	Mean	Std.Dev	t value	p value
Ingratiation	1	75	3.0033	.92770	7.608	.000
	0	124	1.9315	.98378		

The results indicate that mean values of the leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are different when rational persuasion is considered ($t(186.969)=10.834$, $p=.000$). When the mean values of leaders that use rational persuasion as an influence tactic were compared, the mean values of androgynous leaders were found

higher than the leaders who do not have an androgynous leadership style ($\mu_{\text{andro}}=3.7000$, $sd=.70711$; $\mu_{\text{non-and}}=2.4335$, $sd=.93166$)

Table 5.12. Independent samples t-test results

	And.leader	N	Mean	Std.Dev	t value	p value
Rat.Pers.	1	75	3.7000	.70711	10.834	.000
	0	124	2.4335	.93166		

The results indicate that mean values of the leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are different when legitimating tactics is considered ($t(181.027)=5.059$, $p=.000$). When the mean values of leaders that use legitimating as an influence tactic were compared, the mean values of androgynous leaders were found higher than the leaders who do not have an androgynous leadership style ($\mu_{\text{andro}}=3.2844$, $sd=.91154$; $\mu_{\text{non-and}}=2.5457$, $sd=1.12726$)

Table 5.13. Independent samples t-test results

	And.leader	N	Mean	Std.Dev	t value	p value
Legitimating	1	75	3.2844	.91154	5.059	.000
	0	124	2.5457	1.12726		

The results indicate that mean values of the leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are different when personal appeals is considered ($t(197)=2.725$, $p=.007$). When the mean values of leaders that use personal appeals as an influence tactic were compared, the mean values of androgynous leaders were found higher than the leaders who do not have an androgynous leadership style ($\mu_{\text{andro}}=1.7956$, $sd=.8387$; $\mu_{\text{non-and}}=1.4973$, $sd=.68734$)

Table 5.14. Independent samples t-test results

	And.leader	N	Mean	Std.Dev	t value	p value
Per.Appeals	1	75	1.7956	.8387	2.725	.007
	0	124	1.4973	.68734		

The results **supported** the hypothesis that “*the mean values of managerial influence tactics with respect to leaders are not equal.*”

To test if the mean values of organizational commitment dimensions are different with respect to leaders who have an androgynous style and who do not, independent samples t-tests were performed.

The results indicate that mean values of the leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are different when affective commitment is considered ($t(196)=5.083$, $p=.000$). When the mean values of affective commitment with respect to leaders are compared, the mean values of androgynous leaders were found higher than the leaders who do not have an androgynous leadership style ($\mu_{\text{andro}}=3.400$, $sd=.70730$; $\mu_{\text{non-and}}=2.8111$, $sd=.83906$)

Table 5.15. Independent samples t-test results

	And.leader	N	Mean	Std.Dev	t value	p value
Affective	1	75	3.400	.70730	5.083	.000
Com.	0	124	2.8111	.83906		

The results indicate that mean values of the leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are different when continuance commitment is considered ($t(197)= -5.605$, $p=.000$). When the mean values of continuance commitment with respect to leaders are compared, the mean values of androgynous leaders were found lower than the leaders

who do not have an androgynous leadership style ($\mu_{\text{andro}}=2.2680$, $sd=.86967$; $\mu_{\text{non-}}_{\text{and}}=3.0108$, $sd=.92069$)

Table 5.16. Independent samples t-test results

	And.leader	N	Mean	Std.Dev	t value	p value
Continuance	1	75	2.2680	.86967	-5.605	.000
Com.	0	124	3.0108	.92069		

The results **supported** the hypothesis that “*the mean value of organizational commitment dimensions of leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not are not equal.*”

To test whether or not androgynous leadership style strengthens the relationship between managerial influence tactics and affective commitment , regression analysis were performed.

The results of the regression analysis show that androgynous leadership style and managerial influence tactics explained a significant proportion of variance in affective commitment ($R = .461$; $R^2 = .212$; $F(3) = 17.497$; $p = .000$). Androgynous leadership style has a significant explanation power on affective commitment ($\beta = .259$). Among the managerial influence tactics, only pressure and personal appeals tactics have an explanation power on affective commitment ($\beta = -.335$, $\beta = .144$, respectively). Thus, the results **supported** the hypothesis that “*Androgynous leadership style strengthens the relationship between managerial influence tactics and affective commitment.*”

Table 5.17. Results of regression analysis

Dependent variable: Affective commitment

Independent variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Androgynous leadership	.259	3.879	.000
Pressure	-.335	-4.864	.000
Personal appeals	.144	2.078	.039

R = .461 ; R² = .212 ; F value = 17.497 ; p value = .000

To test whether or not androgynous leadership style strengthens the relationship between managerial influence tactics and continuance commitment, regression analysis were performed. The results of the regression analysis show that androgynous leadership style does not moderate the relationship between managerial influence tactics and continuance commitment. Thus, the hypothesis that “*Androgynous leadership style strengthens the relationship between managerial influence tactics and continuance commitment.*” **is not supported.**

The results of the regression analysis also indicated that four of the managerial influence tactics explained a significant proportion of variance in continuance commitment ($R = .609$; $R^2 = .371$; $F(4) = 28.453$; $p = .000$). Among the managerial influence tactics, rational persuasion has the most explanation power on continuance commitment ($\beta = -.571$). The other managerial influence tactics that have an explanation power on continuance commitment are exchange, pressure and personal appeals ($\beta = .228$, $\beta = .185$, $\beta = -.128$ respectively).

Table 5.18. Results of regression analysis

Dependent variable: Continuance commitment			
Independent variables:	Beta	t value	p value
Rational Persuasion	-.571	-9.091	.000
Exchange	.228	3.578	.000
Pressure	.185	3.000	.003
Personal Appeals	-.128	-2.029	.044

R = .609 ; R² = .371 ; F value = 28.453 ; p value = .000

To test whether or not female and male leaders differ in the use of managerial influence tactics, independent samples t-tests were performed.

Table 5.19. Independent samples t-test results

	Gender of the leader	N	Mean	Std.Dev	t value	p value
Rational persuasion	Female	55	3.1773	.98680	2.171	.031
	Male	143	2.81991	1.05589		

The results indicate that mean values of the leaders from both genders are only different when rational persuasion is considered ($t(196) = 2.171, p = .031$). When the mean values of the leaders with respect to genders are compared, the mean values of female leaders were found higher than the mean values of male leaders ($\mu_{\text{femaleleaders}} = 3.1773, sd = .98680$; $\mu_{\text{maleleaders}} = 2.81991, sd = 1.05589$).

6. EVALUATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter covers the evaluation of the research findings in accordance with the research questions and the purposes of the study. The findings of the study are compared with the existing literature. The contribution of the study and its implications are discussed.

This study primarily aims to examine managerial influence tactics and its impacts on organizational commitment as an influence outcome.

The results of the factor analysis of Influence Behavior Questionnaire indicate that instead of eleven managerial influence tactics that Yukl and colleagues (Yukl & Fable, 1990; Yukl, Lepsinger, & Lucia, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) have identified, seven influence tactics are observed in this study. These tactics are rational persuasion, collaboration, ingratiation, personal appeals, exchange, pressure and legitimating tactics. When the items that comprise these factors are examined, it is observed that tactics like pressure, exchange, ingratiation, and legitimating tactics exactly correspond with the literature. On the other hand, when the excluding factors (factors that have been loaded under different tactics), consultation, coalition, apprising and inspirational appeals are examined, it is observed that these concepts do not take place (or interpreted differently) in the nature of employer-employee relationship in Turkish business life. In a high power distance culture, where hierarchical structure and authority is widely accepted, participation of an employee in the planning of an activity or implementation of a change process (consultation) or the managers who get help from other people to influence the employees (coalition) is not accepted as appropriate. The managers do, also, not think of an emotional appeal to arouse the employee's needs, values or hopes (inspirational appeals); or they do not explain why a request or a proposal is likely to benefit the employee as an individual (apprising). The employer-employee relationship in Turkish business life is mostly based on obedience or compliance to manager's requests. Thus, managers mostly use explanations, logical arguments, and factual evidences (rational persuasion) or attempt to establish their legitimate authority or right to make a particular type of request (legitimizing tactics). The prior studies on managerial influence tactics conducted in Turkey (Pasa, 2000; Kuşluvan & Demirer, 2001) pointed out that legitimizing is the most observed tactic and it is followed

by collaboration, rational persuasion and pressure tactics. In this study, when the mean values of the tactics are examined, the findings indicate that rational persuasion is the most observed influence tactic that the leaders use. Similar to the findings of Kipnis et al. (1984) and Pasa (2000), managers most likely to prefer rationality/reason at their downward influence attempts. The second most preferred influence tactic, legitimating tactics also show that leaders prefer the tactics that ground on logic, facts and legitimate authority in Turkey. Collaboration, ingratiation and pressure tactics are the following tactics.

Since influence is *“the essence of leadership”* (Yukl, 2002) and organizational commitment is considered as a useful measure of organizational effectiveness (Steers, 1975 as cited in Brown, 2003), the present study aims to examine the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment. The literature on organizational commitment reveals that commitment is a culture-bound construct and *“for a complete understanding of a person’s commitments, one needs an analysis of the system of values or valuables in the world the individual lives in (Becker,1960)”*. The factor analysis of organizational commitment indicated that the respondents of this study define commitment as attachment to the organization emotionally (affective commitment) and necessity to stay because of lack of alternatives or the threat of losing stability (continuance commitment) as so in Meyer & Allen’s typology. Coherently, the respondents view commitment (a) as an emotional relationship with the organization and (b) as a decision to continue or discontinue membership in the organization (Meyer&Allen,1991 as cited in Wasti, 2002).

The results of the studies (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl, Kim, & Falbe, 1996) indicated that tactics like consultation, ingratiation, inspirational appeal and personal appeal are positively related with task commitment, whereas tactics like exchange, pressure, coalition tactics, and legitimating tactics are negatively related with task commitment or non-significant. When organizational commitment is considered, the results of this study revealed that tactics like rational persuasion, collaboration, and ingratiation are positively related with affective commitment and negatively with continuance commitment; whereas pressure tactics are negatively related with affective commitment and positively related with continuance commitment. Besides, tactics like

exchange, personal appeal and legitimating are non-significant. These results suggest that managers or leaders that aim to arouse affective commitment in their organization should use explanations, logical arguments, and factual evidences (rational persuasion), should provide necessary resources or assistance (collaboration), or should give compliments, act friendly, and express confidence in the employee's ability (ingratiation). On the other hand, managers or leaders should avoid from threats, warnings, and assertive behavior (pressure) as these tactics would result in compliance but be ineffective in long-term.

This study also aims to examine the moderating effect of androgynous leadership behavior on the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment.

Globalization, rapid technological changes, increased competitiveness has influenced the nature of work and created new forms of organizations. Today's organizations no longer rely on traditional hierarchy. They are becoming more flexible where the decisions are made by teams and the lateral organizing mechanisms supersede the traditional role of leaders. Results of previous leadership studies indicate that stereotypically "feminine" behaviors characterize relations-oriented (Yukl, 2002) or employee/people-oriented (Blake and Mouton, 1964) leadership styles whereas stereotypically "masculine" behaviors characterize task-oriented (Yukl, 2002) or production-oriented (Blake and Mouton, 1964) leadership styles. However, the changing nature of management requires an androgynous leader who blends a task-oriented and a relations-oriented leadership style for successfully achieving organizational goals and maintaining organizational effectiveness (Sargent&Stupak, 1989; Bass, 1985; Waldman & Bass,1986; Seltzer & Bass,1990; Waldman, Bass & Yammarino,1990; Howell & Avolio, 1993 as cited in Bass&Avolio, 2004). *Relations-oriented* leadership behaviors focus on the quality of the relationship with followers, whereas, *task-oriented* leadership behaviors focus on the task to be accomplished by followers (Bass, 1990). The results of the studies supported the hypothesis that masculinity is significantly correlated with the reported use of a task-oriented leadership style, femininity is significantly correlated with the reported use of a relations-oriented leadership style, and androgynous leaders are capable of adopting either the task-oriented leadership style or the relations-oriented leadership style (Powell,1989).

Recent studies on leadership that mainly focus on transactional and/or transformational leadership also examined the relationship between leadership style and gender role. Some of these studies stress that transformational leaders may employ a more androgynous style calling for the best in both masculine and feminine sex-typed behavior (Hackman et al., 1992; Kark, 2000) and demonstrate that transformational leadership correlates strongly with both feminine and masculine gender characteristics. Yet, some of the studies stress the “female advantage” in transformational leadership, or even more radically, posits that transformational leadership itself is a feminine form of leadership for both men and women (Kark, 2000).

The results of Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen (2003)’s meta-analysis showed that female leaders were rated more transformational than male leaders and also engaged in more of the contingent reward behaviors, which are a component of transactional leadership; whereas male leaders were generally more likely to manifest the other aspects of transactional leadership such as active and passive management by exception (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

The results of this study showed that 75 respondents out of 199 (37.7%) define their leaders as androgynous, where as only 33 respondents (16.5%) define their leaders either transactional or transformational. This results indicate that transactional and transformational leadership styles are interrelated (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999) and that both leadership styles can be observed in a leader (Bass,1995).

Effective leaders must have the skill to recognize when to use different tactics of influence as well as the skill necessary to effectively carry out these influence attempts (Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson, 1980; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl, 1998; Bolino & Turnley, 2003 as cited in Lee & Salleh, 2008). Empirical studies support the hypothesis that effective leaders using downward influence tactics should understand the nature of the managerial influence, “which” influence tactics are appropriate , and “how” and “when” to use those tactics (Yukl & Falbe, 1990). The results of the study that test whether or not there is a difference at the mean values of leaders who have an androgynous leadership style and who do not have in the use of each managerial influence tactic indicate that androgynous

leaders use collaboration, exchange, ingratiation, rational persuasion, legitimating tactics and personal appeal more than other leaders. However, androgynous leaders use pressure as an influence tactic less than non-androgynous leaders. These results imply that androgynous leaders have the skill to recognize that pressure is not an appropriate influence tactic to use.

This study also reveals that affective commitment is higher when the leader's leadership style is androgynous. Leaders or managers should blend transactional (task-oriented) leadership style with transformational (relationship-oriented) leadership style to achieve a more emotionally committed workforce.

Another finding of this study shows that the androgynous leadership style strengthens the relationship between managerial influence tactics and affective commitment. Employees will result more in affective commitment if their leaders ask them to do a favor or carry out a request with regard to friendship or loyalty (personal appeals) and avoid using threats, warnings or assertive behavior (pressure tactics).

This study subordinately aims to research the differences between female and male in the use of managerial influence tactics.

In a research (Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin & Marx, 2007) that studies the effects of gender, age, and education on leader influence tactics, using the Multifactor Leadership (MLQ) and Yukl's Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ), it is found that women use more pressure tactics than men (Landry, 2009). Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) suggested that men and women use different influence tactics because they are socialized differently and found that gender was a moderating effect on the relationship between upward influence efforts and resulting performance appraisals.

Consistent with Kipnis and Schmidt (1988), the results of this study also exhibited that female leaders in this study use rational persuasion more than their male colleagues.

7. CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to examine the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment and to study the moderating effect of androgynous leadership style in Turkish business life. The study also tried to explain gender differences in managerial influence tactics in Turkey. 199 respondents working in different companies operating in both service and industrial sectors (textile, automotive, media, chemical, medical, etc.) in Istanbul constitute the sample of this study. Gathered data is analyzed using SPSS 16.0.

The results pointed that managerial influence tactics like rational persuasion, collaboration, ingratiation, personal appeals, exchange, pressure and legitimating tactics are in use by managers in their downward influence attempts; whereas consultation, coalition, apprising and inspirational appeals are relatively unfamiliar tactics in the “authority-based” realm of employer-employee relationship in Turkey. The findings show that managerial influence tactics are culture-bound. The questionnaire forms that have been used for this purpose are translated from English to Turkish but still represent the cultural values of the countries of original questionnaires. To completely understand the value system of Turkish leaders, which influence tactics they use to influence their subordinates, further research should focus on identification of these tactics within Turkish business life and try to form a unique measurement instrument. Certainly, this is valid for all research concepts. Future research should also be conducted to develop an instrument that represents a more appropriate measure of androgynous leadership behavior. A better measurement instrument of androgynous leadership (a better measure of relations-oriented and task-oriented leadership behaviors) might result in more variance explained in organizational commitment. Universality of these managerial constructs pave the way to cross-cultural studies. It is a fact that perception, identification, and conceptualization of these constructs should be questioned or at least some modifications like adding culture-specific items should be considered.

The results of this study show that rational persuasion, collaboration, ingratiation are positively related with affective commitment and negatively with continuance

commitment. While on the contrary, pressure tactics are negatively related with affective commitment and positively with continuance commitment. In this respect, leaders or managers using downward influence tactics should be aware of the consequences of these tactics, and improve their managerial skills on “how” and “when” to use those tactics.

Although the androgynous leadership style has been discussed frequently in the management literature and has seemingly gained widespread acceptance (Bolton & Humphreys, 1977; Sargent, 1981 as cited in Korabik & Ayman, 1987), there was no empirical research in support of the moderating effect of the androgynous leadership on the relationship between managerial influence tactics and organizational commitment conducted in Turkish business literature. First and foremost, this study contributed to leadership literature by measuring androgynous leadership empirically with a validated measurement instrument, MLQ in Turkey. The business challenges of this new decade requires a transformation at the value system for managerial and organizational effectiveness (Sargent and Stupak, 1989). The new model proposes an androgynous style-integration of stereotypically “masculine” and “feminine” behaviors for effective leadership. The results indicated that androgynous leadership style strengthens the relationship between managerial influence tactics and affective commitment. This knowledge would benefit leaders in their daily practice of leadership and in such practical aspects of business such as the creation and execution of employee programs to create a motivated and dedicated workforce. Therefore, instead of focusing on searching “one best-way” for effective leadership, the research should focus on concentrating the positive aspects of each leadership style for realizing organizational objectives.

The presence of the differences between female and male in their values, beliefs, and other factors can affect how individuals utilize the influence tactics in their business interactions with subordinates or peers, and upward relationships with their supervisors. The results revealed that female leaders use rational persuasion more than their male colleagues.

This research has some methodological limitations that should be taken into consideration. The first limitation of this study is the sample size and the restriction of the data to Istanbul only. The sample of this study included actively working members chosen from different sectors in Istanbul. Thus, it cannot be a representative sample of all Turkish business life.

More research covering different sectors and cities is needed to be conducted throughout Turkey. This is a cross-sectional study; so it may presume, but not confirm the causality between the research concepts. Moreover, any data collected by self-report measures may have been influenced by a social desirability response bias.

Research on leadership has focused on traits, skills, behaviors, the relationship between the leader and the follower, situational or contingent factors that determine the ability of the leader to influence followers, and realize organizational goals, since such behavior affects organizational effectiveness. Each stream of research has defined leadership according to its own perspective and interpreted the results in different ways. One of the implications of this study for leaders is that androgynous leadership behavior can be the answer to organizational dilemma which is defined as *“the question of how to reconcile potential inconsistency between individual needs and aspirations on the one hand and the collective purpose of the organization on the other (Buchanan & Huczynski, 2004, p.4)”*. It is a known fact that designing organizations that are efficient in using resources and also effective in developing human potential is a difficult task. Androgynous leaders who blend a task-oriented and a relations-oriented leadership style can be more advantageous at achieving organizational goals and maintaining organizational effectiveness.

In conclusion, this study intended to provide contribution to business literature by pointing out the managerial implications of influence tactics for managers in today’s diverse business environment. In addition, it highlighted the significance of a requirement for a transformation at the value system for managerial and organizational effectiveness from a leadership standpoint.

APPENDIX A: Influence Behavior Questionnaire

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 you report uses each type of behavior in an effort to influence. 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.

5 = He/she uses this tactic very often with me

4 = He/she uses this tactic moderately often with me

3 = He/she occasionally uses this tactic with me

2 = He/she very seldom uses this tactic with me

1 = I can't remember him/her ever using this tactic with me

Rational Persuasion Items

This person:

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.

Inspirational Appeals Items

This person:

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.

Consultation Items

This person:

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.

Collaboration Items

This person:

25. Offers to provide any assistance you need to carry out a request.
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 help with a task that he/she wants you to carry out.

Apprising Items

This person:

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.

Ingratiation Items

This person:

29. Says you have the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out a request.
30. Praises your skill or knowledge when asking you to do something.
31. Praises your past performance or achievements when asking you to do a task for him/her.
32. Says you are the most qualified person for a task that he/she wants you to do.

Personal Appeals Items

This person:

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.

Exchange Items

This person:

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.

Legitimizing Tactics Items

This person:

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 contract.
16. Says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.

Coalition Tactics Items

This person:

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.

Pressure Items

This person:

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.

APPENDIX B: Organizational Commitment Questionnaire

The following statements concern how you feel about the **department** where you work. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by **circling** a number from 1 to 5. Please **do not put your name on this questionnaire**.

Strongly Disagree :1

Disagree: 2

Neither Agree Nor Disagree: 3

Agree: 4

Strongly Agree: 5

1. It would be very hard for me to leave my department right now, even if I wanted to..... 1 2 3 4 5
2. I do not feel any obligation to remain with my current employer..... 1 2 3 4 5
3. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this department 1 2 3 4 5
4. One of the few negative consequences of leaving this department would be the scarcity of available alternatives..... 1 2 3 4 5
5. Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organization now..... 1 2 3 4 5
6. I really feel as if this department's problems are my own..... 1 2 3 4 5
7. Right now, staying with my department is a matter of necessity as much as desire..... 1 2 3 4 5
8. I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my department..... 1 2 3 4 5
9. I feel that I have too few options to consider leaving this department..... 1 2 3 4 5
10. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this department..... 1 2 3 4 5
11. I would feel guilty if I left my organization now..... 1 2 3 4 5
12. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my department..... 1 2 3 4 5
13. This organization deserves my loyalty..... 1 2 3 4 5
14. If I had not already put so much of myself into this department, I might consider working elsewhere..... 1 2 3 4 5
15. Would not leave my organization right now because I have a sense of obligation to the people in it..... 1 2 3 4 5
16. This department has a great deal of personal meaning for me..... 1 2 3 4 5
17. Too much of my life would be disrupted if I decided I wanted to leave my department now..... 1 2 3 4 5
18. I owe a great deal to my organization..... 1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX C: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Rater Form

For use by Guniz Bekrek only. Received from Mind Garden, Inc. on March 24, 2010

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Name of Leader: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____ Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is used to describe the leadership style of the above-mentioned individual as you perceive it. Answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.** Please answer this questionnaire anonymously.

Important (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?

- I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
 The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
 I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
 Other than the above.

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing. Use the following rating scale:

Not at all Once in a while Sometimes Fairly often Frequently, if not always

0 1 2 3 4

The Person I Am Rating. . .

1. Provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts 0 1 2 3 4
2. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate..... 0 1 2 3 4
3. Fails to interfere until problems become serious 0 1 2 3 4
4. Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards 0 1 2 3 4
5. Avoids getting involved when important issues arise 0 1 2 3 4
6. Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs..... 0 1 2 3 4
7. Is absent when needed 0 1 2 3 4
8. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems 0 1 2 3 4
9. Talks optimistically about the future..... 0 1 2 3 4
10. Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her 0 1 2 3 4
11. Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets 0 1 2 3 4
12. Waits for things to go wrong before taking action 0 1 2 3 4
13. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished..... 0 1 2 3 4
14. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose..... 0 1 2 3 4
15. Spends time teaching and coaching..... 0 1 2 3 4
16. Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved 0 1 2 3 4
17. Shows that he/she is a firm believer in "If it ain't broke, don't fix it." 0 1 2 3 4
18. Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group 0 1 2 3 4
19. Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group..... 0 1 2 3 4
20. Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action 0 1 2 3 4
21. Acts in ways that builds my respect 0 1 2 3 4
22. Concentrates his/her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures 0 1 2 3 4
23. Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions 0 1 2 3 4
24. Keeps track of all mistakes 0 1 2 3 4
25. Displays a sense of power and confidence 0 1 2 3 4
26. Articulates a compelling vision of the future 0 1 2 3 4
27. Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards..... 0 1 2 3 4
28. Avoids making decisions 0 1 2 3 4
29. Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others..... 0 1 2 3 4
30. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles 0 1 2 3 4
31. Helps me to develop my strengths 0 1 2 3 4
32. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments..... 0 1 2 3 4
33. Delays responding to urgent questions 0 1 2 3 4
34. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission..... 0 1 2 3 4
35. Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations 0 1 2 3 4
36. Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved 0 1 2 3 4

APPENDIX D: Turkish version of the questionnaire

Bu çalışma, **Yeditepe Üniversitesi İşletme doktora programı** gereğince günümüz iş dünyasında yöneticilerin çalışanlarına uyguladıkları yönetsel etki ve ikna taktikleri ile çalışanların örgütlerine olan bağlılıkları arasındaki ilişkiyi öğrenmek ve yöneticilerin liderlik tarzlarının bu ilişki üzerindeki etkisini araştırarak bilimsel çalışmalara bir katkıda bulunmak için **bir tez çalışması olarak** düzenlenmiştir. Bu uygulama için işyerinizden **gerekli izin alınmış olup**, tüm bilgiler **gizlilik** anlayışıyla değerlendirilecek ve çalışma sonuçları **yalnız akademik amaçla** kullanılacaktır.

Yaklaşık olarak 20 dakikanızı alacak olan bu soru formunu cevaplandırmada yardımcı olacağınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımla,

K.Güniz Bekrek

1. Yaşınız:

18-25 26-35..... 36-45..... 45+.....

2. Cinsiyetiniz:

Kadın..... Erkek.....

3. Eğitim düzeyiniz:

Lise..... Lisans..... Y.Lisans..... Doktora.....

4. İşyerinizdeki pozisyonunuz:

(Lütfen -bölüm belirtmeksizin- *yönetici,şef,uzman,idari personel, teknik personel* şeklinde yazınız)

.....
....

5. Çalışmakta olduğunuz bu işyerindeki toplam çalışma süreniz:

1-3 yıl..... 3-5 yıl..... 5-10 yıl..... 10-15 yıl..... 15 yıl ve üzeri.....

6. Çalışmakta olduğunuz sektör:

.....
....

7. Bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizin cinsiyeti:

Kadın..... Erkek.....

Bu anket formunun amacı, işyerlerinde yöneticilerin çalışanlarını etkilemek için kullandıkları farklı yöntemler hakkında bilgi edinmektir. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri, şu an birlikte çalışmakta olduğunuz yöneticinizi düşünerek değerlendiriniz. Yöneticinizin sizi etkilemek için bu taktiğe ne sıklıkla başvurduğunu, her bir ifadenin başında bırakılan boşluğa belirtiniz. Hiçbir ifadenin size uymadığını düşündüğünüzde, lütfen **1** numaralı şıkkı işaretleyiniz.

- 1: Yöneticimin bu taktiği uyguladığını hatırlamıyorum.
- 2: Yöneticim bu taktiği nadiren uygular.
- 3: Yöneticim bu taktiği ara sıra(zaman zaman) uygular.
- 4: Yöneticim bu taktiği oldukça sık uygular.
- 5: Yöneticim bu taktiği çok sık uygular.

Yöneticim,

- ___1. Bir rica veya öneri için ikna edici bir durum yaratmak istediğinde, gerçekleri ve mantığı kullanır.
- ___2. Bir iş veya projede yardımımı istediğinde, karşılığında benim istediğim bir şeyi önerir.
- ___3. Önerilen bir proje veya değişikliği gerçekleştirebileceklerinin açık, ilham verici vizyonunu anlatır, açıklar.
- ___4. İş emri, politika kılavuzu, şirketin ana tüzüğü, kanun hükümleri veya sözleşme gibi belgelere atıfta bulunarak bir ricanın yasal olduğunu doğrular.
- ___5. Rica edilen veya önerilen değişikliğin, bir hedefe ulaşmak için neden gerekli olduğunu açık/net bir şekilde açıklar.
- ___6. Bir isteği yerine getirmem için karşılığında benim için bir şey yapmayı önerir.
- ___7. Yeni bir etkinlik veya değişiklik önereceği zaman ideallerden ve değerlerden bahseder.
- ___8. Bir ricanın veya önerinin önceki emsal kararlara ve yürürlükteki uygulamalara uygun olduğunu vurgular.
- ___9. Önerilen projenin veya değişikliğin neden uygulanabilir ve uygun maliyetli olduğunu açıklar.
- ___10. Benim yardımım ve desteğim için karşılığında benim için belirli bir iş veya iyilik yapmayı önerir.
- ___11. Önerilen bir etkinlik veya değişiklik için heyecan uyandırmak amacıyla teşvik edici konuşmalar veya sunumlar yapar.
- ___12. Benden yapmamı isteği görevin, benim kariyerime nasıl yardımcı olabileceğini açıklar.
- ___13. Önerilen bir etkinliğin veya değişikliğin muhtemelen başarılı olacağını göstermek için gerekli bilgi ve kanıtları sağlar.
- ___14. Şimdi yapacağım bir yardım karşılığında gelecekte benim için bir şey yapma sözü verir.
- ___15. Ricalarının veya önerilerinin şirket kural ve politikalarına uygun olduğunu vurgular.

- ___16. Bir görevi veya etkinliđi yapmamın, bana kazandıracakđı faydaları bana anlatır (yeni beceriler öğrenmek, önemli insanlarla tanışmak, itibarımı arttırmak vb. gibi)
- ___17. Önerilen bir etkinliđin veya deđişikliđin, gerçekten heyecan verici ve uğraşmaya deđer bir şey yapmak için bir fırsat olduđunu söyler.
- ___18. Bir ricanın veya önerinin önceki anlaşmalara veya sözleşmelere uygun olduđunu vurgular.
- ___19. Önerilen bir etkinliđin veya deđişikliđin, kişisel amaçlarıma ulaşmamda bana nasıl yardımcı olabileceđini anlatır.
- ___20. Ricasını gerçekleştirmem için baskı yapmaya çalışır.
- ___21. Onun için bir görevi yerine getirirken ihtiyacım olabilecek kaynakları sağlamayı teklif eder.
- ___22. Onun için bir görevi yapmamı istediđi zaman benim geçmiş performansımı ve başarılarımı över.
- ___23. Desteklememi istediđi veya uygulanmasında yardımımı istediđi bir etkinlikte veya bir ön hazırlık planının geliştirilmesi konusunda öneriler getirmemi ister.
- ___24. Bir rica veya öneri yapacađında destek olsun diye yanında birini getirir.
- ___25. Önerilen bir etkinliđin veya deđişikliđin benim için neden iyi olacađını anlatır.
- ___26. Yerine getirmemi istediđi görevi nasıl yapacađımı göstermeyi teklif eder.
- ___27. Yapmamı istediđi iş için en kalifiye/nitelikli kişi olduđumu söyler.
- ___28. Benden bir şey yapmamı istediđi zaman arkadaşlıđımıza başvurur.
- ___29. Bir öneriyi desteklememi istediđi zaman öneriyi onaylayan diđer kişilerin isimlerinden bahseder.
- ___30. Ricasını benim gerçekleştirmem için ısrar eder.
- ___31. Yerine getirmemi istediđi görevle ilgili yardım teklif eder.
- ___32. Bir görev amacını gerçekleştirmek veya bir sorunu gidermek için yapabileceğim şeyleri önermemi ister.
- ___33. Bana ne olduđunu söylemeden benden bir iyilik istemek zorunda olduđunu söyler.
- ___34. Desteklememi istediđi veya uygulanmasında yardımcı olmamı istediđi bir etkinlikte veya deđişiklikte, diđerlerinin bana neden destek olmaları gerektiđini açıklamalarını sağlar.
- ___35. Ricasını yaptırmaya çalıştıđı zaman tehdit ve uyarıda bulunur.
- ___36. Ricasını gerçekleştirmek için ihtiyaç duyulan özel yeteneđe ve bilgiye sahip olduđumu vurgular.
- ___37. Benim desteđimi veya uygulamamı istediđi bir etkinlik veya deđişiklik hakkındaki fikirlerimi almak için benimle görüş alışverişinde bulunur.
- ___38. Arkadaşım olarak benden bir iyilik yapmamı ister.
- ___39. Bir ricayı gerçekleştirmem veya bir öneriyi desteklemem için benim saygı duyduđum birine beni etkilemek için yardımcı olmasını rica eder.
- ___40. Ricasını gerçekleştirip gerçekleştirmedimi görmek için tekrar tekrar kontrol eder.
- ___41. Benden bir şey yapmamı istediđi zaman benim yeteneklerimi ve bilgimi över.

- 42. Benim desteđimi veya uygulamamı istediđi bir etkinlik veya deđişiklik hakkındaki endişelerimi ifade etmemi teşvik eder.
- 43. Kişisel bir iyilik için yardımımı ister.
- 44. Ricasını gerçekleştirmek için ihtiyacım olan herhangi bir katkıyı sağlamayı teklif eder.

Aşağıdaki ifadeler kişilerin, çalışmakta oldukları kuruluş ve birim hakkındaki çeşitli duygularını ve fikirlerini yansıtmaktadır. Lütfen bu ifadelere şu anda çalışmakta olduğunuz kuruluş açısından ne ölçüde katıldığınızı / katılmadığınızı belirtiniz. Her ifade için, katılım derecenizi belirten rakamı yuvarlak içine alınız.

- 1: Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
2: Katılmıyorum
3: Kararsızım
4: Katılıyorum
5: Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

1. İstesem de, şu anda çalıştığım birimden ayrılmak benim için çok zor olurdu. 1 2 3 4 5
2. Mevcut işverenimle kalmak için hiçbir manevi yükümlülük hissetmiyorum. 1 2 3 4 5
3. Meslek hayatımın kalan kısmını bu birimde geçirmek beni çok mutlu eder. 1 2 3 4 5
4. Başka bir seçeneğimin/ alternatif işimin olmaması, bu birimden ayrılamamamın nedenlerinden biri. 1 2 3 4 5
5. Benim için avantajlı da olsa, kuruluşumdan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum. 1 2 3 4 5
6. Şu anda çalıştığım birimin sorunlarını gerçekten de kendi sorunlarım gibi hissediyorum. 1 2 3 4 5
7. Su anda çalıştığım birimde kalmak kendi isteğimle olduğu kadar zorunluluktan da. 1 2 3 4 5
8. Çalıştığım birime karşı güçlü bir “aitlik” duygusu beslemiyorum. 1 2 3 4 5
9. Çalıştığım birimi bırakmayı göze alamayacağım kadar az seçeneğim olduğunu düşünüyorum. 1 2 3 4 5
10. Çalıştığım birime kendimi “duygusal olarak bağlı” hissetmiyorum. 1 2 3 4 5
11. Kuruluşumdan şimdi ayrılısam kendimi suçlu hissedeceğim. 1 2 3 4 5
12. Çalıştığım birimde “ailenin bir parçası” gibi hissetmiyorum. 1 2 3 4 5
13. Bu kuruluş benim sadakatimi hak ediyor. 1 2 3 4 5
14. Eğer çalıştığım birime kendimden bu kadar çok vermiş olmasaydım, başka yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim. 1 2 3 4 5

15. Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için kuruluşumdan şu anda ayrılamam.

1 2 3 4 5

16. Çalıştığım birimin benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.

1 2 3 4 5

17. Şu anda çalıştığım birimden ayrılmak istediğime karar versem, hayatımın büyük bir kısmı alt üst olur.

1 2 3 4 5

18. Kuruluşuma çok şey borçluyum.

1 2 3 4 5

Bu anket formunun amacı, işyerlerinde yöneticilerin kullandıkları farklı liderlik tarzları/yöntemleri hakkında bilgi edinmektir. Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri, şu an bağlı bulunduğunuz yöneticinizi düşünerek değerlendiriniz. Yöneticinizin belirtilen ifadelere ne sıklıkla başvurduğunu, her bir ifadenin başında bırakılan boşluğa uygun gördüğünüz rakamı yazarak belirtiniz.

1=Hiçbir zaman 2=Nadiren(Kırk yılda bir) 3= Bazen 4=Oldukça sık 5=Neredeyse her zaman

Yöneticim,

___ 1. Çabalarımın karşılığında bana destek olur /yardımda bulunur.

___ 2. Önemli varsayımların uygun olup olmadıklarını sorgulamak için tekrar tekrar inceler.

___ 3. Sorunlara zamanında eğilmekte gecikir.

___ 4. Dikkatini daha çok düzensizliklere,hatalara, istisnalara ve standarttan sapmalara odaklar.

___ 5. Önemli sorunlar baş gösterdiğinde müdahale etmekten kaçınır.

___ 6. Önem verdiği değer ve inançlardan bahsetmeye özen gösterir.

___ 7. İhtiyaç duyulduğu zaman ya da ona ihtiyaç olduğunda o yoktur.

___ 8. Problemleri çözerken farklı bakış açıklarını önemser.

___ 9. Gelecek hakkında iyimser konuşur.

___ 10. Ona bağlı çalışmamdan dolayı benimle gurur duyduğunu vurgular.

___ 11. Performans hedeflerini gerçekleştirmekten kimin sorumlu olduğunu ayrıntılarıyla tartışır.

___ 12. Ancak işler ters gitmeye başladıktan sonra müdahale eder.

___ 13. Başarılması gerekenlerden büyük bir heyecanla söz eder.

___ 14. Güçlü bir amaç duygusuna sahip olmanın önemini vurgular.

___ 15. Çalışanların öğrenim ve yetiştirilmelerine zaman ayırır.

___ 16. Performans hedefleri gerçekleştirildiğinde neler elde edilebileceğini açıkça belirtir.

___ 17. "Eğer bozulmadıysa tamir etme" görüşünün sıkı bir inanana olduğunu gösterir.

___ 18. Grubun menfaatini kendi çıkarının önünde tutar.

___ 19. Bana sadece sıradan bir grup üyesi olarak değil ayrı bir birey olarak davranır.

___ 20. Önlem almadan önce sorunların kemikleşmesini, sürekli hale gelmesi gerektiğini savunur.

___ 21. Saygımı kazanacak şekilde davranır.

___ 22. Sorunlar, hatalar, şikayetler ve başarısızlıklar söz konusu olduğunda bütün dikkatini onlara yoğunlaştırır.

___ 23. Kararlarının ahlaki ve etik sonuçlarını dikkate alır.

___ 24. Hataların arkasını bırakmaz/ hataları hep göz önünde tutar.

___ 25. Güç ve güven duygusu sergiler.

___ 26. Gelecek için benimsenmesi gereken vizyonu açıkça ifade eder.

- ___ 27. Standartları yakalayabilmem için dikkatimi hatalara yönlendirir.
- ___ 28. Karar vermekten kaçınır.
- ___ 29. Diğerlerinden farklı ihtiyaçlarım, yeteneklerim ve emellerim olduğunu göz önünde tutar.
- ___ 30. Sorunlara farklı açılardan bakmamı sağlar.
- ___ 31. Güçlü yönlerimi geliştirmem için bana yardımcı olur.
- ___ 32. Görevlerin nasıl farklı şekillerde tamamlanabileceği ile ilgili yeni yollar önerir.
- ___ 33. Acil sorulara eğilmekte ve çözüm bulmakta gecikir.
- ___ 34. Ortak bir misyon duygusuna sahip olmanın önemini vurgular.
- ___ **35.** Beklentileri karşıladığım zaman memnuniyetini açıkça ortaya koyar.
- ___ **36.** Hedeflerin başarılabacağına olan güvenini ifade eder.

APPENDIX E : Definition of the Variables

Page	Question	Variable	Definition of the variables
1	1	age	age of the rater
1	2	gender	gender of the rater
1	3	edulevel	education level of the rater
1	4	position	position held by the rater in the company
1	5	tenure	number of the years the rater has worked in this company
1	6	sector	name of the sector the company is performing
1	7	leadgen	gender of the leader
2	1	ibq1	Rational persuasion1
2	2	ibq2	Exchange1
2	3	ibq3	Inspirational Appeal 1
2	4	ibq4	Legitimizing Tactics 1
2	5	ibq5	Rational persuasion2
2	6	ibq6	Exchange2
2	7	ibq7	Inspirational Appeal 2
2	8	ibq8	Legitimizing Tactics 2
2	9	ibq9	Rational persuasion3
2	10	ibq10	Exchange3
2	11	ibq11	Inspirational Appeal 3
2	12	ibq12	Apprising 1
2	13	ibq13	Rational persuasion4
2	14	ibq14	Exchange4
2	15	ibq15	Legitimizing Tactics 3
2	16	ibq16	Apprising 2
2	17	ibq17	Inspirational Appeal 4
2	18	ibq18	Legitimizing Tactics 4
2	19	ibq19	Apprising 3
2	20	ibq20	Pressure 1
3	21	ibq21	Collaboration 1
3	22	ibq22	Ingratiation 1
3	23	ibq23	Consultation 1
3	24	ibq24	Coalition 1
3	25	ibq25	Apprising 4
3	26	ibq26	Collaboration 2
3	27	ibq27	Ingratiation 2
3	28	ibq28	Personal Appeal 1
3	29	ibq29	Coalition 2
3	30	ibq30	Pressure 2
3	31	ibq31	Collaboration 3
3	32	ibq32	Consultation 2
3	33	ibq33	Personal Appeal 2
3	34	ibq34	Coalition 3
3	35	ibq35	Pressure 3

3	36	ibq36	Ingratiation 3
3	37	ibq37	Consultation 3
Page	Question	Variable	Definition of the variables
3	38	ibq38	Personal Appeal 3
3	39	ibq39	Coalition 4
3	40	ibq40	Pressure 4
3	41	ibq41	Ingratiation 4
3	42	ibq42	Consultation 4
3	43	ibq43	Personal Appeal 4
3	44	ibq44	Collaboration 4
4	1	oc1	continuancecommitment1
4	2	oc2	normativecommitment1
4	3	oc3	affectivecommitment1
4	4	oc4	continuancecommitment2
4	5	oc5	normativecommitment2
4	6	oc6	affectivecommitment2
4	7	oc7	continuancecommitment3
4	8	oc8	affectivecommitment3
4	9	oc9	continuancecommitment4
4	10	oc10	affectivecommitment4
4	11	oc11	normativecommitment3
4	12	oc12	affectivecommitment5
4	13	oc13	normativecommitment4
4	14	oc14	continuancecommitment5
4	15	oc15	normativecommitment5
4	16	oc16	affectivecommitment6
4	17	oc17	continuancecommitment6
4	18	oc18	normativecommitment6
5	1	mlq1	Transactional leadership/contingentreward1
5	2	mlq2	transformational leadership/intellectualstimulation1
5	3	mlq3	Transactional leadership/management by exception passive1
5	4	mlq4	Transactional leadership/management by exception active1
5	5	mlq5	laissez-faire1
5	6	mlq6	transformational leadership/idealized influence(behavior)1
5	7	mlq7	laissez-faire2
5	8	mlq8	transformational leadership/intellectualstimulation2
5	9	mlq9	transformational leadership/inspirationalmotivation1
5	10	mlq10	transformational leadership/idealized influence(attributes)1
5	11	mlq11	Transactional leadership/contingent reward2

5	12	mlq12	Transactional leadership/management by exception passive2
5	13	mlq13	transformational leadership/inspirationalmotivation2
Page	Question	Variable	Definition of the variables
5	14	mlq14	transformational leadership/idealized influence(behavior)2
5	15	mlq15	transformational leadership/individualconsideration1
5	16	mlq16	Transactional leadership/contingentreward3
5	17	mlq17	Transactional leadership/management by exception passive3
5	18	mlq18	transformational leadership/idealized influence(attributes)2
5	19	mlq19	transformational leadership/individualconsideration2
5	20	mlq20	Transactional leadership/management by exception passive4
5	21	mlq21	transformational leadership/idealized influence(attributes)3
5	22	mlq22	Transactional leadership/management by exception active2
5	23	mlq23	transformational leadership/idealized influence(behavior)3
5	24	mlq24	Transactional leadership/management by exception active3
5	25	mlq25	transformational leadership/idealized influence(attributes)4
5	26	mlq26	transformational leadership/inspirationalmotivation3
5	27	mlq27	Transactional leadership/management by exception active4
5	28	mlq28	laissez-faire
5	29	mlq29	transformational leadership/individualconsideration3
5	30	mlq30	transformational leadership/intellectualstimulation3
5	31	mlq31	transformational leadership/individualconsideration4
5	32	mlq32	transformational leadership/intellectualstimulation4
5	33	mlq33	laissez-faire
6	34	mlq34	transformational leadership/idealized influence(behavior)4
6	35	mlq35	Transactional leadership/contingentreward4
6	36	mlq36	transformational leadership/inspirationalmotivation4

APPENDIX F: Measurement Scales for the Variables of the Study

Nominal	Ordinal	Interval
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Gender • Sector • Leadgen • Position 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Edulevel • Tenure • Age 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • İbq43-personalappeals4 • İbq24-coalition1 • ibq29-coalition2 • ibq34-coalition3 • ibq39-coalition4
<p>Interval</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ibq1- rationalpersuasion1 • ibq5-rationalpersuasion2 • ibq9-rationalpersuasion3 • ibq13-rationalpersuasion4 • ibq2-exchange1 • ibq6-exchange2 • ibq10-exchange3 • ibq14-exchange4 • ibq3-inspirationalappeals1 • ibq7-inspirationalappeals2 • ibq11-inspirationalappeals3 • ibq17-inspirationalappeals4 • ibq4-legitimatingtactics1 • ibq8-legitimatingtactics2 • ibq15-legitimatingtactics3 • ibq18-legitimatingtactics4 • ibq12-apprising1 • ibq16-apprising2 • ibq19-apprising3 • ibq25-apprising4 • ibq20-pressure1 • ibq30-pressure2 • ibq35-pressure3 • ibq40-pressure4 • ibq21-collaboration1 • ibq26-collaboration2 • ibq31-collaboration3 • ibq44-collaboration4 • ibq22-ingratiation1 • ibq27-ingratiation2 • ibq36-ingratiation3 • ibq41-ingratiation4 • ibq23-consultation1 • ibq32-consultation2 • ibq37-consultation3 • ibq42-consultation4 • ibq28-personalappeals1 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • oc1-continuancecommitment1 • oc2-normativecommitment1 • oc3-affectivecommitment1 • oc4-continuancecommitment2 • oc5-normativecommitment2 • oc6-affectivecommitment2 • oc7-continuancecommitment3 • oc8-affectivecommitment3 • oc9-continuancecommitment4 • oc10-affectivecommitment4 • oc11-normativecommitment3 • oc12-affectivecommitment5 • oc13-normativecommitment4 • oc14-continuancecommitment5 • oc15-normativecommitment5 • oc16-affectivecommitment6 • oc17-continuancecommitment6 • oc18-normativecommitment6 • mlq1-Transactional leadership/contingentreward1 • mlq2-transformational leadership/intellectualstimulation1 • mlq3-Transactional leadership/management by exception passive1 • mlq4-Transactional leadership/management byexception active1 • mlq5-laissez-faire1 • mlq6-transformational leadership/idealized influence(behavior)1 • mlq7-laissez-faire2 • mlq8-transformational leadership/intellectualstimualtion2 • mlq9-transformational leadership/inspirationalmotivation1 • mlq10-transformational

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ibq33-personalappeals2 • ibq38-personalappeals3 <p>Interval</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mlq11-Transactional leadership/contingent reward2 • mlq12-Transactional leadership/management by exception passive2 • mlq13-transformational leadership/inspirationalmotivation2 • mlq14- transformational leadership/idealized influence(behavior)2 • mlq15-transformational leadership/individualconsideration1 • mlq16-Transactional leadership/contingentreward3 • mlq17-Transactional leadership/management by exception passive3 • mlq18-transformational leadership/idealized influence(attributes)2 • mlq19-transformational leadership/individualconsideration2 • mlq20-Transactional leadership/management by exception passive4 • mlq21-transformational leadership/idealized influence(attributes)3 • mlq22-Transactional leadership/management by exception active2 • mlq23-transformational leadership/idealized influence(behavior)3 • mlq24-Transactional leadership/management by exception active3 • mlq25-transformational leadership/idealized influence(attributes)4 • mlq26-transformational leadership/inspirationalmotivation3 • mlq27-Transactional leadership/management by exception active4 	<p>leadership/idealized influence(attributes)1</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • mlq28-laissez-faire • mlq29-transformational leadership/individualconsideration3 • mlq30-transformational leadership/intellectualstimulation3 • mlq31-transformational leadership/individualconsideration4 • mlq32-transformational leadership/intellectualstimulation4 • mlq33-laissez-faire • mlq34-transformational leadership/idealized influence(behavior)4 • mlq35-Transactional leadership/contingentreward4 • mlq36-transformational leadership/inspirationalmotivation4
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CURRICULUM VITAE

Kübra Güniz BEKREK

Kişisel Bilgiler:

Doğum Tarihi 16.02.1979
Doğum Yeri Ankara
Medeni Durumu Evli

Eğitim:

İlköğretim 1984-1989 Ankara Özel Yükseliş Koleji
Ortaöğretim 1989-1993 İstek Vakfı Özel Acıbadem Lisesi
Lise 1993-1996 İstek Vakfı Özel Acıbadem Lisesi
Lisans 1996-2000 İstanbul Ün. İşletme Fak. İşletme Bölümü
Y.Lisans 2002-2006 Yeditepe Üniversitesi (MBA)

Çalıştığı Kurumlar:

2003- Devam ediyor Burçe Tekstil Tic.ve San. A.Ş.