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**Do Leaders' Influence Tactics Relate to Members' Helping Behavior?
It Depends on the Quality of the Relationship**

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Do Leaders' Influence Tactics Relate to Members' Cooperative Behaviors?

It Depends on the Quality of the Relationship

Abstract

By integrating leader member exchange (LMX) theory and the group engagement model, we argued that the relation between leaders' downward influence tactics and members' helping behavior would depend on LMX quality. Hypotheses were developed for five influence tactics and tested with 177 dyads. Results supported three of the hypothesized interactions. The study contributes to research on influence tactics and LMX by pointing out how their joint effects may impact member behaviors toward the work group.

As work in organizations is increasingly organized in teams (Devine, Clayton, Philips, Dunford, & Melner, 1999), the role of leaders in facilitating helping behaviors among members becomes crucial. We define helping behavior as members' discretionary behaviors intended to benefit other work group members or the group as a whole. Helping behavior is closely related to the altruism dimension of organizational citizenship behavior (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), and to individual-directed extra-role behavior (Williams & Anderson, 1991), but with the specific limitation that it is directed towards coworkers rather than supervisors or the organization. Previous research has shown that leaders engender helping behavior among group members in several ways, the most notable being the quality of the exchange relationships they form with members (Settoon, Bennett, & Liden, 1996) and the salutary effects of leaders' fair treatment on members' social identities and standing (Tyler & Blader, 2000). Both of these perspectives focus on the behaviors of leaders in promoting or hindering discretionary attitudes and behaviors.

A related stream of research considers how leaders attempt to control and direct the behaviors of their subordinates, particularly in response to specific requests. This stream of research addresses how leaders use downward influence tactics to shape members' attitudes and behaviors toward the leader and/or leaders' requests (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl, Guinan, & Sottolano, 1995; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Specifically, this work focuses on the leaders' use of multiple influence tactics -- including, for example, consultation, inspirational appeals, exchange, legitimating, and pressure tactics -- and their impact on one or more possible member responses: commitment, compliance, or resistance to leaders' requests (e.g., Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Tepper, Eisenbach, Kirby, & Potter, 1998; Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993; Yukl, Kim, & Chavez, 1999; Yukl, Kim, & Falbe, 1996; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). While it certainly is true that the effects of influence tactics should be understood in relation to proximate outcomes, such as immediate

member responses, it also is worthwhile to draw the distinct advantages of this research into larger areas of inquiry around leadership and its relationship to broader outcomes, such as discretionary behaviors directed towards individuals other than the supervisor.

The primary objective of our research is to link leaders' use of downward influence tactics to members' helping behaviors toward others in their work groups. This is a significant contribution to the literature on tactics-based managerial control strategies because it shifts the emphasis from how leaders obtain compliance with their immediate requests to the larger question of how downward influence tactics are related to the help members demonstrate on behalf of "third parties" – their coworkers. Further, much of the previous research directly links "soft" influence tactics to member commitment whereas "hard" tactics bring about member compliance or resistance (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). In contrast, we argue that the direction of the relationships between downward influence tactics and members' helping behaviors depends upon the larger relational context, namely, the quality of the exchange relationships between leaders and members.

The primary theoretical contribution of the present research lies in an integration of the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2000) and the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) perspective on leadership in explaining the relationship between downward influence tactics and member helping behaviors directed toward their coworkers. We argue that LMX quality moderates the relationship between downward influence tactics and helping behaviors. Our underlying logic is that leaders' influence tactics carry implicit cues that members interpret regarding their status and standing relative to the leader and within the group. The interpretation of these cues, and therefore the relationship between tactics and helping behavior, occurs within the context of LMX quality. Our study thus contributes to the literature on LMX and downward

influence tactics by integrating these two theoretical perspectives in predicting members' helping behavior.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Our overall argument is that the relationship between influence tactics and helping behavior depends upon the quality of the relationship between the leader (agent) and the member (target) of influence tactics. To develop this argument, we draw on the group engagement model as an explanation for helping behavior within groups (Tyler & Blader, 2000). We integrate this perspective on group cooperation with leader-member exchange theory by showing how differentiation in the quality of LMX relationships creates precisely those conditions that the group engagement model holds are necessary for helping behavior. This integration provides the theoretical foundation necessary for our next steps. We define the five downward influence tactics studied in this research, and describe how they can be viewed from the group engagement perspective. We then discuss the theoretical implications for members' helping behavior by drawing together influence tactics and LMX in framing our five hypotheses.

Group Engagement Model and Leader-Member Exchange Theory

The group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2000) argues that discretionary helping behavior is related to members' desire to maintain and enhance their social identities through the status of their group and their relative standing within it. In this approach, a member engages in helping behavior because it furthers the goals and objectives of the group, potentially increasing its status. Further, because such contributions are visible to other members, helping behavior may secure the member's standing in the group and reflect the respect he or she receives from other members. The underlying motivational mechanisms are not instrumental, as in exchange

theory-based explanations for helping behavior, but instead involve identification (emotional attachment) with the group, internalization of its values, and the positive appropriation of respect demonstrated by others (Tyler & Blader, 2000: 155-156). In the group engagement perspective, leaders play a central role in facilitating helping behavior because the fairness of the decisions and the treatment members receive from their supervisors are among the key antecedents of members' standing and perceptions of respect.

Drawing on social exchange theory, the LMX perspective argues that leaders form differentiated exchange relationships with the members of their groups, and these differentiated relationships are evident in the roles members assume with respect to leaders. Early LMX research (e.g., Graen & Cashman, 1975) explicitly distinguished between members of the leader's in-group (high LMX) and out-group (low LMX). High LMX relationships have been characterized in terms of the negotiating latitude leaders extend to members (Graen & Scandura, 1987), and the respect, liking, contribution, and loyalty leaders and members feel for one another (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). They are characterized by high levels of mutual effort and communication (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001) and congruent values (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997). In contrast, low LMX relationships reflect less negotiating latitude, and lower levels of respect, liking, contribution and mutual loyalty (Liden & Maslyn, 1998). They have been characterized in terms of dominance-like communication (Fairhurst, Roger, & Sarr, 1987) and autocratic decision-making (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986). This perspective holds that discretionary behaviors, such as helping coworkers, are best understood as a form of reciprocity for the valued resources exchanged in a high LMX relationship (Settoon et al., 1996). These valued resources include trust and fair treatment (Liden & Maslyn, 1998; Scandura, 1999), both

of which are key antecedents of members' standing and perceptions of respect in accordance with the group engagement model.

Although Tyler and Blader (2000: 36) dismiss LMX research as emphasizing "material rewards and costs," we contend that the two approaches are complementary. The central ideas of LMX theory – namely, that the exchange relationships leaders form with their members vary in quality, and that these differences are manifested in differentiated member roles vis-à-vis the leader – lend credence to the key idea of the group engagement model. Through exchange processes, LMX results in differentiated roles among group members (e.g. 'in-group' versus 'out group'). These differentiated roles indicate to members their relative standing within the group. Thus LMX, although originating in exchange processes, through differentiation engenders the conditions necessary for members to perceive their relative standing within the group. Members, in turn, engage in helping behavior in accordance with their standing within the group.

Downward Influence Tactics and the Group Engagement Model

Downward influence refers to leaders' attempts to influence their members (subordinates) to carry out requests (Yukl et al., 1996). Research has shown that leaders may employ various tactics depending on the desired outcome (e.g., Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl et al., 1996; 1999; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Because our interest is in the relationship between leadership and downward influence in relation to helping behavior, we focus on five tactics that are consistent with theoretical perspectives on how leadership is related to discretionary behavior: inspirational appeals, consultation, exchange, legitimation, and pressure. Inspiration has been linked to transformational leadership (Cable & Judge, 2003), consultation to participative leadership (Falbe & Yukl, 1992), exchange to the LMX perspective (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997), legitimating to authoritarian leadership (Vroom & Jago, 1988), and pressure to abusive (Tepper,

2000) or tyrannical (Bies & Tripp, 1998) leadership. Further, these five tactics have been shown to be particularly relevant for downward influence as opposed to lateral or upward influence attempts (Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl & Seifert, 2002). Lastly, these five tactics encompass the range from “hard” to “soft” approaches.

The “soft” tactics are represented by inspirational and consultative influence tactics (Yukl & Seifert, 2002). With *inspirational* influence tactics, leaders appeal to members’ “values, ideals, and aspirations” and seek to increase members’ “confidence that [they] can do the requested task” (Falbe & Yukl, 1992: 640). In using *consultative* influence tactics, leaders involve members as participants in “planning a strategy, activity, or change for which the target’s support and assistance are desired” and, through this participation, members gain “a sense of ownership” (Falbe & Yukl, 1992: 641). Consultation and inspirational appeals are in contrast to the two “hard” tactics we examine in this study: legitimating and pressure (Yukl & Seifert, 2002). With *legitimating* tactics, leaders warrant their requests by appeal to their hierarchical positions or to organizational policies. *Pressure* tactics involve the use of “demands, threats, frequent checking, or persistent reminders” directed towards members (Yukl, 2002: 160). In using the fifth tactic, exchange, leaders promise future favors or benefits to members in return for fulfilling their requests. Previous research has recognized that exchange lies somewhere between soft and hard tactics (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

We believe downward influence tactics will be related to helping behaviors based on the logic underlying the group engagement perspective on cooperation. Specifically, leaders downward influence tactics implicitly cue members regarding their relative standing with the leader. Soft tactics, such as consultation, might be interpreted as cues of high standing and respect because they communicate to members that the leader respects and recognizes the

member's potential contributions to decisions that affect the work group. Hard tactics, such as pressure, implicitly question the member's motivation, thus carry cues of low standing and a lack of respect. Our arguments are consistent with Tepper et al.'s (1998) findings that leaders' soft influence tactics positively related to members' perceptions of interactional justice, and hard tactics negatively related to interactional justice. The group engagement model argues that fair treatment by the supervisor is an important antecedent to members' perceptions of relative standing within the group (Tyler & Blader, 2000).

We stress that members' interpretations of influence tactics may be quite different from what was intended by their leaders. For example, a leader might employ legitimation in order to communicate the seriousness of failure to follow policies and procedures, and she may be confident in the ability of her subordinates to comply. However, the member might interpret legitimating tactics as an indication that the leader has low regard for his ability to carry out his work in an acceptable manner. This member might then attribute his leader's use of legitimation as evidence of a poor relationship and low standing within the group. Thus, while influence tactics may be salient to members as potential indicators of their standing, they nevertheless are imperfectly diagnostic of their leaders' expectancies and intentions.

Downward Influence Tactics and LMX

How do members resolve the ambiguity inherent in their leaders' use of downward influence tactics? Downward influence attempts occur in the context of an established relationship between leaders and the members whose attitudes and behaviors they seek to influence. We therefore propose that members draw upon their perceptions of LMX in interpreting what the influence tactics imply about their standing in the group. The logic of our argument parallels that of fairness heuristic theory (Lind, 2001), in which day-to-day interactions

are interpreted within the context of a global perception of relational fairness. Like the general fairness judgment in Lind's theory (2001: 73), LMX functions as an "anchor and context" through which members interpret their leaders' downward influence tactics. Thus, tactics that are inconsistent with the member's perception of LMX will be salient. We therefore frame our hypotheses linking downward influence tactics to members' helping behaviors with members' perceptions of LMX as the key moderator.

Inspirational appeals. According to Falbe and Yukl (1992), inspirational tactics involve the leader's explicit appeals to the member's values, goals, and aspirations. In previous research (Falbe & Yukl, 1992), inspirational appeals have been associated with favorable member responses to the leader's requests. However, in the case of helping behavior directed towards coworkers, we hold that the effectiveness of inspirational appeals depends on how the member interprets the leader's intentions. Where the member and the leader share values and goals, or where the member believes that the leader has affirmed his or her individual goals and aspirations, the use of inspirational appeals is likely to be interpreted as a confirmation of the member's relationship with the leader and relative standing within the group. These conditions are likely to hold among high LMX members who enjoy the respect of their leaders and share values with them (Ashkanasy & O'Connor, 1997). Thus, inspirational appeals are likely to be interpreted by high LMX members as consistent with their perceptions of high standing. We therefore expect inspirational appeal tactics to have little impact on these members' helping behavior since they are not particularly salient to high LMX members.

However, where members perceive their relationships with their leaders as primarily an instrumental exchange between self-interested parties, and where their mutual obligation extends no further than doing what is specified in the employment agreement, appeals to shared values or

individual goals and objectives are empty appeals. For example, if members do not share values with the leader, or if they believe that the leader is indifferent to or ignorant of their individual goals and aspirations, they may interpret inspirational appeals as disingenuous. Thus, among low LMX members, leaders' use of inspirational appeals is likely to make their low standing relative to the group especially salient. Among low-LMX members, inspirational appeals are expected to be negatively related to helping behavior.

H1: LMX moderates the relationship between leaders' use of inspirational tactics and members' helping behavior, such that inspirational appeals are negatively related to helping behavior only among low LMX members.

Consultation. Through the participative nature of consultation, these tactics invite the buy-in of members with their leaders' initiatives – particularly when the members are likely to have a role in implementation (Yukl, 2002). Consultation provides employees with a sense of voice and input into leaders' decisions. Voice has been shown to be especially important to employees' perceptions of fair treatment and respect (Dulebohn, 1997; Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990). However, the participation invited by the leader may in fact be relatively modest. According to Yukl (2002: 162), “the primary purpose is to influence the target person to support a decision already made by the agent.” Consultation thus is particularly effective when a leader wants to assess the extent to which a member will disagree with his or her decision. This tactic also enables the leader to initiate a discussion of the member's concerns and determine how the decision might be modified to win support (Yukl, 2002: 162).

In light of this (Yukl, 2002: 162) description of consultation tactics, we anticipate that, like inspirational appeals, consultation tactics will have little impact on high-LMX members' helping behavior. If the member experiences consultation as a probe of his or her support for the

leader – support that the member believes is implicit in the high-LMX relationship – then his or her interpretation of consultation tactics does not imply anything new about the leader-member relationship. Even when the member senses that the leader is truly interested in obtaining the member's input, this type of consultation is already expected as part of the high quality relationship that the two parties enjoy.

Among low-LMX members, consultation tactics are cues that their leaders recognize the importance of their support and are willing to listen to – and possibly even adjust their decisions – to gain that support. In this sense, consultation tactics may serve as a cue to the member to re-evaluate their standing within the group. Consultation should therefore be an effective tactic among low-LMX members. In using consultation, a leader is, in effect, provisionally granting greater negotiating latitude – a central element in LMX (Graen & Scandura, 1987) – to a low-LMX member. This relative increase in negotiating latitude is tantamount to an improvement in the quality of the relationship with the leader and in the member's relative standing within the group. The leader's use of consultation tactics should thus be positively related to helping behavior among low-LMX members.

H2: LMX moderates the relationship between leaders' use of consultation tactics and members' helping behavior, such that consultation tactics will be positively related to helping behaviors only among low LMX members.

Exchange. Exchange tactics involve the offer of future benefits that are conditional on the member performing a favor or complying with the leader's requests. When successful, exchange tactics create an obligation to reciprocate (Gouldner, 1960) on the part of the leader in return for discretionary compliance or favor-doing by the member. Falbe and Yukl (1992: 642) disparaged exchange tactics as relying on extrinsic inducements and “impersonal transactions,”

and therefore argued that their effectiveness is limited. However, when placed in the context of the nature of the exchange between the leader and the member, a subtly different picture emerges. Although the offer of future benefits in return for willingness to comply with the leader's request could be seen as an unwarranted inducement in some circumstances, in others the exchange of favors and other discretionary behaviors lies at the center of the leader-member relationship. How the leader's offer of future benefits in return for discretionary behavior is interpreted will depend on the member's perception of their exchange relationship.

High quality LMXs have been characterized in terms of social exchange (Blau, 1964), in which the obligations to reciprocate are diffuse and whose scope extends beyond the formal job description (Liden et al., 1997). Among members who enjoy high quality exchange relationships with their leaders, exchange tactics will be interpreted within the context of that trusted relation. For example, a leader's request to perform a task that falls outside of the member's formally defined responsibilities may be interpreted by the member as consistent with an on-going social exchange relationship – a relationship in which the leader's request obligates him or her to reciprocate with something of value to the member. Although the timing of the leader's reciprocation is sometime in the indefinite future, the member trusts that the leader will eventually fulfill the obligation. The leader's use of these types of exchange tactics thus will serve to further broaden the scope of the relationship that high LMX members enjoy. We thus expect that, among high LMX members, exchange tactics will enhance perceptions of standing and thereby be positively related to helping behavior.

Low quality LMXs, in contrast, have been characterized in terms of economic exchange (Blau, 1964) and balanced or negative reciprocity (Liden et al., 1997; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003) in which the nature and timing of returns are explicitly specified. Among low-LMX members,

influence attempts based on social exchange are likely to be interpreted negatively because they lack specificity in how and when the leader will reciprocate. Further, because the leader's use of exchange tactics is designed to elicit a discretionary response from the member, such as doing extra work or performing a personal favor, the low LMX member is likely to interpret exchange as an unwarranted inducement that goes beyond the terms of a relationship based strictly on economic exchange. Among low LMX members, exchange tactics thus are expected to be negatively related to helping behavior.

H3: LMX moderates the relationship between exchange tactics and members' helping behavior, such that among high LMX members exchange positively relates to helping behavior whereas among low LMX members exchange negatively relates to helping behavior.

Legitimation. Legitimizing tactics derive their authority from extrinsic factors, such as the leader's legitimate power in the organizational hierarchy or the normative character of organizational policies. In one sense, a member's response to any downward influence attempt depends upon his or her perceptions that the leader's request is legitimate (Yukl & Falbe, 1991). However, when a leader makes his or her authority explicit, or justifies his or her request through appeal to organizational policy, the implication is that legitimacy is not being taken for granted by the member. Thus the use of legitimating tactics serves as a cue that the leader has turned to extrinsic motivators, and therefore does not expect intrinsically-motivated commitment to or compliance with his or her requests. Consistent with this view, Yukl et al. (1993) found that downward legitimating tactics were used as a follow-up to other tactics, such as rational persuasion and pressure.

Among high LMX members, whose relationships with their leaders are based in part on discretionary effort and contribution to the relationship (Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001), a leader's turn to legitimating tactics signals a potential derogation of standing within the group, and so is likely to suppress helping behavior. Among low LMX members, whose relationships with their leaders are based more on fulfillment of legitimate requests, the cues associated with legitimating tactics are consistent with perceptions of relationship quality and relative standing in the group.

H4: LMX moderates the relationship between leaders' use of legitimating tactics and members' helping behavior, such that legitimation tactics are negatively related to helping behavior only among high LMX members.

Pressure. Pressure tactics cue members that their leaders expect compliance with their requests regardless of the member's intrinsic motivation. Given the relatively strong, threatening nature of pressure tactics, leader's use of these tactics may serve as a cue for members to re-evaluate their existing standing with respect to leader and group. Among high-LMX members, such tactics signal a loss of standing within the group, and so are likely to suppress helping behavior. However, among members whose relationships with their leaders are of lower quality, the use of pressure tactics is not inconsistent with perceptions of low standing.

H5: LMX moderates the relationship between leaders' use of pressure tactics and members' helping behavior, such that the use of pressure tactics has a stronger negative relationship with helping behavior among high LMX members than among low LMX members.

METHOD

Sample and Data Collection Procedure

Data were collected from employees of a distribution company located in the Midwestern United States. The company's 70 territory managers (TMs) and their respective service center managers (SCMs) were sought as respondents because they were positioned in the lower managerial and at the operational levels where the exchanges and interactions between a leader (TM) and a member (SCM) occurred on a daily basis. The HR Manager provided us with a list of potential participants. We limited the survey distribution to between two and five SCMs (members) per TM (leader) in order to protect confidentiality of SCMs and to minimize the response burden on TMs. For TMs with six or more SCMs, we randomly selected the five SCMs who would be asked to participate. This resulted in a potential sample size of 66 TMs (which represents 94% of all TMs working in the company) and 234 SCMs (which represents 98% of all SCMs). The survey for TMs included measures to rate each of their SCMs' leader-member exchange and helping behavior. The survey for SCMs included measures for the leader's influence tactics toward them and LMX. All TM and SCM survey responses remained confidential and no individual managers were identified in feedback reports to the company.

Surveys were number coded prior to distribution so that we would be able to match corresponding TM and SCM surveys upon completion. The HR Manager within the company distributed all surveys via the company's internal mail system. Employees returned their completed surveys directly to one of the authors using pre-stamped, pre-addressed envelopes. One month after survey administration, the HR Manager sent out reminder postcards, prepared by us, to any TMs and SCMs who at that time had not returned the questionnaire. In total, we

received completed surveys from 64 TMs (97 percent response rate) and 220 SCMs (94 percent response rate). Of these, two responses from TMs and nine responses from SCMs could not be matched resulting in 202 matched leader-member dyads. After deleting cases with missing data, our final sample size was 177 leader-member dyads to test our hypotheses. This included 62 TMs and 177 SCMs for an effective response rate of 94 and 76 percent, respectively. Throughout the remainder of the paper we refer to TMs as leaders and SCMs as members.

The leaders' average age was 44 years and 95 percent of them were male. In terms of race, 96 percent of leaders were White and 4 percent were Hispanic. Concerning education, 4 percent had no degree, 47 percent had a high school diploma, 10 percent had an associate's degree, 37 percent had a bachelor's degree, and 2 percent had a master's degree. The leaders had worked an average of 18 years at the company and 2.6 years in their Territory Manager position.

The members' average age was 43 years and 79 percent of them were male. In terms of race, 93 percent were White, 2 percent were Black, 2 percent were Hispanic, 2 percent were Asian, and 1 percent was another (unspecified) race. Members' education profile was: 5 percent had no degree, 56 percent had a high school diploma, 14 percent had an associate's degree, 24 percent had a bachelor's degree, and 1 percent had a master's degree. On average, members had worked for the company for 14 years and had been in their Service Center Manager position for five years. The members had worked for their leaders, on average, for three years.

Measures

Downward influence tactics. Leaders' downward influence tactics were measured from the members' perspective using the Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ-2000; Yukl & Seifert, 2002). For the purposes of this study, we used the scale items intended to measure consultation (4 items), inspirational appeals (5 items), exchange (4 items), legitimating (3 items),

and pressure tactics (4 items). Members indicated how often their leaders used each influence tactic toward them, on a scale from 1 = “never” to 5 = “very often.” Respondents also had the option to indicate “do not remember,” which we coded as missing data. Scales scores were created by averaging the appropriate items for each tactic after assessing discriminant validity of the scale items as reported in the results section below (note that 3 items were eliminated prior to creating scale scores).

Leader-member exchange. LMX was measured from the member’s (MLMX) perspective using Liden and Maslyn’s (1998) 12-item multidimensional LMX scale, the LMX-MDM. We used an adaptation of this scale (Liden, Sparrowe, Erdogan, Gavino, & Maslyn, 2005) to measure LMX from the leader’s (LLMX) perspective. The LMX-MDM scale captures four underlying dimensions (affect, loyalty, professional respect, and contributory behaviors) of the global LMX construct. Respondents indicated their agreement with each statement on a scale from 1 = “strongly disagree” to 7 = “strongly agree.” Example items are “My territory manager defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question” (member perspective) and “I like this service center manager very much as a person” (leader perspective). We conducted a higher-order confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in which we modeled a single higher-order latent factor predicting four lower-order latent factors with paths estimated to their respective three scale items. For both measures, this higher-order CFA fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 91.34$, $df = 50$, $p < .01$; CFI = .98, SRMR = .04, RMSEA = .06 from member perspective; $\chi^2 = 167.26$, $df = 50$, $p < .01$; CFI = .92, SRMR = .06, RMSEA = .10 from leader perspective). Scale scores were thus created by averaging the twelve items separately for member and leader versions of the LMX-MDM. The member version of the LMX-MDM was

used as when testing the hypotheses per our theoretical contentions. The leader version of the LMX-MDM was used for a control variable (see explanation below).

Helping Behavior. Leaders rated the helping behavior towards coworkers of each of their members using Williams and Anderson's (1991) extra-role behavior scale. Of the original 7-items, we deleted one item ("assists me with my work when not asked") because that item does not reflect helping directed towards coworkers, our construct of interest. Responses were made on a scale from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 7 = "strongly agree." The six items were averaged to create a scale score for each respondent.

Individual level control variables. Because we were concerned that helping behavior would be correlated with how long members had worked in their groups with their leaders, we controlled for dyadic duration. Also, because some SCMs knew other TMs in the organization before being formally assigned to them, we controlled for the length of time members knew their leaders. Previous research (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989) has shown that demographic differences in supervisor-subordinate dyads are associated with leader ratings of member effectiveness, leading us to anticipate that demographic dissimilarity between leaders and members would be related to helping behavior. We thus controlled for demographic similarity in race (1 = leader and member are of a different race; 0 = leader and member are the same race) and gender (1 = leader and member are of opposite gender; 0 = leader and member are same gender).

Group level control variables. Because leaders rated the helping behavior of the subordinates in their groups, helping behavior ratings are nested within raters in our data, violating the assumption of statistical independence of observations. To address this potential problem, we allowed the intercept term to vary between groups in our hypothesis testing to account for possible between-group variation in helping behavior. We also introduced two

predictors of group variation in helping behavior. The first was the mean level of LMX within the group as perceived by the leader (Average Leader LMX-MDM). We modeled this relationship to identify the extent to which group differences in helping behavior were attributable to the leaders' overall perceptions of LMX quality as leader support has been associated with altruistic helping behaviors (LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). Second, we controlled for group size because of its potential impact on the overall level of helping behavior.

ANALYSES AND RESULTS

Descriptive statistics, correlations, and scale reliabilities among the study variables are reported in Table 1. Prior to reporting results of hypothesis testing, we report the results assessing construct validity of measures.

 Insert Table 1 about here

Construct Validity

We ran two sets of analyses for construct validity purposes: one set of analyses for the member-reported scale items, and a second set of analyses for the leader-reported items. For the member-reported measures, we first conducted a CFA of the twenty influence tactics from the IBQ-2000 used in this study. We specified the hypothesized five, correlated, latent factors in which the paths to their respective scale items were estimated. All non-estimated paths were set to zero by default. This model did not fit the data very well ($\chi^2 = 363.10$, $df = 160$, $p < .01$; CFI = .82, SRMR = .11, RMSEA = .09). While the psychometric properties of the IBQ-2000 have been subjected to preliminary confirmatory tests (Yukl & Seifert, 2002), we were not surprised that we could not replicate the exact factor structure as we were using a subset of the IBQ-2000 scale.

Because the a priori structure was not confirmed, we reverted to exploratory factor analysis (Hurley, Scandura, Schriesheim et al., 1997), subjecting the items to a principal components analysis (PCA; oblimin rotation). The initial results indicated five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Items loaded primarily on their intended factor, with the exception of two inspirational appeal items loading with the consultation items. Additionally, one pressure item had a factor loading above .42 on two factors. We therefore deleted those three items, and re-ran the PCA. This subsequent analysis resulted in five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 and the seventeen items loading only on their intended factor (all cross loadings < .36).

To show discriminant validity among LMX-MDM and the influence tactics, we conducted a second PCA (oblimin rotation) in which we added the 12 member version LMX-MDM scale items to the 17 influence tactic items. The results revealed six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. All LMX-MDM items loaded on factor one (above .42) and the influence tactic items loaded only on their respective five factors. No cross-loading of items above .35 was observed, offering strong evidence of discriminant validity among the member-reported measures.

To assess discriminant validity of the leader-reported measures, we conducted a CFA of the twelve leader LMX-MDM items and six helping behavior items. We specified a single higher-order construct (LMX) and five lower-order constructs (the four LMX-MDM dimensions and helping behaviors; the path from LMX to helping behavior was not estimated). This model approached acceptable fit ($\chi^2 = 373.45$, $df = 127$, $p < .01$; CFI = .89, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .10), especially in light of the number of scale items assumed to have a zero loading on each factor (Hurley et al., 1997). We then compared this model to four subsequent models in which we systematically constrained (set to zero) the correlation between the helping behavior factor

and one of the lower-order LMX factors. All model comparisons indicated that our hypothesized model was superior (all $\Delta\chi^2 > 13.57$, $\Delta df = 1$, $p < .01$).

Hypothesis Testing

The structure of our data has members nested within 62 groups managed by leaders. This implies that there might be group level differences in helping behavior that need to be modeled separately from individual variation. A test of an “intercepts only” model using hierarchical linear modeling confirmed that differences in helping behavior ratings by leaders were statistically significant ($p < .01$). Our hypotheses thus were tested using hierarchical linear modeling (Muthen & Muthen, 2004). Helping behavior was the dependent variable. All of the hypothesized interactions were at level 1. To reduce multicollinearity among the predictor variables and the interaction terms we used the centered scores for all predictor variables. Table 2 presents the results of these analyses. Model 1 includes the control variables (LLMX, group size, time working with leader, time known leader, gender difference, and race difference). Model 2 adds the five influence tactics and leader-member exchange (MLMX), and Model 3 adds the five interaction terms for the influence tactics by MLMX.

 Insert Table 2 about here

Among the control variables, organizational tenure, the time the member had known the leader, and gender and race differences were not related to helping behavior (Table 2, Model 1). Gender and race difference may not have been related to helping behavior because the proportion of leader member dyads differing demographically was relatively low (gender, 26 percent; race, 10 percent). Only leader perceptions of average LMX were significantly related to helping

behavior. As a level-2 relationship, this means that the mean level of helping behavior in groups was positively related to the mean level of LMX as reported by the leader. We evaluated the improvement in fit of our models by comparing the deviance statistics (identical to -2 Log Likelihood) using the chi-square test (Hox, 2002: 16). Adding the five influence tactics and member perception of LMX (Model 2) did not represent an improvement over Model 1. The difference in deviance between Model 1 and Model 2 equaled 10.01, and was not statistically significant ($p > .05$). Adding the relevant interaction terms (Model 3) did result in an improvement in fit. The reduction in deviance was equal to 12.61 and, at an increase of five degrees of freedom, was statistically significant ($p < .05$).

Three of the five hypothesized moderating relationships were empirically supported (Table 2, Model 3). The parameter estimates for Inspirational Appeals X MLMX ($t = 2.13, p < .05$), Consultation X MLMX ($t = -2.02, p < .05$), and Exchange X MLMX ($t = 2.66, p < .01$) were statistically significant. To examine the nature of the significant interactions, simple regression lines representing the relationship between the influence tactic variable and helping behavior were plotted separately at high (one standard deviation above the mean) and low (one standard deviation below the mean) levels of LMX (Aiken & West, 1991).

The plot of the inspirational appeals by LMX interaction (Figure 1a) shows a pattern that is consistent with the predictions of Hypothesis 1. Among low-LMX members, there was a negative relationship between the use of inspirational appeals and member helping behavior. Using the approach of Preacher, Curran, and Bauer (2003, September), we computed the region of statistical significance of the simple slope of this relationship in z -score units. At all values of LMX less than $-.01 z$ (*i.e.* low LMX), the negative relationship between inspirational appeals and helping behavior is statistically significant ($p < .05$). Essentially this means that, among members

with LMX scores below the mean, the relationship between inspirational appeals and helping behavior was negative. Among high LMX members, the relationship between inspirational appeals and helping behaviors was not significantly different from zero.

 Insert Figure 1 about here

The plot of the consultation by LMX interaction (Figure 1b) shows a pattern that is consistent with the prediction of Hypothesis 2. The line representing the relationship between consultation and helping behavior among high-LMX members shows a downward trend, whereas the line representing low LMX shows an upward trend. Probing this interaction using the Preacher et al. (2003, September) approach, we learned that at all values of LMX less than $-1.48 z$ (*low LMX*), the simple slope of the positive relationship between consultation and helping behavior is statistically significant ($p < .05$). When LMX is high, the negative relation between consultation and helping behaviors is not significant.

With respect to the exchange by LMX interaction, the plot (Figure 1c) showed a pattern consistent with the predication of Hypothesis 3. Again probing the simple slope components of the interaction, we examined the region of statistical significance. Among members with scores above $1.39 z$ (*high LMX*), the simple slope of the relationship between exchange tactics and helping behavior is positive and statistically significant ($p < .05$). Where scores are below $-1.21 z$ (*low LMX*), this relationship is negative and statistically significant ($p < .05$). This probe of the simple slopes is consistent with the empirical support found for the omnibus test of moderation.

Hypotheses 4 and 5 were not supported by the data as the relevant interaction terms were not statistically significant in the regression equation.

DISCUSSION

We found that, among members who perceived a low LMX relationship, leaders' use of inspirational appeal tactics and exchange tactics negatively related to members' helping behavior, and leaders' consultation tactics positively related to members' helping behavior. For members who perceived a high LMX relationship, leaders' exchange tactics positively related to members' helping behavior. These findings provide support for our theoretical contention that the member's perception of LMX may serve as an anchor point from which to interpret the leader's influence tactics. For members in low quality relationships, appeals to their values, goals, and aspirations, or the leader's diffuse exchange offers, may be seen as empty appeals and make salient the low quality LMX relationship. In contrast, because the participatory nature of consultation tactics recognizes the member's input to decision-making, members with low LMX may find consultation tactics to be especially salient and lead them to reevaluate their relative standing with the leader. Among high-LMX members, because the open-ended nature of exchange tactics is consistent with a high LMX relationship, exchange tactics further reinforce the social exchange relationship. In fact, high LMX members may view exchange tactics as a "soft tactic." Our results provide theoretical and practical implications on how leaders shape helping behavior among their members in several important respects.

Theoretical Implications

Support for three of our hypotheses contributes to research on influence tactics in several important ways. First, they link the leaders' downward influence tactics of inspirational appeals, consultation, and exchange to members' helping behaviors. In addition to facilitating job performance, fostering helping behavior is arguably one of the primary reasons why leaders would employ downward influence tactics. Second, previous research (Cable & Judge, 2003) has

suggested that members' upward influence tactics are shaped by perceptions of leadership style. Our results complement this work by demonstrating how the impact of downward influence tactics on helping behaviors depends on LMX, thereby offering further evidence that influence tactics and their outcomes benefit from a contextual approach.

A third contribution of the present study lies in drawing together the group engagement model (Tyler & Blader, 2000) and the LMX perspective on leadership in relating downward influence tactics to helping behavior. Although Tyler and Blader (2000: 36) dismissed the LMX perspective because of its reliance on exchange processes, we see our results as a favorable indication of the value to be gained by integrating the two approaches. Had we only examined the direct relationships between downward influence tactics and helping behavior, we would have concluded that none of the influence tactics have an impact on helping – thereby implying that inspirational appeals, consultation, and exchange tactics are ineffective leadership tools for promoting (or discouraging) helping behaviors among group members. By theoretically integrating LMX with the group engagement model, we were led to examine LMX as a moderator of the relationship between influence tactics and helping behaviors. Our results supported this integration, thereby demonstrating the importance of incorporating the relational context in which influence tactics are employed by leaders.

We did not find support for Hypotheses 4 and 5, the two “hard” influence tactics. Both of these tactics were hypothesized to be more strongly related to helping behaviors among high LMX members. Instead we found that pressure and legitimation tactics did not relate to helping behaviors regardless of LMX quality. This suggests that these two tactics may not serve as signals of relative standing within the group as we theorized. Because we did not measure perceived standing in the group, we cannot conclude whether these hard tactics are related to

members' perceived standing or carry the implicit cues suggested by the influence tactics literature (i.e., that leader expects the member to resist or be unmotivated to comply with request). We encourage future research to specifically measure the implicit cues assumed to be associated with the influence tactics as well as perceived standing.

Practical Implications

The primary practical implication that follows from this research is the nuanced understanding it offers of the relationship between influence tactics and helping behaviors among group members. For example, an implication that can be drawn from previous research is that inspirational appeals are generally effective because of their demonstrated positive relationship with member commitment (e.g., Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Our results, in contrast, indicate that when the goal is to foster cooperative helping behaviors the impact of inspirational appeals is greatest among low-LMX members – and that impact is *negative*. However, our results suggest that consultative tactics is an especially effective tactic for encouraging helping behaviors among low LMX members. Thus, our advice to leaders is to use consultation tactics, by soliciting their input and opinions, with all members when the goal is to increase cooperative helping behaviors.

Similarly, the moderately positive (Yukl & Tracey, 1992) or mixed (Falbe & Yukl, 1992) relationships between exchange tactics and member commitment in previous research have led researchers to conclude that it is less effective than other tactics – or even ineffective because of its instrumental motivation. However, our results indicate that exchange is effective among high-LMX members in promoting helping behaviors. These high-LMX members have a relationship with the leader that is based on trust and mutual respect. Despite exchange tactics having a *quid pro quo* feel to them, high-LMX members may interpret the tactic in a more long-term, open-

ended manner. This will reinforce high-LMX members' perceptions that they are regarded highly within the work group and thus want to improve the functioning of the work group. However, the use of exchange tactics may backfire among low LMX members. We found that leaders' use of exchange tactics decreased helping behaviors among low LMX members. Thus, leaders should be selective in using exchange tactics only with high LMX members.

Limitations and Future Research

Several limitations in the present research warrant caution in interpreting the results. First, we have framed our theory such that LMX precedes influence tactics when, in reality, it is possible that the two are reciprocally related through time. Further, our theory narrates a relationship in which downward influence tactics precede members' helping behaviors. However, it is conceivable that leaders select influence tactics based on their previous experience of members' helping behaviors. While we hold that the relationships among these variables specified in our theory are the more plausible, we cannot demonstrate that empirically using cross-sectional data. We encourage future research to longitudinally examine other outcomes that extend to the work group such as group conflict as a function of influence tactics and LMX.

Second, the logic driving our moderating hypotheses turns on how downward influence tactics carry cues about relative standing within the group, and how those cues are interpreted by members in terms of their LMX quality. We did not, however, measure members' actual standing in the group or their interpretations of the five influence tactics. Instead, we relied on previous theory and research to suggest what cues might be inherent in each downward influence tactic and which tactics would be salient to members vis-à-vis their LMX. We believe that these efforts resulted in characterizations of cues that are sufficiently general to apply across individual differences in interpretation, yet reflect the distinctive nature of the five influence tactics and the

central differences between high- and low-LMXs. Nonetheless, we encourage future research to directly test our theoretical contentions by relating the influence tactics to member's perceptions of relative standing within the group. Research should also examine other types of indicators of the member's relative standing in the group, such as the leader's fair treatment towards the member, and the leader's level of delegation towards the member. Both of these leader behaviors may contain cues that indicate to members their relative standing within the group, and at the same time may be interpreted by members in juxtaposition of the quality of their existing LMX.

Conclusion

Our study suggests that leaders' use of inspirational, consultation, and exchange tactics may impact the members' helping behavior within the work group, depending on the quality of the leader-member relationship. Inspiration and exchange tactics suppressed helping behavior among low-LMX members, whereas, consultation tactics enhances helping behavior among low LMX members and exchange tactics enhanced helping behavior among high-LMX members. These findings highlight that leaders need to consider how their choice of influence tactics may impact the functioning of the work group as whole, not just the member's attitudinal and behavioral response to the leader's request. We encourage future research examining the joint effects of downward influence tactics and leadership styles on employee and work group outcomes.

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TABLE 1

Table 1a: Individual Level Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations^a

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1. Helping Behavior	5.51	0.92	(.87)				
2. Race Difference	0.10	0.30	-0.07				
3. Gender Difference	0.26	0.44	0.00	0.16*			
4. Time Working Together	37.92	49.04	0.03	0.05	-0.10		
5. Time Known Leader	93.84	91.59	-0.02	0.04	-0.12	0.41**	
6. LMX (Member)	5.31	.98	0.16*	-0.11	-0.01	0.02	0.05
7. Inspirational Appeals	3.16	.93	0.04	-0.18*	0.01	0.05	0.05
8. Consultation	3.48	.87	0.10	-0.10	-0.13	-0.04	-0.05
9. Exchange	1.47	.57	-0.06	0.01	-0.13	0.00	-0.02
10. Legitimation	3.23	1.09	-0.07	-0.10	-0.16*	0.04	0.05
11. Pressure	3.03	.90	0.02	0.17*	-0.15*	0.00	0.06
Variable	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	
6. LMX (Member)	(.92)						
7. Inspirational Appeals	0.48**	(.72)					
8. Consultation	0.55**	0.44**	(.79)				
9. Exchange	-0.06	0.12	0.15	(.80)			
10. Legitimation	0.15	0.43**	0.29**	0.32**	(.79)		
11. Pressure	-0.11	0.19*	0.01	0.28**	0.35**	(.68)	

* p < .05; ** p < .01

N = 177

^a Scale reliabilities (Cronbach alpha's) appear in the diagonal.

Table 1b: Group Level Descriptive Statistics and Intercorrelations^a

Variable	Mean	S.D.	1.	2.
1. Helping (Group Mean)	5.53	.83		
2. Leader LMX (Group Mean)	5.41	.73	0.66**	
3. Group Size	2.85	1.02	-0.09	-0.01

* p < .05; ** p < .01

N = 62

TABLE 2:
Results of Two-Level Moderated Regression Analyses: Helping Coworkers^a

	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3	
	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE	Estimate	SE
Control Variables						
Individual Level						
Intercept	5.587		5.577		5.538	
Race Difference	-.141	.237	-.258	.264	-.337	.270
Gender Difference	.061	.140	.106	.152	.100	.146
Time Working Together	.000	.001	.001	.001	.000	.001
Time Known Leader	.001	.000	.000	.000	.001	.000
Independent Variables						
LMX (Member)			.107	.059	.124	.076
Inspirational Appeals			-.119	.064	-.137	.071
Consultation			.048	.097	.029	.101
Exchange			-.008	.110	.019	.114
Legitimation			-.110	.074	-.114	.074
Pressure			.113	.082	.067	.077
Moderator Variables						
LMX by Inspirational Appeals					.150*	.070
LMX by Consultation					-.157*	.078
LMX by Exchange					.261**	.099
LMX by Legitimation					-.042	.071
LMX by Pressure					.011	.060
Control Variables						
Group Level						
Group Size	-.044	.074	-.042	.073	-.017	.072
LMX (Leader)	.710**	.138	.707**	.127	.700**	.125
DF	6		12		17	
Log-Likelihood	-196.596		-191.590		-185.284	
-2 Change in Log-Likelihood			10.012		12.612*	

* p < .05; ** p < .01

N = 177 Individual Level; N=62 Group Level

^a Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported; S.E. = Standard Errors.

FIGURE 1
Statistically Significant Interactions

Figure 1a: Inspirational Appeal Tactics X LMX

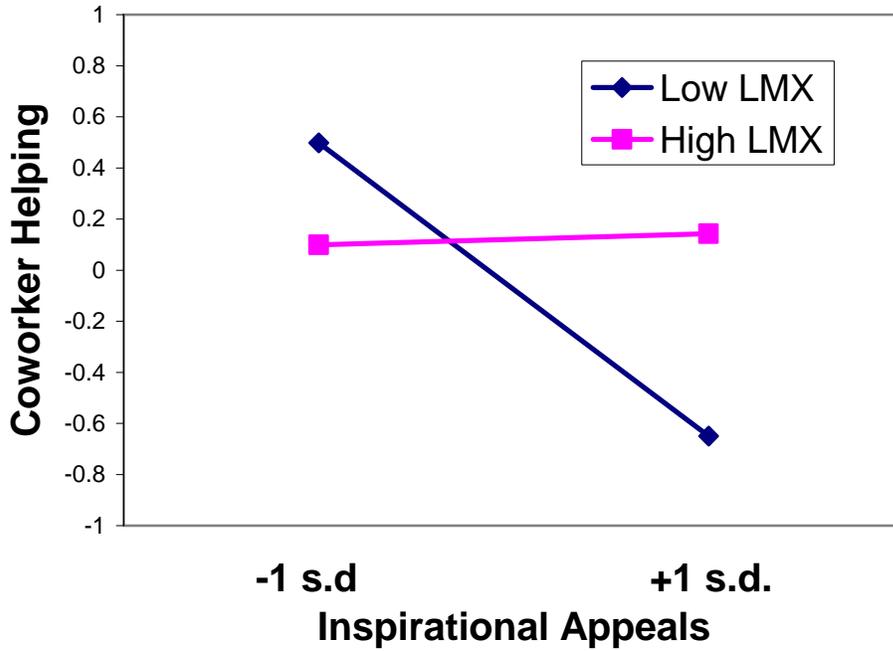


Figure 1b: Consultation X LMX

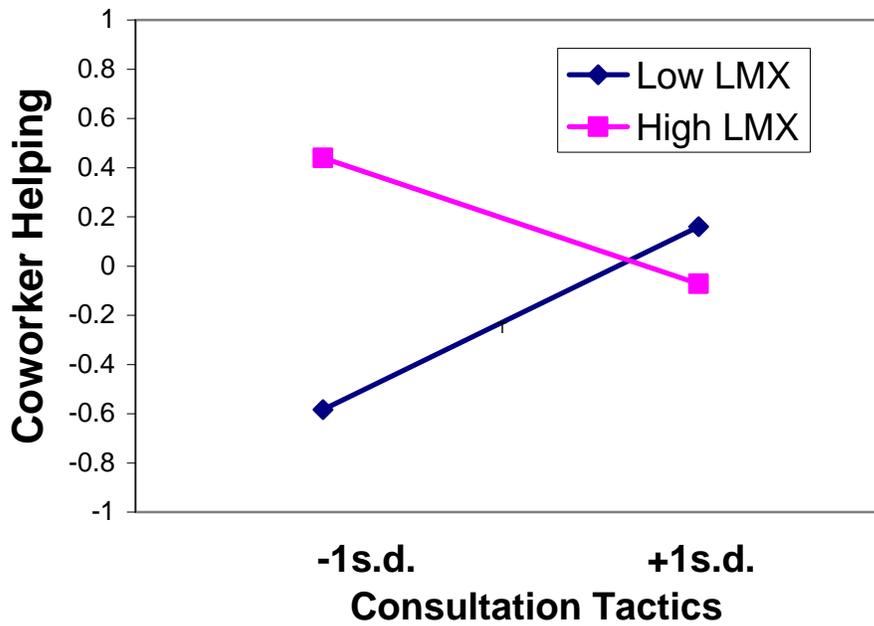
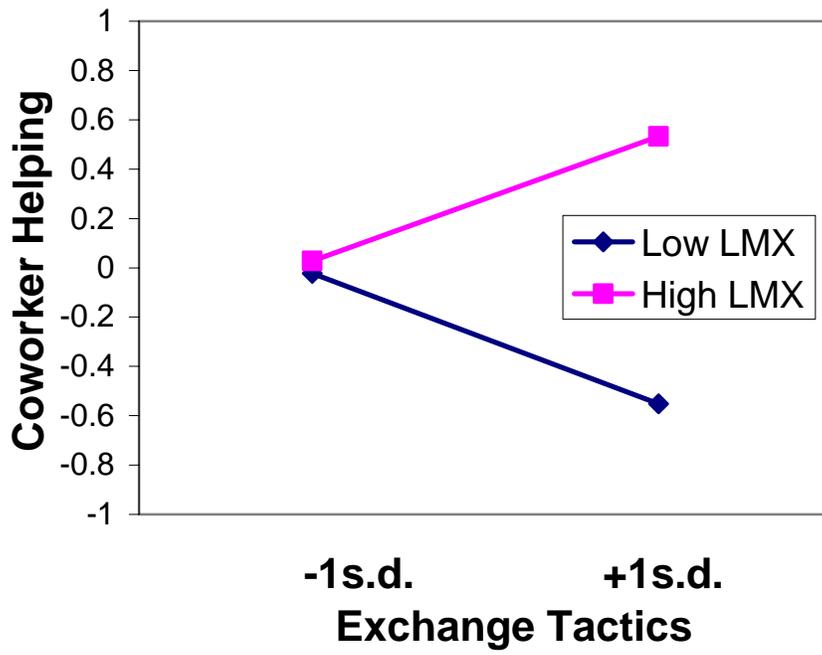


Figure 1c: Exchange Tactics X LMX



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