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경영학석사학위논문

**The Effect of Leader Influence Tactics on
Subordinates' Knowledge Sharing**

리더 영향력 전술이 부하직원의 지식공유에
미치는 영향

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ABSTRACT

The Effect of Leader Influence Tactics on Subordinates' Knowledge Sharing

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This study examines the extent to which leaders' use of particular type of influence tactics influences subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing. Based on social cognitive theory and self-efficacy theory, I propose that leaders' use of influence tactics affects subordinates' engaging in knowledge sharing, and that subordinates' general self-efficacy is an underlying motivational mechanism that links leader influence tactics with subordinates' knowledge sharing. Taking contextual perspective, I also investigate whether the proposed relationship is influenced by subordinates'

perception on trustworthiness of their leaders and coworkers. Drawing on theories of trust, I suggest that the extent to which leader influence tactics shapes subordinates' efficacy belief depends on subordinates' perception on leader trustworthiness. Also, drawing on theories of trust and social exchange theory, I propose that the extent that subordinates' self-efficacy positively contributes to their involvement in knowledge sharing is contingent upon their perceived coworker trustworthiness. The result of this study generally supports the proposed hypotheses with respect to leader soft tactics. The findings of this research indicate that leader soft tactics were found to influence subordinates' knowledge sharing by affecting subordinates' general self-efficacy. Furthermore, subordinates' perception on leader trustworthiness moderated the effect of leader influence tactics on subordinates' general self-efficacy, while their perception on coworker trustworthiness were found to influence the strength of the connection between subordinates' general self-efficacy and knowledge sharing. Theoretical and practical implications are discussed.

Key words: influence tactics, self-efficacy, trustworthiness, knowledge sharing

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I . INTRODUCTION

In the modern market environment, characterized by rapid changes and fierce competition, companies are under strong pressure to continually innovate for survival. To secure companies' innovative capability, it is essential for companies to fully utilize their valuable knowledge resources, which often exist in the form of tacit knowledge owned by their employees. Thus, employees' active engagement in knowledge sharing, which refers to employees' voluntary contribution to the collective organizational knowledge (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2002), enables companies to access the rich source of internal knowledge resources and obtain the competitive advantages over their competitors (Chiu, Hsu, & Wang, 2006).

Employees' participation in knowledge sharing is largely discretionary in nature (Ipe, 2003), and therefore their motivation plays a critical role in determining the degree of their involvement in knowledge sharing (Cabrera, Collins, & Salgado, 2006). In this regard, many researchers have investigated the antecedents that encourage employees to share their knowledge and expertise (e.g. Cabrera et al., 2006; Chiu et al., 2006; Lu, Leung, & Koch, 2006; Srivastava, Bartol, & Locke, 2006). In particular, researchers have recently found out that leaders actually exert significant influence on employees' motivation for knowledge sharing (Carmeli, Atwater, & Levi, 2011; Carmeli, Gelbard, & Reiter-Palmon, 2013; Hassanzadeh, 2014; Srivastava et al., 2006). For example, empowering leader behaviors, characterized by giving fair recognition to subordinates' voice and coaching them

to solve the problems in cooperation with others (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000), were found to be positively related to subordinates' knowledge sharing in a number of recent studies (e.g. Srivastava et al., 2006; Xue, Bradley, & Liang, 2011). However, relatively little attention has been given to the potential impact of leaders' specific behaviors used in their influence attempt (i.e., leader influence tactics) on subordinates' knowledge sharing, although such behaviors are critical in determining the success of leaders' influence (Yukl, Seifert, & Chavez, 2008). Leader influence tactics refer to the specific behaviors or strategies that leaders use in their influence attempts (Yukl et al., 2008). Considering that it is continually and repeatedly used in daily leader-subordinate interaction, its impact on employees' discretionary behavior such as knowledge sharing can be substantial (Kacmar, Carlson, & Harris, 2013). Indeed, previous studies on leader influence tactics reported that different types of leader influence tactics confer differential impact on subordinates' voluntary constructive behavior such as supervisor-targeted OCBs and helping behavior (Moideenkutty & Schmidt, 2011; Sparrowe, Soetjijpto, & Kraimer, 2006). Thus, it is meaningful to investigate the relationship between leader influence tactics and subordinates' knowledge sharing.

In this regard, this research has been conducted on the following three purposes. First, this research examines the direct impact of leader influence tactics on subordinates' knowledge sharing. Based on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), I propose that the social cues entailed in leader influence tactics influence subordinates' involvement in knowledge sharing by affecting their perceived

instrumentality of knowledge sharing. Second, this study explores the motivational mediating mechanism that underlies the distal relationship between leader influence tactics and subordinates' knowledge sharing. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), the key theoretical framework on which this research model is based, points out self-efficacy as a core motivational mechanism that determines individuals' behavioral intention (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998b). Furthermore, in general, previous research on self-efficacy has reported significant positive relationship between self-efficacy and knowledge sharing (Cabrera et al., 2006; Hsu, Ju, Yen, & Chang, 2007; Lu et al., 2006; Tsai & Cheng, 2010). Moreover, the existing literature on leader influence tactics indicates that leader influence tactics produce the implicative cues that have the potential to impact subordinates' sense of efficacy (Tepper, Eisenbach, Kirby, & Potter, 1998; Yukl et al., 2008). Thus, based on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) and the suggestion of researchers, I propose subordinates' general self-efficacy as a mediating mechanism that connects leader influence tactics with subordinates' knowledge sharing. Third, this research investigates the potential contingency of the effect of leader influence tactics. Drawing on theories of trust (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), I purport that the extent to which leader influence tactics affect subordinates' knowledge sharing behavior depends on subordinates' perception on trustworthiness of their leaders and coworkers. Specifically, I argue that leader trustworthiness moderates the extent that leader influence tactics shape subordinates' efficacy belief, while coworker

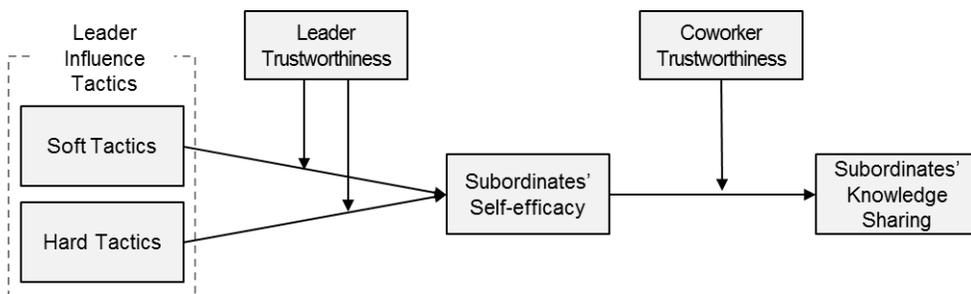
trustworthiness influences the link between subordinates' general self-efficacy and knowledge sharing.

The main contribution of this research is threefold. First, this research contributes to the existing literature on influence tactics by uncovering the unexplored relationship between leader influence tactics and subordinates' knowledge sharing, a specific discretionary cooperative behavior for the organization. To date, we are not aware of any research that has examined this relationship. Exploring this relationship is especially meaningful as knowledge sharing is an essential activity required for the organization to build up the foundation for its continuous innovation (Chiu et al., 2006). Furthermore, this research also contributes to the knowledge sharing literature by revealing leader influence tactics as a meaningful antecedent. Second, by investigating the motivational mechanism that underlies the relationship between leader influence tactics and subordinates' knowledge sharing, this research enables us to deeply assimilate the psychological process through which leader influence tactics affect subordinates' discretionary behavior. Research on such mediating mechanism has been consistently called by researchers (Tepper et al., 1998; Yukl et al., 2008), yet to date, only sparse research effort has been devoted. Third, this research extends our understanding on the effect of leader influence tactics on subordinates' perception, attitude, and behavior by exploring the contextual factors on which the impact of leader influence tactics is contingent. Although it is evident that the effect of leaders' behaviors is heavily influenced by the contexts surrounding

leaders and subordinates (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003; Porter & McLaughlin, 2006), only few researches examined the contingency of the effect of leader influence tactics. Thus, this research adds to researchers' effort to fully specify the nomological framework of leader influence tactics.

In sum, this research provides an integrated theoretical framework from which we can obtain a rich understanding on how leader influence tactics exert the influence on subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing. Understanding this process is also practically meaningful as it gives a specific guide to practitioners about how to influence their subordinates if they aim to stimulate their voluntary knowledge sharing behaviors. In the next section, I briefly review the literature of influence tactics and knowledge sharing before proposing the theoretical arguments and hypotheses.

Figure 1. Proposed Research Model



II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2. 1. Influence Tactics

Definition and measure of influence tactics

Influence tactics refer to the strategical behaviors used by the agent to influence the targets' attitude and behavior (Yukl, 2013). Influence tactics can be classified into three broad categories according to their main purposes and aimed time frame: proactive tactics, impression management tactics and political tactics (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Proactive tactics are the influence behaviors made by the agent to influence the target for the specific immediate request (Yukl et al., 2008). They are particularly important when the agent has little authorities over the target (Yukl et al., 2008). Impression management tactics are employed to make a good image and improve the relationship with the target (Gardner & Martinko, 1988). Finally, political tactics are used to affect policy decisions or resource allocation in the organization (Judge & Bretz, 1994). This study focuses on proactive influence tactics used by leaders.

The early attempt to identify distinctive influence tactics used in the work place was made by Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980). They collected and analyzed the incidents in which influence attempts were made and identified 8 categories of influence tactics: assertiveness, ingratiation, sanctions, rationality, exchange, upward appeal, blocking, and coalitions. Based on their findings, they

developed the profile of organizational influence tactics (POIS), the survey questionnaire requiring the agent to self-report his or her influence tactics. Later, Schriesheim and Hinkin (1990) revised the POIS with the result obtained from the factor analysis of the original POIS. Although it was used in many previous researches on upward influence tactics (e.g. Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984; Thacker & Wayne, 1995; Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997), the POIS suffers the following limitations. First, the validity of the POIS obtained only very limited support (Hochwarter, Pearson, Ferris, Perrewe, & Ralston, 2000). Second, both the original and revised POIS were designed to measure upward influence tactics, and therefore are not appropriate for measuring lateral or downward influences tactics (Yukl, Lepsinger, & Lucia, 1992). Third, researchers have consistently argued that self-ratings on one's behavior is not as reliable as the ratings by other people (Yukl et al., 2008). Realizing such limitations, Yukl and his colleagues developed the influence behavior questionnaire (IBQ), of which responses are taken from the target individuals (Yukl & Falbe, 1990). The early version of the IBQ included 6 influence tactics similar to ones in the POIS (i.e., rational persuasion, exchange, ingratiation, pressure, coalition, and upward appeals) and 4 influence tactics based on the leadership and power literature (i.e., consultation, inspirational appeals, personal appeals, and legitimating) (Yukl et al., 2008). In their research for the validation of the IBQ scale, all of these influence tactics except upward appeals obtained the support for the validity of the scale (Yukl et al., 1992). Later, Yukl and Seifert (2002) revised the IBQ and added two additional influence tactics (i.e.,

collaboration and apprising), which also obtained the support in the validation research (Yukl, Chavez, & Seifert, 2005). In the present study, I have used the IBQ to measure leader influence tactics not only because it is most recently validated measure for influence tactics but also because it is the most appropriate measure for measuring downward influence tactics (Yukl et al., 2008). Table 1 shows the definitions of influence tactics given by Yukl et al. (2008)

Table 1. The definitions of influence tactics

Influence Tactics	Definition
Rational persuasion	Using of logical arguments and factual evidence to prove that the agent's request is feasible and relevant
Consultation	Asking the target to provide their opinion on a proposed activity or suggest the necessary change
Inspirational appeals	Appealing to the target's values and ideals to arouse his or her voluntary commitment
Collaboration	Providing assistance and necessary resources for carrying out the task
Apprising	Explaining how performing a request will benefit the target
Ingratiation	Using praise and flattery before or during the influence attempt
Personal appeals	Asking the target to carry out a request out of close relationship
Exchange	offering the target something beneficial or to reciprocate in the near future
Legitimizing	Seeking to establish the legitimacy of a request or to justify the agent's authorities to request
Pressure	Using demands, threats, and frequent checking in the influence attempt
Coalition	Using the aid of others to persuade or influence the target

* Source: Yukl et al. (2008)

Meta-categories of influence tactics

It is very unlikely that managers use a single influence tactic in isolation. Rather, they often use a number of influence tactics in combination in their influence attempts. Thus it is essential to consider the effect of leaders' combined use of influence tactics on subordinates' behavior (Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993). One way of investigating such combined use is to abstract influence tactics into a higher level construct (Tepper et al., 1998). For this reason, many researchers have used meta-categories to conceptualize influence tactics and test their effect. In addition, using meta-categories also enables researchers to obtain research parsimony. One of the most commonly used meta-categories is known as rational, soft, and hard tactics, the classification based on Kipnis and his colleagues' work (e.g. Clarke & Ward, 2006; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985; Tepper et al., 1998). Kipnis (1984) has classified influence tactics into three meta-categories: strong, weak and rational. Later, Kipnis and Schmidt (1985) altered the name of these categories into hard tactics, soft tactics, and rational tactics. Hard tactics are often characterized by the use of authorities, threat and pressure in forceful manner (Clarke & Ward, 2006; Lo, Ramayah, & de Run, 2009). Soft tactics are the influence attempts based on the use of socioemotional appeals and personal relationship (Lo et al., 2009). Finally, rational tactics involve the use of logic and persuasive communication (Clarke & Ward, 2006). Although distinguishing soft tactics and rational tactics can be potentially informative, several researchers have argued that rational tactics and soft tactics are to be

regarded as the same category (Lamude, 1994; Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). In particular, Van Knippenberg and Steensma (2003) purported that rational tactics and soft tactics should be deemed as the same category because both tactics allow the targets some discretion about whether to conform the agents' demand. Furthermore, the social cues entailed in both tactics are very similar, particularly in the context of leader influence tactics. According to Tepper et al. (1998), both rational tactics and soft tactics convey the implicit cue of (a) managers' respect and recognition for subordinates' capability to fully comprehend the importance of the task objectives and motivation to complete the task and (b) the desire to strengthen the relationship with their subordinates. For this reason, many researchers who have examined the effect of downward influence tactics have categorized influence tactics into soft tactics and hard tactics (e.g. Furst & Cable, 2008; Moideenkutty & Schmidt, 2011; Sparrowe et al., 2006). Since this research focuses on investigating how leaders' use of influence tactics affects subordinates' perception on subordinates' general self-efficacy, I argue that classifying influence tactics into two meta-categories as soft tactics and hard tactics provides the better fit for the purpose of this research. Thus, in this research, I focus on examining the effect of leaders' use of soft tactics and hard tactics on subordinates' knowledge sharing. Although there are minor discrepancies in the tactical composition of soft tactics and hard tactics suggested by previous studies, certain influence tactics have been consistently included as soft tactics, rational tactics and hard tactics. Specifically, many previous studies have treated consultation, ingratiation, and inspirational

appeals as soft tactics, rational persuasion as rational tactics, and pressure, legitimating, and coalition as hard tactics (e.g. Berson & Sosik, 2007; Clarke & Ward, 2006; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Noypayak & Speece, 1998; Steensma & van Milligen, 2003; Tepper et al., 1998). Thus, in this research, based on the perspective of Van Knippenberg and Steensma (2003) and the classification of influence tactics used in previous research, I considered the tactical combination of rational persuasion, consultation, ingratiation, and inspirational appeals to be soft tactics and that of pressure, legitimating, and coalition to be hard tactics.

The antecedents of influence tactics used by the agent

A rich body of the literature of influence tactics investigated the antecedents of influence tactics used in agents' influence attempt. The factors that influence agents' preference for particular types of influence tactics suggested by the existing literature can be classified into the following three groups: (a) individual characteristics (b) relational factors (c) organizational contexts.

First, many previous studies reported that the agents' characteristics such as gender, education, personality, objective, and power base affect the extent to which an agent prefers particular types of influence tactics. For example, researchers found that females were less likely to use manipulative tactics (DuBrin, 1989), while they were more inclined to use coalition tactics than males (Vecchio & Sussmann, 1991). Farmer, Maslyn, Fedor, and Goodman (1997) found that the individuals with higher educational background preferred using rational and soft

tactics to adopting hard tactics. Cable and Judge (2003) examined the effect of personality on agents' choice of influence tactics by using the concept of Big five personality. They found that conscientiousness and emotional stability were positively related to the use of rational persuasion, while extraversion was positively related to the use of inspirational appeals and ingratiation. Yukl, Guinan, and Soitolano (1995) found that the managers' objectives such as assigning work, changing behavior and getting assistance influenced both the direction of their influence attempts and choice of influence tactics. Finally, Steensma and van Milligen (2003) reported that when the agents' influence was based on expert and referent power, they often chose soft tactics as their influence strategy, while legitimating, coercive, and reward power-based agents tended to use hard tactics.

Second, an ample amount of existing research indicates that the factors associated with interpersonal relationship have significant influence on agents' preference for influence tactics. For example, leader-member exchange (LMX), which refers to the quality of the exchange relationship between leaders and subordinates, was found to be negatively related to agents' use of hard tactics (Farmer et al., 1997; Lo et al., 2009). The direction of influence attempt was also found to have substantial influence in shaping agents' choice of influence tactics. For example, Schermerhorn and Bond (1991) reported that employees preferred rational persuasion and coalition as the strategies for upward influence attempts, while they opted for ingratiation, blocking, exchange, upward appeals for downward influence strategies. Interestingly, Yukl and Falbe (1990) reported

somewhat different findings. They found that the rank order of influence tactics was nearly the same for all direction of influence attempt in terms of tactic frequency.

Finally, organizational contexts have been regarded as the key factor that determines agents' preference and choice of influence tactics. One of the most frequently examined contexts is national culture. For instance, Schermerhorn and Bond (1991) found that Hong Kong managers used assertiveness tactics more often than American managers, whereas American managers adopted ingratiation, rationality, and exchange tactics more frequently than Hong Kong managers. Consistent with this finding, Fu and Yukl (2000) also reported that the managers in the United States perceived rational tactics as more effective, while Chinese managers preferred to use coalition and upward appeals. Meanwhile, Steensma, Jansen, and Vonk (2003) found out that dominant cultural orientation of the organization influenced managers' preferences for influence tactics. They uncovered that support orientation stimulated managers' use of consultation, ingratiation, inspirational appeals, and rational persuasion, and that rules orientation fostered the adoption of legitimating and pressure. In addition, Steensma and van Milligen (2003) found that the level of procedural justice was positively related to employees' use of soft tactics.

The consequences of influence tactics used by the agent

Since managers' purpose of using influence tactics is to arouse employees'

commitment for the task, much research attention has been devoted to examine the effect of leader influence tactics on subordinates' attitude in terms of commitment and resistance (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Tepper et al., 1998; Yukl et al., 2008; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). In general, leaders' use of soft tactics such as rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, and consultation was found to be positively related to employees' commitment for the task, whereas leaders' use of hard tactics such as legitimating, pressure, and coalition was reported to be associated with employees' resistance (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Tepper et al., 1998; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). The findings on the effect of the rest of influence tactics such as ingratiation, personal appeals, and exchange are somewhat mixed. Falbe and Yukl (1992) reported that these tactics did not have significant influence on employees' task commitment. In contrast, Yukl and Tracey (1992) found that the use of ingratiation, exchange, and personal appeals was positively related to employee's commitment when influence attempts were made in downward or lateral direction. Such difference in research result can be due to methodological differences in measuring employees' task commitment.

Meanwhile, previous researchers also examined the effect of influence tactics on employees' perception on leaders' effectiveness (e.g. Fu & Yukl, 2000; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). In general, rational persuasion, inspirational appeals, and consultation were found to be positively related to employees' perceived manager effectiveness (Yukl et al., 2008; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). In addition, Charbonneau (2004) found that rational persuasion and inspirational appeals were positively

related to employees' perception of transformational leadership.

The effect of the agents' use of influence tactics on their promotion and performance also received a substantial amount of research attention (e.g. Higgins et al., 2003; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). The existing literature on influence tactics indicates that agents' use of rational persuasion is positively related to their performance evaluation and promotability (Higgins et al., 2003; Thacker & Wayne, 1995), whereas the use of self-promotion brings about the deleterious effect on agents' promotional success (Judge & Bretz, 1994). The findings on the impact of ingratiation on career success are mixed. Some researchers found that employees' ingratiating behavior contributed to their promotional success and performance evaluation (Higgins et al., 2003; Judge & Bretz, 1994), while others reported the negative relationship between employees' use of ingratiation and their promotability (Thacker & Wayne, 1995).

Researchers also investigated how managers' use of influence tactics forms employees' perception on the interpersonal fairness and the quality of relationship with the agent. For example, Tepper et al. (1998) found that managers' use of rational tactics and soft tactics was positively related to subordinates' perception on interactional justice, whereas that of hard tactics brought about the negative consequences in terms of employees' justice perception. Moideenkutty and Schmidt (2011) also reported that leaders' use of positive tactics (i.e., leader soft tactics) enhanced subordinates' trust in leaders and the quality of leader-member relationship, whereas leaders' use of hard tactics aggravated the interpersonal

relationship between leaders and subordinates.

Finally, researchers have recently started to examine the effect of downward influence tactics (i.e., leader influence tactics) on subordinates' behavior. Several researchers have examined the effect of leader influence tactics on helping behavior (Kacmar et al., 2013; Sparrowe et al., 2006), safety participation (Clarke & Ward, 2006), resistance to organizational change (Furst & Cable, 2008), and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) (Lian & Tui, 2012; Moideenkutty & Schmidt, 2011). In general, leaders' use of soft tactics was found to be positively associated with employees' work-related behavior. For example, Moideenkutty and Schmidt (2011) found the significant positive relationship between leaders' use of positive influence tactics and subordinates' supervisor-targeted OCBs. Lian and Tui (2012) also reported that leaders' use of consultation and ingratiation had positive influence on subordinates' engagement in OCB. In addition, Clarke and Ward (2006) found that leaders' use of rational persuasion fostered employees' safety participation. Whereas the findings from previous studies in regard to soft tactics were relatively consistent, researchers obtained inconsistent findings for the effect of leader hard tactics. In particular, many researchers found nonsignificant relationship between leader hard tactics and subordinates' behaviors. For instance, Moideenkutty and Schmidt (2011) found nonsignificant relationship between leaders' use of negative influence tactics and subordinates' engagement in supervisor-oriented OCB. Lian and Tui (2012) also demonstrated that pressure, the core hard tactic often associated with targets' resistance (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl

et al., 2008), was not significantly related to subordinates' engagement in OCBs. The findings of Clarke and Ward (2006) also illustrated that managers' use of coalition actually stimulated employees' safety participation. In general, researchers failed to provide satisfactory explanations for these unexpected results. Considering the negative connotation in the social cues elicited by leader hard tactics, such result is very surprising. Thus, there is a strong need for future research to further investigate the nature and impact of leader hard tactics on subordinates' perception, attitude, and behavior.

Although previous empirical studies have uncovered the considerable impact of leader influence tactics on subordinates' perception and attitude, relatively little is known about the potential impact of leader influence tactics on subordinates' discretionary behaviors. In particular, to my best knowledge, there has been no research that addressed the relationship between leader influence tactics and subordinates' knowledge sharing. As noted earlier, employees' motivation plays a critical role in shaping their willingness to engage in knowledge sharing. Leader influence tactics deliver subordinates the social cues containing leaders' respect and recognition for subordinates that significantly influences subordinates' motivation for voluntary cooperative behavior (Tepper et al., 1998; Yukl et al., 2008). Thus, it seems reasonable to postulate that leader influence tactics can actually bring about the changes in employees' engagement in knowledge sharing. Thus, this research aims to investigate the unexplored relationship between leader influence tactics and subordinates' knowledge sharing.

To gain more understanding and establish the theoretical background on how leader influence tactics affect subordinates' engaging in knowledge sharing, I will briefly review the antecedents of employees' knowledge sharing.

2. 2. Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge sharing refers to employees' voluntary contribution to enhance the collective knowledge base of an organization (Cabrera & Cabrera, 2002). In the rapidly changing market in which companies are required to continually innovate, the full utilization of knowledge enables companies to have a significant source of competitive advantages (Grant, 1996). Thus, finding out the antecedents of employees' voluntary engagement in knowledge sharing is both theoretically and practically meaningful. Realizing such importance of knowledge sharing, researchers examined and uncovered many factors that either foster or inhibit employees' engagement in knowledge sharing. Such antecedent factors can be grouped into the following three categories: (a) individual characteristics (b) relational factors (c) organizational contexts.

First, previous researchers purported that the characteristics of individuals exert significant influence on their knowledge sharing intention and behavior (e.g. Cabrera et al., 2006; Lu et al., 2006). Among various individual factors influencing employees' knowledge sharing, employees' perceived benefit and cost have received much attention from researchers (Wang & Noe, 2010). For example, previous research indicates that individuals determine to engage in knowledge

sharing when it gives them internal satisfaction, strengthened professional reputation, and the feeling of contributing to the community goals (Lin, 2007; Wasko & Faraj, 2000; Wasko & Faraj, 2005). In particular, Wasko and Faraj (2000), by using content analysis method, discovered that knowledge sharing was often regarded as public good and the primary reason for individuals' engaging in knowledge sharing was, in many cases, based on other-related motives such as community goals, reciprocity, and prosocial motivation. That is, individuals are inclined to devote their time for knowledge sharing when they are assured that they would obtain the positive feeling of helping others. In regard to individuals' perceived cost of knowledge sharing, researchers found that time shortage and subjective unfamiliarity were two main barriers that constrained individuals' involvement in knowledge sharing (Hew & Hara, 2007; Kankanhalli, Tan, & Wei, 2005).

Individuals' perception on their capability was also found to be a strong determinant of their engagement in knowledge sharing (e.g. Cabrera et al., 2006; Constant, Kiesler, & Sproull, 1994; Jarvenpaa & Staples, 2000; Lin, 2007). For example, Constant et al. (1994) found that employees with high educational background and considerable work experiences were more likely to participate in voluntary sharing of their knowledge and expertise. In addition, many researchers found the positive relationship between individuals' confidence in their knowledge and capability and their engagement in knowledge sharing (e.g. Cabrera et al., 2006; Lin, 2007; Lu et al., 2006; Tsai & Cheng, 2010). In particular, based on self-

efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997), Cabrera et al. (2006) set forth the theoretical possibility that a sense of efficacy fosters individuals to undertake more knowledge sharing activities. In contrast, evaluation apprehension, the fear of receiving negative evaluation from others, was found to be negatively related to individuals' participation in knowledge sharing (Bordia, Irmer, & Abusah, 2006).

Second, the existing literature on knowledge sharing suggests that the factors associated with interpersonal relationship influence the extent to which individuals share their knowledge with others. In particular, researchers devoted an extensive amount of research attention on the role of social exchange relationship in stimulating employees' knowledge sharing. Specifically, based on social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), many researchers argued that the relationship based on interpersonal trust facilitates their participation in knowledge sharing and found the supporting evidence (e.g. Chiu et al., 2006; Chowdhury, 2005; Mooradian, Renzl, & Matzler, 2006; Tamjidyamcholo, Baba, Tamjid, & Gholipour, 2013; Wu, Hsu, & Yeh, 2007). In particular, Chowdhury (2005) found that both affect- and cognition-based trust were positively related to individuals' knowledge sharing. Yet, there are also some researchers who found nonsignificant relationship between trust and individuals' engagement in knowledge sharing. For example, Bakker, Leenders, Gabbay, Kratzer, and Van Engelen (2006) reported that all trust dimensions had nonsignificant influence on individuals' sharing of knowhow at individual level. They also examined the effect of trust at team level, controlling team membership and found that only the dimension of integrity had significant

positive influence on individuals' sharing of knowhow. Based on their finding, they concluded that trust is unlikely to be the social capital for knowledge sharing. However, in overall, existing empirical research seems to support the view that interpersonal trust stimulates knowledge sharing among individuals (Wang & Noe, 2010).

Leader behaviors have been highlighted by researchers as another important interpersonal factor that shapes employees' motivation to engage in knowledge sharing. Although leaders are one of the strongest source of interpersonal influence in the organization (Carmeli et al., 2011; Sluss & Ashforth, 2007) and play a critical role in determining the extent to which subordinates engage in voluntary cooperative behavior (Dineen, Lewicki, & Tomlinson, 2006), relatively sparse attention has been paid to leaders' role in fostering employees' knowledge sharing (Srivastava et al., 2006). Recent studies on leadership indicate that leaders' transformational and empowering behaviors foster employee to share their knowledge and expertise with their coworkers (Carmeli et al., 2011; Srivastava et al., 2006; Xue et al., 2011). For instance, Srivastava et al. (2006) argued that employees' knowledge sharing in team is fostered under empowering leadership. Specifically, they purported that empowering leadership fosters knowledge sharing in teams by allowing fair recognition on subordinates' knowledge contribution, participative decision making in which subordinates feel knowledge sharing practically more relevant, and coaching behaviors that encourage subordinates to solve the problems. Their argument generally obtained

empirical support from several researches (e.g. Srivastava et al., 2006; Xue et al., 2011). In regard to leaders' transformational behaviors, Carmeli et al. (2011) found the significant positive relationship between subordinates' perception of transformational leadership and subordinates' involvement in knowledge sharing. They also found that the impact of transformational leadership on subordinates' knowledge sharing was manifested through employees' relational and organizational identification. In addition, recent empirical studies suggest that leaders can actually take the role of active knowledge facilitator within the group. For example, Carmeli et al. (2013) found that employees increased both internal and external knowledge sharing when leaders stressed the importance of knowledge sharing and actively encouraged their participation in sharing their expertise.

Finally, a voluminous body of the existing research clearly indicates that organizational contexts shape employees' motivation to share their knowledge. One of the contexts that have received a substantial attention from researchers is organizational climate. In general, organizational climate stressing innovation and knowledge management were found to be positively related to employees' engagement in knowledge sharing (Brock, Zmud, Kim, & Lee, 2005; Lin & Lee, 2006; Taylor & Wright, 2004). Also, several researchers found that organizational culture emphasizing trust and cooperation among employees and encouraging employees' active participation in knowledge sharing positively influenced subordinates' involvement in knowledge sharing (e.g. Brock et al., 2005; Collins &

Smith, 2006; Kankanhalli et al., 2005). In particular, Schepers and Van den Berg (2007) found that employees' perception on cooperative-team climate and procedural justice was positively related to employees' knowledge sharing. Similarly, pro-sharing norms and norms of teamwork and collaboration were also identified as knowledge sharing stimulator (Chiu et al., 2006; Jarvenpaa & Staples, 2000). In contrast, competition-oriented organizational culture was found to have deleterious effect on employees' knowledge sharing (Willem & Scarbrough, 2006).

Researchers also focused on the role of incentive/reward system in forming employees' commitment for knowledge sharing. Although the provision of extrinsic rewards is often regarded as a motivational enhancer of employees' constructive behaviors (Maurer & Tarulli, 1994), surprisingly, many researchers found nonsignificant impact of the extrinsic incentive for individuals' engagement in knowledge sharing (e.g. Bock et al., 2005; Lin, 2007). As researchers noted, such result may imply that there could be some contextual factors moderating the influence from the extrinsic rewards (Wang & Noe, 2010). In addition, researchers also investigated how the orientation of incentive structure influences employees' participation in knowledge sharing. In general, they found that cooperation-oriented and group-based reward systems fostered employees' knowledge sharing, whereas competition-oriented and individual-based reward system impeded their participation in knowledge initiative (Ferrin & Dirks, 2003; Quigley, Tesluk, Locke, & Bartol, 2007).

In sum, although there seems to be various determinants of employees'

engagement in knowledge sharing across organizational levels, these factors can be summarized into the following three fundamental conditions: (a) perceived benefit of knowledge sharing, (b) confidence about themselves and their knowledge, and (c) trustworthiness of knowledge sharing target. Thus, if leader influence tactics can alter subordinates' perception on these three conditions, they would have substantial influence on subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing. Furthermore, the effect of leader influence tactics would be adjusted if there are organizational factors that simultaneously affect such conditions. In the following section, I discuss about how leaders' use of influence tactics changes subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing and propose the hypotheses related to this issue.

III. HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

3.1. Leader Influence Tactics and Subordinates' Knowledge Sharing

The tenet of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) is that individuals learn from their environment to adjust their behavior. According to social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986; Wood & Bandura, 1989), individuals judge the appropriateness of their behavior by observing how others behave in the social context. Stated alternatively, individuals are naturally inclined to search for the social cues in the environment to minimize uncertainty in and potential deleterious consequences of their behavior (Dineen et al., 2006). These cues are used in their cognitive process to confirm the role expectation from others and to assess the likely outcomes from their enacted behaviors.

Leaders or workplace supervisors are entitled with legitimate right to influence their subordinates in the organization (French & Raven, 1959; Hughes, 1993). In general, they are given the position power to control on organizational resources (i.e., budget) and outcomes (i.e., performance evaluations, salary), which are highly valued by employees (French & Raven, 1959). For this reason, subordinates are very concerned about how leaders value their contribution, evaluate their performance, and care about their well-being. In particular, leaders' respect and recognition give subordinates the assurance that their voluntary contribution would be fairly appreciated by their leaders (Dineen et al., 2006).

Such assurance directly affects their motivation to engage in voluntary cooperative behaviors (Bandura, 1986; Dineen et al., 2006). Indeed, previous empirical studies indicate that leaders' recognition is actually an important antecedent of employees' commitment for the organization and their engagement in voluntary cooperative behavior (e.g. Clarke & Ward, 2006; Sparrowe et al., 2006; Tepper et al., 1998; Wayne, Shore, Bommer, & Tetrick, 2002). As noted earlier, knowledge sharing is also largely discretionary in nature, and thus employees' motivation for engagement plays a critical role in determining the levels of knowledge sharing activity in the organization (Ipe, 2003). Leader influence tactics deliver subordinates the cues demonstrating the extent to which leaders respect and recognize subordinates' competence and motivation for the task (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Tepper et al., 1998). Thus, consistent with social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), I suggest that leaders' behaviors demonstrating their respect for subordinates exert a substantial impact on subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing. Specifically, leaders' use of soft tactics communicates their subordinates that leaders are satisfied with subordinates' capability and motivation and expect them to make voluntary contribution for the organization (Tepper et al., 1998). It also signals subordinates that leaders have strong trust in task-related knowledges owned by subordinates and that they want subordinates to share them within the work group. Consistent with social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986; Wood & Bandura, 1989), detecting the positive social cues included in leaders soft tactics, subordinates are likely to believe that their effort for the organization would be

well-appreciated by their leaders and that their sharing of knowledge and expertise would result in due recognition and fair evaluation from their leaders. In other words, the favorable implicit cues in leader soft tactics would positively influence subordinates' assessment on the instrumentality of knowledge sharing in terms of leaders' performance evaluation and reward (Vroom, 1964). Thus, leaders' use of soft tactics would encourage employees to engage in knowledge sharing.

On the other hand, leader hard tactics contain the cues reflecting leaders' questioning on subordinates' work-related capability and motivation (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Tepper et al., 1998). Leaders tend to adopt hard tactics when they believe that subordinates are passive and need frequent monitoring and control (Tepper et al., 1998). In particular, leaders' use of hard tactics may strongly signal that leaders regard subordinates' knowledge as immature and expect them to learn more from leaders or their seniors rather than to share their knowledge within the group. Thus, when leaders use hard tactics in their influence attempts, subordinates are likely to believe that their engagement in knowledge sharing would be unwelcomed by their leaders. Consistent with social cognitive theory (Wood & Bandura, 1989), such belief would decrease subordinates' instrumentality of knowledge sharing and thus drive subordinates to reduce their involvement in knowledge sharing. Furthermore, the existing literature on influence tactics indicates that leader hard tactics are largely forceful, coercive, and manipulative in nature (Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). Thus, leaders' use of hard tactics largely threatens subordinates' sense of control. According to the theory of psychological reactance (Brehm, 1966),

which posits that a sense of control is the basic need of individuals, employees are likely to withhold their engagement in discretionary cooperative behaviors to restore their sense of control when they perceive such threat. Thus, leader hard tactics, which intimidate subordinates' sense of control, would dampen employees' motivation to be involved in knowledge sharing.

Although there is no empirical research that examined the impact of leader influence tactics on subordinates' knowledge sharing, recent studies on the relationship between leader influence tactics and employees' discretionary behaviors provide indirect support for the proposed argument. For example, Lian and Tui (2012) found that consultation and inspirational appeals, two representative soft tactics, were positively related to subordinates' undertaking of OCBs, whereas legitimating, a component of hard tactics, was negatively related. Since knowledge sharing is largely discretionary in nature (Ipe, 2003), I expect that different types of leader influence tactics (that is, soft and hard tactics) would also have significant differential impact on subordinates' knowledge sharing.

Hypothesis 1. Leader soft tactics are positively related to subordinates' knowledge sharing.

Hypothesis 2. Leader hard tactics are negatively related to subordinates' knowledge sharing.

3.2. Mediating Role of Subordinates' General Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy, a key component of Bandura's (1986) social cognitive

theory, is defined as individuals' belief in their task-related capability (Gist, 1987). Recently, researchers have increasingly paid their attention to general self-efficacy (Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010; Tierney & Farmer, 2002), which is defined as individuals' belief in their overall capability to make a successful achievement in a variety of different situations (Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998). Both specific self-efficacy and general self-efficacy delineate individuals' confidence in their ability to achieve the task objectives or desired outcomes but they differ in the scope. In this research, I focus on the effect of leader influence tactics on subordinates' general self-efficacy because leader influence tactics are not targeted to the specific activity or task, but aimed at improving subordinates' performance in general.

According to self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997), individuals gradually adapt their self-efficacy evaluation by referring to their mastery levels of cognitive, social, and physical skills obtained through direct or indirect experiences. It further suggests that individuals make an integrative evaluation on their competence by referring to the information related with their capabilities and that this evaluation acts as a strong motivational source for their behaviors (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998b). The existing empirical studies generally support this perspective. For instance, Stajkovic and Luthans (1998a), in their meta-analysis, found the significant positive relationship between employees' self-efficacy and work-related performance. Moreover, the findings from recent studies indicate that subordinates' self-efficacy also predicts employees' engagement in discretionary behaviors such as OCBs (Beauregard, 2012), proactive behaviors (Parker, 1998; Parker, Williams,

& Turner, 2006), and creative process engagement (Liao et al., 2010). Thus, self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997) suggests that subordinates would have stronger motivation to engage in knowledge sharing when they are efficacious about their knowledge. Such feeling of knowledge efficacy is closely associated with the sense of general efficacy as employees who are confident at their task-related competence are also likely to be confident about their task-related knowledge. Indeed, Bandura (1997) have argued that specific types of self-efficacy is formed by more general types of self-efficacy. Furthermore, individuals with high general self-efficacy are also likely to have strong confidence in dealing with interpersonal relationship, which they must go through to share their knowledge. Thus, consistent with self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997), the more general self-efficacy subordinates have, the more likely that they would engage in knowledge sharing. Previous empirical research generally reported the findings consistent with this argument (Cabrera et al., 2006; Lu et al., 2006). In particular, Cabrera et al. (2006) found that role-breadth self-efficacy, the efficacy concept focused on interpersonal and integrative tasks that go beyond the formal job requirement (Parker, 1998), was positively related to individuals' engagement in knowledge sharing.

In regard to the development of self-efficacy, Bandura (1982) proposed the following four major information sources from which individuals make their own evaluation on performance-related capability: (a) performance attainment (individuals' perception on their personal mastery level in regard to the tasks) (b) vicarious experiences (modelling the behaviors of capable others) (c) social

persuasion (verbal persuasion from influential others) (d) emotional arousal (physiological and emotional state). As noted earlier, employees tend to be very much concerned about leaders' respect and recognition, as they represent the value that the organization assigns on them. Thus, I suggest that leader behaviors carrying the social cues related with leaders' respect and recognition would be a substantial source of social persuasion for subordinates' efficacy evaluation. For example, if subordinates are encouraged to take part in an important decision making process, they would feel that they are trusted by their leaders and highly valued by the organization. As mentioned above, leader soft tactics deliver subordinates the positive implicit cues reflecting leaders' trust in and respect for subordinates' task-related competence and motivation (Tepper et al., 1998). Such positive cues function as an effective source of social persuasion for subordinates' efficacy judgment. In other words, observing leaders' use of soft tactics, subordinates are likely to be convinced that their task-related capability is earning due recognition from their leaders. Consistent with self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992), such conviction would positively contribute to subordinates' sense of efficacy. Conversely, leaders' use of hard tactics convey subordinates the negative signal that leaders doubt subordinates' capability and feel strong need to monitor and control their behavior (Tepper et al., 1998; Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992) posits that subordinates would lose their confidence and undervalue their capability when they are confronted with such negative feedback

information. Thus, leaders' use of hard tactics is expected to attenuate subordinates' efficacy belief.

Another channel through which leader influence tactics can affect subordinates' self-efficacy is emotional arousal. Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992) purports that employees' emotional state exerts significant influence on their assessment on task-related capability. Leader soft tactics are composed of the tactics based on leaders' respect and the desire to build the positive social exchange relationship with subordinates (Tepper et al., 1998). Thus, leaders' use of soft tactics gives rise to employees' perception that they are fairly treated and respected (Sparrowe et al., 2006; Tepper et al., 1998), engendering positive emotion in subordinates (Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). This positive emotion would in turn lead to the enhancement of subordinates' perceived general self-efficacy (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998b). Conversely, leaders' use of hard tactics is often perceived as an unpleasant experience by subordinates (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Hard tactics include the tactics often regarded as relatively manipulative and coercive, and do not allow any latitude for the target in regard to the compliance of the agent's request (Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). Thus, subordinates are likely to feel disagreeable emotion when faced with leaders' use of hard tactics. They may feel that they are mistreated or disrespected, and be outraged about the fact that they are not given due control for their task (Tepper et al., 1998; Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). Consistent with Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992), such negative

emotion would have detrimental effect on subordinates' belief on general efficacy. The more frequently leaders are engaged in using hard tactics in their influence attempts, the greater emotional cost in terms of subordinates' self-efficacy would be brought in.

In sum, subordinates who hold strong confidence in their overall capability (i.e., subordinates with high general self-efficacy) would be more actively engaged in knowledge sharing. Yet, subordinates' efficacy belief would be largely influenced by leader influence tactics. Accordingly, I propose the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 3. The effect of leader soft tactics on subordinates' knowledge sharing is mediated by subordinates' general self-efficacy.

Hypothesis 4. The effect of leader hard tactics on subordinates' knowledge sharing is mediated by subordinates' general self-efficacy.

3.3. Moderating Role of Leader Trustworthiness

Past research on psychology illustrates that persuasive communication from the credible source has the greater influence on the targets' attitude and behavior (Wu & Shaffer, 1987). Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992) also posits that the credibility of information source is essential in ensuring the effectiveness of social persuasion. Thus, self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992), coupled with past research on psychology, suggests that the impact of leader influence tactics on subordinates' general self-efficacy

largely depends on whether subordinates regards the efficacy-related information obtained from observing leader influence tactics as credible. Credibility of leaders' message is largely dependent upon subordinates' trust in leaders (Mayer et al., 1995). In this respect, I expect that leader trustworthiness can play an important role in determining how subordinates interpret the social cues delivered by leader influence tactics.

Trustworthiness is defined as to the attributes or the characteristics of trustee from which trustor can determine the amount of trust to put in trustee (Mayer et al., 1995). The more trustworthy trustees are, the more likely that trustors place their trust in trustees. Trustworthiness is composed of the following three factors: ability, benevolence, and integrity. Ability denotes skills, competencies, or expertise that enables trustees to have the influence on the particular domain. With respect to leaders in the organization, ability may include both formal and informal power and influence that they exert in the organization. Benevolence stands for the extent to which trustors can be assured that trustees have goodwill for trustors. If subordinates have the confidence that their leaders are concerned about their well-being and interest, they would perceive their leaders as benevolent (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Integrity refers to trustors' perception on the degree to which trustees adhere to the set of the principles that trustors regard as appropriate. The dimensions of integrity also subsume the consistency between trustees' words and behaviors (Mayer & Davis, 1999). Theories of trust (Mayer et al., 1995) suggests that subordinates' perception on leader trustworthiness largely determines their

confidence in leaders' words and actions. Thus, when subordinates perceive leaders as trustworthy, they tend to regard leaders' message as genuine and show greater acceptance (Zalesny & Ford, 1990). The same principle is also applied to how subordinates interpret the messages entailed in leaders' influence behaviors. That is, subordinates ascribe good intention to leader influence tactics, regardless of their type, when they perceive their leaders as trustworthy. Specifically, subordinates are more likely to regard the positive implications brought by leaders' use of soft tactics as genuine and credible message when they regard their leaders as trustworthy. Holding the belief that leaders hold benevolent will for subordinates and generally cling to the widely accepted ethical principles, subordinates would have no doubt on the intention behind leaders' influence behaviors but rather willingly choose to trust the cues entailed in them. Thus, consistent with self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997), leader trustworthiness enhances the beneficial impact of leader influence tactics in terms of the enhancement of subordinates' general self-efficacy by strengthening the credibility of the implicit cues entailed in leader soft tactics. Leader trustworthiness further reinforces the positive impact of leader soft tactics on subordinates' self-efficacy as earning respect and recognition from leaders with high ability is often regarded as more valuable than that from leaders with low ability. Conversely, when subordinates perceive their leaders as untrustworthy, subordinates are unlikely to assign credibility to the information signaled from leader influence tactics (Mayer et al., 1995). Rather, subordinates would doubt whether leaders' use of soft tactics is an extension of leaders' attempt

to manipulate and control. In such case, consistent with self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992), the positive implicit cues entailed in leader soft tactics would not be mirrored in subordinates' self-efficacy evaluation.

In the same way, leader trustworthiness also influences subordinates' interpretation on the negative social cues entailed in leader hard tactics. As noted earlier, when subordinates have trust in their leaders, they ascribe good intention to leaders' words and behaviors (Mayer et al., 1995). Thus, when leaders are trustworthy, subordinates are more likely to attribute leaders' use of hard tactics to the causes that help them maintain trustworthy image of their leaders. In particular, when subordinates have the confidence in leaders' trustworthiness in terms of benevolence and integrity, subordinates would not doubt that leaders' use of hard tactics is mainly from good purposes. For example, they may believe that leaders' use of hard tactics has been inevitable due to emergent situation or enacted for the purpose of training. Furthermore, leader trustworthiness in terms of ability may also justify leaders' use of hard tactics, as subordinates believe that they can learn from these leaders and rely on them in times of difficulties. In these cases, the negative implication cues delivered by leaders' use of hard tactics would be regarded as incredible by subordinates, and thus would not have significant impact on subordinates' sense of efficacy. In contrast, when subordinates have low confidence in leaders' trustworthiness, such favorable attribution on leaders' use of hard tactics is unlikely to occur (Mayer et al., 1995). In the absence of their assurance in leaders' benevolence and integrity, subordinates would not filter the

negative cues delivered by leaders' use of hard tactics but rather accept them as genuine message about how much they are valued by their leaders and reflect them on their efficacy judgment. Furthermore, subordinates are more likely to undervalue themselves when they are harshly treated and disrespected by untrustworthy leaders in terms of their ability. Thus, the negative social cues entailed in leader hard tactics would incur subordinates stronger damage in terms of their efficacy belief when leader trustworthiness is low. In sum, I propose the following hypotheses.

Hypothesis 5. Leader trustworthiness moderates the relationship between leader soft tactics and subordinates' self-efficacy, such that the positive relationship between leader soft tactics and subordinates' self-efficacy is stronger when Leaders' trustworthiness is high (vs. low).

Hypothesis 6. Leader trustworthiness moderates the relationship between leader hard tactics and subordinates' self-efficacy, such that the negative relationship between leader hard tactics and subordinates' self-efficacy is weaker when Leaders' trustworthiness is high (vs. low).

3.4. Moderating Role of Coworker Trustworthiness

Although I have postulated that subordinates' general self-efficacy is a strong predictor of their engagement in knowledge sharing, individuals may still be reluctant to actively engage in knowledge sharing unless they are confident about the benefit forthcoming from their knowledge sharing (Lin, 2007; Wang & Noe, 2010). Indeed, a rich body of the existing literature on knowledge sharing indicates that employees are afraid of being exploited to the point at which they lose their

competitiveness as the result of sharing their knowledge (Coakes, Coakes, & Rosenberg, 2008; Ipe, 2003). Furthermore, engaging in knowledge sharing is not costless but actually requires a considerable amount of employees' resources such as time, physical energy, and emotion (Hew & Hara, 2007; Kankanhalli et al., 2005). For this reason, employees would not choose to be actively involved in knowledge sharing even when they are confident about their task-related capability and knowledge, unless they are convinced that the expected benefit of knowledge sharing outweighs its expected cost. Stated alternatively, the positive impact of subordinates' general self-efficacy on their engagement in knowledge sharing would become weaker or less salient when subordinates' fear of being exploited is present. The existing literature on knowledge sharing suggests that such fear of exploitation is attenuated when subordinates trust their coworkers with whom they actually share their work-related knowledge. According to Mayer et al. (1995), trust is defined as one's willingness to be vulnerable to trustees' behavior based on the expectation that trustees will behave for the sake of trustors. Thus, the concept of trust inherently reflects trustors' willingness to take the risk for trustees (Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007). Therefore, employees who regard their coworkers as trustworthy would be more willing to take the risk associated with knowledge sharing for their coworkers. Indeed, a voluminous amount of existing literature on knowledge sharing indicates that interpersonal trust facilitates individuals' knowledge sharing (e.g. Chiu et al., 2006; Chowdhury, 2005; Mooradian et al., 2006; Tamjidyamcholo et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2007). Furthermore, coworkers'

trustworthiness is an essential condition to be satisfied for focal subordinates to develop social exchange relationship with members within the group, under which subordinates can expect future returns for their knowledge sharing for coworkers (Colquitt et al., 2007). According to social exchange theory (Blau, 1964), social exchange relationship entails vague future obligations that take place over unspecified long period of time (Deckop, Mangel, & Cirka, 1999), and thus inherently subsumes the risk to be unpaid (Blau, 1964; Colquitt et al., 2007). Trustworthy coworkers are presumed to hold favorable intention towards focal subordinates, to adhere to generally accepted ethical rules, and to have the ability to reciprocate the favor provided by focal subordinates (Mayer et al., 1995). Thus coworkers' trustworthiness provides subordinates the strong assurance for unspecified future payment, which is critical in sustaining social exchange relationship (Blau, 1964). Such assurance would become even stronger as the quality of social exchange relationship develops. When subordinates have social exchange relationship with their coworkers, they can freely share their knowledge and expertise within the group without the fear of being exploited or losing their competitiveness, because they can be confident about the continuance of the relationship with coworkers and coworkers' future reciprocal payment for their knowledge sharing (Blau, 1964). Once subordinates are released from such fear of exploitation, subordinates' confidence in their overall capability and task-related knowledge again plays a critical role in determining their willingness to engage in knowledge sharing. Thus, subordinates' perception on coworker trustworthiness,

would reinforce the positive impact of subordinates' general self-efficacy on their knowledge sharing by encouraging subordinates to form social exchange relationship with their coworkers. In sum, I propose

Hypothesis 7. Coworker trustworthiness moderates the relationship between subordinates' self-efficacy and subordinates' knowledge sharing, such that the positive relationship between subordinates' self-efficacy and subordinates' knowledge sharing is stronger when coworker trustworthiness is high (vs. low).

IV. METHOD

4.1. Sample and Procedure

I conducted the managerial survey in 42 companies located in South Korea. The largest proportion (63%) of the survey data was collected from conglomerate or large-sized companies, but a considerable amount of the survey data (27%) was also gathered from medium-sized companies. The industry sectors of the companies involved in the survey were relatively diverse (29% from information technology, 22% from manufacturing, 12% from service industry, 11% from construction, and 10% from finance). Separate survey questionnaires were prepared for supervisors and subordinates. The survey packet included the survey questionnaire and the envelope with the tape for sealing. To prevent the potential problem of unfaithful response, I offered the coffee gift card worth 5,000 won to all respondents, asking them to sincerely response to the survey in all possible cases. If it was impossible to directly reach the respondents, I asked the contact person to remind them to answer the survey questions with sincerity. All participants were assured that the survey data will be used only for the research purpose and there is no possibility that the contents of the survey will be exposed. In addition, all participants were urged to seal off the survey envelope as soon as they complete the questionnaire. The complete survey packets were returned to me through the contact people.

The survey questionnaires were distributed to 208 full-time employees

and their direct supervisors. Of these, 204 supervisor-subordinate dyad data were collected, giving the response rate of 98%. After removing the questionnaires with unfaithful responses or no response, 181 supervisor-subordinate dyads were used for the analysis. Of the subordinates, 112 (62%) were male. The mean of subordinate respondents' age was 34 years and their tenure was 5.7 years on average. The majority of them (80%) reported university as their final education. Of the supervisors, 150 (83%) were male. Their average age was 44 years and their tenure was 13.7 years on average. The majority of them reported university or graduate school as their final education (68% and 26% respectively).

4.2. Measure

I adopted the conventional back-translational approach (Brislin, 1970) to translate the English-written questionnaire into Korean. The subordinate respondents were asked to answer the questions on leader influence tactics, general self-efficacy, leader trustworthiness, and coworker trustworthiness. To minimize the risk of common method bias, the data on subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing were obtained from their direct supervisors. All items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Leader influence tactics. 16 items from Yukl et al.'s (2008) influence behavior questionnaire, which measure leaders' use of rational persuasion,

inspirational appeals, consultation, and ingratiation, were employed to measure leader soft tactics (4 items for each tactics). An illustrative item reads “My supervisor uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.” To measure leader hard tactics, 12 items of Yukl et al.’s (2008) influence behavior questionnaire for measuring legitimating, coalition, and pressure were used (4 items for each tactics). A sample question illustrates “My supervisor uses threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something.”

Subordinates’ general self-efficacy. Chen, Gully, and Eden’s (2001) 8 items were employed to measure subordinates’ general self-efficacy. A sample item reads “I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.”

Leader trustworthiness. Mayer and Davis’ (1999) 17 items were used to measure leader trustworthiness. Since this research does not examine the differential effect of leader trustworthiness depending on its dimensions, I took the average of these items as the value of leader trustworthiness. An illustrative item reads “My supervisor is very capable of performing his or her job.”

Coworker trustworthiness. To measure coworker trustworthiness, Mayer and Davis’ (1999) 17 items were used to measure coworker trustworthiness. The subject of items was changed from manager to coworker. Since the hypotheses of this research are not concerned about the differential impact of each dimension of coworker trustworthiness, the average of these items was taken as the value indicating coworker trustworthiness. A sample item illustrates “My supervisor is very concerned about my welfare.”

Knowledge sharing. To measure subordinates' knowledge sharing, 7 items developed by Srivastava et al. (2006) were used. To prevent the potential risk of common method bias, the response on these items were taken from the subordinates' direct supervisors. An illustrative item reads "This subordinate shares his or her special knowledge and expertise with others."

Control variables. Subordinate participants' age, gender, and tenure were controlled as they are likely to influence how subordinates view and interpret leader influence tactics. These variables were also controlled in previous research on leader influence tactics (c.f. Furst & Cable, 2008).

4.3. Analytical Procedures

In order to examine the main effect of leader influence tactics and the mediating process through subordinates' general self-efficacy, I conducted hierarchical regression analysis on subordinates' knowledge sharing. To prevent the potential spurious effect, control variables were entered in step 1. In step 2, leader influence tactics (both soft and hard), the predictor variables, were entered into the regression. In step 3, subordinates' general self-efficacy, the mediating variables, was included. To enhance the robustness of the test result, Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes' (2007) bootstrap test for mediation was also performed.

To test the moderating effect of leader trustworthiness, I carried out a separate hierarchical regression analysis. In the regression analysis testing the

moderation by leader trustworthiness, control variables (i.e., age, gender, tenure) and the predictor variables (i.e., leader soft tactics and leader hard tactics) were entered in step 1 and step 2 respectively. In step 3, leader trustworthiness, the moderating variable, was entered. In step 4, the two interaction terms (leader soft tactics \times leader trustworthiness, leader hard tactics \times leader trustworthiness) were finally included in the regression.

Finally, to examine the moderating effect of coworker trustworthiness, another set of hierarchical regression was conducted. In step 1, control variables and predictor variables, leader trustworthiness, and two interaction terms of leader trustworthiness were entered into the regression. In step 2, subordinates' general self-efficacy was included. In step 3, coworker trustworthiness, the focal moderator, was included. In step 4, the interaction term of coworker trustworthiness (Subordinates' General Self-efficacy \times Coworker Trustworthiness) was entered.

V. RESULTS

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics including the means, standard deviations, intercorrelations, and reliabilities (Cronbach's Alpha) of the variables in the research model. To prevent the potential problem of the multicollinearity, I standardized focal variables (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2013). Table 2 and Table 3 show the result of the hierarchical regression analyses.

Hypothesis 1 postulated that leader soft tactics would be positively related to subordinates' knowledge sharing. The result from the hierarchical regression analyses depicted in Table 2 indicates that leader soft tactics are positively related to subordinates' knowledge sharing ($\beta = .23, p < .01$). Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that leader hard tactics would be negatively related to subordinates' knowledge sharing. Contrary to such expectation, as shown in table 2, it was found that leader hard tactics did not have significant influence on subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing ($\beta = -.05, ns$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 did not gain the support.

Hypothesis 3 states that the effect of leader soft tactics on subordinates' knowledge sharing is mediated by subordinates' general self-efficacy. In regard to the mediation examination, Baron and Kenny (1986) argued that four conditions must be fulfilled. First, the independent variable must have significant direct effect on the dependent variable. Second, the independent variable must be significantly

related to the mediating variable. Third, the mediating variable must have the significant influence on the dependent variable. Finally, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must disappear when the effect of mediating variable is taken into account. As noted earlier, leader soft tactics were found to have significant positive effect on subordinates' knowledge sharing ($\beta = .23, p < .01$). Thus, Baron and Kenny's (1986) first condition was met. As illustrated in Table 2, leader soft tactics were found to have significant positive effect on subordinates' general self-efficacy ($\beta = .38, p < .001$), thus, satisfying the second condition. Consistent with the findings of previous research, I found that subordinates' self-efficacy was positively related to subordinates' knowledge sharing ($\beta = .23, p < .01$), fulfilling the third condition. Furthermore, when self-efficacy was included in the regression model of subordinates' knowledge sharing, the effect of leader soft tactics on the dependent variable became insignificant ($\beta = .15, ns$). Thus, all conditions for proving the mediation effect suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986) were satisfied, supporting Hypothesis 3. To strengthen the robustness of this finding, I also conducted the bootstrap mediation test procedure developed by Preacher et al. (2007). The bootstrap test result also indicated that the indirect effect through subordinates' general self-efficacy is statistically significant. Thus, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Hypothesis 4 suggested that the negative effect of leader hard tactics on subordinates' knowledge sharing would be mediated by subordinates' general self-efficacy. As noted earlier, leader hard tactics did not have significant influence on

subordinates' knowledge sharing ($\beta = -.05$, ns). Furthermore, the result of regression analyses illustrated that leader hard tactics were not significantly related to subordinates' general self-efficacy, either ($\beta = .08$, ns). Thus, in regard to leader hard tactics, Baron and Kenny's (1986) first and second conditions were not satisfied. Furthermore, the bootstrap mediation test result also indicated that the indirect effect of leader hard tactics on subordinates' knowledge sharing was nonsignificant. Thus, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

Hypothesis 5 purported that the effect of leader soft tactics on subordinates' general self-efficacy would be stronger when subordinates perceive higher leader trustworthiness. Consistent with this hypothesis, the result of the regression analyses, illustrated in Table 3, showed the significant interaction term of leader trustworthiness (leader soft tactics \times leader trustworthiness) ($\beta = .15$, $p < .05$). To further investigate the direction of this moderation, I plotted the interaction graph by using ± 1 standard deviation (Aiken & West, 1991). Consistent with Hypothesis 5, the interaction graph (Figure 2) indicated that leader soft tactics had stronger positive influence on subordinates' general self-efficacy when subordinates perceived high leader trustworthiness. Furthermore, the result of the simple slope test indicated that the positive effect of leader soft tactics on subordinates' general self-efficacy was only significant when leader trustworthiness was perceived to be high ($\beta = .45$, $p < .01$). When subordinates perceived leaders as untrustworthy, leader soft tactics did not have significant influence on subordinates' general self-efficacy ($\beta = .21$, $p < .ns$). Thus, Hypothesis

5 obtained the support.

Hypothesis 6 stated that the negative effect of leader hard tactics would be lessened when subordinates perceive leaders as trustworthy. Contrary to this suggestion, the regression analyses result submitted that the proposed interaction (leader hard tactics \times leader trustworthiness) was not significant ($\beta = .06, p < .ns$). Thus, Hypothesis 6 failed to be supported.

Finally, Hypothesis 7 proposed that the positive effect of subordinates' general self-efficacy would be stronger when coworker trustworthiness is high. Supporting this proposition, the moderation test result from the regression analyses indicated that the focal interaction term (Subordinates' General Self-efficacy \times Coworker Trustworthiness) was statistically significant ($\beta = .17, p < .05$). To assimilate the nature of this moderation, I also plotted the interaction graph and performed the simple slope test (Aiken & West, 1991). In line with my expectation, as illustrated in Figure 3, subordinates' general self-efficacy had the significant positive effect when coworker trustworthiness was high ($\beta = .32, p < .01$), but such positive influence became nonsignificant when coworker trustworthiness was low ($\beta = .07, ns$). Thus, Hypothesis 7 was supported.

Post hoc analysis. Based on the argument of Van Knippenberg and Steensma (2003) and the use of meta-categories of previous studies on influence tactics, I did not propose the hypotheses in regard to the differential impact of each type of leader influence tactic. However, as argued by Yukl et al. (2008), each influence tactic may work through a unique psychological mechanism to influence

subordinates' perception, attitude, and behavior. Although the social cues entailed in leader influence tactics of the same meta-category in regard to subordinates' general self-efficacy are likely to be the same or at least similar, the extent to which each of them influence subordinates' sense of general efficacy may well vary. To test this theoretical possibility, I performed the additional regression analyses of subordinates' knowledge sharing and subordinates' self-efficacy on each type of leader influence tactics. The result of the analyses indicated that all leader soft tactics but inspirational appeals had significant positive impact on subordinates' knowledge sharing. In the case of subordinates' self-efficacy, all leader soft tactics were found to exert positive influence. Amongst leader soft tactics, consultation had the strongest effect on subordinates' knowledge sharing ($\beta = .25, p < .01$). The result further indicated that each type of hard tactics was also related to neither subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing nor subordinates' general self-efficacy. I also performed the separate regression analyses to examine whether each type of leader influence tactics has differential mediating and moderating role. In general, the result suggested that each type of leader influence tactics had the same or similar mediating and moderating effect on subordinates' general self-efficacy and subordinates' knowledge sharing.

I also performed the regression analyses to examine the possibility that each trustworthiness dimension has differential moderating effect on subordinates' general self-efficacy and subordinates' knowledge sharing. Such examination can be valuable because each trust dimension elicits trust of different natures (Mayer et

al., 1995). The result of the analyses indicated that leader ability and benevolence had the similar moderating influence with leader trustworthiness, whereas leader integrity did not have significant moderating effect on the relationship between leader influence tactics and subordinates' general self-efficacy. It further illustrated that coworker ability and benevolence exerted the similar type of moderating influence on the relationship between subordinates' general self-efficacy and knowledge sharing. Integrity dimension was found to have nonsignificant moderating effect in the coworkers' case, too. Thus, amongst dimensions of trustworthiness, only ability and benevolence dimensions were found to be significant moderators.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations among Study Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D.</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Age ^a	33.85	6.79									
2. Gender ^a	1.38	.49	-.33 ^{***}								
3. Tenure ^a	5.97	4.90	.75 ^{***}	-.17 [*]							
4. Soft tactics ^a	5.05	.91	.25 ^{**}	-.06	.23 ^{**}	(.93)					
5. Hard tactics ^a	3.87	.85	.10	-.17 [*]	.09	.18 [*]	(.84)				
6. General self-efficacy ^a	5.29	.81	.19 ^{**}	-.13	.24 ^{**}	.42 ^{**}	.17 [*]	(.92)			
7. Leader Trustworthiness ^a	5.17	.96	.15 [*]	.02	.15 [*]	.74 ^{***}	-.02	.34 ^{***}	(.96)		
8. Coworker Trustworthiness ^a	5.18	.86	.06	-.02	.10	.35 ^{***}	.07	.28 ^{***}	.51 ^{***}	(.96)	
9. Knowledge Sharing ^b	5.46	.82	.10	.02	.05	.23 ^{**}	-.01	.27 ^{***}	.21 ^{**}	.06	(.90)

Note. *N* = 181. Reliabilities are on the diagonal in parentheses. ^aThese variables were measured from focal employees. ^bSupervisor rating. * *p* < .05; ** *p* < .01; *** *p* < .001 (two-tailed)

Table 2. Hierarchical Regression Results for Simple Mediation ^a

	General Self-efficacy		Knowledge Sharing		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
<u>Step 1. Control variables</u>					
Age	-.02	-.09	.16	.12	.14
Gender	-.10	-.09	.06	.05	.07
Tenure	.24 [*]	.20 [*]	-.06	-.08	-.13
<u>Step 2. Main effect</u>					
Soft Tactics ^b		.38 ^{***}		.23 ^{**}	.15
Hard Tactics ^b		.08		-.05	-.07
<u>Step 3. Main effect</u>					
General self-efficacy ^b					.23 ^{**}
Overall F	4.22 ^{**}	9.68 ^{***}	.81	2.39 [*]	3.38 ^{**}
R ²	.07	.22	.01	.06	.10
ΔF		16.74 ^{***}		4.71 [*]	7.85 ^{**}
ΔR ²		.15		.05	.04
<i>Bootstrap results for indirect effect</i>					
	Effect	SE	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI	
Soft Tactics	.07	.04	.02	.14	
Hard Tactics	.02	.02	.00	.06	

Note. N = 181. ^a Entries are standardized regression coefficients. ^b Variables are standardized variables.
^{*} p < .05; ^{**} p < .01; ^{***} p < .001 (two-tailed); Bootstrap sample size = 10,000. LL = lower limit; CI = confidence interval; UL = upper limit.

Table 3. Hierarchical Regression Results for Moderation ^a

	General Self-efficacy				Knowledge Sharing		
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3
<u>Step 1. Control variables</u>							
Age	-.02	-.09	-.09	-.09	.14	.13	.11
Gender	-.10	-.09	-.10	-.11	.07	.06	.07
Tenure	.24*	.20	.20	.17	-.12	-.12	-.11
<u>Step 2. Main effect</u>							
Soft Tactics ^b		.38***	.29**	.33**	.11	.10	.11
Hard Tactics ^b		.08	.10	.10	-.06	-.05	-.06
<u>Step 3. Main effect</u>							
Leader Trustworthiness ^b			.12	.12	.05	.10	.06
<u>Step 4. Moderating effect</u>							
Soft Tactics * LTW ^c				.15*	.00	.02	-.02
Hard Tactics * LTW ^c				.06	-.02	-.04	-.04
<u>Step 5. Main effect</u>							
General self-efficacy ^b					.23**	.24**	.25**
<u>Step 6. Main effect</u>							
Coworker Trustworthiness ^b						-.09	-.10
<u>Step 7. Moderating effect</u>							
General Self-efficacy * CTW ^d							.17*
Overall F	4.22**	9.68***	8.30***	7.19***	2.24*	2.12*	2.40**
R ²	.07	.22	.22	.25	.11	.11	.14
ΔF		16.74***	1.33	3.21*		.99	4.74*
ΔR ²		.15	.01	.03		.01	.02

Note. N = 181. ^a Entries are standardized regression coefficients. ^b Variables are standardized variables.

^c LTW = Leader Trustworthiness. ^d CTW = Coworker Trustworthiness. * p < .05; ** p < .01; *** p < .001 (two-tailed)

Figure 2. Interaction of Leader Soft Tactics and Leader Trustworthiness on Subordinates' General Self-efficacy

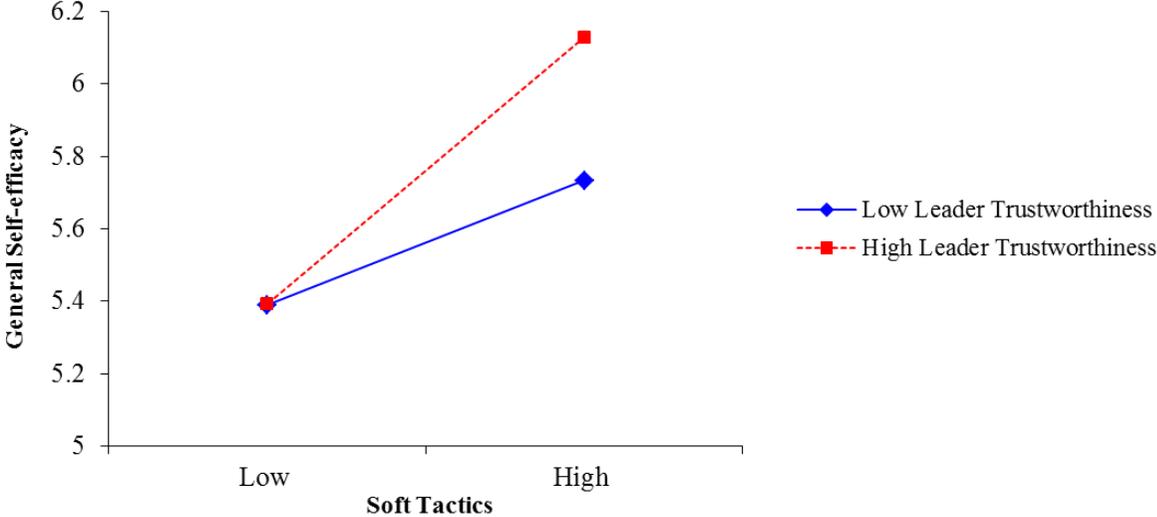
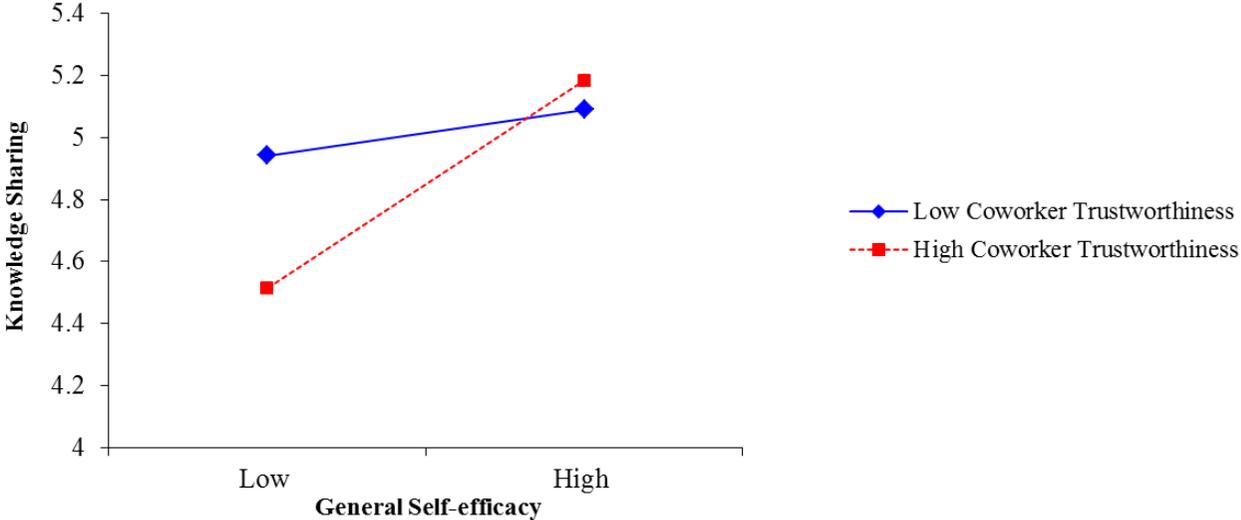


Figure 3. Interaction of Subordinates' General Self-efficacy and Coworker Trustworthiness on Subordinates' Knowledge Sharing



VI. DISCUSSIONS

The purpose of this research is to investigate the relationship between leader influence tactics and subordinates' knowledge sharing. Although it has been recently known that leaders play a critical role in shaping subordinates' motivation for knowledge sharing (e.g. Srivastava et al., 2006; Xue et al., 2011), surprisingly, sparse attention has been given to the potential effect of leader influence tactics on subordinates' engaging in knowledge sharing. Thus, this research fills the gap in the existing literature on influence tactics and knowledge sharing by testing an integrated research model that explains both the process through which leader influence tactics affect subordinates' knowledge sharing (i.e., subordinates' general self-efficacy) and the contexts that influence such process (i.e., leader trustworthiness, coworker trustworthiness). The result generally supported the hypothesized relationships on leader soft tactics. Surprisingly, no hypothesis on leader hard tactics was supported. Such result suggests that there are still much to research about the nature of hard tactics, and how they are perceived by subordinates.

Based on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986; Wood & Bandura, 1989), I argued that leaders' use of soft tactics would positively influence subordinates' knowledge sharing because the social cues entailed in soft tactics assure subordinates that their knowledge sharing would be fairly recognized by their leaders (Sparrowe et al., 2006; Tepper et al., 1998). Similarly, I argued that

leaders' use of hard tactics would discourage subordinates' knowledge sharing as it communicates subordinates that leaders do not expect subordinates' voluntary contribution and have the belief that employees need to be controlled (Tepper et al., 1998; Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). In line with this expectation, the findings from this research indicated that leaders' use of soft tactics was positively related to subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing. Consistent with social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986; Wood & Bandura, 1989), this result implies that leaders' use of soft tactics indeed bring forth the salient social signals reassuring subordinates about the instrumentality of engaging in knowledge sharing. Meanwhile, self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1982; Gist, 1987) indicates that the effect of leader influence tactics on subordinates' knowledge sharing would be manifested through the change in subordinates' general self-efficacy. Indeed, I found that subordinates' general self-efficacy fully mediated the relationship between leader soft tactics and subordinates' knowledge sharing, although such mediating effect was not found with respect to leader hard tactics.

In regard to leader hard tactics, as stated earlier, none of the hypotheses was supported. Contrary to the common intuition that leader hard tactics would lead to the negative consequences in terms of subordinates attitude and behavior (Tepper et al., 1998; Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003), the result suggested that leader hard tactics neither had significant influence on subordinates' general self-efficacy nor subordinates' knowledge sharing. Such result was very surprising, considering the negative connotation normally conferred to hard tactics in the

existing literature (e.g. Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Tepper et al., 1998; Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). One factor that may explain this unexpected result would be culture. Previous research demonstrated that employees' reaction to leaders' use of hard tactics differs depending on the culture to which they belong. For example, Schermerhorn and Bond (1991) reported that Hong Kong Chinese showed greater preference for assertive tactics (i.e., hard tactics) than American. They tried to explain this result by referring to the difference in power distance in two countries. That is, the higher power distance, the more likely that leaders' use of hard tactics gains the acceptance with relatively little psychological cost. In addition, Fu and Yukl (2000) also found that the US managers considered rational persuasion and exchange to be more effective influence tactics, while Chinese managers deemed coalition and upward appeals, the tactics often categorized as hard tactics, to be more effective. The sample for this research has been taken from the companies in South Korea, which also have relatively high power distance culture. Therefore it is entirely possible that the finding from this research on leader hard tactics is largely influenced by South Korean's cultural orientation of high power distance. Thus, future research may investigate how employees of different cultures perceive leaders' use of hard tactics and whether their perception significantly differs from that of each other.

Alternatively, it is also possible that individual differences account for the unexpected result on leader hard tactics. The common denominator of hard tactics is that they do not allow subordinate any latitude but require them to comply with

leaders' request (Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). Therefore, leaders' use of hard tactics implies that leaders want to direct their employees in specific ways, frequently monitor their performance, and control their behaviors if necessary (Van Knippenberg & Steensma, 2003). According to self-determination theory (Edward & Ryan, 1985), such leaders' behavior can demotivate employees by threatening their autonomy. However, not all employees may enjoy autonomy. In other words, individuals may differ in the degree to which they seek autonomy in the workplace (Humborstad, Nerstad, & Dysvik, 2014). For example, individuals with mastery goal orientation, which is typically related with self-determined types of motivation (Ntoumanis, 2001), may consider leader hard tactics to be manipulative and thus show hostile reactions in response to leaders' use of them, while those with performance goal orientation, which is normally linked with more controlling types of motivation, may regard leader influence tactics as leaders' prototypical influence attempts and comply to the request without resisting. I believe that such theoretical possibility is worthy of receiving the attention of future research.

I also examined the theoretical possibility that the process through which leader influence tactics affect subordinates' knowledge sharing is influenced by the contexts surrounding leaders and subordinates. More specifically, based on theories of trust (Mayer et al., 1995) and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1997; Gist & Mitchell, 1992), I purported that leader trustworthiness would enhance the positive social cues of leader soft tactics, whereas it would attenuate the negative implication of leader hard tactics as it encourages subordinates to attribute good

will to leaders' use of influence tactics. The research result indeed demonstrated that leader soft tactics were more effective when subordinates considered their leader trustworthy. Thus, consistent with self-efficacy theory, the credibility of the source of the social cues in leader influence tactics plays a critical role in determining the effectiveness of leader soft tactics (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Contrary to the proposed hypothesis, the result did not support the interaction of leader hard tactics and leader trustworthiness on subordinates' general self-efficacy. Such result conflicts with the findings of existing research pointing out subordinates' trust in leaders as the likely avenue for the potential moderation. For example, Furst and Cable (2008) found that leaders' use of hard tactics such as sanctions and legitimating did not have significant influence on employees' resistance to change when employees hold high quality relationship with their leaders based on mutual trust and respect. Such conflicting result suggests that leader hard tactics are not perceived as hostile and antagonistic tactics as I have expected. As noted earlier, depending on culture and individual characteristics such as goal orientation, leader hard tactics may or may not be interpreted favorably.

Finally, the test on the interaction of subordinates' general self-efficacy and coworker trustworthiness on subordinates' knowledge sharing obtained the strong support. As I expected, the positive effect of general self-efficacy was only valid when coworker trustworthiness was high. Such result was also consistent with previous research on knowledge sharing, which suggested individuals' self-efficacy and interpersonal trust as the main individual motivating factors for

knowledge sharing (Chiu et al., 2006; Lo et al., 2009). In regard to this interaction, relevant to note is the fact that amongst subordinates with low general self-efficacy, counterintuitively, the reported value of knowledge sharing was higher when coworker trustworthiness was low. Such pattern may be explained by the fact that employees are often required to share their knowledge when their coworkers are not trustworthy in terms of their ability. For example, when new employees become the new member of teams, existing employees may well be forced to share their knowledge and expertise to teach or train their inexperienced coworkers regardless of their willingness or motivation. This teaching behavior, or knowledge transferring behavior could then be well-observed by their leaders, who, in turn, would rate the levels of their engagement in knowledge sharing as high. The findings from post hoc analysis seem to support this possibility. The findings from post hoc analysis indicated that subordinates who perceived low coworker ability actually showed higher levels of engagement in knowledge sharing than those who perceived high coworker ability, given subordinates' low levels of general self-efficacy. Yet, the similar pattern of interaction was also found in the case of leader benevolence. Such result was contradictory to the prediction of theories of trust (Mayer et al., 1995). According to theories of trust (Mayer et al., 1995), individuals should be more strongly motivated to share their knowledge with the people in whom they have trust. However, the findings from post hoc analysis suggested that subordinates actually share their knowledge more when they perceive low coworker benevolence, given subordinates' low general self-efficacy. One possible

explanation for such result is that subordinates may use knowledge sharing as the means of improving or developing their interpersonal relationship with their coworkers. To obtain the power and influence over the group, it is necessary to have good relationships with most, if not all, members of the group. Thus, subordinates who desire to be influential may well share their valuable information with their peers who are not currently benevolent towards them to get their favor. However, this explanation is only speculative and thus needs to be examined by future research in detail.

6.1. Theoretical Implication

The findings of this research provide the following theoretical contributions. First, this research provides the theoretical base on which the unexplored relationship between leader influence tactics and subordinates' knowledge sharing can be explained. Based on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986), I suggested that leader influence tactics affect subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing. The result of the hypothesis test was supportive for leader soft tactics. As mentioned earlier, in my best knowledge, there has been no research that has examined this relationship. Investigating this relationship contributes to the existing literature of leader influence tactics as it uncovers employees' corresponding behavioral reactions caused by leaders' use of different types of influence tactics. Furthermore, this research also contributes to the literature of

knowledge sharing by suggesting leader influence tactics as a new antecedent of employees' engagement in knowledge sharing.

Second, this research offers the theoretical insight with which we can understand the process through leader influence tactics affect subordinates' discretionary behavior. I found that the effect of leader soft tactics on subordinates' knowledge sharing was fully mediated by subordinates' general self-efficacy. Researchers have consistently called for the research investigating such motivational mechanism that links leader influence tactics and subordinates' corresponding behavior (e.g. Yukl et al., 2008). Although it is very important to investigate such process to deeply understand the effect of leader influence tactics, empirical studies addressed such issues were relatively sparse. Thus, this research fills the gap in the literature of influence tactics by revealing a motivational process connecting leader influence tactics and subordinates' knowledge sharing. Future research may extend our research by examining other psychological mediating mechanisms.

Finally, this research makes further contribution to the existing literature on influence tactics by shedding the light on the role of the contextual factors on the effect of leader influence tactics. Specifically, I found that the effect of leader influence tactics on subordinates' self-efficacy depends on leader trustworthiness. Furthermore, I also found that coworker trustworthiness plays a critical moderating role for the relationship between subordinates' enhanced self-efficacy and subordinates' knowledge sharing. Since the contexts take a vital role in

determining the effectiveness of leader behaviors, leadership researchers have been consistently requested to address the context issues in the research on leadership (Porter & McLaughlin, 2006). However, with respect to influence tactics, few studies have examined such issue (Higgins et al., 2003). Thus, this research fills another gap in the influence tactics literature.

6.2. Practical Implication

One obvious practical implication that we can learn from this research is that subordinates positively respond to the social cues conveyed by leaders' use of soft tactics. The findings from this research suggest that leaders' use of soft tactics heightens subordinates' general self-efficacy, and encourage them to more actively engage in knowledge sharing. Thus, leaders or supervisors are recommended to use soft tactics in their influence attempts if they are aiming to foster knowledge sharing in the team or the organization. Previous literature indicates that leaders' use of soft tactics generally incurs the positive organizational consequences in terms of employees' perception, attitudes, and behavior. For example, leaders' use of soft tactics was found to affect subordinates' commitment (Falbe & Yukl, 1992), perception on interpersonal justice (Tepper et al., 1998), LMX (Moideenkutty & Schmidt, 2011), and extra-role behaviors such as helping and OCBs (Clarke & Ward, 2006; Moideenkutty & Schmidt, 2011; Sparrowe et al., 2006). Furthermore, employees' general self-efficacy is often associated with their desirable work

attitude, which is applied not only to knowledge sharing but also to all work-related behaviors (Bandura, 1986; Parker et al., 2006; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998a; Tierney & Farmer, 2002). Thus, leaders' use of soft tactics has a potential to incur the improvement of the overall competitiveness of the organization in the long run.

However, leaders must remember that they have to be perceived as trustworthy and genuine in implementing soft tactics. For example, if leaders use soft tactics yet do not show corresponding respect and recognition in the workplace, subordinates are likely to notice that the positive social cue entailed in leader soft tactics are not genuine. They may even interpret leaders' use of soft tactics as another form of manipulation and control (i.e., soft manipulation). Indeed, the findings of this research indicated that the positive effect of leader influence tactics on self-efficacy disappeared (i.e., became nonsignificant) when subordinates perceived their leaders as untrustworthy. Thus, leaders are required to be authentic in using influence tactics. In addition, the research finding illustrated that both trust in leaders and coworkers were critical in ensuring the positive impact of leader soft tactics on subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing. Thus, leaders are also recommended to build trust-based relationship with each subordinate and construct the environment in which trust among coworkers can be formed. Although it would be impossible for leaders to form the high quality relationship with all employees due to limited resources, leaders can at least invite and offer every subordinate to develop the relationship based on mutual respect and trust (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). In addition, leaders may also be encouraged to communicate with each

subordinate that members of the group are not supposed to compete with each other but rather willingly cooperate as the partners to achieve the group objective. Perhaps, the change in reward/performance evaluation system that stimulates the cooperation among coworkers may also prove to be helpful.

6.3. Limitation and Direction for Future Research

This research has some limitations and therefore its findings require caution in interpretation. First, the inference for the causal relationship cannot be made in regard to the focal variables because this research has the cross-sectional design. Although the arguments proposed in this research are theory-driven, it is also conceivable that leaders choose the types of influence tactics they use on the basis of their awareness on the degree to which subordinates are involved in extra-role behaviors such as knowledge sharing (Sparrowe et al., 2006). Thus, I encourage future research to take a longitudinal design to rigorously examine the effect of leader influence tactics on subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing.

Second, although I tried to address common method bias by collecting the data from two different sources, I could not completely eliminate the concern for such bias. Collecting the data on subordinates' knowledge sharing from their direct supervisors obviously decreases the risk that the research finding is caused by the same-source bias. Furthermore, significant interaction effects that were found in

this research are unlikely to be the result of common method bias (Evans, 1985). However, future research should take a more careful consideration on such concern and seek to improve the research design by further differentiating the data sources and the timing for gathering the survey data of the focal variables (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003).

Third, the correlation between leader soft tactics and leader trustworthiness was relatively high ($r = .74$, $p < .001$). Thus, one can infer that the significant interaction between leader soft tactics and leader trustworthiness was not due to the actual interactive relationship between two variables but due to relatively high bi-serial correlation. Although such possibility of spurious interaction cannot be removed completely, leader soft tactics and leader trustworthiness are conceptually distinct. Leader soft tactics refer to specific leaders' influence behaviors and thus, by definition, do not include any component related with the construct of trust. Thus, theoretically, it is entirely possible that untrustworthy leaders use soft tactics in their influence attempts. However, future research may investigate this issue more deeply and try to find other variables influencing subordinates' interpretation on the social cues brought by leader influence tactics.

Finally, since we conducted this research by using the data from the sample from South Korean companies, the generalizability of the findings of this research is limited. As noted earlier, previous research suggests that subordinates from different cultural backgrounds may perceive and interpret leader influence

behaviors in different ways (Yukl, Ping Fu, & McDonald, 2003). Thus, I encourage future researchers to take a consideration on how different cultures influence the relationship between leader influence tactics and subordinates' engagement in knowledge sharing.

Despite these limitations, the findings of this research further extend the understanding on the motivational process through which leader influence tactics affect subordinates' engagement in extra-role behavior (i.e., knowledge sharing). It further shed the light on how the contextual variables (i.e., leader trustworthiness and coworker trustworthiness) influence such process. More researches on this area are justified as there can be other psychological mediating mechanisms through which leader influence tactics affect subordinates' knowledge sharing and the contextual factors influencing such mediating process (Yukl et al., 2008).

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APPENDIX

<Employee-rated Items>

Leader Influence Tactics (see Yukl et al., 2008)

● Rational Persuasion

1. My supervisor uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for a request or proposal.
2. My supervisor explains clearly why a request or proposed change is necessary to attain a task objective.
3. My supervisor explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective
4. My supervisor provides information or evidence to show that a proposed activity or change is likely to be successful.

● Inspirational Appeals

1. My supervisor says a proposed activity or change is an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.
2. My supervisor describes a clear, inspiring vision of what a proposed project or change could accomplish.
3. My supervisor talks about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change.
4. My supervisor makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for a proposed activity or change.

● Consultation

1. My supervisor asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem.
2. My supervisor consults with you to get your ideas about a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or implement.
3. My supervisor encourages you to express any concerns you may have about a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or implement.
4. My supervisor invites you to suggest ways to improve a preliminary plan or proposal that he/she wants you to support or help implement.

- **Ingratiation**

1. My supervisor says you have the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out a request.
2. My supervisor praises your past performance or achievements when asking you to do a task for him/her.
3. My supervisor praises your skill or knowledge when asking you to do something.
4. My supervisor says you are the most qualified person for a task that he/she wants you to do.

- **Legitimizing**

1. My supervisor says that his/her request or proposal is consistent with official rules and policies.
2. My supervisor says that a request or proposal is consistent with a prior agreement or contract.
3. My supervisor verifies that a request is legitimate by referring to a document such as a work order, policy manual, charter, bylaws, or formal contract.
4. My supervisor says that a request or proposal is consistent with prior precedent and established practice.

- **Pressure**

1. My supervisor demands that you carry out a request.
2. My supervisor uses threats or warnings when trying to get you to do something.
3. My supervisor repeatedly checks to see if you have carried out a request.
4. My supervisor tries to pressure you to carry out a request.

- **Coalition**

1. My supervisor mentions the names of other people who endorse a proposal when asking you to support it.
2. My supervisor gets others to explain to you when they support a proposed activity or change that he/she wants you to support or help implement.
3. My supervisor brings some along for support when meeting with you to make a request or proposal.

4. My supervisor asks someone you respect to help influence you to carry out a request or support a proposal.

General Self-efficacy (see Chen et al., 2001)

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.
4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind.
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.
6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.
7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.

Trustworthiness (see Mayer & Davis, 1999)

: For Coworker Trustworthiness, we exchanged the term “My supervisor” into “My coworkers”.

● Ability

1. My supervisor is very capable of performing his or her job.
2. My supervisor is known to be successful at the things he or she tries to do.
3. My supervisor has much knowledge about the work that needs done.
4. I feel very confident about my supervisor’s skills.
5. My supervisor has specialized capabilities that can increase my performance.
6. My supervisor is well qualified.

● Benevolence

1. My supervisor is very concerned about my welfare.
2. My needs and desires are very important to my supervisor.
3. My supervisor would not knowingly do anything to hurt me.
4. My supervisor really looks out for what is important to me.

5. My supervisor will go out of his or her way to help me.

● Integrity

1. My supervisor has a strong sense of justice.
2. I never have to wonder whether my supervisor will stick to his or her word.
3. My supervisor tries hard to be fair in dealings with others.
4. My supervisor's actions and behaviors are not very consistent (R)
5. I like my supervisor's values.
6. Sound principles seem to guide my supervisor's behavior.

<Supervisor-rated Items>

Knowledge Sharing (see Srivastava et al., 2006)

1. This subordinate shares his or her special knowledge and expertise with others
2. If this subordinate has some special knowledge about how to perform the task, he or she is likely to tell others about it.
3. This subordinate exchanges information, knowledge, and sharing of skills with his or her coworkers.
4. This subordinate freely provides other members with hard-to-find knowledge or specialized skills.
5. This subordinate helps others in developing relevant strategies.
6. This subordinate shares lots of information with others.
7. This subordinate offers lots of suggestions to others.

국문초록

리더의 영향력 전술이 부하직원의 지식공유에 미치는 영향에 대한 연구

서울대학교 경영대학원
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선의영

본 연구는 리더의 특정한 형태의 영향력 전술의 사용이 부하직원의 지식공유에 어떠한 영향을 미치는 지에 대해 검증한다. 사회인지이론에 기초하여 본 연구는 리더의 영향력 전술이 부하직원들의 지식공유활동에 영향을 미칠 수 있으며, 부하직원들의 일반적 자기효능감이 리더의 영향력 전술과 부하직원의 지식공유활동을 이어주는 핵심적인 동기적인 과정임을 제시한다. 이에 더해 본 연구는

상황적인 관점을 취하여, 이를 기반으로 제시한 주요 관계가 부하직원의 리더 및 동료직원들의 신뢰성에 대한 인식에 영향을 받는지 여부를 검토한다. 보다 구체적으로, 본 연구는 신뢰이론에 근거하여 리더의 신뢰성이 리더의 영향력 전술과 부하직원들의 일반적 자기효능감의 관계를 조절할 것으로 제시하며, 신뢰이론 및 사회교환이론에 근거하여 동료직원들의 신뢰성이 부하직원들의 일반적 자기효능감이 그들의 지식공유에 미치는 영향을 미치는 정도를 조절한다고 제시한다.

분석결과 리더의 연성적 전술과 관련된 가설들은 전반적으로 지지됨을 알 수 있었다. 리더의 연성적 전술은 부하직원의 일반적 자기효능감을 향상시킴으로써 부하직원의 지식공유활동을 증대시키는 것으로 나타났으며, 가설대로 리더의 신뢰성은 리더의 영향력 전술과 부하직원들의 일반적 자기효능감과의 관계를, 동료직원들의 신뢰성은 부하직원들의 일반적 자기효능감과 그들의 지식공유활동의 관계를 각각 조절하였다. 본 연구는 가설검증결과와 관련하여 이론적 시사점 및 실무적 시사점을 제시한다.

Key words: 영향력 전술, 자기효능감, 신뢰성, 지식공유

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