

*AN ANALYSIS OF THE INFLUENCE PROCESS:
TRADITIONAL AND COMPLEMENTARY APPROACHES¹*

**UMA ANÁLISE AO PROCESSO DE
INFLUÊNCIA: ABORDAGENS TRADICIONAIS E
COMPLEMENTARES**

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Abbreviated Title: Analysis of the Influence Process

Abstract

This article aims to systematize the theoretical point of different influence strategies, by describing different influence tactics used in the process of leadership. Reference is made to the frequency of utilization and its determinants, the strength or power of an influence strategy and its effects and effectiveness. Reference is also made to complementary and alternative approaches to the use of influence tactics, including management behaviour, with special attention on self-control and self organizational influence processes. Self-influence systems are a central point in organizational management practices due to the benefits that they entail for the organization and individual achievement.

Keywords: Influence Tactics, Effect and Effectiveness, Strength or Power, Determinants Factors, Self-organizational control.

¹ This article is part of a wider investigation which resulted in the PhD Thesis: “Conhecimento Tácito em Contexto Militar: Incurções na Promoção do Desenvolvimento de Competências de Comando” (“Tacit Knowledge in a Military Context: Inroads in Promoting the Development Skills”).

Como citar este artigo: Rosinha, A., 2014. An Analysis of the Influence Process: Traditional and Complementary Approaches. Revista de Ciências Militares, maio de 2014, II (1), pp. 163 - 181.
Disponível em: <http://www.iesm.pt/cisdi/index.php/publicacoes/revista-de-ciencias-militares/edicoes>.

Resumo

O artigo sistematiza do ponto de vista teórico as diferentes abordagens sobre táticas de influência utilizadas no decorrer do processo de liderança. Faz-se referência à sua frequência de utilização, aos seus fatores determinantes, à força ou poder de um estratégia de influência e aos seus efeitos e eficácia. São igualmente referidas abordagens alternativas e complementares à utilização de táticas de influência, nomeadamente os comportamentos de gestão, dando-se particular relevo aos processos de autocontrolo e de auto-influência organizacional. Os sistemas de auto-influência são um ponto central nas práticas de gestão organizacional pelos benefícios que acarretam para a organização e para a realização individual.

Palavras-chave: Táticas de Influência, Efeito e Eficácia, Força ou Poder, Fatores Determinantes, Autocontrolo Organizacional.

Introduction

Addressing the problems that arise in the exercise of leadership requires distinct behaviours and procedures to be adopted. Different problem-solving strategies mobilize multiple behaviours in order to influence hierarchical superiors, peers and subordinates. Influence tactics or strategies¹ constitute resources and supports that are required in order to influence the attitudes or behaviour of superiors (Yukl, Chavez, & Seifert, 2005) and enhance the commitment and added dedication of subordinates (Bass, 1985). Preferences and utility of certain influence behaviours may be explained using cost-benefit analysis (Steensma, 2007; Yukl, & Tracey, 1992).

The literature on influence tactics is profoundly interconnected with, and influenced by, concepts of political behaviour and impression management. Organizational policies use social influence to obtain personal goals. As a result, the use of influence tactics can be considered to be political behaviour. In order to understand the use of influence tactics in greater depth, one must first define what we mean by political behaviour (i.e. the process whereby an individual (agent) deliberately selects and presents verbal or symbolic actions, directed towards another (target) with the expectation that these actions will produce desired changes in the target's cognition and/or behaviour that haven't arisen up until that point (Barry & Watson, 1996, p. 272). In addition, political behaviour is also considered to be one of the activities that isn't strictly necessary for performance of the organizational role, but which nonetheless influences, or may influence, the distribution of benefits and disadvantages within an organization.

The influence tactics described in this article are more specifically viewed as impression management tactics. In other words, influence tactics are used when impression management is either desired or intentional (Lewis & Ryan 2013). Research has varied in its approach to the study of impression management, depending on whether it considers it to have a positivist

¹ Better-known in the literature as influence tactics but some authors also refer to influence strategies (Barbuto & Moss, 2006, p. 30). We have chosen to use the term influence tactics here in.

or interpretive nature. It is now necessary to define impression management (i.e. conscious or unconscious attempts to influence images during interaction”, Gilmore et al. 1999, p. 322).

The specific situation determines which influence strategy to use. For example, a supervisor’s leadership style can have an impact on an influence tactic or strategy.

Given that over the last thirty years, various studies have sought to explore the influence process, using behaviours known as “influence tactics”, with different purposes and in different contexts, this article aims to categorize and structure the various levels of analysis involved in this question - systematizing the results. We find that the results of previous research are dispersed. To date no effort has been made to integrate these findings, in order to obtain the “big picture” on influence tactics. The relevance and originality of this literature review involves grouping together previous studies into four major groups: identification of influence tactics; the determinant factors underlying their use; the strength or power of influence tactics; and the effectiveness and achievements of influence tactics. The article thus extends and expands the traditional view, which to date has only focused on the influence of third parties and external control mechanisms. It also presents a supplementary self-leadership approach, which emphasizes aspects of organizational self-control, self-influence processes, in the perspective of a new approach to influence tactics, centred on the individual and which emphasizes personal agency.

1. Influence Tactics and Behaviours

Research into influence tactics can be divided into four broad lines of enquiry (Table I). The first seeks to identify the most commonly-used influence tactics (IT) (Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson, 1980; Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). The second line of research studies the determinant factors and mediating variables that lead to the use of influence tactics (Barbuto & Moss, 2006; Barbuto, Fritz, Mathin & Marx, 2007; Deluga & Souza, 1991; Steensma, 2007; Treadway, Ferris, Duke & Adams, 2007; Vecchio & Sussmann, 1991). The third focuses on the strength or power of influence tactics (Farmer, Maslyn, Fedor & Goodman, 1997; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985; Tepper, Brown & Hunt, 1993; Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, Blaauw & Vermunt, 1999). Finally, the fourth line of research focuses on the effectiveness and effects of influence tactics (Brennan, Miller & Seltzer, 1993; Higgins, Judge & Ferris, 2003; Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

Table I - IT research, structured into four main lines of enquiry

IDENTIFICATION OF IT	DETERMINANTS IN THE USE OF IT	STRENGTH OR POWER OF IT	EFFICACY AND EFFECTS OF IT
In function of the objectives to be attained	Leadership style	Hard Soft Rational persuasion	On performance assessment
In function of the direction of influence	Level of education		On salaries
	Gender		On promotion
	Perceived utility		
	Political skill		

Source: (Author, 2014).

1.1 Genesis and Frequency of Use

The influence process may be activated via specific behaviours that communicate the desired goal. For example, providing a positive reinforcement in order to deal with uncertainty, has been associated with effective use of power. Amongst the various attempts to classify influence tactics in the context of implementation of strategy, it is possible to list four approaches: control approach, organizational change approach, collaborative approach and cultural approach. The result of various research studies produced over recent years is presented below. As can be seen, the different proposals do not follow a structured and linked approach, and instead derive from the specific motivations of the authors during the course of their research, seeking to affirm new concepts that had not previously been explored in research studies.

Analysis of success and failure behaviours, in the face of critical incidents, led Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson (1980) to develop a taxonomy of influence tactics that was operationalized via the *Profiles of Organizational Influence Strategies* (POIS). The subjects were asked to assess the frequency of use of each of the influence tactics, using a five-point scale (from 1 – never, to 5 - almost always). The questionnaire results led them to conclude that different influence tactics are used in function of the objectives to be attained (pressure, appeal to higher authority, bargaining, coalition, ingratiation, rational persuasion, sanctions and blocking) and the direction of influence (targeted towards hierarchical superiors, peers and subordinates).

In addition, Jones and Pittman (1982) proposed a new set of influence tactics that had the merit of being the first study to distinguish self-promotion (the attempt to create an image of competence, or ability to solve a specific task) from ingratiation². Although their categorization includes five tactics, only the factors of self-promotion and ingratiation had an impact on subsequent studies.

² In the Original: Ingratiation.

The limited number of relevant influence tactics for effective leadership led Yukl & Falbe (1990) to develop a new questionnaire. The six original scales of POIS (rational persuasion, bargaining, ingratiation, pressure, coalition and appeal to a higher authority) were maintained, but sanction (use of punishment or the threat of punishment to achieve consent) and blockage (attempt to thwart the efforts of the other in pursuing an action, thus impeding its progress) were withdrawn, given that they are rarely used in the contexts under study. Rational persuasion was replaced by reason and pressure by assertiveness. Two new scales were included: inspirational appeal and consultation (Table II).

Table II – Influence Tactics and definitions

Pressure	Use demands, threats or intimidation to convince others to agree to a request or support a proposal.
Appeal to Higher Authority	Persuade hierarchical superiors to approve your idea, or ask for help from hierarchical superiors to gain the other person's consent.
Bargaining	Make an explicit or implicit promise that the other person will receive a reward or tangible benefit if they agree with the request or support a proposal, and remind them that favours should be reciprocal.
Coalition	Ask help from others to persuade them to do something or use the support of others as an argument in order to secure their agreement.
Ingratiation/ Insinuating	Ensure that others are in a good mood or think favourably before requesting their help.
Rational persuasion	Use logical arguments and factual evidence in order to demonstrate that a proposal is feasible and will lead to the stated objectives.
Inspirational appeal	Use a request or emotional proposal that stimulates enthusiasm, thus encouraging values and ideals, or increase the confidence that the other person is able to accomplish something.
Consultation	Request participation to make a decision or implement a policy, strategy or change.

Source: Adapted from Yukl & Falbe, 1990, p. 133.

An inspirational appeal towards values and emotions includes aspects of transformational and charismatic leadership (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1988) that necessarily includes a sense of justice and attainment of challenging tasks. The act of consultation is a leadership behaviour that consists in involving others in the decision-making process, leading them to accept the decision (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). The correlations between the scales show that they are relatively independent constructs.

The majority of the results of Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson (1980) were replicated by Yukl & Falbe (1990) in study 1, in which the sample was constituted by the agents³ of the influence

³ Individuals who exercise influence.

process. Use of the influence tactic, pressure, is used more frequently with subordinates than with hierarchical superiors. Appeals to higher authorities and bargaining are used less frequently with hierarchical superiors than with subordinates and peers. Coalition is used in an equivalent manner, regardless of the direction of influence. The use of the tactic of rational persuasion also does not demonstrate differences in function of the direction of influence, thus refuting the results of Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson (1980) who considered it to be used more frequently in order to influence superiors. Finally it was found that the inspirational appeal and consultation are used with greater frequency in order to influence subordinates. The sample of study 2 was subjects who are targeted by the influence process (targets). Of the initial six scales, only pressure and appeals to higher authority achieved significant results. The four influence tactics used most frequently by targets are consultation, rational persuasion, inspirational appeals and ingratiation.

Another scheme of influence tactics has been developed, operationalised via the *Influence Behaviour Questionnaire* (IBQ) (Yukl, Lepsinger & Lucia, 1991). Factorial analysis of the items of the IBQ resulted in nine influence tactics, five of which were already highlighted in the POIS (rational persuasion, bargaining, pressure, ingratiation and coalition) together with four other tactics (consultation, inspirational appeal, personal appeals and legitimation). Appeal to higher authority and coalition were included in a single tactic of “coalition”, because when used by the superior to influence subordinates and peers, the latter cannot differentiate between the two tactics. A later study (Yukl & Tracey, 1992), using the IBQ, showed that the three influence tactics that are most closely related to the variables of commitment and effective management are rational persuasion, inspirational appeals and consultation.

Replication studies in which subordinates were asked to rank influence tactics with their hierarchical superior, provide additional empirical evidence for six of the eight scales of POIS (rational persuasion, bargaining, ingratiation, assertiveness, coalition and appeal to higher authority) (Hochwarter, Pearson, Ferris, Perrewe, & Ralston, 2000; Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990). Among the many studies that have used the original and revised version, rational persuasion is the influence tactic that is most consistently cited as being the most effective. Ingratiation can achieve its goal when used as a tactic for managing initial impressions (Ammeter, Douglas, Gardner, Hochwarter, & Ferris, 2002; Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003).

More recently, Yukl, Chavez, & Seifert (2005) have demonstrated the existence of two more influence tactics that hadn't yet been included in the IBQ: 'collaboration' and 'apprising'⁴. Collaboration was initially included within bargaining, while apprising was included within rational persuasion. Studies conducted with three different research methodologies (questionnaire, study of incidents and laboratory experience) respectively, with individuals from the banking sector, MBA students and university students, led to consistent and similar results. Factorial analysis demonstrated that the two new influence tactics are distinct from the rest. Collaboration proved to be more effective in order to influence subordinates and peers, while apprising is less effective than rational persuasion or collaboration.

⁴ In the Original: Apprising. Keep the individual informed of the motivations that he may benefit from.

Collaboration and bargaining involve similarities and differences (Yukl, Chavez & Seifert, 2005). Both offer something that is dependent on evaluation of its credibility. Collaboration involves offering something that is relevant in order for the target to agree to the request, perceived as a support behaviour, while in the case of bargaining the offer is not directly associated with the request, which is immediately perceived as being manipulative or impersonal. Collaboration can increase self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997) and the intrinsic motivation of the subject (Deci & Ryan, 1985), while bargaining can have adverse effects on self-efficacy and appeals to extrinsic motivation. Rational persuasion resorts to argument, logical explanations and facts in order to justify that the request is relevant in order to achieve the objectives. Bargaining is used more frequently with peers than with subordinates, because the agent has no authority over peers and because subordinates can condition subsequent requests, requiring identical rewards to those which were previously offered (Yukl, Chavez & Seifert, 2005).

1.2 Determinant Factors

In terms of determinant factors governing the use of influence tactics, emphasis has been placed on leadership style (Deluga & Souza, 1991), level of education and gender (Barbuto et al., 2007), perceived usefulness (Steensma, 2007) and political skill (Treadway et al., 2007). Finally meta-analysis conducted by Barbuto & Moss (2006) is presented, which organizes the determinant factors governing the use of influence tactics.

Deluga & Souza (1991) compare the assessment of transformational and transactional leadership styles of the hierarchical superior via the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5) with the influence tactics used by subordinates and evaluated using the Profiles of Organizational Influence Strategies - Form M (POIS - M).

The rational approach (negotiation and reason) used by subordinates is positively and significantly related to the extra effort achieved by the Commander (Deluga & Souza, 1991). The result suggests that when the Commander can attain organizational objectives, the rational approach is most frequently used by subordinates. The sense of self-efficacy stimulates extra motivation of subordinates, causing them to feel more comfortable in using more rational tactics. The use of hard tactics (assertiveness, appeals to higher authority and coalition) are significantly and negatively correlated to the Commander's satisfaction and effectiveness. Hard tactics are used when there is a more negative assessment of satisfaction and effectiveness. The presence of hard tactics, which may potentially be interpreted in military culture as insubordination, is a warning sign for the commanding officers.

The supportive organizational climate (Clarke & Ward, 2006) functions as a mediating variable between influence tactics associated to a transformational leadership style, such as consultation, inspirational appeals and participation in work activities. Likewise, the influence tactics of coalition and persuasion, associated with a transactional leadership style, engender direct and indirect effects respectively (mediated by the supportive organizational climate) on participation in work activities. Participation can be encouraged through a combination of

influence tactics based on rational persuasion, involvement in decision making and creating a supportive organizational climate.

Barbuto et al. (2007) showed that gender and level of education have positive effects on leadership styles and on the influence tactics used by leaders. Gender as an isolated variable does not significantly affect the use of the transformational and transactional leadership style and influence tactics. However, interaction between gender and level of education have effects on both leadership style and influence tactics. Women with higher education qualifications are seen as individuals who make greater use of managerial behaviours by exception (positive and negative), while men tend to make greater use transformational behaviours - such as intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, idealized influence and individualized consideration. The only difference between gender and higher academic qualifications, in the use of influence tactics, is recorded amongst women and in terms of recourse to pressure. Women tend to make greater use of pressure.

One of the criticisms made of the measurement of influence tactics is the degree of social desirability that is inherent to self-reporting. In order to control this effect, Steensma (2007) related the frequency of current use of a specific influence strategy with the degree to which the subject would actually like to use it. He also presented fourteen possible results for the eight influence tactics, derived from their use (motivation of subordinates, resistance, self-esteem, good relationships, amongst others). He found that expected utility is significantly correlated ($r = .81, p < .05$) with preferred and current use of seven of the eight influence tactics. The only exception is the use of the strategy of consultation. The frequency of current and preferred use of rational persuasion and softer tactics, e.g. consultation and inspirational appeals, is greater than the current preference in favour of bargaining and harder tactics such as pressure and appeals to higher authority. The correlations recorded between certain influence tactics suggest the following analyses: (1) ingratiation might be considered to be a special case of bargaining, when someone flatters someone else, in exchange for their cooperation; (2) the use of references or appeals to higher authority are often used as a method of exercising pressure; (3) rational persuasion adds value to organizations and its effect can be greater if used in conjunction with consultation, (4) inspirational appeals seem to work even better if recourse to consultation is able to reveal the subjects' personal goals.

Treadway et al. (2007) have shown that political skill has a mediating effect on the influence tactics of ingratiation. Mintzberg (1983) used the term "political skill" in order to describe the ability to exert influence through the use of persuasion, manipulation and negotiation. These individuals are able to understand other people's motivations and hide their own real intentions, demonstrating sincere and genuine behaviour (Treadway et al., 2007). When supervisors observe behaviour in subordinates that aim to please but indicate a low level of political skill, ingratiation is well received. On the other hand, in subjects with high political skill, ingratiation is not perceived as a genuine attempt. As a result, an increased use of ingratiation behaviour contributes to a reduction in the relationship. Political skill alters the perception and interpretation made of the act of ingratiation, and is perceived as a mechanism to attain personal goals or facilitate good inter-personal relationships.

Barbuto & Moss (2006) have conducted a meta-analysis since 1980 in order to test dispositional antecedents as predictors of influence tactics. The aspects that were measured were impression management, Machiavellianism, self-monitoring, the locus of control, social identity, intrinsic/extrinsic motivation and internal/external motivation.

Impression management relates to the use of appeals to higher authority, indicating that individuals who seek to influence others and who care about their image are more likely to appeal to individuals from the top of the hierarchical structure with greater authority. Machiavellianism (the desire to do whatever it takes to achieve a specific goal) is related to bargaining and assertiveness. Individuals who intend to attain goals at any price, make greater use of bargaining and assertiveness in order to influence others. Self-monitoring and the strategy of ingratiation are correlated, indicating that individuals who are able to adapt their behaviour and attitudes to a specific situation are more able to use adulation, flattery or praise when they want to influence others. The locus of control (high values represent an external locus of control) is negatively correlated with reason. Individuals with high dispositional beliefs are less able to persuade others, while those with an internal locus of control use reason more adequately in order to influence others. Social identity is negatively related to assertiveness and with appeal to higher authority. Individuals with an affiliation to a group are less willing to use assertiveness and appeal to hierarchical superiors. Extrinsic motivation is positively related to ingratiation and bargaining. Externally motivated individuals are more likely to flatter and offer tangible or social resources to influence others (Barbuto & Moss, 2006).

1.3 Strength or Power

The strength or power of an influence tactic can be defined as “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” or not comply (Tepper, Brown & Hunt, 1993, p. 1906). Following this line of reasoning, Kipnis and Schmidt (1985) suggested that influence tactics may be grouped into three categories: hard, soft, and rational persuasion. Hard tactics “involve the authority and position of power and tend to be used in an impersonal and manipulative fashion” (Falbe & Yukl, 1992, p. 644). Hard tactics include pressure, assertiveness, legitimation and specific forms coalition, such as appeals to higher authority. Bargaining, although it is considered to be a rational strategy, may be considered to be hard if used in a manipulative manner. Soft tactics are considered to be those that rely on personal power and power sharing - such as reason, ingratiation, consultation, inspirational appeals and personal appeals (Farmer et al., 1997; Van Knippenberg, Van Eijbergen & Wilke (1999); Yukl, Falbe & Youn, 1993).

The study by Yukl & Falbe (1992) was the first to test the combined use of different influence tactics through analysis of specific incidents. Globally, combinations of strategies proved to be more effective than the use of only one strategy. The use of only one hard strategy is more effective than the combination of two hard tactics. The combination of a soft strategy

with a hard strategy is less suitable than the use of only a soft strategy. Consultation and inspirational appeals are most effective when used with subordinates and peers and when combined with other tactics. Rational persuasion is more effective if used in conjunction with a soft strategy, such as consultation, inspirational appeals or ingratiation. It becomes less effective when used alone or together with a hard strategy, such as pressure, coalitions or legitimation. Bargaining proved to be effective if used in a non-manipulative and impersonal manner. The least effective tactics are pressure, coalition and legitimation.

The use of tactics that have a hard or soft influence varies in function of the objectives sought (Kipnis, Schmidt & Wilkinson, 1980, Yukl, Guinan & Sottolano, 1995), whether individuals have low or high self-esteem (Raven, 1992), degree of skill (Van Knippenberg, Van Eijbergen & Wilke, 1999), educational level (Farmer et al., 1997), whether the influence falls on a group or an individual (Guerin, 1995) and in function of the style of transformational or transactional leadership (Deluga, 1991; Deluga & Souza, 1991). Despite the different reasons that may lead to choosing a specific influence strategy, adoption of soft tactics are preferred over hard tactics. Harder tactics are experienced as being less friendly and therefore generate a certain degree of discomfort, placing the other person under pressure (Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003; Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

The study by Van Knippenberg & Steensma (2003) showed that the expectation of a future interaction determines the choice of soft influence tactics. Use of control and coercion may be used more often in short-term interactions rather than in long-term interactions, when one aims to maintain harmonious working relationships. Individuals who expect to have no interaction in the future and who have the ability to use harder tactics exert greater control over the performance of a task. The same effect occurs when the individual does not expect to be confronted in the future with the other person. The results suggest the possibility of using a more coercive influence strategy does not necessarily lead to an increase in the exercise of control. Another variable that appears to have a mediating effect on the use of influence tactics is the degree of perceived skill. In this manner, individuals who perceive that their contributions may be useful and are interested in obtaining success in the tasks, are not dependent on a possible interaction in the future. Considerations made regarding the type of labour relations that are sought, has a significant effect on the choice of harder or softer influence tactics.

1.4 Efficacy and Effects in the Use of Influence Tactics

Higgins, Judge & Ferris (2003) conducted a meta-analysis⁵ of the products resulting from the use of influence tactics and concluded that certain tactics have a positive effect on job results. The measured results were performance assessment, salaries and promotions. The results showed that individuals who use ingratiation and rational persuasion behaviours to justify their requests have greater opportunities to progress in their careers in comparison with those who make less use of these influence tactics. The ingratiation strategy and rational persuasion

⁵ The study was based on reading 300 abstracts, from which a selection was made of 31 research papers conducted between 1967 and 2000.

strategy have stronger correlations with performance assessment than with extrinsic success (salaries and promotions). The results are explained by the fact that performance assessment is directly influenced by the individual's behaviours and being under the direct supervision of the supervisor, while salaries and promotions are more dependent on external conditions. Assertiveness presents various relationships with performance assessment and extrinsic success. On the one hand, it presents a moderate negative relationship with performance assessment, but on the other hand, it reveals a positive relationship with extrinsic success. The resources available to carry out performance assessments affect their results. When interviews are used, self-promotion generates a favourable image however it may lead to opposite results in the final appraisal, when performance is difficult to verify (Higgins, Judge & Ferris, 2003).

The effects of rational persuasion on the target's sense of commitment are mediated by perception of the importance of the request (Yukl, Chavez & Kim, 1999). Explanations of the importance of the request are more readily accepted when the agent is perceived as an expert, and is therefore attributed credibility (Plouffe, Bolander & Cotec, 2014). Apprising involves, for example, opportunities to learn, faster career progression and may be confused with bargaining (Yukl, Chavez & Seifert, 2005). With apprising, the benefits obtained are a product acquired in order to accomplish something, rather than something which is disconnected from the request. Rational persuasion increases the possibility of a request being accepted while apprising does not achieve the same effect. No differences were found between peers and subordinates in the use of rational persuasion. Although no studies have yet been produced that show the frequency of use of apprising before peers and subordinates, this strategy is expected to be used more frequently with subordinates than with peers.

2. Complementary and Alternative Approaches

2.1 Managerial Behaviours

The finding that the different influence tactics do not encompass the different behaviours that a leader may adopt in relation to others and with himself, justifies analysis and renewed use of the behaviour taxonomy initially proposed by Yukl & Nemeroff (1979) and works related to self-management⁶ and self-leadership⁷.

Two major contributions to the current knowledge of leadership behaviours were developed by the universities of Ohio and Michigan (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1986). The main contribution of the approach adopted by the University of Ohio was identification of task-orientated behaviours⁸ (including planning, coordination and management) and those geared towards the maintenance of behaviour⁹ (including friendliness, openness to communication and participation). According to this approach it is assumed that high levels in both behaviour patterns characterize the most appropriate leadership style. This assumption is refuted by

⁶ In the Original: Self-Management.

⁷ In the Original: Self-Leadership.

⁸ In the Original: Initiating structure.

⁹ In the Original: Consideration.

studies that have shown that the effects of the leader's behaviours on results are conditioned by the situation, and that the high-high style in both behaviours is not universally the best option (Nystrom, 1978, cited by Van Fleet & Yukl, 1986, p. 2).

The studies developed by the University of Michigan establish that the best supervisors are those who focus on the personal problems of their subordinates (support behaviours), thus able to build solid working groups and set high goals (goals and high performance). Despite the lack of consensus concerning the best leadership behaviours, the most frequently used categories were 'consideration' versus 'task-oriented behaviours' or 'relations-orientation' versus 'task-orientation'. The excessively generalist character of these two major categories on the diversity of behaviours used by leaders led Yukl and colleagues (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1986; Yukl & Nemeroff, 1979) to propose a taxonomy composed of 23 behaviours (Table III), operationalized via the Managerial Behaviour Survey¹⁰ (MBS).

Table III – Definition of Managerial Behaviours

Emphasise/highlight performance	The degree to which the leader emphasizes the importance of the performance of subordinates and encourages them to try harder.
Demonstrate consideration	The degree to which the leader is friendly, supportive and considers the contributions from subordinates.
Career advice	The degree to which the leader advises subordinates on the advancement of their careers, encouraging them to develop their skills.
Inspire Subordinates	The degree to which the leader stimulates enthusiasm among subordinates for group work and builds confidence to achieve goals
Provide recognition and praise	The degree to which the leader provides recognition and appropriate praise to subordinates who demonstrate good performance and appreciates the relevant contributions of subordinates.
Provide contingent rewards	The degree to which the leader rewards the performance of subordinates with tangible benefits, such as extra pay, promotions, better working hours, more free time and better tasks.
Clarify the role of work	The degree to which the leader informs subordinates about their duties and responsibilities, clarifies the rules and plans and tells subordinates what is expected from them.
Set Objectives	The degree to which the leader, individually, or in conjunction with subordinates, sets specific, challenging, but realistic goals.
Train and Advise	The degree to which the leader provides training and necessary advice, or indicates someone to do it.
Disseminate Information	The degree to which the leader keeps subordinates informed of decisions, events or developments that affect their work.
Encouraging participation in decision-making	The degree to which the leader consults other before taking his own decisions and allows his decisions to be influenced by subordinates.
Delegate	The degree to which the leader delegates responsibility and authority to subordinates and allows them to determine how to carry out their work.

¹⁰ In the Original: Managerial Behavior Survey (MBS).

Table III – Definition of Managerial Behaviours

(continued)

Plan	The degree to which the leader plans how to organize and schedule the work, coordinates work tasks and deals with potential problems.
Innovate	The degree to which the leader looks for new opportunities, proposes new activities and presents new ideas to strengthen the work unit.
Solve Problems	The degree to which the leader acts promptly to resolve serious problems.
Facilitate Work	The degree to which the leader provides support, equipment, additional services or other resources to subordinates in order to carry out the work efficiently.
Monitor operations	The degree to which the leader keeps track of activities and supervises subordinates' performance.
Monitor the environment	The degree to which the leader keeps track of external events that have repercussions for his work.
Represent the unit	The degree to which the leader promotes and defends the interests of the work unit and acts in order to obtain the necessary resources from superiors, peers and externally.
Facilitate cooperation and teamwork	The degree to which the leader emphasizes teamwork and promotes cooperation, cohesion and identification with the group.
Managing Conflict	The degree to which the leader discourages disputes and unnecessary.
Criticize	The degree to which the leader criticizes the behaviour patterns of subordinates that are unacceptable for the organization, has positive things to say and gives subordinates the opportunity to explain themselves.
Apply/Administer Discipline	The degree to which the leader makes appropriate disciplinary decisions in order to handle subordinates who violate the rules, disobey orders or systematically deliver weak performances.

Source: Adapted from Van Fleet & Yukl, 1986, pp 38-39.

The presented behaviours are not specific to an organization or a particular context and the importance of the dimensions may change from one situation to the next. The categories are conceptually different from each other, but aren't completely independent. The resolution of an incident or problem may involve more than one behavioural category. The taxonomy helps in the identification, classification and categorization of constructs derived from observations, critical incidents and content analyses (Van Fleet & Yukl, 1986) comprises twelve behaviours related to relationships and motivation of direct subordinates.

2.2 Processes of Self-control and Organizational Self-influence

The approaches discussed above are highly focused on external control and influence mechanisms, neglecting aspects of organizational self-control and self-influence processes.

Self-influence systems constitute a central point in the organizational management practices due to the benefits that they generate for the organization and for individual achievement. As Manz states “overvaluing external control, can lead to dysfunctional employee behaviours: rigid bureaucratic behaviours that are rewarded by the control system” (1986, p 587.). Organizational theories concerning internal control mechanisms of the subject refer to concepts such as self-regulation, self-management (Manz & Sims, 1980) and self-leadership (Manz, 1986) integrating notions of self-regulation (Slocum & Sims, 1980), self-control (Bandura, 1969) and Bandura’s social learning theory (1977). In these approaches, each individual has an internal self-control system capable of self-evaluating, rewarding and punishing.

Self-regulation is the most basic level of self-influence, and uses self-observation, self-assessment and self-reaction activities, assuming the existence of benchmarks but paying little attention to their source.

Self-management suggests a process in which the subject, when confronted with alternative responses, can “determine what should be done and how it should be done, being able to change his response pattern over time” (Mills, 1983, p. 446). Which doesn’t mean that in formal leadership there is an absence of self-regulation. Self-observation of one’s own behaviour provides the basis for self-evaluation and self-strengthening (Manz & Sims, 1980). Works addressing the subject of self-management focus on adaptation of self-control tactics in relation to problem solving (Luthans & Davis, 1979, Manz & Sims, 1980, 1981) in particular self-observation, setting of objectives, suggestion strategies, self-reinforcing, self-punishment and testing (Mahoney & Arnkoff, 1978). Manz (1986) notes that “self-management tactics require external reinforcement to ensure continuity” (p. 588) and are used as behavioural strategies in order to enable the individual to achieve the goals set by others, which violates the assumption of the subject’s active self-control.

Manz (1986) conceptualizes self-leadership as a new perspective of self-influence where it is up to the subject to deal with challenging tasks and manage the work that needs to be done but which is not naturally motivating. The author suggests the existence of three critical elements underlying the notion of self-leadership that distinguishes self-management: (1) attribution of intrinsic value to externally-set standards, not restricted to cognitive tactics or behaviours that merely reflect what needs to be done to achieve them; (2) incorporation of intrinsic motivation and feelings of self-efficacy and competence at work, in line with the cognitive evaluation theory of Deci (1975) and Deci & Ryan (1980) and the theory of self-efficacy of Bandura (1977, 1982); and (3) use of additional self-control tactics.

Self-leadership tactics contemplate self-regulation and self-management strategies and are generally divided into three categories (Manz & Neck, 2004): (1) strategies focused on behaviour (self-observation¹¹, setting targets for oneself¹², self-reinforcing¹³, self-criticism¹⁴,

¹¹ Consists of being aware of one’s own behaviour, observing one’s own activities and performance in the group, in order to identify when and why certain behaviours arise, that lead to corrective action.

¹² Involves setting specific challenging goals that haven’t yet been achieved.

¹³ Consists of strengthening oneself, whenever one attains a set goal.

¹⁴ Consists of a reflection on adopted behaviours that the group rejected in order to reduce undesirable behaviors.

self-expectancy¹⁵, and testing¹⁶) (Cohan, Chang & Ledford, 1997); (2) Natural reward strategies¹⁷ involve structuring the most pleasant aspects of a task or activity, in order to make it naturally rewarding, as well as shape the perceptions that one has of an activity focusing on the inherent rewarding aspects; and (3) constructive thought pattern strategies¹⁸ (e.g., self-analysis and constructive internalization of personal beliefs, mental image of successful results, and talking to oneself) (Manz & Neck, 2004; Neck & Manz, 1992, 1996). The first two strategies seek to emphasize the primary mechanisms of intrinsic motivation, i.e., strengthen feelings of competence and self-determination. The use of these three cognitive strategies tend to facilitate the construction of models of thought that will have a positive impact on performance.

3. Final Considerations

The central objective of this article has been to review and summarise the different fields associated to research into influence tactics. The most effective influence tactics were discussed, as well as their effects and effectiveness. Research has shown that combinations of different influence tactics prove to be more effective.

Despite the different reasons that may lead to the choice of a specific influence strategy, adoption of soft tactics is preferred over hard tactics. Influencing the behaviour of another person is based on voluntary adhesion, which constitutes an essential pre-requisite for the emergence of leadership. Harder tactics are experienced as being less favourable and lead to a certain degree of discomfort and pressure.

The supportive organizational climate occupies a prominent role as a mediating variable between influence tactics associated to a transformational leadership style, such as consultation, inspirational appeals and involvement in participation in work activities.

Training of self-leadership strategies helps individuals to internalize self-influence techniques that stimulate intrinsic motivation and release the subject from external regulation. Active involvement of individuals in organizations decreases the need for “tougher” leadership styles.

Over recent years much has been learned about how influence tactics may be used in an organizational context. Nonetheless, the dominant view has assumed that employees are physically located in a single building with their supervisor. However, technological advances have delivered new challenges, opening up the possibility of exploring work contexts that are geographically dispersed and distributed, with implications on influence tactics and processes (Steizel & Rimbau 2013). We hope that research into influence tactics/strategies will continue to evolve in the literature.

¹⁵ Consists in thinking and convincing oneself that everything will be fine, expecting high performance.

¹⁶ Consists in seeking new tasks, experimenting and starting activities while thinking about the form of attaining them.

¹⁷ In the Original: Natural reward strategies.

¹⁸ In the Original: Constructive thought pattern strategies.

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