CHAPTER 3

HYPOTHESISED RELATIONSHIPS

This chapter offers a discussion on the hypothesised relationships among variables as depicted in Figure 3.1. The hypotheses serve to guide the analysis by converting the research questions into a series of assertions that can be addressed by empirical testing. There are eighteen hypotheses to be tested in this study, each one predicting the relationship(s) between two or more variables. While some assertions are based on preconceptions, most of the hypotheses are appropriately founded on the inventory of propositions of prior research or existing theories.

The bases for the hypothesised relationships are discussed in accordance with the existing literature that demonstrates the convergence or divergence of opinion in the area, as well providing tentative explanations of the observed behaviour. The discussions are deliberately specific to the hypothesis to be addressed. Thus, the chapter is arranged in line with the sets of variables that are commonly related either in causal terms or from theoretical perspectives. Collectively, these hypotheses will address the relationship links between variables in the model depicted in Figure 3.1. For the sake of brevity, only hypotheses that appear to be the most relevant to the theoretical perspectives are specified rather than attempting to develop some rationales for all possible paths between all constructs or variables.
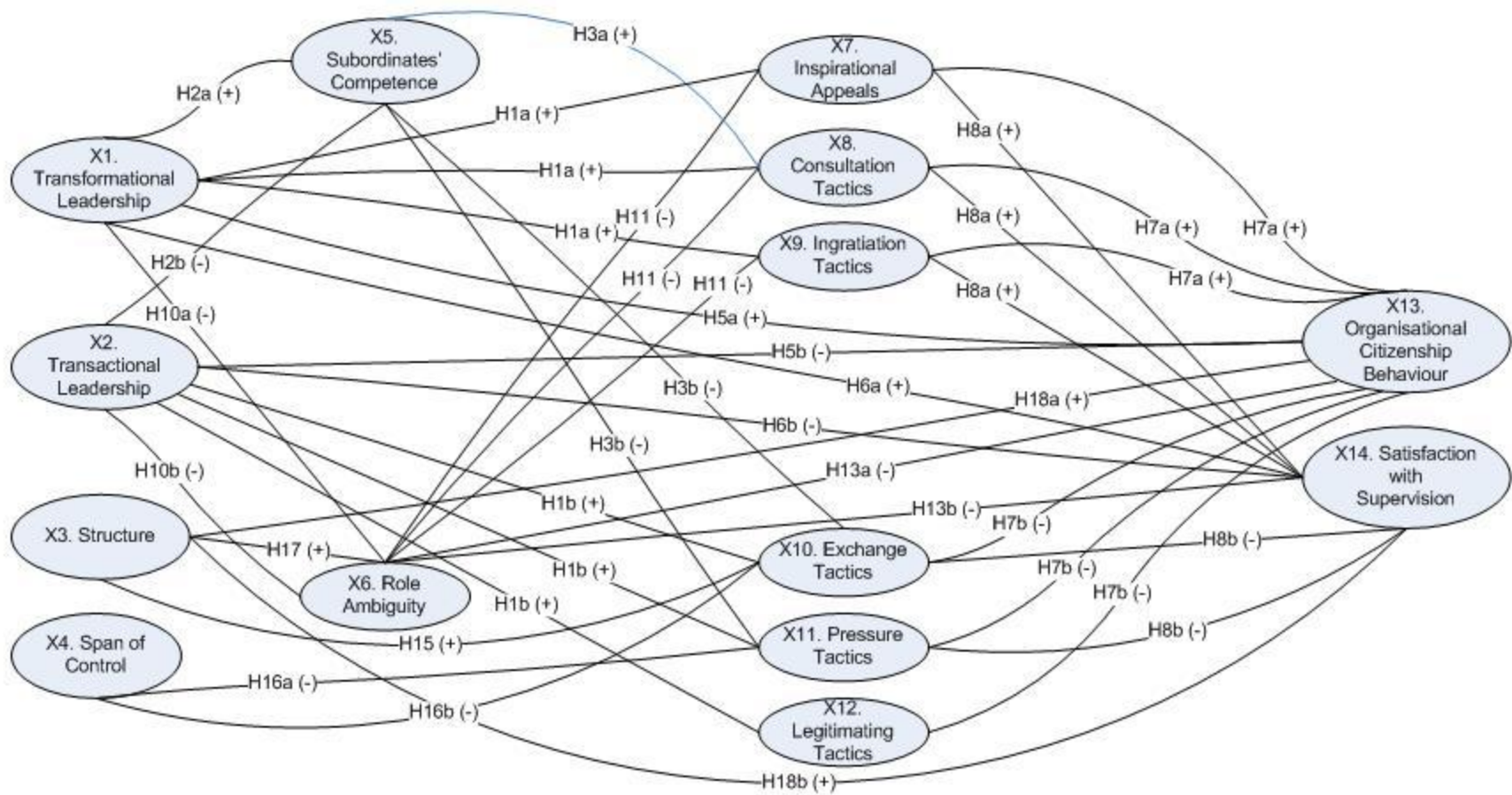
Figure 3.1: Hypothesised Relationships

3.1   Leadership Styles and Downward Influence Tactics

Leaders' choice of influence tactics is very much dependent upon their leadership style. From a signalling perspective, managers may take their cue regarding which influence tactics to use on a target. Some superiors inspire others to identify with a vision that reaches beyond their own self-interests, while others take a hands-off approach that essentially exchanges leadership duties unless it is absolutely necessary (Bass, 1985a).

Research has demonstrated that leaders' effectiveness with subordinates very much depends on their abilities to convince others to complete the work (Ruello, 1973; Uyterhoeven, 1972). The ability to influence can be developed through a reciprocal relationship. By entering into such relationship, leaders become more effective in influencing subordinates, thus enhancing their influence skills.

Burns (1978) views transformational leadership as a process of activating followers' higher order needs by inspiring higher ideals and raising moral consciousness. He posits that the transformational leader heightens subordinates' motivation to accomplish goals that exceed expectations through inspiration and by instilling pride and confidence. It was also argued that the transformational leader can motivate and inspire employees to perform beyond expectations and in effect, transform both individuals and organisations (Bass, 1985a; Keegan & Den Hartog, 2004).

Substantively, Bass and Avolio (2000) propose that transformational leadership is a behaviour process comprised of three factors: charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. According to Conger & Kanungo (1987), charismatic leadership has often been considered synonymous with transformational leadership. The individualised consideration evident within transformational leadership demonstrates

concern for the followers' needs by introducing intervention processes such as mentoring. The intellectual stimulation element of transformational leadership encourages followers to think outside the box by questioning their old methods of doing things which may be outdated or inappropriate for resolving problems at hand. In sum, transformational leaders are able to get followers to perform at maximum levels and their ability to induce maximum performance is purportedly due to their ability to inspire the followers and to raise their followers' criteria for success (Bass, 1985a).

It may be expected that transformational leaders would employ more personal and soft influence tactics such as inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl, 1998). There are several reasons for suspecting an association between certain influence tactics and transformational leadership. Leaders' behaviours that inspire others to change their beliefs and values (Bass, 1997) are reminiscent of inspirational appeals. Inspirational appeals refer to the use of values and ideals to raise subordinates' enthusiasm towards the request (Yukl, 2002; Yukl et al., 1996; Yukl & Seifert, 2002). The request is presented in such a way that it resonates with the subordinate's needs, values and ideals. Thus, inspirational appeals are expected to be associated with transformational leaders who often communicate with vivid imagery and symbols in a way that generates enthusiasm (Cable & Judge, 2003; Yukl, 2002).

The transformational leader is also more likely to influence subordinates by getting them personally involved and committed to a project through consultation tactics, such as encouraging them to contribute and suggest ways to improve a proposal, or help plan an activity (Cable & Judge, 2003; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl, 2002; Yukl et al., 1996; Yukl & Seifert, 2002; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Leadership research on the use of

consultation with subordinates has found that consultation tactics increases decision acceptance in some situations but not in others (Vroom & Jago, 1988).

Ingratiation tactics involves flattery and doing favours that enhance managerial liking of the subordinate (Higgins, Judge, & Ferris, 2003). Downward influence tactics such as inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation are said to be used by transformational leaders to induce employees' commitment through the transformation of employees' value systems – the value systems that align with the organisational goals (Emans, Munduate, Klaver, & Van de Vliert, 2003). It is thus hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1a: The transformational leader who attempts to influence subordinates will be more likely to adopt downward influence tactics that emphasise inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation.

Burns (1978) contrasts the transformational leadership with the transactional leader – the type of leader who invokes exchange processes in order to satisfy subordinates' self-interests by exchanging pay and other benefits for subordinates' effort. He suggests that transactional leadership is a style based on bureaucratic authority and legitimacy within the organisation, and that transactional leaders emphasise work standards, assignments and task-oriented goals. It is also proposed that transactional leaders tend to focus on task completion and employee compliance, and that these leaders rely quite heavily on organisational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance. Burns's idea found support in Bass (1985a) - transactional leadership enhances the likelihood that subordinates will display expected levels of performance by providing the desired

rewards contingent on acceptable performance and by punishing subordinates when they do not meet performance standards. Complementarily, Al-Mailam (2004) describes the transactional leader as an agent of change and goal setter, a leader who works well with employees, thereby improving his own productivity as a leader.

It is predicted that transactional leaders frequently exert influence by offering to reciprocate or exchange favours. The transactional leader employs exchange tactics including promises of future commitments and personal incentives to gain the subordinates' help. Furthermore, transactional leaders are reward-sensitive (Stewart, 1996), making them especially likely to use tactics that are linked to exchange, which is the purpose of exchange behaviours according to Tedeschi and Melburg (1984).

According to Avolio (1999), pressure tactics may be considered an effective influencing strategy when transactional leaders believe that softer tactics are unlikely to be effective especially when subordinates "sit and wait for others to take the necessary initiatives imposed by the tasks" (p. 38). A study by Tepper (1993) has concluded that pressure tactics was used more frequently by transactional leaders than transformational leaders. Yukl et al. (1996) reported pressure tactics being used more often for influencing subordinates in work-related tasks than with peers or superiors. In turn, Lamude, Schudder and Furno (1993) found coalition, exchange, rationality and pressure tactics were successful in influencing subordinates to perform work-related tasks. This finding is supported by Hart and Quinn (1993) who argued that in order to fulfill the task master role, the manager must be results-oriented and make explicit trade-off decisions. In the event of both pressure tactics and exchange tactics being unlikely to be effective, the transactional leader will resort to legitimating tactics, which serves to indicate that the

leader has turned to extrinsic motivators and, therefore, does not expect commitment, or compliance with his or her requests to be intrinsically motivated. Supporting this view, Yukl and colleagues (1993) found that legitimating tactics are used as a follow-up to other tactics such as rational persuasion and pressure tactics.   Therefore, it was hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 1b: Transactional leadership is positively associated with downward influence tactics that emphasise exchange, pressure and legitimating.

3.2   Leadership Styles and Subordinates' Competence

Successful leaders are those who are able to effectively communicate with subordinates with different levels of competence. According to leadership theorists, the performance of a leader is dependent up on his or her leadership style and its ability to influence subordinates with varied competency levels to perform tasks successfully.   Today, leaders are aware that they deal with subordinates from diverse backgrounds, and the experience gained in this respect has taught them to respond differently in individual cases, especially with regard to different competence levels. The importance of subordinates' competence affecting leadership style has not been stressed or even discussed to any great extent in the theoretical and management literature.

Research nearly half a century ago found that supervisors reacted more warmly, permissively and collegially to a subordinate when the latter performed efficiently (Lowin & Craig, 1968), yet initiated more structure and showed less consideration for poor performers (Greene, 1975). The research findings of Dockery and Steiner (1990)

suggest that subordinates' ability has an effect on leadership styles. The rationale behind this is that the transformational leader would want to give more latitude and support to subordinates who have high ability and perform efficiently and effectively. The study of subordinates' ability implied that the superior's exercise of leadership styles can be affected by subordinates' competence. Hence, it can be conjectured that if the subordinates' competence is high, the superior may use transformational leadership, and that when subordinates' competence is low, the superior may be expected to adopt a transactional leadership style. Thus, the following hypotheses are put forward:

Hypothesis 2a: A superior's exercise of transformational leadership is positively correlated with subordinates' competence.

Hypothesis 2b: A superior's exercise of transactional leadership is negatively correlated with subordinates' competence.

3.3   Subordinates' Competence and Downward Influence Tactics

Based on the study by Dockery and Steiner (1990), any particular influence tactics leaders may have at their disposal influences the effect that competence differentials may have on the use of influence. Subordinates' competence may raise the question as to whether feelings of confidence affect the influence tactics employed. One may expect that competence interacts with available influence tactics such that subordinates of low competent will be influenced differently than their colleagues who are highly competent. Hence, a leader cannot be sure whether or not his or her judgment about a subordinate's

competency will be right or wrong. Keeping this in mind, one could formulate the following argument: when working on a task, subordinates will probably feel obligated to contribute more whenever they think that they can contribute positively. When subordinates gain greater competence in their own task, they will expect to be able to contribute more successfully to the task performance and will, therefore, have a stronger tendency to offer task contributions and to wield influence than when they are less competent about their own judgment, and may expect their judgment to be wrong (Littlepage, Schmidt, Whistler, & Frost, 1995).

However, their willingness to participate in the task will probably be greater when their superiors' influence styles are more consultative and less controlling than the tactics of using pressure or legitimating. Therefore, subordinates' competence - that is the extent to which subordinates are effective in doing their work - is suspected to be associated with consultation tactics. Thus, the following hypothesis is postulated:

Hypothesis 3a: When subordinate exhibits higher competence, the superior tends to use consultation tactics in his or her exercise of influence.

If leader uses pressure tactics to force low competence subordinates to comply, this may result in a negative outcome. On the other hand, it may be easier for a leader to use exchange and pressure tactics to handle less competent subordinates, because these tactics will allow the subordinates to decide if, and to what extent, the influence will be accepted. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 3b: In the exercise of influence, the superior will avoid using exchange and pressure tactics with competent employees.

3.4   Subordinates' Competence as Mediator in the Relationship between Transformational Leadership and Consultation Tactics

The direct relationship between leadership style and influence tactics has been well supported by numerous studies (Charbonneau, 2004; Lamude & Scudder, 1995; Tepper, 1993, Warren, 1998), some even asserting that these two concepts are inextricably linked (Burns, 1978; Gardner, 1990; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989). In respect of the other link, it has also been empirically generalised that leaders react differently to different subordinates' competence levels (Dansereau et al., 1975; Greene, 1975; Lowin & Craig, 1968). Additionally, it can be surmised that the reciprocal relationship may also exist in that the subordinate's perception of his or her own competency is related to how he or she perceives the leadership style imposed upon him or her.

Evidence also exists, although limited, on the direct relationship between subordinates' competence and influence tactics (Tepper et al., 1998; van Knippenberg, van Eijbergen & Wilke, 1999). These studies posited that subordinates' competence affects the use of particular influence tactics used in their attempt to achieve desirable outcomes or leader-member relations. The evidence of these multi-interaction relationships between leadership style, subordinates' competence and influence tactics in their logical causal flow, suggest that one of the variables may act as mediator in these interactions. Taking a cue from the study of Locker and Schwaiger (1979) and Locke, Feren, McCaleb, Shaw, and Denny (1980) which view subordinates' competence as a

moderating variable in the participative decision-making and work performance relationship, it can be proposed that subordinates' competence can be a mediating variable in the relationship between transformational leadership style and consultation tactics. Empirically, this can be substantiated if the existence of the third variable, in this case subordinates' competence, can decrease or increase the total effect of transformational leadership style on the consultation tactics. Based on the implication of the previous findings on the nature of the multi-interaction relationships, it is predicted that:

Hypothesis 4:   Subordinates' competence will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and consultation tactics.

3.5   Direct Effects of Leadership Styles on Outcomes

3.5.1   Leadership Styles and OCB

Many studies have shown that transformational leadership can affect followers' OCB (Geyer & Steyrer, 1998; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Podsakoff et al., 1990). Graham (1988) has suggested that the most important effect of transformational leadership behaviour is the ability to promote extra-role behaviours that exceed the requirements of in-role expectations. Podsakoff et al. (1990) support Graham's view and argues further that "the most important effects of transformational leaders should be on extra-role performance, rather than in-role performance" (p. 109).

Such leadership is proposed to "lift ordinary people to extraordinary heights" (Boal & Bryson, 1988, p. 11) and to cause followers to "do more than they are expected to do" (Yukl 1989, p. 272) and "perform beyond the level of expectations" (Bass, 1985a, p. 32), and House et al. (1988, p. 100) claim that these leaders motivate their subordinates to "perform above and beyond the call of duty". In sum, this suggests that transformational leadership may have an important effect on extra-role or OCB that is of a discretionary nature which are not part of the employee's formal role requirements.

The positive relationships between transformational leadership and OCB have been empirically proven by past researchers demonstrating that transformational leadership is unambiguously linked to followers' higher levels of OCB across different settings (Geyer & Steyrer, 1998; Goodwin et al., 2001; Graham, 1988; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; MacKenzie et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Wang et al., 2005; Whittington, 1997). For example, Podsakoff et al. (1990) and Podsakoff et al. (1996b) reported a positive relationship between transformational leader behaviour (such as articulating a vision, role modelling, intellectually stimulating employees and communicating high performance expectations) and subordinates' OCB. Hence, there is strong conceptual support for the notion that transformational leaders motivate their followers to exhibit extra-role behaviours.

In contrast, transactional leadership may not trigger extra-role behaviour due to the followers' behaviour tending to be based only the reward linked to a particular task (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Transactional leadership "is explicitly designed to clearly define and reward in-role performance" (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 109) instead of extra-role behaviour (Podsakoff et al., 1982). Bass and Avolio (1990) documented that

transactional leadership is negatively linked to followers' level of OCB. In detail, transactional leadership is primarily based on an economic exchange (Pillai et al., 1999). If the relationship between leader and followers is mainly regarded as an economic exchange, performing more than what is required or achieving a higher quality than is required will not deemed to be appreciated by the leader. As a consequence, subordinates' job contributions will be in accordance with the compensation or reward system. In the long run, this behaviour may generate positive OCB as subordinates, using the casual parlances 'work to rule'. Some evidence for this rationality can be found in the augmentation effect of transformational leadership on transactional leadership in predicting subordinates' OCB (Hater & Bass, 1988; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Waldman et al., 1990). It is based on the theoretical and empirical background that the following hypotheses are stated:

Hypothesis 5a: Transformational leadership style is positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 5b: Transactional leadership style is negatively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.5.2.   Leadership Styles and Satisfaction with Supervision

Among the determinants of job satisfaction, leadership is viewed as an important predictor and plays a central role. Leadership is mostly directed towards people and social interaction, as well as to the process of influencing people so that they will achieve

the goals of the organisation (Skansi, 2000). The link between transformational leadership and work-related attitudes and behaviours such as job satisfaction, is well established (Avolio, Bass, Walumbwa, & Zhu, 2004).

Under the circumstances when job satisfaction is examined using Bass's (1985a) leadership model, it is suggested that managers who display more transformational leadership characteristics might intrinsically foster higher job satisfaction. In a similar fashion, the transformational leader is able to motivate his or her followers to take on more responsibility by granting them work autonomy. As such, work tasks provide employees with an increased level of accomplishment and satisfaction. Additionally, the transformational leader's ability in grooming the individual personal development of followers projects a sense of belonging among subordinates as they observe that someone is concerned for their needs. Hence, the transformational leader-employee interactions may be more balanced since the manager and satisfied employees both jointly and effectively work toward achieving the organisation's common goals.

Essentially, both empirical and meta-analytic studies suggest that followers working with transformational leaders are more involved, satisfied, empowered, motivated and committed to their organizations, and demonstrate fewer withdrawal behaviours (Barling et al., 1996; Bono & Judge, 2003; Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler, & Shi, 2004). Such leaders enhance followers' confidence, effectiveness and motivation by giving them personal attention and by learning their needs and aspirations (Walumbwa & Kuchinke, 1999).

Transformational leaders also understand individual follower's needs (Bass, 1985a; 1998), and elevate those needs to higher levels of aspiration through inspirational

motivation that surpasses immediate self-interest (Avolio, 1999). Followers who receive

such attention are more inclined to work toward longer-term goals and work harder to

meet the leader's expectations, resulting in increased job satisfaction. Other studies

carried out in several countries have supported the positive correlation between

transformational leadership and satisfaction with the leader (Bartram & Casimir, 2007;

Berson & Linton, 2005; Chiok, 2001; Dunham & Klafehn, 1990; Emery & Barker, 2007;

Hespanhol, Pereira, & Pinto, 1999; June Poon, 1995; Lowe et al., 1996; Martin, 1990;

Morrison, 1994; Mosaderghrad, 2003a; Mosaderghrad & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Seo et

al., 2004; Stordeur, Vandenberghe & D'hoore, 2000; Vance & Larson, 2002). Thus,

based on the foregoing discussion, the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 6a: Transformational leadership style positively affects subordinates'
                  satisfaction with supervision.

Conversely, employees reporting to transactional leaders might feel dissatisfied with the

equity of their reward system. Furthermore, the transactional leader is more apt to be

perceived as someone who is actively searching for deviations. Under this circumstance,

it is often perceived that "one mistake outweighs ten successful contributions" (Emery &

Barker, 2007, p. 81). Furthermore, the transactional leader also limits the employees'

effort, job satisfaction and effectiveness toward contributing to organisational goals

(Bass, 1985a). Some studies have reported a negative relationship between transactional

leadership and satisfaction with supervision (Deluga, 1988b; Bycio et al., 1995; Hunt &

Schuler, 1976; Kohli, 1985; Podsakoff et al., 1984; Schul, Remington & Berl, 1990). As such the following hypothesis is advanced.

Hypothesis 6b: Transactional leadership style negatively affects subordinates' satisfaction with supervision.

3.6   Downward Influence Tactics and OCB

Influence processes are important for understanding how managers motivate subordinates' commitment and extra effort, according to Bass (1985a). Researchers have discovered that influence tactics are often used by superiors as a means of obtaining personal goals, promoting their own self-interest, exercising social control and changing the behaviour of others (Barry & Watson, 1996; Ferris & Judge, 1991; Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Kipnis et al., 1980). The successful use of these tactics tends to be able to reduce resistance by the subordinates (Pfeffer, 1981; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984).

On the other hand, researchers have generally maintained that OCB demonstrated by employees arises from a sense of obligation (Bolino, 1999). Social exchange theory is usually used to explain this behaviour (Niehoff, 2000). According to Blau (1964) and Organ (1988), the employment relationship engenders feelings of personal obligation when subordinates are treated well by superiors and they feel duty bound to honour their obligation by engaging in extra-role behaviours directed at helping others and the organisation.

Conceptual and theoretical work in influence tactics research and extra-role behaviour has suggested that inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation tactics

show consistency in enhancing supervisor-subordinate relationship (Kipnis et al., 1980; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988; Krone, 1992; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984; Wayne & Liden, 1995; Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Thus, it would be expected that managers' use of inspirational appeals (using emotional language to emphasise the importance of a new task and arouse enthusiasm) would encourage employees to demonstrate OCB. In addition, it would also be expected that managers' use of consultation tactics, which engage employees in the decision-making process, will encourage employees to feel involved and take personal responsibility, and that ingratiation tactics (engaging in friendly behaviour toward the target to ensure the subordinate is well disposed toward the leader's request) would be effective in generating positive outcomes from the subordinates (Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). This is due to ingratiation tactics being used by superior to impress his or her employees with the objective of being better liked (Kipnis, et al., 1980; Tedeschi & Melburg, 1984; Wayne & Liden, 1995). This approach includes flattery, favour-doing, emphasising what the leader has in common with subordinates and de-emphasising the differences (Krone, 1992). Therefore, it would be expected that ingratiation tactics have a positive effect on OCB or extra-role behaviour, particularly given the dependence of such behaviour on good leader-subordinate relations. Based on the above argument, it can be hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 7a: A superior's exercise of the downward influence tactics of inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation will have a significant positive association with the subordinate's organisational citizenship behaviour.

Other influence behaviour such as exchange tactics (offering benefits in return for compliance) does not aim to transform employees' values, but to persuade on the basis of logic or self-interest and thus, they are more closely aligned with transactional leadership, particularly contingent reward. Pressure tactics (using demands or threats) are based on threats or exerting pressure to ensure compliance with a request. There is consistent evidence that 'forcing' influence tactics such as pressure is counterproductive in engaging employee commitment and motivation or OCB (Emans et al., 2003; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Sparrowe et al. 2006; Yukl et al., 1996; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). These leader behaviours are consistent with an autocratic rather than a democratic style of leadership (Likert, 1961). Likewise, other studies recorded that superior use of legitimating tactics is linked to negative effect on subordinates' commitment (Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Thus, it would be expected that such a tactic would have a negative influence in engaging employees' OCB, and consequently, the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 7b: A superior's exercise of the downward influence tactics of exchange, pressure and legitimating will have a significant negative association with the subordinate's organisational citizenship behaviour.

3.7   Downward Influence Tactics and Satisfaction with Supervision

The influence method which the superior uses in an organisation in supervising subordinates can have a broad impact on the subordinates' attitude towards work and the kind of relationships they have with their superiors. Influence researchers have found

support for a relationship between influence tactics and quality relationship and supervisory performance ratings (Ferris et al., 1994; Wayne & Ferris, 1990, Wayne & Liden, 1995). The amount and quality of supervision and direction given to subordinates will increase their satisfaction with supervision. A few studies have recorded that, supervision to the extent that the superior exercises inspirational appeals and consultation influence styles, is found to have a positive impact on the subordinates' satisfaction (Kahn et al., 1964; Likert, 1967; Warren, 1998). On the contrary, the pressure and exchange tactics are expected to have a negative association with employees' satisfaction with the leader. This is because if the superior usually applies pressure tactics, it is assumed that the subordinate does not meet expectations if not actually coerced to perform (Omar, 2007). Additionally, exchange tactics which apply reward-punishment choices are not seem as an inclusive management approach, and thus it is unlikely that subordinate is happy with this approach. Hence, the following hypotheses are offered:

Hypothesis 8a: A superior's exercise of inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation tactics will have a significant positive effect on the subordinates' satisfaction with supervision.

Hypothesis 8b: A superior's exercise of pressure and exchange tactics will have a significant negative effect on the subordinates' satisfaction with supervision.

3.8   Mediating Effects of Downward Influence Tactics on the Relationship between Transformational Leadership Style and Outcomes

Few studies have examined the mediating effects of downward influence tactics. For example, a study by Soepjipto (2002) has explored the downward influence in leader-member relationships, and another study by Warren (1998) who explores the effects of leader-member exchange on supervisor's downward influence attempts. However, there is substantial empirical support for the direct relationship between transformational leadership style and OCB (Boerner, Eisenbeiss, & Griesser, 2007; Chen & Farh, 1999; Schlechter & Engelbrecht, 2006; Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990; Ferres et al., 2002; Goodwin, et al., 2001; Graham, 1988; Koh, et al., 1995; Nguni et al., 2006; MacKenzie et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 1996b; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Schlechter & Engelbrecht, 2006; Whittington, 1997; Wang et al., 2005) and transformational leadership style and satisfaction with supervision (Avolio & Bass, 1998; Bass, Waldman, Avolio, & Bebb, 1987; Bartram & Casimir, 2007; Bryman, 1992; Deluga, 1988b; Seltzer & Bass, 1990; Emery & Barker, 2007; Mosadeghrad & Yarmohammadian, 2006; Nguni et al., 2006; Podsakoff et al., 1996b; Podsakoff et al., 1982; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005). There are also numerous studies on leadership and influence tactics (Chacko, 1980; Charbonneau, 2004; Clarke & Ward, 2006; Lamude & Scudder, 1995; Tepper, 1993; Tepper et al., 1998**;** Warren, 1998). There are a few studies demonstrate the theoretical link between downward influence tactics and OCB or helping behaviour (Soetjipto, 2002; Sparrowe et al., 2006) and also between downward influence tactics and satisfaction with supervision (Liden et al., 1997; Warren, 1998). These multi-interactions

may give rise to the mediation effect with downward influence tactics providing the most cogent reason as mediator.

The transformational leader challenges and raises the subordinates' self-confidence and enthusiasm towards goal accomplishment that exceeds their own self-expectations (Bass, 1997, 1998; Cable & Judge, 2003; Yukl, 2002; Yukl et al., 1996). In addition, the transformational leader is more inclined to influence subordinates by personally involving them in performing task assignments (Cable & Judge, 2003; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl, 2002; Yukl et al., 1996; Yukl & Seifert, 2002; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Inspiration and involvement, in essence, represent the exercise of downward influence tactics of inspirational appeals and consultation (Yukl & Tracey, 1992). Moreover, when an individual is a transformational leader and his or her influence style is perceived as inspirational and consultation, the leader is particularly likely to employ inspirational or consultation influence tactics with subordinates to inspire and secure their personal involvement in the project. Thus, subordinates would be likely to respond positively to a transformational leader when downward influence tactics are employed.

A consequence of transformational leadership is employees' OCB and satisfaction with supervision. This effect is consistent with the notion that the transformational leader recognises the effectiveness of downward influence tactics of inspirational appeals and consultation to achieve employees' OCB and improve their satisfaction with the leader. Again, the social exchange explanation can be applied as a basis for the mediation effects of downward influence tactics. Based on the above discussion, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 9a: The downward influence tactics of inspirational appeals and consultation will further increase the positive relationship between transformational leadership style and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 9b: The downward influence tactics of inspirational appeals and consultation will further increase the positive relationship between transformational leadership style and satisfaction with supervision.

Conversely, transactional leaders may also communicate their requests via the exercise of exchange tactics by stating the organisation's rules in exchange for the completion of duties (Graen & Cashman, 1975), and pressure tactics by constantly using force and reminders on subordinates about the possibility of the negative consequences to them should they fail to complete such requests (Yukl & Falbe, 1990; Yukl & Tracy, 1992). Hence, the use of the downward influence tactics that emphasise pressure and exchange are likely to foster lower OCB and satisfaction with supervision, and consequently, the following relationships are proposed:

Hypothesis 9c: The downward influence tactics of pressure and exchange will further decrease the relationship between transactional leadership style and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 9d: The downward influence tactics of pressure and exchange will further

decrease the relationship between transactional leadership style and

satisfaction with supervision.

3.9   Leadership Styles, Role Ambiguity, Downward Influence Tactics and Outcomes

3.9.1   Leadership Styles and Role Ambiguity

Transformational leadership behaviour influences employees by clarifying their

understanding of what the leader would like them to do. This is important because leaders

who clarify the role expectation may reduce ambiguity. For instance, transformational

leaders clarify the employees' roles by articulating a vision to inspire the subordinates to

pursue the goals (MacKenzie et al., 2001). Transformational leadership theories regard

the clarification of 'vision' as an important component of the transformational leadership

process. Based on this rationale, the following is expected.

Hypothesis 10a: The relationship between transformational leadership and subordinates'

role ambiguity will be negatively correlated.

Transactional leaders should also decrease role ambiguity. The plausible explanation for

this is that transactional leader behaviour involves providing immediate feedback on

subordinates' job performance which should increase the subordinates' understanding of

their roles in the organisation (Kohli 1989; Teas, Wacker & Huges, 1979). Indeed, Sims

and Szilagyi (1975) have commented that leader-contingent punishment behaviour "is related to satisfaction through his or her ability to reduce perceived role ambiguity …." (p. 436). Moreover, past research has supported this expectation that relationship between contingent punishment of transactional leadership or task-oriented leadership is negatively related to role ambiguity (Bateman, Strasser, & Dailey, 1983; House & Rizzo, 1972; MacKenzie et al., 2001; Podsakoff et al., 1984; Podsakoff, Bommer, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006; Sims & Szilagyi, 1975). Thus, the following relationship is expected:

Hypothesis 10b: The relationship between transactional leadership and subordinates' role ambiguity will be negatively correlated.

3.9.2   Role Ambiguity and Downward Influence Tactics

Uncertainty regarding one's job responsibilities creates an environment that fosters influence attempts because of the unclear connections among effort, performance and desired outcomes (Madison, Allen, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1980; Parker, Dipboye, & Jackson, 1995). Similarly, when employees experience role ambiguity due to their uncertainty about role responsibilities, a favourable situation for influence attempts is created (Hickson et al., 1971). The rising use of influence strategies was associated with higher level of role ambiguity. The influencing activities may represent how a manager deals with employees experiencing stress associated with role ambiguity by attempting to exert some control over the environment. The superior may resort to handling employees' role ambiguity by using inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiating tactics - a soft influencing strategy designed to create a favourable image and this may

help forge a more beneficial manager-employee relationship. Another reason for superior using soft tactics might be due to the superior being afraid of employees' reactions if he or she uses hard tactics such as assertiveness or pressure, higher authority and coalition (Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985) when dealing with unclear roles. Moreover, the use of hard influence strategies may reflect employees' anger ensuing from high levels of role ambiguity (Caplan & Jones, 1975; Cohen 1959). For example, if the job demand is ambiguous, the employees will experience discomfort, the superior will control the situation by using soft influence tactics, and the sense of control may then diminish the feeling of role ambiguity. From the perspective of the employees, using the above argument, it can be surmised that employees with high levels of role ambiguity would perceive their superiors as incapable of or less willing to use soft influence strategies. Thus, the following is hypothesised:

Hypothesis 11:   Role ambiguity is negatively correlated with inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation tactics.

3.9.3 Role Ambiguity Mediates the Relationship between Transformational Leadership Style and Downward Influence Tactics

High level of role ambiguity experienced by subordinates may be associated with the rising use of influence strategies by superior. It is also acknowledged that leaders' choice of influence styles is very much dependent on their leadership style. In fact, the leadership style and influence tactics used by the leader may represent how employees perceive their superior's attempts to influence them to cope with the organisational stress

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associated with role ambiguity. Tactically, superiors may rely on means of influence other than the formal authority vested in his or her position if subordinates encounter ambiguity attached to that role. Researchers employing both experimental and longitudinal research designed to examine the influence of perceived role ambiguity on employees' attitudes and behaviours, found lack of clarity about performance and behavioural expectations to be associated with unfavourable attitudes and resentment toward superiors (Caplan & Jones, 1975; Cohen 1959). Furthermore, high levels of role ambiguity can cause an increase in hostility towards role recipients (Smith, 1967), and frequent violations of the chain of command (Rizzo et al., 1970). In such a situation, superiors may be prompted to use soft tactics such as inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation tactics to influence the subordinates who face such situations, where there is no standard procedure or past experience to guide them. These tactics may help to foster a close superior-subordinate relationships, resulting in a better understanding of the role ambiguity (Deluga, 1989; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1985). Previous researchers (Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl, 1998; Yukl, 2000; Yukl & Seifert, 2002; Cable & Judge, 2003; Higgins et al., 2003) seem to conclusively link the transformational leadership and 'soft' downward influence tactics. The key driving force behind the choice of influence tactics is to get the subordinates personally involved and committed to the goal which resonates well with the subordinates' needs, values and ideals. This will of course take into the consideration the subordinates' level of comfort in relation to their role ambiguity. Taking these past findings, it is reasonable to postulate that role ambiguity will mediate the relationship between the transformational leadership style and downward influence tactics. Thus, the following hypotheses are put forward:

Hypothesis 12a: Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between transformational

leadership style and inspirational tactics.

Hypothesis 12b: Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between transformational

leadership style and consultation tactics.

Hypothesis 12c: Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between transformational

leadership style and ingratiation tactics.

3.9.4   Role Ambiguity and Outcomes

Theoretically, a high level of role ambiguity impedes the opportunity of a person to

perform effectively and efficiently (Kahn et al., 1976). Unfortunately, the relationship

between role ambiguity and job performance is unclear. Although some studies have

demonstrated a negative relationship between role ambiguity and job performance

(Bagozzi, 1978; Behrman et al., 1981; Behrman & Perreault, 1984; Fried et al., 1998;

Lysonski, 1985; Schuler, 1975; Szilagyi, Sim, & Keller, 1976; Walker, Churchull, &

Ford, 1977), other studies indicate weak or no relationship (Brief & Aldag, 1976; Jackson

& Schuler, 1985; Schriesheim & Murphy, 1976; Schuler, 1977; Schuler, Aldag, & Brief,

1977). Although no definite conclusions can be drawn, the inconsistencies in previous

results indicate that the "literature clearly lacks theoretical and empirical integration"

(Fry, Futrell, Parasuraman, & Chmielewski, 1986, p. 153).

In addition, role ambiguity has been found to negatively influence in-role

performance in a number of studies (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Jaworski & Kohli, 1991).

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In fact, Churchill et al. (1985) reported that role perceptions were more strongly associated with salesperson performance. The reasoning is simply that salespeople can better focus on appropriate objectives and thus achieve higher performance when they are clear about what are expected to accomplish. Higher performance can be inferred to perform extra-role behaviour. However, unclear expectations due to role ambiguity may cause lower performance. Lower performance may not lead to extra-role behaviour. Thus, the next hypothesis is formulated as:

Hypothesis 13a: Subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviour will be reduced as role ambiguity increases.

The nature of contemporary work is becoming increasingly complex with shifts toward team and project-based work resulting in a blurring of role boundaries (Tubre & Collines, 2000). Therefore, the understanding of role requirement is important from an individual perspective, as clarity of one's role and responsibilities can greatly impact work motivation, satisfaction and performance (Jackson & Schuler, 1985). For example, clearly defined job duties and responsibilities may help the affected individual to determine which of the conflicting demands are more important to pursue or satisfy first, as well as how to deal with the primary demand with minimum adaptive effects. In become more difficult and more cognitively demanding to successfully handle the tasks, because of the lack of clear information on how to best prioritise the conflicting demands. As a result, adaptive efforts can be expected to be high which, in turn, may adversely affect job satisfaction.

Previous findings, specifically on the relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction, have shown a negative effect on this relationship. Even though the empirical effects of these role constructs on job satisfaction have generally been negative, the magnitude of the effects has varied considerably across studies (Bagozzi, 1980b; Behrman & Perreault, 1984). Some previous research tends to show evidence of a moderate negative relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction (Acker, 2004; Babakus et al., 1996; Behrman & Perreault, 1984; DeConinck & Stillwell, 2004; Grant, Cravens, Low, & Moncrief, 2001; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Mohr & Puck, 2006; Tadepalli, 1991; Weatherly & Tansik, 1993).

However, it should be noted that although most studies have found a negative relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction, there are a few notable exceptions in the literature where contradictory findings have been reported. Such contradictory results can be seen in the work conducted by researchers such as Tosi (1976), Brief and Aldag (1976), Ivancevich and Donnely (1974), Keller (1975), Tosi (1971), Tosi and Tosi (1970). These mixed results leave some unanswered questions about the relationship between role ambiguity and job satisfaction. Part of this problem may be related to the experimental designs used. Moreover, most past studies typically employed correlational designs (Miles, 1975; Miles & Perrault, 1976) making the issue and direction of causality difficult to determine. The following hypothesis is based on the most common of these research outcomes.

Hypothesis 13b: Subordinates' satisfaction with supervision will be reduced as role ambiguity increases.

3.9.5   Role Ambiguity as Mediator of Transformational Leadership Style and Outcomes

Role theory provides a rich conceptual framework for explaining the importance of role ambiguity as an intervening variable between various job conditions and job outcomes (Kahn et al., 1964). There is some evidence supporting the possibility of role ambiguity as a moderator or mediator variable on the relationship between leadership style and subordinates' outcomes. Several studies have suggested that role ambiguity does moderate the relationship such that under conditions of high role ambiguity, higher levels of initiating structure and consideration become more important (House, 1971; Weed et al., 1976). Yet, others have recently found that role ambiguity is not such a moderator (Schriesheim & Murphy, 1976).

The argument could be made that role ambiguity as a moderating variable occurs because role ambiguity represents a situational factor that is within a leader's sphere of influence. When role ambiguity is high, there is a greater dependence on information and feedback which can clarify the appropriateness of one's action (Dobbins, Cardy, & Platz-Vieno, 1990). Therefore, as role ambiguity increases, the leader becomes more instrumental because the role clarifying information and feedback available from the leader becomes more relevant (Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr, 1986; Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Conversely, as role ambiguity decreases, role clarifying information from the leader becomes less instrumental. Thus, one could argue that the link between leadership and OCB would be stronger when role ambiguity is high and weaker when role ambiguity is low. On top of that, the transformational leader is said to be able to decrease role ambiguity by clarifying a person's role and role ambiguity has been found to be

negatively related to extra-role performance (Churchill et al., 1985; Jaworski & Kohli, 1991). Based on this rationale, the following is expected.

Hypothesis 14a: Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and organisational citizenship behaviour.

The relationship between role ambiguity and satisfaction has also been well established. The meta-analysis of role stress undertaken by Jackson and Shuler (1985) indicates that heightened role ambiguity has been associated with negative work outcomes such as low satisfaction. Correspondingly, several researchers have reported an association between reduction in role ambiguity and enhancement of job satisfaction (Babakus et al., 1996; Babin & Boles, 1996; Conley & Woolsey, 2000; Koustelios, Theodorakis, & Goulimaris, 2004).

In his path goal theory, House (1971) hypothesised that the responses of subordinates to leader initiating structure behaviours varied because role ambiguity acted as a mediator: for subordinates who are clear about their tasks, leader structuring behaviour is considered repetitive and this may cause job dissatisfaction. Likewise, for subordinates who are unclear about their tasks, the leader structuring behaviour would be appreciated and lead to job satisfaction. House (1971) provides data supporting this hypothesis, but Schriesheim and Murphy (1976) found no significant mediating effects. Despite that, research by House and Rizzo (1972) and Valenzi and Dessler (1978) provide support for the significant mediating effect of role ambiguity only for leader consideration behaviour, and not for structuring behaviour.

These authors' findings can be further interpreted as that consideration behaviour of leadership, can to a certain extent, create clarity within the workplace that can reduce role ambiguity and enhance the employees' satisfaction with supervision. Furthermore, employees' perception of consideration transformational leadership behaviour can satisfy and help to promote feelings of clarity about role expectations, thereby increasing their work satisfaction. Indeed, Sims and Szilagyi (1975) have argued that the leader's transformational behaviour "is related to satisfaction through its ability to reduce perceived role ambiguity" (p. 436). This expectation has been supported in several studies (Bateman et al., 1983; Podsakoff et al., 1984).

Drawing on these previous research findings, role ambiguity is suspected to mediate the relationship between leader behaviour and subordinate satisfaction (House, 1971; Weed et al., 1976). Therefore, it is hypothesised that:

Hypothesis 14b: Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and satisfaction with supervision.

3.10   Organisational Contexts, Role Ambiguity and Downward Influence Tactics

3.10.1   Organisational Structure and Downward Influence Tactics

It can be expected that a superior's choice of influence tactics will be a function of the organisational context in which the influence attempt occurs. If the organisation reflects an organic structure, superiors will have a greater tendency to employ exchange tactics in their downward influence attempts. The emphasis on interaction when the structure is

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organic is basically a result of the exchange of things of value between superior and subordinates. There are more shared beliefs in the values and goals of the organisation, permitting the natural and pure exchange tactics to be effective. Thus, this brings forward the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 15:   Organic structure is positively associated with exchange tactics.

3.10.2   Span of Control and Downward Influence Tactics

Superiors who possess a wider span of control are more likely to influence subordinates in a more formalised, impersonal manner, using warnings and punishments (Kipnis & Cosentino 1969; Kipnis & Lane 1962). This is due to the fact that a manager with a wider span of control is less able to micro-manage and monitor the actions of subordinates (Spreitzer, 1996). A study by Kipnis et al. (1980) found a weak positive relationship between work unit size and superiors' use of assertiveness and sanctions. It may be that the difficulties of managing a large number of people compel a manager to resort to a directive or pressure manner. As such, managers are found to be more autocratic using rules and regulations to govern subordinates' performance (Heller & Yukl, 1969).

Another finding contradicts the positive relationship found by Kipnis et al. (1980) as reported by Sullivan, Albrecht, and Taylor (1990) who found a negative relationship between unit size and the use of assertiveness. As unit size increased, the use of assertiveness went down. The plausible explanation is that superiors would use

less assertiveness and more friendliness as unit size increased. Based on this, the following is hypothesised:

Hypothesis 16a: A superior with a wider span of control is less likely to use pressure tactics.

Similarly, a superior with a wider span of control may also reluctant to use exchange influence tactics to get subordinates to comply. This might lead to a reduction in the use of exchange tactics as this represents a sensible trade-off between one's inability to pay close attention as the unit becomes larger and securing commitment for a desirable outcome. Litterer's (1973) analysis of organic and mechanistic structure implies that the broad commitment that is usually achieved by an exchange relationship tends to co-exist in project and group work, suggesting a possible association between wider span of control and the exchange tactics. Based on this argument, the following hypothesis is advanced:

Hypothesis 16b: A superior with a wider span of control is less likely to use exchange tactics.

3.10.3   Organisational Structure and Role Ambiguity

One area in which research has been lacking concerns the understanding of how the organisation structure affects role ambiguity. The characteristics of organisational structure can contribute to inconsistent expectations and uncertainty. In the past, many

scholars have foreseen that organic, rather than mechanistic structures will be the preferred organisational design of the future since mechanistic structures serve to maintain the status quo, while organic structures tend to be more flexible and adaptive to the environment (Ashforth et al., 1998; Courtright, Fairburst, & Rogers, 1989; Meadows, 1980; Zanzi, 1987). This is in line with Weber's (1974) earlier claim that the organic organisation with its decentralised division of activities, assignment of roles and authority is "technically superior to all other forms of organisation" (p. 196).   The organic structure enables greater precision, speed, task knowledge and continuous task adaptation, while increasing friction and ambiguity. A mechanistic structure promotes a clear-defined system and a command chain that can lead to role clarity (Burns & Stalkers, 1961). Studies performed in various professions have found a predominantly positive relationship between organic structure and role ambiguity (Bauer, 2002; Corner & Douglas, 2005; Jackson & Schuler, 1985; Rizzo et al., 1970).   Organisations are characterised as highly decentralised when their goals, procedures and instructions are not written in detail and or communicated to personnel in writing (Hage, 1963; Price, 1972). It is assumed that organic organisational behaviour will not clarify expectations and thus increase role ambiguity. As such, the following hypothesis is predicted:

Hypothesis 17:   Role ambiguity will be more prevalent in an organic structure than in a mechanistic structure.

3.11 Organisational Structure and Outcomes

Based on the assumption by Eisenberg and Fabes (1988), OCB can be influenced by organisational patterns. George and Bettenhausen (1990) and Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1995) seem to agree with this assumption, finding that less highly formalised organisations created an atmosphere of group cohesiveness that encouraged employees to engage in OCB, whereas bureaucratically structured organisations created an environment of employees alienation that inhibited OCBs. Hence, individuals who perform or fail to perform OCB do not do so in a vacuum; the organisational context in which these behaviours are performed serves to encourage or discourage them.

According to DeGroot and Brownlee (2006) who explore the variable of organisational structure on OCB and organisational effectiveness at the departmental level of 101 organisations, the relationship between structure (organic-mechanistic) and organisational effectiveness is partly influenced by OCB. Similarly, a study conducted by Armenakis, Harris, and Mossholder (1993) on the organisational decentralised and flexible structure found such a structure to provide opportunities for organisational members to actively participate and enhance involvement and commitment (Durham, Knight, & Locke, 1997). This in turn might lead individuals to engage in behaviours that will help the organisation to achieve its goals, whether or not these are part of the employee's role (OCB). Similarly, interdependence in tasks and processes will lead to a reduction in formalised rules and procedures and a rise in group cohesion (Senge, 1993). In turn, this situation will influence task and organisational characteristics which may be the key to promoting OCB (Organ, 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1996b) by encouraging individuals to co-operate, share and help co-workers in order to attain the organisational

goals (Erez & Somech, 1996; Knutson & Miranda, 2000; Mitchel & Silver, 1991). Accordingly,

Hypothesis 18a: Organic structure has a direct and positive effect on subordinates' organisation citizenship behaviour.

In relation to organisational structure and job satisfaction, research by Mawdudur and Zanzi (1995) explores the relationships between organizational structure (organic and mechanistic orientation), job stress and job satisfaction in an audit and management advisory services company, finding that the relationships examined produce different results in these particular occupational settings.   The results show that employees working in management advisory services believed that a more organic structure would increase their job satisfaction and reduce their job stress as compared with audit firms where the employees reported their job satisfaction levels would decrease in such circumstances.

Meadows (1980) who studied organic structure, satisfaction and personality, aimed to determine the level of variation in employee satisfaction among work groups that different in structure along an organistic-mechanistic dimension. In the survey, 24 work groups consisting of 93 participants from two companies participated.   It was observed that organic structure is positively related to the work groups' satisfaction of higher order needs, whereas mechanistic structure is related to their frustration. Considering these past findings, the following hypothesis is suggested:

Hypothesis 18b: Organic structure has a direct and positive effect on subordinates'

satisfaction with supervision.

3.12   Summary of Hypotheses

Table 3.1 summarises the hypotheses derived based on the previous literature review.

Table 3.1 Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1a : The transformational leader who attempts to influence subordinates will be more likely to adopt downward influence tactics that emphasise inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation.

Hypothesis 1b : Transactional leadership is positively associated with downward influence tactics that emphasise exchange, pressure and legitimating.

Hypothesis 2a : A superior's exercise of transformational leadership is positively correlated with subordinates' competence.

Hypothesis 2b : A superior's exercise of transactional leadership is negatively correlated with subordinates' competence.

Hypothesis 3a : When subordinate exhibits higher competence, the superior tends to use consultation tactics in his or her exercises of influence.

Hypothesis 3b : In the exercise of influence, the superior will avoid using exchange and pressure tactics with competent employees.

Hypothesis 4 : Subordinates' competence will mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and consultation tactics.

Hypothesis 5a : Transformational leadership style is positively correlated with organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 5b : Transactional leadership style is negatively correlated to organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 6a : Transformational leadership style positively affects subordinates' satisfaction with supervision.

Hypothesis 6b : Transactional leadership style negatively affects subordinates' satisfaction with supervision.

Hypothesis 7a : A superior's exercise of the downward influence tactics of inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation will have a significant positive association with the subordinate's organisational citizenship behaviour.

Table 3.1 Summary of Hypotheses (Cont'd)

Hypothesis 7b   :   A superior's exercise of the downward influence tactics of exchange, pressure and legitimating will have a significant negative association with the subordinate's organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 8a   :   A superior's exercise of inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation tactics will have a significant positive effect on the subordinates' satisfaction with supervision.

Hypothesis 8b   :   A superior's exercise of pressure and exchange tactics will have a significant negative effect on the subordinates' satisfaction with supervision.

Hypothesis 9a   :   The downward influence tactics of inspirational appeals and consultation will further increase the positive relationship between transformational leadership style and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 9b   :   The downward influence tactics of inspirational appeals and consultation will further increase the positive relationship between transformational leadership style and satisfaction with supervision.

Hypothesis 9c   :   The downward influence tactics of pressure and exchange will further decrease the relationship between transactional leadership style and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Hypothesis 9d   :   The downward influence tactics of pressure and exchange will further decrease the relationship between transactional leadership style and satisfaction with supervision.

Hypothesis 10a   :   The relationship between transformational leadership and subordinates' role ambiguity will be negatively correlated.

Hypothesis 10b   :   The relationship between transactional leadership and subordinates' role ambiguity will be negatively correlated.

Hypothesis 11   :   Role ambiguity is negatively correlated with inspirational appeals, consultation and ingratiation influence tactics.

Hypothesis 12a   :   Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and inspirational tactics.

Table 3.1 Summary of Hypotheses (Cont'd)

Hypothesis 12b	:	Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and consultation tactics.
Hypothesis 12c	:	Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and ingratiation tactics.
Hypothesis 13a	:	Subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviour will be reduced as role ambiguity increases.
Hypothesis 13b	:	Subordinates' satisfaction with supervision will be reduced as role ambiguity increases.
Hypothesis 14a	:	Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and organisational citizenship behaviour.
Hypothesis 14b	:	Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between transformational leadership style and satisfaction with supervision.
Hypothesis 15	:	Organic structure is positively associated with exchange tactics.
Hypothesis 16a	:	A superior with a wider span of control is less likely to use pressure tactics.
Hypothesis 16b	:	A superior with a wider span of control is less likely to use exchange tactics.
Hypothesis 17	:	Role ambiguity will be more prevalent in an organic structure than in a mechanistic structure.
Hypothesis 18a	:	Organic structure has a direct and positive effect on subordinates' organisation citizenship behaviour.
Hypothesis 18b	:	Organic structure has a direct and positive effect on subordinates' satisfaction with supervision.