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The Nexus of Leadership Models, Influence Tactics, and Power in Shaping Organizational Outcomes

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Abstract:*This study explores the intricate interplay between leadership models, influence tactics, and the exercise of power in shaping organizational outcomes. By examining how different leadership approaches, ranging from transactional to transformational, intersect with various influence tactics and power dynamics, this research aims to provide insights into their combined impact on organizational effectiveness. Through empirical analysis and theoretical synthesis, the study sheds light on the complex relationships among these variables and their implications for managerial practice and organizational success.*

Keywords: *leadership models, influence tactics, power, organizational outcomes, effectiveness*

BACKGROUND

Leadership, influence, and power are central elements in organizational dynamics, significantly influencing outcomes such as performance, innovation, and employee satisfaction. Leadership models, ranging from traditional transactional approaches to more contemporary transformational styles, provide frameworks for understanding leadership behaviors and their effects on followers and organizations. Influence tactics, encompassing strategies such as persuasion, consultation, and coalition-building, shape the way leaders mobilize support and achieve objectives within their teams and organizations. Additionally, power dynamics, including formal authority, expertise, and control over resources, play a crucial role in determining leadership effectiveness and organizational outcomes. However, the integration of these elements and their combined impact on organizational performance remains an area ripe for exploration. This study seeks to bridge this gap by examining how different leadership models intersect with influence tactics and power dynamics to shape organizational outcomes. By elucidating these complex relationships, the research aims to provide actionable insights for leaders and managers seeking to enhance organizational effectiveness and achieve strategic objectives.

LEADERSHIP DOMAIN

Leader-Member-Exchange (LMX)

Vertical dyad linkage theory , which in subsequent developments was called LMX, was derived from *social exchange theory* . This theory illustrates how leaders use their positional power to develop different exchange relationships with different followers (subordinates). The term *vertical dyad* refers to the relationship between a leader and a subordinate individual. The basic premise of this theory is that leaders usually build special relationships with a small number of trusted subordinates (hereinafter referred to as **the in-group**) who function as assistants, captains or advisors. The exchange relationships established with other subordinates (hereinafter referred to as **out-groups**) differ substantially. This *dyadic relationship* between leaders and subordinates is what is unique about LMX theory.

There is low mutual influence in exchange relationships with *out-groups* . The main source of influence used by leaders is *legitimate authority* combined with limited *coercive power* and *reward power* . The main benefit to the leader from *in-group relationships* is the commitment of subordinates. Special relationships with *the in-group* create certain obligations and constraints for the leader. To be able to maintain these relationships, leaders must continue to pay attention to *the in-group* , remaining responsive to their needs and feelings, using time-consuming methods of influence such as persuasion and consultation. Leaders cannot use coercion or violence because it can endanger the special relationships that have existed.

On the other hand, the danger of distinguishing between *in-groups* and *out-groups* is the development of hostility between the two groups, and this hostility can damage cooperation and *teamwork* . Another danger is that the minimum obedience expected by the leader of *the out-group* may not be fulfilled if *the out-group* feels that the "golden child" leader gets more benefits than they should, giving rise to feelings of alienation, apathy and hostility.

- based leadership approach . The thesis put forward by LMX is that effective leadership can be achieved when leaders and followers can develop a mature leadership *partnership (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995).* In contrast to conventional approaches which focus more on the characteristics or traits and behavior of leaders, LMX focuses more on the quality of the relationship between leaders and subordinates which has a positive impact at the individual, group and organizational levels.

As a relationship-based approach to leadership, LMX originates from research on the Vertical Dyad Linkage (VDL) leadership model (Dansereau, Graen, and Haga, 1975). VDL takes an evolutionary step from a behavior-based leadership approach, namely the Average Leadership Style (ALS) approach (Fleishman & Simmons , 1970). ALS assumes that leaders use the same leadership behavior towards all their subordinates.

LMX differs from traditional leadership theory because it includes the relationship between the leader and his followers in the analysis. Specifically, leaders treat subordinates differently, not equally (i.e. a *dyadic relationship*). The relationship between leaders and followers develops rapidly. According to this theory, these relationships grow into high quality exchanges while others are based on more formal, traditional relationships between leaders and members.

Many studies have been conducted to examine the relationship between LMX and organizational outcomes , such as Liden, Wayne and Stilwell (1993), Graen, Novak and Sommerkamp (1982) and Gerstner and Day (1997). The majority of research results found that the higher the quality of the relationship between leaders and subordinates encourages increased individual performance and organizational performance. Some of the organizational outcomes studied include objective performance, job satisfaction, *organizational citizenship behavior* , and others.

Leader Trait Approach

The focus of the study of leadership begins with the search for individual characteristics that can universally differentiate a leader from a non-leader. Early research on the *trait approach* failed to find a relationship between leadership success and personal characteristics (Yukl, 1981). However, in its development, the concept of personal characteristics inherent in a leader began to be discussed and researched scientifically using scientific methods. In the end, several studies found evidence that leader characteristics are related to leadership behavior and leadership effectiveness. Further development of this *trait theory* is the theory of transformational leadership *(* Burns, 1978), charismatic leadership *and* servant leadership *proposed* by Greenleaf (2002).

Transformational leadership theory implies that the leader is a moral and value reference center who then changes the individual morals and values held by his followers by transforming these individual morals and values into higher collective values to strive for and achieve. Charismatic leaders are characterized by people who are very self-confident, have high motivation to gain and exert influence, and have strong beliefs about the moral truths they believe in (House and Aditya, 1997).

Servant leadership theory can be categorized as *a trait theory* because the dimensions proposed by Greenleaf contain personal characteristics. The *trait* approach categorizes a leader based on his personal character, social character, goal orientation and intellectual characteristics. The characteristics proposed by Greenleaf are in some ways the same as the concept of *trait theory* , such as honesty, tolerance, emotional balance, integrity, empathy, etc., except that physical and demographic characteristics are not considered as attributes of servant leadership.

These three leadership theories have similarities in terms of the goal of changing the behavior of their followers (*followers*) even though they are carried out with different approaches. The personal characteristics possessed by the three types of leadership are also different but both provide quite a strong attraction for their followers. Strong personal characteristics in these three types of leadership lead to improving the quality of (dyadic) relationships between leaders and subordinates.

Deluga (1992) states that transformational leaders catalyze social exchanges between leaders and subordinates and encourage subordinates to be able to exceed predetermined targets. Transformational leaders are thought to be able to accelerate the formation of high quality relationships between leaders and subordinates. Wang et al. (2005) tested the relationship between transformational leadership and follower performance and OCB. They used LMX as a variable that mediates the relationship between transformational *leadership* and organizational *outcomes* . O'Donnell, Yukl and Taber (2012) tested the influence of transformational leadership with LMX. The results of their research found a positive relationship between transformational leadership characteristics and LMX quality.

Charismatic leadership also has the aim of bringing about change through the power of charisma possessed by the leader so that he is able to move his followers according to the leader's directions. The attractiveness of this charismatic leader is seen as being able to create a positive quality relationship between the leader and his followers.

Servant leaders *have* moral values attached to themselves. According to several researchers, these moral values can be represented by 10 characteristics, namely *listening* , (b) *empathy* , (c) *healing* , (d) *awareness* , (e) *persuasion* , (f) *conceptualization* , (g) *foresight* , (h) *stewardship* , (i) *commitment to the growth of people* , and (j) *building community* . Sendjaja and Sarros (2002) conducted research by conducting a literature review of existing research on *servant leadership* and reviewing several reports about organizations that implement *servant leadership* taken from Fortune 500 magazine. The conclusions drawn by Sendjaja and Sarros (2002)) is a servant leader who has a very strong character, not only in his role as a servant but also in the characteristics of servants that are inherent in the leader. The unique characteristics possessed by servant leaders can encourage a high level of loyalty among their followers so as to improve the quality of LMX.

In contrast to transformational leadership, which has been widely researched regarding its relationship to LMX quality, no research on charismatic leadership and servant leadership has so far linked it to LMX quality. The majority of research on both leadership links it to organizational and individual performance.

POWER AND INFLUENCE

Power

There are many definitions of *power* . Power is defined as *the* agent's capacity to influence targets (Pfeffer, 1981). Another definition is not in absolute terms but relative, namely that the agent is able to influence the target to a greater extent than the target's influence on the agent (*net power*). Another definition is the target's capacity to influence the agent without fear of retaliation (*usable power*).

Yukl (1981) states that the sources of power in organizations are position power, personal power and political power. Positional power includes formal authority (*legitimate power*), control over resources and rewards *,* control over punishment, control over information, and ecological control. Authority is based on perceptions of the privileges (prerogatives), obligations, and responsibilities associated with a particular position in an organization or social system. Authority gives the position holder the right to influence the behavior of others, and gives the right to exercise control over something, for example money, resources, equipment and materials, and this control is another source of power.

Control of resources is part of formal authority. The higher a person's position in an organization's hierarchy of authority, the more control they have over scarce resources. Executives have more control than middle managers *,* and middle managers have stronger control than first-line managers. Executives have the authority to make decisions about the allocation of resources to various subunits and activities, and have the right to review and modify resource allocation decisions made by lower level managers. Meanwhile, the potential influence based on control over rewards is often referred to as *reward power* . One form of *reward power* is the influence on compensation and career advancement.

Control over punishment and the capacity to prevent someone from obtaining desired rewards/rewards is also called *coercive power* (French & Raven, 1959). Formal authority systems in organizations and their traditions relate to the use of punishment as well as the use of rewards. The leader's authority to carry out punishment varies between different types of organizations. Control over information includes a person's access to vital information and control over the distribution of information to other people (Pettigrew, 1972 in Yukl, 1981). Managerial positions often provide opportunities to obtain information that is not directly available about subordinates or coworkers (Mintzberg, 1973 in Yukl, 1981).

Ecological control is control over the physical environment, technology, and work organization. Manipulation of physical and social conditions allows a person to influence the behavior of others indirectly. This form of influence is sometimes called *situational engineering* . An example of *situational engineering* is *job design* , physically rearranging work situations. So what is rearranged is the physical environment , not the people.

There are 3 personal attributes that are seen as sources of power, namely expertise in solving problems and carrying out important tasks (also called *expert power*), friendship and loyalty (often called *referent power*), and charisma. Expertise becomes a source of power for a person only if others depend on him for advice and help. The greatest dependency occurs if the target is missing relevant expertise and cannot easily find a qualified replacement other than an agent.

Political action is a pervasive process in organizations that involves efforts by organizational members to increase their power or to protect existing sources of power. The source of political power is ultimately authority, control over resources, or control over information. The political process is referred to as institutionalization. Forms of political power are control over decision processes, coalitions and co-optation.

Sometimes it is impossible for a person or one party to act alone to get what they want. A common form of political action in organizations is the formalization of coalitions or alliances to oppose or support policies / program / certain changes. In a coalition, each party helps the other party to get what they want. Co-optation is a variation of participation. The aim of co-optation is to weaken resistance/opposition to a policy or project by a group or faction that needs support.

Influence *Tactics*

The factor that bridges power and behavior is the influence tactics *used* by leaders (Yukl, 1989). Several researchers have identified various influence tactics that are often used by leaders, including Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson (1980) and Schilit and Locke (1982).

In simple terms, influence is the impact of one party (agent) on another party (target). Influence can occur on people, things or events. Results (*outcome*) Qualitative influences are: commitment, compliance *and* resistance. The most successful influence will result in a commitment, that is, the target internally agrees with the agent's decision or request and makes a substantial effort to fulfill the request or implement the decision effectively. Compliance means that the target is willing to carry out the agent's request but is not too enthusiastic, but rather apathetic and only makes minimal effort. The agent succeeded in influencing the target's behavior but not the target's attitude. Resistance is *the outcome* of success with the lowest influence . Resistance means the target opposes the proposal or request, rather than simply indifference, and actively attempts to avoid the request.

Referring to French and Raven (1959), in general there are 5 influence tactics used, namely:

1. Rational persuasion, namely using logical arguments and factual evidence by the agent to persuade the target
2. Exchange tactics *mean* that a request or proposal is accompanied by an explicit or implicit promise by the agent to provide a reward to the target.
3. *Legitimate request* , namely a request that is based on the agent's authority in accordance with organizational rules, policies and practices.
4. *Pressure tactics* , namely persistent demands, and explicit or implicit threats by the agent that noncompliance will bring unpleasant consequences mediated by the agent for the target.
5. *Personal appeals* , namely tactics using *ingratiation* and personal friendship as a basis for asking for help.

Research examining the relationship between influence tactics and organizational outcomes was initially conducted by Schilit and Locke (1982). The results of his research found that from a subordinate's point of view, influence attempts *will* be more successful if the subordinate is competent (*expert power*) and the influence effort is carried out intelligently. Viewed from a superior perspective, influence efforts will be successful if there are good interpersonal relationships (*referrent power*). The most recent research on the relationship between influence and organizational outcomes is Higgins, Judge, and Ferris (2003). All three examined the relationship between influence tactics and work *outcomes* . The results of their research found that ingratiation and rationality have a positive influence on work outcomes. The influence tactics used in Higgins, Judge, and Ferris's (2003) research were *ingratiation* , self *-promotion* , *rationality* , *assertiveness* , *exchange* and *upward appeal* .

PERCEPTIONAL JUSTICE

Organizational justice refers to individual perceptions or evaluations of the appropriateness of processes or results (Cropanzano and Greenberg, 1997 in Burton, Sablynski and Sekiguchi; 2008). Many researchers agree that perceived injustice can be explained from the aspects of distributive, procedural and interactional justice. Distributive justice is related to the perceived fairness of the results that a person will receive. Equity theory builds on this idea of distributive justice. Equity theory indicates that individuals make fair decisions about the outcomes they receive by comparing the ratio of outcomes to inputs with the comparison ratio.

Procedural justice describes perceptions of fairness associated with the procedures used to allocate outcomes. Interactional justice (Bies and Moag, 1986) refers to perceptions of fairness related to treatment during social *exchange* . Specifically, perceptions of justice increase when someone is treated with dignity and respect. Based on this explanation, a common thread can be drawn that perceived justice may interact with leader perceptions in predicting organizational outcomes (Burton, Sablynski and Sekiguchi; 2008).

Given evidence that the three components of organizational justice are theoretically and empirically distinct (e.g., Colquitt 2001), it is possible that the consequences of these types of justice are also somewhat different (Ambrose and Schminke 2003). Nowadays, the opinion is growing that procedural and distributive justice should be considered as "system" or "structural" level variables because both procedural and distributive justice relate to exchanges between individuals and organizations (Cropanzano, Prehar and Chen, 2002). On the other hand, interactional justice is a “social” variable because it relates to exchanges between individuals and/their supervisors (or other people). From the employee's perspective, the organization's performance appraisal process may be perceived as fair, but the supervisor's interpretation or implementation of formal procedures may judge it as unfair. Additionally, distributive justice can be a control-level social exchange process when viewed from the employee's perspective. In particular, some employees tend to view their outcomes (e.g., salary, etc.) as being influenced more by their superiors than by the entity's “system.” So, these three types of justice influence the form of relationships between leaders and their subordinates. Therefore, it is natural to predict that distributive, procedural, and interactional justice perceptions will be positively related to LMX, but that interactional justice perceptions may explain a larger portion of the variance in LMX than distributive or procedural justice perceptions.

LEADERSHIP AND POWER MODELS

The development of the leadership and power model is aimed at modeling the relationship between two leadership domains, namely the leader domain and *the dyadic relationship domain* . The leader domain used in this article is leadership which is based on personal characteristics. In other words, this integration model uses leadership from a *trait theory perspective* .

The forms of leadership considered in this model are transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, and servant leadership. The rationale for choosing these three types of leadership is because they are characterized by strong personal characteristics as a leader, so they have a higher ability to improve the quality of *dyadic relationships* with their subordinates compared to other types of leadership.

This model also integrates the leadership domain with the power domain. There are two aspects of power included in the model, namely power itself and influence *tactics* . The influence of these two domains on organizational *outcomes is formulated* . The model developed in this article can be seen in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Model of Leadership, Power and Results Organizational

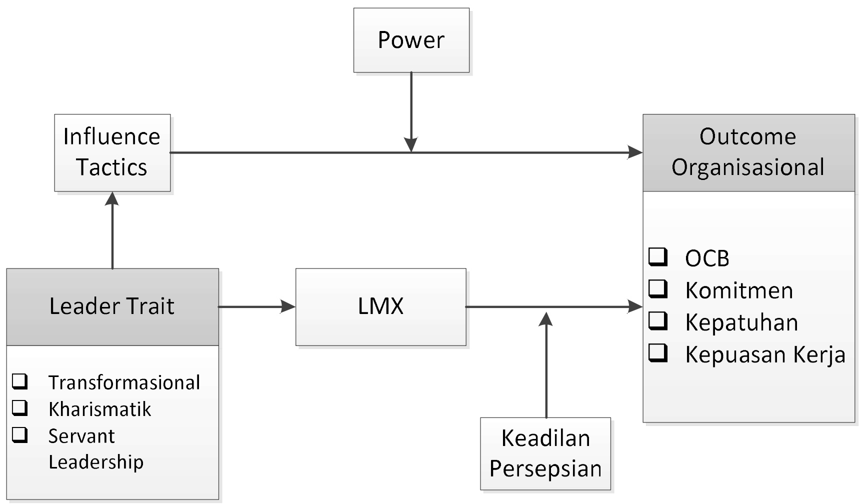

Figure 1 shows the pattern of relationships between leader traits and influence tactics and organizational outcomes. Based on the results of empirical research and theoretical frameworks, it is known that leader traits have an influence on organizational *outcomes* . Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organized group to achieve goals (Rauch and Behling, 1984 in Yukl, 1981). Various definitions of leadership show that the purpose of leading activities is to achieve organizational goals or results.

The influence of *the leader trait* is mediated by LMX quality. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) explained 3 stages of LMX development, namely " *stranger* ", " *acquaintance* ", and " *partner* ". These three stages will develop quickly due to the support of the personal characteristics of the leader, so that a form of *partnership relationship* can quickly be realized. Transformational, charismatic, and servant leaders basically have different charisma or attraction to their followers. On the basis of this charisma, it will be more effective to increase the willingness of followers to carry out social exchanges. The result is an increase in the quality of LMX which can ultimately encourage the achievement of organizational results.

However, the relationship between LMX and organizational outcomes is also moderated by perceived justice. When subordinates feel unfairness in in-group and out-group relationship patterns, the relationship between LMX and organizational outcomes tends to weaken due to the resistance and disappointment felt by subordinates.

The relationship patterns of leadership and organizational outcomes can also be explained using influence tactics pathways. Leaders' efforts to change subordinate behavior or to influence subordinates in order to achieve organizational goals often use influence tactics. The choice of influence tactics to be used varies depending on the status of the target and the objectives of the influence attempt *(* Kipnis, Schmidt, and Wilkinson, 1980).

The success of influence tactics in influencing organizational outcomes is moderated by the sources of power used by the leader. Using appropriate sources of power can accelerate the achievement of results organizational. The use of *position power* alone is not enough to accelerate the achievement of organizational goals, but it is also accompanied by *personal power* . Influence tactics using *legitimate requests* will not have a positive impact on results if the leader does not have *position power* , because *position power* gives the leader the authority to use his power and influence other people in accordance with the description of the task he is carrying out. Rational persuasion tactics without being *personal power* in the form of expertise also does not have a significant influence on organizational results. Based on this rationale, power is seen to moderate the relationship between influence tactics and organizational outcomes.

CONCLUSION

The rapid development of leadership theory and research has apparently not been able to provide a complete framework for thinking about leadership. Various leadership models were developed and their antecedents and consequences were researched. This article seeks to provide new insights by integrating theories on leadership and power and linking them to organizational outcomes.

This integration model is based on the lack of theory and empirical research that highlights aspects of power in leadership, even though one of the assets that a leader must have in order to achieve organizational goals is power. The implementation of power involves a number of influence tactics that are expected to change other people's behavior according to what is desired so that organizational goals can be achieved. The lack of research on influence tactics provides an opportunity for researchers to examine the relationship of influence tactics to organizational outcomes.

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