Power and Influence as Determinants of Re-Entry Behaviour

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Abstract
Organisations are hierarchical in nature. The higher you are in the hierarchy, the more powerful you will be to take decisions and influence the work of others. For this reason, managers and those higher up have very important roles to play in the positive transfer of learning. They take decisions on the training event, resources for use, the deployment of skills acquired from training, and the creation of an enabling environment for transfer of Learning. Successful managers were observed as having power and influence in the organisation, and that "he who has influence has power" and vice versa. Interdependence, seen as major feature of modern organisations, requires that the manger should be able to relate successfully with the diverse professional groups and departments in the organisation. Some relationships are that of dependence while others are independent in nature. In spite of the nature of the relationship, managers must strive to work harmoniously with all components, towards the achievement of organisational goals. Several means of acquiring power and influence in the organisation were discussed, but that of Owen (2007) was recommended as being the more comprehensive of all. Appropriately applied to learning transfer, it is hoped the organisational objectives will be easily achieved when training is conducted.
Keywords: Power, Influence, Re-Entry Behaviour

INTRODUCTION

By nature, all organizations are hierarchical. Role incumbents are given authority and responsibility for specific tasks and they in turn are held accountable by others higher up in the hierarchy. The highest decision makers in an organization are the owners/shareholders or stakeholders. For the Public Sector Organizations, it is the government, whether Federal, State or Local. The different duties and tasks performed derive from the vision and mission statements giving rise to the need for supervision; management and control of resources.

In stressing the importance of the universality of the hierarchical Principle, Katz and Kahn (1978) postulated that "authority structure is essential to decision making and its implementation in collectivities". Citing the work of Tannebaum (1974), Katz and Kahn maintained that hierarchies must show "gradients of control, with those at the top of the system exercising more power than the rank and file members". To put it more explicitly, the higher you are in the hierarchy, the more powerful you are.

The implication of this for re-entry behavior and the transfer of learning is enormous. Firstly, the superior officers will dictate what or what not to be learned, when, how and where to receive the skills or knowledge from a training event. Secondly, they also influence how the newly acquired skill or knowledge is deployed. Thirdly, depending on the position in the hierarchy the ability to effect changes derived from new learning will be a function of that position (or power). In other words, it would be easier for the manager at the top of the hierarchy to effect changes much more easily than the subordinate officers after they both have undergone training. It may therefore be safe to say that one of the very important factors to be considered in the positive transfer of learning is the power (or powerlessness) of the training recipients. As an extension of this, we can also say that the one who has power, has influence over others.

Cartwright and Zander (1968) definition indicates that when we talk about influence, "A" may not directly tell "B" to behave in a particular way, but that "B" uses "A" as an example or benchmark, whereby a behavior by "A" automatically compels "B" to behave in a particular way. The two modes of behavior may or may not be the same, but "B" is not expected to act in another way if "A" initiates a particular move. It could be likened to the economic theory of 'demand' and 'supply" which expects price to rise if demand increases, but with supply remaining at constant level. In this regard, "B" cannot do otherwise but behave in a particular way just because "A" had initiated that move. So, we say that "B" has been influenced by "A". But, if "A" initiates behaviour with the objective of affecting "B"'s' behaviour and the latter refuses or fails to comply, then we can say that "A" has no influence over "B". It is worthy of note that "B" behaves in the desired way because, otherwise, "A" would exercise his/her powers on "B", and that one must have influence before he can exercise his/her power over another.

Arguing along the same line with Cartwright and Zander (1968), Skibbins (1974:240) has the view that influence refers broadly to any interpersonal transaction which affects behaviour. By this definition, Skibbins (1974) posited that if in an interpersonal transaction between two persons, "A" is able to bring about change of behaviour by "B", then one can say that "A" has influence over "B". But then, it is possible that "B" would not act in the direction dictated by "A", because the latter is not in any position to punish or sanction "B" for refusal

or non-compliance. This means that "A" has no influence over "B". Furthermore, if "A" can punish or sanction "B" for non-compliance, then the latter would not have been adamant. This is the basis of the view that power is derived from influence, because power is exercised through influence.

In practice, 'power' is manifested through actions which can be seen or felt, but we hardly observe or feel 'influence', which is an attribute. When someone has influence as an attribute, he can exercise 'power'. The effect of 'influence' on 'power' is such that when one somebody has it over someone, he can exercise power even without being able to do something to the individual who has influence over. This is common in politics. The Minister, for example, may exercise his/her power over a Permanent Secretary, because, he (Minister) has influence over the Permanent Secretary, but unable to do something to the President who has influence over him (Minister). Politics entails that both 'influence' and 'power' are not absolute to anybody due to the checks and balances inherent therein.

DEFINITION OF POWER

Sargent (1981:44) defined power as the desire to have an impact through taking strong action, producing emotions in others, or acquiring a reputation. This definition could be termed as 'weak' in the sense that it refers to 'power' as the 'desire' instead of an 'action'. The only befitting terms used and which were considered suitable for qualification of 'power' are 'strong action' and 'emotions in others'. The definition could have been more acceptable if it was couched as "ability to make impact through taking strong action, producing emotions in others and acquiring a reputation". Looking at the definition of 'power' as was presented by Sargent (1981) we want to abandon same and use the modified version if need be. We recommend the modified version because the word 'ability' connotes 'power' as against 'desire' which sounds contradictory to a strong term like 'power'.

We have another definition of 'power' provided by Cartwright and Zander (1968:252), referring to it as the potential ability of one person to get another person to behave in a certain way. This suggests that the second individual will behave in a certain way if the first attempts to get him to do so. The phrase 'potential ability' indicates that the first individual has the influence upon the second individual and which would compel the second individual to behave in the desired way. Hence, we say that 'power' is potential influence'. Therefore, one cannot claim to have power over someone if he or she cannot get that other person to behave the way the first person wanted him/her to.

In the view of Tausky (1970:119), a power relationship may be said to exist when one person, or group, controls means of coercion, by which the alternatives of behaviour of one or more others, are restricted to those desired by the holder(s) of power. This definition entails the existence of the following situations before 'power' situation could be said to be existing:

     (i)   a group or person, controlling means of coercion;

     (ii)   alternative of behaviour restricted; and

     (iii)   restriction to a desired behaviour.

The above situations clearly depict the possession of 'influence' on the part of anyone restricting someone's behaviours if that action or control of behaviour cannot be controlled by him. All these point to the fact that 'influence' is a key condition in the exercise of 'power'. Even Skibbins (1974:240) admitted that 'power' is the ability to influence behaviour.

Blalock and Wilken (1979:330) indentified two very distinct kinds of conception of 'power'. According to them, first, power may be defined in terms of the achievement of goals, the overcoming of resistance, or a control over outcomes. This definition is more general and situates 'power' mainly in organisational settings and less of interpersonal relationship, but it is very useful in the sense that most times, the exercise of 'power' concerns organisational relationship. The second kind of conceptualization of 'power' by Blalock and Wilken focuses on the control of one party by another. Thus, they define power as the ability to achieve objectives or to control another actor or as the actual exercise of these potentials. This definition is similar to that of Cartwright and Zander (1968), in which one person has the potential ability to get another person to behave in a certain way. In Blalock and Wilken's (1979) view, actor 'A' has power over actor 'B' when 'A' can change the course of 'B's' action or when 'A' can sanction 'B'. Unlike the first definition of Blalock and Wilken which we considered as being more general, this second definition of 'power' by them seems more prevalent in the small-groups setting and in particular, interpersonal relationships.

This view of 'power' s also held by Srivastra (1986:79) who defined 'power' as a measure of a person's potential to get others to do what he or she wants them to do, as well as to avoid being forced to do what he or she does not want to do. In Srivastra's view, 'power' is commonly considered to be the capacity to influence others. This view has so far run through the definitions that we have been considering so far, that is, that one person or group affects the behaviour of the other over a 'power' situation. Our last subscription to this view is provided by Dalton, Barnes and Zaleznik (1968:41), who referred to 'power' as the potential one individual has to direct, guide, control or alter the behaviour of others. Our discussion so far has confirmed that 'power'

involves the ability to use authority to influence others. We can, therefore, conclude that 'influence' enables one to exercise 'power' through control of one's behaviour. Also, that he who has "influence" has 'power'.

Having seen that 'A' has 'power' over 'B' to the extent that 'A' can influence 'B' in several ways, it has not so far been indicated that actor 'B' has any way of protecting him/her self from 'A' whenever 'B' resists directive; nor, do we have a situation in which 'A' has influence' and 'power' over 'B', but is somehow 'incapacitated' from using his/her power over 'B'. This scenario and other reasons for "safe non-compliance" would be discussed in the proceeding sections.

DIVERSITY, DEPENDENCE AND INTERDEPENDENCE IN WORK RELATIONSHIPS

In any organisation, there must be personnel of different specialisations. Even where we have one product organisation, personnel of different specialisations are required to jointly provide that product. Likewise, in a multi-product organisation, personnel of diverse skills are required in order to sustain the provision of such products. Hence, organisational set up entails that there would be individuals of diverse skills, providing their services for the attainment of organisational goals.

All these individuals comprising the organisational staff have their individual goals, objectives, aspirations, values and perceptions. In spite of these differences, they must work together harmoniously for the achievement of organisational goals. Not only are the individuals diverse in objectives and perceptions, we discover also that there are diverse skills and professions available in organisations. This milieu creates what could be referred to as diversity. 'Diversity' according to Kotter (1985:17), refers to differences among people with respect to goals, values, stakes, assumptions and perceptions. The manager must deal with diverse people in the organisation. The manager is not expected to, and may not be a specialist in all these diverse professional groups, and he/she is compelled to work with them. Some of the professional groups are easy to find while some are not. The manager, therefore, depends on these professionals or technical individuals for the success of his/her work. The manager has power to hire or fire the professional personnel, but the latter in return has the power to regulate his/her services as the occasion warrants. So, we can say in this regard that there is dependent relationship between the manager and the professionals or technical personnel. This is what is meant by interdependence. Kotter (1985:18) defined interdependence as a state in which two or more parties have power over each other because they are, to some degree, dependent on each other. The parties being referred to in this definition may be individuals, groups, organisations or even countries. But the situation is that both parties rely on each other for the satisfaction or fulfillment of one need or the other.

The dependence and interdependence phenomenon operates in a fashion in which one of the parties has power over the other, because it supplies to the other party, what it (the other party) cannot provide, and vice versa. So, in any interdependent relationship, both parties have power. For example, the finance department may have power because it controls the money which 'services' all aspects of the organisation, but the line department controls the product for which the organisation was set up and without which money would not flow into the organisation. This is in contrast to what we can term 'independence', where parties have no power over each other. In this case, the parties relate on mutual agreement just to enhance cordial coexistence between them. We also have what can be termed 'dominance' or 'unilateral dependence', where one party has considerable power over the other, but not vice versa. This kind of relationship exists between parents and their children. It is important to note that interdependence can exist between organisations, countries, employer and employee, departments, and even managers. Each of the party in this relationship has influence over the other and can exercise its power at will.

The numerous interdependencies which we have discussed so far indicate that the executive occupies a powerful position since he/she has influence over all these inter-linkages. But, the executive has to treat each other linkage with caution because; each of them has the power to decide otherwise. Because of the complexity of modern day organisation, we find that the manager in an organisation has to deal with multiple sections and divisions in order to achieve success. It entails that because the manager is somehow dependent on all the division/sections, he or she must work harmoniously with all of them. This is often difficult because, some of the division/sections may not cooperate, moreso when they have the powers to decide on what suits them. In some instances, the manager may not possess adequate interpersonal skills to manage the diversity. But the 'beauty' in all these scenario is that all the sections/divisions in the organisation must work together towards the achievement of corporate objectives/goals. When the many sections/departments linked together interdependently are very diverse from one another, they will naturally have difficulty agreeing on what should be done, who should do it and when. The greater the diversity, and the greater the interdependence, the more differences of opinion there will be, so high level of diversity and interdependence in the work place could naturally lead to greater conflicting opinion about action, thereby retarding attempts to resolve the conflicts. But executives have discovered that such conflicts are easier resolved by committees and teams.

When few people are involved and when differences among those people are small, resolving conflicts at work is a fairly simple procedure. When there are a lot of interdependence involved, resolving conflicts

becomes much more difficult and complex. There are interdependences in sections and divisions, but it is one thing to resolve a conflict with a fellow departmental employee (staff) who works with you in the same location and quite a different thing from another departmental staff who probably regards you as "the competitor/enemy". The difficulty in resolving such interdependence conflicts arises from the fact that each party has the achievement of its own objectives as its priority, so that no one could blame it for any failures in the system. Secondly, each of the parties has the power to act as it desires, because, they are interdependent. Therefore, for interdependence conflicts to be resolve efficiently and effectively, both parties must have a give-and-take attitude. Ordinarily, managers from different divisions/sections are ready to retard, block or sabotage the efforts of the other section since they have some power in the relationship, and could not be sanctioned directly by the offended division/section. In any case, it must be understood that at every level of the organisational hierarchy, managers are employed to oversee and coordinate the activities of departments, sections and units. Therefore, conflict resulting from horizontal and vertical relationships can easily be resolved by the appropriate supervising manager.

INTERDEPENDENCE AND ISSUES OF POWER AND INFLUENCE IN ORGANISATIONS

In the previous sections, we saw that 'A' could be said to have power and influence over 'B' to the extent that 'A; can change the course of 'B's action or when 'A' can sanction 'B'. We then asked some questions on whether 'B' has a way of protecting him or herself from 'A' where the latter decides to resist 'A's directives. That is, what happens in the case of non-compliance by 'B'? The reality is that 'B' can resist directives from 'A' and be 'safe', only in a case of interdependence on both sides. Otherwise, it could be against the organisational norm to resist directives from someone who is in a position to sanction the person for non-compliance.

With the increase and complexity of modern work organisations, it is required that everybody in the organisation must endeavour to work harmoniously with everyone in an interdependence relationship. Kotter (1985:32-3), provided some advantages of diversity and interdependence as follows:

(i) in decision-making process, diversity fosters original ideas. People from different perspectives gather more information, leading to better decision; and

(ii) in production or service provision: diversity supports specialization, leading to better output. No component of the production/service line can do everything alone.

This does not mean that there should be an overall head in an organisation, capable of giving general directives, but that such an individual should not belong to any of the line departments. The experience is that in public service organisations which are hierarchical in nature, the most senior manager often acts for the Chief Executive Officer in his/her absence. But officers in such acting capacity tend to 'favour' their own department in the process of performing the dual functions of Acting Chief Executive Officer and the substantive head of a functional department.

Having seen that diversity is a major feature in organisations and that the diverse professional groups must work together in an interdependent relationship, there is also inherent competition for resources in organisations which in itself is weakening to the manager, but healthy for the survival of the organisation. Often, managers have challenges because of non-cooperative stance of other managers, or groups, on which they are dependent. These challenges border on power and influence in organisations, thereby confronting mangers with the following issues:

(i) How to overcome resistance from other people whenever they want to implement important strategic change.

(ii) How to foster entrepreneurial and creative behaviour despite bureaucratic obstacles that sometimes prove difficult to remove.

(iii) How to win support from organisational members.

(iv) How to overcome organizationally harmful political games and receive fair treatment form bosses.

(v) How to avoid having adverse relationship from organisational members whose cooperation you need, but who may tend to be suspicious of our actions.

(vi) How to get all organisational members to work together as a team for the greater good of the organisation.

(vii) How to avoid becoming a casualty arising from corporate power struggle; and

(viii) How to foster excellence and innovation without encountering bureaucratically bottleneck.

These and many more issues confront the manager, making his/her position uncomfortable, and leading him/her to dreading power game in organisations. The young and enthusiastic manager sees these issues, and wonders how one could overcome the challenges inherent in the game of power and influence in the organisation, and rise to the top 'safely'. In practical terms, all the eight challenges stated above can only be tackled if the individual understands the sources of power in organisations and how to develop his/her own power base.

We observed in our introductory section that some mangers succeed in dealing with all the divisions/sections in the organisation while the others find it difficult to record appreciable success in handling certain important corporate matters. This observation was made against the backdrop of the fact that many organisations train their personnel in order to achieve higher level of performance, occasioned by transfer of learning from training exposure. But it has been observed that training recipients find it difficult to implement transfer of learning their having undertaken the course **ab initio** for the purpose of improving organisational performance notwithstanding. Such training recipients enjoyed the sponsorship of their organisation and willing nomination from their supervisors. And it is the expectation that when training recipients return from training programme, their supervisor and indeed top management of the organisation would vigorously pursue transfer of learning, in order to benefit from the training exposure, and improve organisational performance. But, this has not always been the case. The experience is that managers expected to use their power and influence in bringing about learning transfer, develop 'cold feet' or a sort of apathy in pursing learning transfer by learning recipients, leading to what is referred to as 're-entry problem'. How is it that a manger, well-positioned to use his/her power/influence in an organisation for the success of the organisation, fails to, or, abandons all managerial requirements for moving the organisation forward, and allow resources to be wasted by not pursuing learning transfer? The entire scenario suggests that either such managers lack the capability to perform as a managers, or they are afraid of a fundamental danger to either their career or person. It is a managerial function and managers should not withdraw from performing their managerial function. Whatever the problems that the re-entrant encounters whether politics in the office, inability of the re-entrant to convince other colleagues to accept changes, etc., the manager ordinarily is sufficiently armed with power to influence positive learning transfer. What could be done in order to enable organisation benefit from learning transfer?

LEARNING TRANSFER

The process of sending organisational members on training programmes entails conducting Training Needs Analysis, in order to determine who needs training, and the things he or she must learn while on training. Training Needs Analysis (TNA) has been defined by Osborn (1996:138), as:

> an examination of the organisation's present operations, expected operations, present
> and manpower requirements, in order to identify the number of staff and manpower
> categories needing to be trained and retrained, and individual training needs which
> will enable a person to reach the required standard of performance in the current job
> or the future job.

The complete process of Training Needs Analysis according to Peterson (1992:14), means specifying those gaps or discrepancies in performance that actually exist between what people are capable of doing how and what you want them to do in the future. The fore-going definitions imply the existence of knowledge gap to be bridged through special training. Having acquired the requisite knowledge, skills, and attitudes, the next step is to implement the acquired skills in the work situation. This process or activity of implementation of acquired skills is referred to as Transfer of Learning. The phenomenon of learning transfer has been defined from different perspectives by different authors.

According to Fogarty, Perkins and Barrell (1992), real transfer happens when people carry over something they learned in one context to a significantly different context. This definition implies that when we have a situation that is similar to the one providing the experience, it does not amount to real transfer. Hence, the situations being considered must be significantly different before one can say that real transfer has taken place. Gagre, Yekovich and Yekovich (1993: 235) provided a more simple definition, by referring to 'transfer of learning' as the application of knowledge, learned in one setting or for one purpose, to another setting and/or purpose. This definition did not consider the similarity or differences of the two situations under application, but requires that if one was able to apply knowledge from one situation to the other, then we can say that transfer of learning has taken place. We have another view by Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005) who defined transfer of learning as the ability to apply previous learning to a new situation, problem, or to future learning. They also defined 'transfer of learning' as carrying over knowledge, skills, understanding, attitude, and habits of thinking from one learning situation to another.

The workplace plays an important part in the transfer process, as it is here that the learner is expected to demonstrate their new knowledge and skills. Direct supervisor support is seen as crucial, since the supervisor often determines whether new learning can be implemented at the workplace or not. Often, supervisors leave the training recipient to his/her fate. Yet, it is the job of the supervisor, to see that high performance is maintained and that positive change must follow any training programme undertaken by organisational members. Sometimes it appears that supervisors 'refuse' to assist training recipients experiencing re-entry problems, because, perhaps in the final analysis, the subordinate many prove very competent and popular, threatening the boss's position. Findings show that course recipients more often than not, experience re-entry problems in trying to effect 'learning transfer'.   The main workplace factors, identified   by Leberman, McDonaled and Doyle

(2006), as facilitating learning transfer include: direct supervisor support; socio-cultural factors, continuous learning culture, and transfer of training climate. Noel and Denneby (1991) argue for a partnership to be formed with the learner's supervisor. This includes gaining the supervisor's input into the course, meeting with them and the learner prior to and after the course. Other writers like Brinkerhoff and Montesino (1995) support this, but argue for wider management support; not just from the immediate supervisor. Their main reason for this is that the wider work environment may impact on their knowledge and skills.

The fore-going explanations from the various authors cited, indicate that the supervisor is central to learning transfer by re-entrants. But, many managers tend to be incapable of enhancing learning transfer. This may not be a case of reluctance to perform ones managerial duties, but a case of inability to exercise power and influence in the organisation. Cartwright and Zander (1968:266) stated that there are many possible bases of power which may be distinguished some of them they said include:

- reward power; which is ability to mediate rewards;
- coercive power; ability to mediate punishment;
- legitimate power; legitimate right to prescribe behaviour;
- expert power; having some special knowledge or expertness; and
- referent power; based on the person's identification with or oneness with a highly placed person.

The beginner may have to seek to acquire a few of the above power bases and gradually obtain all on his/her way up the career ladder. It is advisable that part of that first few power bases to be acquired should include 'expert power'. The extent to which a manager/supervisor has these types of power will determine the extent to which he can influence others. If the scores are low, such managers would be generally ineffective in influencing others and hence little impact in assisting re-entrants to transfer learning. The manager must be able to know the work of the organisation inside-out, and that of his/her department at his/her finger tips. When there is performance problem in the organisation, the forward-looking manager, acting as an expert, should be able to diagnose the problem and produce an agenda for its solution. That way, he/she would be coming to the limelight and get recognition. This recognition commands great power and influence.

Sargent (1981:44) had observed that when an individual gains power, there are indicators which he/she would use in knowing or feeling that he or she has gained power. And when someone realizes such indicators, it would have a strengthening or spurring effect on that fellow. Such ways of gaining a feeling of power are:

(i)   working for a powerful person. In this case the individual uses the influence of his/her boss to gain power and influence.

(ii)   Power derived from accumulating possession;

(iii)   Power to bargain successfully, manipulating, or helping others. These traits confer power on the individual; and

(iv)   Instrument of a higher authority. This is the kind of power used by religious leaders, politicians, and scientists (natural law).

The individual experiencing power from any of the above sources could use it to improve on his power and influence. Most of the powers stated above come from opportunity.

FACTORS FOR UNRESTRICTED POWER AND INFLUENCE IN ORGANISATIONS

We have so far been treating 'fragmented' sources of power and influence in organisations through the examples provided by Cartwright and Zander (1968) and Sargent (1981). We referred to their submissions as being in fragments in the sense that none of them could be regarded as a full guide on acquisition of power and influence in organisations. A fuller presentation on how a person could be graded/identified as belonging to the group of powerful persons in the organisation was provided by Owen (2007). They are referred to as the "ten laws" of building power in organisation and they are:

(i)   Take control: This requires that at whatever level one finds himself, he should have a clear agenda for himself and his colleagues.

(ii)   Build network: You cannot do everything alone. If one builds a network, he/she gets support and this means building the trust one needs in order to develop mutual understanding.

(iii)   Act the part: In other words, one should behave the way he wants to be regarded. For example, one who acts like a partner and colleague of a senior executive would be treated as such, while the individual who acts like a junior manager would be treated as such.

(iv)   Strike early: By this is meant that whenever there is uncertainty, ambiguity or doubt in the organisation, the high potential manager uses the opportunity to take control while others wait nervously on the sideline.

(v)   Pick your battles: It is certain that resources are in short supply in organisations, and so long as this is so, there will be conflict. So, the manager is advised by Owen (2007) to:

(a)   Only fight when you know you will win; and

(b)   Only fight when there is no other way of achieving our goal.

This entails that the manager must be very selective in pursuing his matters because it is a minus to fight and lose if one aspires to be influential and powerful in the organisation.

(vi)   Be (selectively) unreasonable.   This means that the manager could be sometimes unreasonable. Sometimes, the manager may embark on what he may not be able to achieve. This can only be done selectively.

(vii)   Go where the power is. In other words, go where the action is. Every organisation has its centres of power. It drives the rest of the organisation; future leaders of the organisation are groomed; key decisions and appointments are made there. That is where you need to be.

(viii)   Embrace ambiguity: That is, whenever there is an uncertain agenda, for instance, the question of who should do one thing or the other, this vacuum waiting to be filled, requires that the manager who wants power should move in early and take control of selected opportunities.

(ix)   Focus on outcomes: If one focuses on outcomes then he/she will not play the blame game; arguing over what went wrong. Rather, the person will take control, look positive and deal with conflict. Avoid distractions and be forward looking.

(x)   Use it or lose it: Once the individual has gotten his/her hands on the levers of power, he/she should use them. The better one uses power, the more formal power he/she will acquire.

Although Owen (2007) did not give the steps or order with which these ten laws could be pursued, but we want to recommend that "build your network" should be the first law to be tackled. This would make him/her what we can all "a man of the people". When the manager acquires power and influence in the organisation, he or she can enforce or change behaviour with less or little resistance from other organisational members, this includes assisting in learning transfer.

CONCLUSION:

The juicy benefits are for the powerful in the organisation. Thus, when one looks at positions and sharing of benefits in an organisation, one can easily identify those who have power and influence in it. The manager must note that competence in one's performance is a very vital source of power and influence in any organisation which every manager must possess. Mangers must acquire power and influence in the organisation before they can bring about change of behaviour emanating from training exposure. Organisational member's willingness to comply often depends on who directed. Manager-entrants give powerlessness to change situations as reason for inability to transfer learning. Generally, power increases as we go up in the organisational hierarchy, hence ability to influence. Since transfer of learning has to do with effecting change, those who are higher up in the hierarchy must assist those below to transfer learning since it is difficult to bring about change without senior leadership support. Transfer of learning is made all the more easier when those with appropriate power and influence are sent on training and come back with the zeal to transfer the knowledge and skills acquired.

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