

# INFLUENCE STRATEGIES AND GENDER DIFFERENCES

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September, 2007

# INFLUENCE STRATEGIES AND GENDER DIFFERENCES

*A Thesis Submitted*  
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of  
**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

*By*

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September, 2007

## STATEMENT

The work contained in the thesis entitled “Influence Strategies and Gender Differences” has been carried out by me under the supervision of Dr. Nachiketa Tripathi, Associate Professor, Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, India. This work has not been submitted elsewhere for the award of any degree.

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**CERTIFICATE**

This is certified that the work contained in the thesis entitled “Influence Strategies and Gender Differences” by Sudipa Nag (Roll No. 994904), a student in the Department of Humanities & Social Sciences, Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati, for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy carried out under my supervision. The results embodied in the thesis have not been submitted to any other University or Institute for the award of any degree or diploma.

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

It is a great pleasure in acknowledging the help extended by many persons at various stages in the accomplishment of my Ph.D. thesis work. I express my sincere gratitude to my thesis supervisor, Dr. Nachiketa Tripathi for his valuable and inspiring guidance, untiring support and advice during my research under his supervision. He has always motivated and inspired me to do better. This research work would have not been possible without his careful guidance and valuable suggestions. He has been the guiding spirit of this thesis and I thank him from my heart for being a wonderful supervisor.

I express my sincere and special thanks to Dr. S. Borbora, who is the Chairman of my Doctoral Committee as well as the HoD of the Department of Humanities and Social Sciences, and the other two members of my Doctoral Committee, Dr. (Mrs.) Archana Barua and Dr. (Mrs.) Krishna Barua for not only reviewing my work during comprehensive, research proposal and synopsis seminar but also their valuable advice, suggestion and help during the course of my research work. Their love and affection always encourage me to do better work.

I am also thankful to all the faculty members and staffs of the Department of Humanities and Social Sciences and also the Institute who have offered help directly or indirectly at different stages during my research work.

I am grateful to Prof. N. K. Sharma, IIT Kanpur for his valuable suggestion, advice and remark in the statistical analysis of my thesis work.

I am also grateful to Dr. Animesh Das, IIT Kanpur for his valuable suggestion and help for my research work.

I wish to extend my gratitude to the organizations who granted me permission to collect data and conduct interviews and to those executives who took time out of their hectic schedule to share their views with me for my research work.

This research work and the thesis would not have been a reality without the help from my friends. My special heartfelt thanks to Amaresh, Himani, Manish, Nimesh, Ratul, Sarala, Sasmita, and especially Sonia for their valuable friendship, encouragement, suggestion, care, support and all possible help they have provided during my research work. I am also thankful to all my other friends for their friendship and help at different stages of the research work.

I would like to take this opportunity to pay my warmest feelings to my parents. They are my source of inspiration and I would be very happy if I can fulfill a part of their expectation. I am grateful to them for their affection, inspiration, care and all possible support during the course of my research work. My special thanks to my Barda-Boudi, Rangada, Didibhai-Jiju and Rumna for inspiring me from the very beginning of the work and extending their full support during the research.

This work is dedicated to my parents, who have extended all their possible support whenever I needed it, because without their support and care I would not have been able to complete my research work.

***Sudipa Nag***

## Influence Strategies and Gender Differences

### Synopsis

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In the present work an attempt has been made to investigate gender differences in the selection of influence strategies by the managers. From the review of literature (Chapter 1), it was found that there are various studies on influence strategies in relation to power, leadership, gender, role of status, etc. Although, there are findings that indicate that males and females use different influence strategies (Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Falbo et al., 1982), the explanation of these findings is not very conclusive.

By using different influence strategies, a manager can get the work done from the three levels of the organizational hierarchy and bring success for the organization. If he/she cannot influence properly the aforesaid levels and is not able to get the things done from them, then organizational success may not be achieved and it will not be able to compete with other organizations in this competitive business world. Influence strategy used by the manager plays a significant role for the success of the organization.

But according to Sagrestano (1992), the choice of influence strategies is likely to be affected not only by power, but also by gender. The relationship between these two variables as well as the independent contributions of these variables is currently unclear.



However, as the review of literature indicates, there are two competing theories that attempt to explain the existence, or lack thereof, of gender-based differences in expectations as well as use of influence behaviours: (a) the *social-role model* (Eagly, 1987; Gutek, 1993; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Schlueter & Barge, 1993); and (b) the *structural model* (Ely, 1995; Kanter, 1977; Mainiero, 1986; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Riger & Galligan, 1980; Schlueter et al., 1990).

According to *Social-role Model*, often referred to as Gender-role theory (Eagly, 1987), or Gender-role socialization (Schlueter & Barge, 1993), gender-based differences in the choice of influence behaviors as well as perceptions of appropriateness of influence use are a result of gender-role expectations that “spill over” to organizational settings (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Generally, these expectations stem from culturally defined gender-roles (e.g., husband, wife, professor, student, doctor, nurse etc.), which define a set of expectations for male and female behavior (Eagly, 1987). Status roles, for instance, may lead people to have unconscious, automatic expectations that men occupy positions of authority and use high-status behavior, whereas women reside in subordinate roles and, therefore, use low-status behavior.

However, *Structural Model* suggests that organizational position, rather than gender-role expectations, affects the choice for influence behaviors as well as perceptions of appropriateness of influence use (Mainiero, 1986; Riger & Galligan, 1980; Schlueter et al., 1990). In the structural model, individual traits and behaviors are de-emphasized as predictors of managerial effectiveness and upward mobility (Riger & Galligan, 1980). This model posits that influence use is directed by organizational status, role, and degree of perceived power (Fagenson, 1990; Kanter, 1977; Schlueter et al., 1990). This model contends that influence behaviors are a result of the organizational

structure (Fagenson, 1990), that is, male and female managers use influence behaviors relative to their amount of power in the organization (Schlueter & Barge, 1993; Schlueter et al., 1990).

In the present research following unanswered questions, which have emerged from the literature review, were investigated:

1. Why females use different influence strategies; is it due to their gender-role expectations or power status?
2. At the same time, how their use of different influence strategies is related to effectiveness or in general to organizational success?
3. If they use different influence strategies due to gender role expectations, which could be conflicting with their organizational goals, how do they reconcile this factor? Do they really go beyond the gender role expectations?
4. If difference is due to power status, then the males at the same level of power should be using the similar influence strategies, does this happen?
5. If male and female managers use the same influence strategies then why female managers are still not getting the equal status as that of male managers in the organizational set up?
6. How the selection of influence strategies is related to adjustment outside the work environment?

It can be observed from above, that the focus of this research was to compare the competing predictions of the social-role model and structural model and to find explanations for differences in influence strategy used by male and female boss. Moreover, the relationship between different influence strategies and organizational

success variable was explored to investigate the role of influence strategies in bringing about success in the organization.

### **Rationale for the Present Research**

The rationale for the present research can be found in the unexamined questions that emerged out of the literature review. It is apparent from the earlier findings that gender differences in the use of influence strategies can be attributed to gender-role theory and structural power model, as well. However, findings are still not conclusive. Therefore, present research was planned on the basis of following rationale:

**Firstly**, by finding evidence and real explanation with regard to gender differences in the use of influence strategies, it will help us to bridge the existing gap in this area. It will enrich our knowledge in this field.

**Secondly**, if the gender differences in the use of influence strategies are mainly due to gender role theory, then it may have serious implications for extending possible explanation for the lack of career progress of females in the organization.

**Thirdly**, if the gender difference is due to power structure in the organization, then it will make it clear that lack of progress in the career of females can be taken care of by the equal distribution of power in the organization.

**Fourthly**, if gender difference in the use of influence strategies exists due to gender role theory or structural theory or both the theories are playing a role, then, it would be interesting to undertake research in this area as it will enrich our knowledge and help the

organizations to get more success.

**Fifthly**, if only one theory i.e. social-role theory or structural theory play the important role in the use of influence strategy then what is the reason behind it. Also, it would be useful to explore why the other theory does not work in the same set-up. A study of these reasons will enrich our knowledge of strategy use.

The initial hypotheses of this research work were based on the previous findings, especially findings related to Indian cultural context. These hypotheses were more towards social-role model (Eagly, 1987; Gutek, 1993; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Schlueter & Barge, 1993), as it seemed to be more relevant in the Indian context.

### **Design of the research**

The present research was carried out in two phases: Study 1, and Study 2 A and Study 2 B. The Study 1 was conducted using a factorial design, while the Study 2 A was based on questionnaire method. Study 2 B was done through interview method.

Study 1, that is, a pilot study was conducted on 120 engineering undergraduate students from a large urban, residential technological institute in the northeastern region of India. The independent variables were gender (male/female) and type of influence strategies (direct/indirect). The participants were randomly assigned to experimental conditions and read one of four vignettes. After reading the vignettes as per the conditions, participants were asked to evaluate the manager on the basis of his/her address to the subordinates by responding to a questionnaire that shows the items used

to measure the variables. The dependent measures were bases of power, leadership effectiveness, managerial attributes and types of influence outcomes.

In Study 2 A, two samples of 125 male and 96 female middle level managers from different organizations including private, public and government organizations of India participated. The managers were working directly under either male or female boss. Participants were given a questionnaire and requested to read all the questions carefully for all the four sections of bases of power, downward influence strategies, upward influence strategies, and job satisfaction.

Study 2 B was qualitative in nature. The interviews were conducted on the executives (both male and female) who were working in a Senior Management position and under whom several persons were working.

The items of this interview schedule were divided into three parts. The first part consisted of items related to the success path of the executives (item 1 to item 4). The second part had questions related to issues at work place, for example, discrimination, preference, leadership styles and adjustment issues with regard to gender (item 5 to item 11). The third and last section of this interview schedule contained questions on adjustment between home and work place (item 12 to item 15).

Data obtained from Study 1 and Study 2 A were statistically analyzed to obtain the results. For Study 2 B, a qualitative analysis was done to obtain the result.

From the above studies, it was concluded that gender role theory does not play a vital role in the Indian organizational settings. From Study 1 of this research work, a

mixed result of gender role model and structural model came out which prompted us to go further in this direction. But the prediction that social role model plays the important role in organizational settings in India was not supported from the findings of Study 2 A and Study 2 B. It was found in the Study 2 A that gender difference does not play a vital role in the influence strategy used by the manager. This implies that subordinates who worked under the male or female boss perceived no difference in the influence strategies used by them. This result was supported by earlier findings (e.g., Ragins, 1991; Ronk, 1993; Butterfield & Powell, 1981; Campbell et al., 1993). Moreover, the result of Study 2 B which was qualitative in nature also revealed similar findings. The top executives (both male and female) who were interviewed in this study were of the opinion that to be a good manager one should give his/her best to the organization and that helps the organization to achieve success. Manager should use different influence strategies to get the things done from their subordinates, peers and bosses and there is no question of gender difference. Only work performance matters to get the success in the organization.

The findings of these studies were discussed in the context of changing scenario of the present competitive business world. The gender role expectations are not congruent with the job demand of the organizations. These were explained in terms of changes taking place within the Indian society. Stereotypical role definitions are getting weaker day by day and there is an increased tolerance for the unconventional gender roles. It is not uncommon in today's Indian society to see females doing some of the jobs, which were at one point of time, thought to be fit only for males. Even, within families, there is an appreciation for the females who are employed. Of course, just on the basis of one piece of research one should not try to too generalize the findings. However, the signs of changes are apparently visible through this research.

There was also an attempt to study the relationship between influence strategies used by managers (male and female) and the success of organization. From the results of correlations, it was found that there was a positive correlation between variables like bases of power, downward influence strategies and upward influence strategies with job satisfaction. In fact, most of the other empirical research has supported this relationship.

Some of the positive correlations obtained between bases of power and job satisfaction, downward influence strategy and job satisfaction, and upward influence strategy and job satisfaction indicated that influence strategies and bases of power have some bearing on the success of the organization. At the same time, it may be noted that success measure used in this study was an indirect one.

The findings of this research are very important, especially for the managers. People working in the business world, especially males, should realize that stereotypical mind-set, which fosters gender bias to some extent, might not help them in the long run.

It has also made a point for the scholars and researchers as this work reveals that though gender differences might exist in our cultural settings and people still may have gender bias but in the organizational settings, it does not matter. How well a manager performs his/her job and bring success to the organization counts and not the manager's gender.

At the theoretical level, this research work bridges the gap in the area of gender differences in influence strategies. The present research demonstrates that gender differences do not play an important role in the influence strategy. This research work also highlights the relationship between gender differences and influence strategies

which was not very clear from the earlier findings. This research work clears the existing gap and reveals that gender may not be a critical variable in terms of selection of influence strategies used by the managers.

At the practical level, this research work will help managers and decision makers to have better understanding of gender differences in influence strategies. Consequently, managers will be able to create the proper settings in the organizations, which will help their employees to achieve organizational goals in an effective way.





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## Chapter 1

### Introduction

In the present business world, when globalization is taking place so rapidly and different organizations are entering the competitive world of business, it has become vital for the organizations to focus on every minute details of the progress of the organization. To get success in this race, each organization has to prove itself as the best in all spheres to be 'numero uno' in this corporate world. The competition among the organizations raises some questions. Some of the obvious questions appear on the surface are "What makes an organization successful?" Is it the organization's policy and decision-making strategy, or is it the organization's design, culture and climate or is it simply because of employees' motivation or is it only for the able leadership which brings success to the organization. Several studies conducted in these directions and found that all these factors make an organization successful in the business world and all these factors are important for the organization to achieve success in the business. But one thing is clear from these studies that these factors alone can not bring success for an organization. To prove and show themselves as the best organization the whole team of the organization has to work very hard, especially the leader or manager who takes this challenge and lead the whole team competently and finally achieve the organizational goal.

Rapid technological advancements and the resulting changes have become part of life for many organizations. These facts highlight the increasing importance of the role of a leader i.e. a manager. The manager's role is the most important role for an organization's success and the manager does the most difficult job for an organization to

survive in this competitive business world and leads the organization to the top of the market. The manager works very hard to implement all the business policies, managing human resources, improvement of the positive organizational climate and motivates employees to achieve the target.

To achieve the organizational goal and be a successful manager one should behave in different ways while dealing with the superiors, peers and subordinates by using different strategies. These tactics are called influence and influence strategies. These strategies differ depending on who the target person is and what the goal of the influence attempt is. In this context to prove himself/herself a best manager or a competent manager, one who wants to achieve success for the organization should use different influence strategies to get the work done from these three levels in the organization i.e. superiors, peers and subordinates. By applying these different strategies he/she can influence the target and can get the work done to achieve the goal of the organization. One of the most important determinants of managerial effectiveness is success in influencing people and developing their commitment to task objectives (Yukl, 1989). Social influence processes are a pervasive aspect of organizational life. The work of organization is carried out in a setting of power and influence. A manager's job is to read these realities correctly and marshal sufficient power to influence the achievement of organizational objectives.

The success of an influence attempted by a manager is likely to depend on a number of things, including the influence tactics used by the manager, intrinsic attributes of the request that motivate the targeted person to comply with it, and the manager's power. Social psychologists have recognized that the effective use of power and the perceptions of power by subordinates, peers and supervisors are critical determinants of



managerial success and organizational advancement (Aguinis & Adams, 1998; Aguinis, Nesler, Hosoda, & Tedeschi, 1994; Pfeffer, 1981; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Yukl, 1994; Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993; Yukl, Kim, & Falbe, 1996; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). According to Yukl (1989), effective managers select influence tactics that are appropriate for the situation. Emerging research indicates that managers seek to influence their superiors in order to achieve a variety of individual and organizational goals (Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980; Mowday, 1979; Schein, 1977).

### **The Conceptualization of Influence Strategy**

The term influence can be viewed as a form of social control or social power. It is an individual's ability to get another person to perform a certain action. Thus, influence in general is behavior of one party that changes the behavior of another party. Managerial influence in particular is the behavior of one or more persons responsible for organizational results acting to change the behavior of organizational members in ways intended to change results. In organization managers behave differently while dealing with their subordinates, bosses and peers. And with their different behavior patterns their strategies also differ depending on who the target person is (i.e. subordinate, boss or peer) and what the goal of influence attempt is.

Katz and Kahn (1966) made a clear distinction between the two terms, influence and power. They defined influence as a transaction in which one person (or group) acts in such a way as to change the behavior of an individual (or group) in some intended fashion. Power is the capacity to exert influence. Power does not have to be enacted for it to exist, whereas influence does; and it is viewed as a process of producing

behavioural or psychological (e.g., values, beliefs, and attitudes) effects in a target person.

Research on influence strategies was accelerated with the introduction by Goodchilds, Quadrado and Raven (1975) of a procedure that directly asked subjects to answer either orally or in the form of a written essay, a question about the strategies they used to influence others. Since then, a number of studies in a variety of contexts have employed this procedure to assess power strategies (e.g. Ansari, Kapoor, & Rehana, 1984; Cowan, Drinkard, & MacGavin, 1984; Dion & Stein, 1978; Falbo, 1977, 1982; Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Finley & Humphreys, 1974; Goodstein, 1981; Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; McCromick, 1979). Various studies have been reported among students attempting to get their way with friends and parents (Goodchilds et al., 1975), among lovers and married couples attempting to influence each other (Kipnis, 1976; Kipnis, Cohen, & Schwarz, 1976), and among employees attempting to influence their bosses, co-workers, and subordinates (e.g. Ansari et al., 1984; Kipnis et al., 1980).

Cartwright (1965) provided the original conceptual outlines for a comprehensive theoretical framework on the nature of influence. Cartwright identified three major facets of the influence process, namely, (a) the influence agent (person exerting influence), (b) the method of exerting influence, and (c) the target of influence (the person being influenced). Kipnis (1974) built a model based on work of Cartwright to describe the chain of events that follow the decision of a person to exercise influence.

Cartwright (1965) also posited that even though individuals have the resources for exerting influence, they exercise this influence in varying degrees. This was attributed to the different motivational needs of different individuals. Research has shown that

needs for power and achievement are important phenomena in understanding the behavior of organizational participants, and a study by Schilit (1986) indicated that these needs were significantly related to upward-influence capability.

The goals of influence attempt may be of two types - personal and organizational. Personal goals may include securing benefits such as better work assignments or career advancement. On the other hand, power may be used to pursue organizational goals, for example, to encourage others to perform effectively, to promote new ideas, or to introduce new work procedures (Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984).

The studies by Kipnis and his colleagues (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1983; Kipnis et al., 1980) and Ansari and his colleagues (Kapoor, Ansari, & Shukla, 1986; Ansari & Rehana, 1986) clearly point to the fact that managers vary their strategies in relation to their own objectives.

The exercise of influence involves strategic decisions about who is to be influenced and when and how influence is to be exercised (Michener & Burt, 1975). The effectiveness with which these decisions are made is likely to be an important determinant of whether the exercise of influence is successful.

In organizational set up influence strategy is used at different levels by applying different strategies. It is so important that without its help a leader or say a manager will not be able to achieve a particular goal. If a manager is not able to influence his subordinates, bosses or peers then his work effort is going in vain. And as the works of organizations are mainly carried out with power and influence, a manager must have

that much of power as well as influential ability so that he/she can easily influence others to get the work done and achieve the organizational goal.

### **Classification and Types of Influence Strategies**

The various Influence Strategies can be classified into three categories. These are as follows:

- (1) *Upward Strategies*: Under this category are included ways by which people influence their superior or seniors.
- (2) *Downward Strategies*: This category includes methods used by managers to obtain compliance from their subordinates or methods used by persons to make their juniors and younger comply with them.
- (3) *Lateral Strategies*: This category contains methods used among peers, husband/wife, friends, etc. These methods are used in power relationships where both members have equal power.

There have been several studies on influence strategies, which are reported in the literature. A survey of studies of influence strategies indicates that a number of overlapping strategies are available in the literature. Some of the most widely reported strategies of downward, upward, and lateral influence in organizations are described as follows:

- (1) *Reasoning/Rationality/Rational Persuasion*: Rational persuasion or rationality involves the use of logical arguments and factual information to convince a target that the agent's request or proposal is feasible and consistent with shared objectives (Eagly & Chaiken, 1984). This is a flexible tactic that can be used for influence attempt in any direction. In the questionnaire study by Kipnis and Schmidt (1988), managers who received the highest performance ratings had a profile in which rational persuasion was the dominant tactic for upward influence attempts. However, rational persuasion was not related to successful upward influence in the questionnaire study by Mowday (1978). Writing detailed plans, explaining the reasons for a request, writing memos, and giving facts and data are all tactics involving rationality. This strategy is used most often and most effectively to influence superiors at all levels of the organizations. When they are presented with documents, or logical arguments, superiors appear to pay more attention to requests. Although, it can be used at every level, it is used quite frequently by lower level participants (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Kipnis et al., 1980; Mechanic, 1962).
- (2) *Assertiveness*: It involves demanding, telling a person to comply, expressing anger verbally, pointing out rules, or becoming a nuisance (Kipnis, 1976). Kipnis et al. (1980) and Mowday (1978) found the greater use of these tactics in influencing persons at all levels (superiors, co-workers, and subordinates).
- (3) *Ingratiation*: It involves making the other person feel important, inflating the importance of a request, showing a need, asking politely, acting friendly or humbly, or pretending that the other person is really going to make the decision. It is used to get one's way with the boss as well as to persuade co-workers and

subordinates to act in specific ways (Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1979; Kipnis et al., 1980; Ralston, 1985). This influence strategy has been systematically investigated by some Indian researchers in a number of studies (Pandey, 1978; Pandey, 1981; Pandey & Bohra, 1984; Pandey & Rastogi, 1979).

The basis for influence in ingratiation is an increase in the target's feeling of positive regard toward the agent. Flattery, praise, expression of acceptance, and expression of agreement are used to increase the agent's attractiveness to the target (Liden & Mitchell, 1988; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984). In the studies by Kipnis et al. (1980) and Yukl and Falbe (1990), agents reported that ingratiation was used more in downward and lateral influence attempts. Regarding the consequences, Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) found that male managers whose influence profile involved a relatively high use of ingratiation received only moderate performance ratings but that female ingratiators received higher performance ratings. Outcome success was not significantly affected by ingratiation tactics in the study by Keys, Case, Miller, Curran, and Jones (1987).

- (4) *Use of Sanctions*: The use of sanctions draws upon organizational rewards and punishments. It includes both informal exchange such as promoting interpersonal attraction by praising the superior (Kipnis & Vanderveer, 1971; Mechanic, 1962) and formal exchange, such as rewarding (Porter, Allen, & Angle, 1981). Tactics include preventing salary increases or threatening an employee's job security in the case of negative sanction and increasing salary or promoting the person in the case of positive sanction. This strategy can not be used unless the person actually does have the power, and authority to implement the action. It is generally used by superiors to get their work done with their subordinates.

- (5) *Showing Expertise*: In this strategy, the superior influence subordinates by showing competence and knowledge in work domain, and expects subordinates to comply with his/her superior knowledge. In Singh and Singh's (1994) study it was revealed that expert power did not emerge as predictor. The managers known for their expertise in a particular area sometimes earned bad names since both their seniors as well as juniors treated them as poseur and did not recognize their worth at large.
- (6) *Personalized Relationship*: This strategy involves superior's warmth, support and care towards subordinates. Even, superior's help extends beyond the work place to subordinates' personal matters, and in exchange for this the superior expects the subordinate to comply.

Sinha (1980) recommended the salience of the Nurturant-task (NT) style as an alternative model within the Indian culture which investigates the link between power strategies and the leadership styles of the target person. The following typical characteristics that the Indian subordinates bring to their organizations led to the formulation of the NT style: (i) Indian subordinates tend to depend excessively on their superiors, with whom they want to cultivate personalized rather than contractual work relationships; (ii) they readily accept the authority of their superior and yield to his or her demands; (iii) work is not valued in itself; and (iv) yet the subordinates are willing to work extra hard as a part of their efforts to maintain a personalized relationship with the superior (Kakar, 1974; Pareek, 1968; Sinha, 1980).

- (7) *Exchange of Benefits*: This strategy is used by managers with superiors, peers, and subordinates to get their work done. It involves such things as “offering an exchange or offering to make personal sacrifices”. Kipnis et al. (1980) and Mowday (1978) mentioned the use of this strategy in organizations.

Exchange tactics involve explicit or implicit offers by an agent to provide a favour or benefit to the target in return for doing what the agent requests. To be effective, the agent must offer something the target considers desirable and appropriate (Yukl, 1990). The person offers an exchange of favours, indicates willingness to reciprocate at a later time, or promises a share of the benefits. There is more opportunity to use exchange with subordinates and peers than with superiors. Erez, Rim, and Keider (1986), Kipnis et al. (1980), Yukl and Falbe (1990) found that exchange was used more in downward and lateral influence attempts than in upward influence attempts. Results regarding the consequences of using exchange are not consistent. No significant effects of exchange tactics (offering to trade favours or concessions) were found in the study of upward incidents by Case, Dosier, Murkinson, and Keys (1988), in the study of lateral incidents by Keys et al., (1987), and in the study by Mowday (1978) of upward influence.

- (8) *Coalition/Forming alliance with others*: It involves such things as the use of steady pressure for compliance by “obtaining the support of co-workers” and/or by “obtaining the support of subordinates”. This technique is more often used to influence superiors than to influence subordinates or colleagues. Yukl and others (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) identified and used nine influence tactics: legitimizing, rational



persuasion, inspirational appeal, consultation, exchange, personal appeals, ingratiation, pressure, and coalition.

(9) *Manipulation*: Informing or arguing in such a way that the recipient is not aware of being influenced is termed as 'manipulation' (Mowday, 1978; Porter et al., 1981). This is a common method of upward influence attempt. Allen et al. (1979) pointed out that this category of tactics involves withholding or distorting information (sort of outright lying), or overwhelming the target with too much information.

(10) *Threat or Defiance*: This strategy implies stating that negative consequences will occur if the agent's plan is not accepted. It can be used at both levels, that is, to influence superiors (defiance) as well as subordinates (threats). But the person must have some power before he or she can threaten others. Yukl and Tracey (1992) included in their study pressure tactics which involve the use of a manager's coercive power. The person uses demands, threats, or persistent reminders to do what he or she wants. Previous studies consistently find greater use of pressure in a downward direction (Erez et al., 1986; Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Pressure may elicit reluctant compliance from a target, but it is unlikely to result in commitment. Most studies on the consequences of influence tactics have found either a negative or nonsignificant correlation between pressure and the success of an influence attempt. But in Indian setting coercive power was found as most effective predictor in some studies (Singh & Singh, 1994; Singh & Pandey, 1988).

(11) *Upward Appeal*: This involves bringing additional pressure for conformity on the target of influence by calling a person at higher level in the organization to help,

included in this strategy are such tactics as “making a formal appeal to higher levels” or “obtaining the informal support of higher-ups”. There is some indication in the literature (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Cheng, 1983) that upward influence tactics are a function of the climate of the organization, of which the individual is a part. In these studies, it was found that the more political the climate the greater the use of political influence tactics (e.g., upward appeal), and the more rational the organizational climate the greater the use of rational tactics (e.g., rationality).

All the above mentioned strategies can be used by persons of all levels depending upon the power distribution between the target and the agent and the circumstances in which the use of a particular strategy takes place. These strategies have been described by different authors in terms of different dimensions. For example, Wilkinson and Kipnis (1978) described strategies in terms of two dimensions: strong and weak. The strong dimension included such methods as withholding payment, persistence, or threats. The weak dimension consisted of such methods as face-to-face negotiation, compromise or request for compliance. Falbo (1977) reported two dimensions underlying the experts' judgments about the influence strategies: rational/non-rational and direct/indirect. Rational strategies included such methods of influence as reasoning, bargaining or compromise. The non-rational part included such emotional strategies as evasion, deceit, and emotional alteration of the agent. On the other hand direct means of influence comprised assertion, simple statement, and fair accomplishment, whereas indirect means included hinting and thought manipulation.

Falbo and Peplau (1980) presented a two dimensional model of power strategies in intimate relationships. These two dimensions concerned the extent to which

the strategies were direct (ranging from direct to indirect) and interactive (ranging from bilateral to unilateral). Indirect strategies comprised such tactics as positive and negative affect, hinting and withdrawing. Direct strategies included persuasion, bargaining and reasoning. Bilateral strategies comprised such tactics as bargaining, reasoning or persistence. In unilateral strategies were included such tactics as laissez-faire and withdrawing.

Attempts have been made to relate influence strategies with such personal variables as need for power (McClelland, 1975; Singh, 1985; Winter, 1973), need for approval (Falbo, 1977), self confidence (Kanter, 1977; Raven & Kruglanski, 1970), locus of control (Kapoor, 1986), Machiavellianism (Christie & Geiss, 1970; Pandey & Rastogi, 1979) and cognitions of the power holder (Kipnis, 1976); and with such contextual variables as organizational climate (Cheng, 1983; Madison et al., 1980) and goals of influence attempts (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1983; Kipnis et al., 1980; Madison et al., 1980; Mowday, 1979; Schein, 1977).

A field study was conducted by Yukl and Tracey (1992) to discover how a manager's use of nine different influence tactics is related to target's task commitment and the manager's effectiveness. The most effective tactics were rational persuasion, inspirational appeal and consultation; the least effective were pressure, coalition and legitimating. In their preliminary model, Yukl and Tracey stated some interrelated factors which determine the frequency and effectiveness of influence tactics used in a particular direction. One of them is consistency with prevailing social norms and role expectations about use of the tactics in that context.

Kipnis and Schmidt (1985) have pointed out three main categories of influence behavior, namely, hard strategy, rational strategy and soft strategy.

*Hard strategy* may be describes as the means where by the agent expects compliance to be gained (Miller, 1983). It may be through direct assertive requests for compliance, or mediated through manipulative threats and aggression.

*Rational strategy* involves the application of bargaining and logic. It consists of the agent's appeal or attempt to elicit instrumental reasoning by the target. Ansari & Kapoor (1987) found that individuals responding to the nurturant-task or participative manager showed a greater tendency to choose rational strategies as rational persuasion. This imply Cheng's (1983) view, that individuals act on the basis of what they perceive to be appropriate or acceptable in a given social setting (Cartwright & Zander, 1968).

*Soft strategy* is said to be invoked when the agent seeks compliance in a polite, friendly, or humble manner by flattering and sympathizing with the influence target. According to Kipnis and his colleagues (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1983; Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980) managers vary their strategies in relation to their own objectives. For example, in order to secure personal benefits from a superior, they often use "soft" words, impression management, and ingratiation. In contrast, managers often use assertiveness as a power strategy in order to pursue organizational goals.

Barbuto, Scholl, Hickox and Boulmetis (2001) classified Yukl's nice influence tactics as either "hard" or "soft" based on targets' levels of resistance in relation to leader behavior. Hard, or forceful tactics, include legitimizing, exchange, pressure, and

coalition. Soft tactics are more interpersonal and include rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, consultation, ingratiation, and personal appeals (Barry & Shapiro, 1992).

The exercise of influence behaviors leads to potential outcomes (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). The three possible outcomes are commitment, compliance, and resistance. Commitment means enthusiasm and special effort. Compliance happens when the target accords with the request but makes himself minimal effort. Finally, resistance occurs when the target avoids complying by arguing, delaying, etc. (Falbe & Yukl, 1992).

One of the most consistent findings from studies of influence strategy use is that direct strategies are assigned greater value than indirect strategies. Both women and men have identified direct strategies as first choice strategies and indirect strategies as strategies of last resort (White & Roufail, 1989).

According to Kipnis (1984), because women are viewed typically as less powerful and more concerned with politeness than men, it has been asserted that women are more likely to employ indirect, manipulative strategies than men, who are more likely to employ direct, rational strategies. Brass (1985); Trempe, Rigny, and Haccoun (1985) reported that women typically have been shown to have less upward influence than men. This difference has been attributed to the less central positions in organizational networks and lower access that women have to the main power holders in an organization (Brass, 1985). Because information and access are essential to organizational functions, they are keys to power.

In a more recent examination of the perceived effectiveness of 16 influence tactics in a sample of managers from 12 nations, Fu et al. (2004) related the metastrategies to social beliefs and proposed a culturally consistent three-factor model, and labeled the dimensions of influence tactics Persuasive Strategy, Assertive Strategy, and Relationship-based Strategy.

A study by Leong, Bond, & Fu (2007) found that Hong Kong managers perceive Gentle Persuasion (GP) as more effective regardless of the influence direction. This finding is in line with the existing body of literature from the West, particularly the US., which indicates a higher reported usage of rational tactics in practice (e.g., Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Kennedy et al., 2003; Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

In the same study by Leong, Bond, & Fu (2007), for Gentle Persuasion (GP), the two genders (i.e. male, female) differed in their opinions regarding upward and downward influence. For the females, GP was considered similarly effective; for the males, GP was rated significantly less effective for influencing their subordinates than for influencing supervisors. In other words, the males seemed to hold a more variable view on the strategy's effectiveness; they were more differentiating in their perception of GP across directions, and were readier for the use of the informal, less nurturing CC (Contingent Control)

An alternative explanation is that the two sexes differ fundamentally in their interpersonal orientation. Specifically, women tend to seek a more nurturing style; men, a more agentic. Correspondingly, GP represents a group of more "neutral" ways to influence others (Schermerhorn & Bond, 1991), and puts less stress on the dyadic relationship. In contrast, CC is more personal, and sometimes even entails direct

confrontation and disruption of harmony. Men, choosing for effectiveness over relationship, may be open to a wider range of options. Females may, however, be more wary about using CC.

Strategies of upward influence also are gaining attention. Strategies used have been shown to be influenced by numerous individual characteristics, including the person's level in the organization (e.g., Kipnis et al., 1980; Offermann & Schrier, 1985), their years of experience (Mowday, 1979), their own perceived power (Kipnis, Schmidt, Swaffin-Smith, & Wilkinson, 1984), their own need for power (Mowday, 1979) or apprehension about power (Offermann & Schrier, 1985), and their investment in the influence objectives (Sussman & Vecchio, 1982).

Women and men are stereotypically believed to use different types of influence strategies; it has been argued by some that, particularly for women, this differential use has negative consequences. Johnson (1976, 1978) reported that people perceive men as more likely to use the strategies of reward, coercion, legitimacy, information, and expertise, whereas women are perceived as more likely to use referent power, helplessness, indirect or false information, nagging, and sexuality to get their way.

A study on organizational influence by Kipnis et al. (1980) found that a greater range of strategies was reported in organizational settings than had previously been found in interpersonal ones, although there were clear parallels between some strategies across settings.

According to Berger, Rosenholtz, and Zelditch (1980), both sex and role may be considered status characteristics, with males or supervisors given the highest status.

High-status persons are seen as more likely to be influential and less likely to be influenced, which may be associated with their choice of influence strategy and the choices made by lower status persons interacting with them. Kipnis et al., (1980) found that managers with higher-status positions in organizations reported using stronger, more directive influence strategies than lower-status managers.

### **Power and Influence Strategies**

Power is perhaps humankind's most pervasive social phenomenon. The consequences of power are experienced at every level of social organization but are most extensively experienced in formal organizations at all levels of the hierarchy. Because power is such a pervasive part of organizational life, researchers have attempted to explain organizational events and the outcome of these events in terms of power relationships that exist between organizations (Kochan, 1975; Pfeffer & Leong, 1977), between organizational subunits (Hinings, Hickson, Pennings, & Schneck, 1974; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1974), between organizational levels (Bacharach & Aiken, 1976; Blau & Schoenherr, 1971), and among organization members (Bachman, Bowers, & Marcus, 1968; Patchen, 1974). In early 1970s, the emphasis was still more on the conceptualization of power (Minton, 1967). However, some experimental works on the bases of power were made available. In trying to account for differential effectiveness in the ability to influence decisions, researchers examined the bases and distribution of power in organizations (French & Raven, 1959; Hickson, Hinings, Lee, Schneck, & Pennings, 1971; Hinings et al., 1974; Martin & Sims, 1956; Mechanic, 1962; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1974, 1977; Tannenbaum, 1968).



Now, the question is how power can be defined in relation to influence strategies? Generally, power can be defined in many ways, including as control over resources (Mechanic, 1962), as a personality trait (McClelland, 1975), as the ability to change the behavior of or overcome some level of resistance of a target (Dahl, 1957; Emerson, 1962), or, more simply, as authority (Benner, 1984) or as the ability to get things done (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). Hersey and Blanchard (1992, p.203) have defined power as a “leader’s potential”. It is a resource that enables a leader to induce compliance from or influence others. Hersey and Blanchard assert that managers must realize that power is finite. The amount of power does not expand in different situations although the bases of power may be several. A definition of power therefore as the ability to get results and the capacity to affect outcomes (Mintzberg, 1983) emphasizes the energy-generating effects of power.

According to Katz and Kahn (1966), power is the capacity to exert influence. Power does not have to be enacted for it to exist whereas influence does. Influence is the manifestation of power, and it is viewed as the process of producing behavioral or psychological (for instance, values, beliefs, and attitudes) effects in a target person. There is a clear distinction between the two terms influence and power. Katz and Kahn defined influence as a transaction in which one person (or group) acts in such a way as to change the behavior of another individual (or group) in some intended fashion.

Power is also different from control. As per Lawler (1976, p.1248) control means ‘to direct, to influence, or to determine the behavior of someone else’. Tannenbaum (1962, p. 239), in a similar fashion, defines control as ‘any process in which a person or group of persons or organization of persons determines, i.e., intentionally affects, what another person or group or organization will do.’ Whereas power is described as the

ability or potential to influence others, control is viewed as the actual process of exercising influence over others. Control refers to an extreme form of influence. Power can exist without any control, but control cannot take place without the use of power.

Power and authority are inter-related concepts. Power is defined as the capacity to exert influence while authority represents only a single type of power, that is, a power associated with position. According to Tedeschi (1974), power is potential influence and influence is power in action. The social exchange formulation explains power as a reciprocal influence process to affect outcomes or goals (Thibaut, 1959). Power is potential influence to control over valued resources (Tjosvold, 1990).

Moscovici (1974) draws a distinction between power and influence. Power, for example, cannot be the cause but it is rather the result of influence. A formal meaning of influence is often misleading and inadequate. Influence is said to be inherent in the dialectical relation between the individual and the group or society and can be found even in the co-presence of two persons. Influence is the inferential pressure while power corresponds to the coercive end.

Power comes in many forms. In organizations, the key form of power is access to important people and resources (Kanter, 1977; Mainiero, 1986). Brass and Burkhardt (1993) found that power, as measured by formal hierarchical level in the organization, was positively related to the influence strategies of assertiveness and exchange. People also resort to greater use of influence strategies when existing sources of power become unavailable (Westphal, 1998). Power, besides directly affecting the use of influence strategies, might also affect the relationship between personality traits and use of influence strategies.

Weber (1947, p.152), viewed power as “the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his will despite resistance.....”

French and Raven (1959) conceptualized power as a “potential influence”, and Khandwalla (1977, p. 52-53) viewed it as “the ability to secure one’s goals through the explicit or implicit use of force”. Most researchers agree that power is the ability or potential to influence others.

As per French and Raven power taxonomy is based on concept of power, which refers power as the ability or potential of an agent to influence a target. French and Raven (1959, p.150) specifically stated, “we shall define power in terms of influence, and influence in terms of psychological change..... which includes, changes in behavior, opinions, attitudes, goals, needs, values, and all other aspects of the person’s psychological field”. French and Raven discussed the ability of an agent (referred to as “O”) to influence a target (referred to as “P”). They offered the following: “The strength of power of O/P..... is defined as the maximum potential ability of O to influence P...”.

Thus, French and Raven’s typology of power (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1965, 1993; Raven & Rubin, 1983) has been among the most popular approaches to the conceptualization of the bases of power in interpersonal influences. They introduced a five fold categorization of sources of power, commonly known as Bases of Power. Although other bases of power could be cited, French and Raven specify these five as the primary by which an agent, O, can exert influence over a person, P. These are:

- (1) *Reward Power*, which refers to the agent’s capacity to reward the target for desirable behavior. It is based on P’s perception that O has the ability to mediate

rewards for him. In order for O to use reward power to influence P, he must possess resources that P values, and P must believe that by conforming he will actually benefit by the resources in question.

- (2) *Coercive Power*, which stems from the agents ability to punish the target or to prevent him or her from obtaining desired rewards. It is based on P's perception that O has the ability to mediate punishments for him. Analogous to the situation for reward power, in order for O to use coercive power to influence P, P must want to prevent some act of O and believe that through conforming he will do so.
- (3) *Legitimate Power*, which is based on agent's formal authority, and refers to perceptions about the prerogatives, obligations, and responsibilities associated with particular positions in organization or social system. It is based on internalized values in P that O has a right to influence P and that P has an obligation to accept this influence.
- (4) *Referent Power*, which arises when the target person identifies with the influencing agent. It is based on P's identification with O. French and Raven define identification as "a feeling of oneness of P with O, or a desire for such identity". If O is a person toward whom P is attracted, P will have a desire to be closely associated with O. This identification of P with O can be established or maintained if P behaves, believes, or perceives as O does.
- (5) *Expert Power*, which arises from the attribution of expertise, ability, or knowledge to the influencing agent. It is based on P's perception that O has some special knowledge or expertness in a given area. French and Raven hold that the

strength of expert power varies with the extent of knowledge which P attributes to O and that the range of expert power is restricted to those cognitive areas in which O is believed to have superior knowledge. Experience, training, reputation, demonstrated ability, etc. are among the many reasons why P attributes expertness to O.

Therefore, the process of exerting influence involves an agent acting so as to obtain particular compliance behaviors on the target's part. Thus, influence as a process involves the display of observable behaviors, while power involves an inference or attribution (and, therefore, is unobservable).

In an organization, power is derived from the opportunities inherent in the person's position (including legitimate power, coercive power and reward power), as well as from personal and interpersonal attributes (including referent power and expert power) (Yukl, 1989). So, power bases are something that an actor has, which provides him or her power to exercise over others, whereas an influence strategy is the actual behavioral mechanism through which an actor exerts influence over others. It is then proposed that individuals will vary their influence strategies depending on the bases of power.

It was found in several studies that an agent's choice of a particular influence strategy is based on his or her evaluation of the differences in relative agent/target power (Perreault & Miles, 1978; Raven, 1993; Stahelski & Payton, 1995; Tjosvold, Andrews, & Struthers, 1992; Yukl, 1989). A review of the empirical literature revealed that although power is typically well defined, most research focused on the agent's potential power (e.g., Kanter, 1977, 1979; Koslowsky & Schwarzwald, 1993; Mowday,

1978). For example, Koslowsky and Schwarzwald (1993) suggested that higher-status superiors typically have more power and greater control of resources than lower-status superiors. Therefore, higher-status agents tend to choose strategies indicating control over resources (hard-strategies), and that lower-status agents tend to choose those indicating low resource control (soft strategies).

In natural settings, French and Raven (1959) proposed that the powers are used in combination. Research has indicated several relationships between the powers that operate in applied settings. First, having legitimate power means that the agent has reward power. For example, a supervisor who is seen as legitimately holding the position can use rewards to influence subordinates. Second, legitimate power is most important to an influence agent because, at least to some extent, it makes the other powers become available. The supervisor also comes to have expert power because of being in his or her position. Even referent power, in which the supervisor becomes a model for subordinates, becomes available. Third, the use of the different powers has variable outcomes. Performance is influenced most strongly by a supervisor's use of expert and reward powers. Subordinate satisfaction with a supervisor is highest when the supervisor uses expert and referent powers. Together these findings suggest that although a legitimate authority can use any of the powers to influence others, the best strategy is to use those that are strongly related to the legitimate position and that lead to desired outcomes, that is, reward, expert, and referent power (Carson, Carson, & Roe, 1993).

In a given social context, any single power base or some combination of bases may be more likely to lead to influence than others. For example, coercive power may be the salient feature of a source in the moments just before a physical altercation

(Tedeschi & Felson, 1994). In an organizational setting, legitimacy and the ability to provide rewards may be the most critical power bases, whereas legitimate and expert power are more relevant in an educational setting (Aguinis, Nesler, Quigley, Lee, & Tedeschi, 1996). In most of the cases it has been seen that high power leads to more influence. However, there may be occasions in which low power will lead to more influence. For example, coercive power has been found to lead to less influence and even resistance by targets in work settings (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Falbe, 1991).

Falbo and Peplau (1980) suggest, differences are not inherent in gender but are based on power inequality in intimate relationships, men use more direct and bilateral strategies because they are strategies associated with power and status, and not because they are men. Put simply, men may have more power in intimate cross-sex relationships. Consequently, more direct and bilateral strategies should be used when a target is in a lower or equal power or status position relative to the actor and more unilateral and indirect strategies should emerge when the target has more power and status than the actor. Accordingly, relationships between same-sex pairs of equal status should be characterized by more direct strategies.

Raven (1993) suggested that an agent's choice of a particular influence strategy is based on his or her evaluation of the parameters of the agent-target relationship, including the relative status of each individual. Given that status affects behavior and the both agent and target can be either high or low status (Moscovici, 1976, 1985), the choice of influence strategy may be particularly determined by the status characteristics in an agent-target relationship.

According to Eagly (1983), in setting other than the workplace, power is also not equally shared between men and women. In the family, husbands generally have the overall power advantage for both routine decision making and conflict resolution, even though there are some areas of decision making in which wives have primary authority (Blood & Wolfe, 1960; Gillespie, 1971; Scanzoni, 1972). Also, in task-oriented groups of various types, men generally have higher status than women (Meeker & Weitzel-O'Neill, 1977) and are more likely to be perceived as leaders and to hold leadership positions (e.g., Megargee, 1969; Strodbeck, James, & Hawkins, 1957).

### **Leadership and Influence Strategies**

In simple terms, the essence of leadership is that the leader's influence is effective in getting goals accomplished. Katz and Kahn (1978) defined the essence of organizational leadership to be the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization. According to them, there are five reasons why organizations need leadership. In other words these 5 needs are the basic reasons for which an organization need a leader who can lead the employees to bring success for the organization and these needs are the reasons for an effective leadership. The greater the need in any of these areas, the greater the opportunity for an individual to exercise leadership. The five needs are:

- (1) *The incompleteness of organizational design.* No set of rules, plans, procedures or organization charts can describe perfectly what must happen within an organization if it is to survive and be successful. Leaders help interpret the rules and plans and fill the gaps.



- (2) *Leadership as a boundary function.* Organization defined as a system of interrelated sub systems. Leaders make the links between these subsystems.
- (3) *Changing environmental conditions.* The concept of an organization is an open system, interacting with its environment. Leaders get resources from the environment and make the environment more receptive to the organization.
- (4) *The internal dynamics of organization.* Organizations change and grow. Leaders prevent these changes from hurting the organization and its members and encourage positive change.
- (5) *The nature of human membership in organizations.* People come, go, and change. Leadership provides continuity and helps people adapt to change within the organization.

Leadership can also be viewed as the process of influencing people towards the achievement of some particular goal(s). A leadership style is viewed as the characteristic manner in which a leader exercises influence over the subordinates. Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik (1961, p.24) view leadership as “interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through communication process toward the attainment of a specific goal or goals”. In addition, they attempt to make a distinction between leadership and power. According to them, power is really an ability to, or potential for, influence. Leadership, on the other hand, can be distinguished from power by its action connotation, that is, the actual use of power by the influencing agent (leader) to achieve conformance to his or her desired goals. Gibb (1954, 1969) opines

that, like authority and power, leadership can be viewed as a process of relational concepts involving influence activities within a group. Both leadership and power are influence processes. The connecting link between the two is *influence*, whereas the distinguishing point between them is *action connotation*. Whereas power is the potential influence, leadership involves the actual exercise of power. So, leadership will be viewed as the process of influencing people in efforts toward the achievement of some particular goal(s). A leadership style will be viewed as the characteristic manner in which a leader exercises influence over the subordinates.

According to Northouse (2004), a comprehensive definition of leadership is that of a process in which an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Leadership style is by definition leadership behavior with two clearly independent dimensions: the task dimension that includes goal setting, organization, direction, and control; and the relationship dimension involving support, communication, interaction, and active listening (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988).

Despite the rise of women in management, many individuals still believe that men are better leaders than women (Bass, Krusell, & Alexander, 1971; Bowman, Worthy, & Greyser, 1965; Rosen & Jerdee, 1978; Schein, 1973). Furthermore, several studies have demonstrated that men and women differ in leadership behaviors and effectiveness (Bartal & Butterfield, 1976; Petty & Lee, 1975).

Again, a review of research indicated overall that women leaders are as effective as men (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). There are several views of how leadership is affected by a leader's gender. One view is that leadership actually requires both masculine and feminine characteristics, such as ego strength and expressiveness.

Another is that although the leadership role is masculine, some women can perform it because they have learned to act like men. Male and female group members who show masculine gender role characteristics are more likely to emerge as leaders of the group (Goktepe & Schneier, 1989; Kent & Moss, 1994). Several researchers have found that certain masculine traits, such as dominance, do not work for the female manager as they do for the male (e.g., Petty & Bruning, 1980; Watson, 1988). Subordinates tolerate and even support behavior in their male supervisors that they dislike in their female supervisors (Jago & Vroom, 1982). This may be due to the way leadership roles are defined. Research has shown that leadership roles are defined in either masculine terms, such as requiring more task-related ability, or feminine terms, such as involving more interpersonal ability. Men and women are judged more effective when they are "in-role" and less effective when they occupy positions that were defined for the opposite sex (Eagly et al., 1995). Powell (1993, p.175) noted that, "women and men do not differ in their effectiveness as leaders, although some situations favor women and others favor men".

A meta-analysis conducted by Eagly et al. (2003) showed women to be more transformational than men; the authors concluded that women may favor a transformational leader style because it provides them "with a means of overcoming the dilemma of role incongruity-namely, that conforming to their gender role can impede their ability to meet the requirements of their leader role" (p.573).

From the above discussion it is clear that there is a close relationship between influence strategies, power and leadership. It was found from the earlier studies that leadership is an influence process and there is a meaningful relationship between the two, i.e., power and leadership styles (Singh-Sengupta, 1997). It was revealed from that

study that the power is the capacity to influence the target and bases of power provide resources to the actor to influence the target. Therefore, it can be said that if power is one side of the coin, leadership style is the other. Both together provide a more effective base for the managers to influence their subordinates.

Studies relating to leadership with influence strategy have been concerned with evaluating leaders' use of strategies to influence subordinate and their effect on them (subordinates). Ansari (1980) conducted an exhaustive study of leadership styles in relation to upward and downward influence strategies and the result of the study find connection between leadership and influence strategies. Some studies (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Ansari, 1990) also reveal that the choice of a method of influence varies with the leadership styles.

Eagly and Johnson (1990) conducted a meta-analysis of studies that compared the leadership styles of men and women. They combined the results of more than 160 leadership studies and arrived at several conclusions. One is that the stereotypes of men being high in structure and women being high in consideration have been found in laboratory research with students but not in field studies with actual leaders. The researchers offered two explanations for this finding. First, in an organizational setting, environmental constraints and requirements may force male and female supervisors to adopt similar styles. Second, organizations may select women who have leadership styles similar to men's. In laboratory studies, subjects are selected more randomly, and there are fewer constraints on the leader behaviors that the subject adopts. Thus, whereas females may be inclined to supervise differently from men, organizational settings do not allow them to express that inclination.

On the other hand, when men and women compared on their autocratic or democratic tendencies, gender differences were found in both the laboratory and the field. Men have been found to be more autocratic and women more democratic in their styles. Eagly and Johnson (1990) pointed out that each style would probably be more effective under different organizational circumstances. They noted that research is needed to determine whether there are differences in actual supervisory performance.

Men and women have also been compared in the extent to which their subordinates see them as transformational. Bass, Avolio, and Atwater (1996), based on three samples, found that women were either the same or higher on transformational leadership than men. Unfortunately, their study does not permit conclusions about effectiveness. Nevertheless, it suggests that there are gender differences in leadership style.

### **Gender and Influence Strategies**

Gender is the symbolic role definition attributed to members of a sex on the basis of historically constructed interpretations of the nature, disposition, and role of members of that sex. It differs from a classification based on sex in that there is little evidence to suggest that gendered differences are biologically inevitable (while sexual differences are largely biologically determined); gendered differences are only sociologically inevitable and that "inevitability" may diminish with time.

The term gender is identified, first by differential power and, second, is associated with prescribed roles and with implicit and explicit meanings that cultures provide the necessary conditions for learning and maintaining. According to Murry

(1996), gender may be examined at three different levels: (1) as a system of social relationships in which gender interacts with, and influences, institutional structures; (2) as what people “do” in social interactions in accord with norms about what is appropriate for them; and (3) as an attribute used by individuals for self identification within their culture. In the words of MacKinnon (1987, p.8), “Gender is an inequality of power, a social status based on who is permitted to do what to whom”.

According to Brandser (1996), gender refers to the distinctive culturally created qualities of men and women apart from their biological differences. The construct of gender implies the way meaning associates with sex in members of a culture in terms of expected learned behaviors, traits, and attitudes (DeMatteo, 1994; Northouse, 2004). The concept of gender role is situationally constructed in organizations, and based on: masculinity involving aggression, independence, objectivity, logic, analysis, and decision, and; femininity involving emotions, sensitivity, expressiveness, and intuition (Fernandes & Cabral-Cardoso, 2003).

Considerable controversy surrounds the labels sex and gender. Some researchers use these terms interchangeably. Others have made causal assumptions - sex refers to biologically-based differences and *gender* to socially-influenced characteristics. Still others use the term *sex-related* to refer to comparisons between males and females that do not involve any causal inferences and gender is used when judgments are made about either biological or environmental causes (Berk, 1996; Deaux, 1993). Other related terms are *gender stereotypes* which are widely held beliefs about characteristics deemed appropriate for males and females in that culture, *gender roles* which are the reflection of these stereotypes in everyday behavior (Ruble & Ruble, 1982); *gender role identity* referring to the perception of the self as relatively masculine

or feminine in characteristics, abilities and behaviors; and *gender typing* which refers to the process of developing gender-linked beliefs, gender roles and a gender-role identity (Huston, 1983).

Further, sex denotes female and male and divides animals across all species into two groups on the basis of structural criteria related to reproductive functions and capacities. Gender, on the other hand, is a distinction that is specific and unique to human beings, and “does not flow automatically from genitalia and reproductive organs, the main physiological differences of females and males” (Lorber, 1994, p.17). Gender, is identified, first, by differential power and, second, is associated with prescribed roles and with implicit and explicit meanings that cultures provide the necessary conditions for learning and maintaining.

Risman (1998) identified three distinct theoretical traditions that help understand sex and gender. A first tradition focuses on gendered-selves -- whether the sex differences are due to biology or socialization? This focus is on the individual level of analysis, and encompasses social identities. Risman (1998, p.16) noted that all theories of the gendered-self posit that by adulthood, most men and women have developed very different personalities: women have become nurturant, person oriented, and child-centered while men have become competitive and work-oriented. This perspective has been widely embraced in consumer behavior and marketing; for example, consistent with the gendered-self tradition, Meyers-Levy's (1988) selectivity hypothesis asserts that the male agentic role is characterized by concern for self, while the female communal role typically embraces concern for both self and others. Such coupling of male and “masculine” and female and “feminine” has been criticized by many researchers, largely

because “gender” is seen to be dynamic in nature (Allen & Walker, 2000; Risman, 1998), changing for the individual on an almost continuous basis.

A second tradition focuses on how social structure creates gendered behavior. This approach argues that men and women behave differently because they fill different positions in institutional settings, work organizations, and families; in other words, they take on different gendered roles and, consistent with the role requirements, men and women in the same structural roles would be expected to behave identically. For example, Epstein (1988) found no documented differences that can be traced to the predispositions of men and women, concluding that differences between men and women are largely due to gendered roles.

Risman (1998, p.21) argues that there is a fundamental flaw in the logic supporting the gender role structure tradition: if women and men were to experience identical structural conditions and role expectations, then empirical gender differences should disappear. However, as Risman (1998, p.52) asserts, no society without a gender structure has ever existed; researchers have investigated role structures as close to gender neutral as possible (Coltrane, 1989; Risman, 1986), and still have found gendered differences.

A third tradition is the interactional perspective, which emphasizes contextual issues such as cultural expectations and taken-for-granted situational meanings. This approach was best articulated by West and Zimmerman (1987); once a person is labeled a member of a sex category, s/he is morally accountable for behavior as ones in that category do. That is, the individual is expected to “do gender;” gender is not something we are but something we do, or, in other words, “doing gender” means



creating differences that are not inevitable nor essential (Risman, 1998). Therefore, doing gender implies legitimatizing inequality, as what is female in a patriarchal society is devalued (Daniels, 1987; Kynaston, 1996). Scanzoni (1979) argued for this view of gender in family contexts, expressing the need to deal unambiguously with issues of reciprocity within a couple.

Risman (1998) argues that this tradition is also incomplete as it slights the institutional level of analysis, which includes issues such as distribution of material advantages between the sexes, formal organizational schemas, and ideological discourses. In other words, the links among gendered selves, situational expectations, and institutional gender stratifications need investigation (Connell, 1987; Risman, 1998). For example, women do gender in ways that support male privilege in family even when those women have overcome oppression and institutional barriers in others domains (Commuri, 2000; Risman, 1998). Such complex interplay of traditional and neo-traditional gendered selves cannot be understood unless the analysis is situated at the axis of the individual, the interactions among individuals, and the oversight of institutions.

As noted by Lorber (1994, p.32) "Gendered norms and expectations are enforced through informal [and formal] sanctions.... [and] Everybody gendered interactions build gender into the family, the work process, and other organizations and institutions, which in turn reinforce gender expectations for individuals".

According to Eagly (1987), that social roles will shape gender-related behavior and that behavior will be "constrained by its social context and, in particular, by men's more dominant social position" (Eagly, 1994, p. 518).

Gender differences in power have real consequences for women. For example, although women have made gains in the workplace, with more women working than in the past and women possessing approximately a third of all management positions (Colwill, 1993), women continue to experience wage discrimination, be excluded from the most powerful executive positions, advance more slowly in their careers, and experience fewer benefits from obtaining education or work experience (Federal Glass Ceiling Commission, 1995), and are included in fewer networks (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989) and exert less authority (Lyness & Thompson, 1997) than men in similar positions.

Research examining gender effects in social influence has tended to focus on gender differences in influenceability. Many researchers have acknowledged that men have greater access to social or interpersonal power than women do (e.g., Depret & Fiske, 1993; Johnson, 1976; Kanter, 1977; Lips, 1991; Lorber, 1998). In general, interpersonal or social power (i.e., power over) has been defined as having the potential to influence or control others (French & Raven, 1959; Henley, 1977; Johnson, 1976) or having control over valued resources or outcomes (Depret & Fiske, 1993). Men generally have more power than women do because men generally are more likely to possess those advantages than women are. Eagly (1987) argues that women's lower power occurs as a result of the different social roles to which men and women are assigned, with men occupying the worker role more than women and women occupying traditional roles in the home more than men.

Gender differences in influence strategy are mediated by gender differences in power. In the case of research on gender differences in influence strategy, men may exaggerate their use of direct forms of influence and women their use of indirect forms,

especially because some of the strategies (e.g., crying, demanding) are highly gender-type and subjects may want to appear to behave in a gender-appropriate manner.

Several researchers have suggested that men and women in formal work settings differ in their access to these organizational and personal power resources (Epstein, 1970, Kanter, 1977; Terborg, 1977). A popular illustration of this differential access to power resources in the exclusion of women from the 'old boys club': the informal network of connections in which much formal business is transacted. According to Kipnis (1976) and Lyle and Ross (1973), self-report measures of managerial behavior have found that females report treating male and female subordinates similarly, whereas males report-treating male and female subordinates differently.

There are clear research findings that support the idea that people's expectations about managerial behavior depend to some extent on a manager's gender (e.g., Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989; Russell, Rush, & Herd, 1988). According to Offermann and Kearney (1988) the gender of the target supervisor may also affect the strategies used by subordinates, with subordinates less likely to withdraw and more likely to try to reason with a male rather than a female supervisor.

Traditional gender stereotypes are a major reason for the negative perception of female leaders. Several studies have indicated a stereotype of the "typical" man and woman across groups differing in sex, age, marital status, and education (Krefting, 2002; Neubert & Taggar, 2004; Ridgeway, 2001). According to Becker, Aymen, and Korabik (2002) and Heilman, Block, and Martell (1995), traditional gender stereotypes depict men as effective achievers, competent, forceful, active, emotionally stable, independent, and rational, while women are generally perceived to be lacking in those attributes.

Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) and Vecchio (2002), found that traditional gender stereotypes depict women as deficient in attributes believed necessary for managerial success. These traditional gender stereotypes have been very resistant to change (Dodge, Gilroy, & Fenzel, 1995; Ruble, Cohen, & Ruble, 1984). A study of business undergraduate students published in 1988 still showed a preference for a male boss by both men and women (Frank, 1988). These traditional gender stereotypes, when applied to work settings, affect subordinates' perceptions of female leaders.

Some research has also shown that organizational members view female leadership negatively (Morrison, Greene, & Tischler, 1985). These negative perceptions of female leaders may come from role incongruence (Reed, 1983). Role incongruence occurs when a woman exhibits behaviors expected of leaders. Because of the incompatibility of the gender stereotype of women and the view of effective leaders, female leaders are viewed differently, often more negatively, than male leaders exhibiting the same behaviors (Atwater, Carey, & Waldman, 2001; Carli & Eagly, 2001).

The most recent meta-analysis of gender and leadership (conducted by van Engen & Willemssen, 2004) revealed mixed empirical evidence for gender differences in leadership style. The authors suggested that dichotomous conceptions of leadership styles (e.g. democratic versus autocratic), coupled with dichotomous variables such as gender or sex, may produce questionable results. They called for linking various dichotomies together "as if they represent aspects of the same underlying dimension" (p.16) and noted that empirical evidence suggests a complex reality that ought to be reflected in research designs.

Although earlier studies suggested that gender differences existed in the use of influence strategies (Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Falbo, Hazen, & Linimon, 1982), later studies suggest that the balance of power (Aida & Falbo, 1991; Howard, Blumstein, & Schwartz, 1986) and the cultural context (Belk et al., 1988) were of primary importance in strategy selection in intimate relationships.

Gender stereotypes are not universal throughout societies and ethnicities; they differ across cultures (Best, 2001; Durik et al., 2006; Gibbons et al., 1991; Harris, 1994; Kaufman, 2006). Variations of gender stereotypes have been shown to be affected by variables such as religion and urbanization, as well as by the magnitudes of the existing gender gap and power distance between genders found in the societies (Desert and Leyens, 2006; Eriksson and Lindholm, 2007; Frieze et al., 2003; Williams and Best, 1990). A recent study also indicated that positive economic conditions are related to more egalitarian gender role attitudes (Olson et al. 2007). Gender differences in self-construals have also generally been shown to be stronger in Western cultures. This has been interpreted as a product of self-stereotyping, that occurs when between-gender social comparisons are made, which are more likely, and exert a greater impact in Western nations (Guimond et al., 2007).

The strong traditional understanding of gender roles is also demonstrated by a recent survey, which revealed that 67% of the Austrian population are in the opinion that women are supposed to stay at home, care for the children, and not be employed (Dittmann and Scheuer, 2007).

According to Rao (1969), Hindu tradition and culture define women within a matrix of roles-all interpersonal. Her identity is wholly outlined by her relationships to

others; as the obedient daughter, as the faithful wife (and daughter-in-law); as the nurturant mother (more particularly of sons), as the all-powerful mother-in-law and then as the benevolent grandmother. Srinivas (1978), the noted sociologist, has remarked that the Indian culture has venerated the women in terms of these roles that she plays. The Indian woman's identity is thus wholly defined by her relationship to others.

Prakash (1995) has stated, Indian old women face "triple jeopardy". One, of being female in a patriarchal system, second, of being old in an increasingly materialistic society and third, of being poor in a developing country.

Kakar (1996) found that gender-role identity of the individual would integrate cultural, historical and psychological data in a description of the *Indianness of Indians* (p.2).

Bhogle & Seethalakshmi (1992) found that in Indian children, gender identity responses are given the earliest, by around age 3 or 4; then comes gender stability around the age of 5. Gender consistency is relatively slow to develop and even children around 7 or 8 have not yet attained gender constancy.

Studies by Das and Ghadially (1988), Feather (1978), Shenoy (1988) attest to the importance of beliefs about the sex linkage of occupations and the positive advantages that seem to occur when outcomes (success and failure) are consistent with gender-role expectations.

Bhogle & Menezes (1990); Shukla & Chauhan (1987); Vijayalakshmi (1987) reveals that some occupations are definitely gender typed. Moreover, occupations that

have traditionally been “feminine” occupations (Erb, 1983) continue to be the so-called feminine occupations even today, specially nurse, typist and receptionist. And they fit perfectly, the two roles prescribed for women by Prather (1971)-that of the glamorous female and of the nurturing female. In addition, none of them are positions of power-unlike the occupations gender typed as masculine such as doctor, engineer and manager. So, in Indian settings, social-roles play a vital role (Bhogle, 1999).

According to Ramu (1989), traditional sex-role socialization not only permits but conditions men to be dominant and train women to be submissive. The hierarchical relation between men and women as part of a patriarchal culture has been historically nurtured by religion, and the economic and legal factors, among others.

All these studies clearly support the Social-role model (Eagly, 1987; Schlueter & Barge, 1993) which posits that gender-based differences in choices of influence behaviors as well as perceptions of appropriateness of influence use are a result of gender-role expectations that “spill over” to organizational settings (Neiva & Gutek, 1981).

Few studies have actually brought women and men into the laboratory and observed the influence strategies use (Carli, 1989; Thompson, 1981; White, 1988). White (1988) found that men used more reward strategies than women, and women used more request strategies than men.

Carli (1989) found that gender differences in interaction style were larger in same-sex than in mixed-sex dyads; both women and men used more stereotypically

masculine styles of influence (task behaviors and disagreement) when paired with a man, and feminine styles of influence (agreement) when paired with a woman.

In an organizational simulation, Instone, Major, and Bunker (1983) found that women used fewer influence attempts and a smaller range of strategies than did men and used less rewarding and more coercive strategies than men did.

According to Kipnis et al. (1980), the frequency of use of strategies was related to the relative power of the agent and the target, and gender was not related to the choice of influence tactics. It was also found from various studies that it is power within the organization, rather than gender that has the greatest effect in choice of influence strategies (Kipnis et al., 1980; Offermann & Schrier, 1985). In the organizational setting, strategies selected appear to be closely linked to the goal of the influence strategy and the power relationship between the agent and the target.

Eagly (1987) and Eagly and Wood (1991) developed a social role model positing that sex differences in social behavior stem from gender roles, which dictate the behaviors that are appropriate for males and females.

According to person-or-gender-centered perspective, the attributes individuals perceive they possess vary according to their sex (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; Hennig & Jardim, 1977; Horner, 1972; Lodan, 1985; Riger & Galligan, 1980; Smircich, 1985). Men are hypothesized to perceive themselves as possessing masculine characteristics. They are aggressive, forceful, strong, rational, self-confident, competitive, and independent (Feather, 1984; Putnam & Heinen, 1976; Schein, 1972). Women are hypothesized to perceive that they possess feminine characteristics. They are warm, kind, emotional,



gentle, understanding, aware of others' feelings, and helpful to others (Feather, 1984; Putnam & Heinen, 1976; Schein, 1972). Gender-centered theorists have attributed these perceptual differences to a variety of causes, including (but not limited to) (a) sex role socialization on childhood and adolescence (Hennig & Jardim, 1977), (b) differential gender identity formation for boys and girls (Chodorow, 1978) and (c) the distinctively unique ways boys and girls construct reality (Gilligan, 1982).

Some researchers (e.g., Kipnis, 1976; Lyle & Ross, 1973) report that females treat male and female subordinates similarly, whereas males treat male and female subordinates differently. Other researchers (e.g., Mai-Dalton & Sullivan, 1981; Rose, 1978) report that leaders give preferential treatment to subordinates of their own sex.

Empirical research has revealed the inadequacy of a structural perspective that fails to acknowledge that people's expectancies about manager's behavior depend to some extent on managers' gender (e.g., Heilman, et al., 1989; Russell et al., 1988).

According to Powell (1988), men occupy the majority of jobs in the upper levels of organizational power hierarchies; women occupy the majority of lower level jobs. Also, according to the organization structure view, men's perceived masculine characteristics and women's perceived feminine characteristics are believed to be associated with their organizational level, not with their sex.

There are numerous studies conducted on gender differences in stereotypes of, expectations about, and self-reported use in influence strategies (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Cowan et al., 1984; Eagly, 1983; Eagly & Wood, 1982; Falbo, 1977; Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Gruber & White, 1986; Haas, 1979;

Howard et al., 1986; Johnson, 1976, 1978; Newcomb & Arnkoff, 1979; Offermann & Schrier, 1985). Differences in an actual behavior also have been reported (Instone et al., 1983). These studies imply that females and males choose, and may actually prefer, different influence strategies. In other studies also it was found that the sex and status of one's target (Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Offermann & Schrier, 1985) and goal may influence strategy use (White, 1988). Falbo and Peplau (1980) found that direct and bilateral strategies were used more by men and those with more power in their relationships, but indirect and unilateral strategies were used more by women and those with less power in their relationships.

According to Gruber and White (1986) men feel freer to use more types of strategies to get their way, and that women, more constrained by gender-role stereotypes, avoid masculine strategies.

Theories of the influence of gender focus on the effect of socially prescribed gender roles. According to social role theory (Eagly, 1987; Eagly, Wood, & Diekmann, 2000), cultures convey shared expectations for the appropriate conduct of males and females that foster gender differences in social behavior. As a result of gender role socialization processes, men aspire to enter male-dominated occupations seen as calling for "masculine" (i.e. agentic) personal qualities, whereas women aspire to enter feminine occupations seen as calling for "feminine" (i.e. communal) personal qualities (Wigfield, Battle, Keller & Eccles, 2000).

According to Sagrestano (1992) when power is considered, people with power choose strategies typically associated with men and those without power choose strategies typically associated with women, which indicates that stereotypes about

gender differences in use of strategies may actually reflect power differences that exist on a large-scale level in our society.

According to ***Social-role Model***, often referred to as Gender-role theory (Eagly, 1987), or gender-role socialization (Schlueter & Barge, 1993), gender-based differences in choices of influence behaviors as well as perceptions of appropriateness of influence use are a result of gender-role expectations that “spill over” to organizational settings (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Generally, these expectations stem from culturally defined gender-roles (e.g., husband, wife, professor, student, doctor, nurse etc.), which define a set of expectations for male and female behavior (Eagly, 1987). Status roles, for instance, may lead people to have unconscious, automatic expectations that men occupy positions of authority and use high-status behavior, whereas women reside in subordinate roles and, therefore, use low-status behavior.

High status behaviors have been shown to be more aligned with masculine stereotypes, and low-status behaviors have been found to be closer to feminine stereotypes (Mainiero, 1986; Sagrestano, 1992). Additionally, the traits and attributes necessary for managerial success resemble the characteristics, attitudes, and temperaments of the masculine gender-role more than the feminine gender-role (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, & Schein, 1989; Heilman et al., 1989; Schein, 1973; 1975; Schein, Mueller, & Jacobson, 1989). Numerous researchers have argued that women’s social status and gender-role are incompatible with the organizational status and role of a manager (Eagly et al., 1995; Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). This role incompatibility may create a dilemma for working women with regard to which set of role expectations they should fulfill: If they fulfill managerial role expectations, they violate status and gender-role expectations; yet if they confirm status

and gender-role expectations, they may not be perceived as effective managers (Eagly et al., 1992).

So, according to social-role model, women may fail to climb the corporate ladder because gender and status role-expectations (a) encourage the use of influence behaviors congruent with expectations but not associated with effective management (i.e., indirect influence behavior); and (b) discourage the use of influence behaviors incongruent with expectations but associated with effective management (i.e., direct influence behavior).

However, **Structural Model** suggests that organizational position, rather than gender-role expectations, affects the choice for influence behaviors as well as perceptions of appropriateness of influence use (Mainiero, 1986; Riger & Galligan, 1980; Schlueter, Barge, & Blankenship, 1990). In the structural model, individual traits and behaviors are de-emphasized as predictors of managerial effectiveness and upward mobility (Riger & Galligan, 1980). This model posits that influence use is directed by organizational status, role, and degree of perceived power (Fagenson, 1990; Kanter, 1977; Schlueter et al., 1990). This model contends that influence behaviors are a result of the organizational structure (Fagenson, 1990); that is, male and female managers use influence behaviors relative to their amount of power in the organization (Schlueter & Barge, 1993; Schlueter et al., 1990).

Because influence use is a consequence of structural power rather than a consequence of gender, the structural model claims that women use indirect and weak forms of influence because they typically occupy low-status and less powerful organizational positions than men. Consequently, these low-power positions provide

them with fewer opportunities to use direct and strong forms of influence. This contention was supported by Falbo (1982) and others (e.g., Howard et al., 1986), who documented that the use of influence tactics in interpersonal relationships was related to the balance of power within the relationship. For instance, Falbo and Peplau (1980) determined that individuals who perceived themselves as possessing more power used bilateral and direct influence tactics, whereas individuals who perceived themselves as having less power relied on unilateral and indirect tactics. Similar results were obtained by Mainiero (1986) in a work setting: Working men and women in weak and dependent positions reported using acquiescence and weak influence tactics.

Overall, the structural model posits that studies detecting gender-based differences in the use of influence behaviors actually may be detecting differences regarding gender-based structural power (Fagenson, 1990, Sagrestano, 1992). Supporting this contentions, Brass, and Burkhardt (1993) concluded that power, or the potential to influence, resides in the organizational position, not in the incumbent. The “position”, according to Brass (1984), is recognized by superiors and subordinates as the strongest source of power (i.e., ability to influence) as well as the greatest source of constraints on an individual’s use of influence (Brass & Burkhardt, 1993). Stated differently, the organizational position provides the context within which managers operate to exercise influence and, in addition, is the source for expectations and interpretations of appropriateness of influence behaviors. For instance, high-status individuals are expected to use stronger, more direct (Kipnis et al., 1980) and more assertive (Brass & Burkhardt, 1993) influence tactics than are lower status individuals.

Therefore, it is clear that structural model does not interpret apparent gender-based differences regarding influence expectations and behaviors as the primary

contributing factor to women's lack of organizational advancement. Instead, women's lack of upward mobility is perceived as a consequence of work structure and organizational practices, such as the distribution of power, rewards, and opportunities.

### **Rationale for the Present Research**

The rationale for the present research can be found in the unexamined questions that emerged out of the literature review. It is apparent from the earlier findings that gender differences in the use of influence strategies can be attributed to gender-role theory and structural power model, as well. However, findings are still not conclusive. Therefore, present research is planned on the bases of following rationale:

**Firstly**, by finding evidence and real explanation with regard to gender differences in the use of influence strategies, it will help us to bridge the existing gap in this area. It will enrich our knowledge in this field.

**Secondly**, if the gender differences in the use of influence strategies are mainly due to gender role theory, then it may have serious implications for extending possible explanation for the lack of career progress of females in the organization. Moreover, we don't have any specific studies on gender differences in influence strategies in Indian settings (to the best of our knowledge).

**Thirdly**, if the gender difference is due to power structure in the organization, then it will make it clear that lack of progress in the career of females can be taken care of by the equal distribution of power in the organization.

**Fourthly**, if gender difference in the use of influence strategy exists due to gender role theory or structural theory or both the theories are playing a role, then, it would be interesting to undertake research in this area as it will enrich our knowledge and help the organizations to get more success.

**Fifthly**, if only one theory i.e. social-role theory or structural theory play the important role in the use of influence strategy then what is the reason behind it. Also, it would be useful to explore why the other theory does not work in the same set-up. A study of these reasons will enrich our knowledge of strategy use.

### **Focus of the Problem**

From the above discussion it was found that there are various studies done earlier on influence strategies in relation to power, leadership, gender, role of status, etc. But according to Sagrestano (1992), the choice of influence strategies is likely to be affected not only by power, but also by gender. The relationship between these two variables as well as the independent contributions of these variables is currently unclear.

Since, adequate amount of support is available for studies related to selection of different influence strategies by males and females (due to gender role expectations and power status model), it would be interesting to investigate what is the real reason behind the different use of influence strategies by males and females.

Therefore in the present research following unanswered questions, which have emerged from the literature review, will be investigated:

1. Why females use different influence strategies; is it due to their gender-role expectations or power status?
2. At the same time, how their use of different influence strategies is related to effectiveness or in general to organizational success?
3. If they use different influence strategies due to gender role expectations, which could be conflicting with their organizational goals, how do they reconcile this factor? Do they really go beyond the gender role expectations?
4. If difference is due to power status, then the males at the same level of power should be using the similar influence strategies, does this happen?
5. If male and female managers use the same influence strategies then why female managers are still not getting the equal status as that of male managers in the organizational set up?
6. How the selection of influence strategies is related to adjustment outside the work environment?

The relationship of the variables studied in the present research has been presented in a diagrammatic form in Figure 1.

### **Plan of the Thesis**

The thesis has been organized in five chapters. Chapter 1 deals with the meaning, importance and classification of influence strategies and its relationship with bases of power, leadership and gender differences. Also, it reports relevant empirical findings. In addition, it states the gaps in the existing research and the unanswered questions.



Chapter 2 describes the first study of the present research work with all the details.

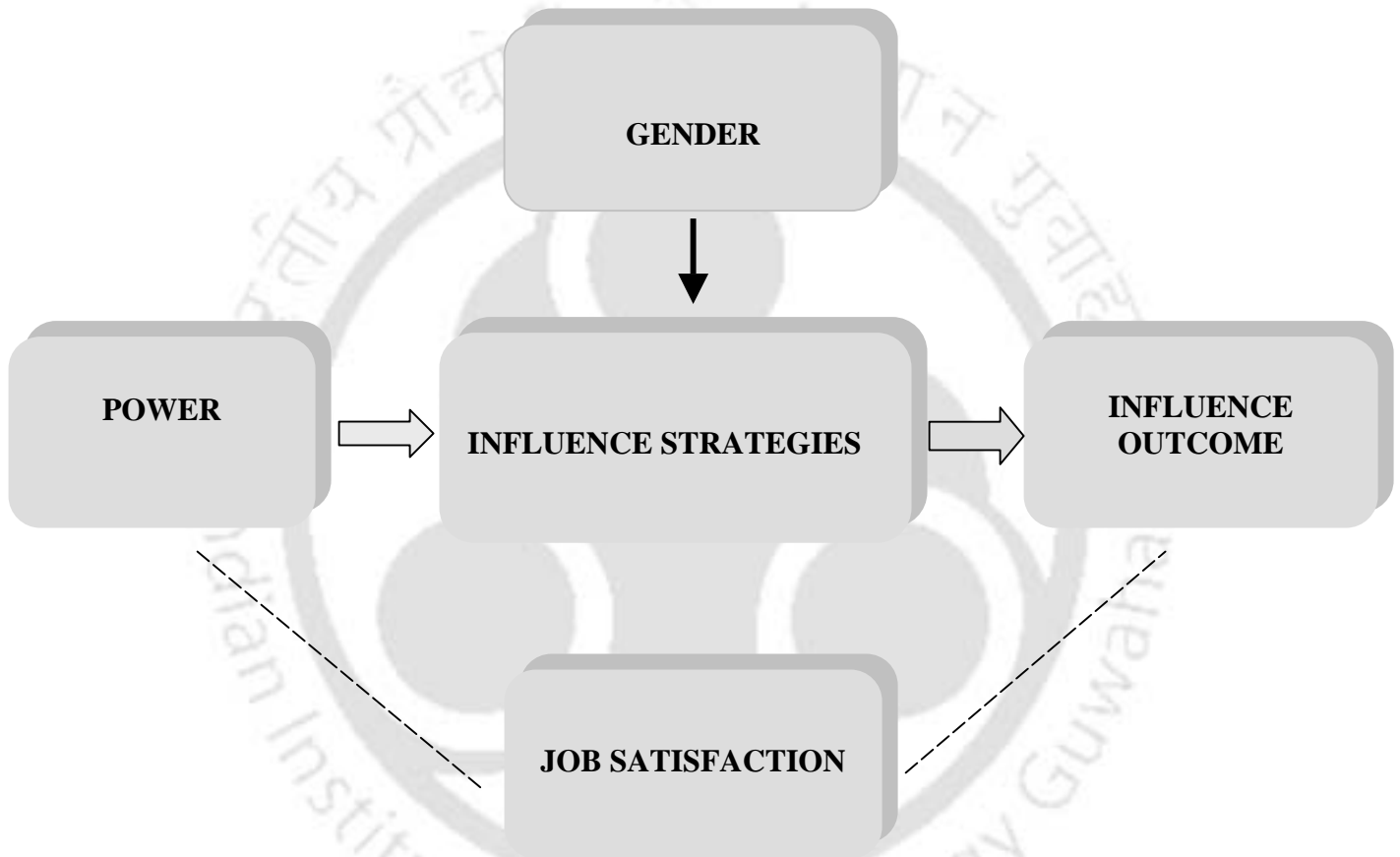
Chapter 3 describes the second study of the present research work. This chapter is divided into two sections, i.e. Section 3 A and Section 3 B. Section 3 A reports the questionnaire study, which was done on the sample of 17 organizations. Section 3 B reports qualitative analysis of data, based on interviews of senior executives of different organizations.

Chapter 4 describes the general discussion of the present research work. The results of all the three studies have been discussed in the light of the earlier findings.

Chapter 5 summarizes the major findings of the present research work, points out their limitations and implications, and suggests further research questions.

Figure 1

Figure depicting the relationship among the variables to be studied



## Chapter 2

### Study 1

#### Introduction

In the previous chapter, a comprehensive review of literature on influence strategies, bases of power, leadership and influence strategies, and gender differences in influence strategies was presented. It is quite clear from the review that there are, in deed, differences in the use of influence strategies in terms of gender. However, these differences are not as conclusive as one would like to see to have a final word on these differences.

One of the unanswered questions mentioned in the previous chapter was “Why females use different influence strategies; is it due to their gender-role expectations or power status?” In order to answer this question, the present study was conducted. However, it was felt that it would be better to measure bases of power for the different genders instead of measuring influence strategies, as the power is the capacity to exert the influence. Moreover, if the present study provides indications that there are differences in the genders in the use of bases of power, it would be appropriate to go for the further studies in this direction.

#### ***Gender Differences and Influence Behavior***

The effective use of influence in organizations is a critical determinant of advancement and success. One of the important issues addressed by organizational researchers is whether the glass ceiling effect is, at least in part, due to gender-based differences, specifically regarding influence expectations and behavior. That is, are there

differential expectations regarding how women and men should use influence behavior? Do women and men display gender-based differences regarding expectations of influence and actual influence use affect how female and male managers are evaluated?

Earlier researches suggest that men and women are generally expected to use forms of influence that are related to gender-based stereotypes (Carli, 1989, 1990; Cowan et al., 1984) or gender roles (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Research conducted in the early 1970s revealed that men are expected to use more direct and assertive influence behavior than are women (Johnson, 1976). More specifically, empirical research has demonstrated the tendency for men and women to use stereotypical forms of influence behavior in both interpersonal (Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Maccoby, 1988) and work (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Mainiero, 1986) settings. In work situations, for example, women report using personal/dependent tactics and negotiation (Offerman & Kearney, 1988; Offerman & Schrier, 1985); acquiescence (Mainiero, 1986); suggesting and smiling (Steil & Weltman, 1992); and altruism and rational tactics (Harper & Hirokawa, 1988). Alternatively, men report using tactics such as offering rewards, coercion (Offerman & Kearney, 1988; Offerman & Schrier, 1985), and punishment (Harper & Hirokawa, 1988).

At the same time there are some findings, which indicate that there is no difference across genders in terms of their use of influence strategies (Carli, 1989; Sagrestano, 1992; Dreher, Dougherty, & Whitely, 1989; Kipnis, et al., 1980; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). These results have been attributed to the fact that structural or situational variables such as relationship status (Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Sagrestano, 1992) and organizational position (Schlueter & Barge, 1993) govern an individual's selection of influence behavior to greater extent than gender.

Therefore, it can be noticed that there are two competing theories that attempt to explain the existence, or lack thereof, of gender-based differences in expectations as well as use of influence behaviours: (a) the *social-role model* (Eagly, 1987; Gutek, 1993; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Schlueter & Barge, 1993); and (b) the *structural model* (Ely, 1995; Kanter, 1977; Mainiero, 1986; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Riger & Galligan, 1980; Schlueter et al., 1990). Details of these two models have already been presented in the previous chapter.

To compare the competing predictions of the social-role and structural models, in the present study an experiment was designed in which female and male managers held identical organizational/structural positions and used (a) influence behaviours stereotypically associated with men (i.e., direct); and (b) influence behaviours stereotypically associated with women (i.e., indirect). In this way, we were able to assess the effect of gender-role expectations on the evaluations of female managers, controlling for the potential confounding effects of organizational role expectations. Specifically, this study examined the effects of manipulating (a) a manager's gender; and (b) a manager's influence use (i.e., direct or indirect) on managerial evaluations regarding four constructs known to affect organizational advancement and success. Those constructs are evaluations of (a) managerial power; (b) leadership effectiveness; (c) managerial attributes associated with managerial success; and (d) three types of influence outcomes (commitment, compliance, and resistance).

### ***Managerial Power***

Power is defined as the ability to influence others (French & Raven, 1959). A number of researchers have reported that managerial success and subsequent organizational advancement is determined by how power is perceived (Aguinis, Nesler,

Quigley, & Tedeschi, 1994; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Yukl et al., 1993). Power was operationalized by using French and Raven's power-base taxonomy: reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, and expert.

### ***Leadership Effectiveness***

Leadership effectiveness has been defined in many different ways (Yukl, 1994). In the present study, leadership effectiveness has been defined as a multidimensional construct consisting of nine dimensions: support, motivation, functionality, power, delegation, planning, decision making, problem solving, and team building.

### ***Managerial Attributes***

There are six traits that have been systematically attributed to effective managers: self-confidence, emotional stability, industriousness, leadership, logic, and responsibility. These attributes share two characteristics: (a) previous research has demonstrated that they are systematically attributed to effective managers (e.g., Brenner et al., 1989; Heilman et al., 1989; Powell & Butterfield, 1989; Schein, 1973, 1975); and (b) they are included in the most popular adjective checklist instruments, for example, Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974), Adjective Check List (Gough & Heilbrun, 1965), Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence & Helmreich, 1978).

### ***Influence Outcomes***

Influence outcomes refer to whether a manager is successful at influencing his or her subordinates. Yukl and his colleagues (Yukl, 1994; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) have identified three types of influence outcomes: commitment, compliance and resistance.

Commitment is defined as “an outcome in which the target person internally agrees with a decision or request from the agent and makes a great effort to carry out the request” (Yukl, 1994, p.194). Compliance refers to “an outcome in which the target is willing to do what the agent asks but is apathetic rather than enthusiastic about it and will make only a minimal effort” (Yukl, 1994, p.194). Finally, resistance describes “an outcome in which the target person is opposed to the proposal or request, rather than merely indifferent about it, and actively tries to avoid carrying it out” (Yukl, 1994 pp. 194-195). One can easily notice that commitment has more positive outcome compared to compliance and resistance.

Our expectations in this study were not in the line of previous studies (e.g., Aguinis & Adams, 1998) in which they had expectations, which were more towards the structural model. Rather, we expected that social-role would play a major role in our study due to cultural characteristics of Indian society (Joshi, 1990; Vardhan, 1992).

### **Method**

Participants were given a one-page speech of one female or male manager using indirect or direct influence behaviors and then answered questions regarding (a) managerial power, (b) leadership effectiveness, (c) managerial attributes and (d) influence outcomes.

### ***Participants***

A sample of 120 engineering undergraduate male students from a large urban, residential technological institute in the northeastern region of India participated in this

study. The participants' mean age was 20.83 (SD = 0.92) and none of them had any work experience.

### ***Procedure and Design***

Participants were randomly assigned to experimental conditions and read one of four vignettes. The vignettes depicted either a male (Anil Kumar) or female (Reeta) making requests of subordinates and using direct or indirect influence. Thus, this resulted in a 2 X 2 (managerial gender: female, male; influence use: direct, indirect) between-participants design.

### ***Materials***

Vignettes used in the present study were taken from Aguinis and Adams' (1998) earlier study. It may be noted that gender was manipulated by changing the names, i.e. Anil Kumar and Reeta. Vignettes used for direct and indirect influence strategies are presented in Appendix A and Appendix B, respectively.

### ***Measures***

After reading the vignettes as per the conditions, participants were asked to evaluate the manager on the basis of his/her address to the subordinates by responding to a questionnaire. Appendix C shows the items used to measure the variables described subsequently. All ratings were made on 9-point Likert-type scales, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 9 (*strongly agree*).



*Power bases perceptions.* Power bases were measured using French and Raven's (1959) five bases of power (reward, coercive, referent, expert, and legitimate) using a modified version of Hinkin and Schriesheim's (1989) power scales as adapted by Nesler, Aguinis, Quigley, & Tedeschi (1993). Additionally, credibility was measured using five items from Nesler et al. (1993).

*Leadership effectiveness.* To measure overall perceived leadership effectiveness, a four-item leadership effectiveness scale developed by Ragins (1989) was used.

*Managerial attributes.* The following six attributes of managerial attributes were measured in the present study: self-confidence, emotional stability, industriousness, leadership, logic, and responsibility. These items were taken from Aguinis and Adams' (1998) earlier study.

*Influence outcomes.* For measuring influence outcomes (compliance, commitment, and resistance), items were taken from Aguinis and Adams' (1998) earlier study.

## **Results and Discussion**

### ***Check on Effectiveness of the Influence Use Manipulation***

Four items were included in the questionnaire (see Table 2.1) to assess the effectiveness of the influence use manipulation (indirect/direct). A gender X influence use analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted using a composite of these four items as the dependent variable. As expected, there was a main effect of influence use,  $F(1,116) = 16.36, p < .001$ , such that the managers in the direct conditions were perceived as being more direct than those in the indirect conditions. Moreover, this

ANOVA yielded non-significant results for the main effect of gender and the gender X influence use interaction. These results confirmed the effectiveness of the influence use experimental manipulation and that the influence manipulation was not confounded with gender manipulation.

### ***Psychometric Properties of the Scales***

Table 2.1 shows reliability estimates for all the scales used in the present study. It can be noticed that all the scales used in the present study have moderately high alpha coefficients. In the case of effectiveness, it was more towards the higher side.

Means and Standard deviations for all the scales as per the conditions are presented in Table 2.2.

### ***Effect on Managerial Power***

In order to know the effect of gender and type of influence strategies on managerial power (coercive, reward, legitimate, referent, expert and credibility), an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on each dependent variable was conducted. Results revealed that in the case of legitimate power there was a significant main effect of gender  $F(1,116) = 4.30, p < .05$ . This shows that managerial roles were not evaluated positively; rather gender was playing a role in the evaluation of the roles. However, a comparison of means showed that female-direct condition was rated more positively compared to male-direct condition, which is a bit perplexing to explain. Ideally, female-direct condition should have been rated more negatively compared to male-direct condition. Although, the main effect of gender supports the expectations of the study.

In the case of referent and reward power, there was a significant main effect of type of influence strategies [( $F(1,116) = 14.71, p < .01$  &  $F(1,116) = 5.53, p < .05$ )]. However, a comparison of means in the case of referent power showed that male-indirect and female-indirect conditions have got higher ratings. On the other hand, in the case of reward power, male-direct and female-direct conditions have higher ratings. This indicates that direct managers were evaluated more positively.

### ***Effect on Managerial Attributes***

In the case of self-confidence, there was a significant main effect of gender  $F(1,116) = 6.12, p < .01$ . This indicates that managers were not evaluated on the basis of their roles. In the case of industriousness and logic, there was a main effect of gender [( $F(1,116) = 7.14, p < .01$  &  $F(1,116) = 7.65, p < .01$ )]. Also, there was significant gender X type of influence strategies interaction effect in the case of these managerial attributes variables [( $F(1,116) = 4.62, p < .05$  &  $F(1,116) = 6.49, p < .01$ )]. These results indicate that both the independent variables were playing their roles.

The above results indicate that there was a mixed contribution of both the variables. Therefore, it can be assumed that the expectations of this study were partly borne out. However, these results do not support the findings of earlier studies (e.g., Aguinis & Adams, 1998), which indicated that structural model is more prominent in the organizations. In Indian settings, social-roles play a vital role. Although, there have been a remarkable change in the work settings, roles, and expectations, still, by and large people expect roles, which are more compatible with the Gender.

The reasons for expecting roles, which are congruent with the gender, lie in the cultural characteristics of a society. For example, in Indian settings, traditionally, men are

given higher status due to gender. Moreover, to support the case for men, various qualities are associated with men, such as higher intelligence, better emotional stability, assertiveness etc. However, empirical findings do not support such myths. At the same time, for general population, these myths are so deep rooted that no matter how well-educated they are, again and again these myths have some bearing in their decision making process. As Joshi (1990, p.182) says, "The reasons for the presence of stereotyped ideas lie in the culturally prescribed behaviors which are deep-rooted in the backgrounds of most of us. These affect the relationship between men and women and create obstacles for women in the process of moving up the career ladder. There are sex roles underlying the pattern of male "superiority" and female "inferiority". Then there are the marital roles of husband and wife where power, intelligence and responsibility traditionally rest with the husband, while the wife is perceived as helpmate only. The same pattern is normally perceived at work where men are in leadership and decision-making roles and women are in the house-keeping and nurturing tasks. These culturally entrenched patterns are likely to affect the managerial decisions regarding selection and promotion of women".

Probably, these are some of the reasons that the present study has come up with mixed results, i.e., contribution of the both the variables (gender and type of influence strategy).

However, these findings should be seen with certain limitations. Apart from power and managerial attributes variables, other variables (leadership effectiveness and influence outcomes) did not have any significant relationship with the independent variables.

There could be two possible reasons for such non-significant results: firstly, the sample was drawn from final year engineering students, who did not have any prior work experience, and secondly, respondents were asked to read the speech of the manager and then rate them on certain managerial variables. It is possible that respondents were not able to visualize the actual situation. However, at the same time, these results provide enough evidence to believe that gender differences in influence strategies in the Indian settings should not be explained in terms of structural model. And, further research in this direction is definitely required.

The findings of this study prompted us to go for further studies, which are reported in the next sections.

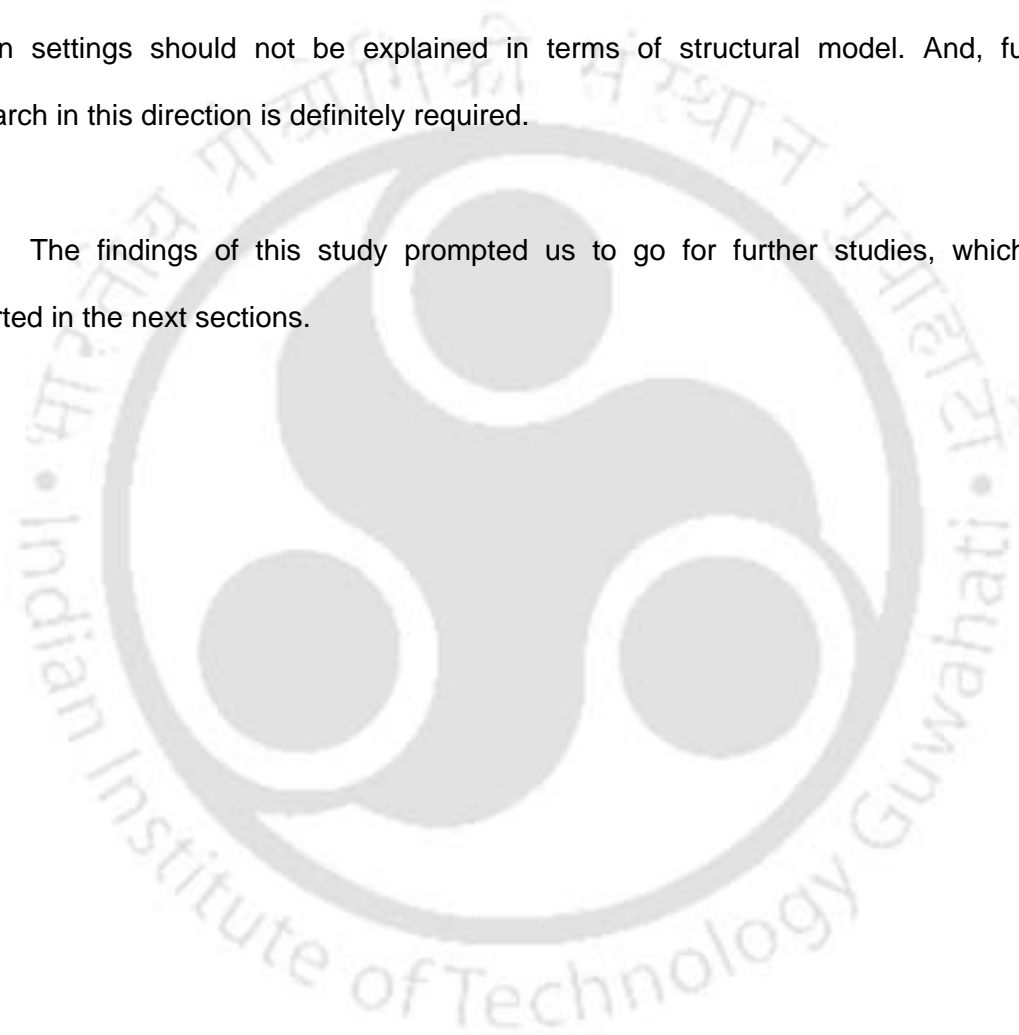


Table 2.1

## Scale Items and Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Estimates (N = 120)

Scale Items	$\alpha$
<b>Influence Use manipulation checks</b>	.72
Reeta is direct in her requests to her subordinates.	
Reeta is assertive when making requests of her subordinates.	
Reeta is indirect in her requests to her subordinates.	
Reeta is unassertive when making requests of her subordinates.	
<b>Power bases</b>	
<b>Coercive power</b>	.74
Reeta can give her subordinates undesirable job assignments.	
Reeta can make her subordinates' work difficult for them.	
Reeta can make things unpleasant on the job.	
Reeta can make being at work difficult.	
<b>Expert power</b>	.66
Reeta can give her subordinates good technical suggestions.	
Reeta can share with her subordinates her considerable experience and/or training.	
Reeta can provide her subordinates with sound job-related advice.	
Reeta can provide her subordinates with needed technical knowledge.	

Scale Items	$\alpha$
<p><b>Legitimate power</b></p> <p>Reeta can make her subordinates feel that they have commitments to meet.  Reeta can make her subordinates feel like they should satisfy their job requirements.  Reeta can give her subordinates the feeling that they have responsibilities to fulfill.  Reeta can make her subordinates recognize that they have tasks to accomplish.</p>	.70
<p><b>Referent power</b></p> <p>Reeta can make her subordinates feel valued.  Reeta can make her subordinates feel like she approves of them.  Reeta can make her subordinates feel personally accepted.  Reeta can make her subordinates feel important.</p>	.74
<p><b>Reward power</b></p> <p>Reeta can increase her subordinates' pay level.  Reeta can influence her subordinates' getting a pay raise.  Reeta can provide her subordinates with special benefits.  Reeta can influence her subordinates' getting a promotion.</p>	.64
<p><b>Credibility</b></p> <p>Reeta's subordinates can rely on what she says.  Reeta does what she says she will do.  Reeta follows up on what she says.  Reeta tells the truth.  Reeta's employees can believe what she tells them.</p>	.67

Scale Items	$\alpha$
<b>Leadership effectiveness</b>	.87
Reeta is an effective leader.	
Reeta displays effective leader behaviors.	
Reeta displays strong leadership abilities.	
Reeta is one of the best leaders in the organization.	
<b>Managerial attributes</b>	-
Reeta could be described as a leader.	
Reeta could be described as self-confident.	
Reeta could be described as industrious.	
Reeta could be described as responsible.	
Reeta could be described as logical.	
Reeta could be described as emotionally stable.	
<b>Influence outcomes</b>	.70
<b>Commitment</b>	
I will make a great effort to carry out the task.	
I will internally agree with Reeta's task.	
I will implement the task effectively.	
<b>Compliance</b>	.63
I will do what Reeta asks but will make only a minimal effort to carry out the task.	
I am not convinced that Reeta's task is the best thing to do or even that it will be effective for accomplishing its purpose.	
I will carry out the task but will be apathetic about it.	



Scale Items	$\alpha$
<b>Resistance</b>	.76
I will make excuses about why the task cannot be carried out.	
I will try to persuade Reeta to withdraw or change the task.	
I will ask higher authorities to overrule Reeta's task.	
I will delay acting in the hope that Reeta will forget about the task.	
I will make a pretense of complying but try to sabotage the task.	
I will refuse to carry out the task.	



Table 2.2

Mean and Standard Deviation (N = 120)

Variables	Gender	Type of Influence Strategies	
		Direct (A <sub>1</sub> )	Indirect (A <sub>2</sub> )
Manipulation Check	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	6.40 (1.01)	5.20 (1.51)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	6.48 (1.62)	5.55 (1.57)
<b>Power Bases</b>			
Coercive Power	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	5.03 (1.22)	5.04 (1.41)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	5.23 (1.87)	4.47 (1.73)
Expert Power	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	5.84 (1.40)	5.55 (1.22)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	5.60 (1.30)	6.02 (1.26)
Legitimate Power	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	6.40 (1.37)	6.40 (1.16)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	6.62 (1.03)	7.05 (.98)
Referent Power	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	5.36 (1.44)	6.05 (1.14)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	5.26 (1.45)	6.41 (1.20)
Reward Power	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	5.67 (1.13)	5.28 (1.16)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	5.81 (1.14)	5.17 (1.33)
Credibility	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	5.93 (1.04)	5.81 (1.14)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	6.37 (.94)	5.85 (1.23)
Effectiveness	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	5.38 (1.60)	5.08 (1.75)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	5.17 (2.03)	5.65 (1.70)
Managerial Attributes	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	6.10 (1.08)	5.55 (.91)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	6.14 (1.39)	6.57 (.69)

<b>Influence Outcomes</b>			
Commitment	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	5.90 (1.54)	5.72 (1.64)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	6.13 (1.70)	6.25 (1.58)
Compliance	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	4.37 (1.49)	4.70 (1.29)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	4.37 (1.46)	4.68 (1.58)
Resistance	Male (B <sub>1</sub> )	3.90 (1.25)	3.93 (1.22)
	Female (B <sub>2</sub> )	3.68 (1.46)	3.72 (1.30)



## Chapter 3

### Introduction

The previous study (Study 1) indicated that there is a role of gender in the use influence strategies, which is in line with arguments of Eagly (1987). Although, these results were mixed in nature, at the same time, there was an indication that gender might be playing a role in the use of influence strategies, especially in the Indian settings.

In order to further test these results, the present study was conducted, which is reported in the following section. Also, some new variables were added in the study, which are described in details. However, details of the variables which appeared in the Chapter 1 are not repeated here.

### Study 2 A

The present study tries to investigate whether Indian managers (male/female) differ in the use of different influence strategies or they use the same strategies to get success in the organization. If they are in the equal structural position in the organization, do they differ in the use of influence strategies toward their subordinates, peers and bosses because of their gender differences or they are using the same influence strategies to get success. In the earlier findings in the non Indian set up, it was revealed that the position power in the organization influences the use of influence strategies by the managers (male/female) and not the gender of the managers. But in the Indian set up where social-role model expectations were more than the structural

role model, here is an attempt to know whether the social-role model or structural model plays an important role in the use of influence strategies by the managers. Also, the present research's earlier study (Chapter 2) indicated the same. So, the researcher designed another study according to this view, where both the male and female managers who were working under the male or female bosses were taken and to assess the actual reasons behind the fact that whether in Indian organizational set up also this may be the same or it differs, that is, whether Social-role model or Structural model matters more in the Indian set up. Apart from this, some of the unanswered questions were related to organizational success, i.e. the relationship between influence strategies and variables, which indicate success in the organizations. For this purpose, job satisfaction was taken as an indicator of organizational success. The selection of this variable was based on premise that if the employees are satisfied with the job they will be committed to their organizations and will be making their best efforts for the organization and that will result in success.

Another purpose of this study was to further test the results of previous study (Study 1) which had indicated that there might be a greater role of gender-role perspective in the use influence strategy in Indian settings. Moreover, the present study was needed to find out answers to the unanswered questions raised in the Chapter 1. Some of the variables are being explained in details which did not find a mention in the earlier chapters.

### ***Upward Influence Strategies***

The role of target in choice of influence strategy would be particularly important when managers attempt to get things done from their bosses. Choice of upward

influence strategy would be primarily affected by the leadership characteristics of the boss. Kipnis et al. (1984) showed that people vary their influence strategies in relation to their objectives. People tend to use different influence strategies depending on whether their goals are personal or organizational, and depending on the organizational climate (Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984).

Now the question is why do people intend to influence their superior? This question relates to the goals of influence attempt. Broadly speaking, the goals of influence attempt may be of two types- personal and organizational. Personal goals may include securing benefits such as better work assignments or career advancement. On the other hand, power may be used to pursue organizational goals, for example, to encourage others to perform effectively, to promote new ideas, or to introduce new work procedures (Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984). Thus, managers seek to influence their superiors in order to achieve a variety of individual and organizational goals (Madison et al., 1980; Mowday, 1979; Schein, 1977). The studies by Kipnis and his colleagues (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1983; Kipnis et al., 1980) and Ansari and his colleagues (Kapoor et al., 1986) clearly point to the fact that managers vary their strategies in relation to their own objectives. Evidence (Kapoor et al., 1986) exists that the interaction between the objectives of influence attempt and superiors' leadership styles make little or no variation in the use of upward influence tactics.

Thacker and Wayne (1995) proposed that the particular tactics used will affect both the impression the subordinate makes and the individual's personal goal outcomes, such as in getting a promotion. They found that neither assertiveness nor ingratiation was effective, but rational persuasion did contribute to an impression of promotability. Deluga and Perry (1991) thought that upward influence effectiveness might depend not

only on the tactic used but also on whether the person is a member of the supervisor's in-group. They found some evidence of this. In-group members were more likely to report that their influence attempts were effective, and they used different tactics than out-group members. They were less likely to use assertiveness, coalition forming, and appeals to higher authority.

Kipnis et al. (1980) conducted a study using 165 university graduate students; 62 of their subjects described upward influence attempts. The most commonly mentioned upward influence strategies concerned self-preservation, supporting data, and coalitions. They found that ingratiation (e.g. acting humble, making the superior feel important) and rationality (e.g. developing details plans, explaining reasons behind requests) were the most frequently used upward influence tactics.

Nonis, Sagar, and Kumar (1996) focused on salespersons' use of six upward influence tactics with the immediate sales manager. Their results indicated that the use of upward influence tactics used was related to the salesperson's perception of role conflict and role ambiguity. Salespersons who perceive high role conflict employ assertiveness and upward appeal influence tactics more frequently. Salespersons who perceive high role ambiguity use exchange and coalition-building influence tactics more frequently.

### ***Downward Influence Strategies***

In downward influence, the superior is the initiator of the influence attempt; the subordinates are the recipients of the attempt. Of course, the terms "superior" and "subordinate" used here refer to *relative* positions in the organizational hierarchy, and

not necessarily to two positions at immediately adjacent levels. For instance, an example of a downward influence attempt could involve a vice president of sales trying to influence a sales representative who is several levels below the vice president. The key defining feature of downward influence is that, regardless of how close or far apart their positions are in the hierarchy, the influencer is at a relatively higher organizational level than the (potential) influence. Thus, the only individuals who could not engage in downward influence attempts, as we use the term, are those who are at the lowest operative level within the organization.

The most important characteristic of downward influence is the fact that the influencer has more formal authority than the target of the influence attempt. In fact, it is this element that makes downward influence an especially fascinating topic. This is because it is how the person with this kind of power chooses to deploy it that tends to determine whether successful influence has occurred. In many cases in organizations, the person with the greater formal authority misuses that source of power and thus produces little influence or even generates active resistance to influence. On the other hand, when formal authority is effectively employed it can serve as a major tool for generating influence with the target. The point to be made for the moment, however, is to emphasize that the influence agent has this tool available, and typically both the influencer and the intended recipients of downward influence attempts will be acutely aware of this reality.

Although in downward influence situations the hierarchical superior has formal authority available, it must also be kept in mind that she or he also has all of the additional bases of person power (expertise, charisma, etc.) potentially available to anyone in the organization. The formal authority differential is simply an “extra” not



available when lateral or upward influence is attempted. When formal authority is utilized together with one or more person-related powers, this can result in an especially potent force for downward influence.

There is another important consideration to keep in mind when analyzing downward influence situations. Typically, though not universally, the lower-level target recipient will be relatively more dependent on the higher-level person for rewards than vice versa. This means that ordinarily the recipient of a downward influence attempt will be more motivated to please the initiator than would likely be the case with a recipient in lateral or upward influence situations. Indeed, that is the major challenge for the influence agent in those situations: how to have an impact on someone who is not dependent on the influencing agent for rewards, or, for that matter, subject to credible threats or punishments. However, to reemphasize a point made earlier, in downward influence situations the existence of the typical dependency relationship does not guarantee that it is an easy task for the higher-level manager to use rewards effectively in bringing about influence. In fact, the imbalanced dependency relationship may add an element of complexity and difficulty to the circumstances surrounding the influence attempt. Nevertheless, in downward situations, the person attempting influence starts with the *potential* advantage of having the influence target be in a relatively more dependent position and thus initially predisposed to respond as the influence agent intends.

Studies relating leadership with influence strategies are few and far between. Most of them have been concerned with evaluating leaders' use of strategies to influence subordinates and their effect on them (subordinates).

Kipnis, Schmidt, Price, and Stitt (1981) examined the effect of leaders' use of influence strategies on their assessment of the followers' motives via employee evaluations. Their results revealed that the leaders who were expected to act democratically showed a greater use of noncontrolling influence strategies and those expected to act autocratically showed a greater use of controlling influence strategies. Further, leaders using controlling tactics reported that their subordinates were not self-motivated and those using noncontrolling tactics attributed the subordinate performance to their self-motivation. In yet another study, Singh (1985) investigated the effect of leadership styles on their influence strategies. He reported that four styles – people-orientation, power orientation, impersonal orientation, and suspicion and limited role-predicted the use of different influence strategies. For example, the suspicion and limited role style predicted the use of strategies like reliance, pseudo-nurturance, and diplomacy. In conclusion, it is only the leaders who influence and use different strategies to influence the subordinates.

A detail discussion on gender and influence strategies and related issues has already been presented in Chapter 1; therefore, it is not being repeated here.

### ***Job Satisfaction***

Job satisfaction refers to the positive and negative feelings and attitudes we hold about our job. It depends on many work-related factors, ranging from our assigned parking space to the sense of fulfillment we get from our daily tasks. Personal factors can also influence job satisfaction. These factors include age, health, length of job experience, emotional stability, social status, leisure activities, and family and other

social relationships. Our motivations and aspirations, and how well these are satisfied by our work, also affect our attitudes toward our jobs.

For some employees, job satisfaction is a stable, enduring characteristic, independent of the features of the job. Changes in job status, pay, working conditions, and goals have little effect on the job satisfaction of these people. Their personal tendency toward happiness (satisfaction) or unhappiness (dissatisfaction) varies little over time and circumstances.

There have been two approaches to the study of job satisfaction - the global approach and the facet approach. The *global approach* treats job satisfaction as a single, overall feeling toward the job and many studies assess people's overall satisfaction. The alternative approach is to focus on job *facets*, or different aspects of the job, such as rewards (pay or fringe benefits), other people on the job (supervisors or co-workers), job conditions, and the nature of the work itself. The facet approach permits a more complete picture of job satisfaction. An individual typically has different levels of satisfaction with the various facets. He or she might be very dissatisfied with pay and fringe benefits, but at the same time be very satisfied with the nature of the work and supervisors.

Job satisfaction levels have not been found to be the same across countries. For example, Marion-Landais (1993) found that Dominicans were more satisfied than Americans who were working for the same company but in their own countries, and several studies have shown that Japanese workers are less satisfied than Americans (e.g., Smith & Misumi, 1989). Spector et al. (2001) compared job satisfaction levels among managers in 24 countries and found significant differences.

There are a number of factors that influence job satisfaction. For example, one study even found that if college students' majors coincided with their jobs, this relationship predicted subsequent job satisfaction. However, the main influences can be summarized along the five dimensions that are identified are as follows:

- *The work itself* - The content of the work itself is a major source of satisfaction. For example, research related to the job characteristics approach to job design, shows that feedback from the job itself and autonomy are two of the major job-related motivational factors.
- *Pay* - Wages and salaries are recognized to be a significant but cognitively complex and multidimensional factor in job satisfaction. Money not only helps people attain their basic needs but is instrumental in providing upper-level need satisfaction. Fringe benefits are also important, but they are not as influential. However, recent research indicates that if employees are allowed some flexibility in choosing the type of benefits they prefer within a total package, called a flexible benefits plan, there is a significant increase in both benefits satisfaction and overall job satisfaction.
- *Promotions* - Promotional opportunities seem to have a varying effect on job satisfaction. This is because promotions take a number of different forms and have a variety of accompanying rewards.
- *Supervision* - Supervision is another moderately important source of job satisfaction. There seem to be two dimensions of supervisory style that affect job satisfaction. One is employee-centeredness, which is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes a personal interest in the employee's welfare. The other

dimension is participation or influence, as illustrated by managers who allow their people to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs.

- *Work Group* - The nature of the work group or team will have an effect on job satisfaction. Friendly, cooperative coworkers or team members are a modest source of job satisfaction to individual employees.
- *Working conditions* - Working conditions have a modest effect on job satisfaction. If the working conditions are good (clean, attractive surroundings, for instance), the personnel will find it easier to carry out their jobs. If the working conditions are poor (hot, noisy surroundings, for example), personnel will find it more difficult to get things done. In other words, the effect of working conditions on job satisfaction is similar to that of the work group. If things are good, there may or may not be a job satisfaction problem; if things are poor, there very likely will be.

To society as a whole as well as from an individual employee's standpoint, job satisfaction in and of itself is a desirable outcome. Some of them are as follows:

- *Satisfaction and productivity* - Although most people assume a positive relationship, the preponderance of research evidence indicates that there is no strong linkage between satisfaction and productivity.
- *Satisfaction and turnover* - High job satisfaction will not, in and of itself, keep turnover low, but it does seem to help. On the other hand, if there is considerable job dissatisfaction, there is likely to be high turnover.
- *Satisfaction and absenteeism* - When satisfaction is high, absenteeism tends to be low; when satisfaction is low, absenteeism tends to be high.

As in India social-role play a major role due to cultural characteristics of Indian society, our expectations in this study are that male/female managers differ in the use of influence strategy due to their gender differences. This expectation is not in the line of previous studies (e.g., Aguinis & Adams, 1998) that had expectations, which were more towards the structural model. Rather, here, the expectation is that social role play an important role in the use of influence strategies by the managers.

### **Method**

#### **Participants**

Two samples comprising of 125 and 96 middle level managers from different organizations including public, private, and govt. organizations of India participated in this study. A brief profile of organizations is given in Appendix D. Data were collected from 17 organizations, out of these, 11 organizations were in private sector, 4 organizations were government organizations and 2 organizations were in public sector. In both the samples, results revealed no significant difference across organizations. Consequently, data across organizations (in each sample) were merged for further analysis.

The first sample (N = 125, Male = 108, Female = 17) consisted of middle level managers working under male boss. The participants mean age was 40.84 years (SD = 9.14). The second sample (N = 96, Male = 69, Female = 27) consisted of middle level managers working under female boss and the participants' mean age was 38.18 years (SD = 8.15) and all the participants of both the samples had some work experience.

### ***Procedure and Design***

Participants were given a questionnaire consisting of four sections (Appendix E) including personal information. Section I consisted of the measures of bases of power (coercive, expert, legitimate, referent, reward, credibility), leadership effectiveness, managerial attributes (self-confidence, emotional stability, industriousness, leadership, logic and responsibility) and three types of influence outcomes namely, commitment, compliance, and resistance. Section II dealt with the measures of downward influence strategies with eight dimensions (rationality, negative sanction, ingratiation, personalized relationship, assertiveness, positive sanction, exchange of benefits, and showing expertise). Section III assessed the upward influence strategies with fourteen dimensions (reasoning, upward appeal, blocking, personalized help, exchange of benefits, ingratiation, showing dependency, persuasion, coalition, unclassified, showing expertise, manipulation, defiance, and diplomacy). Section IV had measure of job satisfaction with three dimensions (social, extrinsic, and intrinsic). A summary of the measures employed in the study is presented in Table 3.1.

After distributing the questionnaire the participants were requested to read all the questions carefully for all the four sections and then were asked to respond the questionnaire on a 7-point Likert type scales, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

## **Measures**

The measures used in the present study are bases of power, downward influence strategies, upward influence strategies, and job satisfaction. They are as follows:

*Bases of power:* Power bases were measured using French and Raven's (1959) five bases of power (reward, coercive, referent, expert, and legitimate) using a modified version of Hinkin and Schriesheim's (1989) power scales as adapted by Nesler et al. (1993). Additionally, credibility was measured using five items from Nesler et al. (1993). The psychometric properties of bases of power scale of the sample that is working under the male boss is given in Table no. 3.2. As one can ascertain from the table that the reliability coefficient of the scale is quite high and it ranges from .80 to .85. The psychometric properties of bases of power scale of the sample that is working under the female boss is given in Table no. 3.3. It can be seen that even in this sample also the reliability coefficient is quite high and it ranges from .70 to .84.

*Leadership effectiveness:* To measure overall perceived leadership effectiveness, a four-item leadership effectiveness scale developed by Ragins (1989) was used. The psychometric properties of leadership effectiveness scale of the sample that is working under male supervisor is given in Table no. 3.4. It can be observed that the reliability coefficient is quite high that is .93 while in the case of sample working under female supervisor the reliability coefficient is .91 and the psychometric properties of the scale are given in Table no. 3.5.



*Managerial attributes:* The following six attributes of managerial attributes were measured in the present study: self-confidence, emotional stability, industriousness, leadership, logic, and responsibility. These items were taken from Aguinis and Adams' (1998) earlier study. The psychometric properties of managerial attributes scale of the sample that is working under the male boss is given in Table no. 3.6. It can be observed that the reliability co-efficient is quite high that is .84 while in the case of sample working under female supervisor the reliability coefficient is .77 and the psychometric properties of the scale are given in Table no. 3.7.

*Influence outcomes:* For measuring influence outcomes (compliance, commitment, and resistance), items were taken from Aguinis and Adams' (1998) earlier study. The psychometric properties of influence outcome scale of the sample that is working under the male boss is given in Table no. 3.8. It can be observed that the reliability co-efficient ranges from .47 to .80 while in the case of sample working under female supervisor the reliability coefficient ranges from .41 to .73 and the psychometric properties of the scale are given in Table no. 3.9.

*Downward influence strategies:* For measuring downward influence strategies items were taken from various sources available in current literature (e.g. Falbo, 1977; Kipnis et al., 1980). This measure included downward influence strategies of rationality, assertiveness, ingratiation, use of sanctions, showing expertise, personalized relationship and exchange of benefits. The distribution of items was presented in the Table no. 3.10. Respondents were asked to indicate on a 7-point scale (1 = Never; 7 = Always) the frequency with which their boss engaged during the past six months in the behaviors indicated by the scale items. The psychometric properties of downward influence strategies scale of the sample that is working under the male boss is given in

Table no. 3.11. It can be observed that the reliability co-efficient ranges from .51 to .81 while in the case of sample working under female supervisor the reliability coefficient ranges from .54 to .82 and the psychometric properties of the scale are given in Table no. 3.12.

*Upward influence strategies:* For measuring upward influence strategies 55 items were drawn from the recent works by Falbo (1977), Falbo and Peplau (1980), and Kipnis et al. (1980). These items were also used by Ansari (1990). The measures included upward influence strategies of ingratiation, defiance, diplomacy, reasoning, personalized help, persuasion, coalition, unclassified, upward appeal, blocking, manipulation, exchange of benefits, showings dependency, and showing expertise. The distribution of items was presented in the Table no. 3.13. Respondents were asked to indicate on a 7-point scale (1 = Never; 7 = Always) the frequency with which during the past six months they engaged in the behaviors described by the scale items to influence their immediate superior at work. They were instructed to answer in terms of what they generally did, not what they would like to do. In female data the item no. 12, 18 and 33 were reversed to get reliability in a positive direction. The psychometric properties of upward influence strategies scale of the sample that is working under the male boss is given in Table no. 3.14. It can be observed that the reliability co-efficient ranges from .50 to .81 while in the case of sample working under female supervisor it ranges from moderate to high and the psychometric properties of the scale are given in Table no. 3.15.

*Job satisfaction:* Job satisfaction measures were taken from Schnake's (1983) eleven items scale, having three dimensions – social satisfaction, extrinsic satisfaction, and intrinsic satisfaction. Subjects were asked to respond to these items on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 = very satisfied to 7 = very dissatisfied, indicating the amount of their

satisfaction. Since rating scale was in opposite direction with relation to other measures in the present study, therefore item scores in this measure were reversed. The psychometric properties of job satisfaction scale of the sample that is working under the male boss is given in Table no. 3.16. It can be observed that the reliability co-efficient ranges from .66 to .74 while in the case of sample working under female supervisor the reliability coefficient ranges from .65 to .81 and the psychometric properties of the scale are given in Table no. 3.17.

### **Results and Discussion**

As indicated earlier, this study was conducted on two different samples, namely, middle level managers working under male boss and female boss from different organizations including private, public and government sectors. The prime objective of the study is to investigate the gender differences in influence strategies used by the managers. It also aims to explore why such differences exist in Indian organizations, and how it is related to organizational success. Initially, factor analysis in both the samples on different measures (e.g. bases of power, downward influence strategy, upward influence strategy and job satisfaction) was carried out. However, factor structures in both the samples across different measures were very different. Under such circumstances, it was decided to use original factor structures as proposed by the researchers, who had developed these measures.

#### ***Effect of Gender on Bases of Power***

In order to study the effect of gender on bases of power, an ANOVA with 2 (gender: male vs female) X 6 (bases of power: coercive, expert, legitimate, referent,

reward, credibility) design was carried out, while the later factor was a repeated measure (Table 3.18).

ANOVA results indicated that there is no significant main effect of gender on the bases of power. This implies that gender does not play a vital role in the use of different influence strategies by the managers. Similar findings have been found in other studies. For example, Trempe et al., (1985), in a simulation with semiskilled employees in a pharmaceutical manufacturing company, reached a conclusion similar to that of Ragins (1991) which confirm that it is the power subordinates associate with women and men managers, not their gender per se, that influences how subordinates evaluate them. Additionally, Snodgrass (1992), in a laboratory simulation of an employee-boss exchange with college student role players, found that status, not gender, predicted a woman's and men's influence.

It can also be observed that there is significant main effect of bases of power [ $F(5, 1095) = 172.25, p < .0001$ ] and also significant interaction effect of both the variables [ $F(5, 1095) = 2.66, p < .05$ ].

Main effect of bases of power dimensions indicates that all the six factors are distinct and the participants are able to see the differences in the use of the different dimensions of bases power.

### ***Effect of Gender on Downward Influence Strategies***

In order to study the effect of gender on downward influence strategies, an ANOVA with 2 (gender: male vs female) X 8 (downward influence strategies: rationality,

use of sanctions-positive/negative, ingratiation, personalized relationship, assertiveness, exchange of benefits, showing expertise) design was carried out, while the later factor was a repeated measure (Table 3.19).

ANOVA results indicated that there is no significant main effect of gender on the downward influence strategies. This implies that gender does not play a vital role in the use of different downward influence strategies by the managers. This result gets the support from the earlier study of Kipnis et al. (1980), which found that male and female managers considered similar strategies toward subordinates in organizational settings.

It can also be observed that there is significant main effect of downward influence strategies [ $F(7, 1533) = 245.51, p < .0001$ ].

Main effect of downward influence strategies indicates that all the eight factors are distinct and the participants are able to see the differences in the use of the different dimensions of downward influence strategies.

#### ***Effect of Gender on Upward Influence Strategies***

In order to study the effect of gender on upward influence strategies, an ANOVA with 2 (gender: male vs female) X 14 (upward influence strategies: reasoning, upward appeal, blocking, personalized help, exchange of benefits, ingratiation, showing dependency, persuasion, coalition, unclassified, showing expertise, manipulation, defiance, diplomacy) design was carried out, while the later factor was a repeated measure (Table 3.20).

ANOVA results indicated that there is no significant main effect of gender on the upward influence strategies. This implies that gender does not play a role in the use of different upward influence strategies by the managers. Similar results have also been found in other studies. For example, a study by Offermann and Schrier (1985) found that there is no sex difference in the use of influence strategies like reasoning, withdrawal, pressure or unilateral strategies. With the exception of indirect strategies, these differences are consistent with stereotypical beliefs. The stereotypical assumption that women make greater use of indirect styles of influence was not supported in the organizational interaction examined; in fact, the opposite was found.

It can also be observed that there is significant main effect of upward influence strategies [ $F(13, 2847) = 211.86, p < .0001$ ] and also significant interaction effect of both the variables [ $F(13, 2847) = 3.1, p < .0001$ ].

Main effect of upward influence strategies indicates that all the fourteen factors are distinct and the participants are able to see the differences in the use of the different dimensions of upward influence strategies.

#### ***Effect of Gender on Job Satisfaction***

In order to study the effect of gender on job satisfaction, an ANOVA with 2 (gender: male vs female) X 3 (job satisfaction: social, extrinsic, intrinsic) design was carried out, while the later factor was a repeated measure (Table 3.21).

ANOVA results indicated that there is no significant main effect of gender on job satisfaction. This implies that gender of the managers, alone, does not play a vital role in

the job satisfaction of the employees. It can also be observed that there is significant main effect of job satisfaction [ $F(2, 438) = 42.85, p < .0001$ ].

Main effect of job satisfaction indicates that all the three factors are distinct and the participants are able to see the differences in the job satisfaction of the employees.

### ***Effect of Gender on Influence Outcome***

In order to study the effect of gender on influence outcome, an ANOVA with 2 (gender: male vs female) X 3 (influence outcome: commitment, compliance, resistance) design was carried out, while the later factor was a repeated measure (Table 3.22).

ANOVA results indicated that there is no significant main effect of gender on influence outcome. This implies that gender of the managers, alone, does not play a vital role in the influence outcome of the influence strategies used by the managers. It can also be observed that there is significant main effect of influence outcome [ $F(2, 438) = 727.75, p < .0001$ ].

Main effect of influence outcome indicates that all the three factors are distinct and the participants are able to see the differences in the influence outcome.

From the above results it can be observed that there is no significant effect of gender on the influence strategies used by managers. This implies subordinates who work under the male or female boss perceive no difference in the influence strategies used by them. This result is supported by similar findings.

Ragins (1991) found that perceived leader power accounted for more of the incremental variance in leader ratings than leader gender. Thus these analyses confirm that it is the power subordinates associate with women and men managers, not their gender per se, that influences how subordinates evaluate them.

Ronk (1993) claimed that leadership style is independent from gender. Butterfield and Powell (1981) support Ronk's conclusion. Campbell, Bommer, and Yeo (1993) also concluded that gender has no substantive impact on leadership style.

Steffen and Eagly (1985) found that knowledge of the relative status of an influencer and target affects one's beliefs about influence styles and their consequences. High-status influencers addressing low-status targets were thought more likely to speak directly and impolitely than low-status influencers addressing high-status targets. As expected, status played a more decisive role than sex in determining people's beliefs about influence styles, but contrary to prediction, women and men without job titles were believed to be status equal.

The above results are not in the line of expectations as there was hardly any main effect of the gender. Employees working under male or female boss did not perceive any difference in the influence strategies of their boss on the basis of gender of the boss.

These diminishing differences can be explained in terms of changes taking place within the Indian society. Stereotypical role definitions are getting weaker day by day and there is an increased tolerance for the unconventional gender roles. It is not uncommon in today's Indian society to see females doing some of the jobs, which were at one point



of time, thought to be fit only for males. Even, within families, there is an appreciation for the females who are employed. Of course, just on the basis of one piece of research one should not try to too generalize the findings. However, the signs of changes are apparently visible through this research.

Apart from analyzing the differences between the samples working under male and female boss, an attempt was also made to see how influence strategies and bases of power help the organization to succeed. These results are reported below.

### ***Correlation between Bases of Power and Job Satisfaction***

It is clear from the Table 3.23 that in the case of sample reporting to male boss legitimate power and credibility are significantly correlated with extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction. Expert and referent power have significant positive correlation with intrinsic satisfaction. In case of legitimate power there is a significant positive correlation with social satisfaction.

In case of the sample reporting to female boss (Table 3.24) it was found that expert, legitimate, referent and credibility dimension of bases of power have significant positive correlations with intrinsic and social satisfaction. It is interesting to note that coercive power has significant negative correlation with all the three dimensions of job satisfaction.

From the above results we can conclude that by using the expert, legitimate, referent and credibility dimensions of power both male and female managers are able to satisfy their employees intrinsically which lead to organizational success. Also in case of

male boss sample, the employees are extrinsically satisfied when managers use legitimate power and credibility. The employees also get social satisfaction when legitimate power is in use. On the other hand, in the female boss sample the employees get social satisfaction as well as intrinsic satisfaction when managers use expert, legitimate, referent and credibility dimensions of bases of power upon the employees which lead to organizational success. At the same time, using coercive power may lower the satisfaction of the employees in the work place. So, we can say bases of power play an important role in the satisfaction level of the employees which lead to organizational success.

#### ***Correlation between Downward Influence Strategies and Job Satisfaction***

It is clear from the Table 3.25 that for sample reporting to male boss, ingratiation dimension of downward influence strategy there is a significant positive correlation with intrinsic satisfaction, whereas there is a negative correlation between negative sanction and extrinsic and social dimensions of job satisfaction.

On the other hand in case of the sample reporting to female boss it is clear from the Table 3.26 that there is a significant negative correlation of negative sanction with all the three dimensions of job satisfaction.

#### ***Correlation between Upward Influence Strategies and Job Satisfaction***

It is clear from the Table 3.27 that in case of the sample reporting to male boss most of the correlations are negative. A closer look at these correlations indicates that most of the correlations are between low to moderate level of correlations. That means

under the male boss, employees' upward influence attempts are not bearing much fruits and the more they try to influence the male boss, it is likely to decrease their satisfaction level.

On the other hand in case of the sample reporting to female boss it is clear from the Table 3.28 there is a positive correlation between diplomacy and extrinsic satisfaction. However, most of the other correlations are negative.

By looking at the above results it may be speculated that there is a positive correlation between variables like bases of power, downward influence strategies and upward influence strategies with job satisfaction. In fact, most of the other empirical research has supported this relationship. At the same time, some negative correlations, which appeared in this research, are quite surprising and a bit hard to explain.

Apart from collecting data from subordinates regarding the use of influence strategies and other variables, some of top male and female executives were interviewed in order to understand their point of view regarding gender differences in the use of influence strategies. This study is reported in the next section.

## **Study 2 B**

### **Introduction**

This study makes further attempt to explore the types of influence strategies used by the top managers and whether gender differences matter in using the influence strategies by these managers. However, this study was qualitative in nature. The main

purpose of this study was to know the views of senior executives regarding gender differences. Since senior executives have traveled a long journey to reach the present position, they must have encountered these issues during their tenure and their views will definitely help the research to understand underlying dynamics of gender and influence strategies.

## **Method**

### ***Participants***

A sample of 30 top executives (15 male and 15 female) of different organizations from India (including private, public and government organizations) were taken for this purpose. All the executives have subordinates (male/female) under them and all of them have minimum ten years of job experience.

Interview was conducted with the help of an Interview Schedule prepared for this purpose (Appendix F). The items of this Interview Schedule were divided into three parts. These are:

- The first part consists of items related to the success path of the executives (item 1 to item 4).
- The second part has questions related to issues at work place, for example, discrimination, preference, leadership styles and adjustment issues with regard to gender (item 5 to item 11).
- The third and last section of this interview schedule contains questions on adjustment between home and work place (item 12 to item 15); however question no. 13 and 15 are only for the female executives.

### **Procedure**

For conducting the interview first an appointment was taken from the executives and then at the scheduled time researcher visited the office of the executive. The interview was conducted with the help of interview schedule and the time duration of the interviews ranged from 30 minutes to 1 hour. The interviews were recorded with the help of a tape recorder. The biographical details of the interviewees are given in Appendix G.

### **Analysis and Discussion**

The data collected from the interview were qualitatively analyzed using content analysis.

From the questions of the first part of the schedule it was found that all the executives (male and female) reach their present position with their hard work, honesty and sincerity for the work. All of them are well educated i.e. from minimum graduation to maximum doctorate degree. All of them come from a different family background. Among them some come from a very poor family background but still they reach the senior management position only through strong determination and dedication to work. The female executives had the opinion that being a woman one has to work much harder than man to get success. However, because of their gender they did not face any problem in their work setting, which otherwise would have hindered their success path. In their opinion, it is the individual's performance which counts for success in the organization and not the gender.

According to male executives if anyone has the strong motivation and confidence, then he/she will be able to face all kinds of problems/hurdles and challenges and by overcoming those he/she gets success and there is no question of gender differences. Both male and female executives have the same opinion that they did not face any problem due to their gender to achieve this success path.

In the second part, the interviewees were asked about their leadership styles, discrimination due to their gender in the work place and related questions. It was found from both male and female responses that they do not use different influence style to influence their superiors, peers and subordinates. They use the same style of influence. But only in case of women subordinates they are little bit softer than male subordinates otherwise they do not change their style to get the work done from different hierarchical levels in the organization. Both male and female executives have the opinion that every individual is different from the other individual, therefore in dealing with each and every individual there may be some change in style due to person's nature, trait, personality etc. and that totally depends on person and not on the gender. It was also found from the results that male and female executives do not give any preference to the female employees when it comes to allocating work, or at the time of performance appraisal. They treat them equally in case of performance appraisal.

However, they are little bit cautious while dealing with a female employee in using language and maintaining decorum. Executives emphasized that it is their hard work, which has helped them to reach the present position. The negation of gender role was quite apparent in their interview.

In the third and last part that was focused on home and work adjustment related questions, the male executives said that they did not have many problems in adjusting their home and work place demands. When they were asked how they will distribute 100 marks between home and work place, they mentioned that they give around 60% to work and 40% to home. At the same time they have the opinion that both home and work front are equally important. But, sometimes it is very difficult for them to give time to their home front due to their job demand. From their side they do their best to strike a balance between their home and work setting with the support from their spouses at home front.

But for the female executives this was not so easy because they have to play the role of a mother, wife, daughter, sister, etc. at home along with their responsibility at the work place. In their opinion, to be a successful manager, women should be a very good actor. Because women play different roles at their home as well as work setting and to balance both the settings is really very tough. Female executives emphasized the importance of family support and proper time management.

Some of the female executives mentioned that they faced little problems when their children were small and when they needed much care and attention. But they managed to maintain a balance at home and work front with the support from their family.

When the female executives were asked to distribute 100 marks between home and work place, few of them distributed equal marks for both, while some gave around 60% to home.

Lastly, all the women executives are happy about their success in the organization as they are being recognized by the organization, which is mainly due to their capabilities. Most of them are feeling happy because as a woman they got success in this male dominated society and have been able to maintain balance on the both front. Some of them are of the opinion that they feel happy as a person and not only as a female member who has achieved success because when a women gets a chance in career progression based on her competency only, it gives a very good feeling, a sense of satisfaction. It also gives her a chance to feel independent and also make her own identity.

From the above discussion it was found that it is not the gender which plays a vital role in the influence strategy used by the managers (male/female). Both male and female managers seem to use same pattern of influence strategies to influence the superiors, peers and subordinates to get the things done for the organization.

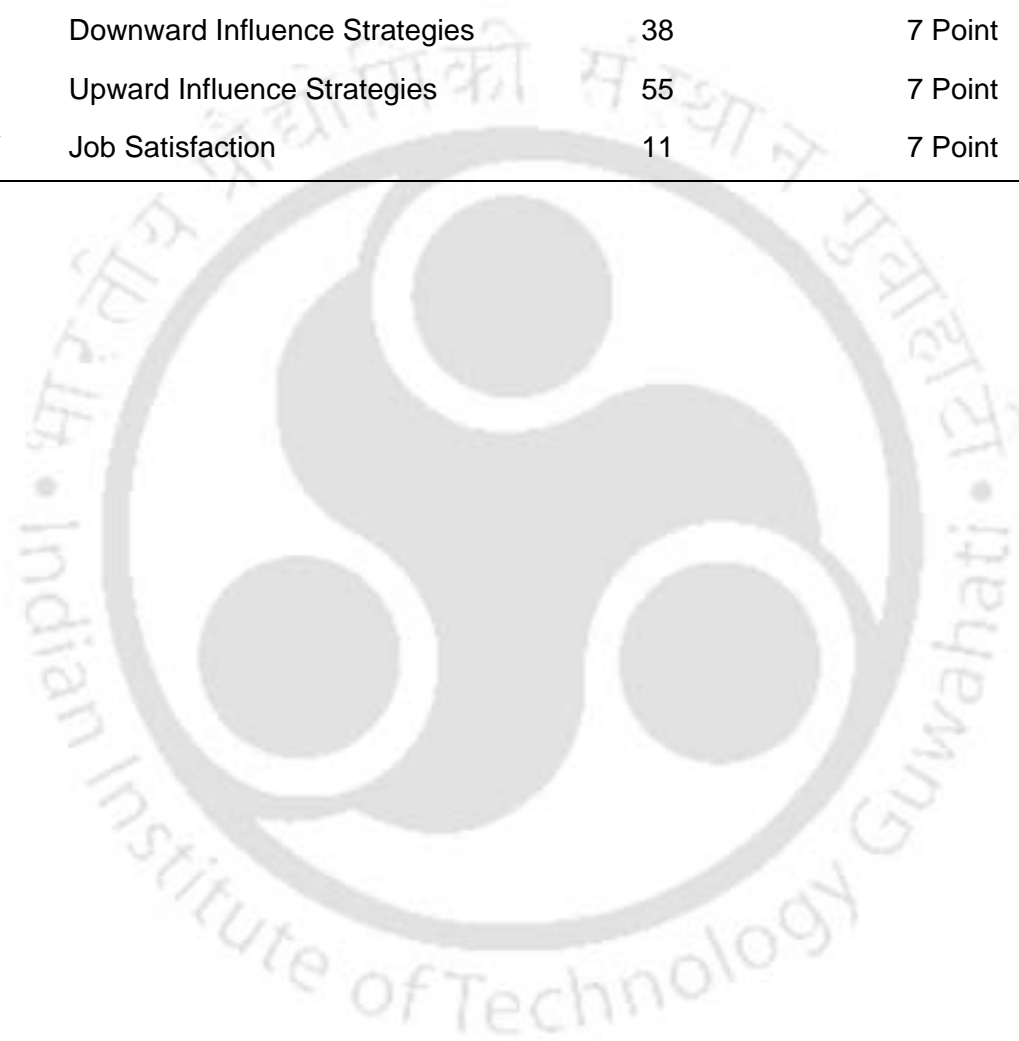
Above interview results provide credence to earlier findings reported in Study 2 A that gender role are getting diminished and this is no more a crucial variable when it comes to use of influence strategies. Again, this line of thinking can be supported by the earlier studies (for e.g., Maineiro, 1986; Riger & Galligan, 1980; Schlueter et al., 1990; Sagrestano, 1992). As per these studies, it is not the gender role expectation that matters in the strategy used by managers rather it is the structural power position which plays an important role.

Taking together findings of Study 2 A and Study 2 B, it is quite clear that gender per se is not playing a major role in determination of strategy use. However, whether it is the position power which is playing a role can not be confidently argued.



**Table 3.1**  
**Summary of measures employed in the study**

<b>Section</b>	<b>Measures</b>	<b>No. of Items</b>	<b>Scale</b>
	Personal Information data	10	Single Item Scale
I	Bases of Power	47	7 Point
II	Downward Influence Strategies	38	7 Point
III	Upward Influence Strategies	55	7 Point
IV	Job Satisfaction	11	7 Point



**Table 3.2: Bases of Power under male supervisor****Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Bases of Power (N=125)**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>
1. Coercive	(.82)					
2. Expert	-.47**	(.85)				
3. Legitimate	-.38	.52**	(.82)			
4. Referent	-.55**	.66**	.57**	(.80)		
5. Reward	-.04	.21*	.34**	.33**	(.84)	
6. Credibility	-.55**	.67**	.64**	.73**	.25**	(.83)
<b>Mean</b>	3.30	5.25	5.48	4.96	3.91	5.25
<b>SD</b>	1.37	1.10	.92	1.08	1.54	1.02
<b>Number of Items</b>	4	4	4	4	4	5
<b>Range</b>	1-6.25	1.25-7	1.50-7	1.75-7	1-6.75	1.60-7

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.3: Bases of Power under female supervisor**  
**Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Bases of Power (N=96)**

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Coercive	(.70)					
2. Expert	-.57**	(.84)				
3. Legitimate	-.36**	.59**	(.76)			
4. Referent	-.49**	.67**	.68**	(.80)		
5. Reward	.01	.26**	.39**	.45**	(.80)	
6. Credibility	-.37**	.66**	.65**	.72**	.38**	(.82)
<b>Mean</b>	2.90	5.33	5.42	5.16	4.14	5.31
<b>SD</b>	1.14	1.15	.82	1.04	1.41	.93
<b>Number of Items</b>	4	4	4	4	4	5
<b>Range</b>	1-5.75	1.25-7	2.25-7	2-6.75	1.50-7	2-6.80

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.4: Leadership Effectiveness under male supervisor****Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Leadership Effectiveness (N=125)**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
1. My boss is an effective leader	(.93)			
2. My boss displays strong leadership abilities	.81**	(.93)		
3. My boss displays effective leader behaviors	.77**	.82**	(.93)	
4. My boss is one of the best leaders in the organization	.72**	.70**	.74**	(.93)
<b>Mean</b>	4.93	4.88	5.03	4.17
<b>SD</b>	1.57	1.50	1.46	1.79
<b>Number of Items</b>	1	1	1	1
<b>Range</b>	1-7	1-7	1-7	1-7

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.5: Leadership Effectiveness under female supervisor****Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Leadership Effectiveness (N=96)**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>
1. My boss is an effective leader	(.91)			
2. My boss displays strong leadership abilities	.75**	(.91)		
3. My boss displays effective leader behaviors	.71**	.81**	(.91)	
4. My boss is one of the best leaders in the organization	.71**	.66**	.60**	(.91)
<b>Mean</b>	5.30	5.41	5.22	4.68
<b>SD</b>	1.38	1.42	1.39	1.45
<b>Number of Items</b>	1	1	1	1
<b>Range</b>	1-7	1-7	1-7	1-7

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.6: Managerial Attributes under male supervisor****Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Managerial Attributes (N=125)**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>
1. Leadership	(.84)					
2. Emotional Stability	.40**	(.84)				
3. Logic	.68**	.40**	(.84)			
4. Responsibility	.62**	.33**	.61**	(.84)		
5. Industriousness	.38**	.32**	.31**	.32**	(.84)	
6. Self-confidence	.65**	.40**	.65**	.70**	.34**	(.84)
<b>Mean</b>	5.08	5.23	5.16	5.58	4.61	5.36
<b>SD</b>	1.48	1.30	1.27	1.23	1.59	1.49
<b>Number of Items</b>	1	1	1	1	1	1
<b>Range</b>	1-7	2-7	1-7	1-7	1-7	1-7

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.7: Managerial Attributes under female supervisor****Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Managerial Attributes (N=96)**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>
1. Leadership	(.77)					
2. Emotional Stability	.34**	(.77)				
3. Logic	.61**	.42**	(.77)			
4. Responsibility	.31**	.17	.55**	(.77)		
5. Industriousness	.33**	.10	.47**	.36**	(.77)	
6. Self-confidence	.35**	.38**	.42**	.36**	.24*	(.77)
<b>Mean</b>	5.42	5.18	5.45	5.71	4.98	5.50
<b>SD</b>	1.21	1.27	1.18	.87	1.32	1.23
<b>Number of Items</b>	1	1	1	1	1	1
<b>Range</b>	1-7	2-7	1-7	3-7	2-7	1-7

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.8: Influence Outcome under male supervisor**

Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Influence Outcome (N=125)

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
1. Commitment	(.47)		
2. Compliance	-.23**	(.52)	
3. Resistance	-.38**	.70**	(.80)
<b>Mean</b>	5.49	2.85	2.03
<b>SD</b>	.94	1.09	.93
<b>Number of Items</b>	3	3	6
<b>Range</b>	1.67-7	1-6	1-5.50

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha



**Table 3.9: Influence Outcome under female supervisor****Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Influence Outcome (N=96)**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
1. Commitment	(.73)		
2. Compliance	.08	(.41)	
3. Resistance	.03	.46**	(.73)
<b>Mean</b>	5.39	2.80	2.17
<b>SD</b>	1.20	1.05	.86
<b>Number of Items</b>	3	3	6
<b>Range</b>	1-7	1-6.33	1-5.67

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.10**  
**Distribution of 38 Items of Downward Influence Strategy Measure**

Sl. No.	Strategies	Code	No. of Items
1	Assertiveness	A	6
2	Exchange of Benefits	E	5
3	Ingratiation	I	6
4	Personalized Relationship	P	3
5	Rationality	R	5
6	Sanctions (Negative)	S-	5
7	Sanctions (Positive)	S	4
8	Showing Expertise	E-	4
	Total		38

**Table 3.11: Downward Influence Strategy under male supervisor**

Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Downward Influence Strategy (N = 125)

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Rationality	(.62)							
2. Sanction (Negative)	-.04	(.75)						
3. Ingratiation	.63**	.06	(.68)					
4. Personalized Relationship	.37**	.01	.59**	(.64)				
5. Assertiveness	.40**	.40**	.40**	.12	(.75)			
6. Sanction (Positive)	.47**	.10**	.66**	.55**	.36**	(.59)		
7. Exchange of Benefits	.29**	.52**	.51**	.51**	.37**	.63**	(.81)	
8. Showing Expertise	.49**	.01	.56**	.41**	.29**	.48**	.41**	(.51)
<b>Mean</b>	4.18	2.22	4.08	2.89	3.91	3.33	2.21	4.13
<b>SD</b>	.93	.99	.92	1.14	1.01	.93	1.04	.93
<b>Number of Items</b>	5	5	6	3	6	4	5	4
<b>Range</b>	1.40-6.20	1-6.80	1.67-6.67	1-5.67	1.33-6.50	1-5.75	1-6.40	1-5.75

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.12: Downward Influence Strategy under female supervisor****Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Downward Influence Strategy (N = 96)**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>8</b>
1. Rationality	(.54)							
2. Sanction (Negative)	.09	(.82)						
3. Ingratiation	.57**	-.16	(.72)					
4. Personalized Relationship	.46**	.10	.55**	(.61)				
5. Assertiveness	.21*	.39**	-.05	.10	(.67)			
6. Sanction (Positive)	.41**	.21**	.52**	.64**	.11	(.58)		
7. Exchange of Benefits	.17	.66**	.16	.37**	.34**	.53**	(.72)	
8. Showing Expertise	.55**	.11	.42**	.22*	.02	.38**	.18	(.61)
<b>Mean</b>	4.20	2.02	4.17	2.92	3.65	3.25	2.04	4.07
<b>SD</b>	.91	1.09	.91	1.14	1.01	.94	.95	1.13
<b>Number of Items</b>	5	5	6	3	6	4	5	4
<b>Range</b>	1.20-6.20	1-5.40	1.33-6.33	1-6	1.50-6	1-6	1-5.20	1.50-7

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.13**  
**Distribution of 55 Items of Upward Influence Strategy Measure**

Sl. No.	Strategies	Code	No. of Items
1	Reasoning	R	5
2	Upward Appeal	U	3
3	Blocking	B	4
4	Personalized Help	P (bar)	3
5	Exchange of benefits	E	5
6	Ingratiation	I	4
7	Defiance	D (bar)	5
8	Diplomacy	D	4
9	Persuasion	P	3
10	Coalition	C	5
11	Unclassified	Ū	3
12	Manipulation	M	4
13	Showing Dependency	D (lower bar)	3
14	Showing Expertise	Ē	4
Total			55

**Table 3.14: Upward Influence Strategy under male supervisor  
Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Upward Influence Strategy (N=125)**

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Reasoning	(.72)													
2. Upward Appeal	.34**	(.68)												
3. Blocking	.11	.60**	(.79)											
4. Personalized Help	.39**	.34**	.35**	(.69)										
5. Exchange of Benefits	.31**	.64**	.66**	.59**	(.70)									
6. Ingratiation	.21*	.27**	.17	.33**	.35**	(.64)								
7. Showing Dependency	.43**	.52**	.47**	.35**	.62**	.36**	(.64)							
8. Persuasion	.59**	.49**	.41**	.50**	.58**	.30**	.57**	(.71)						
9. Coalition	.32**	.72**	.72**	.42**	.72**	.28**	.57*	.53**	(.81)					
10. Unclassified	.24**	.49**	.63**	.61**	.65**	.25**	.37**	.48**	.63**	(.50)				
11. Showing Expertise	.59**	.41**	.33**	.39**	.46**	.26**	.39**	.74**	.36**	.41**	(.51)			
12. Manipulation	.27**	.50**	.68**	.42**	.70**	.38**	.54**	.41**	.66**	.59**	.38**	(.65)		
13. Defiance	.37**	.49**	.60**	.39**	.58**	.16	.48**	.61**	.63**	.58**	.51**	.54**	(.62)	
14. Diplomacy	.41**	.54**	.42**	.38**	.63**	.51**	.54**	.40**	.57**	.42**	.34**	.54**	.29**	(.60)
<b>Mean</b>	4.88	2.65	1.79	3.07	2.57	4.11	3.14	3.76	2.49	2.49	4.11	2.46	2.72	3.40
<b>SD</b>	.98	1.23	.90	1.31	.99	1.08	1.25	1.13	1.18	1.07	.89	1.04	.84	1.19
<b>Number of Items</b>	5	3	4	3	5	4	3	3	5	3	4	4	5	4
<b>Range</b>	2.80-7	1-6	1-6	1-7	1-6.60	1-6.50	1-6.33	1-6.33	1-5.40	1-6.33	1.75-6.25	1-5.50	1-5.80	1-5.75

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.15: Upward Influence Strategy under female supervisor  
Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Upward Influence Strategy (N=96)**

Dimensions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Reasoning	(.72)													
2. Upward Appeal	-.10	(.44)												
3. Blocking	.02	.55**	(.76)											
4. Personalized Help	.31**	.37**	.23*	(.67)										
5. Exchange of Benefits	.19	.57**	.55**	.47**	(.51)									
6. Ingratiation	.25*	.26**	.15	.25*	.28**	(.68)								
7. Showing Dependency	.44**	.27**	.31**	.45**	.43**	.42**	(.44)							
8. Persuasion	.61**	.12	.19	.27**	.34**	-.03	.24*	(.66)						
9. Coalition	.37**	.40**	.40**	.53**	.46**	.21*	.33**	.49**	(.64)					
10. Unclassified	.15	.35**	.27**	.37**	.35**	.20*	.28**	.34**	.44**	(-.13)				
11. Showing Expertise	.48**	.16	.04	.30**	.33**	.21*	.23*	.51**	.53**	.35**	(.69)			
12. Manipulation	.12	.44**	.56**	.20	.41**	.31**	.34**	.24*	.35**	.33**	.18	(.47)		
13. Defiance	.33**	.32**	.35**	.39**	.36**	.05	.32**	.50**	.63**	.42**	.57**	.29**	(.66)	
14. Diplomacy	.36**	.18	.21*	.40**	.33**	.51**	.41**	.29**	.42**	.27**	.34**	.36**	.12	(.56)
<b>Mean</b>	4.68	2.48	1.81	2.97	2.49	4.15	3.18	3.75	2.67	2.58	3.78	2.63	2.76	3.90
<b>SD</b>	1.09	1.04	.94	1.20	.74	1.17	1.05	1.15	1.06	.91	1.05	.89	.91	1.19
<b>Number of Items</b>	5	3	4	3	5	4	3	3	5	3	4	4	5	4
<b>Range</b>	1.80-7	1-6	1-5.25	1-6.67	1-5.20	1.75-7	1-6	1-7	1-4.80	1-4.33	1.25-6.50	1-4.50	1-5.60	1-6.50

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**Table 3.16: Job Satisfaction under male supervisor**

**Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Job Satisfaction (N=125)**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
1. Extrinsic	(.66)		
2. Intrinsic	.51**	(.74)	
3. Social	.44**	.40**	(.67)
<b>Mean</b>	5.22	5.19	5.83
<b>SD</b>	1.07	1.05	.87
<b>Number of Items</b>	4	4	3
<b>Range</b>	1.50-6.75	2-7	2-7

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha



**Table 3.17: Job Satisfaction under female supervisor****Descriptive Statistics, Alphas and Inter-Correlations of Job Satisfaction (N=96)**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>
1. Extrinsic	(.65)		
2. Intrinsic	.60**	(.81)	
3. Social	.50**	.72**	(.80)
<b>Mean</b>	5.22	5.72	5.32
<b>SD</b>	1.02	1.00	1.01
<b>Number of Items</b>	4	4	3
<b>Range</b>	2.50-7	1-7	2-7

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; Note: Figures in parentheses include coefficients of alpha

**TABLE 3.18: ANOVA SUMMARY A X B (Repeated)**

**Design:** (Gender: Male/Female X Dimensions of Bases of Power: Coercive, Expert, Legitimate, Referent, Reward, Credibility)

**Dependant Measure:** Scores on Bases of Power Items

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Significance
<b>TOTAL</b>	2270.404	1325			
<b>Between-Subjects</b>	89.223	220			
<b>A (Gender)</b>	.017	1	.017	.043	.836
<b>Error (Between)</b>	89.206	219	.407		
<b>Within-Subjects</b>	2181.181	1105			
<b>B (Bases of Power Factors)</b>	953.801	5	190.760	172.249	<b>.000</b>
<b>AB</b>	14.702	5	2.940	2.655	.021
<b>Error (Within)</b>	1212.678	1095	1.107		

**TABLE 3.19: ANOVA SUMMARY A X B (Repeated)**

**Design:** (Gender: Male/Female X Dimensions of Downward Influence Strategies: Rationality, Use of Sanctions-positive/negative, Ingratiation, Personalized Relationship, Assertiveness, Exchange of benefits, Showing Expertise)

**Dependant Measure:** Scores on Downward Influence Strategy Items

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Significance
<b>TOTAL</b>	2261.898	1767			
<b>Between-Subjects</b>	92.049	220			
<b>A (Gender)</b>	.343	1	.343	.818	.367
<b>Error (Between)</b>	91.706	219	.419		
<b>Within-Subjects</b>	2169.849	1547			
<b>B (DIS Factors)</b>	1143.755	7	163.394	245.509	<b>.000</b>
<b>AB</b>	5.835	7	.834	1.252	.271
<b>Error (Within)</b>	1020.259	1533	.666		

**TABLE 3.20: ANOVA SUMMARY A X B (Repeated)**

**Design:** (Gender: Male/Female X Dimensions of Upward Influence Strategies: Reasoning, Upward Appeal, Blocking, Personalized help, Exchange of benefits, Ingratiation, Showing Dependency, Persuasion, Coalition, Unclassified, Showing Expertise, Manipulation, Defiance, Diplomacy)

**Dependant Measure:** Scores on Upward Influence Strategy Items

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Significance
<b>TOTAL</b>	3955.808	3093			
<b>Between-Subjects</b>	110.217	220			
<b>A (Gender)</b>	.012	1	.012	.024	.877
<b>Error (Between)</b>	110.205	219	.503		
<b>Within-Subjects</b>	3845.591	2873			
<b>B (UIS Factors)</b>	1877.421	13	144.417	211.855	.000
<b>AB</b>	27.429	13	2.110	3.095	.000
<b>Error (Within)</b>	1940.741	2847	.682		

**TABLE 3.21: ANOVA SUMMARY A X B (Repeated)**

**Design:** (Gender: Male/Female X Dimensions of Job Satisfaction: Social, Extrinsic, Intrinsic)

**Dependant Measure:** Scores on Job Satisfaction Items

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Significance
<b>TOTAL</b>	407.833	662			
<b>Between-Subjects</b>	150.686	220			
<b>A (Gender)</b>	.005	1	.005	.008	.930
<b>Error (Between)</b>	150.681	219	.688		
<b>Within-Subjects</b>	257.147	442			
<b>B (JS Factors)</b>	41.805	2	20.903	42.846	.000
<b>AB</b>	1.664	2	.832	1.706	.183
<b>Error (Within)</b>	213.678	438	.488		

**TABLE 3.22: ANOVA SUMMARY A X B (Repeated)**

**Design:** (Gender: Male/Female X Dimensions of Influence Outcome: Commitment, Compliance, and Resistance)

**Dependant Measure:** Scores on Influence Outcome Items

Source	SS	df	MS	F	Significance
<b>TOTAL</b>	1844.281	660			
<b>Between-Subjects</b>	90.934	220			
<b>A (Gender)</b>	.001	1	.001	.002	.963
<b>Error (Between)</b>	90.933	219	.415		
<b>Within-Subjects</b>	1753.347	440			
<b>B (Influence Outcome Factors)</b>	1346.429	2	673.215	727.749	<b>.000</b>
<b>AB</b>	1.740	2	.870	.941	.391
<b>Error (Within)</b>	405.178	438	.925		

**Table 3.23**  
**Correlations of Bases of Power and Job Satisfaction under male boss (N=125)**

	Bases of Power					
	Coercive	Expert	Legitimate	Referent	Reward	Credibility
<b>Extrinsic</b>	-.21*	.14	.29**	.17	-.07	.36**
<b>Intrinsic</b>	-.14	.20*	.31**	.22*	.10	.26**
<b>Social</b>	-.08	-.03	.22*	-.08	-.11	.07

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$

**Table 3.24**  
**Correlations of Bases of Power and Job Satisfaction under female boss (N=96)**

	Bases of Power					
	Coercive	Expert	Legitimate	Referent	Reward	Credibility
<b>Extrinsic</b>	-.29**	.05	.18	.16	-.11	.10
<b>Intrinsic</b>	-.35**	.23*	.32**	.34**	.00	.29**
<b>Social</b>	-.29**	.28**	.44**	.45**	.18	.44**

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$

**Table 3.25**  
Correlations of Downward Influence Strategies and Job Satisfaction under male boss (N=125)

	Downward Influence Strategies							
	Rationa- lity	Sanction _Nega- tive	Ingratia- tion	Person- alized Relatio- nship	Assertive- ness	Sanction_ Positive	Exchange of Benefits	Expertise_ Negative
<b>Extrinsic</b>	.09	-.28**	.08	-.09	.02	.06	-.23*	.12
<b>Intrinsic</b>	.15	-.09	.21*	.10	-.00	-.03	-.06	.15
<b>Social</b>	.01	-.24**	.05	-.23*	.07	-.09	-.24**	-.03

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$

**Table 3.26**  
Correlations of Downward Influence Strategies and Job Satisfaction under female boss (N=96)

	Downward Influence Strategies							
	Rationa- lity	Sanction _Nega- tive	Ingratia- tion	Person- alized Relatio- nship	Assertive- ness	Sanction_ Positive	Exchange of Benefits	Expertise_ Negative
<b>Extrinsic</b>	-.17	-.31**	.12	-.12	-.21*	-.24*	-.27**	-.06
<b>Intrinsic</b>	-.04	-.38**	.18	-.12	-.13	-.07	-.28**	.08
<b>Social</b>	-.02	-.36**	.20	.04	-.18	.01	-.20	.05

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$

**Table 3.27**  
Correlations of Upward Influence Strategies and Job Satisfaction under male boss (N=125)

	Upward Influence Strategies													
	Reaso-ning	Upap-peal	Bloc-king	Per-help	Ex_ Benefits	Ingra-tiation	Depen-dency	Persu-asion	Coali-tion	Uncla-ssified	Exper-tise	Mani-pulation	Defi-ance	Diplo-macy
<b>Extrinsic</b>	-.27**	-.28**	-.18*	-.18*	-.31**	-.08	-.37**	-.24**	-.27**	-.29**	-.16	-.26**	-.33**	-.26**
<b>Intrinsic</b>	-.06	-.27**	-.15	-.06	-.22*	-.18*	-.23**	-.16	-.20*	-.10	-.09	-.10	-.16	-.25**
<b>Social</b>	-.15	-.37**	-.37**	-.32**	-.43**	-.19*	-.34**	-.33**	-.40**	-.36**	-.21*	-.37**	-.47**	-.32**

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$

**Table 3.28**  
Correlations of Upward Influence Strategies and Job Satisfaction under female boss (N=96)

	Upward Influence Strategies													
	Reaso-ning	Upap-peal	Bloc-king	Per-help	Ex_ Benefits	Ingra-tiation	Depen-dency	Persu-asion	Coali-tion	Uncla-ssified	Exper-tise	Mani-pulation	Defi-ance	Diplo-macy
<b>Extrinsic</b>	-.12	-.21*	-.12	-.18	-.32**	.17	.03	-.08	-.03	-.11	-.29**	-.00	-.22*	.22*
<b>Intrinsic</b>	-.00	-.39**	-.36**	-.25*	-.32**	.06	-.06	-.10	-.09	-.15	-.11	-.18	-.30**	.12
<b>Social</b>	-.08	-.34**	-.19	-.30**	-.26*	.00	-.24*	-.08	-.06	-.20	-.23*	-.19	-.31**	-.00

\*\* =  $p < .01$ ; \* =  $p < .05$

## **Chapter 4**

### **Discussion**

In the present chapter an attempt has been made to integrate and interpret the findings obtained in the studies presented earlier in the Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. This chapter provides an integrated discussion of findings obtained in the present research.

#### **Study 1**

One of the unanswered questions mentioned in the Chapter 1 was “Why females use different influence strategies; is it due to their gender-role expectations or power status?” In order to answer this question, Study 1 was conducted. However, it was felt that it would be better to measure bases of power for the different genders instead of measuring influence strategies, as the power is the capacity to exert the influence. Moreover, if the present study provides indications that there are differences in the genders in the use of bases of power, it would be appropriate to go for further studies in this direction.

To compare the competing predictions of the social-role and structural models, in the present study an experiment was designed in which female and male managers held identical organizational/structural positions and used (a) influence behaviors stereotypically associated with men (i.e., direct); and (b) influence behaviors stereotypically associated with women (i.e., indirect). In this way, we were able to assess the effect of gender-role expectations on the evaluations of female managers, controlling for the potential confounding effects of organizational role expectations. Specifically, this



study examined the effects of manipulating (a) a manager's gender; and (b) a manager's influence use (i.e., direct or indirect) on managerial evaluations regarding four constructs known to affect organizational advancement and success. Those constructs are evaluations of (a) managerial power; (b) leadership effectiveness; (c) managerial attributes associated with managerial success; and (d) three types of influence outcomes (commitment, compliance, and resistance).

Our expectations in this study were not in the line of previous studies (e.g., Aguinis & Adams, 1998) in which they had expectations, which were more towards the structural model. Rather, we expected that social-role would play a major role in our study due to cultural characteristics of Indian society (Joshi, 1990; Vardhan, 1992).

It can be inferred from the findings that:

- 1) The managers in the direct conditions were perceived as being more direct than those in the indirect conditions and it confirmed the effectiveness of the influence use experimental manipulation and that the influence manipulation was not confounded with gender manipulation.
- 2) It can be noticed that all the scales used in the present study have moderately high alpha coefficients. In the case of effectiveness, it was more towards the higher side.
- 3) In case of legitimate power, results revealed that managerial roles were not evaluated positively; rather gender was playing a role in the evaluation of the roles. A comparison of means showed that female-direct condition was rated more positively compared to male-direct condition, which is a bit perplexing to explain. Ideally, female-direct condition should have been rated more negatively

- compared to male-direct condition. However, the main effect of gender supports the expectations of the study.
- 4) In the case of referent and reward power, there was a significant main effect of type of influence strategies. However, a comparison of means in the case of referent power showed that male-indirect and female-indirect conditions have got higher ratings. On the other hand, in the case of reward power, male-direct and female-direct conditions have higher ratings. This indicates that direct managers were evaluated more positively.
  - 5) In the case of self-confidence, there was a significant main effect of gender. This indicates that managers were not evaluated on the basis of their roles. In the case of industriousness and logic, there was a main effect of gender. Also, there was significant gender X type of influence strategies interaction effect in the case of these managerial attributes variables. These results indicate that both the independent variables were playing their roles.

The above results indicate that there was a mixed contribution of both the variables. Therefore, it can be assumed that the expectations of this study were partly borne out. However, these results do not support the findings of earlier studies (e.g., Aguinis & Adams, 1998), which indicated that structural model is more prominent in the organizations. In Indian settings, social-roles play a vital role. Although, there have been a remarkable change in the work settings, roles and expectations, still, by and large people expect roles, which are more compatible with the gender.

The reasons for expecting roles, which are congruent with the gender, lie in the cultural characteristics of a society. For example, in Indian settings, traditionally, men are given higher status due to gender. Moreover, to support the case for men, various

qualities are associated with men, such as higher intelligence, better emotional stability, assertiveness etc. However, empirical findings do not support such myths. At the same time, for general population, these myths are so deep rooted that no matter how well-educated they are, again and again these myths have some bearing in their decision making process. As Joshi (1990, p.182) says, "The reasons for the presence of stereotyped ideas lie in the culturally prescribed behaviors which are deep-rooted in the backgrounds of most of us. These affect the relationship between men and women and create obstacles for women in the process of moving up the career ladder. There are sex roles underlying the pattern of male "superiority" and female "inferiority". Then there are the marital roles of husband and wife where power, intelligence and responsibility traditionally rest with the husband, while the wife is perceived as helpmate only. The same pattern is normally perceived at work where men are in leadership and decision-making roles and women are in the house-keeping and nurturing tasks. These culturally entrenched patterns are likely to affect the managerial decisions regarding selection and promotion of women".

Probably, these are some of the reasons why the present study has come up with mixed results, i.e., contribution of the both the variables (gender and type of influence strategy).

However, these findings should be seen with certain limitations. Apart from power and managerial attributes variables, other variables (leadership effectiveness and influence outcomes) did not have any significant relationship with the independent variables.

There could be two possible reasons for such non-significant results: firstly, the sample was drawn from final year engineering students, who did not have any prior work experience, and secondly, respondents were asked to read the speech of the manager and then rate them on certain managerial variables. It is possible that respondents were not able to visualize the actual situation. However, at the same time, these results provide enough evidence to believe that gender differences in influence strategies in the Indian settings should not be explained in terms of structural model. And, further research in the direction is definitely required.

### **Study 2 A**

In order to further test the mixed results of Study 1, the present study was conducted. The present study tries to investigate whether Indian managers (male/female) differ in the use of different influence strategies or they use the same strategies to get success in the organization. If they are in the equal structural position in the organization, do they differ in the use of influence strategies toward their subordinates, peers and bosses because of their gender differences or they are using the same influence strategies to get success. In the earlier findings in the non Indian set up, it was revealed that the position power in the organization influences the use of influence strategies by the managers (male/female) and not the gender of the managers. But in the Indian set up where social-role model expectations were more than the structural role model, an attempt is made to know whether the social-role model or structural model plays an important role in the use of influence strategies by the managers. Moreover, Study 1 had indicated that social role model might be playing a role as the mixed results were obtained. Therefore, the researcher designed another study to assess the actual reasons behind the fact that, whether in Indian organizational

set up this may be same or it differs. Apart from this, an attempt was also made to see how influence strategies and bases of power help the organization to succeed. For this purpose, job satisfaction was taken as an indicator of organizational success. The selection of this variable was based on premise that if the employees are satisfied with the job they will be making their best efforts for the organization and that will result in success.

Another purpose of this study was to further test the results of previous study (Study 1) which had indicated that there might be a greater role of gender-role perspective in the use influence strategy in Indian settings. Moreover, the present study was needed to find out answers to the unanswered questions raised in the Chapter 1. Some of the variables like downward influence strategy, upward influence strategy, and job satisfaction are included along with earlier variable of bases of power in this study. The results obtained from these studies are reported below:

- 1) In case of bases of power there is no significant main effect of gender which indicates that gender alone does not play a vital role in the use of influence strategies by the managers. On the other hand, there is a significant main effect of bases of power and also significant interaction effect of both the variables. Main effect of bases of power dimensions indicates that all the six factors are distinct and the respondents are able to see the differences in the use of the different dimensions of bases of power.
- 2) It was found that there is no significant main effect of gender on downward influence strategies. At the same time, there was main effect of dimensions of downward influence strategies, which suggests that all the dimensions are

- distinct and respondents are able to see the differences across these dimensions.
- 3) In case of upward influence strategies it was found that there is no significant main effect of gender. However, there is a significant main effect of upward influence strategies. This indicates that all the dimensions of upward influence strategies are distinct and one is able to see the differences across these dimensions. The result also revealed that there is an interaction effect of both the factors. It can be concluded that in case of upward influence strategy use both the factors play a role.
  - 4) There is no main effect of gender on job satisfaction. Thus it can be concluded that the gender of the manager does not play a role in the job satisfaction of the employees. A significant main effect of dimensions of job satisfaction was found from the result. It shows that all the dimensions of job satisfaction are distinct and the respondents are able to see the differences across these dimensions.
  - 5) In case of influence outcome there is no main effect of gender. However, significant main effect of the dimensions of influence outcome indicates that all the dimensions of influence outcome are distinct and the respondents are able to see the differences across these dimensions. It can be inferred that gender does not play a vital role in case of influence outcome.

The above results are not in the line of expectations as there was hardly any main effect of the gender. Employees working under male or female boss did not perceive any difference in the influence strategies of their boss on the basis of gender of the boss. One of the unanswered questions raised in Chapter 1, that is, "If they use different influence strategies due to gender role expectations, which could be conflicting with their organizational goals, how do they reconcile this factor? Do they really go

beyond the gender role expectations?” Since we did not find the role of gender, so we can conclude that there is no difference in the use of influence strategies by both male and female boss. Therefore the question of going beyond the gender role expectation does not arise.

Another unanswered question was, “If the difference is due to power status, then the males at the same level of power should be using similar influence strategies, does this happen?” Since there was no significant main effect of gender in the present research, it indicates that males and females are using the same influence strategies, or at least they are not using different influence strategies. However it would be better not to claim a role of power status because it was not measured directly in the present research. So, future researches can explore the role of power status in the adoption of different influence strategies by the boss of the organization.

These diminishing differences can be explained in terms of changes taking place within the Indian society. Stereotypical role definitions are getting weaker day by day and there is an increased tolerance for the unconventional gender roles. It is not uncommon in today’s Indian society to see females doing some of the jobs, which were at one point of time, thought to be fit only for males. Even, within families, there is an appreciation for the females who are employed. Of course, just on the basis of one piece of research one should not try to too generalize the findings. However, the signs of changes are apparently visible through this research.

Apart from analyzing the differences between the samples working under male and female boss, an attempt was also made to see how influence strategies and bases of power help the organization to succeed. These results are reported below.

From correlation between bases of power and job satisfaction it is clear that in the case of sample reporting to male boss legitimate power and credibility are significant correlated with extrinsic and intrinsic satisfaction. Expert and referent power have significant positive correlation with intrinsic satisfaction. In case of legitimate power there is a significant positive correlation with social satisfaction.

In case of the sample reporting to female boss it was found that expert, legitimate, referent and credibility dimension of bases of power have significant positive correlations with intrinsic and social satisfaction. It is interesting to note that coercive power has significant negative correlation with all the three dimensions of job satisfaction.

From the above results we can conclude that by using the expert, legitimate, referent and credibility dimensions of power both male and female managers are able to satisfy their employees intrinsically which lead to organizational success. Also in case of male boss sample, the employees are extrinsically satisfied when managers use legitimate power and credibility. The employees also get social satisfaction when legitimate power is in use. On the other hand, in the female boss sample, the employees get social satisfaction as well as intrinsic satisfaction when managers use expert, legitimate, referent and credibility dimensions of bases of power upon the employees which lead to organizational success. At the same time, using coercive power may lower the satisfaction of the employees in the work place. So, we can say bases of power play an important role in the satisfaction level of the employees which lead to organizational success.



Again, it is clear from the correlation between downward influence strategies and job satisfaction for the sample reporting to male boss that in case of ingratiation there is a significant positive correlation with intrinsic satisfaction, whereas there is a negative correlation between negative sanction and extrinsic and social dimensions of job satisfaction. On the other hand in case of the sample reporting to female boss it is clear from the result that there is a significant negative correlation of negative sanction with all the three dimensions of job satisfaction.

In case of correlation between upward influence strategies and job satisfaction it is found that in case of the sample reporting to male boss most of the correlations are negative. On the other hand in case of the sample reporting to female boss it is clear from the result that there is a positive correlation between diplomacy and extrinsic satisfaction. However, most of the other correlations are negative.

By looking at the above results it may be speculated that there is a positive correlation between variables like bases of power, downward influence strategies and upward influence strategies with job satisfaction. In fact, most of the other empirical research has supported this relationship. At the same time, some negative correlations, which appeared in this research, are quite surprising and a bit hard to explain. However from Table no. 3.14 it was evident that mean scores of dimensions of Upward Influence Strategy under male boss (10 dimensions out of 14) have scores below mid-point, whereas in the case of sample under female boss there are 9 dimensions out of 14 which have mean scores below the mid-point (table 3.15). These means below the mid-point indicate that upward influence strategies are being used minimally by the employees in both the samples as ratings on upward influence strategy scale indicate the frequency of their uses. Thus, in a way, negative correlations between upward

influence strategies and job satisfaction reveal that when the use of upward influence strategies are low, job satisfaction is higher. But it should be noted that this is not a causal relationship. Moreover, use and success of upward influence strategies depend on many other factors such as climate of the organization (Ansari & Rehana, 1986).

Some earlier studies also indicate that upward influence strategies might not always go along with satisfaction of the employees. For example, Deluga et al.'s (1991) paper provides indirect evidence as some of the UIS (bargaining, assertiveness, coalition and higher authority) were found to be negatively related with high quality Leader-member exchange (LMX). Items in the LMX 6 (only six items out of 17 original items) do indicate some type of satisfaction with the authority (boss), though it may not be the same as job satisfaction.

However, some of the positive correlations obtained between bases of power and job satisfaction, downward influence strategy and job satisfaction, and upward influence strategy and job satisfaction indicate that influence strategies and bases of power have some bearing on the success of the organization. At the same time, it may be noted that success measure used in this study was an indirect one. These findings partly answers the unanswered question raised in Chapter 1 regarding the relationship between influence strategies and organizational success.

Apart from collecting data from subordinates regarding the use of influence strategies and other variables, some of the top male and female executives were interviewed in order to understand their point of view regarding gender differences in the use of influence strategies.

### **Study 2 B**

This study makes further attempt to explore the types of influence strategies used by the top managers and whether gender difference matter in using the influence strategies by these managers. However, this study was qualitative in nature. The main purpose of this study was to know the views of senior executives regarding gender differences. Since senior executives have traveled a long journey to reach the present position, they must have encountered these issues during their tenure and their views will definitely help the research to understand underlying dynamics of gender and influence strategies.

The data collected from the interview were qualitatively analyzed using content analysis and the interpretation of the results is as follows:

From the questions of the first part of the schedule it was found that all the executives (male and female) reached their present position through their hard work, honesty and sincerity for the work. All of them are well educated i.e. from minimum graduation to maximum doctorate degree. All of them come from different family background. Among them some came from very poor family background but still they reach the senior management position only through strong determination and dedication to work. The female executives had the opinion that being a woman one has to work much harder than man to get success. However, because of their gender they did not face any problem in their work setting, which otherwise would have hindered their success path. In their opinion, it is the individual's performance which counts for success in the organization and not the gender.

According to male executives if anyone has the strong motivation and confidence, then he/she will be able to face all kinds of problems/hurdles and challenges and by overcoming those he/she gets success and there is no question of gender differences. Both male and female executives have the same opinion that they did not face any problem due to their gender to achieve this success path.

In the second part, the interviewees were asked about their leadership styles, discrimination due to their gender in the work place and related questions. It was found from both male and female responses that they do not use different influence style to influence their superiors, peers and subordinates. They use the same style of influence. But only in case of women subordinates they are little bit softer than male subordinates otherwise they do not change their style to get the work done from different hierarchical levels in the organization. Both male and female executives have the opinion that every individual is different from the other individual, therefore in dealing with each and every individual there may be some change in style due to person's nature, trait, personality etc. and that totally depends on person and not on the gender. It was also found from the results that male and female executives do not give any preference to the female employees when it comes to allocating work, or at the time of performance appraisal. They treat them equally in case of performance appraisal.

However, they are little bit cautious while dealing with female employee in using language and maintaining decorum. Executives emphasized that it is their hard work, which has helped them to reach the present position. The negation of gender role was quite apparent in their interview.

In the third and last part that was focused on home and work adjustment related questions, the male executives said that they did not have many problems in adjusting their home and work place demands. When they were asked how they will distribute 100 marks between home and work place, they mentioned that they give around 60% to work and 40% to home. At the same time they have the opinion that both home and work front are equally important. But, sometimes it is very difficult for them to give time to their home front due to their job demand. From their side they do their best to strike a balance between their home and work setting with the support from their spouses at home front.

But for the female executives this was not so easy because they have to play the role of a mother, wife, daughter, sister, etc. at home along with their responsibility at the work place. In their opinion, to be a successful manager, women should be a very good actor. Because women play different roles at their home as well as work setting and to balance both the settings is really very tough. Female executives emphasized the importance of family support and proper time management.

Some of the female executives mentioned that they faced some problems when their children were small and when they needed much care and attention. But they managed to maintain a balance at home and work front with the support from their family.

When the female executives were asked to distribute 100 marks between home and work place, few of them distributed equal marks to both, while some gave around 60% to home.

Lastly, all the women executives are happy about their success in the organization as they are being recognized by the organization, which is mainly due to their capabilities. Most of them are feeling happy because as a woman they got success in this male dominated society and have been able to maintain balance on the both front. Some of them are of the opinion that they feel happy as a person and not only as a female member who has achieved success because when a women gets a chance in career progression based on her competency only, it gives a very good feeling, a sense of satisfaction. It also gives her a chance to feel independent and also make her own identity.

Further the above discussion helps to find the answer to one of the unanswered question, that is, "How the selection of influence strategies is related to adjustment outside the work environment?" It has been observed that both male and female boss do not use different influence strategy in terms of the gender of the subordinates. However, the boss who seems to be using influence strategy which is congruent with their managerial role (i.e., direct influence strategy) is more successful in the job. It also appears that they are well adjusted and happy in their life. However, in the case of the present study, this can only be inferred. Therefore, it can be explored more in detail in future researches.

From the above discussion it was found that it is not the gender which plays a vital role in the influence strategy used by the managers (male/female). Both male and female managers seem to use same pattern of influence strategies to influence the superiors, peers and subordinates to get the things done for the organization.

Above interview results provide credence to earlier findings reported in Study 2 A that gender role are getting diminished and this is no more a crucial variable when it comes to use of influence strategies. Again, this line of thinking can be supported by the earlier studies (for e.g., Maineiro, 1986; Riger & Galligan, 1980; Schlueter et al., 1990; Sagrestano, 1992). As per these studies, it is not the gender role expectations that matters in the strategy used by managers rather it is the structural power position which plays an important role.

Taking together findings of Study 2 A and Study 2 B, it is quite clear that gender per se is not playing a major role in determination of strategy use. However, whether it is the position power which is playing a role cannot be confidently argued, though it gives the indication.

### **General Discussion**

From the above three studies of this research work it has been observed that gender role theory does not play a vital role in the choice of influence strategies by the managers (male/female) in the Indian organizational setting. A mixed result of gender role model and structural model was found in the first study (Chapter 2) of this research work which prompted us to go further in this direction. But the prediction that social role model plays the important role in organizational setting in India is not supported from the findings of Study 2 A and Study 2 B which was qualitative in nature (Chapter 3), though this prediction was partially supported in the first study. It was found from the second study that gender difference does not play a vital role in the influence strategy used by the manager (male/female). This implies that subordinates who work under the male or female boss perceive no difference in the influence strategies used by them. This result

is supported by earlier findings (e.g., Ragins, 1991; Ronk, 1993; Butterfield & Powell 1981; Campbell et al. 1993). Also, the results of Study 2 B provide credence to earlier findings of Study 2 A that gender role are getting diminished and this is no more a crucial variable when it comes to use of influence strategies. The top executives (both male and female) who have at least ten years of their job experience in the renowned organizations are of the opinion that to be a good manager one should give his/her best to the organization and that leads to the path of organizational success. And it is the work performance rather than the gender differences that count in the organizational settings.

These diminishing differences can be explained in terms of changes taking place within the Indian society. Stereotypical role definitions are getting weaker day by day and there is an increased tolerance for the unconventional gender roles. It is not uncommon in today's Indian society to see females doing some of the jobs, which were at one of point of time, thought to be fit only for males. Even, within families, there is an appreciation for the females who are employed. Of course, just on the basis of one piece of research one should not try to too generalize the findings. However, the signs of changes are apparently visible through this research. An example may be cited to support the point – Air Deccan's flight in the Bangalore-Chennai sector has all women crew. The job of the flight commander, which is generally seen in more masculine terms, is performed by a woman and at the same time job of the air hostess, which is generally considered more feminine, is also performed by a woman. So, it makes it clear that requirements at the work place are more important than the gender alone.

Another unanswered question raised in Chapter 1 was, "If male and female managers are using the same influence strategies, then why are female managers still



not getting the equal status as that of male managers in the organizational set up?" As indicated above, there was no gender difference in terms of use of influence strategy but if one really observes the representation of women in the professional world, it still small as compared to males. At the same, at least in India, changes are quite apparent. More and more women are joining the work force.

The socio-cultural characteristics of the society also play an important role for removing gender inequality in the society. Enough evidence exists which indicates that changes are taking place within Indian society which is reflected in terms of increased opportunities for women in higher education.

Impact of globalization and electronic media is bridging the gaps between cultures which in a way have an effect on the stereotypical mindsets of Indian society. Through education and empowerment, women are able to assert themselves and are able to claim their place. However, it is still miles to go before inequality gets eradicated in Indian society.

## Chapter 5

### Summary

To bring success in an organization, manager play an important role and work very hard to get the things done from the three levels of the organization i.e. superiors, peers and subordinates. Managerial influence, in particular, is the behavior of one or more persons responsible for organizational results, acting to change the behavior of organizational members in ways intended to change results. In organization, managers behave differently while dealing with the aforesaid levels and their use of influence strategy depends on who the target person is (i.e. subordinate, boss or peer) and what the goal of influence attempt is.

From the review of literature (Chapter 1), it was found that there are various studies on influence strategies in relation to power, leadership, gender, role of status, etc. Although there are findings that indicate that males and females use different influence strategies (Falbo & Peplau, 1980; Falbo et al., 1982), the explanation of these findings is not very conclusive.

According to Bass (1990) and Yukl (1989), a critical component of management effectiveness is the manager's ability to influence people and the ability to influence subordinates, peers and superiors is a major determinant of a manager's effectiveness. The success of an influence attempted by a manager is likely to depend on a number of

things, including the influence tactics used by the manager, intrinsic attributes of the request that motivate the targeted person to comply with it, and the manager's power.

By using different influence strategies, a manager can get the work done from the three levels of the organizational hierarchy and bring success for the organization. If he/she cannot influence properly the aforesaid levels and are not able to get the things done from them, then organizational success may not be achieved and it will not be able to compete with other organizations in this competitive business world. Influence strategy used by the manager, therefore, plays a significant role for the success of the organization.

But according to Sagrestano (1992), the choice of influence strategies is likely to be affected not only by power, but also by gender. The relationship between these two variables as well as the independent contributions of these variables is currently unclear.

However, as the review of literature indicates, there are two competing theories that attempt to explain the existence, or lack thereof, of gender-based differences in expectations as well as use of influence behaviours: (a) the *social-role model* (Eagly, 1987; Gutek, 1993; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Schlueter & Barge, 1993); and (b) the *structural model* (Ely, 1995; Kanter, 1977; Mainiero, 1986; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Riger & Galligan, 1980; Schlueter et al., 1990). Details of these two models have already been presented in the previous chapter.

According to *Social-role Model*, often referred to as Gender-role theory (Eagly, 1987), or gender-role socialization (Schlueter & Barge, 1993), gender-based differences in choices of influence behaviors as well as perceptions of appropriateness of influence use are a result of gender-role expectations that “spill over” to organizational settings (Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Generally, these expectations stem from culturally defined gender-roles (e.g., husband, wife, professor, student, doctor, nurse etc.), which define a set of expectations for male and female behavior (Eagly, 1987). Status roles, for instance, may lead people to have unconscious, automatic expectations that men occupy positions of authority and use high-status behavior, whereas women reside in subordinate roles and, therefore, use low-status behavior.

However, *Structural Model* suggests that organizational position, rather than gender-role expectations, affects the choice for influence behaviors as well as perceptions of appropriateness of influence use (Mainiero, 1986; Riger & Galligan, 1980; Schlueter et al., 1990). In the structural model, individual traits and behaviors are de-emphasized as predictors of managerial effectiveness and upward mobility (Riger & Galligan, 1980). This model posits that influence use is directed by organizational status, role, and degree of perceived power (Fagenson, 1990; Kanter, 1977; Schlueter et al., 1990). This model contends that influence behaviors are a result of the organizational structure (Fagenson, 1990), that is, male and female managers use influence behaviors relative to their amount of power in the organization (Schlueter & Barge, 1993; Schlueter et al., 1990).

In the present research following unanswered questions, which have emerged from the literature review, were investigated:

1. Why females use different influence strategies; is it due to their gender-role expectations or power status?
2. At the same time, how their use of different influence strategies is related to effectiveness or in general to organizational success?
3. If they use different influence strategies due to gender role expectations, which could be conflicting with their organizational goals, how do they reconcile this factor? Do they really go beyond the gender role expectations?
4. If difference is due to power status, then the males at the same level of power should be using the similar influence strategies, does this happen?
5. If male and female managers use the same influence strategies, then why female managers are still not getting the equal status as that of male managers in the organizational set up?
6. How the selection of influence strategies is related to adjustment outside the work environment?

It can be observed from above, that the focus of this research was to compare the competing predictions of the social-role and structural model and to find explanations for differences in influence strategy used by male and female boss. Moreover, the relationship between different influence strategy and organizational success variables was explored to investigate its role in bringing about success in the organization.

## Rationale for the Present Research

The rationale for the present research can be found in the unexamined questions that emerged out of the literature review. It is apparent from the earlier findings that gender differences in the use of influence strategies can be attributed to gender-role theory and structural power model, as well. However, the findings are still not conclusive. Therefore, present research is planned on the basis of following rationale:

**Firstly**, by finding evidence and real explanation with regard to gender differences in the use of influence strategies, it will help us to bridge the existing gap in this area. It will enrich our knowledge in this field.

**Secondly**, if the gender differences in the use of influence strategies are mainly due to gender role theory, then it may have serious implications for extending possible explanation for the lack of career progress of females in the organization. Moreover, we don't have any specific studies on gender differences in influence strategies in Indian settings (to the best of our knowledge).

**Thirdly**, if the gender difference is due to power structure in the organization, then it will make it clear that lack of progress in the career of females can be taken care of by the equal distribution of power in the organization.

**Fourthly**, if gender difference in the use of influence strategy exists due to gender role theory or structural theory or both the theories are playing a role, then, it

would be interesting to undertake research in this area as it will enrich our knowledge and help the organizations to get more success.

*Fifthly*, if only one theory i.e. social-role theory or structural theory play the important role in the use of influence strategy then what is the reason behind it. Also, it would be useful to explore why the other theory does not work in the same set-up. A study of these reasons will enrich our knowledge of strategy use.

### **Design of the research**

The present research was carried out in two phases: Study 1, and Study 2 A and Study 2 B. The Study 1 was conducted using a factorial design, while the Study 2 A was based on questionnaire method. Study 2 B was done through interview method.

Study 1, that is, a pilot study was conducted on 120 engineering undergraduate students from a large urban, residential technological institute in the northeastern region of India. The independent variables were gender (male/female) and type of influence strategies (direct/indirect). The participants were randomly assigned to experimental conditions and read one of four vignettes. After reading the vignettes as per the conditions, participants were asked to evaluate the manager on the basis of his/her address to the subordinates by responding to a questionnaire shows the items used to measure the variables. The dependent measures were bases of power, leadership effectiveness, managerial attributes and types of influence outcomes.

In Study 2 A, two samples of 125 male and 96 female middle level managers from different organizations including private, public and government organizations of India participated. The managers were working directly under either male or female boss. Participants were given a questionnaire and requested to read all the questions carefully for all the four sections of bases of power, downward influence strategies, upward influence strategies, and job satisfaction.

Study 2 B was qualitative in nature. The interviews were collected from the executives (both male and female) who were working in a Senior Management position and under whom several persons were working.

The items of this interview schedule were divided into three parts. The first part consisted of items related to the success path of the executives (item 1 to item 4). The second part had questions related to issues at work place, for example, discrimination, preference, leadership styles and adjustment issues with regard to gender (item 5 to item 11). The third and last section of this interview schedule contained questions on adjustment between home and work place (item 12 to item 15) out of which, items 13 and 15 were meant for female executives only.

Data obtained from Study 1 and Study 2 A was statistically analyzed to obtain the result. For Study 2 B a qualitative analysis was done to obtain the result which was in the line of the Study 2 A.



From the above studies it was concluded that gender role theory does not play a vital role in the Indian organizational setting. From Study 1 of this research work a mixed result of gender role model and structural model came out which prompted us to go further in this direction. But the prediction that social role model plays the important role in organizational setting in India was not supported from the findings of Study 2 A and Study 2 B. It was found in the Study 2 A that gender difference does not play a vital role in the influence strategy used by the manager. This implies that subordinates who worked under the male or female boss perceive no difference in the influence strategies used by them. This result was supported by earlier findings (e.g., Ragins, 1991; Ronk, 1993; Butterfield & Powell 1981; Campbell et al. 1993). Moreover, the result of Study 2 B which was qualitative in nature also revealed similar findings. The top executives (both male and female) who were interviewed in this study were of the opinion that to be a good manager one should give his/her best to the organization and that becomes the organizational success path. Manager should use different influence strategies to get the things done from their subordinates, peers and bosses and there is no question of gender difference. Only work performance matters to get the success in the organization.

The findings of these studies were discussed in the context of changing scenario of the present competitive business world. The gender role expectations are not congruent with the job demand of the organizations. These were explained in terms of changes taking place within the Indian society. Stereotypical role definitions are getting weaker day by day and there is an increased tolerance for the unconventional gender roles. It is not uncommon in today's Indian society to see females doing some of the

jobs, which were at one of point of time, thought to be fit only for males. Even, within families, there is an appreciation for the females who are employed. Of course, just on the basis of one piece of research one should not try to too generalize the findings. However, the signs of changes are apparently visible through this research.

There was also an attempt to study the relationship between influence strategies used by managers (male and female) and the success of organization. From the results of the correlations it was found that there was a positive correlation between variables like bases of power, downward influence strategies and upward influence strategies with job satisfaction. In fact, most of the other empirical research has supported this relationship.

Some of the positive correlations obtained between bases of power and job satisfaction, downward influence strategy and job satisfaction, and upward influence strategy and job satisfaction indicated that influence strategies and bases of power have some bearing on the success of the organization. At the same time, it may be noted that success measure used in this study was an indirect one.

### **Conclusions**

In conclusion, it can be assumed that gender does not play a vital role in the use of influence strategies by the managers (male/female) in the organizational setting. Both the male and female managers use the same influence strategies to get the work done

from their superiors, peers, and subordinates in the organization. Both the studies in this research work have also revealed the same.

In fact, in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, women are not only being recognized as a good home maker rather she is also capable enough to run the organization competently like male manager and achieve success. Because the results of this research work revealed that it is the merit which only counts and not gender. Results also revealed that both male and female managers use the same influence strategies to get the work done to achieve the goal of the organization. Therefore, in the use of influence strategies there is no gender difference.

### **Implications and Contribution**

This research work has revealed that gender *does not* play a role in the selection of influence strategies, used by the managers in the organizations. Employees working under male and female boss do not perceive any difference in the use of influence strategies. The findings of this research are very important, especially for the managers. People working in the business world, especially males, should realize that stereotypical mind-set, which fosters gender bias to some extent, might not help them in the long run. Results indicate that both male and female employees can use the same strategies to influence their superiors, subordinates and peers. This thesis work reveals that the traditional beliefs about male and female role are getting changed and the gender bias is getting diminished over a period of time. Of course, from the results of this study alone one cannot assume that there are no gender differences in the work settings, but going

by the findings of this research one has to acknowledge the trend that gender gaps are narrowing. Especially in the Indian settings, where social-role model holds much prominence as the society is considered to be more traditional, these findings could be eye-opener to the fact that time is changing. This contention is supported by the facts that more and more females are taking up important assignments in various fields, be it media, corporate world, medicine or research.

It has also made a point for the scholars and researchers as this work reveals that though gender differences might exist in our cultural setting and people still may have gender bias but in the organizational setting it does not matter. How well a manager performs his/her job and brings success to the organization counts and not the manager's gender. The traditional belief about gender role typing has now been changed with the growing industrialization and liberalization that brought changes in stereotyped concepts of masculinity and femininity works. The shifting nature of this concept can change the traditional way of thinking about female role in the organizational setting. Now, females can also get success equally with male as far as her merits is concerned. She can also bring success for the organization and equally work for the development of the organization. So, in organizational setting there is no gender bias for the managers because only merits play the important role in the success of the organization.

At the theoretical level, this research work bridges the gap in the area of gender differences in influence strategies. The present research demonstrates that gender differences do not play an important role in the influence strategy. This research work

also highlights the relationship between gender differences and influence strategies which was not very clear from the earlier findings. This research work clears the existing gap and reveals that gender may not be a critical variable in terms of selection of influence strategies used by the managers. The findings of this work showed that though the traditional female role still exists in the mind set of the people of our society but this is rapidly changing in the organizational set up as the results of this work found that there is no gender differences in the organizational setting to get the work done by the male or female managers by using different influence strategies.

At the practical level, this research work will help managers and decision makers to have better understanding of gender differences in influence strategies. Consequently, managers will be able to create the proper settings in the organizations, which will help their employees to achieve organizational goals in an effective way. For organizational success merit is the key as only merit plays the important role for the male/female managers to achieve the organizational goals. Male/Female managers in the organizational set up use the same influence strategies for the superiors, subordinates and peers and get the works done for the organization to achieve success in the changing business world in a more efficient way.

### **Limitations and future directions**

As other researches at the doctoral level, this research work is also not free from limitations. One of the limitations of this work is related to self-report type measures employed in the study. Majority of findings reported in the present work come from the

questionnaires. Consequently, usual limitations of questionnaire method might creep in the present work.

Secondly, though the data were collected from the different organizations, still it would be better not to over-generalize the results. By increasing the sample size, power of generalization can be increased.

Lastly, results clearly indicated that there was no gender difference. However, we may not be in position to comfortably say that structural power positions of the managers were playing a role, as this variable was not controlled. This further necessitates the research in this direction. It would be better to design a study, which directly measures impact of structural power positions of the managers on influence strategies. For example, taking gender (male/female) and relative structural power positions in organizations (high/low) as independent variables and bases of power and influence strategies as dependent variables might yield much definite result.

In general, findings presented in the present research work will help scholars, managers, and anyone who wants to understand the role of gender difference in the use of influence strategy and its impact on organizational success.

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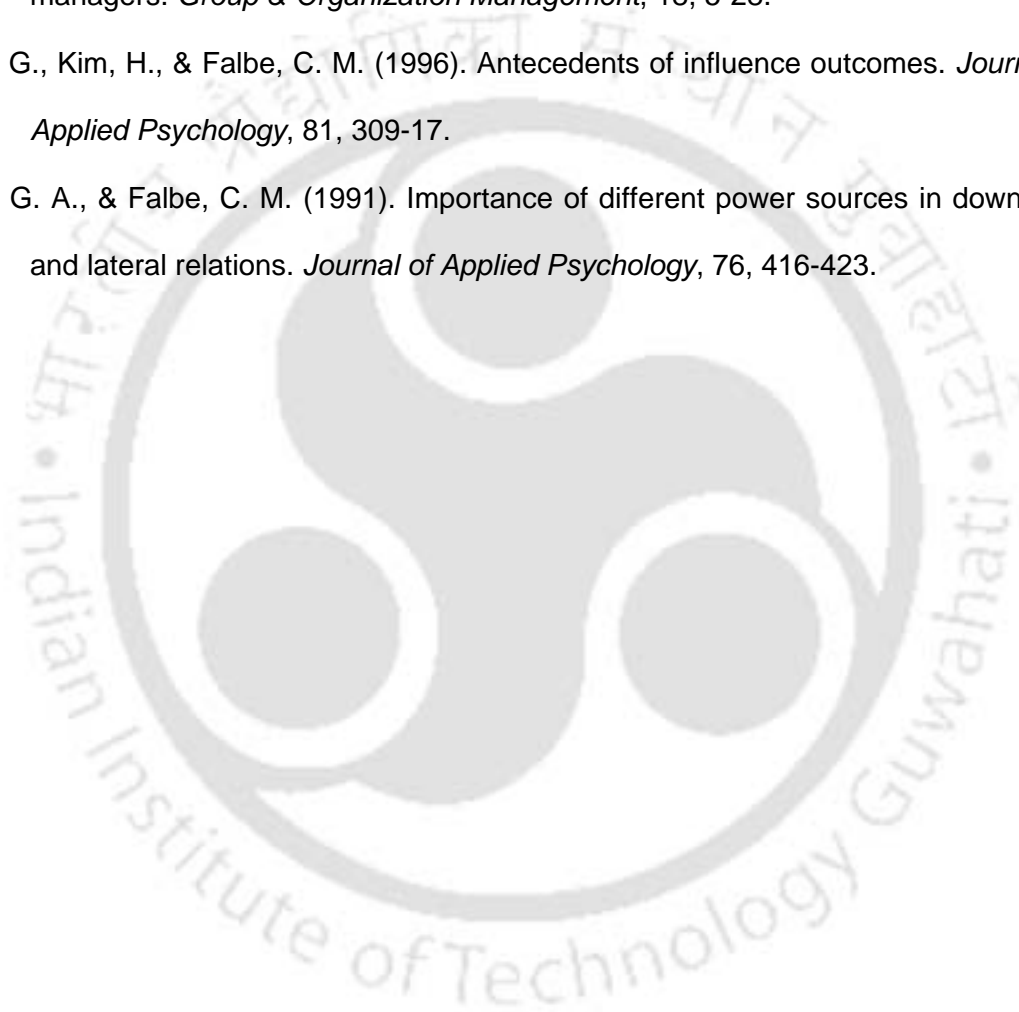
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## Appendices

### Appendix – A (Study 1)

#### ***Dear Friends:***

Ms. Reeta, aged 35 years, Manager of a big industrial unit is addressing her subordinates. Please read the following scenario carefully. You are requested to answer some questions based on this scenario.

#### ***Direct Influence Style Script***

Good morning staff. The purpose (reasoning) of this meeting today is to discuss our department's response time to customer complaints. I'm extremely (assertion) disappointed with our response time this month. It is lower than the standards and policies here at the Diamond Corporation.

Remember (persistence) our goal (reasoning) is to answer customer complaints within a 2-day time period. Last month it took us over 3 days to answer customer complaints. This is far from the 2-day mark that we all strive for. This morning I (assertion) will be outlining the specific behaviors that need (telling) to change in order to improve our response time.

Again (persistence) let me say, that it is our goal and policy (reasoning) here to respond to customer complaints within 2 days. We tell our customers that (state importance). Therefore, it is important for our credibility (state importance) that we meet the 2-day mark.

Equally important is the fact (state importance) that our department bonuses are based on our production level of 2 days. This department has seriously fallen short of this goal and must do (telling) what it takes to bring the response time back to the 2-day mark.

I (assertion) will now outline the behaviors that must change (telling). I (assertion) have noted a problem with people taking extended breaks. Therefore, you need to watch how much time you spend on your breaks. Make sure that you only take your allotted time of 10 minutes, then promptly return to your desks (telling).

I also want you (telling) to review the company guidelines on how to make a customer call. Too much time is being wasted on single customers because the 5 steps outlined in your training manual are not being followed (state importance). Be sure to read these (telling) as I'm sure the steps will help you to speed up your response time.

Again, let me remind you (persistence), that it is our goal (reasoning) here to answer customer complaints within a 2-day time frame. This morning I have outlined the behaviors that I expect to change in order for us to reach that goal (assertion).

**Appendix – B (Study 1)*****Indirect Influence Style Script***

Good morning staff. You sure look bright and fresh this morning, like you are ready for another productive day (positive affect). I brought some donuts this morning for our meeting. I wanted you to know how much I appreciate the work you do for the Diamond Corporation (verbal manipulation).

The purpose of this meeting today is to discuss our department's response time to customer complaints. My supervisor told me (evasion, using an advocate) that he was really disappointed with our response time this month. It is quite a bit lower than what he would like.

You know, at Diamond Corporation we try (helpless) to answer customer complaints within a 2-day time period. Last month it took us over 3 days to answer customer complaints. This is quite a ways (evasion) from the 2-day mark that we all strive for. And I know how hard all of you work (verbal manipulation).

But...try (helpless) to listen to some of the suggestions that I have for improving our response time....You are all such great employees, I know this won't be hard for you (verbal manipulation).

Remember...we do tell our customers that we will respond to their complaints within a 2-day time period. It is important....You know (hedge), our department's bonuses are based on our production level of a 2-day response time. I think (disclaimers) our

department can do that. Let's all try (helpless) to answer calls a little faster. OK? (hedge).

There may be a few things you could do to improve your response time. It might help if you watch how long you take a break....I mean (disclaimer), you are only supposed to take 10 minutes. Help me with this one (helpless). Please. Try, try (helpless) to get back to your desks when break time is over.

I overheard some area supervisors (evasion, using an advocate) say that we could improve our response time by using the 5 steps outlined in your training manual. These are the company guidelines on how to make a customer call. I think you will find some great tips on how to speed up your response time. Now...I really (intensifier) want to hear you going through these steps....It is recommended and should really (intensifier) help. You are probably close to following the steps anyway, I know how hard all of you work (verbal manipulation).

**Appendix – C (Study 1)****Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati***Department of Humanities & Social Sciences*

Dear Friend:

I am a PhD research scholar at the above institute. For my research work I am conducting a study on Influence Strategies. I would request you to please participate in this study and go through following pages. On the basis of a scenario you will be required to answer certain questions. Without your valuable help, it would not be possible for me to conduct this study.

There is no right and wrong answer. Your answer is the best answer. Therefore, please feel free to indicate your own choice. I assure you that your answers will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purposes.

Thank you very much for your kind help.

**Sudipa Nag**

***Research Scholar***

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**PERSONAL INFORMATION**

1. Age \_\_\_\_\_ (in years)
2. Gender M/F \_\_\_\_\_
3. Marital Status (Married/Single) \_\_\_\_\_
4. Qualification \_\_\_\_\_
5. Designation \_\_\_\_\_
6. Tenure in the present job \_\_\_\_\_ (in years)
7. Total work experience \_\_\_\_\_ (in years)
8. Present Salary (optional) \_\_\_\_\_
9. Your immediate boss's gender (M/F) \_\_\_\_\_



Dear Friend:

**Mr. Anil Kumar**, aged 35 years, is Manager of a big industrial unit and he is addressing his subordinates. Please read the following scenario carefully. You are requested to answer some questions based on this scenario.

Good morning staff. The purpose of this meeting today is to discuss our department's response time to customer complaints. I'm extremely disappointed with our response time this month. It is lower than the standards and policies here at the Diamond Corporation.

Remember our goal is to answer customer complaints within a 2-day time period. Last month it took us over 3 days to answer customer complaints. This is far from the 2-day mark that we all strive for. This morning I will be outlining the specific behaviors that need to change in order to improve our response time.

Again let me say, that it is our goal and policy here to respond to customer complaints within 2 days. We tell our customers that. Therefore, it is important for our credibility that we meet the 2-day mark.

Equally important is the fact that our department bonuses are based on our production level of 2 days. This department has seriously fallen short of this goal and must do what it takes to bring the response time back to the 2-day mark.

I will now outline the behaviors that must change. I have noted a problem with people taking extended breaks. Therefore, you need to watch how much time you spend on your breaks. Make sure that you only take your allotted time of 10 minutes, then promptly return to your desks.

I also want you to review the company guidelines on how to make a customer call. Too much time is being wasted on single customers because the 5 steps outlined in your training manual are not being followed. Be sure to read these as I'm sure the steps will help you to speed up your response time.

Again, let me remind you, that it is our goal here to answer customer complaints within a 2-day time frame. This morning I have outlined the behaviors that I expect to change in order for us to reach that goal.

Dear Friend:

On the basis of the scenario you have just read, please indicate your agreement and disagreement using scale given after each item. Please indicate your choice by placing (✓) mark at the scale.

1. Anil Kumar can give his subordinates undesirable job assignments.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

2. Anil Kumar can make his subordinates feel like they should satisfy their job requirements.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

3. Anil Kumar can increase his subordinates' pay level.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

4. Anil Kumar could be described as a leader.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

5. Anil Kumar is direct in his requests to his subordinates.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

6. Anil Kumar tells the truth.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

7. Anil Kumar is an effective leader.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

8. Anil Kumar can make his subordinates feel personally accepted.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

9. Anil Kumar can provide his subordinates with sound job-related advice.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

10. Anil Kumar can influence his subordinates' getting a promotion.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

11. Anil Kumar can give his subordinates good technical suggestions.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

12. Anil Kumar could be described as emotionally stable.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

13. Anil Kumar can influence his subordinates' getting a pay raise.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

14. Anil Kumar is assertive when making requests of his subordinates.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

15. Anil Kumar displays strong leadership abilities.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

16. Anil Kumar's subordinates can rely on what he says.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

17. Anil Kumar could be described as logical.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

18. Anil Kumar displays effective leader behaviors.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

19. Anil Kumar can make being at work difficult.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

20. Anil Kumar could be described as responsible.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

21. Anil Kumar is indirect in his requests to his subordinates.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

22. Anil Kumar can make his subordinates feel that they have commitments to meet.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

23. Anil Kumar does what he says he will do.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

24. Anil Kumar can share with his subordinates his considerable experience and/or training.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

25. Anil Kumar can make his subordinates recognize that they have tasks to accomplish.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

26. Anil Kumar can provide his subordinates with special benefits.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

27. Anil Kumar could be described as industrious.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

28. Anil Kumar can make his subordinates' work difficult for them.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

29. Anil Kumar is one of the best leaders in the organization.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

30. Anil Kumar can make things unpleasant on the job.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

31. Anil Kumar can make his subordinates feel like he approves of them.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

32. Anil Kumar can give his subordinates the feeling that they have responsibilities to fulfill.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

33. Anil Kumar's employees can believe what he tells them.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

34. Anil Kumar is unassertive when making requests of his subordinates.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

35. Anil Kumar could be described as self-confident.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

36. Anil Kumar follows up on what he says.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

37. Anil Kumar can make his subordinates feel important.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

38. Anil Kumar can make his subordinates feel valued.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

39. Anil Kumar can provide his subordinates with needed technical knowledge.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

Now, assume that you are one of Anil Kumar's subordinates, and he requests you to accomplish a specific task. How would you react to his request? Please indicate your agreement and disagreement by placing (√) mark at the scale.

40. I will make excuses about why the task cannot be carried out.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

41. I am not convinced that Anil Kumar's task is the best thing to do or even that it will be effective for accomplishing its purpose.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

42. I will make a pretense of complying but try to sabotage the task.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

43. I will refuse to carry out the task.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

44. I will internally agree with Anil Kumar's task.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

45. I will delay acting in the hope that Anil Kumar will forget about the task.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

46. I will make a great effort to carry out the task.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

47. I will ask higher authorities to overrule Anil Kumar's task.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

48. I will try to persuade Anil Kumar to withdraw or change the task.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

49. I will carry out the task but will be apathetic about it.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

50. I will implement the task effectively.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

51. I will do what Anil Kumar asks but will make only a minimal effort to carry out the task.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

## Appendix – D

### Information of the Organizations (Study 2 A and 2 B)

#### **Organization 1**

This organization is Asia's first and India's largest integrated private sector steel company. Established in 1907 with its iron ore, coal mines and one of the world's most modern steel making and finishing facilities at Jamshedpur in Eastern India, which includes a state-of-the art Cold Rolling Mill Complex and it is among the lowest cost producer of steel in the world.

It produces both flat and long products of about 4 million tonnes now. But it intends to raise its capacity to 15 million tonnes per annum by 2010 through organic growth and acquisitions. It recently announced its first major overseas investment in NatSteel, Singapore, which will give it a manufacturing footprint in six countries in the Asia Pacific Region and China.

It is also exploring opportunities in the ferro-chroma and titanium businesses in South Africa and the Southern Indian state of Tamil Nadu respectively.

The organization's relentless quest for excellence through initiatives like ASPIRE, which combines TPM, Six Sigma, Total Operational Performance, Suggestion Management and Quality Circles, has reaped rich benefits. The company has been conferred the Prime Minister's Trophy for the Best Integrated Steel Plant five times from the Indian Ministry of Steel. It also has been ranked among the top four world class steel companies by World Steel Dynamics, USA, for the past four years. It was also awarded

Asia's Most Admired Knowledge Enterprise Award-2003 by Teleos, an independent Knowledge Management Company of South Korea.

Its products include hot and cold rolled coils and sheets, galvanized sheets, tubes, wire rods, construction re-bars, rings and bearings. The company has introduced different brands related to its products and explores new avenues for steel utilization by techniques that are economical, use less natural resources and energy.

Apart from the main steel division the company's operations are grouped under some strategic business units, like, Bearings Divisions, Ferro Alloys and Minerals Division, Rings and Agrico Division, TGS, Tube Division and Wire Division. It also has several Subsidiary/Associates/JVs namely - TCIL, TRL, TRYL, TSIL, TMILL, JUSCO, ISWP, etc. Its present turnover is Rs. 9000.00 crores.

The company run town has India's only ISO 14001 certified municipal services and is also amongst the sixth participating cities of the UN Global compact cities Pilot Programme for addressing intractable social, economic and environmental issues in the urban context. Its main office is located at Jamshedpur and has its branch offices spreading in all over India.

The organization is run by the Board of Directors headed by the Chairman, two members of Financial Institution's Nominee, Managing Director and then two members of Whole-time Director. Managing Director is assisted by the two member of Deputy Managing Director. They are assisted by the different Divisions VPs and they are supported by the Company Secretary. They are followed by the different levels of Managers, Project Leaders, Officers and other staffs. The present employee strength of the company is 46,000. The company has dedicated agencies for Community Welfare



Work in diverse areas such as education, community health and HIV/AIDS awareness, income generation for economic well-being, environment management, relief, sports, art and culture, etc.

### **Organization 2**

This is a financial institution set up in the year 1990 for promotion, financing, development of industry in the small-scale sector, and coordinating the functions of other institutions engaged in similar activities.

Since its inception, it has been assisting the entire spectrum of the SSI sector including Village and Cottage industries through suitable schemes tailored to meet the requirements of the setting up of new projects, expansion, diversification, modernisation and rehabilitation of existing units and has extended a cumulative financial assistance to the tune of Rs.8,61,582.00 million by the end of March 31, 2003.

It has bagged the prestigious “ADFIAP Development Awards 2003” for its Rural Industries Programme (RIP) designed to give impetus to rural development by creating sustainable industrial and service enterprises in rural areas. Its present turnover is Rs.1405.48 crores.

The institution has its Head Office at Lucknow and it has four Zonal offices with Regional office and Branch offices all over India.

The institution is managed by a Board of Directors headed by Chairman and Managing Director. He is assisted by Deputy Managing Director then Additional Secretary & DC (SSI), Government of India, then Joint Secretary, Executive Director,

Managing Director & Group Executive (National Banking), Executive Director, Chairman, Chartered Accountant, National Vice President, Chairman and Managing Director of Bank. They are assisted by different divisions' officers and other staff.

### **Organization 3**

This organization is a group of one of India's leading business conglomerates with interests in diverse areas such as Telecommunications, Petrochemicals, Irrigation and Education. The group's range of products covers Electrical and Telecommunications Cables, Optical Fibre Cables, Rigid PVC Pipes, Suspension and Paste Grade PVC Resins, Continuous Cast Copper Rods and PVC Sheets. All these products are available to the customers through a well established and dedicated countrywide distribution network.

Established in 1957 as a small-scale industrial unit this group manufactured PVC insulated cables for the automobile industry. In 1972 this organization turned in to a limited company.

Since then, there has been no looking back and following a public offering in July, 1983, this company embarked on a continuous process of expansion and modernization which enabled it to become the most diversified largest cable manufacturer in the country.

In early nineties this group expanded into new business domains to manufacture Optic Fibre Cables and Copper Rods. Today the group's turnover exceeds Rs.20 Billion (about US\$ 450 million). The company has set its branch offices in different parts of the country with its Head office at Pune.

The organization is run by the Board of Directors headed by Chairman. He is assisted by the Managing Director, Dy. Managing Director, Executive Director and Director. They are supported by Company Secretary, then Bankers, Auditors and Solicitors. They are assisted by the different levels of officers and other staff members.

#### **Organization 4**

This organization has become synonymous with pioneering activities, in the Indian automobile industry. Established in 1970 it pioneered the concept of personalized transportation in India, with the launch of Kinetic Luna in 1972. It also takes the credit of revolutionizing the scooter industry in India. It was the first to introduce a gearless scooter with advanced features like TLAD suspension, auto choke, auto fuel cork, etc., thus offering convenience and comfort to the earlier hassled scooter customer.

This is the only Indian two wheeler manufacturing company that exports mopeds, scooters & motorcycles globally. Currently, vehicles are sold in over 40 countries including the USA, Latin America, Africa, Europe, Middle East and Asia. Over 150,000 vehicles have been exported, valued over USD 60 Million.

The company received the prestigious national trophy for Top Export Performance. Also, it is the winner of over 14 Exports Excellence awards. Its present turn over is Rs.1000 crores and employee strength is 3160.

The company is headed by the Chairman followed by Joint Managing Director and Managing Director in different Divisions. They are responsible for companies

strategy, sales, marketing, finance and other related matters. They are supported by other officials and staffs.

### **Organization 5**

This is a Refinery cum Petrochemical Ltd. situated at Dhaligaon in Bongaigaon District, Assam. Its foundation stone was laid in 1972 and it was incorporated as Govt. of India Undertaking under the administrative control of Ministry of Petroleum and Natural Gas on 20<sup>th</sup> February, 1974. The company became a subsidiary of IOCL, the country's largest petroleum company or largest commercial enterprise.

With an investment of about Rs. 8,900 million in the Refineries and Petrochemicals plants, it has the unique distinction of being the first indigenous grass root Refinery in the country integrated with a Petrochemical complex at one location.

The primary unit of the Refinery, Crude Distillation Unit (CDU-I), with an annual capacity to process 1.0 million tonnes of crude per annum (21,900 BPSD) was commissioned in February 1979. From there on, it was a remarkable track record of commissioning and operating of its various products like LPG, SRN, MRN, MS, ATF, SRO, HSD, LDO, LVFO, Petro-sol, Bonmex, RPC, CPC, Coke Dust, DMT & PSF. It was awarded the coveted ISO-9001: 2000 and ISO-14001: 1996 certificate. The employee strength of the organization is 1761 and its present turnover is Rs.2849 crores.

The company is run by Board of Directors headed by the Chairman. Then the Managing Director and seven different divisions Director. They are assisted by the three General Managers (Corporate Affairs & Technical, Finance and Refinery). They are

supported by thirteen Dy. General Managers of different divisions. They are assisted by different divisions officers and other staffs.

### **Organization 6**

This is the country's largest commercial enterprise, with a sales turnover of Rs.1,30,203 crore (US\$ 29.8 billion) and profits of Rs.7,005 crore (US\$ 1,603 million) for fiscal 2003.

It is India's No.1 Company in Fortune's prestigious listing of the World's 500 largest Corporations, ranked 189 for the year 2004 based on fiscal 2003 performance. It is also the 19<sup>th</sup> largest petroleum company in the world. It has also been adjudged No.1 in petroleum trading among the national oil companies in the Asia-Pacific region.

It began in 1959 and as India's flagship national oil company, it accounts for 55% petroleum products market share among PSU companies, 42% national refining capacity and 69% downstream pipeline throughput capacity.

Its group of companies owns and operates 10 of India's 18 refineries with a current combined capacity of 54.20 million metric tonnes per annum (MMTPA) or one million barrels per day (bpd), these include two subsidiary refineries also. It owns and operates the country's largest network of cross country crude oil and product pipelines of nearly 8,000 km, with a combined capacity of 56.85 MMTPA.

It also is strengthening its existing overseas marketing ventures and simultaneously scouting new opportunities for marketing and export of petroleum products to new energy markets in Asia and Africa. Two overseas subsidiaries are

already operational in Sri Lanka and Mauritius and a regional office at Dubai is coordinating expansion of business activities in Middle East region.

The company launched 11 joint ventures in partnership with some of the most respected corporates from India and abroad- Lubrizol, Nycos SA, Petronas, Oiltanking GmbH, Marubeni, to name a few. It markets its products in India as well as abroad. Products include Brands, Fuels & Feedstock, Lubes and Greases, Petrochemicals & specialties, Liquefied Petroleum Gas/LPG, Motor Spirit/Gasoline, Superior Kerosene Oil/Kero, High Speed Diesel/Gas Oil, Aviation Turbine Fuel/ Jet Kero. The company's employee strength is 21,500.

The company is run by the Board of Directors and then the Chairman. He is supported by seven Directors (Finance; Pipelines; HR; P&BD; Refineries; Marketing; R&D). They are assisted by the Additional Secretary, Joint Secretary and Joint Secretary & Financial Advisor. There are six part-time Non-official Directors. They are followed by Principal Executives and seven Executive Directors and then the Head of all Divisions and they are supported by Company Secretary and other officials.

### **Organization 7**

This organization is a global leader in integrated software and processing solutions, primarily for financial services. Formed in 1983 it also helps information-dependent enterprises of all types to ensure the continuity of their business. It serves more than 20,000 customers in more than 50 countries, including the world's 50 largest financial services companies. It is a member of the S&P 500 and has annual revenue of US\$3 billion.

Company's strategy basically focuses on economies of scale to reduce costs, on integration to build value and deep, long-term customer relationships. It operates a global financial transaction network which links their installed solutions across the financial services industry with third party solutions and utilities. Their focus is on cost efficient straight-through processing (STP).

Wherever financial assets are managed, traded, processed or accounted for, the company offers a software or processing solution:

- US\$15 trillion in investment assets worldwide are accounted for and managed daily on this system.
- Well in excess of 5 million trades are processed by financial intermediaries daily on this system.
- Approximately 70% of Nasdaq trade orders flow through this systems.

Wherever information assets are online or business-critical, it provides high availability and business continuity.

The company has its head office at Pennsylvania, USA. In India there are four offices in different locations in Pune. Its mainly a group of 88 companies united in span of some 20-25 years or so. The employee strength altogether is around 10,000 and 55 in one office at Pune. The Pune office started in the year 1993.

The company is headed by the Chairman. He is followed by President & Chief Executive Officer, then the Vice Chairman. He is supported by Executive Vice President followed by Group Chief Executive Officer. They are assisted by different categories of officers and other staffs.

## **Organization 8**

This organization plays a key role in not only meeting the transport needs of the country, but also in binding together dispersed areas and promoting national integration. Truly, this organization has emerged as the sinews of the Indian economy and has reached out to bring together the great Indian family.

Started in the year 1958 this organization traverse through the length and breadth of the country covering 63,140 route kms as on 31.3.2002, comprising broad gauge (45,099 kms), meter gauge (14,776 kms) and narrow gauge (3,265 kms). As the principal constituent of the nation's transport system, it owns a fleet of 2,16,717 wagons (units), 39,236 coaches and 7,739 number of locomotives and manage to run 14,444 trains daily, including about 8,702 passenger trains. They carry more than a million tonne of freight traffic and about 14 million passengers covering 6,856 number of stations daily.

This organization has been the prime movers of the nation and has the distinction of being one of the largest systems in the world under a single management. It is the more energy efficient mode of transport and ideally suited for movement of bulk commodities and for long distance travel.

Its system is managed through Zones and operating divisions. There are also six production units engaged in manufacturing rolling stock, wheels and other ancillary components to meet its requirements. It has its research and development wing which functions as the technical advisor and consultant to the Ministry, its Zonal offices and production units.



The formation of policy and overall control of this organization is vested in its Board comprising the Chairman, Financial Commissioner and other functional Members for Traffic, Engineering, Mechanical, Electrical and Staff Matters. The employee strength of the organization is around 70,000 now.

As per the Separation Convention, 1924, this organization's Budget is presented to the Parliament ahead of the General Budget. Though its Budget is separately presented to the Parliament, the figures relating to the receipt and expenditure of this organization are also shown in the General Budget, since the receipts and expenditure of the organization are a part and parcel of the total receipts and expenditure of the Government of India.

### **Organization 9**

This is a Government Organization under the Department of Information Technology under the Ministry of Communications and Information Technology, Govt. of India.

The organizational set up of this organization encompasses its Headquarters at New Delhi, State Units in all the 28 State Capitals and 7 Union Territory Headquarters and District Centres in almost all the Districts of India. The organization employs a large pool of efficient technical manpower.

In its Headquarters, a large number of Application Divisions exist which provide total Informatics Support to the Ministries and Departments of the Central Government. Its Computer Cells are located in almost all the Ministry Bhawans of the Central

Government and Apex Offices including the Prime Minister's Office, the Rashtrapati Bhawan and the Parliament House.

Its services include Computer Aided Design (CAD), Computer Aided Paperless Examination Systems (CAPES), Computer Telephony Interface (CTI), Consultancy Electronic Commerce, Geographical Information System (GIS), Informatics Services, Internet Services, Mathematical Modelling and Simulation, Multimedia Networking, Office Automation, Software Design and Development, Training, Video Conferencing & WWW Services.

Under its Assam State Center only in Guwahati, there are four units which run its operation with around 50 employees of different levels. The center is run by a Chief Scientist, followed by different categories of scientists and other officials and supporting staffs.

### **Organization 10**

This organization is a nation-wide supplier of thin film coating services and equipment with operations in Pune, Chennai and Umargam. Coating centers are strategically located near major industrial hubs. This allows the company to respond to customer requests quickly from almost anywhere India.

The company became a Private Limited Company in the year 1986 through a joint venture with a USA based corporation. In the year 1994, the company became the Public Limited Company.

It has three main Operating Businesses:

- The Decorative Business
- The Wear Resistance Business
- New Business Development Business

The company employs around 383 people and it has 19 sales offices located all over the nation for collection and delivering of wear resistance and decorative items. Its Head office is situated at Mumbai. The Company's present turnover is Rs. 30 crores.

The Research and Development Division of the company located at Pune constantly innovates and launches new products for the Indian market. Its products include various types of coating such as TiN (Titanium Nitride), CrN (Chromium Nitride), TiCN (Titanium Carbo Nitride), AlTiN (Aluminium Titanium Nitride) were introduced in various industries after an extensive study of its applications by the company's Technology and R&D Team. In company's endeavour to provide complete surface engineering solutions, it also undertakes jobs for Vacuum Heat Treatment (VHT), Plasma Ion Nitriding (PIN) and Vacuum Brazing jobs which are exported by some of its clients. The company's clientage is spread all over India and some of these are - TELCO, TITAN, HMT, BAJAJ AUTO, BHEL, BARC, ISRO, etc.

### **Organization 11**

This organization resonates in the Engineering and Automobile Industry. A well structured, modernized organization with an ISO 9002 Certification aims to achieve and maintain excellence at the highest level. Started in the year 1963 it is presently owned by the renowned Sandesara Group, it makes the best investment in terms of technology and manpower. In its Pune office the employee strength is 450 and its present turnover is Rs. 23 crores.

Today, it manufactures hi-tech, multi-operational CNC grinding machines, CNC Lathes & Automatic Lathe Machines to cater to the varied machining requirements. In its quest for excellence, the company has entered into multiple collaborations with Traub, Pittler, Fortuna, Voumard, Mikrosa to achieve new dimension of the Machine Tool Industry.

### **Organization 12**

This is India's most reliable, dynamic and futuristic automobile manufacturer. With more than 130 models spanning a wide range of Commercial Vehicles, Passenger Cars and Multi-Utility Vehicles, it provides the wheels for India's growth.

Established in 1945 this company entered into collaboration with a German Company in 1954 to manufacture commercial vehicles. The collaboration ended in 1969 but this company has still grown from strength to strength.

The company has spread its manufacturing facilities across India by setting up plants at Jamshedpur, Pune and Lucknow. This is coupled with a nation-wide sales, service and spare parts network. The company enjoys a significant demand export markets like Europe, Australia, South East Asia, Middle East and Africa. The company's vehicles are seen in all the continents.

Around 22,000 people who share a passion for automobiles are employed here. Its present turnover is Rs. 15 thousand crores.

The company won the prestigious 'Corporate Platinum' Award at the India Manufacturing Excellence Awards 2004. It also won 'Golden Peacock Award' for Corporate Social Responsibility for the year 2004.

The company is run by the Board of Directors headed by the Chairman and twelve other members. Among them one is Institutional Representative. They are followed by Senior Management which consists of three Executive Director, two Sr. Vice-President, two Vice-President. Then one Head (Corporate Communications) followed by Company Secretary. They are supported by other different levels of officials and other staffs.

### **Organization 13**

This organization is one of the leading producers of pumps, valves and related systems. 12,000 employees around the world work for maximum customer satisfaction in building services, industry and water utilities, the energy sector and mining. The company provides complete hydraulic systems for water supply and drainage.

It has 29 manufacturing sites in 19 countries. At each of them, it produces pumps and valves of global quality standards. The pump range covers a vast spectrum - from domestic rainwater utilization systems to process pumps or power station boiler feed units. Valves come in a choice of designs, sizes and materials for a whole spread of applications.

Whether it is product development, manufacturing, sales or service, this company's employees aim to be faster and better than their competitors. Its products' success stems, in large measure, from the company's own Research and Development.

Specialists there put major emphasis on the continual improvement and automation of pumps and valves, and on the reduction of life cycle costs. Its annual turnover is about 1200 million euro.

The company is headed by the Chairman, Board of Management and then two members of Board of Management. They are followed by different level of officials and staffs.

#### **Organization 14**

This is a developer center at Pune in India. Established in the year 2001, its Head office is in U.K. It is the leading 1D thermo fluid flow software package, designed for the engineers' desktop PC. It helps engineers to design complex fluid systems and understand how mechanical events, such as valves shutting quickly and pump trip, affect the fluid dynamics of the whole system.

Originally designed to accurately analyse the fluid dynamic effects of fast acting pressure transients (also known as pressure surge or water hammer) in complex pipe networks, this software has been the tool of choice for engineers who need to solve challenging fluid dynamic problems on a system level.

Company's Pune office employee strength is 21 and its present turnover is 2.9 pound million. It is run by the Managing Director followed by Senior Developer. They are followed by Task Coordinator or Team Leader. They are supported by the Middle level Developer and juniors and other officials.

**Organization 15**

This is consulting agency for software development. Established in the year 1986 and situated at Pune, it spread out its work by giving various structural consultancies for software development for various reputed companies.

Its employee strength is 30 and its present turnover is 5.4 million dollars.

**Organization 16**

This is a manufacturing company. It mainly manufactures Automobile Pressed parts & welded assemblies for major automobile manufacturers. It is under the Vasant Group of Industries.

It was established in the year 1991 and it is situated at Pune. Its employee strength is 60 and present turnover is approx Rs. 12 crores.

**Organization 17**

This is an autonomous, non-profit organization which was founded in April, 1990 and registered under Societies Registration Act, 1960. It is sponsored by Industrial Finance Corporation of India (IFCI), the Industrial Development Bank of India (IDBI) and the National Bank for Agriculture and Rural Development (NABARD). Its head office is located at Guwahati.

Its objectives are to:

- Promote, support and develop voluntary organizations engaged in the social and economic uplift of rural and urban poor, physically and socio-economically handicapped people.
- Improve the pace and quality of economic development, especially relating to the village and decentralized sector.
- Focus attention on groups which are disadvantageously placed in society, but have the potential for pursuing socially and economically productive activities.
- Assist the urban and rural people especially tribals, scheduled caste, women and children for their economic self sustenance.

It has a corpus of Rs.10.18 crores contributed by the sponsors, and programmes are financed and administrative expenditure met through investments of the corpus. It has a team of 54 personnel headed by Executive Director. It has over the years, provided support to over 1000 NGOs in fourteen states of the country and has played a major role in building up the NGO movement in the North East, Bihar and Orissa. It has emerged as an informal credit rating institution for NGOs and CBOs by virtue of its vast experience in this field.



## Appendix – E (Study 2 A)

### Indian Institute of Technology Guwahati Department of Humanities & Social Sciences

Dear Sir/Madam:

I am a research scholar at the above institute. For my research work I am conducting a study on Influence Strategies. I would request you to kindly participate in this study and go through the following pages to answer certain questions. Without your valuable help, it would not be possible for me to conduct this study.

There is no right and wrong answer. Your answer is the best answer. Therefore, please feel free to indicate your own choice. I assure you that your answers will be kept confidential and will be used only for research purposes.

Thank you very much for your kind help.

**Sudipa Nag**

*Research Scholar*

**[sudipa@iitg.ernet.in](mailto:sudipa@iitg.ernet.in)**

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#### PERSONAL INFORMATION

1. Age \_\_\_\_\_ (in years)
2. Gender M/F \_\_\_\_\_
3. Marital Status (Married/Single) \_\_\_\_\_
4. Qualification \_\_\_\_\_
5. Designation \_\_\_\_\_
6. Tenure in the present position \_\_\_\_\_ (in years)
7. Total work experience \_\_\_\_\_ (in years)
8. Present Salary \_\_\_\_\_
9. Designation of your immediate boss \_\_\_\_\_
10. Your immediate boss's gender (M/F) \_\_\_\_\_

### Section-I

1. **(PB)** In the course of your interaction with your superior in the organization, you make certain ideas about his/her managerial attributes. Below are statements depicting different attributes of the managers. You are requested to kindly indicate extent of your agreement/disagreement with these statements, considering your interaction with your superior during the past six months, using 7-point scale given below. Please write your choice on the small line to the left of each statement.

Strongly agree ----- 7	Slightly disagree ----- 3
Agree ----- 6	Disagree ----- 2
Slightly agree ----- 5	Strongly disagree ----- 1
Neither agree nor disagree ----- 4	

- \_\_\_ (01) My boss can give his/her subordinates undesirable job assignments.
- \_\_\_ (02) My boss can make his/her subordinates feel like they should satisfy their job requirements.
- \_\_\_ (03) My boss can increase his/her subordinates' pay level.
- \_\_\_ (04) My boss could be described as a leader.
- \_\_\_ (05) My boss tells the truth.
- \_\_\_ (06) My boss is an effective leader.
- \_\_\_ (07) My boss can make his/her subordinates feel personally accepted.
- \_\_\_ (08) My boss can provide his/her subordinates with sound job-related advice.
- \_\_\_ (09) My boss can influence his/her subordinates' getting a promotion.
- \_\_\_ (10) My boss can give his/her subordinates good technical suggestions.
- \_\_\_ (11) My boss could be described as emotionally stable.
- \_\_\_ (12) My boss can influence his/her subordinates' getting a pay raise.
- \_\_\_ (13) My boss displays strong leadership abilities.
- \_\_\_ (14) My boss's subordinates can rely on what he/she says.
- \_\_\_ (15) My boss could be described as logical.
- \_\_\_ (16) My boss displays effective leader behaviors.
- \_\_\_ (17) My boss can make being at work difficult.
- \_\_\_ (18) My boss could be described as responsible.
- \_\_\_ (19) My boss can make his/her subordinates feel that they have commitments to meet.
- \_\_\_ (20) My boss does what he/she says he/she will do.
- \_\_\_ (21) My boss can share with his/her subordinates his/her considerable experience and/or training.
- \_\_\_ (22) My boss can make his/her subordinates recognize that they have tasks to accomplish.

- \_\_\_ (23) My boss can provide his/her subordinates with special benefits.
- \_\_\_ (24) My boss could be described as industrious.
- \_\_\_ (25) My boss can make his/her subordinates' work difficult for them.
- \_\_\_ (26) My boss is one of the best leaders in the organization.
- \_\_\_ (27) My boss can make things unpleasant on the job.
- \_\_\_ (28) My boss can make his/her subordinates feel like he/she approves of them.
- \_\_\_ (29) My boss can give his/her subordinates the feeling that they have responsibilities to fulfill.
- \_\_\_ (30) My boss's employees can believe what he/she tells them.
- \_\_\_ (31) My boss could be described as self-confident.
- \_\_\_ (32) My boss follows up on what he/she says.
- \_\_\_ (33) My boss can make his/her subordinates feel important.
- \_\_\_ (34) My boss can make his/her subordinates feel valued.
- \_\_\_ (35) My boss can provide his/her subordinates with needed technical knowledge.

*Now, assume that your boss requests you to accomplish a specific task. How would you react to his/her request? Please indicate your agreement and disagreement on a 7-point scale and write it on the small line to the left of each item.*

- \_\_\_ (36) I will make excuses about why the task cannot be carried out.
- \_\_\_ (37) I am not convinced that my boss's task is the best thing to do or even that it will be effective for accomplishing its purpose.
- \_\_\_ (38) I will make a pretense of complying but try to sabotage the task.
- \_\_\_ (39) I will refuse to carry out the task.
- \_\_\_ (40) I will internally agree with my boss's task.
- \_\_\_ (41) I will delay acting in the hope that my boss will forget about the task.
- \_\_\_ (42) I will make a great effort to carry out the task.
- \_\_\_ (43) I will ask higher authorities to overrule my boss's task.
- \_\_\_ (44) I will try to persuade my boss to withdraw or change the task.
- \_\_\_ (45) I will carry out the task but will be apathetic about it.
- \_\_\_ (46) I will implement the task effectively.
- \_\_\_ (47) I will do what my boss asks but will make only a minimal effort to carry out the task.

## Section-II

2. **(DIS)** Below are described various ways of obtaining information about how your boss goes about changing the mind (or opinion) of his/her subordinates, so that they agree with him/her. Please describe each statement on a 7-point scale given below, how frequently during the past

six months your boss used each of the following items to influence you and your colleagues at work.

Always ----- 7	Seldom ----- 3
Almost always ----- 6	Almost never ----- 2
Usually ----- 5	Never ----- 1
Sometimes ----- 4	

Please select the number of your choice and write it on the small line to the left of each item. Answer each item in terms of what your boss generally did and not what he/she would like to do.

- \_\_\_ (01R) He/she convinced me by telling the urgency and utility of the issue at hand.
- \_\_\_ (02S) He/she gave me unsatisfactory performance evaluation.
- \_\_\_ (03I) He/she asked me to do some task in a polite way.
- \_\_\_ (04S) He/she shouted at me in front of my co-workers.
- \_\_\_ (05P) He/she did personal favours for me.
- \_\_\_ (06I) He/she made me feel important.
- \_\_\_ (07A) He/she set a time deadline for me to do what he/she asked.
- \_\_\_ (08S) He/she gave me satisfactory performance evaluation.
- \_\_\_ (09R) He/she told me the reasons why his/her plan was the best.
- \_\_\_ (10E) He/she promised me to help me in getting further advancements if I helped him/her now.
- \_\_\_ (11S) He/she withheld my future advancements.
- \_\_\_ (12R) Sometimes he/she told me the reasons for making a request to me.
- \_\_\_ (13E) He/she offered an exchange of favour.
- \_\_\_ (14A) He/she repeatedly checked up to see if his/her directions were followed.
- \_\_\_ (15A) He/she demanded me to do what he/she requested.
- \_\_\_ (16I) He/she praised me with superlatives.
- \_\_\_ (17E) At times he/she showed his/her knowledge of the specific issue.
- \_\_\_ (18S) He/she praised me verbally for my outstanding performance.
- \_\_\_ (19R) He/she argued his/her points logically.
- \_\_\_ (20A) He/she repeatedly reminded about what he/she wanted.
- \_\_\_ (21P) He/she helped me even in personal matters.
- \_\_\_ (22E) He/she told me that he/she had a lot of experience with such matters.
- \_\_\_ (23S) He/she showed a feeling of dislike towards me.
- \_\_\_ (24E) He/she influenced me because of his/her competence.
- \_\_\_ (25E) He/she reminded me of past favours that he/she had done for me.
- \_\_\_ (26R) He/she told me exactly why he/she needed my help.

- \_\_\_ (27S) He/she recommended (or gave) me extra benefits (e.g., overtime) for getting his/her work done.
- \_\_\_ (28E) His/her knowledge of the technical issues won my favour for him/her.
- \_\_\_ (29S) He/she challenged my ability (e.g. "I bet, you can't do that").
- \_\_\_ (30E) He/she asked me to cooperate for getting the work done while promising extra benefits for it.
- \_\_\_ (31A) He/she simply ordered me to do what was asked.
- \_\_\_ (32I) He/she used the words which made me feel good.
- \_\_\_ (33P) He/she went out of his/her way to help me at the time of my need.
- \_\_\_ (34E) He/she offered some personal sacrifice in exchange (e.g., doing part of my job, etc.)
- \_\_\_ (35S) He/she recommended or offered a salary increase.
- \_\_\_ (36I) Even when he/she knew he/she would not use my advice he/she consulted me.
- \_\_\_ (37I) He/she encouraged me to discuss even my personal problems.
- \_\_\_ (38A) He/she pointed out that the rules required that I comply.

### Section-III

3. **(UIS)** Below are described various ways of obtaining information about how you go about changing your immediate superior's mind (or opinion) so that he/she agrees with you. Please describe each statement on a 7-point scale given below, how frequently during the past six months you used it to influence your immediate superior at work.

Always ----- 7	Seldom ----- 3
Almost always ----- 6	Almost never ----- 2
Usually ----- 5	Never ----- 1
Sometimes ----- 4	

Please select the number of your choice and write it on the small line to the left of each item. Answer each item in terms of what you generally did, not what you would like to do.

- \_\_\_ (01R) At times I explained the reasons for my request.
- \_\_\_ (02U) I appealed formally to higher levels to back my request.
- \_\_\_ (03B) At times I withheld some crucial information from him/her.
- \_\_\_ (04P) I helped him/her even in personal matters.
- \_\_\_ (05E) I offered an exchange of favor (e.g., 'If you do this for me, I will do something for you.').
- \_\_\_ (06I) I praised him/her with superlatives.
- \_\_\_ (07D) I showed that I was dependent on him/her only.

- \_\_\_ (08R) I used logic to convince him/her.
- \_\_\_ (09P) I got my way by convincing him/her that my way was the best way.
- \_\_\_ (10D) I pretended that he/she has the responsibility to decide things for me.
- \_\_\_ (11C) I obtained the support of my subordinates to back my request.
- \_\_\_ (12Ū) I showed a feeling of dislike towards him/her.
- \_\_\_ (13R) I provided sufficient information in support of my view.
- \_\_\_ (14P) I helped him/her and went out of my way when he/she was in need of help.
- \_\_\_ (15B) I engaged in a work slow-down until he/she did what I wanted.
- \_\_\_ (16C) I brought some friends along to back my request.
- \_\_\_ (17R) I told him/her the reasons why my plan was the best.
- \_\_\_ (18Ū) I voiced my wishes loudly.
- \_\_\_ (19Ē) I influenced him/her because of my competence.
- \_\_\_ (20M) I usually got my way by making him/her feel that it was his/her idea.
- \_\_\_ (21R) I convinced him/her by explaining the importance of the issue.
- \_\_\_ (22D) At times I differed from him/her.
- \_\_\_ (23P) At times I tried to persuade him/her that my way was the best way.
- \_\_\_ (24U) I got the support of someone higher up to back my request.
- \_\_\_ (25I) I made him/her feel important.
- \_\_\_ (26P) I repeatedly persuaded him/her to comply with my arguments as they were the need  
of the time.
- \_\_\_ (27E) I offered to help if he/she would do what I wanted.
- \_\_\_ (28D) I showed that I always supported him/her.
- \_\_\_ (29D) I opposed him/her openly, if it was necessary.
- \_\_\_ (30Ē) At times I showed my knowledge of the specific issue.
- \_\_\_ (31I) I acted very humbly to him/her while requesting my point.
- \_\_\_ (32D) If necessary, I put a note of dissent on his/her proposal.
- \_\_\_ (33Ū) I paid friendly visits to him/her.
- \_\_\_ (34C) I obtained the support of co-workers to back my request.
- \_\_\_ (35D) I made a show that I had respect for him/her.
- \_\_\_ (36B) I acted unfriendly or did not cooperate with him/her.
- \_\_\_ (37D) I pretended that I cared for him/her.
- \_\_\_ (38Ē) I told him/her that I had a lot of experience with such matters.
- \_\_\_ (39I) I used words which made him/her feel good.
- \_\_\_ (40U) I usually referred the matter to a higher authority if the situation so demanded.
- \_\_\_ (41D) Sometimes I fought with him/her.
- \_\_\_ (42B) I stopped the work in-between if my demands were not met.
- \_\_\_ (43E) I reminded him/her how hard I had worked and that it would only be fair for him/her to  
help me now.
- \_\_\_ (44M) I distorted or lied about the reasons why he/she should do what I wanted.

- \_\_\_ (45D) I made him/her understand my need for his/her help.
- \_\_\_ (46C) I got everyone else (my colleagues) to agree with me before I made the request.
- \_\_\_ (47D) I showed that I sought his/her help.
- \_\_\_ (48E) I offered to work harder in the future.
- \_\_\_ (49M) I presented my ideas in a disguised way.
- \_\_\_ (50E) My expertise of the technical issues won his/her favor for me.
- \_\_\_ (51C) I called a staff meeting to back my request.
- \_\_\_ (52D) I challenged his/her ability.
- \_\_\_ (53M) I kept track of his/her omissions and commissions.
- \_\_\_ (54P) I did personal favors for him/her.
- \_\_\_ (55E) I offered some personal sacrifice in exchange (e.g., doing part of his/her and another's job).

#### Section-IV

4. **(JS)** In this section, please indicate how satisfied you are on a 7-point scale with each of the following aspects of your job. Read each item carefully and put the number of your choice on the small line to the left of each item.

Very dissatisfied ----- 7	Slightly satisfied ----- 3
Dissatisfied ----- 6	Satisfied ----- 2
Slightly dissatisfied ----- 5	Very satisfied ----- 1
Neutral ----- 4	

How satisfied are you with:

- \_\_\_ (01) The fringe benefits you receive.
- \_\_\_ (02) The friendliness of the people you work with.
- \_\_\_ (03) The amount of freedom you have on your job.
- \_\_\_ (04) The chances you have to learn new things.
- \_\_\_ (05) The respect you receive from the people you work with.
- \_\_\_ (06) The chances you have to accomplish something worthwhile.
- \_\_\_ (07) The amount of pay you get.
- \_\_\_ (08) The chances you have to do something that makes you feel good about yourself as person.
- \_\_\_ (09) The way you are treated by the people you work with.
- \_\_\_ (10) The chances you have to take part in making decisions.
- \_\_\_ (11) The amount of job security you have.

***Thank you once again for your kind help.***

## Appendix – F (Study 2 B)

### Interview Schedule

1. First of all, please tell us about your background, your parents and family, and about your education.
2. Please share with us the details of the path of your career, which you have traveled to reach at this position. Also, what kinds of problems/hurdles or challenges did you face to reach at your present position?
3. Do you think there was a role of your gender in some of the problem/hurdles or challenges, which you have just mentioned?
4. Do you notice some sort of different treatment from the managers of opposite gender?
5. Do you feel that managers of opposite gender get more preference from the top management?
6. Do you change your style of dealing with subordinates depending on their gender?
7. Do you change your style of dealing with superiors depending on their gender?
8. While doing performance appraisal of your subordinates, do you grant them certain concessions due to their gender?
9. How your achievements are judged by the colleagues of opposite sex?
10. When you are required to get some work done from your subordinates, do you ask them very directly, or first you use some context, i.e., asking them indirectly?
11. Did you face any problem while adjusting with your present job or previous job due to your gender?
12. Being at this responsible position, how do you manage a balance between home and work place?
13. Being a female, you are also required to play the role of a mother, sister and daughter-in-law, how do you manage these roles vis-à-vis your role in the organization?  
*[only for female respondents]*
14. How would you distribute, let's say 100 marks, between work and home in terms of their relative importance to you?
15. Lastly, do you feel happy when you get success in male dominated society?  
*[only for female respondents]*



**Appendix – G (Study 2 B)****Biographical Information of Male Executives (N = 15)**

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The first executive is working in a Government Organization (See the details in Organization 8 in Appendix - D) and he is around 45 years of age. He is working as Chief Personal Officer. He has done his Masters in Physics and then appeared for Civil Services and cleared it. He has completed his 25 years of service. He is married and has two sons.

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The second executive for this interview is around 48 years of age and working in a Government Organization in the position of Chief General Engineer (See the details in Organization 8 in Appendix - D). After doing B.E. (Civil) he joined the service and has completed around 28 years of it. Regarding his family concerned he is married and has one son and one daughter.

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This executive has done his Doctorate in Business Administration and working in a Government Organization for about 22 years (See the details in Organization 8 in Appendix - D). He is around 42 years of age and his designation is Chief Personal Officer. He is married and his wife is also a Doctor in a Government Hospital and he has two sons.

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The fourth executive of the interview did his Post-Graduation in Mechanical Engineering and is now working as a Chief Workshop Engineer in a Government Organization (See the details in Organization 8 in Appendix - D). He has completed around 21 years of his service now. Regarding his family his father was also a Civil Servant and he is married and has one daughter and one son.

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The next executive is working as Analyst in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). He has done his B.E. in Mechanical Engineering and then MBA. His father was a Doctorate and was retired as a Scientist. His length of service is around 12 years. Regarding his family, his wife is working as an ICWA. And he has one son.

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After completion of his B.Tech in Mechanical Engineering, this executive joined the service around 15 years back and now he is working as an analyst in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). He has also completed Post-Graduation in Management. He is married and has one daughter.

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The seventh executive has done his Masters Degree in Personal Management and Industrial Relations and then joined a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). His designation now is Head, H&R and his duration of service is around 18 years. He is married and his wife is also working with him in the same organization. He has one son and one daughter.

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This executive is around 37 years old and is working as Head, H&R in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). His length of service is around 17 years now. Regarding his educational qualification, he did M.Sc. in Statistics and then MBA from the same place and then joined the service. His immediate family is his wife and one kid.

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The ninth executive did his Post-Graduation in Business Management and Engineering and is working as Chief, Product Development & Engineering in a Private Organization (See the details in the Organization 1 in Appendix - D). His length of service is around 32 years. He is married and his wife also working in the same organization with him. And he has two daughters.

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The next executive is 54 years old and did his Bachelor in Engineering. Soon after completion of the degree he joined in a Private Organization (See the details in the Organization 1 in Appendix - D) and is now working as a Chief, Project Management. His length of service is around 33 years. He is married and his wife is also working. He has three daughters and one son.

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The eleventh executive is working as a Manager, Project in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D) soon after completion of his Engineering degree. His length of service is now around 27 years. He is married and has two children.

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This executive is working as a Director in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 13 in Appendix - D). He did his graduation in Mechanical Engineering and the length of his service is around 27 years. He is married and has one son.

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The next executive has done his Diploma in Mechanical Engineering and then Post-Diploma in Production Engineering. Then he worked in UK in 1978. Then came back to India and from 1992 he is working as Director in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 14 in Appendix - D). His length of service in the present organization is around 12 years. He is married and does not have any children.

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The fourteenth executive is around 58 years old and is working as an Assistant Personal Officer in a Government Organization (See the details in Organization 8 in Appendix - D). His length of service is around 12 years in the present position as he joined the service below the present position. He is married and has two sons and one daughter.

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The last executive is working in a Government Organization (See the details in Organization 8 in Appendix - D) and reached the present position through competitive departmental examinations. He is around 45 years old and his designation is Senior Assistant Financial Advisor. His length of present position is around 11 years. He is married and has one daughter.

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**Biographical Information of Female Executives (N = 15)**

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The first executive did her Masters in Economics and joined the service in a Government Organization (See the details in Organization 8 in Appendix - D) as a Chief Public Relations Officer through the Civil Service Exam. She is around 41 years of age and her length of service is about 21 years. She is married and has one son. Her husband is also a Civil Servant in a Government Organization.

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The next executive did her M.A. in Philosophy and appeared for the Civil Service Examination and cleared it. Then she joined as a Senior Assistant Financial Advisor in a Government Organization (See the details in Organization 8 in Appendix - D). She is working in the present position for about 11 years. She is married and her husband is also an IAS officer and she has one son.

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This executive is working as a Senior Assistant Financial Advisor in a Government Organization (See the details in Organization 8 in Appendix - D) She has done her M.A. in History. She joined the service after clearing the Civil Service Examination and her length of service is around 11 years. Her father was also in Government service. She is married and her husband is also an IAS officer and she has one son.

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The fourth executive did her graduation in Electrical Engineering and MBA before she joined the service. She is working as Head, Telephone in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). Her length of service is about 11 years. Regarding her family, she is married and her husband is a Mechanical Engineer and she has one daughter.

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The next executive for the interview is around 40 years of age and is working as Head, Global Sourcing in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). After doing her Graduation in Chemistry (Honors) she got married and after 7 years she joined the service in the present organization. She has been working in the present position for about 10 years. Her father was also working in the same organization earlier. She is married and has one daughter.

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The sixth executive did her Computer Engineering and then joined a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). She is working as Head, DBA. She is around 44 years of age and her length of service is about 22 years. She is married and her husband is also an engineer and works in the same organization with her and she has two daughters.

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This executive did her Masters and then went to Canada for Computer Course. After that she returned back to India and joined in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). Her designation now is Analyst, Strategic Sourcing and she has completed about 20 years of her service. She is married and her husband is also working in the same organization and she has one son and one daughter.

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The next executive is around 34 years of age and works in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). She is working as an Analyst, Strategic Sourcing. She did her M.Tech. in Material Science and Engineering and then did her Ph.D. on Refractories. Her length of service is about 14 years. Her father was an ex-employee of Government service and she is unmarried.

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The ninth executive is an Electrical Engineer with MBA degree. She is working as an Analyst, Raw Materials in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). She has been working for the organization for about 14 years. Regarding her family, she is married and her husband also works in the same organization and she has one son.

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This executive did her Masters in Chemistry and is around 45 years old. She joined in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D) and her designation now is Head, SAP Centre. Her length of service is about 23 years. Her immediate family consists of her husband and two daughters. Her husband is an Engineer and works in the same organization with her.

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The next executive is working as Head, H&R in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). She did her Post-Graduation in Personal Management and Industrial Relations. Then she joined the service and her length of service is about 20 years. Her father was an ex-employee of the same organization and she is married and has two children.

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The twelfth Executive is around 42 years of age and did her Post-Graduation in Rural Development. She is working as Head, PLE in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). Her length of service is about 23 years and she is married and her husband also works in the same organization and she has two kids.

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This executive did her M.Sc. and then joined a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). Now her designation is Manager, IT and her length of service is about 22 years. Her father also worked in the same organization earlier. She is married and her husband is also working in the same organization and she has two children.

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The next executive is around 43 years of age and is working as Head, Process Consumables in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). She did her Post-Graduation in Engineering before joining the service. Her length of service is about 23 years. She is married and has one daughter.

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The last executive is an Electrical Engineer and joined service in a Private Organization (See the details in Organization 1 in Appendix - D). Her designation now is Chief, Ethics Counsellor. She has been working for the organization for nearly 30 years. Her father was an ex-employee of the same organization where she works. She is married and her husband also works with her in the same organization and she has one son.

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