NO SILVER BULLET TO BOOST EMPLOYEE CHANGE SUPPORTIVE BEHAVIORS: THE FIT BETWEEN GENDER, REGULATORY FOCUS, AND MANAGERIAL INFLUENCE TACTICS

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Approval Page

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ABSTRACT

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Strategic change is central for organizational performance and survival. Managers deploy proactive influence tactics to boost employees' change supportive behaviors. However, a one-size-fits-all approach is not suitable due to employees' idiosyncratic differences. Drawing on the regulatory focus theory and gender theories, this research theorizes and tests the effect of the fit between employees' regulatory focus, gender and the tactic on change supportive behaviors. By using the change readiness framework, the influence tactics' correspondence with regulatory focus across genders are mapped. A 5×2×2 experimental factorial design is employed to test the fit hypotheses. The results show that when an influence tactic fits with both employees' regulatory focus and gender, it promotes employees' championing which is a proactive behavior. Moreover, the mere fit between the tactic and regulatory focus irrespective of gender engenders cooperation which is an adaptive behavior. Theoretical implications for the change management, gender and regulatory focus literatures are discussed, and recommendations for future research are provided.

Keywords: Strategic Change Implementation, Influence Tactics, Change Supportive Behaviors, Change Readiness, Regulatory Focus Theory, Regulatory Fit, Gender

ÖZET

Çalışanların değişimi destekleyici davranışlarını arttırmanın yolları: Cinsiyet, düzenleyici odak ve yönetimsel etki taktikleri arasındaki uyum

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Stratejik değişim, örgütlerin performansı ve hayatta kalmaları için merkezi önemdedir. Yöneticiler, çalışanların değişimi destekleyici davranışlarını artırmak için proaktif etki taktikleri uygularlar. Ancak, çalışanların kendine özgü farklılıkları nedeniyle, herkese uyan tek bir yaklaşım uygun değildir. Bu araştırmada, düzenleyici odak teorisi ve toplumsal cinsiyet teorilerinden yararlanarak, çalışanların düzenleyici odağı, cinsiyeti ve taktiği arasındaki uyumun değişimi destekleyici davranışlar üzerindeki etkisi hakkında bir kuramsal model geliştirilmekte ve bu model test edilmektedir. Değişime hazırlık kuramsal çerçevesi kullanılarak, her cinsiyet için düzenleyici odakla etki taktiklerinin uyumu haritalanmaktadır. Bu uyum ile ilgili hipotezleri test etmek için 5×2×2 deneysel faktöriyel tasarımı kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları, etkileme taktiğinin, çalışanların düzenleyici odağı ve cinsiyeti ile uyumlu olduğunda, proaktif bir davranış olan çalışanların değişimi savunuculuğunu teşvik ettiğini göstermektedir. Ayrıca, cinsiyetten bağımsız olarak taktik ve düzenleyici odak arasındaki salt uyum, uyumlu bir davranış olan iş birliğine sebep olmaktadır. Çalışmanın, değişim yönetimi, cinsiyet ve düzenleyici odak literatürlerine yaptığı teorik katkılar tartışılmakta ve gelecek araştırmalar için öneriler sunulmaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Stratejik Değişimlerin Uygulaması, Etki Taktikleri, Değişimi Destekleyici Davranışlar, Değişime Hazırlık, Düzenleyici Odak Teorisi, Düzenleyici Uyum, Cinsiyet

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CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION

“People don’t resist change. They resist being changed” (Senge, 2006, P.142)

1.1. Organizational Change Importance

Organizational change is inevitable. Many organizations are positioned in a competitive environment where strategic decisions about new ventures, acquisitions, and change initiatives determine their success. Additionally, environmental elements like globalization, deregulation, and ongoing technological advancements create new conditions in which prior equilibrium skew toward organizations with capability to cope and respond to changes. Therefore, organizations change their strategies, structure, and processes to better fit to ever-changing environmental circumstances (Barney, 1991; Hunft & Morgan,1995). Commitment to status quo leads to organizational inertia and hurts organizational adaptability. Thus, change initiatives are vital for organizational survival and performance.

1.2. The problem statement

Many change efforts fail (Huy, 2002). In general, more than 70% of organizational changes fail (Burke, 2011). Specifically, corporate reengineering changes’ success rate in fortune 500 companies are reported lower than 20% (Strebel, 1996). Schaffer and Thompson

(1992) investigated 300 American Electrical companies for change failure rate and found that 63% of change initiative failed.

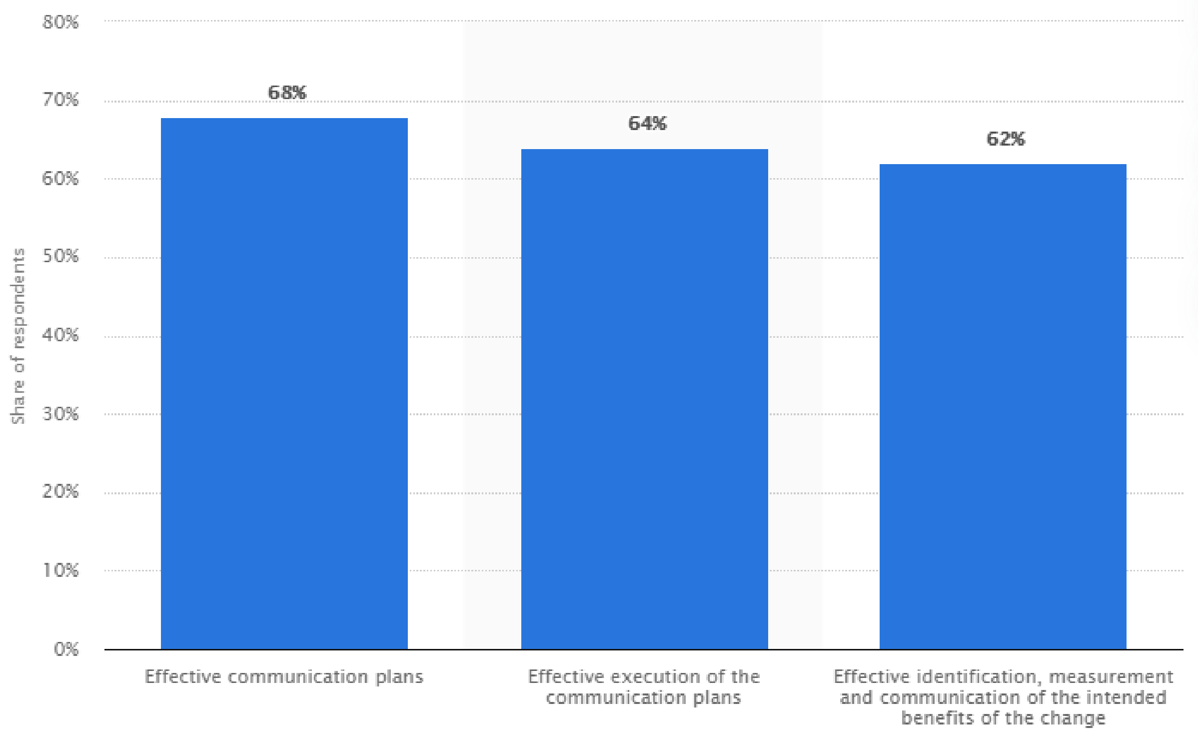
Many studies investigated organizational change failure antecedents and they reported that a vast majority of failures are due to change recipients' resistance to change (Oreg et al., 2011). For instance, employees who are not in favor of the change may attempt to impede the change and/or those who are indifferent to change may foot-drag (Stensaker & Meyer, 2012). Resistance to change is employees' natural reaction because change introduces uncertainty to their life (Worrall et al., 2004).

Unless employees exhibit Change Supportive Behaviors (CSB) — i.e., manifested actions toward a planned change to adapt, participate, and facilitate change (Kim et al., 2011)—change initiatives cannot be implemented successfully (Huy, 2002).

To overcome change resistance and stimulate CSB, middle managers as owners of the change implementation process (Wooldridge et al., 2008) often nurture individual-level change readiness (Holt et al., 2007) to mitigate employee resistance to change (Ford et al., 2008). Change readiness is "the extent to which an individual or individuals are cognitively and emotionally inclined to accept, embrace, and adopt a particular plan to purposefully alter the status quo" (Holt et al., 2007: p.5). Change readiness leads to CSB (Kim et al., 2011; Rafferty & Minbashian, 2019), job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Rafferty et al., 2013).

Effective communication of the change is an important determinant of change initiative success. In a recent survey from worldwide employees, 68% of participants chose effective communication plans as the most important factor in the change success (Figure 1). Middle managers communicate with employees through interpersonal influence tactics to successfully implement the change initiatives (Nutt, 1987). An influence tactic is a "type of behavior used intentionally to influence the attitudes and behavior of another person" (Yukl, 2010: p.170). These tactics enhance employees' change readiness, i.e., make employees ready to act in a way that organization leaders desire (Rafferty et al., 2013). However, the study of influence processes in organizations is still rudimentary (Yukl et al., 2005), and in particular we do not know much about how influence tactics take effect. While majority of prior research investigated influence tactics through concentrating on impression management (e.g., Bolino et al., 2006; Ellis et al., 2002; Higgings & Judge, 2004; Peck & Hogue, 2018; Proost et al., 2010; Rao et al., 1995; Thacker & Wayne, 1995), the research on proactive influence tactics, i.e., efforts that manifested toward persuading a target individual to undertake an action or go through a change (Yukl, 2010), remained rather dormant. Also, there was almost no attempt to investigate when proactive influence tactics result in respective outcome behaviors (Lee et al., 2017; see Lu et al., 2019 for an exception). Previous scholars acknowledged that the relationship between influence tactics and outcomes are rather vague and called for further research (e.g., Higgins et al., 2003; Smith et al., 2013).

Figure 1: Different factors in organizational change success from the view point of employees



Source: (PMI, 2014, p.6)

1.3. Thesis orientation and research question

I identify a lack of theoretical framework that shed light on when influence tactics work. This is an important gap because poorly selected influence tactics particularly in the early phases of a change process can deter employee change readiness, set back their change supportive behavior and eventually lead to failure. For example, the unnecessary use of the pressure tactic and its coupling with incompatible other influence tactics simultaneously (Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993), and the improper use of pressure or legitimating at an initial phase of change (Yukl, Guinan, & Sottolano, 1995) are reported to provoke change resistance (Chong, 2014; Furst & Cable, 2008).

In this study, I develop and empirically test a theoretical framework to explain when influence tactics lead to CSB. This theoretical framework has three facets. First, I posit that different influence tactics should be coordinated with the cognitive and affective components of change readiness to enhance change supportive behaviors. Second, I assert that the association of gender with each change readiness component differs across genders which needs to be considered for effective influence tactics. Previous studies on influence tactics often used gender as a control variable (Smith et al., 2013). Some exceptions focusing on the main effect of gender investigated how male and female managers choose tactics (e.g., Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007; O'Neil, 2004; Smith et al., 2013), but not the effect of tactics across genders. Third, I pose employees' regulatory focus as a determinant of the influence tactics effectiveness. Regulatory focus theory asserts that there are two orientations when attaining a goal: promotion focus, i.e., a desire for growth and advancement and prevention focus, i.e., a desire for vigilance and security (Higgins, 1998). When changes are communicated with proper influence tactics to employees' idiosyncratic regulatory differences, employees will experience a regulatory fit (Higgins et al., 2003) that provokes employees' support toward the change. All in all, the fit among influence tactic, gender and employee regulatory focus is necessary for high change supportive behaviors. Hence, my research question is which influence tactics should be employed to enhance employees' readiness for strategic change taking the individual differences in regulatory foci across genders into account?

This study makes three theoretical contributions. First, I render a theoretical correspondence between influence tactics and change readiness dimensions which adds to proactive influence tactic’s literature. Second, I demonstrate the importance of change readiness dimensions across genders. This adds to change readiness literature since the importance of change readiness dimensions have not discussed across genders. Third, I contribute to regulatory focus theory through discussing and testing the misfit and intensity of fit concepts. The misfit mechanism reveals the negative fit between the influence tactics and regulatory focus which has not taken to consideration in regulatory fit phenomenon. Moreover, the intensity of the regulatory fit adds to the regulatory focus theory through providing a new perspective on comparing the effectiveness of situational stimuli.

CHAPTER 2:

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

2.1. Change Supportive Behaviors

Change supportive behaviors bolster the success rate of the change initiatives (Jimmieson et al., 2009). Planned organizational change consists of managerial endeavors to direct an organization from the current state toward a desired state (Harigopal, 2006; Kim et al., 2011). Unless employees support the planned change, change initiatives are at risk to not see the light of day. Therefore, scholars have theorized about several change related constructs regarding employee attitudes and behaviors towards change, such as change readiness (Armenakis et al., 1993), openness to change (Miller, et al., 1994), commitment to change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002), and CSB (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Openness to organizational change is a similar concept to Lewin's unfreezing phase of the change when employees are recently introduced to the upcoming change and they are in initial stage of learning about undergoing change (Devos et al., 2007). Openness to organizational change is conscious willingness to go with the change spirit and have positive attitude about potential consequences that change will beget (Devos et al., 2007).

Scholars argued that openness to change is an imperative antecedent for successful execution of the change (e.g., Miller et al., 1994).

Commitment to change is arguably one of the crucial factors in change initiatives' success (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Employees' commitment to change works as a glue that bond them to the course of action outlined by the organization through shared values and organizational culture (Jaros, 2010). Yet, there is a hierarchy that differentiate the level of commitment individuals demonstrate toward organizational change as normative commitment, continuous commitment, and affective commitment. Normative commitment is the lowest degree of commitment to change; it is associated with obligation to be committed to the change because of feeling under pressure to support. Continuous commitment associates with the perceived costs of failure in case of not being committed to the change. Affective commitment corresponds with individual's genuine desire to be committed to the change (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Among these multitude of factors, CSB are arguably of primary importance because they represent the actual behaviors that help the change initiative materialize (Kim et al., 2011). CSB underpin the success of numerous types of planned changes including strategic change (e.g., Jansen, 2004), quality initiatives (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro, 1999), and building relocation (e.g., Peach et al., 2005).

CSB has first operationalized by a continuum of behaviors starting from lowest level as active resistance to the highest degree, championing. This continuum is a 101 points with twenty-point increment for each behavior (Kim et al., 2011). Some scholars argued that using this continuum is favorable to evaluate CSB because it gives employees a real sense of difference among outlined behaviors (e.g., Coyle-Shapiro, 1999).

CSB have three dimensions which are categorized by the degree of support individuals demonstrate toward change as *Compliance*, *Cooperation*, and *Championing.* Compliance is showing minimal support for a change by simply going along with it while being reluctant. Cooperation is exhibiting support for change along demonstrating effort in harmony with the change spirit. Championing is displaying enthusiasm for a change by going beyond what is formally expected, and proactively disseminating the change message while promoting it to ensure that the change will be successfully carried out. While compliance and cooperation are associated with adaptive engagement with change, championing is proactive participation by going beyond formal expectations (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002).

Many studies investigated antecedents of CSB. Iverson (1996) argued that the quality of relationship at work enhances the organizational commitment and leads to CSB. Coyle-Shapiro (1999) discussed the role of perceiving personal benefits in employees' support toward the change. Jansen (2004) found that participating in decision-making processes has a great impact on CSB. Among these multitude of antecedents change readiness is arguably the most proximal antecedent of CSB (Rafferty and Minbashian, 2019).

2.2. Change Readiness

Attitudes, defined as stable tendencies, dispositions or orientations towards focal objects

(Ilies & Judge, 2004), are central in driving behavior (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1977). An attitude germane to CSB is change readiness (Rafferty and Minbashian, 2019). Change Readiness (CR) similar to all attitude constructs has both cognitive and affective dimensions. Affective CR is described as having positive emotions like joy and interest to a specific change (Rafferty & Minbashian, 2019), whereas cognitive CR has five distinct sub-dimensions: (1) *Discrepancy*; an individual's belief that the change is based on a need and there are rational reasons for implementing change (Holt et al., 2007), (2) *Appropriateness*; an individual's belief that the particular change is the right thing to do in the form of most appropriate response regarding an organizational issue (Armenakis et al., 2007; Morin et al., 2016), (3) *Change self-efficacy*; an individual's confidence that he/she has the necessary skills and capability to carry out the change initiative (Armenakis & Harris, 2002), (4) *Principal support*; an individual's belief that organizational leaders and managers along peers support the change initiative and are committed to change implementation (Rafferty & Minbashian, 2019), (5) *Personal Valence*; an individual's belief that change is personally advantageous and will yield to positive consequences for oneself (Yuan & Woodman, 2007).

Prior studies distinguished among dimensions of change readiness (Armenakis et al., 2007; Morin et al., 2016; Rafferty & Minbashian, 2019) but had not studied the importance and relevance of each dimension for different individuals. Individuals are different in personality characteristics, motivational inclinations, and demographic attributes. I theorize how the importance of CR dimensions differ across individuals. To this extent, I aim to investigate the importance of each component across relevant variables with respect to proposed theoretical framework.

2.3. Interpersonal Influence Tactics

Influence is convincing others to implement a task or hold an opinion that they are not inclined to do otherwise (Mowday, 1978). In its general form, in many situations we try to influence others to persuade them in doing a task that they might not have the propensity to carry out. For example, teachers use different means to influence students to do their assignments, health experts influence the society to adopt a healthier life style, and parents influence children to attend their responsibilities.

Influence tactics' literature has a long research tradition (e.g., Hochwarter et al., 2000; Kipins, 1980; Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990; Yukl et al., 2005), since Goffman's (1955) seminal study about how we influence others through self-image. Scholars categorized influence tactics in several ways, for instance with respect to the purpose of the tactic such as task oriented, relationship oriented, and change oriented (Yukl et al., 2002), deployment time-span of the tactic such as initiation or follow ups (e.g., Yukl et al., 1993), direction of the tactic as upward (e.g., Hochwarter et al., 2000; Lu et al, 2019; Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990; Yukl & Tracey, 1992), downward (e.g., Lian & Tui, 2012; Sparrowe et al., 2006), and lateral (e.g., Smith et al., 2013), and distinguishing between proactive tactics (e.g., Yukl et al., 2008), reactive tactics (e.g., Yukl et al., 2003) and political tactics (e.g., Harrell-Cook et al.,1999; Ferris & Judge, 1991; Treadway et al., 2007; Zanzi & O'Neill, 2001), and classifying them as soft, i.e., collaboration tactic, hard, i.e., pressure tactic, and rational, i.e. rational persuasion tactic (e.g., Aiello et al., 2018; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Yukl et al., 1996). A standard scale to capture perceived effectiveness of influence tactics is also developed (Yukl et al., 2008).

Reactive influence tactics used to pushback undesired influence. When an agent implements an influence tactic on a target individual and the target person resists to agree with the request, he/she can use influence tactics in return to show his/her discontent or to ask to moderate the request (Yukl, 2010). Moreover, political influence tactics used to gain power, control the information, and build self-image. These tactics share similar underlying mechanism with proactive influence tactics while having different purpose (Yukl, 2010). Zanzi and O'Neill (2001) distinguished political tactics to sanctioned and non-sanctioned types. Sanctioned political tactics are associated with a constructive behavior toward a legitimate goal such as persuasion to build a favorable image. Non-sanctioned political tactic corresponds with illegitimate behavior with the goal of acquiring more power and control (Zanzi & O'Neill, 2001).

Most of the studies on influence tactics revolved around impression management (e.g., Bolino et al., 2006; Ellis et al., 2002; Higgings & Judge, 2004; Peck & Hogue, 2018; Proost et al., 2010; Rao et al., 1995; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). Scholar studied influence tactics from a wide array of perspectives. The different leadership styles' correspondence with influence tactics (e.g., Charbonneau, 2004; Curtis, 2018; Epitropaki & Martin, 2013; Lian & Tui, 2012), cross cultural differences in perceived effectiveness of tactics (e.g., Fu et al., 2004; Fu & Yukl, 2000; Yukl et al., 2003), effectiveness of using single tactic versus combining them (e.g., Castro et al., 2003; Falbe & Yukl, 1992; Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988;

Lee et al., 2017), leader-member exchange quality and influence tactics (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2013; Furst & Cable, 2008; Lam et al., 2015; Sparrowe et al., 2006; Yukl & Michel, 2006; Yukl et al., 2009), personality traits' role in choosing influence tactics (e.g., Cable & Judge, 2003), and agent characteristics' role in success of influence tactics (Dosier et al., 1988; Schilit, & Locke 1982; Yukl et al., 1996) are explored. The role of gender in using tactics is also widely studied (e.g., Buttner, & McEnally, 1996; Carothers & Allen, 1999; Eagly & Wood, 1982; Guadagno & Cialdini, 2007; O'Neil, 2004; Smith et al., 2013; Tepper et al., 1993), and soft/hard tactics' effectiveness on each gender investigated (e.g., Castro, et al., 2003).

I chose five influence tactics to study considering the purpose, direction and time-span of the tactics. Since the focus of this study is change implementation, I narrow the attention to proactive influence tactics (Yukl et al., 2008). Among the 11 proactive tactics reported in the literature; I select the ones that are most suitable for downward direction considering that planned change is implemented by middle managers at the initiation phase of a change process. This also fits with the theoretical perspective since CR is associated with initiation phase of the change as well. These tactics are rational persuasion, ingratiation, collaboration, inspirational appeal, and apprising (definitions can be found in Table 1) (Yukl & Michel, 2006).

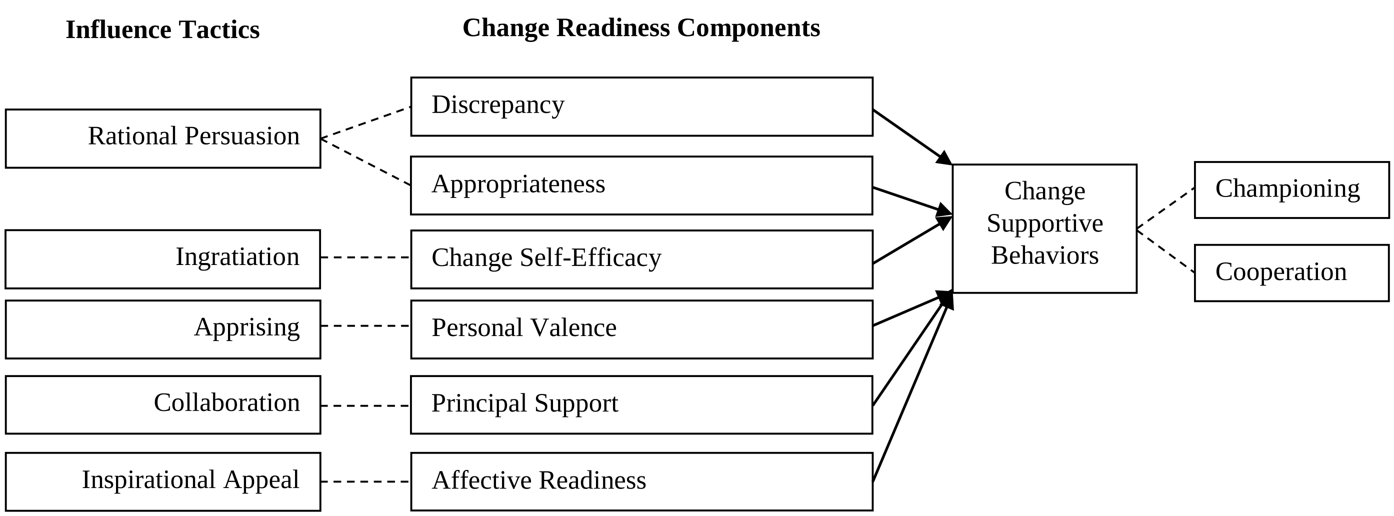
Previous research reported a positive relationship between cognitive and affective dimensions of CR and CSB (Rfferty & Minbashian, 2019). Discrepancy, appropriateness, change self-efficacy, principal support, and positive emotions have positive correlation with both adaptive and proactive CSB. Therefore, I posit that if an influence tactic corresponds with a CR dimension, it will lead to CSB through CR's significant positive relationship with CSB.

Table 1: Influence Tactics' Definitions

Influence Tactic	Definition
Rational persuasion	The use of detailed information in the format of facts and evidence to persuade others that a request is feasible and better than alternatives.
Ingratiation	In the change context, ingratiation is defined as making the target feel especially qualified for carrying out the assigned task. This tactic is implemented by making the person feel important and appreciated.
Collaboration	The agent offers to provide necessary resources and assistance if the target person carries out the request. It involves helping target person to deal with problems caused by implementing the request.
Inspirational Appeal	Making a request or proposal in a way that arouse enthusiasm and commitment by appealing to target individuals' values, ideals, and aspirations.
Apprising	Explaining how carrying out the request has personal benefits for employee and how it leads to target's career advancement

Source: (Yukl, 2010, p. 290)

Figure 2: Correspondence between influence tactics and change readiness components



Note: The dashed lines show the theoretical associations while the solid lines represent the tested relationships.

Rational persuasion tactic is defined as using detailed information in the format of facts and evidence to persuade others that a request is first, feasible (Yukl et al., 2005) and second, better than the alternatives (Yukl, 2010). Rational persuasion frequently used with subordinates and peers (Yukl et al., 2005), and it is recognized as highly effective in attaining target individuals' commitment to a request (e.g., Yukl et al., 1996; Yukl & Tracey, 1992). This tactic is cognitively least demanding tactic to engage in (Epitropaki & Martin, 2013), and has extensively practiced for different objectives such as encouraging employees to take on safety participation (Clarke & Ward 2006), improving subordinates' relationship with their supervisor (Kolodinsky et al. 2007), and coupling with idea enactment to pitch novel ideas to top managers (Lu et al., 2019). Importantly, rational persuasion tactic is significantly related to managerial effectiveness (Lee et al., 2017).

Rational persuasion tactic is usually employed in the initiation phase of a change to set a cornerstone for precedent information (Yukl et al., 1993), and it corresponds with two cognitive components of CR; discrepancy and appropriateness. First, by adopting this influence tactic managers present various kinds of supporting data and logical arguments to explain the existence of a gap between current state and an ideal end-state which associates with discrepancy dimension of CR that is an individual's belief that the change is based on a need and there are rational reasons for implementing change (Holt et al., 2007). Second, through rational persuasion tactic managers provide evidential comparisons between alternative choices which associates with appropriateness dimension of CR which is an individual's belief that the particular change is the right thing to do in the form of most appropriate response regarding an organizational issue (Armenakis et al., 2007).

Ingratiation tactic makes the target person feel especially qualified for carrying out the assigned task (Yukl et al., 2008). This tactic is implemented by making the person feel important and appreciated, and it is used often to assign a new task or obtain assistance. It is also used more frequently in initial influence attempts than in follow-ups because this tactic intends to make the employees more receptive to the change message (Yukl et al., 1995). Ingratiation tactic has a positive relationship with social exchange quality (e.g., Kim et al., 2021), and facilitates employee's socialization with their supervisor (e.g., Gross et al., 2020) which in turn results in gaining high performance ratings (Judge & Bretz, 1994). This tactic's effectiveness has been proven in many contexts (Aguinis et al., 1994) such as when used towards supervisors to increase career success (e.g., Judge & Bretz, 1994) and when used by managers to gain compliance for a request (e.g., Buckle, 2003).

Ingratiation tactic corresponds with change self-efficacy component of CR —an individual's confidence that he/she has the necessary skills and capability to carry out the change initiative (Armenakis & Harris, 2002)— through influencing employee's attitude by explaining that he/she is capable of implementing required tasks (Armenakis & Harris, 2002). Managers use the ingratiation tactic by boosting confidence through emphasizing individuals' special capabilities to carry out the required change (Yukl, 2010). This aims to improve the employees' individual change self-efficacy. Yet, to be successful, this tactic should be used in a delicate manner in order to appear sincere rather than manipulative (Yukl, et al., 2003).

Collaboration tactic is defined as providing necessary resources and assistance for the target person to carry out the change (Yukl, 2010). This tactic corresponds with principal support component of CR which is an individual's belief that organizational leaders and managers along peers support the change initiative and are committed to change implementation (Rafferty & Minbashian, 2019). Collaboration tactic involves helping the person to deal with problems caused by implementing the request (Yukl et al., 1995). Through collaboration tactic managers explain to employees how to do the tasks, provide them with necessary equipment and technical requirements for executing tasks, and offer them help in case of any problem that employees might encounter during the change process (Yukl, 2010). Therefore, collaboration tactic includes managers' personal attempts to help achieve a goal which makes them to appear more supportive (Yukl et al., 2005). This tactic is identified as highly effective in acquiring individuals' commitment to the change (e.g., Charbonneau, 2004).

Inspirational appeal tactic corresponds with affective component of CR that is experiencing positive emotions such as joy and interest toward the change. While both cognition and emotion are antecedents of attitude formation (Abelson et al., 1982; Breckler, 1984; Breckler & Wiggins, 1989), emotions are the most proximal antecedent of attitudes and are important source of variation in readiness for change (Ostrom, 1969). Emotions play an essential role in cognition and decision making (e.g., Forgas, 1995; George, 2000). When people are in a positive mood they tend to hold positive attitudes towards events and evaluate things more favorably and they are more prone to recall positive information (Bower, 1981). Therefore, feelings affect all stages of cognitive processing through recalling information to making the final decision. In the same vein, inspirational appeal tactic is used to harness positive emotional response toward a request (Charbonneau, 2004;

Yukl, 2010).

Inspirational appeal tactic is used for making a request or proposal in a way that arouse enthusiasm and commitment by appealing to target individuals' values, ideals, and aspirations (Yukl et al., 1995). This tactic leads to employees' favorable response to manger's request (e.g., Clarke & Ward, 2006), it has an impact on both structured decision making and group decision-making outcomes (e.g., Jenson, 2007), and it is used to encourage employees to engage in safety participation practices (e.g., Clarke & Ward, 2006). Inspirational appeal is frequently used to stimulate employees' cooperation behavior (Yukl & Falbe, 1990). Also, managers' use of this tactic improves the leader-member exchange quality (Lee et al., 2017), and it associates with charismatic (e.g., Griffith et al., 2015) and transformational leadership styles (e.g., Cable & Judge, 2003).

Apprising tactic is closely associated with the personal valence component of CR which is the belief that change is personally advantageous and will yield to positive consequences for oneself (Yuan & Woodman, 2007). Apprising tactic is used by managers for explaining how carrying out the request has personal benefits for employees, and how it leads to target person's career advancement (Yukl et al., 1995). This tactic includes using facts and logic to explain that described benefits are for the target person rather than for the organization. Apprising tactic yields high impact when managers have a good understanding of employee's needs because they can explain how carrying out the change will satisfy those needs (Yukl, 2010).

2.4. Individual differences and influence tactics

Individual level dispositional and psychological attributes such as personality, self-concept manifestations, hubris, and narcissism play important roles in the process where each possesses direct independent effect on behavior (Gamache et al., 2013). However, the literature suggests that motivational attributes have a strong impact on behavior (e.g., Barrick et al., 2002; Lanaj et al., 2012). An important motivational attribute that distinguishes individuals in goal pursuit situations, such as change implementation, is regulatory focus. Regulatory focus is founded on self-regulation—how individuals align their cognition and emotion to pursue goals (Johnson et al., 2006)—and it states that goals can be pursued either via advancement strategy or vigilance strategy (Higgins, 1998). By the same token, I adopt regulatory focus theory to study influence tactics' interaction with individuals' difference in motivation. Incorporating regulatory focus theory provides a parsimonious yet comprehensive framework to employ influence tactics regarding their targeted end-states.

Moreover, gender difference is an important determinant of influence tactics' effectiveness. Females/males have different construals which means they process the information available to them in a different manner (Roberts, 1991). The information conveyed through selected influence tactics are distinct and they align with unique CR dimensions. Thus, considering the importance of each CR dimension across genders helps to categorize influence tactics based on their effects on males/females.

2.5. Regulatory Focus Theory

Regulatory focus theory posits that goals are approached via two independent foci; promotion focus and prevention focus (Higgins, 1998). This theory is built on the concept of self-regulation which underpins motivations for regulating cognition, affect, and behavior to pursue goals (Johnson et al., 2006). Promotion-focus associates with striving to close the gap between present and desired end-states, whereas prevention-focus is aligned with avoiding undesired end-states (Crowe & Higgins, 1997; Lanaj et al., 2012). Regulatory focus is a dispositional[1] factor and is shaped through relationships and communication patterns between children and their parents (Higgins, 1987).

On the one hand, promotion-focus individuals are sensitive to presence or absence of positive outcomes. They regulate their behaviors based on ideal goals and aspirations that lead them toward advancement and growth (Lanaj et al., 2012). Thus, promotion-focus leads people to maximize gains by adopting eagerness strategy to ensure "hits" (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). On the other hand, prevention focus directs individuals through being keen about presence or absence of negative end-states. This motivation is associated with vigilance strategy, and it is concerned with security and responsibility needs (Lanaj et al., 2012). Hence, prevention-focus leads people to minimize losses through taking necessary precautions by doing "correct rejections" (Crowe & Higgins, 1997).

The "regulatory fit" phenomenon —a mechanism within regulatory focus theory— suggests that individuals' promotion and prevention foci are accentuated when their

[1] Some scholars state that regulatory focus is malleable and can be primed temporarily through situational stimuli such as a message (e.g., Chen Idson & Higgins, 2000).

chronic regulatory focus is in congruence with situational characteristics (Bryant & Dunford, 2008). For instance, stock option pay to CEOs plays a situational-factor role in moderating the relationship between CEOs' regulatory focus and decisions on both quantity and scale of acquisitions (Gamache et al., 2013), coached recipients' positive believes about individual performance accentuated when the orientation of coaching was positive (Sue-Chan et al., 2012), and leaders' prevention focus moderates the relationship between followers' prevention focus and their organizational citizenship behavior (Shin et al., 2017).

Beside the regulatory fit between the means and individual's regulatory focus scholars argued about the regulatory fit between an individual's regulatory focus and the individual whom she/he has interpersonal interaction with. For instance, when a partner who has fitting regulatory focus makes an advice, it will be more effective because interpersonal fit between the two boosts the individual's motivation to pursue the advice and be more receptive (Righetti et al., 2011), and the goal pursuit becomes more pleasant to him/her (Freitas & Higgins, 2002).

A pleasant feeling of rightness emerges as the immediate outcome of regulatory fit, and this feeling is most likely to lead to positive emotions (e.g., Cesario et al., 2004; Higgins et al., 2003), where positive emotions toward a goal drives the intention to action (e.g., Passyn & Sujan, 2006). On the contrary, negative emotions which are raised by divergent patterns of regulatory fit impede behavioral intentions (e.g., Brockner & Higgins, 2001). Additionally, the pleasant feeling of rightness that emerges as the result of regulatory fit boosts self-confidence and increases the individual's engagement in the intended behavior (Aaker & Lee, 2006). Therefore, the decisions under regulatory fit conditions are made more fluently. When individuals experience regulatory fit between a situational factor such as a message and their regulatory focus, their willingness to process the given information increases (Lee & Higgins, 2009).

Drawing on the regulatory fit arguments, I posit that if adopted influence tactic (situational stimulus) be in congruence with an employee's chronic regulatory focus, motivational goal pursuit (approach or avoidance) stemming from regulatory foci will be magnified which in turn will bolster the intention to act in a certain way consistent with chronic regulatory focus. Consequently, a pleasant feeling of rightness from regulatory fit will drive the intention to action on CSB.

2.6. Gender differences

In the majority of past studies that investigated gender differences, two distinct theories of feminism employed to justify the differences in the outcome variable of interest. On the one hand, liberal feminist theory (Giddens, 2017) postulates that all human beings are equal and they act based on rationality and out of self-interest. Differences in psychological traits across genders are not considered inherent rather engendered systematically by the society. Physical differences are regarded peripheral and the main focus is directed toward rationality in which both males and females are assumed to be equal. This theory posits that systematic discrimination has deprived females from benefiting the necessary resources such as business education and various experiences in comparison to males. The striking point in this theory’s assumptions is that if females are given enough resources and treated similar to males, they will enhance their abilities to be more similar to males which results in androgyny. On the other hand, social feminist theory (Fischer et al., 1993) puts forth that males and females inherently differ based on socialization processes from early childhood. Yet, this difference does not put them in a hierarchy because they develop different but equally important characteristics. This theory argues that there are differences in how males/females experience the world around them starting from early childhood which leads to their difference in how they view the world. Thus, both males and females have distinct ways of learning and information processing but both approaches are valid to build and organize the society. According to social feminist theory, androgyny is neither feasible because of cultural differences in human socialization nor desirable since corresponding differences across genders are equally important (Fischer et al., 1993). In line with social feminist theory, distinctions on different dispositional characteristics across genders have investigated. Here we focus on the traits that are most related to this study’s purpose.

In close relation with CR components, there are two main factors that differentiate the genders: self-efficacy and affective intensity. Self-efficacy is "beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments" (Bandura & McClelland, 1977, p. 3). While high self-efficacy is positively associated with many work outcomes such as performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998) and attitude toward job (Saks, 1995), low self-efficacy corresponds with resistance to change and defensive behaviors (Ashforth & Lee, 1990). Self-efficacy has been considered a task-specific construct because of domain-specific differences among individuals (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Thus, I consider change self-efficacy construct which is also a cognitive dimension of CR. Individuals who have high change self-efficacy can go through a change with ease and be more willing to engage in change supportive behaviors (Herold et al., 2007).

While I do not find any empirical studies that specifically compare change self-efficacy across genders, prior scholars report differences in self-confidence across genders, a central concept that the self-efficacy is rooted in (McCormick, 2001). Self-efficacy is determined by several factors such as experience (e.g., Zhao et al., 2005), feedback on the performance (e.g., Dimotakis et al., 2017), modeling other's behavior (e.g., Eden & Aviram, 1993), and verbal persuasion (Eden & Kinnar, 1991).

Females/males differ in self-efficacy formation stemming from the difference in their construals. Males and females have different evaluation of the information available to them, i.e., females value the feedback on their ability more than males while males might not take this information sincere (Roberts, 1991). Thus, self-efficacy is less malleable by interpersonal influence for males than females which makes females more susceptible to the feedback on their abilities than males (Lenny, 1977). Respectively, several empirical studies illustrated that when both males and females conduct a task for the first time and before any prior assessment of their abilities, males reported higher self-confidence than females. However, after presenting positive feedback on their performance, females' self-confidence increased more than males (e.g., Feather & Simon, 1971; McMahan, 1973). Even in some cases females reported significantly higher self-confidence than males after the positive performance feedback (e.g., House & Perney, 1974).

Positive feedback is not only effective to boost self-efficacy for females but also it is necessary to build self-confidence (Lenney, 1977). Many studies argued that females possess lower self-confidence than males regarding the majority of tasks such as negotiation for their salary (e.g., Stevens et al., 1993) and entrepreneurial activities (e.g., Gatewood et al., 2002; Kirkwood, 2009). These studies approached to the deficiency between genders by suggesting proper empowerment programs to promote similar desirable outcome for both genders (e.g., Stevens et al., 1993). However, it is discussed that self-confidence belief is held differently for females than males in a way that for females, self-confidence is highly situational, and it relies on several factors such as the nature of the task, availability of performance feedback, and competition (Lenny, 1977). Several empirical studies confirmed this argument in different contexts (e.g., McCarty, 1986; Roberts & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1989) and illustrated that females should have clear information about the match between their intrinsic abilities and extrinsic task-specific requirements (Roberts, 1991).

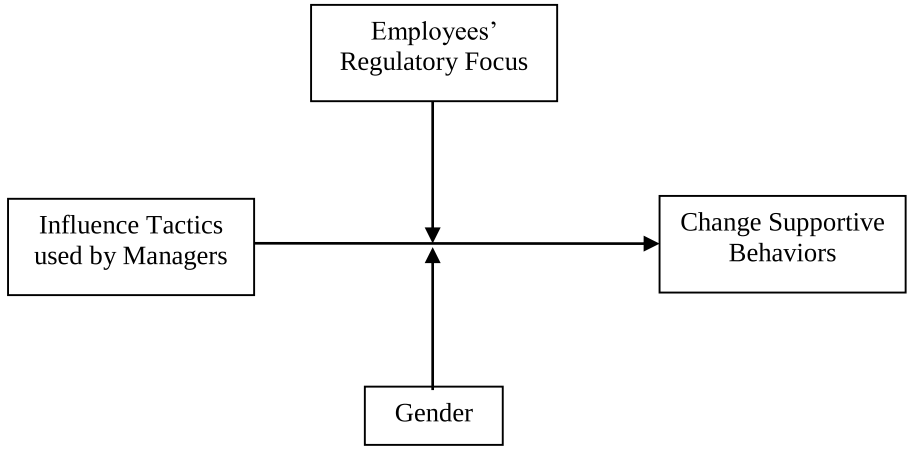
An important situational factor that is perceived differently across genders is affective intensity towards emotional cues. Females experience emotions more frequently (e.g., Barrett, 1998), have more intense emotional experiences (Fisher & Dubé, 2005), and place more value in emotional insights than males do (e.g., Dube´ and Morgan, 1998). Importantly, females have more vivid emotional experiences (Barrett et al., 2000), and are more reactive to emotional stimulus than males (e.g., Bradley et al., 2001).

Additionally, females have higher affective intensity than males which means they experience both positive and negative emotions such as joy and sadness with higher intensity than males do (e.g., Fujita et al., 1991). Laboratory experiments through brain imaging approach also confirm these deficiencies between genders (e.g., Domes et al., 2010). To this extent, when the same emotional stimulus presented irrespective of the emotion, individuals who are higher in affective intensity will manifest stronger response to the stimulus than others (Fisher & Dubé, 2005).

2.7. The regulatory fit between influence tactics and regulatory foci across genders

In this section I examine the fit between influence tactics, regulatory focus, and gender. To this aim, I illustrate the regulatory fit between selected influence tactics and regulatory foci. Moreover, I demonstrate the importance of CR components across genders. Consequently, first I posit that the mere regulatory fit between selected influence tactics and regulatory focus irrespective of gender yield cooperation which is an adaptive behavior in harmony with the change spirit. Second, I argue that if selected influence tactic fit with both regulatory focus and gender-specific CR dimension, the selected influence tactic yield championing—proactive change support through going beyond formal expectations—for promotion-focus individuals and cooperation for prevention-focus individuals.

Figure 3
Conceptual model



Most of the proactive influence tactics are inherently promotion-focused because they encourage employees to close the gap between the current state and a positive end-state, i.e., rational persuasion, collaboration, and inspirational appeal. These tactics will interact with individuals' chronic promotion-focus. This interaction—the regulatory fit—accentuates the chronic regulatory focus to direct the goal pursuit with advancement and growth motivation.

Rational persuasion tactic evokes an intrinsic motivation by emphasizing on the need to close the gap between current state and an ideal positive end-state (Yukl et al., 2005) through which encourages advancement strategy that is inherent characteristic of chronic promotion-focus (Crowe & Higgins, 1997). Hence, rational persuasion tactic, as a situational factor, interacts with promotion-focus.

Collaboration tactic is associated with advancement strategy to attain goals because by using this tactic MMs make a commitment to support the change process that leads toward a desired positive end-state. Thus, we expect a regulatory fit between collaboration tactic and employees' promotion-focus. To this extent, as individuals' chronic promotion focus increase, collaboration tactic will yield to higher degrees of CSB.

Inspirational appeal tactic encourages advancement through promoting a vigorous attempt toward an emotionally positive and joyful end-state which is in line with promotion-focus. Thus, inspirational appeal tactic will interact with promotion-focus and we expect a regulatory fit between the two. As individuals' promotion focus increase, the interaction between inspirational appeal tactic and the motivation to attain the portrayed desirable goal by the MMs will increase which in turn will boost individuals' intention to attend in higher levels of CSB.

Yet, ingratiation tactic is neutral in terms of regulatory focus because it focuses on individual's skills to carry out the tasks without concentrating on the end-state. Therefore, ingratiation tactic neither encourages actions toward a positive end-state nor dissociates from a negative end-state. Hence, I expect a regulatory fit between ingratiation tactic and both regulatory foci since promotion-focus individuals will interpret it as a positive stimulus that will lead them to secure hits and lower the risk of non-gains, and for prevention-focus individuals it will lower the risk of losses through assuring that they can go through the change with the capabilities that they already possess (Crowe & Higgins, 1997).

I exclude the compliance dimension from CSB and draw the comparison between cooperation and championing[2]. Without considering the importance of CR components across genders, we cannot expect championing behavior from employees. When influence tactics merely fit with the regulatory focus and not gender-specific CR dimensions, they ignore to convey the crucial information that makes females/males cognitively or emotionally ready to form a positive attitude toward the outlined change. Therefore, the lack of correspondence between the tactic and gender-specific CR dimensions lowers the effectiveness of the influence tactic and yields cooperation than championing.

> *H_1: When an influence tactic fits with an employee's regulatory focus but not with his/her gender, the influence tactic will solely engender cooperation behavior (not championing behavior).*

Change self-efficacy and affective readiness are the primary dimensions of CR for females. Females' change self-efficacy—an individual's confidence that he/she has the necessary skills and capability to carry out the change initiative—is highly contingent on the information about the match between their internal abilities and external tasks (Roberts & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1989). Thus, they are highly keen on the external cues to inquire information to form self-efficacy toward the change (Lenny, 1977). In addition, affective readiness— positive emotions like joy and interest to a specific change—is an important CR dimension for females because they put high value on emotional insights (Dube´ and Morgan, 1998). The existence of positive emotional cues drives females' intention to hold positive attitudes toward a task (Roberts, 1991). Moreover, females have higher affective

[2] While the three dimensions of CSB are conceptually different, prior empirical research failed to find a significant difference between compliance and cooperation dimensions (e.g., Kim et al., 2011). Since cooperation is conceptualized as a stronger adaptive behavior than compliance, I adopt cooperation behavior as the adaptive change supportive behavior and compare it with championing behavior which is more proactive.

intensity than males (Fujita et al., 1991). Hence, change self-efficacy and affective readiness are the most important CR dimensions for females.

Ingratiation and inspirational appeal are the most effective tactics for females. Ingratiation tactic which makes the target person feel especially qualified for carrying out the assigned task corresponds with change self-efficacy dimension of CR. In addition, inspirational appeal tactic which is used for making a request or proposal in a way that arouse enthusiasm and commitment by appealing to target individuals' aspirations corresponds with affective readiness dimension of CR. Through their correspondence with female-specific CR dimensions, ingratiation tactic and inspirational appeal tactic induce higher effect on females than males.

Discrepancy, appropriateness, and principal support are the primary dimensions of CR for males. Discrepancy which is an individual's belief that the change is based on the existence of a gap is intrinsically motivating for males to strive to fill the gap (Roberts, 1991). Additionally, the appropriateness, i.e., an individual's belief that the particular change is the most appropriate option, and principal support, i.e., an individual's belief that organizational leaders and managers along peers support the change, are closely related to discrepancy dimension since they address the best possible option to handle the discrepancy and provide essential supports to act upon it, respectively.

Rational persuasion and collaboration tactics are the most effective tactics for males. Rational persuasion tactic which is using detailed information in the format of facts and evidence to persuade others about necessity and appropriateness of the change corresponds with discrepancy and appropriateness dimensions of CR, respectively. Additionally, collaboration tactic which is providing necessary resources and assistance for the target person to carry out the change corresponds with principal support dimension of CR. Through their correspondence with male-specific CR dimensions, rational persuasion tactic and collaboration tactic induce higher effect on males than females.

Based on outlined differences, I hypothesize if the selected influence tactic corresponds with gender-specific CR dimensions and has a regulatory fit with promotion focus, we can expect championing behavior because individuals in promotion focus have advancement motivation. Yet, if the regulatory fit happens with prevention focus, the outcome behavior will be cooperation since prevention-focus individuals self-regulate by vigilance motivation which makes them more cautious on goal pursuit.

> *H_2: When an influence tactic fits with an employee's promotion-focus and gender, it will engender championing behavior.*
>
> *H_3: When an influence tactic fits with an employee's prevention-focus and gender, it will engender cooperation behavior.*

Although some might correlate the intensity of promotion-focus to propensity for engaging in higher degrees of support for change, it is a cursory deduction to make that there is a cause and effect relationship between the two. Without any information about the change and situational cues it is highly unlikely to hold any positive/negative attitudes toward it (Ajzen, & Fishbein, 1977), and without a related stimulus, it is not likely to form an intention to act in a certain way. Therefore, in order to delimitate this study, I hypothesize that being merely high/low in chronic regulatory foci in absence of a related influence tactic does not yield any change supportive behavior.

> *H_4: There will not be a significant positive/negative relationship between regulatory foci and CSB.*

With this hypothesis I also reiterate the delicacy and importance of influence tactics' correspondence with CR components and reinforce the statement that when an unrelated influence tactic is used, we will not get any support from employees in any level. To confirm this statement, we need to present an unrelated influence tactic to a control group. I choose apprising tactic as a control influence tactic because unless we know about individuals' needs (promotion, advancement, security, etc.) which are unknown to us we cannot properly align apprising tactic with those needs. Thus, apprising tactic is the right tactic to adopt for control group.

CHAPTER 3:

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research design, participants and procedures

I employed a factorial experiment to operationalize a strategic change scenario with 5 different influence tactics in correspondence with affective and cognitive components of CR. Our participants were 514 undergraduate and graduate students from Sabancı and Bilkent Universities. Both Universities are located in major cities of Turkey (Istanbul and Ankara, respectively) hosting national and international students. Fifty-two percent of the participants were female. Participants were 24 years old on average and were from different departments including Natural Sciences and Engineering (35.1%), Art and Social Sciences (23.2%), and Business (41.7%). The participation in the survey was voluntarily and participants' electronic consent collected at the beginning of the survey. Also, undergraduate students rewarded with partial course credit to complete the survey.

The scripts for strategic change scenario and influence tactics (experimental stimulus) are developed with respect to influence tactics' definitions accompanied by borrowing from prior change scenarios used in the change management literature (e.g, Helpap & Bekmeier-Feuerhahn, 2016). I pilot tested the scripts with employees that have experienced at least one strategic change event last year and revised the scripts accordingly. The final scripts are checked by three expert scholars for their content and face validity (Appendix A).

Participants were randomly assigned to one of the 5 groups where an influence tactic in the format of a message from their manager presented to them. I collected participants' responses on regulatory focus after demographics and before control variables to create a delay after regulatory focus items. This was to safeguard against inadvertent priming any promotion/prevention focus motivation with the regulatory focus questionnaire items. By setting a time delay, this approach reduces the retrieval cues bias related to regulatory focus items (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

I took additional precautionary measures to offset the common method bias (MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). I disseminated generic survey link through mail and reduced the social desirability bias by emphasizing on the anonymity and confidentiality of the survey (e.g., Ateş et al., 2020). Clear and straightforward directions guided respondents throughout the entire survey to increase the response accuracy. In addition, I explained that there are no right or wrong answers to alleviate the evaluation apprehension (Podsakoff et al., 2003). To remedy the consistency bias, I measured the independent variable first and dependent variables the last (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

I removed 13 partial responses from the sample. I also dropped 48 responses who finished the survey very early (i.e., less than half of the mean survey time) to eliminate inattentive responses (e.g., Rafferty & Minbashian, 2019). I checked for outliers using three methods: Mahalanobis distance (Cutoff point = 22.46), Coock's distance (Cutoff point = 0.0134), and Centered Leverage Value method (Cutoff point = 0.03) that all together revealed 6 outliers which I removed from the dataset. Hence, the final data set consists of 447 respondents.

3.2. Measurement

I used a 5-point Likert scale for all measures ranging from 1(strongly disagree) to 5(strongly agree). Items coded such that higher numbers indicated higher levels of the construct. All the measurement items can be found in the Appendix B.

Regulatory focus measured by 18 survey items (Lokwood et al., 2002): 9 for prevention-focus (Cronbach alpha = 0.77) and 9 for promotion-focus (Cronbach alpha = 0.83). Sample items include "In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life" and "I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future", respectively.

Change Supportive Behaviors measured by 14 survey items (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002): 8 for Cooperation (Cronbach alpha = 0.76) and 6 for Championing (Cronbach alpha = 0.83). Sample items include "I will work toward this change consistently" and "I will encourage the participation of others in this change", respectively.

3.3. Control Variables

Beside demographic variables, I controlled for openness to experience and change self-efficacy prior to presenting the experimental stimulus. Openness to experience have significant effect on the change processes and change readiness (Stevens, 2013), and change self-efficacy has significantly positive relationship with CSB (Rafferty & Minbashian, 2019). *Openness to Experience* measured by 10 survey items (Ashton & Lee, 2009). Sample items include "I'm interested in learning about the history and politics of other countries" and "I like people who have unconventional views" (Cronbach alpha = .72). *Change self-efficacy* measured by 3 survey items (Herold et al., 2007). Sample items include "I believe I can deal with most any change to which I set my mind" (Cronbach alpha = .83).

3.4. Analysis

To test our hypotheses, I employed a 5×2×2 mixed-factorial design. Factorial design enables us to investigate the interaction effect between independent variables. Specifically, I look for higher order interaction affects (3-way interactions) rather than direct affects because CSB is theorized to be related to the influence tactic's interaction with gender with respect to changes in each regulatory focus. First factor is *influence tactic* that has the 5 categories that I actively manipulated. The second factor is *regulatory focus* which has 2 dimensions (promotion-focus and prevention-focus) and it is a continuous variable measured by standard scale. The third factor is *gender* with two levels (male and female). Thus, Influence Tactic is a between subject variable and both regulatory focus and gender are within subject variables.

Because regulatory focus is a continuous variable, instead of using Factorial ANOVA analysis which is usually employed to test the variance in factorial designs, I implement multiple regression on two dimensions of CSB for each cell. Therefore, instead of creating 20 cells (5×2×2), I exclude regulatory focus factor and regress it on CSB dimensions within each cell and create 10 cells (5×2). This approach empowers us to check for the *regulatory fit* between influence tactics and promotion/prevention focus regarding gender differences because, with the continuous change in regulatory foci, I can detect the regulatory fit effect which is indicated by the standardized beta weight. I can also compare the intensity of fit on each behavior across cells. With respect to theoretical framework and correlation table (Table 3), I controlled for the effects of confounding variables such as age, work experience, study major, change self-efficacy, and openness to experience by stepwise including them in the regression model.

It is crucial to notice that although we can divide individuals based on their dominant regulatory focus to prevention-oriented or promotion-oriented as some previous studies did (e.g., Lokwood et al., 2002; Zhao & Pechmann, 2007), it is not advisable to do so in many cases because first, this approach is methodologically questionable and second, by doing so we lose important information on individuals' outcome behavior regarding the changes in chronic regulatory foci.

About methodological flaw in this approach, one should first answer to this question that is vigilance motivation (prevention-focus) 180 degrees opposite of advancement and growth motivation (promotion-focus)? If not, we cannot subtract these two dimensions. To shed light on the matter, let's map each regulatory focus dimension on a motivational arrow that drives the behavior. Accordingly, we have two arrows that we know for sure are not in the same direction because they are targeting different end-states and these arrows might differ in length because the intensity of each dimension might differ for each person. Now, to subtract these two arrows one should know the exact angle between them and this angle is neither calculable nor likely to be the same for each person. Thus, the subtraction will give us a faulty output. Also, one might argue that both dimensions are motivation and share a common type, however, is the cognitive point of impact the same for these two dimensions? If not, then subtraction is meaningless.

Second, let's imagine that 0.3 is the median of the promotion-focus subtraction from prevention-focus and we categorize individuals under this score as prevention-focus dominant and above it as promotion-focus dominant ranging from -3.6 to 4 (numbers are based on real data from present study). If two individuals score above 0.3, they are both identified as promotion-focus dominant without any discrimination on how much their scores differ; one could score 4 and another 0.4.

Third, two individuals with different scores on each dimension can score the same on dominant regulatory focus; first participant scores 5 in promotion-focus and 3 on prevention-focus and gets 2 in dominant regulatory focus, and second participant scores 4 in promotion-focus and 2 in prevention-focus and gets 2 in dominant regulatory focus too. Thus, dominant regulatory focus treats them the same.

Forth, this idea that these two dimensions are opposite of each other might have stemmed from misinterpreting their description that promotion-focus is trying to close the gap between current state and ideal positive end-state, and prevention-focus is trying to increase the gap between current state and negative end-state. However, by careful attention, they are neither in the same direction nor in the opposite direction, but, their end state differs. Thus, the gap is not the same for them.

Hence, it is important to be aware that regulatory focus is a continuous construct with two dimensions and if an individual scores low in one dimension does not necessarily means that he/she should have high score in other dimension or vice versa because by definition there is no correlation between these two dimensions. To this end, this method which is prevalent in many studies is not backed by the Regulatory focus theory (Higgins, 1998), therefore, not sound. Accordingly, while designing a research study and carrying out the analyses, researchers should be aware of this issue to choose appropriate tests and prevent from inadvertent elimination of important insights related to the changes in the regulatory foci. Consequently, in most cases including the present study we should not treat regulatory focus construct as a categorical variable with two levels.

CHAPTER 4:

FINDINGS

Before testing the hypotheses, I carried out manipulation checks. The results illustrate that all the manipulations are valid. Accordingly, rational persuasion tactic ($F(4,324) = 11.09$, $p < 0.001$), ingratiation tactic ($F(4,324) = 38.2$, $p < 0.001$), apprising tactic ($F(4,324) = 41.76$, $p < 0.001$), collaboration tactic ($F(4,324) = 28.22$, $p < 0.001$), and inspirational appeal tactic ($F(4,324) = 16.9$, $p < 0.001$) are perceived significantly different in their respective group than other tactics, and the mean response for each influence tactic in its allocated group is higher than other tactics.

4.1. Manipulation Check for Inspirational Appeal Tactic

In accordance with Table 3 and Table 4, there is a significant difference between Inspirational Appeal Tactic and Rational Persuasion Tactic ($p < 0.001$), Ingratiation Tactic ($p = 0.004$), Apprising Tactic ($p = 0.023$), and collaboration Tactic ($p < 0.001$). Moreover, Table 2 demonstrates that the mean value for Inspirational Appeal Tactic ($M = 3.72$, $SD =$

0.647) is significantly higher than the mean value for Rational Persuasion Tactic (*M* = 2.74, *SD* = 1.036), Ingratiation Tactic (*M* = 3.23, *SD* = 0.944), Apprising Tactic (*M* = 3.33, *SD* =0.798), and Collaboration Tactic (*M* = 2.58, *SD* = 1.014).

Table 2: Descriptives

					95% Confidence Interval for Mean			
	N	Mean	S.D	S.E	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Rational Persuasion	58	2.74	1.036	.136	2.47	3.01	1	5
Ingratiation	71	3.23	.944	.112	3.00	3.45	1	5
Apprising	64	3.33	.798	.100	3.13	3.53	1	5
Collaboration	65	2.58	1.014	.126	2.33	2.84	1	5
Inspirational Appeal	67	3.72	.647	.079	3.56	3.87	2	5
Total	325	3.13	.980	.054	3.03	3.24	1	5

Table 3: ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	54.290	4	13.572	16.898	.000
Within Groups	257.021	320	.803		
Total	311.311	324			

Table 4: Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Mean response to Inspirational Appeal Tactic's manipulation questionnaire

					95% Confidence Interval	
(I) Tactics	(J) Tactics	Mean Difference (I-J)	S.E	Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Inspirational Appeal	Rational Persuasion	.975*	.157	.000	.54	1.41
	Ingratiation	.491*	.137	.004	.11	.87
	Apprising	388*	.127	.023	.04	.74
	Collaboration	1.132*	.149	.000	.72	1.54

Notes: * $p < 0.05$.

4.2. Manipulation Check for Collaboration Tactic

In accordance with Table 6 and Table 7, there is a significant difference between Collaboration Tactic and Rational Persuasion Tactic ($p < 0.001$), Ingratiation Tactic ($p < 0.001$), Apprising Tactic ($p < 0.001$), and Inspirational Appeal ($p < 0.001$). Moreover, Table 5 demonstrates that the mean value for Collaboration Tactic ($M = 4.26$, $SD = 0.691$) is significantly higher than the mean value for Rational Persuasion Tactic ($M = 2.95$, $SD = 0.981$), Ingratiation Tactic ($M = 2.66$, $SD = 1.082$), Apprising Tactic ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.006$), and Inspirational Appeal Tactic ($M = 2.79$, $SD = 1.081$).

Table 5: Descriptives

	N	Mean	S.D	S.E	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Rational Persuasion	58	2.95	.981	.129	2.69	3.21	1	5
Ingratiation	71	2.66	1.082	.128	2.41	2.92	1	5
Apprising	64	3.06	1.006	.126	2.81	3.31	1	5
Collaboration	65	4.26	.691	.086	4.09	4.43	3	5
Inspirational Appeal	67	2.79	1.081	.132	2.53	3.05	1	5
Total	325	3.14	1.134	.063	3.01	3.26	1	5

Table 6: ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	108.659	4	27.165	28.213	.000
Within Groups	308.111	320	.963		
Total	416.769	324			

Table 7: Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Mean response to Collaboration Tactic's manipulation questionnaire

(I) Tactics	(J) Tactics	Mean Difference (I-J)	S.E	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Collaboration	Rational Persuasion	1.313*	.155	.000	.88	1.74
	Ingratiation	1.600*	.154	.000	1.17	2.03
	Apprising	1.199*	.152	.000	.78	1.62
	Inspirational Appeal	1.470*	.157	.000	1.03	1.91

Notes: * $p < 0.05$.

4.3. Manipulation Check for Apprising Tactic

In accordance with Table 9 and Table 10, there is a significant difference between Apprising Tactic and Rational Persuasion Tactic ($p < 0.001$), Ingratiation Tactic ($p < 0.001$), Collaboration Tactic ($p < 0.001$), and Inspirational Appeal Tactic ($p < 0.001$). Moreover, Table 8 demonstrates that the mean value for Collaboration Tactic ($M = 4.34$, $SD = 0.672$) is significantly higher than the mean value for Rational Persuasion Tactic ($M = 2.55$, $SD = 1.062$), Ingratiation Tactic ($M = 2.68$, $SD = 0.997$), Collaboration Tactic ($M = 2.51$, $SD = 1.048$), and Inspirational Appeal Tactic ($M = 2.87$, $SD = 0.936$).

Table 8: Descriptives

	N	Mean	S.D	S.E	95% Confidence Interval		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Rational Persuasion	58	2.55	1.062	.140	2.27	2.83	1	4
Ingratiation	71	2.68	.997	.118	2.44	2.91	1	4
Apprising	64	4.34	.672	.084	4.18	4.51	2	5
Collaboration	65	2.51	1.048	.130	2.25	2.77	1	5
Inspirational Appeal	67	2.87	.936	.114	2.64	3.09	1	4
Total	325	2.99	1.168	.065	2.86	3.12	1	5

Table 9: ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	151.582	4	37.895	41.763	.000
Within Groups	290.369	320	.907		
Total	441.951	324			

Table 10: Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Mean response to Apprising Tactic's manipulation questionnaire

(I) Tactics	(J) Tactics	Mean Difference (I-J)	S.E	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Apprising	Rational Persuasion	1.792*	.163	.000	1.34	2.24
	Ingratiation	1.668*	.145	.000	1.27	2.07
	Collaboration	1.836*	.155	.000	1.41	2.27
	Inspirational Appeal	1.478*	.142	.000	1.09	1.87

Notes: * $p< 0.05$.

4.4. Manipulation Check for Ingratiation Tactic

In accordance with Table 12 and Table 13, there is a significant difference between Ingratiation Tactic and Rational Persuasion Tactic ($p < 0.001$), Apprising Tactic ($p < 0.001$), Collaboration Tactic ($p < 0.001$), and Inspirational Appeal Tactic ($p < 0.001$). Moreover, Table 11 demonstrates that the mean value for Ingratiation Tactic ($M = 4.13$, $SD = 0.608$) is significantly higher than the mean value for Rational Persuasion Tactic ($M = 2.50$, $SD = 1.128$), Apprising Tactic ($M = 2.67$, $SD = 0.960$), Collaboration Tactic ($M = 2.58$, $SD = 0.917$), and Inspirational Appeal Tactic ($M = 3.21$, $SD = .880$).

Table 11: Descriptives

	N	Mean	S.D	S.E	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Rational Persuasion	58	2.50	1.128	.148	2.20	2.80	1	4
Ingratiation	71	4.13	.608	.072	3.98	4.27	2	5
Apprising	64	2.67	.960	.120	2.43	2.91	1	5
Collaboration	65	2.58	.917	.114	2.36	2.81	1	4
Inspirational Appeal	67	3.21	.880	.107	2.99	3.42	1	5
Total	325	3.05	1.092	.061	2.93	3.17	1	5

Table 12: ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	124.783	4	31.196	38.200	.000
Within Groups	261.328	320	.817		
Total	386.111	324			

Table 13

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Mean response to Ingratiation Tactic's manipulation questionnaire

(I) Tactics	(J) Tactics	Mean Difference (I-J)	S.E	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Ingratiation	Rational Persuasion	1.627*	.165	.000	1.17	2.09
	Apprising	1.455*	.140	.000	1.07	1.84
	Collaboration	1.542*	.135	.000	1.17	1.92
	Inspirational Appeal	.918*	.129	.000	.56	1.28

Notes: * $p < 0.05$.

4.5. Manipulation Check for Rational Persuasion Tactic

In accordance with Table 15 and Table 16, there is a significant difference between

Rational Persuasion Tactic and Ingratiation Tactic ($p < 0.001$), Apprising Tactic ($p = 0.016$), Collaboration Tactic ($p < 0.001$), and Inspirational Appeal Tactic ($p < 0.001$). Moreover, Table 14 demonstrates that the mean value for Rational Persuasion Tactic (*M* = 3.95, *SD* = 0.633) is significantly higher than the mean value for Ingratiation Tactic (*M* = 3.30, *SD* = .901), Apprising Tactic (*M* = 3.53, *SD* = 0.816), Collaboration Tactic (*M* = 2.98, *SD* =.910), and Inspirational Appeal Tactic (*M* = 3.34, *SD* = 0.845).

Table 14
Descriptives

					95% Confidence Interval			
	N	Mean	S.D	S.E	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Minimum	Maximum
Rational Persuasion	58	3.95	.633	.083	3.78	4.11	2	5
Ingratiation	71	3.30	.901	.107	3.08	3.51	2	5
Apprising	64	3.53	.816	.102	3.33	3.74	1	5
Collaboration	65	2.98	.910	.113	2.76	3.21	1	5
Inspirational Appeal	67	3.34	.845	.103	3.14	3.55	2	5
Total	325	3.41	.883	.049	3.31	3.50	1	5

Table 15
ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	30.728	4	7.682	11.090	.000
Within Groups	221.660	320	.693		
Total	252.388	324			

Table 16: Multiple Comparisons
Dependent Variable: Mean response to Rational Persuasion Tactic's manipulation questionnaire

(I) Tactics	(J) Tactics	Mean Difference (I-J)	S.E	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Rational Persuasion	Ingratiation	.653*	.135	.000	.28	1.03
	Apprising	.417*	.132	.016	.05	.78
	Collaboration	.964*	.140	.000	.58	1.35
	Inspirational Appeal	.605*	.133	.000	.24	.97

Notes: * $p < 0.05$.

4.6. Between subject variable (influence tactics) analyses

I perform MANOVA test to investigate the difference between influence tactics on each dimension of CSB. Accordingly, based on Table 17, there isn't any significant difference between influence tactics in terms of cooperation (F (4,447) = 0.246, p = 0.912) and championing (F (4,447) = 1.244, p = 0.292). Therefore, we have equifinality for influence tactics on CSB which demonstrates that influence tactics inherently do not have an isolated effect on change supportive behaviors since their effects interact with other factors and these interactions cancel out the direct affects. Thus, to truly unearth influence tactics' difference, we should consider moderating variables such as regulatory focus and gender with respect to the outlined theoretical framework.

Table 17: Tests of Between-Subject Effects
Dependent Variables: Compliance, Cooperation, and Championing behaviors

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	Compliance	.788[a]	4	0.197	0.554	0.696
	Cooperation	.225[b]	4	0.056	0.246	0.912
	Championing	1.534[c]	4	0.383	1.244	0.292
Intercept	Compliance	7041.584	1	7041.584	19814.310	0.000
	Cooperation	6365.367	1	6365.367	27905.483	0.000
	Championing	6662.784	1	6662.784	21609.929	0.000
Influence Tactic	Compliance	0.788	4	0.197	0.554	0.696
	Cooperation	0.225	4	0.056	0.246	0.912
	Championing	1.534	4	0.383	1.244	0.292
Error	Compliance	157.077	442	0.355		
	Cooperation	100.822	442	0.228		
	Championing	136.278	442	0.308		
Total	Compliance	7215.380	447			
	Cooperation	6481.235	447			
	Championing	6808.049	447			
Corrected Total	Compliance	157.866	446			
	Cooperation	101.047	446			
	Championing	137.811	446			

(a) R Squared = .005 (b) R Squared = .002 (c) R Squared = .011

4.7. The relationship between gender and regulatory foci

I run ANOVA test to investigate the relationship between gender and regulatory foci. Tables 19 and 20 illustrate that there is neither a difference across genders for chronic promotion-focus (F (1,447) = 0.032, p = 0.859) nor a difference across genders for chronic prevention-focus (F (1,447) = 3.77, p = 0.053). Thus, we can deduce that being male/female does not necessarily imply that a person is predetermine to be promotion/prevention focus.

Table 18: Descriptives

		N
Gender	male	213
	female	234

Table 19: ANOVA

Dependent Variable: Promotion-focus

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	.009[a]	1	0.009	0.032	0.859
Intercept	7094.016	1	7094.016	24885.338	0.000
Gender	0.009	1	0.009	0.032	0.859
Error	126.855	445	0.285		
Total	7237.325	447			
Corrected Total	126.864	446			

Notes: a. R Squared = .000 (Adjusted R Squared = -.002)

Table 20: ANOVA

Dependent Variable: Prevention-focus

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1.534[a]	1	1.534	3.770	0.053
Intercept	4993.751	1	4993.751	12274.492	0.000
Gender	1.534	1	1.534	3.770	0.053
Error	181.044	445	0.407		
Total	5195.618	447			
Corrected Total	182.577	446			

Notes: a. R Squared = .008 (Adjusted R Squared = .006)

4.8. Change self-efficacy difference across genders prior to presenting influence tactics

Table 21 shows that there is a significant difference for Change Self-Efficacy across genders (F (1,447) = 22.42, p < 0.001). Accordingly, males (M = 3.97, SD = 0.63) have significantly higher Change Self-Efficacy than females (M = 3.65, SD = 0.76) prior to the test.

Table 21: Test of between Subject effects
Dependent Variable: Change Self-Efficacy

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	11.079[a]	1	11.079	22.425	0.000
Intercept	6484.414	1	6484.414	13124.628	0.000
Gender	11.079	1	11.079	22.425	0.000
Error	219.859	445	0.494		
Total	6704.480	447			
Corrected Total	230.938	446			

a. R Squared = .048 (Adjusted R Squared = .046)

Table 22: Mean Comparison
Dependent Variable: Change Self-Efficacy

gender	Mean	N	SD
male	3.9706	213	0.63298
female	3.6553	234	0.76095
Total	3.8055	447	0.71958

4.9. Openness to Experience difference across genders prior to presenting Influence Tactics

Table 23 displays that there is a significant difference for Openness to Experience across genders (F (1,447) = 4.095, p = 0.044). In this regard, females (M = 3.60, SD = 0.55) have significantly higher Openness to Experience than males (M = 3.49, SD = 0.61) prior to the test.

Table 23: Test of between Subject effects
Dependent Variable: Openness to experience

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1.382[a]	1	1.382	4.095	0.044
Intercept	5601.640	1	5601.640	16603.741	0.000
Gender	1.382	1	1.382	4.095	0.044
Error	150.131	445	0.337		
Total	5773.830	447			
Corrected Total	151.512	446			

a. R Squared = .009 (Adjusted R Squared = .007)

Table 24: Mean Comparison

Dependent Variable: Openness to experience

gender	Mean	N	SD
male	3.488	213	0.6104
female	3.600	234	0.5525
Total	3.547	447	0.5828

Table 25 displays the correlation among study variables. There isn't any high correlation among variables except age and work experience ($r = 0.737$, $p < 0.01$) which is expected. This result indicates that we don't have multicollinearity issue. Moreover, Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) were lower than 3 for all the variables. The highest VIF was 2.42 for work experience variable.

Table 25: Correlation among study variables

	M(SD)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Age	24.51(4.98)	1											
2. Gender	1.52(0.5)	-.210**	1										
3. Work Experience	2.45(1.37)	.737**	-.253**	1									
4. Study Major	2.07(0.87)	-.178**	.114*	-.151**	1								
5. Openness to Experience	3.55(0.58)	-0.076	.095*	-0.054	0.036	1							
6. Change Self-Efficacy	3.80(0.72)	.140**	-.219**	.268**	0.090	.144**	1						
7. Prevention-focus	3.35(0.64)	-.173**	0.092	-.189**	0.052	-0.029	-.226**	1					
8. Promotion-focus	3.99(0.53)	-0.002	0.008	.102*	-0.058	.247**	.262**	-0.074	1				
9. Influence Tactics	3.04(1.39)	0.072	-0.059	.102*	-0.074	0.037	0.083	-0.059	-0.015	1			
10. Compliance	3.97(0.59)	.167**	-0.015	.184**	-0.002	0.069	.184**	-0.082	.163**	0.041	1		
11. Cooperation	3.78(0.47)	.174**	-.103*	.244**	0.036	.153**	.360**	-0.082	.296**	0.022	.646**	1	
12. Championing	3.86(0.55)	0.054	-0.043	.105*	0.090	.131**	.323**	-0.052	.303**	-0.030	.549**	.681**	1

Notes. N for all variables is 447 (No missing data).

** p < .05 (2-tailed)*

*** p < .01 (2-tailed)*

4.10. Multivariate Regression on CSB

Table 27 summarizes the regression models on each dimension of CSB. Within each group distinguished by influence tactics and gender a stepwise regression analysis carried out with first adding control variables such as age, work-experience, study major, openness to experience, and change self-efficacy (prior to the experiment) to each regression model and then including main factors: prevention focus and promotion focus. Table 27 highlights several positive and one negative regulatory fit (misfit) between influence tactics and promotion/prevention foci considering gender differences on different CSB dimensions. Since I use standardized coefficients, I can compare the Beta weights across groups on each dimension. I am looking for (1) the regulatory fit, (2) on what behavior the regulatory fit happens, and (3) the intensity of the regulatory fit to compare across groups on each behavior.

Table 26: Descriptives

Influence Tactics	N
Rational Persuasion	81
Ingratiation	91
Apprising	92
Collaboration	93
Inspirational Appeal	90
Total	447

Table 27: Summary of multiple regression on CSB

Entered as (Standardized Beta coefficient) (Sig.[a]) (t-value)

Influence Tactic	Gender	Prevention-focus Cooperation	Prevention-focus Championing	Promotion-focus Cooperation	Promotion-focus Championing
Rational Persuasion	male	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	**.51** (.019) 2.5
	female	N.S.	N.S.	**.34** (.027) 2.3	N.S.
Ingratiation	male	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
	female	**.30** (.048) 2	N.S.	N.S.	**.32** (.035) 2.2
Apprising	male	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
	female	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.
Collaboration	male	N.S.	N.S.	N.S.	**.28** (.032) 2.2
	female	N.S.	N.S.	**.37** (.036) 2.2	N.S.
Inspirational Appeal	male	N.S.	N.S.	**.43** (.032) 2.2	N.S.
	female	N.S.	**-.49** (.007) -2.9	**.38** (.004) 3.1	**.38** (.009) 2.8

Notes: (a) Significance level < 0.05

With regard to hypothesis 4, the control group received an irrelevant influence tactic to their situation (apprising tactic) and as demonstrated in table 27, there is no regulatory fit between this tactic and the regulatory foci on any outcome behavior which proves the validity of hypothesis 4 and eradicates the notion that regulatory foci are directly influencing the outcome behavior.

Consistent with hypothesis 1, whenever there is a fit between the influence tactic and regulatory foci without the fit with gender, the regulatory fit happens on cooperation behavior. Rational persuasion tactic has a regulatory fit with promotion-focus on cooperation behavior for females (β = 0.34, p = 0.027, t = 2.3) which means that rational persuasion tactic will yield cooperation behavior for females who are promotion-focused. To this extend, the fit between rational persuasion tactic and promotion-focus will lead females to go with the harmony of the change and cooperate, and this cooperation has positive linear relationship with promotion-focused female employees' regulatory focus.

Collaboration tactic has a regulatory fit with promotion-focus on cooperation behavior for females (β = 0.37, p = 0.036, t = 2.2). Therefore, females who are promotion-focused will demonstrate cooperation behavior whenever the collaboration tactic is employed to convey the change message. To this extent, there is a significantly positive relationship between female employees' promotion-focus and their intention to cooperate with change when collaboration tactic is utilized by the managers.

Inspirational appeal tactic has a regulatory fit with promotion-focus on cooperation behavior for males (β = 0.43, p = 0.032, t = 2.2). Thus, there is a significantly positive relationship between inspirational appeal tactic and promotion-focus males on cooperation behavior. Therefore, as a male employee's promotion-focus increase, the intention to cooperate with change will increase for inspirational appeal tactic.

Yet, I did not find significant outcome for ingratiation tactic and chronic promotion-focus on cooperation behavior for males. As discussed earlier, the ingratiation tactic is neither promotion-oriented nor prevention-oriented. This tactic is solely highlighting the capabilities that a person has to carry out the required change. Moreover, since males do not value the information provided by others on their internal abilities (Bryant & Dunford, 2008), it is highly possible that they ignore the information conveyed through ingratiation. To this end, ingratiation tactic is not an effective tactic for males.

In line with hypothesis 2, when the influence tactic fits with both chronic promotion-focus and gender, the regulatory fit happens on championing behavior. Rational persuasion tactic has a regulatory fit with promotion-focus on championing behavior for males ($\beta = 0.51$, $p = 0.019$, $t = 2.5$). To this extent, rational persuasion tactic has significantly positive relationship with promotion-focus males on championing behavior.

Ingratiation tactic has a regulatory fit with promotion-focus on championing behavior for females ($\beta = 0.32$, $p = 0.035$, $t = 2.2$). Thus, there is a significantly positive relationship between ingratiation tactic and promotion-focus females. To shed light, as female employees' promotion-focus increase their intention to participate in championing behavior goes higher when ingratiation tactic is adopted by managers.

Collaboration tactic has a regulatory fit with promotion-focus on championing behavior for males ($\beta = 0.28$, $p = 0.032$, $t = 2.2$). Therefore, there is a significantly positive relationship between collaboration tactic and employees' promotion-focus on championing behavior. To this extent, as male employees' promotion-focus increase their intention to participate in championing behavior increases when collaboration tactic is utilized by the managers.

Inspirational appeal tactic has a regulatory fit with promotion-focus on championing behavior for females ($\beta = 0.38$, $p = 0.009$, $t = 2.8$). Thus, there is a significantly positive relationship between inspirational appeal tactic and employees' promotion focus on championing behavior; As female employees' promotion focus increases their intention to engage in championing behavior will be heightened when inspirational appeal tactic is adopted by managers.

Finally, I find support for hypothesis 3. Ingratiation tactic has a regulatory fit with chronic prevention-focus on cooperation behavior for females (β = 0.30, p = 0.048, t = 2). Therefore, there is a significantly positive relationship between ingratiation tactic and female employees' prevention focus. As female employees' prevention focus increases their intention to engage in cooperation behavior increase.

CHAPTER 5:

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to propose a theoretical framework to select proactive influence tactics that managers utilize during organizational change. This chapter consists a discussion on main findings apropos influence tactics' literature, regulatory focus theory, and gender theories. Moreover, this chapter exhibits how this study contributes to both theory and practice. In addition, the implications of this study for managers and organizations that plan strategic changes are discussed. And finally, the limitations of the research and suggestions for future studies are outlined. This chapter includes the arguments that help examine the outlined research question: which influence tactics should be employed to enhance employees' readiness for strategic change taking the individual differences in regulatory foci across genders into account?

The proposed regulatory fit mechanism explains the interaction between proactive influence tactics and individuals' regulatory foci, and the gender theories demonstrate the importance of change readiness dimensions across genders. The fundamental part of the proposed theoretical model is the one-to-one correspondence between proactive influence tactics and their respective CR components.

I established a theoretical structure to associate proactive influence tactics with proximal antecedents of change supportive behaviors. By using regulatory focus theory and incorporating gender differences, I outline a theoretical framework to determine the proactive influence tactics for strategic change implementation. Accordingly, I find that rational persuasion and collaboration tactics demonstrate a regulatory fit with promotion-focus males on championing behavior while ingratiation and inspirational appeal tactics have regulatory fit with promotion-focus females on championing behavior. Thus, if managers desire to encourage championing behavior (proactive behavior) for strategic change, they should tailor influence tactics for each individual based on gender and regulatory focus respectively.

I draw a comparison between tactics that illustrate a regulatory fit for each gender with respect to the intensity of fit by comparing the standardized beta weights. Rational persuasion tactic has a higher fit intensity (β = 0.51) than collaboration tactic (β = 0.28) for promotion-focus males on championing behavior. Hence, rational persuasion tactic is the most appropriate tactic to encourage championing behavior for promotion-focus males. Additionally, inspirational appeal tactic (β = 0.38) has marginally higher regulatory fit intensity on championing behavior for females than ingratiation tactic (β = 0.32). Therefore, to draw a robust comparison between these two tactics we should consider secondary benefits that each tactic offers. Inspirational appeal tactic has a regulatory fit on cooperation behavior (β = 0.38) for promotion-focus females while ingratiation tactic has a regulatory fit with prevention-focus females (β = 0.30) on cooperation behavior. Thus, if managers ignore the marginal differences in regulatory fit intensity on championing behavior and desire to influence both promotion-focus and prevention-focus females with one tactic, the most appropriate tactic would be ingratiation.

These findings help to resolve the major problem in influence tactics' literature. Regarding the issue that Chong et al. (2014) and Furst and Cable (2008) pose, improper use of influence tactics provoke resistance to change. Moreover, unreasonable implementation of legitimating tactic on initial stages of the change is reported by several scholars that deter employees' change readiness (e.g., Yukl et al., 1995). Additionally, Yukl et al. (1993) argued that unnecessary use of pressure tactic has negative effect on commitment to the request. Therefore, the criteria that offered in this study helps to distinguish proactive influence tactics in terms of their unique association with attitude sub-dimensions, employees' regulatory focus, and employees' gender. The match between discussed factors lead to proactive behavior which is championing.

5.1. Theoretical Contribution

This study contributes to influence tactics' literature, change management, and regulatory focus theory. The primary contribution of this research is setting a theoretical framework to build a correspondence between proactive influence tactics and change readiness dimensions. I delineate the difference across genders regarding the CR dimensions. I discuss and test the regulatory fit and misfit effects and compare the intensity of regulatory fit across tactics which adds to the regulatory focus theory.

Results reveal the underlying gap in influence tactics' realization which are emerged inductively from real-word practices. In this regard, majority of influence tactics are intrinsically promotion focus. These tactics merely induce regulatory fit with promotion-focus individuals. Thus, we need to develop these tactics in a dichotomous manner to extend their effectiveness in practice.

Regulatory fit is almost always tested in its positive effect where the situational stimulus fits with the chronic regulatory focus and drives the intention to act on a certain behavior in line with the chronic regulatory focus. However, in this study I examine its negative effect stemming from the misfit. I state that misfit happens when the situational stimulus does not agree with the chronic regulatory focus. In this case and if the intensity of misfit drops within the significance threshold, the situational stimulus will hamper the desired behavior and as the intensity of chronic regulatory focus increases, the intention to behave in the desired way will decrease. For instance, results show that there is a misfit ($\beta = -0.49$, $p = 0.007$, $t = -2.9$) between inspirational appeal tactic and prevention-focus females on championing behavior.

5.2. Managerial Implications

Results show that rational persuasion tactic is the most effective tactic to encourage championing behavior for promotion-focus males while collaboration is the second-best option. Ingratiation and inspirational appeal tactics are the first and second most appropriate options for promotion-focus females to encourage championing behavior. Regarding the outlined differences between tactics and their effectiveness for different individuals, managers will have a better understanding of the influence tactics' underlying mechanisms and will have a benchmark to select tactics. Consequently, this realization will facilitate the strategic change implementation. The outlined knowledge about effectiveness of influence tactics will help managers to increase change readiness which in turn will lead to employees' change supportive behaviors. Moreover, managerial training and development programs can incorporate the knowledge on how to implement proactive influence tactics with respect to employees' idiosyncratic differences.

5.3. Limitations and Future Research

Since most influence tactics are not realized in a way to encompass prevention-focus motives, I could not test and differentiate two-sided tactics with respect to regulatory foci. For instance, rational persuasion tactic is used to state evidence and facts to persuade target individuals to close the gap between current state and a desired positive end-state. This tactic is not practiced in a way to use facts to convince target individuals to dissociate them from negative end-state. Thus, rational persuasion tactic is defined in a promotion-oriented manner. Similarly, collaboration tactic, inspirational appeal tactic, and apprising tactic are inherently promotion-oriented tactics. Hence, there won't be a regulatory fit between these tactics and prevention-focus employees. This gap lowers the effectiveness of many influence tactics. I encourage future studies to define prevention-focus tactics and examine their contingency effect to address the gap in influence tactics' literature.

Furthermore, although I explained the theoretical association between apprising tactic and personal valence dimension of change readiness, I could not test its contingency effect on change supportive behaviors. Testing apprising tactic requires the intimate knowledge of each employee's needs which was not plausible to acquire in this study. For instance, some employees might have security needs while others might have promotion and advancement needs. Thus, the quality of relationship between managers and employees are crucial to have an insight on how to tailor apprising tactic for each individual.

The LMX is an important factor which determines the effectiveness of influence tactics. LMX theory that funded on social exchange theory posits that leaders form different types of dyadic relationships with members that can be matured over the time (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Accordingly, Sparrowe et al. (2006) argued that the managerial influence tactics are more effective when leader member exchange quality is high. To this extent, a member might be more inclined to engage in change supportive behaviors when the quality of dyadic relationship between the manager and the employee is stronger. Thus, it would extend both the influence tactics' and CSB literatures to investigate the contingency effect of proactive influence tactics on change supportive behaviors with respect to LMX.

The cultural values and norms have significant impact on how employees perceive influence tactics. Kennedy et al. (2003) investigated the influence tactics' effectiveness across twelve cultures and they found that rational persuasion, consultation, collaboration, and apprising tactics were commonly effective tactics among these nations. Moreover, in a relatively high collectivist culture where also the power distance is high such as Turkey, some influence tactics are reported to be used more frequently than others, i.e., rational persuasion, pressure, and legitimating (Pasa, 2000). I did not investigate the effect of cultural values in this study because my sample consists international students. However, incorporating the important role of culture will make our knowledge regarding the impact of proactive influence tactics on change supportive behaviors more profound.

Influence tactics can be used in a bundle where two or more tactics used in an influence attempt to increase the effectiveness of persuasion. Yet, it demands further studies to compare the different combinations of tactics in bundles and compare their effectiveness with single tactics (e.g., Castro et al., 2003). Future research might incorporate the findings of this study and investigate the effectiveness of the combination of proactive influence tactics that correspond with gender-specific CR dimensions. For instance, inspirational appeal and ingratiation tactics which are the most effective tactics for females can be combined in a single influence attempt, and the CSB levels be compared with the condition when only one of these tactics employed.

Finally, I employed a constructive strategic change (introducing a new integrating software) to capture employees' change supportive behaviors. However, change is not always constructive from the employees' perspective. For instance, in case of downsizing or mergers where the conflict between employees and the organization is high employees might demonstrate more resistance toward the change. Kozlowski et al. (1993) argued that employees might manifest resistance to downsizing in the form of sabotage or absenteeism.

Therefore, I encourage further studies to investigate the fit between influence tactics and regulatory focus across genders when the change is more conflicting and can cause stronger employee resistance.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: CHANGE SCENARIO AND INFLUENCE TACTICS

Change Scenario:

You: You are the **finance officer** at the finance department of the GREEN.CO energy company. You have been working at your current position for 5 years. You report to the Chief Financial Officer.

Your Company: The GREEN.CO is an energy company that manufactures and installs solar panels. It is among the top 10 companies in the industry. The GREEN.CO takes major projects from the government (ministry of energy, municipalities, etc.) and other businesses. So, its current business model is B2B (Business-to-Business).

The Strategic Change: The GREEN.CO realizes that individual customers want solar panels on their roofs more and more, and the market for customer solar panels is growing rapidly. Some competitors had already started selling solar panels for the consumer market. Therefore, the GREEN.CO wants to enter the consumer market as well. So, the company will change their business model from B2B to B2C (Business-to-Customer). This meansGREEN.CO needs to substantially change its business processes.

Your Position in this Change: In this strategic change, your title as a finance officer will not change. But your tasks and work processes will change substantially. To manage the new workflow, you will use a new software that you are not familiar. You will need to learn the financial techniques and the regulations about individual customers, and you will need to develop new skills as well. At the same time, you will manage a higher number of accounts than you used to, and you will control a higher budget. There are both difficulties and opportunities involved in this change.

Influence Tactics:

1. Rational Persuasion tactic:

“GREEN.CO decided to enter the solar panel market for the individual consumers (B2C). The demand for solar panels in the consumer market (B2C) increased by 35 % in the last year, while the demand in the business market (B2B) increased only 0.2 %. Five of our seven major competitors already started selling solar panels in the consumer market. That’s why we decided to enter the consumer market.

This change will have important effects on your job. Your title, as a finance officer, will not change, but your tasks and responsibilities will change. Because you will now deal with individual customers instead of business customers, you will have more accounts.

To handle the increasing number of consumer accounts, you will use a new software to effectively run the processes. This software will reduce the projected overhead costs by 15%. Other companies that use this software experienced similar cost reductions.”

2. Ingratiation tactic:

“GREEN.CO decided to enter the solar panel market for the individual consumers (B2C). This change will have important effects on your job. Your title, as a finance officer, will not change, but your tasks and responsibilities will change. Because you will now deal with individual customers instead of business customers, you will have more accounts.

Regardless of how difficult this change might be; I believe in you. You have always achieved to overcome difficult situations in the past. You are a gifted person, in terms of skills and knowledge, when it comes to dealing with change. You are the only one who has what it takes to make this change a success”

3. Appraising tactic (Control Group):

“GREEN.CO decided to enter the solar panel market for the individual consumers (B2C). This change will have important effects on your job. Your title, as a finance officer, will not change, but your tasks and responsibilities will change. Because you will now deal with individual customers instead of business customers, you will have more accounts.

Regardless of how difficult this change might be, there are many benefits for you. You will be trained to learn the latest trends in consumer finance, which will be valuable in your future career. You will have the chance to meet the experts in this field and improve your professional network. This might be an important opportunity to get a promotion and become the next Chief Financial Officer of the GREEN.CO.”

4. Collaboration tactic:

“GREEN.CO decided to enter the solar panel market for the individual consumers (B2C). This change will have important effects on your job. Your title, as a finance officer, will not change, but your tasks and responsibilities will change. Because you will now deal with individual customers instead of business customers, you will have more accounts.

Regardless of how difficult this change might be, I will make sure that you will be provided all the necessary resources and equipment for this change. I will personally help you to overcome the challenges with your new responsibilities. Whenever you need, I can demonstrate you how to run your new responsibilities as well. Do not ever hesitate to ask for my help”

5. Inspirational Appeal tactic:

“GREEN.CO decided to enter the solar panel market for the individual consumers (B2C). We are doing this change to fulfill our company’s mission – which is to deliver clean energy to society. Going from business customers (B2B) to individual consumers (B2C), we are taking our game to the next level! This will be an exciting and enjoyable experience which we contribute to our vision of leaving a green world to the next generations.

This change will have important effects on your job. Your title, as a finance officer, will not change, but your tasks and responsibilities will change. Because you will now deal with individual customers instead of business customers, you will have more accounts.

Regardless of how difficult this change might be, I believe you will embrace this change and be a part of creating an ideal future!

Appendix B: SCALES

Openness to Experience

1. I would be quite bored by a visit to an art gallery (R).
2. I'm interested in learning about the history and politics of other countries.
3. I would enjoy creating a work of art, such as a novel, a song, or a painting.
4. I think that paying attention to radical ideas is a waste of time (R).
5. If I had the opportunity, I would like to attend a classical music concert.
6. I've never really enjoyed looking through an encyclopedia (R).
7. People have often told me that I have a good imagination.
8. I like people who have unconventional views.
9. I don't think of myself as the artistic or creative type (R).
10. I find it boring to discuss philosophy (R).

Change Self-efficacy

1. I am able to successfully overcome the challenges of change.
2. When facing difficult changes, I am certain that I can deal with them.
3. I believe I can deal with most any change to which I set my mind

Regulatory Focus

Prevention-focus:

1. In general, I am focused on preventing negative events in my life.
2. I often think about the person I am afraid I might become in the future.
3. My major goal in school right now is to avoid becoming an academic failure.
4. I frequently think about how I can prevent failures in my life.
5. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to become the self I "ought" to be—to fulfill my duties, responsibilities, and obligations.
6. I often imagine myself experiencing bad things that I fear might happen to me.
7. I am anxious that I will fall short of my responsibilities and obligations.
8. I often worry that I will fail to accomplish my academic goals.
9. Overall, I am more oriented toward preventing losses than I am toward achieving gains.

Promotion-focus:

1. In general, I am focused on achieving positive outcomes in my life.

2. I often think about the person I would ideally like to be in the future
3. My major goal in school right now is to achieve my academic ambitions.
4. I often think about how I will achieve success in my life.
5. I see myself as someone who is primarily striving to reach my "ideal self"—to fulfill my hopes, wishes, and aspirations.
6. I often imagine myself experiencing good things that I hope will happen to me.
7. I frequently imagine how I will achieve my hopes and aspirations.
8. I typically focus on the success I hope to achieve in the future.
9. Overall, I am more oriented toward achieving success than preventing failure.

<u>Change supportive behaviors</u>

Compliance:

1.I comply with my organization's directives regarding this change

2.I accept the role changes

3.I will adjust the way I do my job as required by this change.

Cooperation:

1. I will work toward this change consistently
2. I will remain optimistic about this change, even in the face of adversity
3. I will avoid former practices, even if they seem easier
4. I will engage in change-related behaviors that seem difficult in the short-term but are likely to have long term benefits
5. I will seek help concerning this change when needed
6. I will not complain about the change
7. I will try to keep myself informed about the change
8. I am tolerant of temporary disruptions and/or ambiguities in my job

Championing:

1. I will encourage the participation of others in this change
2. I will speak positively about the change to coworkers.
3. I will speak positively about the change to outsiders
4. I will try to find ways to overcome change-related difficulties
5. I will persevere with the change to reach goals
6. I will try to overcome my coworkers' resistance toward the change

Manipulation check scales

Rational Persuasion:

1. Uses facts and logic to make a persuasive case for the change.
2. Explains clearly why the proposed change is necessary to attain the objectives.
3. Explains why the proposed change would be practical and cost effective.
4. Provides information or evidence to show that the proposed change is likely to be successful.

Ingratiation tactic:

1. Says you have the special skills or knowledge needed to carry out the change.
2. Praises your past performance or achievements when asking you to do the change.
3. Praises your skill or knowledge when asking you to do the change.
4. Says you are the most qualified person for the change.

Appraising tactic:

1. Explains how this change could help your career.
2. Describes benefits you could gain from doing this change.
3. Explains how the proposed change could help you attain your personal objectives.
4. Explains why the proposed change would be good for you.

Collaboration tactic:

1. Offers to help with the proposed change that your manager wants you to carry out.
2. Offers to provide resources you would need to do the change.
3. Offers to show you how to do a task when you carry out the change.
4. Offers to provide any assistance you would need to carry out the change.

Inspirational Appeal tactic:

1. Says the proposed change is an opportunity to do something really exciting and worthwhile.
2. Describes a clear, inspiring vision of what the proposed change could accomplish.
3. Talks about ideals and values when proposing the change.
4. Makes an inspiring speech or presentation to arouse enthusiasm for the proposed change.