THE IMPACT OF LEVEL OF RESISTANCE AND GENDER ON

INFLUENCE TACTICS

by

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ABSTRAK

Dengan menggunakan teori kepimpinan kuasa-pengaruhan, kajian ini menguji hubungan di antara tahap rintangan terhadap penggunaan technologi ('resistance to technological change') dan penggunaan taktik pengaruh ('influence tactics') oleh agen pengubah ('change agent') apabila melaksanakan penggunaan teknologi atau sistem maklumat yang baru. Selain itu, impak daripada jantina pengguna, jantina agen pengubah, dan interaksi di antara penbolehubah ini juga dikaji. Kesan langsung dan interaksi ini dapat dibuktikan dengan mengumpulkan data daripada 283 individu yang bekerja di sektor perkilangan di Pulau Pinang, Malaysia. Tahap rintangan mengenai keseluruhan "*set up*" menunjukkan kesan langsung yang negatif terhadap taktik lembut dan taktik keras. Selain itu, tahap rintangan mengenai faedah teknologi itu menunjukkan kesan langsung yang negatif terhadap taktik lembut, rasional, dan taktik keras. Manakala, tahap rintangan mengenai ketepatan masa pula menunjukkan kesan langsung yang positif terhadap taktik keras. Dengan itu, kajian ini mencadangkan agen pengubah supaya mempengaruhi pengguna-penguna yang menunjukkan pelbagai tahap rintangan dengan taktik yang berlainan. Di samping itu, agen pengubah membezakan penggunaan taktik pengaruh berdasarkan jantinanya. Akhir sekali, mereka juga mempelbagaikan taktik pengaruh mereka atas impak jantina penguna.

ABSTRACT

Using power-influence leadership theory, this study sought to test the relationship between user's level of resistance and change agents' use of influence tactics during the new technology or information system implementation. Impacts of gender of the user, gender of the change agent, and the interaction among variables on the use of influence tactics were also examined. Direct and interactive effects on influence tactics were predicted by using data collected from 283 individuals who work in manufacturing firms in Penang, Malaysia. Direct effect of resistance regarding overall set up was negatively related to soft tactics and hard tactics. Besides, direct effect of resistance regarding value was negatively also related to change agents' used of soft tactics, rational tactics, and hard tactics. However, resistance regarding timing was found positively related to hard tactics. Therefore, findings reveal that change agents adopt different influence tactics in responding to the user's level of resistance. Besides that, men and women change agents differ in the use of influence tactics. In addition, both men and women change agents vary their use of influence tactic according to gender differences of their user.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1   Background

Technology creates competitive advantages and vast global opportunities for organizations (Laudon & Laudon, 2002). Globalization has made these technological changes even more rapid and unpredictable (Eisenhardt, 2002). Therefore, organizations need to be innovative and adaptive to dramatic changes and sophisticated technology in order to sustain its competitive advantage. In doing so, new technology and information systems are always introduced and initiated in the organization. During the new technology implementation process, management level cannot assume that users will receive a good system with open arms; however, they do not always willingly adopt or use the new information system, and sometimes some of them actively resist the adoption process (Burton, Leitch, & Tuttle, 2001). There is ample evidence to demonstrate that a user's perceptions of a new information technology can have a critical impact on the degree to which an implementation effort succeeds or fails (Abdinnour-Helm, Lengnick-Hall, & Lengnick-Hall, 2003). Maurer (1996, as cited in Gray, 2002) asserted that only one-third of major technological changes in organizations were a success; the failure of this new technology implementation was caused mainly by the resistance to change of adopters. Resistance to change is illegitimate behavior and an attack on organizational interests (Boonstra & Gravenhorst, 1998). Therefore, it is crucial for the technological change agent to understand the effectiveness of various influence tactics in responding to users with different level of resistance towards technology adoption.

Yukl, Guinan, and Sottolano (1995) suggested that managers vary their influence tactics somewhat depending on objectives of the influence attempt. Most of empirical researches on influence tactics have been done in the western context (Yukl, Fu, & McDonald, 2003). Until only recently an increased number of studies were conducted in northern Malaysia (Ansari, Ahmad, & Aafaqi, in press). This research will further study and understand the use of influence tactics in the Malaysian context. It explores the relative effectiveness of the use of various influence tactics by managers in responding to the user's level of resistance. This will successfully help organizations to initiate strategic technological change that is expected to provide significant benefits to organizations.

1.2   Problem Statement

Technological change agents are often responsible for the initiation and implementation of the new technology or information system that are vital to the success, and even survival of the firm (Enns, Huff, & Golden, 2003). In doing so, change agents are frequently required to spend much of their time attempting to convince and influence others to commit to strategic technology projects (Lederer & Mendelow, 1988).

There are various types of influence tactics (soft, rational, and hard tactics) that can be utilized by the change agents. At the same time, agents are confronting different level of resistance of their users. What determines the effective choice among various influence tactics? Do the change agents use the same particular influence tactics when dealing with different levels of user's resistance? Or, they vary their use of influence tactics in different situations (high or low level of resistance of the user)? Since there are limited empirical studies that have been conducted to assess

the effective use of influence tactics in responding to various level of resistance of the user, it is important to examine the user's resistance level and effectiveness of influence tactics used in order to set path for future technological implementation.

Therefore, during the influencing process, leaders should pay attention not only to the actual influence tactics they use (e.g., "how" they are influencing others) but also to "why" they believe such tactics are called for (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2002). Besides, with the increasing number of women in the workplace, do the gender difference of the user and the change agent affect the effective use of influence tactics? Hence, this research studies the actual effective use of influence tactics of the change agent instead of the perceived exercise of influence tactics that are preferred by the target.

1.3   Research Objectives

The main objective of this research is to investigate the use of most appropriate and effective influence tactics by technological change agents in responding to various levels of resistance of users towards technology. Besides that, this study is conducted to examine the impact of gender of the user, gender of the change agent, and the interaction among variables on the use of influence tactics by change agents. Finally, the objective of the study is to seek the consistency of its findings with previous researches performed in different cultural and geographical settings.

1.4   Research Questions

This study attempts to answer the following questions:

(1)   Do change agents differ their use of influence tactics according to resistance level of the user?

(2)   Does the use of influence tactics by the change agent vary according to the gender of the user?

(3)   Do men and women change agents differ in the use of influence tactics?

(4)   Do resistance level and gender of the user interactively predict the change agent's use of influence tactics?

(5)   Do user's resistance level and gender of the change agent interactively predict the change agent's use of influence tactics?

(6)   Do gender of the change agent and gender of the user interactively predict the change agent's use of influence tactics?

(7)   Do user's resistance level, gender of the user, and gender of the change agent interactively predict the change agent's use of influence tactics?

1.5   Significance of the Study

There have been few researches studied on the use of the effectiveness of manager's influence tactics in responding to the subordinate's resistance. Empirical study in this area within the local context of Malaysia is very little. Theoretically, this study would add to the limited literature in understanding the antecedents of influence tactics, that is, the relationship among user's level of resistance and gender differences on the effective use of influence tactics.

Besides, from the practical perspective, this study would contribute to local organizations in terms of understanding how the resistance level towards technology

of the user would have impact on the effective use of influence tactics by the change agent. During the new technology implementation, change agents dealing with different levels of resistance by the user. To achieve success in the strategic technology initiative, technological change agents would have to "read" various users' level of resistance and employ the best-fit influence tactics so that to gain their users' support and acceptance. Therefore, the significance of the study provides an integration of the level of resistance and gender differences on change agents' use of influence tactics.

1.6   Definition of Key Terms

Power—capacity of one party (the "agent") to influence another party (the "target") (Yukl, 1994).

Influence—a necessity to sell your ideas, to gain acceptance of your policies or plans, and to motivate others to support and implement your decisions (Yukl, 1998).

Influence tactics—attempts by the agent to change the behavior, attitudes, or beliefs of the target (Castro, Douglas, Hochwarter, Ferris, & Frink, 2003).

Rational persuasion—involves the use of rational methods like giving reasons, explanation, writing memos, and detailed plans, and providing facts and data to influence; uses logical arguments and factual evidence to persuade the person that a proposal or request is practical and likely to result in the attainment of task objectives (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980; Ansari, 1990; Ansari & Bhal, 2000; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Falbo, 1977; Yukl & Tracey, 1992.

Showing expertise—occurs when the agent try to highlight their inner ability (Ansari, 1990).

Assertiveness—involves forcefully telling and demanding, showing verbal anger, pointing out rules (Kipnis, et al, 1980; Ansari & Bhal, 2000; Kipnis, 1976).

Upward appeal—involves bringing pressure on someone higher up in the hierarchy (Kipnis, et al, 1980; Kipnis, et al, 1980; Ansari, 1990; Ansari & Bhal, 2000).

Pressure—uses demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders to influence the target to do something (Kipnis, et al, 1980; Yukl, 1994).

Ingratiation—contains elements of making the other person feel important such as flattery, praise, inflating the importance of the request, showing a need, asking politely, acting humble or friendly, or pretending that the other person is really going to make the decision (Ansari, 1990; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Falbo, 1977; Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

Exchange—exchange of favors, indicates willingness to reciprocate at a later time, or promises a share of benefits if the target help accomplish a task (Yukl, 1994).

Personalized help—involves exchange of favors and personal sacrifices and when agents choose this tactics, they are willing to be more cooperative and helpful in order to achieve their hidden objectives (Ansari, 1990; Ansari & Bhal, 2000).

Instrumental dependency—trying to influence others by showing dependency on them (Ansari, 1990; Ansari & Bhal, 2000).

Resistance—the unfavorable response, reaction, belief, and negative attitude towards technology adoption; an aversive motivational state, initiated when one perceives that ones' freedom is threatened, and directing thought and action toward regaining the threatened freedom (Breham, 1966).

Pre-implementation stage—users see the new technology first time and preliminary training is provided.

Change agent—the person who acts as catalysts and undertakes the responsibility for managing the technological change process and attempts to influence users in order to implement the new technology/information system successfully.

User—the person who utilizes and adopts the new system.

Gender and sex—Gender refers to role behaviors and psychological processes/identity. It was conceptualized early on as uni-dimensional, with femininity and masculinity as opposite ends of a single dimension (Constantinople, 1973). Sex refers to the biological classification of humans based on sexual differences. It can be categorized into either "male" or "female". In this study "gender" appears to be a polite version of the word "sex". These two terms are used interchangeably in normal usage as well as in scholarly writings (Dubrin, 1991).

1.7 Organization of the Report

Chapter 1 gave a glance of the need for this research and overview the background of the study. The problem statement, objectives and significance of the study were discussed.

Previous researches were studied and reviewed in the chapter 2. Theoretical framework and hypotheses were then developed based on the literature review. Chapter 3 discusses research methodology used during the study. Questionnaires were also developed based on the methodology discussed. Chapter 4 performed the statistical analyses and hypotheses testing. Finally, discussion of the findings, implications, and limitations of the study were concluded in the chapter 5.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1   Introduction

To initiate and implement new technology and information system strategy successfully, change agents are always required to influence users in the organization. During the technology change process, they spend much time in responding to user's resistance. This chapter will first review the power and influence tactics used by change agents follow by users' resistance to change level. Previous literature on gender is also studied. Based on the literature review, theoretical framework and hypotheses are developed at the end of this chapter.

2.2   Influence Tactics

A power base is a source of influence in a social relationship (Ansari, 1990). Power involves the capacity of one party (the agent) to influence another party (the target) (Yukl, 1994). Intimate couples, parents and children, friends and colleagues, represent a broad array of social relationship where actions and behaviors of one individual are often influenced by those of another (Mallalieu & Faure, 1998). Bass (1960) distinguished two power sources—position power and personal power. Position power stems from a person's formal position and implies the legitimate authority to use positive and negative sanctions such as rewards and coercion (Boonstra & Gravenhorst, 1998). It is based on structural power sources related to the hierarchical position (Peiro & Melia, 2003). According to Peiro and Melia (2003), formal power was exercised in a top-down manner; superiors exert formal power on their subordinates while the opposite is not the case.

However, power bases were not limited to position power. In 1959, French and Raven included their classical typology with personal power--expert power and referent power, other than legitimate power, reward power, and coercive power. Informal/personal power is based on personal resources whose distribution was not necessarily related to the hierarchical structure of the organization (Peiro & Melia, 2003). It requires that the target accepts the influence of the agent and allows the target to develop a feeling of control and empowerment (Goldberg & Campbell, 1997). Subsequently, two more bases—information and connection—were added (Ansari, 1990; Hersey, Blanchard, & Natemeyer, 1979; Raven, 1965). One uses information power when he or she possesses or has access to information that is valuable for others, whereas uses of connection power when ones has connections with influential or important persons (Ansari, 1990).

Power bases alone are insufficient unless one uses them. Therefore, behavioral manifestations based on various resources available are important for successful influence attempts (Ansari, 1990). Social influence occurs when a person's thought change, whether physiological, attitudinal, emotional, or behavioral as the result of the real, implied, or imagined presence of other's influence (Latene, 1981). Change agents need power to influence others during the change process (Boonstra & Gravenhorst, 1998). Mallalieu and Faure (1998) found that intensity of power directly affected choice of influence tactics. When the balance of power favors the target person, personal powers of persuasion such as the use of reason, or even of threats, are not likely to gain compliance (Rind & Kipnis, 1999), and therefore soft strategies are more likely to be used.

One of leadership challenges is to select the most appropriate influence tactics based on one's power. In making the choice, leader must be conscious of typical

effects of the choice and understand the most logical and effective choice of influence tactics used (Anderson, 1998). Success in influencing people is one of the most important determinants of managerial effectiveness (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1994). There has been an increasing amount of research on influence tactics since the 1980s (Yukl et al., 1995) and a few were conducted in Malaysia context to examine the power-influence approach with managerial samples from diverse multinational companies (Ansari et al., in press). Kipnis et al. (1980) examined the "influence tactics" as behaviors applied by an "agent" of an influence attempt to gain something from "target". It involves attempts by the agent to change the behavior, attitudes, or beliefs of the target (Castro et al., 2003). A differential use of influence tactics has been found for relative effectiveness (Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl et al., 1995), for various hierarchical positions of the target of influence (Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl & Tracey, 1992), and the importance of individual and contextual determinants of tactics (Ansari & Kapoor, 1987; Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993). Research indicated that there were some reasons for selecting among various possible influence tactics that lead to successful outcome more frequently than others (Hughes et al., 2002).

Yukl and Falbe (1990) demonstrated that influence tactics vary due to the direction of influence—upward, downward, or lateral. The directive influence tactic may vary according to one's status—supervisory, subordinate, or peer. Fung (1991), Stahelski and Paynton (1995) study indicated that people of higher status perceived choose to use "strong" strategy that indicate control over resources, composed of higher authority, sanctions, and reasoning, whereas "weak" strategy that indicate low resource control, was used by people of lower status. However, reason and rational persuasion is a flexible tactic that can be used in any direction (Yukl & Tracey, 1992)

and it emerges as being highly appropriate and effective for influencing superiors or subordinates (Bhatnagar, 1993).

Other than directional influence tactics, Kipnis and Schmidt (1985) suggested that influence tactics could be grouped into three categories—hard tactics, soft tactics, and rational persuasion. Hard tactics involve the use of authority and position power, and they tend to be used in an impersonal and manipulative way. Pressure and legitimating tactics are clearly hard tactics, and many forms of coalition are hard, especially upward appeals to an agent's superior. Soft tactics involve use of personal power and power sharing. The soft tactics include ingratiation, consultation, inspirational appeals, and personal appeals (Falbe & Yukl, 1992). Rational tactics involves reasoning and rational persuasion (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985).

The use of rational and soft tactics is regarded as fair forms of interpersonal treatment (Tepper, Eisenbach, Kirby, & Potter, 1998). The use of harder tactics is perceived as less friendly and less socially desirable than the use of the softer varieties that allow the other person some freedom (Kippenberg & Steensma, 2003; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). The use of single hard influence tactics constituted unfair treatment, which in turn, translated into greater resistance from subordinate. However, the use of hard tactics to be less objectionable when they were used in combination with soft influence tactics (Tepper et al., 1998). Same finding was found by Falbe and Yukl (1992) on their study of consequences of using single tactics and combinations of tactics. Hard tactics resulted in resistance or compliance; soft tactics had a model outcome of commitment. Knippenberg and Steensma (2003) identified future interaction expectation as a determinant of the use of hard and soft influence tactics. Less hard tactics are used in the case of a future interaction expectation and therefore

individual use hard tactics less often than soft ones to maintain positive relationship with the target (Kippenberg & Steensma, 2003).

The different use of particular tactics for particular objectives in influence tactics with subordinates, peers, and supervisors was identified by Yukl et al. (1995). Their findings suggested that managers vary their influence tactics somewhat depending on the objective in different direction. Pressure was used mostly to change behavior or assign work when deal with subordinates, whereas with superior, it was used mostly to get a personal benefit. The use of hard tactics such as demands, threats and control to influence targets was used more frequently in change process (Gravenhorst & Boonstra, 1998). Other than hard tactics, rational persuasion and coalition tactics were used most often to get support from peers and superiors for major changes in policies or programs. The finding was consistent with Yukl et al. (2003), which reported coalition tactics was used for influencing a superior to implement change. The research also suggested that the possibility of a single taxonomy of influence tactics that are relevant for both initiating and resisting change. For example, rational persuasion was used in both conditions, by providing the logic and evidence of the proposed change's objection or support. Besides that, hard tactics such as threat is more obvious to be used by managers in responding to a poor performance incident (Gavix, Green, & Fairhurst, 1995).

In this study, nine influence tactics are applied to investigate the use of the change agent when dealing with various level of resistance towards technology adoption. Table 2.1 contains classificatios of influence tactics, definitions, and sources of them.

Table 2.1

Influence Tactics—Classifications, Definitions, and Sources

Influence Tactics	Classifications of Tactics	Definitions	Sources
Rational Persuasion	Rational	Involves logical arguments and factual evidence to persuade the person that a proposal or request is practical and likely to result in the attainment of task objectives. Uses of rational methods like giving reasons, explanation, writing memos, and detailed plans, and providing facts and data to influence.	Kipnis et al., (1980) Ansari, (1990) Ansari & Bhal, (2000) Falbe & Yukl, (1992) Falbo, (1977) Yukl & Tracey, (1992)
Showing Expertise	Rational	Occurs when the agent try to highlight their inner ability.	Ansari, (1990)
Assertiveness	Hard	Involves forcefully telling and demanding, ordering, showing verbal anger, pointing out rules, and setting deadlines.	Kipnis et al., (1980) Ansari & Bhal, (2000) Kipnis, (1976)
Upward Appeal	Hard	Involves bringing pressure on someone higher up in the hierarchy, making formal appeal to higher levels, or obtaining the informal support of higher-ups.	Kipnis, et al., (1980) Ansari, (1990) Ansari & Bhal, (2000)
Pressure	Hard	Uses demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders to influence the target to do what he or she wants.	Yukl, (1994)
Ingratiation	Soft	Contains elements of making the other person feel important such as flattery, praise, inflating the importance of the request, showing a need, asking politely, acting humble or friendly behavior to get the target in a good mood, or pretending that the other person is really going to make the decision.	Kipnes et al., (1980) Ansari, (1990) Falbe & Yukl, (1992) Falbo, (1997) Yukl & Tracey, (1992)
Exchange	Soft	Exchange of favors, indicates willingness to reciprocate at a later time, promises a share of benefits if the target help accomplish a task, or offering to make personal sacrifices.	Kipnis, et al., (1980) Yukl, (1994)
Personalized Help	Soft	Involves helping others in personal matters with his/her own personal contacts to show influential.	Ansari, (1990)
Instrumental Dependency	Soft	Trying to influence others by showing dependency on them.	Ansari, (1990) Ansari & Bhal, (2000)

2.3   Resistance towards Technological Change

To increase operation efficiency and productivity, organizations now have to always seek to implement technological change. However, most people hate changes that are no obvious need for them. Hence, resistance to change is a common phenomenon for individuals. Breham (1966) defined resistance as an aversive motivational state, initiated when one perceives that ones' freedom is threatened, and directing thought and action toward regaining the threatened freedom. Like an attitude, resistance has three components: an affective component ("I don't like it!), a cognitive component ("I don't believe it!"), and a behavioral component ("I won't do it!") (Knowles, Butler, & Linn, 2001). People resist major changes in organizations because of lack of trust; belief that change is unnecessary; belief that the change is not feasible; economic threats; relative high cost; fear of personal failure; loss of status and power; threat to values and ideals; and resentment of interference (Yukl, 1994). In order to explore resistance of the new technology user, it is necessary to understand the concept of the acceptance towards technology as well.

While information technology utilization studies are common in the MIS literature (Delone & McLean, 1992; Dishaw & Strong, 1998), early studies lacked a strong theoretical foundation till a significant model has emerged which provide a strong theoretical base for studies of IT utilization behavior—the technology acceptance model (Dishaw & Strong, 1999). The technology acceptance model (TAM) was originally presented by Davis (1985) to describe antecedents to the adoption and use of information technology. The TAM model considered only two antecedents to user acceptance of information technology; they are perceived usefulness of the system and the perceived ease of the use. There is significant evidence (e.g., Benedetto, Calantone, & Chun Zhang, 2003; Liaw & Huang, 2003;

Mathieson, 1991; Taylor & Todd, 1995) to support the TAM model. Additionally, TAM suggested that users would use computer technology if they believe it will result in positive outcomes (Liaw & Huang, 2003).

A significant body of TAM research has shown that perceived usefulness is a strong determinant of user acceptance or resistance, and usage behavior (e.g., Davis, 1989; Davis, Bagozzi, & Warshaw, 1989; Mathieson, 1991; Taylor & Todd, 1995) and some of them were done in Malaysian context (e.g., Dahlan, Ramayah, & Looi, 2003; Dahlan, Kalthum, Ellitan, & Dahlan, 2003; Ramayah, Dahlan, & Adni, 2003; Wong, 2003). Besides that, Compeau and Higgins (1991), Lucas (1975), and Robey (1979) all found that positive attitudes towards technology adoption led to increased technology use, and therefore, it is crucial to gain positive attitudes among new technology users. Attitude is an affective reaction, an individual's attitude toward using a technology in the workplace reflects instrumentality and extrinsic motivation to use technology (Venkatesh, Morris, & Ackerman, 2000). Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly (1991) defined attitude as a "positive or negative feeling or mental state of readiness, learned and organized through experience, that exerts specific influence on a person's response to people, object, and situation" (p. 70). Therefore, the concept of attitude towards technology adoption has gained recognition as a critical behavioral determinant in the use and acceptance of information technology (e.g., Liaw & Huang, 2003; Ramayah, Noor, Nasurdin,, & Lim, 2002; Ramayah & Jantan, 2003).

It is crucial to shape the positive attitudes towards technology adoption in determining new technology information system implementation effectiveness. Herold, Farmer and Mobley (1995) suggested that pre-implementation attitudes towards a technology may be the "starting point" for attitudes which shape future implementation phases, and because these early attitudes may be central in shaping

behavior early on (e.g., spreading of negative rumors, involvement in early planning and design phases, resistance to informational attempts), it is important to understand the nature and origins of such attitudes, and factors that affect them. Rather than mandating usage, employers could implement more effective social influence strategies. Information system may produce desirable outcomes even when employee attitudes are unfavorable; however, this system may produce even better outcomes when employee attitudes are favorable.

However, individuals often perceive organizational change as a threat to them (Yukl, 1994). Users do not always willingly adopt or use the new information system initiated by top management and sometimes actively resist its adoption (Burton et al., 2001). Regardless of how sophisticated and elegant a technology may be, it will have little impact on an organization succeeds or fails unless both have positive attitudes about it and behave in ways that take advantages of its benefits (Abdinnour-Helm et al., 2003). New technology may not be accepted and used in an effective way unless there are consistent changes in work roles, attitudes, and skills (Yukl, 1994). Therefore, change agents have to find their way to change user's attitudes, roles and skills.

Gender plays a vital role in shaping initial and sustained technology adoption decisions by today's knowledge workers (Venkatesh & Morris, 2000). Venkatesh and Morris (2000) argued that men are more driven by instrumental factors (i.e., perceived usefulness) while women are more motivated by process (i.e., perceived ease of use) and social factors (i.e., subjective norm). Besides that, attitude toward using technology was more salient to men; women were strongly influenced by subjective norm and perceived behavioral control. And that intentions predicted acceptance or

resistance and actual usage. Therefore, it indicated that there were gender differences in resistance level and use of new technologies.

There was very limited study done to demonstrate the relationship between influence tactics and particularly user's resistance towards technology adoption. Kipnis et al. (1980) found that managers exerted influence tactics to overcome resistance. They used pressure or legitimating (i.e., hard tactics) after encountering initial resistance. Their analysis indicated that more administrative sanction and personal action, such as giving unsatisfactory performance evaluation to subordinates was more likely to be used when user actively refused to comply and resisted the request of the manager. Besides that, agents were more likely to use demand and threat, but less likely to use reward when they were insulted by their targets (Carothers & Allen, 1999).

During the technological change process, change agents use different tactics in responding to user's level of resistance as they are dealing with the fact of individual differentiation. Managers need to enhance their abilities to "read" or diagnose different situations and select suitable influence methods (Lee & Sweeney, 2001). Culpan (1995) stated that no matter how sophisticated and how capable the technology is, its effective implementation depends upon users having positive attitude towards the new technology.

2.4   Gender and Influence Tactics

Research on target's gender and influence tactics seems inconclusive. Mai-Dalton and Sullivan (1981) reported that leaders would show greater likelihood of using such influence tactics as reward and exchange for subordinates of their own sex than for subordinates of the opposite sex. In addition, Liew (2003) found that if both

target and influencing agent were of the same sex, higher extent of instrumental dependency and personalized exchange tactics were employed.

Ansari (1989) found that ingratiation (soft tactic) was more likely to be used when dealing with male subordinates compared to female subordinates. Besides that, male subordinates were found to have influenced more by showing expertise (rational tactic) than female subordinates by their supervisors (Liew, 2003).

Given the extensive role of technology in business and the increasing presence of women in professional domain (e.g., Minton & Schneider, 1980), understanding gender differences of leaders in effective use of influence tactics is an important issue for organizational psychologists as they attempt to manage the organizational change process (Venkatesh, Morris, & Ackerman, 2000). There was no consistent finding on gender differences in using power base and influence tactic. Stahelski and Paynton (1995) and Kipnis et al. (1980) found that no significant gender differences for any power base or influence tactic use in any condition.

However, some previous studies indicated that men and women use different tactics to influence others. Women were less likely than men to influence people, they neither employed hard nor soft influence tactics as men and women are expected and "supposed" to behave according to stereotypes associated with their gender in social role model—women use less influence tactics than men, or for instance, be less aggressive than men (Bettencourt & Miller, 1996; Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). Men are more likely to use stereotypically masculine strategies, (e.g., use of threat or reward) to resolve conflicts than are women (Dubrin, 1991). Same finding was founded by Carothers and Allen (1999). They examined the masculine and feminine individuals regardless of their sex on the use of influence tactics. The study suggested

that masculine individuals indicated more willingness to use threat (hard tactics) to resolve the conflict.

Men reacted more strongly than women to being insulted, they changed tactics from reward to coercion while females continued to use request (soft tactic) when insulted (Carothers & Allen, 1999). Besides that, compared with female managers, male managers used more direct strategies, such as coercion, to influence their subordinates (Hirokawa, Kodama, & Harper, 1990). Research on the use of influence tactics varies by gender also reported by Lee and Sweeney (2001). Female influencing agents used rational reasoning more frequently than male agents. They did not practice sanctions such as threatening to give an unsatisfactory performance appraisal as frequent as male agents. However, female influencing agents were more frequently to use upward appeals (hard tactic) in order to back up their requests (Lee & Sweeney, 2001). Different findings indicated that hard influence tactics (i.e., assertiveness, and upward appeal) is less effective when employed by women (Castro et al., 2003). Women should not be as effective as men when use direct or assertive forms of influence because they generally lack the expert and legitimate power than men (Carli, 1999). Therefore, authoritarian men preferred to use assertiveness and bargaining (exchange) more frequently because they probably identify themselves with institutional authority; on the other hand, high-authoritarian women desisted from using assertiveness and bargaining conform with their gender stereotypes (Rajan & Krishnan, 2002). As operationalized by Bem's Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1981), men tend to exhibit more "masculine" traits (e.g., assertive), compared to women. Similarly, Falbo (1977) found that feminine individuals were more likely to use emotional tactics such as tears and emotional alteration to influence others than were masculine people.

2.5   Summary of Literature Review

The proper use of influence tactics enable agents to obtain their desired outcomes in order to attain their goal effectively. Various influence tactics were used for different objectives in different situations. Studies have indicated that manager invoked influence tactics to confront subordinate's resistance. They used a particular influence tactic after encountering initial resistance from subordinates. Lastly, gender differences and impact on use of influence tactics were also gained from literature review.

2.6   Theoretical Framework

2.6.1   Gap in the Previous Literature

Previous literature has helped to develop the foundation of this study. The literature suggested that influencing agents exert various influence tactics in responding to different level resistance of the target. Besides that, gender of target and agents does differ in their influence behaviors.

However, these literatures were all done separately and independently. There have been no previously reported studies of the relationship among influence tactics, resistance level, and gender. Thus, it is the main objective of this study to bridge this gap and to understand the impact of level of resistance towards technology adoption and gender on the use of influence tactics.

2.6.2 *Justification of the Framework*

After studying previous researchers' work, it is of interest to further study the use of various influence tactics of change agent in responding to user's resistance level towards technology adoption during the pre-implementation phase. According to Yukl (1994), power-influence leadership theory is the interactive process between leaders and other people. Some of the power-influence research has an implicit assumption that causality is unilateral—followers act and leaders react; or leaders act and followers react (Yukl, 1994) as shown in Figure 2.1.
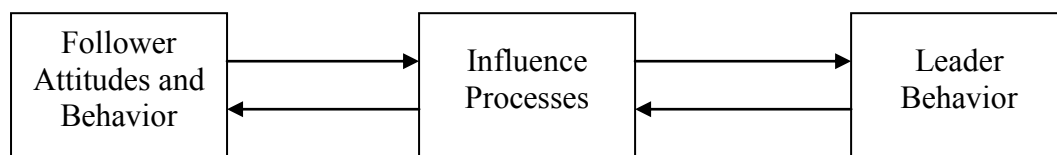
Figure 2.1. Causal relationship among the primary types of leadership variables.

The use of different influence tactics is compared in terms of their relative effectiveness for getting people to do what the leader wants. To address these issues, a study to investigate change agent's use of different influence tactics is proposed whereas, gender of user and change agent are also examined in order to understand their effects on the use of change agent's influence tactics as increased female participation in the workforce has added to the complexity of interactions at work (Thacker, 1995). The study is illustrated and expanded by constructs shown in Figure 2.2. The relationship in the model can be categorized into two types—the direct effects and the interactive effects.

Figure 2.2. Theoretical framework.
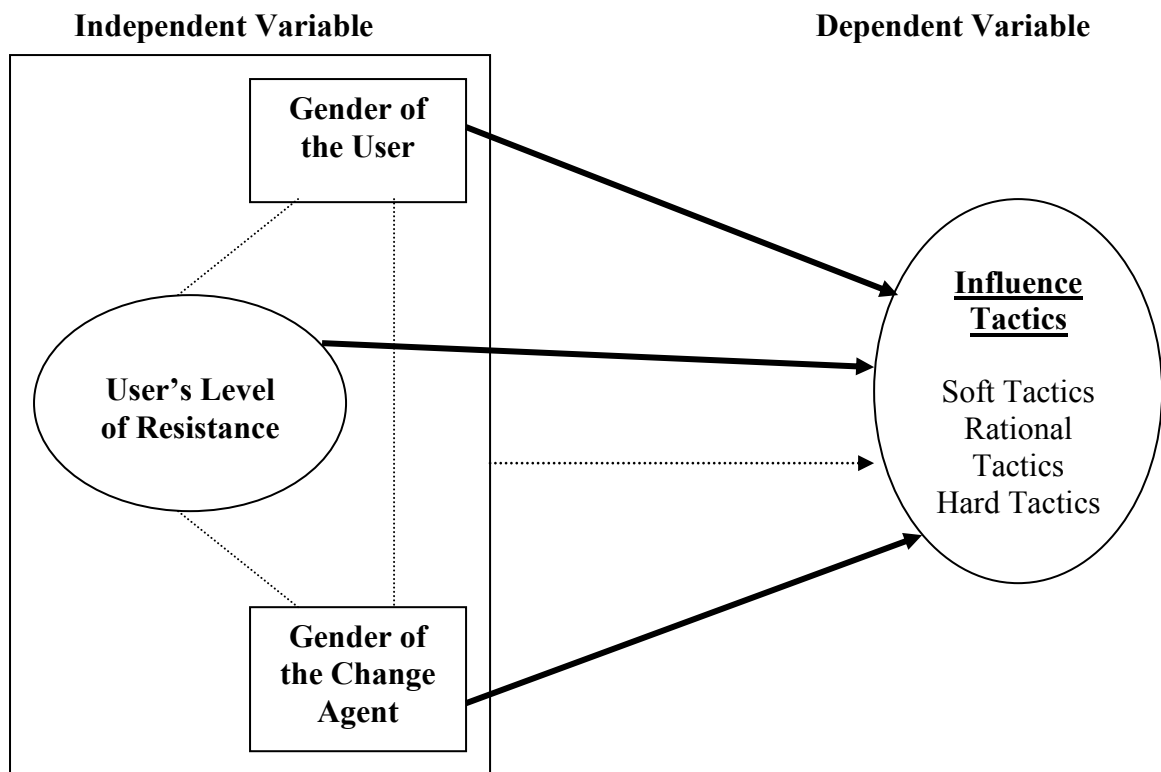
Note. Bold solid lines indicate direct effect; broken lines indicate interaction effect.

2.6.3   *Development of Hypotheses*

Kipnis et al. (1980) studied different pattern of influence tactics was used for each type of influence objective. They examined what further influence tactics were used in response to resistance from the target. Therefore, this study will intend to identify the pattern of relations between user's level of resistance towards new technology implementation and the effective use of influence tactics exerted by change agents. The user's level of resistance is a situational variable that appears to affect the change agents' effective use of influence tactics significantly.

Findings of Kipnis et al. (1980) study suggested that the use of influence tactics is varied with the amount of resistance shown by target persons. When the target refused to comply and actively resisting the request, the subsequent actions of

influencing agents included hard tactics such as administrative sanctions, persistence, personal negative actions, and coalition. Managers exerted threat, repeated reminders, and anger expression to the subordinate in responding to subordinate's resistance. Thus, it is posited that change agents are more likely to use hard tactics on their users when the resistance level is high, however, rational and soft tactics are use more frequently when confronting with low resistant users.

Besides that, Ansari (1989) study found that subjects showed a tendency to use more of reward and exchange (soft tactics) and less of assertion and negative sanction with well-performing subordinates than with poorly performing subordinates. By using logic where poorly performers will decelerate the process of technology implementation that is unfavorable to change agent, hence, it may be hypothesized that change agent makes more frequent use of soft tactics with their users who are lowly resist (good performance) during the new technology implementation. Based on findings of previous research, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H1: User's level of resistance significantly predicts change agents' effective use of influence tactics.

H1a: User's resistance level is negatively related to soft tactics such as ingratiation, exchange, personalized help, and instrumental dependency.

H1b: User's resistance level is negatively related to rational tactics like rational persuasion and showing expertise.

H1c: User's resistance level is positively related to hard tactics like assertiveness, upward appeal, and pressure.

Of particular interest to the present study, Kipnis, Schmidt, Swaffin-Smith, Wilkinson (1984, as cited in Vecchio, 2002) reported no significant relations associated with the sex of the influencing agent or the sex of the target in terms of frequency use of the influence tactics. However, Ansari (1989) study found that ingratiation (soft tactic) was more likely to be used by the agent when confronting with male subordinates than with female subordinates. Besides that, compared to female subordinates, male subordinates were found to have influenced more by showing expertise (rational tactic) by their supervisors (Liew, 2003). Hence, it is hypothesized:

H2: User' sex significantly predicts change agents' use of influence tactics.

H2a: Change agents make more frequent use of soft tactics such as ingratiation, exchange, personalized help, and instrumental dependency with male subordinates.

H2b: Change agents make more frequent use of rational tactics such as rational persuasion and showing expertise with male subordinates.

H2c: Change agents make more frequent use of hard tactics such as assertiveness, upward appeal, and pressure with female subordinates.

Men and women use different tactics to influence others. Lee and Sweeney (2001) reported that female managers used rational reasoning for their requests more frequently than male manager; on the contrary, male managers practiced sanctions such as threaten to give an unsatisfactory performance appraisal more frequently. Men are more likely to use stereotypically masculine strategies, e.g., use of threat and or reward to resolve conflicts than are women (Dubrin, 1991; Carothers & Allen, 1999). Besides, authoritarian men preferred to use assertiveness and bargaining (hard tactics)