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WHEN ORGANIZATIONS DARE: THE DYNAMICS OF INDIVIDUAL EMPOWERMENT IN THE WORKPLACE

by

Gretchen Marie Spreitzer

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
(Business Administration)
in The University of Michigan
1992

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For My Husband, Bob,
And My Parents

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I have been blessed with many sources of support and inspiration, all of which cannot be individually acknowledged. However, some cannot go without mention.

First, I would like to thank the individuals who so graciously opened their offices and offered their experiences and insights to me in my initial interviews on empowerment. I would also like to thank the middle managers at the Major Corporation who gave generously of their time in completing my questionnaires. I am particularly grateful to Neil Sendelbach for his assistance in gaining access to my data site and in data collection. His tremendous sense of humor helped make the dissertation process a rewarding one.

Second, I would like to thank the faculty of the Organizational Behavior and Human Resource Management Department in the School of Business for their help in various stages of my professional development -- from coursework to preliminary examinations to the the dissertation. I am especially grateful to Bill Cooke for sharing his methodological rigor and to Dan Denison and Jane Dutton for their comments on earlier drafts of this work. I would also like to gratefully acknowledge the financial support of the School of Business Administration; I am especially grateful to have received the Dykstra Fellowship and the Rackham Presidential Fellowship.

Third, I would also like to thank my friends and colleagues in the Michigan doctoral program who served as a constant source of support. I would

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particiularly like to thank my friend and colleague Aneil Mishra for the many hours of fellowship he has provided.

Fourth, my committee, comprised of Bob Quinn, Sue Ashford, Rick Bagozzi, Karl Weick, and Marc Zimmerman, has been tremendous in providing support, challenge, and suggestions throughout the dissertation process. I am grateful for the many hours they spent in helping me to refine my work. I am especially grateful for the support and friendship I have received from my principal advisor, Bob Quinn. He conducts research in the spirit of scholarship and practical betterment and sets an example as teacher, colleague, and mentor. He deserves a great deal of credit for my growth and development in the doctoral program. Bob never let me settle for less than my personal best, while at the same time assisting me in increasing my capacity for good research. His support enabled me to take risks and think independently in the development of this piece of research.

Fifth, I would like to thank my first teachers in life, my parents and sister Libby. They provided a nurturing environment for me to grow and develop, always expecting the best while never wavering in their support. I would also like to thank my dog, Rufus, for reminding me to stop and smell the roses. His eternal optimism inspired me during moments of hardship. Finally, I would like to thank my husband, Bob Schoeni, for his constant love and support. Though working to finish his own dissertation, he always made time to listen and to encourage. Though it was often challenging to work on two dissertations at once, I could not have asked for a more stimulating experience.

Each of these people has made an important difference in this dissertation work, and most importantly, they helped to make the dissertation process a meaningful one.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

> *Any institution has to be organized so as to bring out the talents and capacities within the organization, to encourage [people] to take initiative, give them a chance to show what they can do, and a scope within which to grow* [Drucker, 1946].

> *We have found what we believe is the distilled essence of competitiveness. It is the reservoir of talent and creativity and energy that can be found in each of our people. That essence is liberated when we help people believe that what they think and do is important -- and then get out of their way while they do it* [Jack Welch as quoted in Bailey, 1988]

> *The concept of empowerment has exploded into the national consciousness. Empowerment promises to instill in our institutional life the same values of individual freedom, dignity, and self-governance that we readily embrace as a society* [Block, 1987: xiii].

Both organizational researchers and practitioners have dubbed employee empowerment one of the most important organizational issues of the 1990s (e.g., Kanter, 1989c; Thomas and Velthouse, 1989). Widespread interest in empowerment comes at a time when global competition and environmental turbulence demand new forms of management that encourage commitment, risk taking, and innovation (Walton, 1985). Empowerment is considered important because of its potential for enhancing employee motivation and gaining strategic advantage in the turbulent 1990s. To date, however, there has been little systematic conceptual or empirical research on empowerment. The purpose of this study is to begin to address this lacuna in the literature.

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Why Empowerment?

The concept of empowerment is relevant as organizations struggle to be responsive in post-industrial society (see Figure 1.1). Today, as perhaps never before, organizations encounter turbulence resulting from fierce global competition, rapid technological change, conflicting stakeholder demands, shorter product life cycles, higher standards of customer satisfaction, and more stringent government regulations. In order to be responsive, organizations struggle to embrace change (Ulrich and Wiersema, 1989) by developing new organizational forms, structures, and designs (Lewin and Stephens, 1992). Researchers have suggested that in a turbulent environment, organizations require forms that are flatter, decentralized, and boundaryless and emphasize strong shared values and strategic alliances (Drucker, 1988; Eisenhardt, 1989; Huber and Glick, 1992; Kanter, 1989a; Montgomery and Porter, 1991; Tichy and Charan, 1989). What has not received adequate research attention, however, is the changing relationship between the new organizational forms and the role of the individual in the organization. As Aktouf describes,

> [In today's organizations,] *all employees must be active and intelligent participants*. But traditional management is not at all prepared for this change. And, what is more serious, management lacks the conceptual and theoretical means to grasp the magnitude of coming upheavals. Straitjacketed in traditional theory, solidly anchored in functionalism and the ideology of consensus, many management theorists cannot see that such dramatic shifts in the factor of success require an equally dramatic shift in management philosophy and in the conception of work and the worker (1992: 410).

Understanding these changing relationships is a primary focus of this study.

In traditional bureaucratic systems, power, information, ideas, leadership, and vision tend to be concentrated at the top of the organization (Whyte, 1991). It is argued that individuals working in such environments are conditioned to be passive (Mills, 1983; Parker, 1989) because consistency and compliance are the

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objectives of such traditional management systems. While passive individuals are believed to be effective in a stable, simple, and predictable environment, they are believed to be quite ineffective under conditions of environmental instability, complexity, and unpredictability. As Simon suggests, in today's environment:

> Doing a job well is not mainly a matter of responding to commands, but is more a matter of taking initiative to advance organizational objectives. A willingness of employees at all levels to assume responsibility for producing results, not simply following the rules, is generally believed to be a major determinant of organizational success [1991: 32].

Classical theories of organization (e.g., Taylor, Weber) are becoming less accurate at explaining organizational behavior in the 1990s. In spite of the changing role of individuals in post-industrial organizations, most organization theories continue to view the individual as a passive rather than active agent in molding and responding to the environment and the future (Bell and Staw, 1989). Flatter, decentralized organizational structures require individuals to assume a more active, challenging role in the organization -- a more empowered role. New theories that reflect this changing world and which recognize an active role for the individual in the organizational system must begin to be developed.

Statement of the Problem to be Investigated

Recent perspectives on empowerment build on a long history of research on alienation (e.g., Blauner, 1964; Marx, 1961; Seeman, 1959), participative management (e.g., Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Likert, 1967; McGregor, 1960) and motivation (e.g., Staw, 1976; Vroom and Yetton, 1973). Within the past decade, empowerment has begun to emerge as a topic of critical inquiry in organizational studies (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Kanter, 1983; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Nonetheless, in spite of some increasing attention, the study of empowerment in the field of organizational studies remains problematic.

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Zimmerman (1990) calls empowerment theory an enigma. There is little consensus regarding the definition of empowerment. Consequently, there has not been adequate operationalization of the construct. Moreover, antecedents and outcomes of empowerment in an organizational context have received only limited theoretical attention and, to my knowledge, no empirical examination of empowerment. Thus, there is a need to develop and empirically test a theoretical model that conceptualizes empowerment, its antecedents, and its outcomes. In response to these voids in the literature, this study provides construct development and validation of the concept of empowerment and then develops and empirically examines a theoretical framework that incorporates social-structural antecedents and behavioral outcomes of empowerment.[1]

Organization of the Dissertation

The dissertation is organized in the following manner. In Chapter II, a distinct study in its own right, the contemporary interdisciplinary literature on empowerment is briefly reviewed and synthesized. Four dimensions of empowerment are identified across the different literatures and are corroborated by interview data on the individual experience of empowerment. The construct validity of empowerment is also discussed. In Chapter III, a tripartite theoretical framework of individual empowerment in the workplace is developed. In the framework, empowerment is posited to mediate the relationship between organizational social structure and a number of outcome variables. Specific hypotheses relating social structure to empowerment and empowerment to the outcome variables are developed. In Chapter IV, a research design to empirically examine the theoretical model is described. Chapter V describes and discusses

[1] Though empowerment can be examined at the group, organization, or even societal level (Zimmerman, forthcoming), I focus exclusively on individual empowerment.

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the results of the analyses. Chapter VI provides closure by addressing the potential contributions to the organizational studies literature and to practice and by describing directions for future research.

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CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONSTRUCT DEFINITION OF EMPOWERMENT

The purpose of this chapter is to develop a parsimonious and generalizable definition of empowerment. This chapter reviews and synthesizes the interdisciplinary literature on empowerment for purposes of construct definition. Interview data on empowerment is then integrated with the synthesis of the literature to provide corroboration for the empowerment conceptualization. The *gestalt* of empowerment and related assumptions are also discussed. Issues regarding the construct validation of empowerment are then addressed.

Organizational Studies Literature Review

The organizational studies literature on empowerment can be divided into two primary perspectives.[2] In the first perspective, organizational researchers tend to subsume empowerment within the more general concept of power. Empowerment is viewed as a relational construct (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; 1989) describing an objective social condition, a top-down process of power sharing. Empowerment is defined as having power in the organization (Burke, 1986; Kanter, 1983), or more specifically power to make decisions (Gruber and Trickett, 1987). In this perspective, empowerment can be achieved through delegation or sharing of power (Blau and Alba, 1982; Burke, 1986; Mainiero,

---

2 In this review, I focus on the contemporary literature which *explicitly* addresses the concept of empowerment.

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1986). I refer to this perspective on empowerment as the **relational perspective**. This perspective has received considerable attention in the literature largely through research on participative management and decision making, employee involvement, delegation, and power distribution (e.g., Cotton, Vollarth, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, and Jennings, 1988; Dachler and Wilpert, 1978; Locke and Schweiger, 1979).

The second perspective on empowerment has received considerably less attention in the literature. It is more psychological in nature and is viewed as a subjective phenomenon. I refer to it as the **psychological perspective** on empowerment. Relational and psychological empowerment are believed to be related because psychological empowerment may be an outcome of relational empowerment. More discussion on the relationship between relational and psychological empowerment is provided in the theoretical framework in Chapter III. Conger and Kanungo (1988) provide an important first step in developing this perspective. They equate empowerment with a sense of self-efficacy. In a process model, they explore managerial strategies for facilitating empowerment as well as empowerment's behavioral effects (i.e., initiation and persistence of behavior).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) expand on Conger and Kanungo's (1988) framework in a cognitive model of task empowerment by suggesting three improvements. First, they define empowerment as a specific type of motivation -- intrinsic task motivation. Second, they specify a richer conceptualization of empowerment; self-efficacy is supplemented with three additional cognitive variables (called task assessments) that enhance the intrinsic motivation of individuals. Third, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) bring an interpretive perspective to empowerment, recognizing the way in which individuals' social constructions shape their feelings of empowerment. Similar to Conger and

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Kanungo (1988), they suggest a number of behavioral outcomes of psychological empowerment: action, concentration of energy, flexibility, initiation of new tasks, and resiliency.

These two studies represent the limited work that explicitly addresses a psychological conceptualization of empowerment. Other authors make reference to psychological empowerment but do not specifically address definitional aspects of the phenomenon (e.g., Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Kouzes and Posner, 1987; Manz and Sims, 1989; Neilsen, 1986). Because the psychological perspective on empowerment has received less attention in the literature and because it is believed to be critical to achieving the positive outcomes noted in Chapter I, the development of the psychological perspective on empowerment is the focus of this chapter.

Toward Construct Validation of Empowerment

A number of issues still must be resolved before substantive research addressing the psychological perspective on empowerment can be conducted. First, definitional issues of empowerment have yet to be resolved. "At this early stage of its usage, empowerment has no agreed-upon definition. Rather, the term has been used, often loosely, to capture a family of somewhat related meanings" (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990: 666). For example, Conger and Kanungo (1988) argue that empowerment is unidimensional while Thomas and Velthouse (1990) suggest a multidimensional conceptualization. Further, these conceptualizations of empowerment lack grounding in the more established disciplinary literature on empowerment. Second, no empirical validation of these conceptualizations of empowerment exists to date. Formal construct definition and subsequent validation are necessary before substantive research can be conducted. Construct definition is the first and foremost priority for the study.

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Construct definition is accomplished through the integration of (1) a review of the broader contemporary, interdisciplinary literature on empowerment, and (2) an examination of interview data on the individual experience of empowerment. Hence, the resulting conceptualization is grounded in both the academic literature and individual experience of empowerment. Corroboration of these two divergent methods provides preliminary evidence of convergent validity. The two methods of construct definition are discussed below. The thematic analysis of the literature is discussed first and is then followed by a discussion of the interview data.

Integration of Interdisciplinary Literature on Empowerment

The literature review was expanded beyond an organizational studies perspective to include related perspectives from psychology (particularly social and community psychology), religion (primarily liberation theology), and sociology (with an emphasis on social change). These disciplines have a longer and more developed tradition of studying empowerment and may inform our understanding of empowerment. The objective of the expanded review was to identify shared understandings of empowerment across different perspectives by integrating and synthesizing them to a few key dimensions of empowerment. The goal was to develop a parsimonious and generalizable conceptualization of empowerment that may then be operationalized and measured.

Over the past three decades, empowerment has evolved as a construct of interest in psychology, religion, and sociology. From a psychological perspective, the concept of empowerment has been endemic to a broad literature encompassing issues of human agency, mastery, and control (Bandura, 1989). These notions of empowerment embrace such perennial philosophical concerns as "the determinism and indeterminism of human action, voluntarism and intentionality, free will and

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causality, and other issues of human agency" (Gecas, 1989: 291). From a religious perspective, empowerment is embedded within the literature on liberation theology (Friere, 1970). Liberation theology suggests that in order to be empowered, individuals must learn to take responsibility for their own destiny and realize that the present situation is not natural, inevitable, or dictated by God (Friere and Faundez, 1989). From a sociological perspective, empowerment is viewed as critical for understanding and solving fundamental societal problems through social change (Alinsky, 1971). Empowerment is embedded within a broad literature focusing on issues of societal democracy, egalitarianism, human rights, and diversity (Boyte and Riessman, 1986); it has been a principle goal of the Civil Rights, Welfare Rights, and Women's Movements (Bookman and Morgan, 1988; Soloman, 1976).

The Integrative Process

In order to identify shared understandings of empowerment across the different perspectives, an exploratory thematic analysis of the literature was performed. First, an extensive interdisciplinary review of the empowerment literature was conducted using numerous data base searches. Careful notes on the underlying themes of empowerment were taken on each work in the review. Over 150 themes were derived from this process.[3] The themes were then Q-sorted

---

3 Some confusion became evident in the thematic analysis of the literature. First, there was a lack of clarity on levels of analyses. Particularly in the sociological literature, empowerment was sometimes used to describe an individual, psychological phenomenon and at other times was used to describe the characteristics of collectivities such as groups, organizations, and social classes. Because the focus of the dissertation was on the individual level, research which focused exclusively at a collective level was not included in the analysis.

Second, there was frequently a lack of specification concerning to which perspective on empowerment (i.e., psychological or relational) a particular study subscribed. Thus, a judgment was made concerning whether a study focused exclusively on a relational approach to empowerment. If that was indeed the case, the particular study was not included in the analysis.

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by two independent raters into content categories. An unstructured Q-sort was performed; that is, no underlying themes were theoretically specified *a priori*, and no minimum or maximum number of categories were predetermined (Kerlinger, 1986). After completing their independent sorts, the two raters integrated their categories. Although a high degree of consensus on category generation generally existed between the two raters, some debate revolved around the issue of category differentiation given that no specific number of categories was specified *a priori*. For example, it was not clear whether categories reflecting "mastery" and "self-efficacy" should be kept differentiated or whether they could be integrated into a more general construct of competence. After some extended discussion, the two raters agreed that for purposes of parsimony and generality, **integration** of strongly related empowerment themes was preferred over **differentiation**. The rater's overall level of agreement or reliability was .72.

The two coders were able to integrate the various themes into four general dimensions of empowerment: (1) **meaning**, (2) **competence**, (3) **self-determination**, and (4) **impact.** [4] Each dimension had roots in each of the different disciplinary perspectives on empowerment. Table 2.1 provides a summary of the literatures across these four dimensions. For each dimension, a general description is furnished followed by specific supporting literature citations.

A third source of confusion resulted from a failure to maintain a conceptual distinction between definitional components of empowerment, its antecedent conditions, and its consequent effects. For purposes of conceptual clarity and appropriate operationalization, an intensive effort was made to distinguish definitional components of empowerment from its antecedents conditions and outcomes. Any variable which represented a contextual condition or individual behavior was omitted from this conceptual analysis and reserved for integration within the larger theoretical framework discussed in Chapter III.

4 Several items clearly did not fit into the four part dimensionalization; however, they did not fit into any meaningful additional category(s). These items included issues of optimism, learning, creativity, alignment, and social interaction. They are viewed as anomalies that future research might examine with respect of empowerment.

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Meaning. The first dimension evident from the literature review was a sense of meaning. In general, **a sense of meaning involves a fit regarding the relationship between a given activity and one's beliefs, attitudes, values, and behaviors** (Brief and Nord, 1990). This denotation of meaning is different from the process of sense-making or understanding (Weick, 1979). In this sense of the word, meaning is "the value of [an activity's] goal or purpose, judged in relation to the individual's own ideals and standards" (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990: 672). An individual feels a sense of meaning when an activity "counts" in his or her own value system (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Involvement in activities where one lacks personal meaning may create a sense of cognitive dissonance and hence may result in personal disengagement from the activity (Kahn, 1990). Conversely, those activities infused with personal meaning create a sense of purpose, passion, and energy. A sense of meaning may be with regard to either the activity itself or the outcomes of the activity. A sense of meaning encompasses Hackman and Oldham's (1980) "meaningfulness" and is the converse of Seeman's (1967) "self-estrangement" dimension of alienation.

Specifically, the literature on empowerment evinced a sense of meaning in the following ways. Empowered individuals believe in and care about what they do; their activity is aligned with their value system (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Macher, 1988). They have passion, a kind of cathexis for "or investment of psychic energy in" activity (Alinsky, 1971; Boyte and Riessman, 1987; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990: 673). Those who are empowered have spiritual energy (Rappaport, 1981). Empowered individuals feel a sense of personal significance from their involvement (Block, 1987; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Manz and Sims, 1989; Vogt and Murrell, 1990). They feel a sense of self-identity and personal integrity through their involvement; empowered individuals have a personal connectedness to the activity at hand (Halliday, 1987; Zimmerman, 1990b;

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Zimmerman and Rappaport, 1988). Obviously, this dimension reflects both cognitive and affective aspects of empowerment. A sense of meaning is believed to serve as the engine of the process of empowerment; that is, individuals get "energized" about a given activity and thus become connected through a sense of meaning (Friere, 1970; King, Maynard, and Woodyear, 1988; Szivoa and Travers, 1988). A sense of meaning is thus believed to be an important component of an individual sense of empowerment.

Competence. The second dimension evident in the literature was a sense of competence. Competence, or self-efficacy, is strongly rooted in social psychology. It is a key dimension in Bandura's (1977) social learning theory and **refers to a belief in one's capability to perform a task** (Gist, 1987; Gist and Mitchell, 1992). It is often referred to as agency beliefs, that is, the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce an outcome (Bandura, 1989). It is developed through the gradual acquisition of complex cognitive, social, linguistic, and/or physical skills (Bandura, 1986). Three conditions are necessary for individuals to feel competent or self-efficacious with respect to a given task; they must believe that: (1) they have the ability necessary to perform the task, (2) they are capable of the necessary effort to perform the task, and (3) that no outside causes will prevent their behavior from attaining the required level of performance (Bandura, 1977). Competence or self-efficacy is similar to Harter's (1978) "competence motivation" (i.e., striving to master challenges), Adler's (1927) "mastery motivation" (i.e., striving for competence in dealing with one's world), White's (1959) "effectance motivation," Smith's (1968) "competent self" (i.e., a feeling of competence to perform), Foote and Cottrell's (1955) "interpersonal competence" (i.e., competence in working with others), and Deci's (1975) "competence."

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The literature on empowerment also evinced a sense of competence. In addition to a personal belief in what they do (i.e., the above dimension labeled meaning), empowered people believe in their abilities and capacities. Empowered individuals have a sense of self-effectiveness or personal competence (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Not only do they believe that they have requisite skills and abilities (i.e., technical competence), but they also have the confidence they can perform adequately (Balcazar, Seekins, Fawcett, and Hopkins, 1990; Bandura, 1986; Gist, 1989; Ozer and Bandura, 1990; Soloman, 1976). Empowered individuals believe in their capacity to learn and grow to meet new challenges (Kieffer, 1986; Rappaport, 1987; Redlefson, 1988; Shor and Friere, 1987; Staples, 1990; Zimmerman, 1990a, 1990b). They have a sense of personal mastery and competence (Rappaport, 1987; Vogt and Murrell, 1990; Zimmerman and Rappaport, 1988). Consequently, a second dimension extracted from the literature was a sense of competence or mastery in terms of one's ability to perform.

Self-Determination. The third dimension of empowerment evident from the literature review was a sense that one's behavior is self-determined. Where competence (i.e., the second dimension described above) reflects a *mastery* of behavior, self-determination reflects a *choice* of behavior. **"To be self-determining means to experience a sense of choice in initiating and regulating one's own actions"** (Deci, Connell, and Ryan, 1989: 580). A sense of choice or self-determination is driven by a self-perception that one's involvement in a given activity is volitional and intentional (Deci, 1975). Self-determination is represented by intentional behaviors that are initiated and regulated through choices as an expression of oneself, rather than behaviors that are pressured and coerced by environmental forces (Deci and Ryan, 1987). Self-

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determination represents an "inner endorsement of one's actions, a sense that they emanate from oneself and are one's own" (Deci and Ryan, 1987: 1025); it is associated with a sense of personal freedom and autonomy (Staw, 1977). A sense of self-determination may be achieved through individual choice over the initiation and continuation of work behavior and inputs to the production process (e.g., making decisions about work strategies, methods, pace, and effort) (Bell and Staw, 1989; Kanungo, 1979). As deCharms (1968) suggests, when individuals have a sense of self-determination they see themselves as "origins" rather than "pawns" in determining specific behaviors and actions. Self-determination is consistent with Bell and Staw's (1989) "control over behavior," Bagozzi's (1991) ideas on volition, Kohn and Schooler's (1978) "self-directedness," and Bazerman's (1982) "activity control".

Specifically, the literature on empowerment evinced a sense of self-determination. Empowered individuals have a sense of responsibility for and ownership of their activity (Pascarella, 1984; Rappaport, Swift, and Hess, 1984; Rappaport, 1981, 1987; Rose and Black, 1985; Staples, 1990; Zimmerman, 1990a). They see themselves as proactive, self-starters rather than as passive followers (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Letize and Donovan, 1990; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). They have a propensity to act under their own volition, taking initiative at their own accord, making independent decisions, and trying out new ideas (Matza, 1990; McLeod, 1986; Vogt and Murrell, 1990). Empowered individuals feel autonomous in their work roles with a variety of opportunities for participation (Belasco, 1989; Block, 1987; Burke, 1986; Gecas, 1989; Kouzes and Posner, 1987). Empowered individuals do not see their actions as predetermined, inevitable, or dictated externally (Friere, 1970). They see the "locus of initiative" as within themselves (Pascale, 1990). In an interesting medical case of self-determination, Cousins (1978) described the turning point in a cancer patient's

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recovery when "the patient rejected the traditional passive role of patient and insisted on being an active participant in one's own therapy" (as quoted in Gecas, 1989: 298). Although the patient had no control over the cancer itself, he assumed more personal responsibility for the choices to be made in his therapy. Thus, empowered individuals believe they have personal discretion concerning the methods used to perform their role in the system. Interestingly, the dimension of self-determination is singularly most pronounced in the more popular literature on empowerment (e.g., Carr, 1991; Redlefson, 1988; Thier, 1989). Consequently, a third dimension derived from the literature was a sense of self-determination in terms of the initiation and continuation of behavior.

Impact. The fourth dimension in the literature was a sense of impact or personal control over organizational outcomes. Ashforth (1989) describes impact as **an individual's belief that he or she can affect or influence organizational outcomes**; it concerns the degree to which an individual believes he or she has input into or influence over strategic, administrative, and operating decisions in the organization or larger environment. Bell and Staw (1989) suggest that individuals experience a sense of impact when they believe they can influence organizational outcomes (such as make-or-buy decisions or decisions to enter new markets). Greenberger and Strasser (1986) define impact as a psychological construct reflecting an individual's beliefs, at a given point in time, that he or she can "effect a change in a desired direction, on the environment" (1986: 165). Blauner (1964) suggests that individuals have a sense of impact when they can influence such things as general managerial policies and decision making. Impact is congruent with Bell and Staw's (1989) "control over outcomes," Zimmerman and Zahniser's (1991) "sociopolitical control," and Spector's (1986) "perceived control," and can be viewed as the converse of

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Seligman's (1975) "learned helplessness" (i.e., learning that one's actions have no effect on one's environment) and Seeman's (1959) "powerlessness" dimension of alienation.

The literature on empowerment described a sense of impact in the following manner. Empowered individuals see themselves as "making a difference, that is producing the intended effect in one's task environment" (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990: 672). They do not believe that barriers in the external environment control the outcomes of their actions; they believe they can effect desired change, manipulate, and have some control in the larger environment (Alinsky, 1971; Ashforth, 1989; Bookman and Morgan, 1988; Manz, 1986; Manz and Sims, 1989; Ngau, 1987). Empowered individuals both participate and at least partially dominate strategic conversations in organizations (Westley, 1990). Empowered individuals do not experience a sense of learned helplessness (Hoffman, 1978; Martinko and Gardner, 1982). They do not believe that the outcomes of their actions are predetermined, inevitable, or dictated externally (Friere, 1970). Empowered individuals have "conscientizacao" (Friere, 1970); they see themselves as active participants or "subjects" rather than powerless "objects" in controlling and shaping the direction and outcomes of the larger system in which they are embedded.

Consequently, empowered individuals believe they can challenge existing organizational mindsets and push organizational boundaries (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Goldfried and Merbaum, 1973; Kouzes and Posner, 1987; Messner, 1990; Peters, 1987; Ryan, 1971). They see themselves as change masters and shapers of the organization's future (Kanter, 1986; Brown and Siegel, 1988; Thier, 1989). It is through this lens of personal control that empowered individuals see the world and choose to act (Macher, 1988; Rappaport, et al., 1984; Rose and Black, 1985; Vanderslice, 1987; Zimmerman and Rappaport,

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1988). The underlying philosophy of empowerment is consistent with the radical humanist paradigm of sociological analysis -- that is, a subjective perspective with an emphasis on radical change, not regulation (Bradshaw-Cambell, 1990). Consequently, a fourth dimension of empowerment derived from the literature was a sense of personal impact in terms of the larger organizational environment in which one is embedded.

Distinctions Across the Dimensions of Empowerment

Through this integration of the interdisciplinary literature on empowerment, four dimensions of empowerment have been identified: (1) a sense of meaning (i.e., my role is congruent with my value systems); (2) a sense of competence (i.e., I have competence to effectively perform my role); (3) a sense of self-determination (i.e., I have autonomy in how I execute my role); and (4) a sense of impact (i.e., I can have impact on or influence over the system of which I am part). Unfortunately, the literature frequently tends to blur the distinctions among the four dimensions. Here distinctions between the four dimensions are discussed.

Competence and Impact

Competence is frequently confused with *impact* (Litt, 1988). *Competence* is an expectancy about the extent to which one possesses appropriate skills or abilities to perform a given task (i.e., beliefs about one's degree of self-efficacy). *Impact*, on the other hand, is an expectancy about one's potential to have impact on or influence the larger system in which one is embedded (i.e., a sense of control over desired environmental conditions or outcomes).

Further, both competence and impact are conceptually different from outcome expectancy (i.e., the ability to **predict** the relationship between behavior

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and outcomes). Outcome expectancy refers to *generalized* beliefs about the relationship between means and ends (Skinner, Chapman, and Baltes, 1988) or environmental responsiveness to one's behavior (Kirsch, 1985). In differentiating competence and outcome expectancy, Bandura, building on a long tradition of expectancy theory, argues that:

> An outcome expectancy is defined as a person's estimate that a given behavior will lead to certain outcomes. An efficacy expectation is the conviction that one can successfully execute the behavior required to produce the outcomes. Outcome and efficacy expectations are differentiated, because individuals can believe that a particular course of action will produce certain outcomes, but if they entertain serious doubts about whether they can perform the necessary activities, such information does not influence their behavior [1977: 193].

In terms of differentiating impact and outcome expectancy, outcome expectancy is a weaker form of control than impact; outcome expectancy is a belief that some outcomes will follow from one's performance which *may or may not* be causally determined by the self (Staw, 1977). A further difference between the two concepts concerns the definitions of outcomes in expectancy theory and impact (Sutton and Kahn, 1986). Whereas the outcomes referred to in conceptualizations of expectancy theory tend to focus on reinforcements (e.g., rewards, promotions, and punishments) (Lawler, 1973; Vroom, 1964), the outcomes referred to in definitions of impact tend to be much broader, encompassing system outcomes (e.g., strategic decisions). Thus, in these ways, impact is conceptually distinct from outcome expectancy as well as from competence.

Self-Determination and Impact

Self-determination and *impact* also have a tendency to be confused in the literature (Bazerman, 1982). Bell and Staw (1989) provide a typology of control that differentiates "control over behavior" (i.e., *self-determination*) and "control

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over outcomes" (i.e., *impact*). Here the differentiating factor is a **choice** concerning the **initiation or continuation** of behavior (i.e., self-determination) versus an expectancy about the extent to which one can **causally influence** a desired **environmental outcome** (i.e., impact). Where self-determination involves issues of volition and choice of behavior, impact involves a perception of influence or control over desired outcomes in the larger system in which one is embedded. More specifically, self-determination represents a choice to engage in specific work processes whereas impact represents a sense of control over work outcomes.

An Example to Distinguish Competence, Self-Determination, and Impact

An example may further clarify the differences across these concepts. Take the case of a middle manager being asked by top management to increase her department's productivity by 20% over the next year. The middle manager will have a sense of *competence* if she believes she has the skills and abilities necessary to achieve this goal. Such skills might include good financial management capabilities and strong leadership ability. The middle manager will have a sense of *self-determination* if she believes she has a choice regarding how to achieve the 20% productivity increase in her department. If top management specifies that the increase is to be accomplished through increasing the speed of the production line, the middle manager is likely to lack a sense of self-determination. However if the middle manager is given the freedom to determine the appropriate course of action for her department to achieve the goal (such as through capital improvements, process innovations, employee training, or speed increases on the line), she is more likely to feel a sense of self-determination. Finally, the middle manager will have a sense of *impact* if she believes that she can have influence on the larger system in which she is embedded -- if she is able to participate in the

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system's strategic decision making process. This sense of control might come from having influence in the decision to increase productivity by 20% rather than reducing costs by 20%, increasing product quality, or even perhaps redefining the goal such that all departments would increase productivity by 15% instead of her department alone increasing productivity by 20%.

These four dimensions -- *meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact* -- thus provide a multidimensional conceptualization of empowerment. **Together the four dimensions of empowerment represent an active, rather than passive, individualized role with respect to the larger organizational context.** Because they are common across a number of literatures, which are based upon different philosophies and methods, some preliminary theoretical evidence of convergent validity is ascertained for these four dimensions. In the next section of the study, data from a series of interviews were integrated with the four dimensions as a means for grounding this academically derived conceptualization of empowerment in actual experiences of empowerment.

Examination of the Interview Data on Empowerment

Interviews were conducted with 18 individuals on their personal conceptualizations of empowerment. These individuals were representative of the managerial population in the high technology division of a large manufacturing company and included individuals who ranged from top management to direct supervisors; thirteen were men and five were women. The interviews were conducted over the phone and lasted from 30 minutes to one hour. In the interviews, individuals were asked (1) to define empowerment and (2) to describe a personal experience where they felt particularly empowered and one where they

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felt particularly disempowered. The interview protocol is provided in Appendix A. Using both their definitions and experiences of empowerment, the interview data were then examined with respect to the four dimensions generated in the analysis of the literature review. [5]

Meaning

A sense of meaning was particularly salient in the interviews. One individual described being empowered as "doing things that I most believe in and maintaining my integrity." Another stated that empowerment was "following those things and ideas that I think are important and necessary. It's working toward a personal vision of how I believe things are supposed to be. It means doing the right thing." A third described an empowering experience as "a part of what I am all about as a person." In the examples of empowerment experiences, the individuals described the deep sense of meaning and purpose they felt. Many spoke of the spiritual nature of the experience. They talked about how their personal identity was woven within the empowerment experience. Many described the drive or passion they felt in relation to the experience -- the feelings that bound them to a chosen path of action. In many cases, these were experiences so personally compelling that the individual reported that they took precedence over other responsibilities and roles. There was a strong affective quality to the experiences; one's "heart and soul were into it." One manager described an experience of empowerment as follows:

> *I was so excited about what I was doing that I couldn't wait to get out of bed in the morning -- you know that feeling? My work took on a personal dimension that I don't usually feel. It really meant something to me.*

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5 It was difficult to identify discrete quotes and examples for each of the four dimensions because the quotes tended to integrate more than one of the four dimensions. Thus some quotes may seem to represent more than one dimension.

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Overall, these experiences were seen as energizing, where individuals felt congruence between their values, their behaviors, and the organization's expectations. In fact, in all 18 of the interviews, the individuals explicitly noted their sense of connection to the activity and meaningfulness during the experience.

Competence

A sense of competence was also evident in the examination of the empowerment interviews. In one interview an empowered experience was described as "knowing I have the skills and abilities necessary to get a project done. It's feeling confident, believing in myself, trusting myself, knowing that I can do it. I could follow my intuition." In another interview, an individual described an empowering experience as "highly challenging, but never completely beyond my capacities." A third described his sense of personal empowerment as "overcoming especially difficult times on my own by drawing on my special talents and abilities." In the interviews, individuals articulated feelings of competence and mastery in their abilities and skills. They elaborated on their sense of self-confidence and trust in their skills and abilities. Consider this manager's description of a time she felt particularly empowered:

> *As a women, I always felt that I had to prove myself. I wasn't always very confident about what I had to contribute. But doing [the project], I felt extremely confident in myself -- I knew that I did have what it takes, that I could do it and do it well.*

In 17 of 18 interviews, a sense of self-confidence and competence in spite of difficult situations was explicitly stated.

Self-Determination

In terms of the interview data, the dimension concerning self-determination or choice was also evident. One individual described an empowered

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experience as "taking things in my own hands. I am the one in the driver's seat." Another said, "I am empowered when I initiate action and am proactive. I decide what I think is the best course of action and then act on it. I take initiative at my own accord." A third described empowerment as when "I am energized and free to decide the best way to get my job done. I feel autonomous." These interviews suggest that during experiences of empowerment individuals are likely to feel ownership and responsibility for an activity. They have a "take charge" mentality. In descriptions of empowerment experiences, the individuals reported themselves to be active participants in their activities rather than passive followers. Volition or a personal choice of means drove their involvement and participation during experiences of empowerment. Self-design and self-initiation of the activity was also a prevalent theme throughout the interviews. One manager was particularly articulate in his sense of self-determination:

> *With the help of my people, we decided the best way to attack [the problem]. It was our baby. It wasn't 'do it the way we tell you.' Instead, it was 'how do you think we approach this?'*

In fact, in 17 of the 18 interviews, individuals clearly described empowered experiences as though they self-initiated and self-designed, rather than ones that were "other-determined" or imposed by the larger system.

Impact

An orientation toward impact was also highly evident in the interviews. One individual described his sense of empowerment as "I don't assume that the current situation is a given. I think about how things can be different and better and develop a new vision on which I act. I know that I can make a difference." A second person described, "I usually feel empowered in times of crisis and difficulty. I feel very challenged because the outcome of the situation is usually pretty uncertain, but I know that ultimately with a lot of hard work, I can have

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an impact." A third described her sense of empowerment as "doing things which have an effect on the company. It's making a difference through my work." In the interviews, individuals articulated a mindset of change rather than of regulation or maintenance. They viewed change as a necessary and vital part of their role in the organization and felt that they had some control over such change. Most importantly, during experiences of empowerment individuals did not view the status quo as a given -- they had a propensity to challenge and make change when deemed necessary. The trend in their experiences of empowerment was toward deep changes where individuals believed they could have real impact, rather than small incremental changes. Consider the following example from one individual's experience of empowerment:

> *Our division was contemplating some major restructurings, and it was not at all clear where our department would fall in the move. There were rumors that we would be absorbed into other departments. Though our jobs were not immediately on the line, we knew that it would be a mistake for the division to disband our department for a number of reasons I won't go into here. I knew we had to take action with top management. [Some details deleted here.] In the end, we did save our department and actually had our responsibilities expanded.*

Fifteen of 18 of the interviews described situations where they clearly felt they had the opportunity to have impact, to make a difference in the status quo.

Discussion of the Four Dimensions of Empowerment

Through this analysis, the four dimensions derived from the literature are corroborated by the interview data. Hence, through this integration of the literature and of interview data, there is additional evidence of convergent validity for this multidimensional conceptualization. Importantly, I found no evidence of additional dimensions in the interview data that were not uncovered in the literature review. This suggests that the four dimensional conceptualization reflects the essence of empowerment.

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In sum, each of the four dimensions is psychological in nature; the four embody the core dimensions of the empowered mindset.[6] The focus of each is on an active self-orientation with respect to a specific role in the larger organization environment. An empowered individual (a) finds *meaning* in his or her role involvement, (b) feels *efficacious* with respect to his or her ability and capacity to perform, (c) has a sense of *determination* with regard with to specific means to achieve a desired outcome within his or her role, and (d) believes that the individual has *control over desired outcomes*, that he or she can have an impact on the larger environment. Because this conceptualization of empowerment is psychological, it is the individual's self-perception of empowerment, rather than other's perceptions, that is appropriate to examine. It is the subjective nature of empowerment that is of interest.

The Gestalt of Empowerment

The analyses of the literature and interview data reveal that empowerment is multifaceted and that its essence cannot be captured by a global variable. One issue that remains to be addressed is how the four dimensions combine to form a sense of empowerment, that is, how together they create a *gestalt* of empowerment. Conceptually, the four dimensions can be encompassed within two broader components: (1) a sense of meaning associated with one's role and (2) a sense of control associated with one's role (composed of the remaining three dimensions of empowerment identified above: competence, self-determination, and impact). Each component is considered to be a necessary, though not sufficient, condition for empowerment and is described below.

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6 Nevertheless, while empowerment was conceptualized as a psychological phenomenon, it was clear from the interviews that a variety of specific behaviors were associated with a sense of empowerment. Such associated behaviors are included within the theoretical framework and are described in Chapter III.

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Because a sense of meaning is believed to serve as the "engine" of empowerment (i.e. the mechanism through which an individual gets "magnetized" and "energized" about a role), it is considered a necessary, though not sufficient, condition for empowerment. If an individual's heart is not in his or her role -- if a role activity conflicts with his or her value system -- then the individual will lack a sense of empowerment, regardless of the magnitude of the other three control dimensions of empowerment. This assertion is corroborated by the interview data which show that in each and every one of the eighteen interviews the individuals reported a strong sense of meaning in their experiences of empowerment.

The other three components of empowerment (i.e., a sense of competence, a sense of self-determination, and a sense of impact) together encompass the second component of empowerment -- personal control. Following Paulhus's (1983) hierarchical model of control,[7] the three control dimensions may be conceived hierarchically as three concentric circles surrounding the individual's role (see Figure 2.1). The three dimensions are ordered in a developmental sequence. First, the individual vies for a sense of competence in a work role (e.g., a sense of personal control regarding the skills and abilities necessary to competently perform a role). Second, the individual vies for a sense of self-determination over how to perform a work role (e.g., a sense of control over work processes and scheduling). And third, the individual vies for a sense of impact over work outcomes (e.g., a sense of sociopolitical control over organizational policies and strategies). Each of the components represents an increasing perception of personal control in the organizational system.

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[7] Paulhus developed and tested a multidimensional, sphere-specific conceptualization of perceived control: (a) personal efficacy, (2) interpersonal control, and (3) sociopolitical control. Though the three dimensions of control are different in this study, Figure 2.1 is modeled after Paulhus's framework.

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I suggest that these three control dimensions combine additively, and with equal weight, to create the second, necessary, but not sufficient, condition of empowerment. These assertions regarding personal control are also corroborated by the interview data. The competence and self-determination dimensions of personal control were evident in 17 out of 18 empowerment experiences, while the impact dimension was evident in 15 out of 18 empowerment experiences. Further, at least one of the three control dimensions was evident in each of the experiences of empowerment.

Thus, the two components of empowerment (i.e., meaning and personal control) are argued to relate multiplicatively to create a sense of empowerment. If an individual lacks a sense of either component, he or she will not experience a sense of empowerment. Each of the components then is a necessary but not sufficient condition of empowerment. In sum, the two basic components are argued to relate multiplicatively as follows:

$$Empowerment = Meaning \times (Competence + Self\text{-}Determination + Impact).$$

This equation will be use to create an index of empowerment.

Assumptions

Some general assumptions about this conceptualization of empowerment should be made explicit. First, empowerment is not assumed to be a stable trait or personality attribute, but is rather seen as a dynamic phenomenon that can be influenced by the context in which one is embedded. Empowerment reflects the ongoing ebb and flow of one's perceptions about the covariation among the self (as agent), behavior, and outcomes. An individual's sense of empowerment may be

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facilitated or discouraged by critical, salient environmental events. For example, in one interview an individual described how a promotion into a quality control position in the organization affected his sense of personal empowerment. The new position was much more highly formalized than his previous position that had provided him with significant autonomy and authority. In order to minimize the chance of a violation of Environmental Protection Agency regulations, a specific rule had been formulated for virtually every aspect of his job. Consequently, the individual reported a lack of empowerment in the new role; he felt that he no longer had ownership or control over his role in the organization. This example illustrates the potential influence of the context on empowerment. Nonetheless, I suggest that in the absence of significant contextual changes (such as a promotion, a new superior or subordinate, new responsibilities, an organizational change), a sense of empowerment is assumed to be fairly stable.

Second, empowerment is assumed to be a continuous, rather than a discrete, variable. Empowerment is viewed as a continuum where one end is anchored with a very weak sense of empowerment and the other end is anchored with a very strong sense of empowerment. Thus individuals can be viewed as more or less empowered rather than empowered or not empowered. Third, a sense of empowerment is also assumed to be role-specific. A given individual may feel highly empowered in one role yet highly disempowered in another role. For example, in an interview one individual reported feeling highly empowered as the general manager of a large division undergoing a major transformation, but highly disempowered in his role as step-father to a teen-aged daughter. Individual empowerment within a given role is the focus of interest in this study.

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Construct Validity of the Empowerment Construct

As described in Chapter II, the construct validation of the empowerment concept is a priority in this study. Schwab suggests that construct validation is particularly important at early stages of conceptual development because:

> Substantive relative to construct validation research has been overemphasized in organizational behavior. As a consequence, our knowledge of substantive relationships is not as great as is often believed, and not as great as would be true if the idea of construct validity received greater attention. Investigators [should] sequence their research activities so that construct validity is considered before substantive research is performed [1980: 4].

This process is followed in this study; construct validity of empowerment is first established before any substantive hypotheses are examined.

To establish the construct validity of a new measure, one must (1) specify the domain of the construct (i.e. content validity), (2) assure that the new construct relates predictably to other measures purporting to measure the same construct and (3) assure that it relates predictably to other relevant constructs (Nunnally, 1978). In response to Nunnally's first condition, the four elements of empowerment identified in Chapter II (i.e., meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact) specify the content domain of empowerment. In response to Nunally's second condition which suggests that a new measure should be compared with other measures of the same construct, no other measures of role empowerment currently exist; thus, this aspect of construct validity cannot be assessed. Finally, in response to Nunally's third condition, the hypotheses developed below will help to define a partial nomological network of the antecedent and consequent conditions of empowerment. Another component of nomological validity is the concurrent and discriminant validity of empowerment from related constructs. This component of construct validity is briefly addressed below.

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Concurrent and Discriminant Validity

"The degree to which measures of one variable correlate with measures of another, when both should naturally covary, is known as concurrent validity" (Bagozzi, 1981: 326). In terms of concurrent validity, self-esteem is a concept that is believed to be conceptually related to empowerment because it also reflects a positive self-orientation. Self-esteem is defined as a trait reflecting an individual's affective evaluation of the self (e.g., feeling of self-worth or liking) (Brockner, 1988). Individuals with a predisposition toward self-esteem are expected to be more likely to feel empowered because of a strong sense of self-confidence and control. In related research, Ashforth (1990) found that learned helplessness was related to diminished self-esteem.

Discriminant validity is the extent to which measures of different constructs are distinct (Bagozzi, 1981). In terms of discriminant validity, self-esteem is also conceptually distinct from empowerment (Zimmerman, 1991). Where empowerment is defined as a dynamic concept, self-esteem is considered to be a more stable trait. Further, where empowerment is role-specific, self-esteem is a more global construct. Concurrent and discriminant validity will be ascertained if empowerment is related to, yet distinct from, self-esteem.[8] Thus, it is argued that:

> **Hypothesis 1:** Empowerment will be related to, yet distinct from, self-esteem.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, a parsimonious and generalizable definition of empowerment was developed through a synthesis of the interdisciplinary

[8] Concurrent and discriminant validity are typically examined with respect to the same variable. For example, Bagozzi (1981) hypothesized that concurrent and discriminant validity would be achieved for expectancy-value and semantic differential measures of attitude.

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literature on empowerment and a series of interviews on the individual experience of empowerment. Four dimensions of empowerment were identified: a sense of meaning, a sense of competence, a sense of self-determination, and a sense of impact. The *gestalt* of empowerment was discussed, and assumptions of the conceptualization were made explicit. Issues of construct validity of empowerment, including concurrent and discriminant validity, were also addressed. In Chapter III, a theoretical framework examining a partial nomological network of the antecedents and consequences of empowerment is discussed.

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CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This dissertation integrates both the psychological and more traditional relational perspectives on empowerment into a tripartite theoretical framework. The framework links individual empowerment with its social-structural antecedents and behavioral outcomes (see Figure 3.1). The four-dimensional conceptualization of empowerment described in Chapter II reflects the **psychological perspective** on empowerment while the social-structural components of the framework capture the **relational perspective** on empowerment. The basic logic underlying the framework is that the social-structural context in which the individual is embedded can facilitate an individual sense of psychological empowerment which then results in a number of behavioral effects. A psychological sense of empowerment is viewed as a mediator between social-structure and individual behavior. In this way, the framework provides a partial nomological network of the antecedent conditions and consequences of empowerment. The framework includes the three requisite components of empowerment theory articulated by Zimmerman (1991): cognitive components (i.e., the four dimensions of empowerment), interactional components with the environment (i.e., social structure), and behavioral components. This partial nomological network also helps to guide efforts to further validate the empowerment construct and its measurement.

The left side of the framework identifies the social-structural contextual variables that are hypothesized to facilitate an individual's sense of

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empowerment. Dispositional characteristics are also likely to be antecedents of empowerment but are not the focus of this research. Social-structural antecedents of empowerment are examined instead of dispositional characteristics for a number of reasons. First, contextual factors historically have limited an empowered role for individuals in the workplace. For example, Marx (1961) described the constraining and debilitating effects of a highly centralized social structure. Rarely, in organizational studies, are social structures viewed as liberating structures (Torbert, 1991). Second, social-structural variables tend to be more malleable to change strategies than dispositional variables that are considered more stable. Third, it is believed that social-structural variables will explain more variance in empowerment than dispositional variables. In future research, however, dispositional variables will be included to provide a more holistic framework of empowerment.

The social-structural contextual factors posited to have an effect on an individual sense of empowerment include (1) organizational structure, (2) access to sources of system power, and (3) organizational culture. These social-structural conditions are hypothesized to create an environment which is conducive to an individual sense of empowerment. I am not advocating social-structural determination of psychological empowerment; rather, I view the social-structural variables as facilitating conditions for empowerment. It is not difficult to identify individuals who are empowered in spite of debilitating environmental conditions or who are not empowered in the "best" of conditions. These arguments are consistent with symbolic interaction theory in the sociological literature; according to symbolic interactionist theory, an individual is viewed as an actor in the environment, shaping and creating his or her own world as well as being shaped by it.

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The right side of the model links individual empowerment with specific behavioral outcomes. Behavioral outcomes of interest include behaviors that challenge the system's status quo and conceptions of managerial effectiveness. These behavioral outcomes are particularly interesting because they exemplify some of the individual characteristics suggested to facilitate effective organizational responsiveness in an uncertain and changing environment (Drucker, 1988; Kanter, 1988; 1989b). To complete the nomological network, the framework also specifies empowerment as a mediating mechanism linking organizational social structure and behavior outcomes. In this way, the framework conceptually unites in a coherent system both contextual antecedents and behavioral outcomes of empowerment. Each of these linkages is described below.

Social-Structural Antecedents of Empowerment

A body of research exists that has examined the effect of social-structure on individual motivation and behavior, though it has been almost wholly empirical and lacking a theoretical framework (Berger and Cummings, 1979; James and Jones, 1976; Ouchi, 1977; Rousseau, 1978, 1985). In fact there is a dearth of substantive, theory-driven research on cross-level phenomenon in general (see Staw, Sandelands, and Dutton, 1981 for an exception). Specifically, House and Rousseau call for theory and research that focuses on developing a "cognizance of how organizational settings influence the manner in which behavior plays out, as well as cognizance of how individuals and groups influence, and are influenced by, the organization context in which they function" (1992: 1). Further, most of the research examining linkages between social-structure and individual motivation and behavior has focused exclusively on the non-managerial population in the organizational hierarchy and has examined only a

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limited set of individual outcomes including job satisfaction, turnover, absenteeism, and job performance.

One objective of this chapter is to strengthen current understanding of the relationships between organizational social structure and individual outcomes in three specific ways. First, the set of social structural variables is extended beyond the traditional set of structural variables (e.g., size and span of control) to include sources of system power (i.e., access to resources and information, and sociopolitical support) and organizational culture. This expanded set of social structural characteristics is particularly pertinent to *managerial* roles as contrasted with lower level line roles. Second, a different set of individual-level dependent variables is examined, namely the four dimensions of empowerment: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. And third, unlike previous works which have been primarily empirical in nature, some initial theoretical logic is provided for the relationships examined herein.

In the framework, three sets of social structural variables that challenge the assumptions of traditional bureaucratic structures are presented and argued to facilitate empowerment. Traditional bureaucratic social structures have been argued to result in high social costs through disempowerment, reduced labor productivity, and decreased worker satisfaction. Marx (1961) saw bureaucracy as "inevitably engendering massive worker alienation through large-scale capitalistic productions, factory discipline, propertyless labor uprooted from the land, and the workers' divorce from ownership" (Alexander, 1981: 43). Contrary to traditional bureaucratic systems, the three sets of variables described below are argued to create a liberating, rather than constraining, context.

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Theoretical Rationale for a Department-Level Social Structure

The social-structural variables in the framework are those in the immediate vicinity of the individual, those of the unit or department in which the individual is a member. The department is chosen as the appropriate level of analysis for examining the social-structural context for two reasons. First, departments across an organization, especially a large and complex organization, are not homogeneous; rather, they are highly differentiated:

> Most research rests on an implicit assumption of homogeneity (Scott *et al.*, 1972), positing uniformity of work and structural forms across participants and departments, although we know that differentiation is characteristic of complex organizations. Large variations in units within organizations have been documented by Hall (1962) and Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) [Comstock and Scott, 1977: 178].

Focusing on organizational-level social-structure would average out these differences across departments. Second, because the intent in this study is to understand role empowerment and because individual work roles tend to be specific to a given context, the department is the more appropriate context to examine (House, 1990). Thus, for these theoretical reasons, the social-structural context at the department level has been chosen as the arena of focus.

In order to facilitate understanding of the role of context in individual experiences of empowerment, hypotheses describing the relationship between three sets of social-structural variables in organizations and individual empowerment are developed below. For each social structure variable, a theoretical logic for its relationship to empowerment is provided, relevant literature is reviewed, and interview data is integrated.

Department Structure

Theoretical Logic. Structure may be defined as the enduring characteristics of an organizational system reflected by the distribution of roles,

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positions, and responsibilities within an organization and their systematic relationships to each other (James and Jones, 1976). Four of the most frequently studied properties of structure are centralization, formalization, specialization, and configuration (Blau, 1955; Pugh, Hickson, Hinings, and Turner, 1968).[9] **Centralization** describes the locus of decision making authority (Miles, 1980). High centralization reflects systems where all decisions are made by one person and then implemented through direct supervision. **Formalization**, or work standardization, is the extent to which expectations regarding work means and ends are explicit (Miles, 1980). Scientific management, where specifications for the performance of individual roles and unit tasks are clear, detailed, and unequivocal, represents a high level of work formalization. Formalization is typically achieved through the development of explicit rules and procedures (Mintzberg, 1983). **Specialization** refers to the degree of differentiation within the organization (Miles, 1980). Formal division of labor (e.g. assembly lines) represents a high level of specialization. **Configuration** refers to the shape of the structure (Miles, 1980). Two typical configuration measures are size and span of control (i.e. number of subordinates reporting to an immediate superior) (Mintzberg, 1983).

These four structural dimensions can be integrated into a more global, single dimension that contrasts organic and mechanistic structures at either a department or organizational level (Burns and Stalker, 1961). Though published 30 years ago, the theory of mechanistic and organic structures has proved highly durable because it captures the most fundamental properties of organizations

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[9] Though these variables have received considerable attention at a macro level, they have received little attention from a micro or cross-level perspective. It is precisely an understanding of these variables for which House and Rousseau make a plea: "spans of control, chains of command, hierarchical differentiation, formalization, standardization, decentralization, social stratification, organizational subunits ..." (1992: 6).

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(Courtright, Fairhurst, and Rogers, 1989). The mechanistic model emphasizes centralized authority, many rules and procedures, precise role specialization, and narrow spans of control (Likert, 1967). Emphasis is on order, control, efficiency, and predictability of the behavior of organizational members (Clegg, 1981). Hierarchical-bureaucratic structures are common examples of mechanistic systems. These systems are thought to be more appropriate for stable, predictable conditions (Mintzberg, 1983). In contrast, the organic model reflects a structure with a low level of centralization, specialization, and formalization, and a wide span of control (Likert, 1967). Emphasis is on flexibility, adaptability, and innovation. Systems that emphasize participation and self-management are exemplary of organic systems (Courtright, et al., 1989). Organic systems are believed to be more appropriate for conditions requiring high levels of organizational adaptiveness and flexibility (Mintzberg, 1983).

The differentiation between mechanistic and organic structures is strikingly parallel to the distinction between "strong" and "weak" situations (Tosi, 1990). A strong situation is one that leads everyone to construe the situation in the same way and induces uniform expectancies regarding appropriate response patterns (Mischel, 1977: 347). Because mechanistic structures emphasize high goal definition, precise lines of authority, high task definition, and routine solutions to problems, they are likely to create a more "strong" situation for individuals. A weak situation, in contrast, is more ambiguous and unstructured, exerting little pressure for conformity (Snyder and Ickes, 1985). Because organic structures have low goal definition, loosely drawn lines of authority, ambiguous task definition, and nonroutine solutions to problems, they are likely to create a weak situation for individuals. In this way, an organic situation reflects a weak situation because there is opportunity for individual discretion.

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Theory on the effects of strong versus weak situations on individual responses may be helpful in understanding the relationship between structure and individual empowerment. Because strong situations are mechanisms for system control and conformity, they encourage passive individual mindsets and behaviors (Pennings and Woiceshyn, 1987). In strong situations, individual behavior is homogenized, and individuals have limited opportunity for personal discretion or impact (Kerr and Slocum, 1981). In contrast, because weak situations exert few pressures for conformity, they facilitate a more active individual orientation with respect to the larger system and allow a range of employee responses to work requirements. Hence, I suggest that organization structures that tend to be weaker or more organic are likely to facilitate empowerment because the intensity of the situation will not suppress variation in individual mindset or behavior. In a more organic system individuals are likely to see themselves as active "sculptors" of the organization rather than as passive "sculpture" in the organization (Bell and Staw, 1989).

Previous Research. Some research has implicitly addressed the relationship between mechanistic/organic structures and human responses. Early work in this area related indexes of industrialization and/or organizational structure to worker satisfaction and/or alienation (Aiken and Hage, 1966; Argyris, 1957; Blauner, 1964; Kohn, 1977; Organ and Greene, 1981; Seeman, 1967; Woodward, 1965). Generally higher levels of centralization, formalization, specialization, and size and lower superior spans of control have been found to be associated with lower job satisfaction and higher alienation (Berger and Cummings, 1979; Dalton, Todor, Spendolini, Fielding, and Porter, 1980; James and Jones, 1976).

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Recently, some researchers have begun to extend this logic to describe the relationship between structure and empowerment. Block (1987) argues that bureaucratic, hierarchical structures foster dependency, the denial of self-expression, negative forms of manipulation, and less meaningful organizational goals. Similarly, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) have suggested a positive relationship between organic-oriented organizational systems and empowerment. House and Rousseau (1992) argue that narrow spans of control discourage delegation of authority and empowerment of subordinates. In terms of specific empowerment dimensions, while Greenberger and Strasser (1991), Greenberger, Strasser, Cummings, and Dunham (1989), and Martinko and Gardner (1982) have posited a link between organic organizational systems and high personal control, Conger and Kanungo (1988) suggest a linkage between a bureaucratic context and low feelings of self-efficacy.

Interview Insights. Information from the interviews on individual experiences of empowerment (described in Chapter II) also suggests a relationship between organic systems and a sense of empowerment. For example, one supervisor described a sense of disempowerment when top management presented him with a detailed manual of rules and procedures for many of his day-to-day work operations. Though he was the most experienced and familiar with the daily details of his work, the manual suggested that top management viewed him as incompetent in making even the most minor decisions regarding how to perform his work activities. In another example, a manager described his sense of disempowerment resulting from a "micro-managing" boss. The span of control ratio was basically one to one, and all decisions were centralized at the level of his boss.

Thus, it is hypothesized that:

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Hypothesis 2: Individuals in departments which have more *organic* structures will experience a higher sense of empowerment than individuals in organizational departments having more mechanistic structures.

Sources of System Power

Sociopolitical support and access to strategic information and organizational resources are critical for individuals to perform in organizations. It is believed that individuals who have adequate support, information, and resources for their roles in the system will be more likely to take an active rather than passive role in the system in which they are embedded. The hypothesized relationships between each of the three sources of system power and psychological empowerment are described below.

(A) Sociopolitical Support

Theoretical Logic. Sociopolitical support is defined as social support from various organizational constituencies and is typically gained from membership in organizational political networks. Sociopolitical support is reflected in offers of endorsement, approval, and legitimacy from key organizational constituencies (Kanter, 1983). Social networks define the social fabric of an organization and provide their members with key channels for getting things done in the organization (Brass, 1984; Ibarra, 1991). Sociopolitical organizational support networks of particular importance include the individual's superior as well as his or her peers, subordinates, work group, cross-functional teams, key senior managers, and may even include customers or suppliers. Sociopolitical support facilitates an individual sense of empowerment through the creation of trust in the system.

Previous Research. In sociology, Crozier (1964) argues that membership in support networks increases an individual's task interdependence with key

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constituencies and hence their personal power. He argues that individuals who have greater centrality, criticality, relevance, and visibility in sociopolitical networks are more likely to feel a sense of personal power and hence empowerment. In contrast, a lack of interdependence within sociopolitical networks may lead to feelings of powerlessness and helplessness. In psychology, research has noted the importance of work and familial social support for individual quality of life and work (Kahn and Quinn, 1970).

In the organizational studies literature, Walton (1985) suggests the importance of organizational support, specifically mutual trust and influence between superior and subordinate as well as cross-functional interaction, as a means for breaking forces of domination in organizations. Westley (1990) argues that in order for middle managers to feel empowered, they must experience both inclusion and some level of domination within strategic conversations with superiors. Vogt and Murrell (1990) posit that interdependence and collaboration facilitate individual empowerment. Gutierrez (1990) advocates the development of helping networks in the process of building psychological empowerment.

Interview Insights. Evidence from the interviews with individuals on their experiences of empowerment also supports a relationship between organizational support and a sense of empowerment. Many managers described the importance of sociopolitical support from their co-workers. For example, one manager said, "I need to know that I've got support, not only from my boss who is perhaps the most important, but also from my people, my customers, and my suppliers. I need to know that they are there behind me, ready to assist at a moment's notice. I need to be able to trust that they're behind me 100 percent regardless of the situation." Another manager said, "Given the time and energy I spend with these guys, I have to know that they are behind me 100%. I need to

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know that I can count on them when I need them." Still another manager noted that "If top management didn't support the mission and purpose of what I am trying to do, then I might as well forget about it because I know it will never get off the ground." Hence, in the interviews it was evident that having support in the system was seen as critical for one to feel empowered.

Thus, it is argued that:

> **Hypothesis 3:** Individuals who receive greater *sociopolitical support* within their department will experience a stronger sense of empowerment than individuals who receive less support in their department.

(B) Access to Strategic Information

Theoretical Logic. Kanter suggests that in order to be empowering, those at the top of organizations "must make more information more available to more people at more levels through more devices" (1986: 5). Such information might include data about production work flow, productivity, the external environmental, the competition, and top management strategy regarding the future direction of the organization. Top management must emphasize immediate, direct communication in real time to give people the information they need to act. The basic logic underlying the relationship between strategic information and empowerment is that greater access to strategic organizational information allows individuals to see the "big picture" and to develop alternative frames of reference for understanding their role in the operations of the organization.

Critical contingency and resource dependence theories argue that greater access to information facilitates greater personal power in the system and enables individuals to get their work done. These relationships are predicated on the assumption that people desire to be correct in their judgments and to understand

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the world around them (Pfeffer, 1982). Greater access to information facilitates individual sense-making, especially during times of high uncertainty and complexity (Weick, 1979). As a result, an individual's confidence in his or her ability to perform and to have impact on the system is enhanced. The individual experiences enhanced feelings of empowerment due to a greater understanding of the organizational vision and strategy. Individuals may also feel more qualified to make decisions regarding the initiation and continuation of specific behavior. This information is critical for individuals to align themselves with the larger organizational strategy. "Until people feel informed about where they are headed overall (in terms of company vision), they don't feel capable of taking the initiative to solve a problem" (Kanter, 1986: 5).

Daft and Lengel (1986) argue that information can be conceptualized along two dimensions: amount of information and richness of information. Of course, too much information can create information overload, but in information gleaned from the interviews, it was evident that except for those at the top of the organizational hierarchy, individuals were more likely to have too little access to strategic information rather than too much. The interview data suggests that even information that may be perceived by an individual as negative (such as information about an upcoming plant closing or unwanted merger) is facilitative to empowerment because it increases an individual sense of control. In addition, rich information is preferable to less rich information (i.e., information that "can overcome different frames of reference or clarify ambiguous issues to change understanding in a timely manner") (Daft and Lengel, 1986: 560). Rich information is particularly helpful in reducing uncertainty and equivocality thereby increasing a sense of control through understanding (Daft and Lengel, 1984). In sum, I argue that all else equal, more information, of a richer nature, is facilitative to individual empowerment.

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Previous Research. Some organizational theorists have suggested such a relationship between information and empowerment. Nonaka (1988) considers the sharing of strategic information freely across levels and functions to be critical to an individual sense of control and consequently innovative product development. In a model of "middle-up-down management," top management shares its strategic vision of the organization with middle managers who are able to integrate it with their personal experience and knowledge and hence develop personal strategies for action. In addition, the middle managers feed information back up the organizational hierarchy as a means for continually improving and refining the organizational strategy. Kouzes and Posner suggest that "without information, you can be certain that people will not extend themselves to take responsibility or vent their creative energies" (1987: 157). Westley (1990) suggests the exclusion from information about strategic information results in de-energization, powerlessness, and apathy. Block argues that in order to create an empowering environment, information should be cascaded throughout the organization:

> Sharing as much information as possible is the opposite of the military notion that only those that "need to know" should be informed. Our goal is to let people know of our plans, ideas, and changes as soon as possible. When we are reorganizing, we tell our people right away instead of waiting until the plan is fully formulated. When we shield our people we are acting as their parents and treating them like children. If we are trying to create the mindset that everyone is responsible for the success of this business, then our people need our complete information. We need to think of our subordinates and bosses as partners rather than as children or parents (1986: 90).

Interview Insights. Anecdotal evidence from the interviews on individual experiences of empowerment also supports such a relationship between information and empowerment. One manager related how in a managerial development program, top management shared confidential strategic information

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about the short and long term vision of the organization. Historically, this type of information would have been shared with only the top ten or twenty individuals in the organization. In addition to building trust in the organization, participants in the program noted that the sharing of such information enabled them to better align themselves with the organizational strategy, increased their sense of competence, and enhanced their belief in their ability to make a difference and have a personal impact in the system.

Thus, it is argued that:

> **Hypothesis 4:** Individuals who have greater access to *strategic organizational information* will experience a stronger sense of empowerment than those who have less access.

(C) Access to Organizational Resources

Theoretical Logic. In Kanter's terms,

> [Access to organizational resources] means more general managers working through smaller business units; more project teams that have budgets; special resource pools of unallocated funds that people can tap to solve problems. In short, they make it easier for people to tap locally what they need to get things done [1988: 6].

Examples of resources include funds, material, space, and time. At an individual level of analysis, resource dependence theory suggests that a lack of access to critical organizational resources contributes to feelings of powerlessness and dependency (Homans, 1958). Access to critical organizational resources may lead to feelings of personal control and ultimately a sense of empowerment (Hodson, 1991).

Previous Research. Walton (1985) describes an empowering system where there is high individual discretion of organizational resources. In this system, all individuals have appropriate authority to allocate spending and approve budgets. The outcome of such a system is highly energized individuals

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who assume responsibility and ownership for their roles. In Nonaka's (1988) system of information creation, time, people, and capital are the critical resources. Here top management is responsible for determining the overall direction of the company and vision. Beyond that, each individual and group has the authority to determine internal time lines and other resource allocations such as funding and staffing. This access to resources is believed to increase an individual's sense of personal empowerment. Similarly, Vogt and Murrell (1990) suggest that resource authorization should be decentralized to the lowest possible levels for individual empowerment. The basic logic underlying the relationship between access to resources and empowerment it that access to such resources enhances an individual's sense of control over environmental contingencies. Since resources play such a critical role in power relationships in organizations, the lack of access to resources creates a strong sense of powerlessness.

Interview Insights. Evidence from the interviews with individuals on their experiences of empowerment also supports a relationship between access to organizational resources and empowerment. One manager described the sense of disempowerment he felt when much of the authority delegated to him through an employee involvement program was revoked during a time of financial hardship in his division. All decision making authority for any expenditure over $100 became centralized in the division's top management. The message from top management was clear, "When the going gets rough, control reverts to us." The manager was particularly frustrated because he believed that it was precisely in such times of uncertainty and crisis that the organization was particularly in need of individual flexibility, discretion, and initiative. In addition, many individuals noted the importance of having access or being able to attain access to resources as critical to their feelings of control within the larger system. For

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example, one manager described, "I really hate begging my boss for what I need to get my job done. I know that resources are tight, but these are the basics I am asking for. It makes me feel out of control."

Thus it is hypothesized that:

> **Hypothesis 5**: Individuals who have greater access to *departmental resources* will experience a stronger sense of empowerment than individuals who have less access.

Department Culture

Theoretical Logic. Organizational systems are pervaded by cultures of values and beliefs that produce cognitions and norms of behavior (Smircich, 1983). Schein (1985) describes organizational culture as:

> The pattern of basic assumptions that a given group has invented, discovered, or developed in learning to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, which have worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

The basic logic underlying a relationship between organizational values and empowerment is that through the organizational value system, individuals make sense of organizational life and their role in the organization. Geertz describes organizational culture as "a set of control mechanisms -- plans, recipes, rules, instructions -- for the governing of behavior" (1973: 44). The collective values provide a frame of reference through which individuals make sense of organizational life (Weick, 1979). In this way, the collective values shape behavior, order perceptions, and mold attitudes (Feldman, 1985; Quinn and McGrath, 1985; Wiener and Vardi, 1990). Where organizational control is externalized through structure, it is internalized through culture (Ganster and Fusilier, 1989; Ray, 1977). The values of the organization serve as filters and fences for shaping the scope and content of cognitions; they color definitions of

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situations and govern attitudes and behaviors (Pennings and Woiceshyn, 1987). For example, Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) have shown that individuals in organizational units that emphasize values of human resources and innovation report a higher individual quality of life than individuals in organizational units that emphasize productivity and bureaucratic values.

Quinn (1988) describes four competing organizational value systems: human resource values, innovation values, rational goal values, and hierarchical values. A human resource value system focuses on the development of human resources emphasizing commitment, morale, participation, involvement, teamwork, and cohesion. An innovation value system focuses on responsiveness to the environment emphasizing vision, flexibility, expansion, growth, development, and innovation. A rational goal value system focuses on a goal-orientation emphasizing a task focus, goal achievement, objective setting, direction, efficiency, productivity, and profitability. Finally, a hierarchical value system focuses on control and predictability emphasizing routinization, stability, continuity, and order. I suggest that organizations that emphasize human resource and innovation values will be more empowering to individuals than those emphasizing rational goal or hierarchical values.[10] Human resource and innovative values place greater emphasis on developing "active" individuals in the organization and thus facilitate greater individual meaning, discretion, and impact. Such values generate a sense of individual control by integrating individuals into the firm.

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[10] Nonetheless, rational goal and hierarchical values may also be beneficial to a sense of empowerment but only in conjunction with strong human resource and innovation values. Rational goal values are important for aligning individual behavior to the larger organizational vision and strategy. Some task focus and goal orientation are important for getting work accomplished in organizations. Similarly a hierarchical focus is important for providing some level of coordination across individuals though not to an extent which prohibits individual initiative.

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Previous Research. In his seminal work on community and individualism, de Toqueville (1945) links closeness and intimacy of community with a sense of political efficacy and involvement. Traditional classical sociologists (e.g., Weber and Durkheim) "have portrayed the modern world as a disenchanted, anomic, noncommunity, one is which individuals are separated from each other and in which public spirit and political efficacy are extinguished and civic capacities are enervated" (Steinberger, 1977: 130). Basically, these theorists argue that it is through a sense of belongingness that individuals become actively involved and participate in the larger social system (Simpson, 1985). Manz and Sims (1989) suggest that organizations will find it difficult to develop empowered employees without providing an environment that facilitates individual contribution and initiation. Pascale (1990) describes the organizational values at Honda that facilitate a sense of empowerment:

> [Top management] believed that the enduring source of Honda's success was its employees. The task of top management was to release and channel their ideas. [Top management] rarely issued orders or gave directions. This approach was akin to Michelangelo's view of sculpting. Traditional sculptors approach their block of granite believing that a shape does not exist until the chisel creates it. Michelangelo believed the figure was already in the stone before he touched it. His task was to peel away the enshrouding marble and set it free. Honda regards the [organization's] primary role as 'freeing employees from the block of granite.' Whereas traditional managers might seek to engineer output from employees, Honda's approach is to discover latent ideas and initiatives and give them full rein [Pascale, 1990: 250].

Similarly, Evered and Selman (1989) distinguish between organizational values that emphasize control, order, and predictability and empowering organizational values that emphasize acknowledgement, creation, and liberation.

Interview Insights. The interviews with individuals on their experiences of empowerment provide corroborating evidence regarding a relationship between collective values and a sense of empowerment. Many individuals described the

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importance of the organizational value system for creating a sense of empowerment. Individuals suggested that a culture which emphasized the value of human capital and development helped to facilitate their sense of empowerment. Similarly, many noted a need to know that their ideas for innovation, change, and improvement would be taken seriously and valued. Otherwise, they were reluctant to act on their own initiative and discretion. For example, one individual said, "This organization values obedience and staying in line. I sometimes had the feeling that I was just part of a well-oiled machine that would run regardless of whether I did my job or a robot did my job. I knew that they wanted me to just do my job and nothing more." In contrast, another individual described, "I knew that there were strong values around the idea of continuous improvement and that I was expected to do my part, to contribute, to make a difference. In my unit it was clear that 'our people are our most important resource' was not just sloganeering."

Thus, it is hypothesized that:

> **Hypothesis 6:** Individuals who work in organizational departments which emphasize more *human resource and innovation values* will experience a higher sense of empowerment than individuals who work in organizational departments which emphasize more rational goal and hierarchical values.

Discussion of Social-Structural Antecedents of Empowerment

In sum, these five hypotheses describe the effects of the organizational context on a psychological sense of empowerment. Though there exists some theoretical and anecdotal evidence for these linkages, virtually no empirical support has been offered to corroborate the hypothesized relationships between social structure and empowerment. Thus, the theoretical development of the above hypotheses and their subsequent empirical examination begins to address this gap in the literature.

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Further, it should be noted that the relationship between social structure and empowerment may not be unidirectional. Over time, empowered individuals may have a reciprocal effect on their environment through their behavior (see the dotted line linking behaviors to the social-structural context in Figure 3.1). Because of their active perspective with regard to their environment, empowered individuals are likely to create a more empowering environment; thus, the association between an empowering organizational environment and sense of empowerment may be mutually reinforcing through a feedback loop between behavior and context. These ideas are consistent with Bandura's (1978) three-way reciprocal determinism where (1) the external environment, (2) cognitive and other personal factors, and (3) behavior are perceived to be mutually reinforcing (see Figure 3.2). Because of the bi-directionality of influence, people are seen to be both producers and products of their environment.

However, reciprocity does not mean that different sources of influence are of equal strength (Brief and Aldag, 1987). Nor do the reciprocal influences occur simultaneously. "It takes time for a causal factor to influence and to activate reciprocal influence" (Wood and Bandura, 1989: 262). Here it is assumed that, on average, the environment will have a more powerful effect on the individual than the converse. This assertion is supported by such theories as learned helplessness (Martinko and Gardner, 1982; Seligman, 1975) and organizationally induced powerlessness (Ashforth, 1989). Similarly, House and Rousseau (1992) argue that:

> Only on rare occasions will individuals have a dramatic effect on stable [social structures] -- when individuals have a high degree of power, or are extraordinary leaders, and the collective is simultaneously highly alienated or under rather severe threat, such that members are susceptible to social influence from powerful leaders (1992: 19).

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Though not a part of this study, ultimately, longitudinal studies will be necessary to clarify these linkages between organizational context and individual empowerment.

Behavioral Consequences of Empowerment

A plethora of research has examined the general relationship between attitudes, cognitions, and behavior (Ajzen, 1980; Bagozzi, 1991). In a similar vein, here, the primary question to be answered is: "Is a psychological sense of empowerment related to specific behaviors?" As seen in the interview data, a psychological sense of empowerment is bound inextricably to a variety of behaviors. Because empowerment is an active self-orientation with respect to the larger organization environment, it is reasonable to expect that an active mindset will translate into proactive behavior. A psychological sense of empowerment is argued to be associated with a number of individual responses including behaviors that challenge the status quo (i.e., innovation and upward influence) and managerial effectiveness. Hypotheses describing the relationships between a psychological sense of empowerment and each of these outcomes are outlined below. These behavioral outcomes are particularly interesting to examine because they have been noted to be critical competencies for workers in the turbulent 1990s (Drucker, 1988; Macher, 1988). Confirmation of these hypotheses would provide legitimacy to claims made in the popular literature regarding the relationships between empowerment and individual effectiveness.

Behaviors That Tend to Challenge the Status Quo: Innovation and Upward Influence

Theoretical Logic. Innovation is defined as the introduction of new methods, practices, and devices. Innovations can be of two primary types: first-

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order and second-order. Incremental, first-order changes consist of minor improvements and adjustments that occur as the system naturally grows and develops (Levy, 1985). They are incremental modifications that make sense within the established framework or method of operating (Bartunek, 1989). In contrast, second-order change is deeper change; it is the conscious modification of the established framework or method of operating in a particular direction (Bartunek and Moch, 1987). In this way, second order change tends to challenge the status quo more than first order change. The distinction between first and second order change is consistent with the distinction between single and double loop learning (Argyris and Schon, 1978), alpha and gamma change (Golembiewski, Billingsley, and Yeager, 1976), and content and role innovations (Van Maanan and Schein, 1979). Upward influence is defined as attempts to influence someone higher in the formal hierarchy of authority in the organization (Porter, Allen, and Angle, 1981).

Innovation, particularly second-order changes, and upward influence tend to challenge the current system or status quo. The status quo tends to be safe, comfortable, and legitimate. Challenging the current system or status quo, particularly in large bureaucratic organizations, is difficult. In many organizations, initiating changes in the status quo is primarily the responsibility of top management; for others lower in the organization hierarchy, the charge is to enforce the status quo, to preserve equilibrium, and to maintain stability (Schilit, 1987). Similarly upward influence does not tend to be legitimate in most organizations because it goes against traditional, top-down flows of formal authority. Consequently, both types of behavior require courage and may involve challenging traditional role expectations in the organization (Van Maanan and Schein, 1979).

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An individual sense of empowerment is believed to be associated with such system-challenging behaviors. For example, as Block explains:

> It is comforting to be led ... But each of us has to decide whose organization is this? If I want to feel a sense of ownership, then I must confront my own wish for dependency and move in the direction of autonomy. Knowing all along the way that I do have a choice and that, in fact, dependency may be the safer path. When we choose autonomy we realize that there is nothing to wait for. An autonomous mind-set means that I must commit myself to managing my unit in a way that makes sense to me and that the weight of the organization is on my shoulders. It is heavy but it is also liberating. If the people in power do not like what I am doing, let them stop me. Better to proceed than to wait for direction. Better to ask forgiveness than to seek permission. Better to be seen as stubborn than incompetent. This is the high-risk, high-anxiety choice that each of us has to make [1987: 16].

As described above, empowered individuals have an active, rather than passive, orientation to the larger organizational environment. Because of this active orientation, empowerment is likely to be associated with behaviors that challenge and question, rather than blindly follow, traditional role expectations.

Previous Research. The literature on social change suggests a relationship between individual empowerment and system transformation (Soloman, 1976; Boyte and Riessman, 1986). Rappaport (1981) and Zimmerman (1990b) show that empowerment is a key predictor of social change and citizen participation. Similarly, Kanter (1983) argues that individual empowerment is an important facilitator for system change, innovation, and entrepreneurship. Amabile describes the effect of a sense of meaning on change and creativity:

> When people are inspired by their own interests and enjoyment, there is a better chance that they will explore unlikely paths, take risks, and in the end, produce something unique and useful. When their goals are imposed on them by others, when they are goaded by fear of firing or lust for money, creativity withers (1988: 125).

To my knowledge, no previous research on the relationship between empowerment and upward influence behaviors has been conducted.

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Interview Insights. The relationships between empowerment and both innovation and upward influence were particularly evident in the interviews conducted with individuals on their experiences of empowerment. Because they felt a sense of empowerment, many individuals articulated that they were willing to give more of themselves, to put themselves on the line, and to take a chance. Many mentioned examples of how they deviated from norms of behavior for a given situation. Consequently, they articulated that they were more likely to take risks in the examples of empowered experiences than in the examples of unempowered experiences. For example, one individual described, "I acted very creatively, very much unlike my typical self. I knew that if [this unit's] efforts at continuous improvement and quality were going to work, then I would have to take responsibility for making change and improvement." Similarly, a number of individuals described a link between empowerment and upward influence. For example, one noted, "I didn't just tacitly agree with everything my boss said. I questioned him, negotiated with him, for what I though what the best strategy."

Much of the insight for the development of the hypothesis linking empowerment and second order change has come from my experience with individuals in a managerial development program. As a part of the program, participants were encouraged to reflect on how the content and context of the program might apply to their specific job responsibilities and then design some change initiative for application upon returning to their home unit. Little structure was provided concerning how to approach the initiative. As a result, two distinct approaches to the change initiative were clearly embraced. In the first approach, individuals typically "latched on" to some top management mandate and focused on implementing it as they were directed. One example of this first approach was a manager who implemented a new policy on cost reduction that was a direct application of a top management mandate on cost

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management. The second type of approach was quite different. Here individuals reflected on their experience in the program and then determined for themselves an appropriate application specific to their area of responsibility. This second approach tended to be a break from traditional ways of executing a role -- a new way of being, a new vision of a role and the larger system. In the second approach, the initiative was a fresh approach to old problems and traditional role expectations. One example of this second order approach to change was a manager who returned to her unit with a new vision of the credit approval process that incorporated new assumptions on the requirements for credit approval. With the new assumptions, four of the eight steps in the credit approval process were eliminated, and the process was significantly shortened from two days to eight hours.

The first type of change initiative described above is labeled a first order change, while the second type is labeled a second order change. In the program, it was clear that a sense of overall empowerment distinguished individuals who were more likely to focus on second order changes rather than first order changes. They were more likely "to go the extra mile" and make real change.

Thus, it is hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 7a: Individuals who experience a higher sense of personal empowerment will be more *innovative* within their role than individuals who experience a lower sense of empowerment.

Hypothesis 7b: Individuals who experience a higher sense of personal empowerment will be more likely to make *second-order change* than individuals who experience a lower sense of empowerment.

Hypothesis 8: Individuals who experience a higher sense of personal empowerment will be more *upward influencing* than individuals who experience a lower sense of empowerment.

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Managerial Effectiveness

Theoretical Logic. One of the primary reasons for the recent interest in empowerment is its suggested link to individual role effectiveness (Block, 1987; Vogt and Murrell, 1990) and organizational effectiveness (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Although empowerment may ultimately impact organizational effectiveness, only the relationship between empowerment and individual or managerial effectiveness is examined in this study. Vogt and Murrell (1990) suggest that it is through empowerment that individuals develop that critical spirit of inquiry and expanded consciousness that creates homegrown, authentic solutions that facilitate individual effectiveness. Because of their sense of meaning and connection, empowered individuals are more likely to give more of themselves to their roles, going the extra mile to be effective. Because of their sense of competence, empowered individuals are more likely to perform their given responsibilities satisfactorily thus becoming more effective. Because of their sense of self-determination and impact, empowered individuals are more likely to make a difference in the role and work unit, thus becoming more effective.

Previous Research. Each of the four dimensions of empowerment -- *meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact* -- are found to be related to individual responses that are hypothesized to facilitate individual productivity. Higher levels of *meaningfulness* result in less detachment and more commitment, involvement, and concentration of energy (Kanter, 1968). Higher levels of *competence* are related to greater effort and persistence in challenging situations, (Gecas, 1982; 1989), better coping and higher goal expectations (Ozer and Bandura, 1990), higher creativity (Manz and Sims, 1989), and performance (Locke, Frederick, Lee, and Bobko, 1984). Higher levels of *self-determination* are related to more creativity, higher flexibility, more conceptual learning, higher

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self-esteem, more positive affect, greater interest in activity, less pressure and tension, and more maintenance of behavior change and resiliency (Deci and Ryan, 1987). Higher levels of *impact* are associated with less depression and stress, increased job satisfaction and performance, less tendency to withdraw from difficult situations, less sabotage behaviors, and more innovation and creativity (Greenberger and Strasser, 1989).

Interview Insights. In the interviews, individuals consistently articulated how effective they personally felt and were perceived during experiences of empowerment. For example, one manager remarked, "Everything just seemed to fall into place, even the difficult problems -- they seemed to practically resolve themselves. And I was able to achieve each of my goals with little interference." Another individual commented, "My boss commended us for our work, said that our group had far exceeded his expectations, that we had gone the extra mile and then some." Thus individuals tended to see themselves and felt that they were perceived by other as highly effective during experiences of empowerment.

Thus, it is argued that:

Hypothesis 9: Individuals who experience a higher sense of personal empowerment will be more *effective* than individuals who experience low levels of empowerment.

Discussion of Behavioral Outcomes

A psychological sense of empowerment is posited to be related to the above behavioral outcomes: innovation, upward influence, and managerial effectiveness. These outcomes are particularly interesting to examine because they represent some of the core competencies for individual effectiveness in the fast changing 1990s (Drucker, 1988). It should be noted that the link between a psychological sense of empowerment and the hypothesized behaviors is most likely

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reciprocal. It seems probable that as individuals attempt behaviors such as innovation or upward influence, their psychological sense of empowerment may be enhanced or tempered as they experience success and failure. Nevertheless, the linkage from empowerment to these behaviors is expected to be stronger.

Mediating Effect of Empowerment

As noted above, the theoretical framework conceptually unites into a coherent system both contextual antecedents and behavioral outcomes of empowerment. Theoretical frameworks that identify such macro-micro linkages have been underrepresented in organizational studies (Rousseau, 1985; Srivastva and Cooperrider, 1986). This tripartite theoretical framework makes explicit one of the psychological mechanisms (i.e. empowerment) that mediates the relationship between social-structural context and subsequent individual behavior. Other mediating factors that might be examined in future research include personality traits, individual value systems, past experience, and personal stress, among others. Empowerment was the primary mediating mechanism chosen for this study because (1) empowerment may be especially responsive to interventions (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990), (2) empowerment is interactive with the environment (Zimmerman, 1990a), and (3) empowerment is especially relevant given the rapid rate of organizational change and decreasing employee morale of the 1990s (Fisher, 1991). Much work in our field treats such mediating mechanisms as "black boxes," directly linking contextual factors with individual behaviors. For example, Kanter (1983) suggests that as organizational structures are transformed from segmentalist to integrative, workers tend to become more innovative. Yet, she does not address the mechanisms through which the changed context facilitates new individual behaviors.

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Neilsen (1986) argues that changing the social-structural context within the organization is **not** a sufficient condition for changing individual behavior; ultimately a sense of **psychological empowerment** is necessary to produce such behavioral outcomes. Vogt and Murrell suggest that "the empowering path is a long one, and the first step must be a **mental transformation**, which will slowly lead toward confidence in the rightness and effectiveness of the process" and ultimately empowered behavior (1990: 38) [boldface added for emphasis]. Aktouf suggests that

> Because [empowerment] must be a *lived experience* and it can neither be contrived nor commanded, there is only one possible solution: Workers must experience their relation to their work as a real, rather than a formal, appropriation. What they do in the firm must be experienced as a real extension of themselves, as an occasion for self-expression as well as for the pursuit and satisfaction of personal desires and interests that converge with those of the firm (1992: 419).

The theoretical framework proposed here builds on these assertions by integrating social-structural contextual factors and individual behaviors through mediating psychological mechanisms of empowerment. As described by Baron and Kenny,

> In general, a given variable may be said to function as a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relationship between the predictor and the criterion. **Mediators explain how external physical events take on internal psychological significance.** Whereas moderator variables specify when certain effects will hold, mediators speak to how or why such effects occur [1986: 1176] (boldface added for emphasis).

In other words, the mediator variable (i.e. empowerment) represents the generative mechanism through which the focal independent variable (i.e. the social-structural context) is able to influence the dependent variable (i.e. individual behavior).

Thus, it is hypothesized that:

> **Hypothesis 10:** Empowerment mediates the relationship between social structure and individual behavior.

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Chapter Summary

This chapter developed a tripartite theoretical framework or nomological network that identified the social structural antecedents and behavioral consequences of empowerment. In terms of social structure, specific hypotheses linking organic structure, sources of system power, and department culture with empowerment were developed. In terms of behavioral outcomes, hypotheses were then developed that link empowerment to innovating and upward influencing behaviors and managerial effectiveness. The following chapter describes the research design used to examine the conceptualization of empowerment and the theoretical framework.

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CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology used to examine the theoretical framework discussed in Chapter III. A questionnaire was administered to a representative sample of 279 middle managers from diverse units of a large Fortune 50 corporation. In this chapter, the sample, procedures, measures, and analyses are described.

A Context for Examining the Framework

Given the increasingly turbulent organizational and environmental conditions of the 1990s, empowerment may be a construct of interest in a variety of contexts. For example, women and minorities report decreased feelings of empowerment as they face a "glass ceiling" in their quest for advancement in organizations. Line workers report greater feelings of disempowerment as they lose their traditional voice in organizations with the decline of unions. Social workers report increasing disempowerment as they face record demand for social services with decreased budgets and staff. Many contexts may be appropriate for studying the dynamics of empowerment.

In this study, the framework was examined within the context of middle managers. This context is particularly interesting for studying empowerment because the traditional role of middle managers in many organizations is undergoing radical change as organizations struggle to become leaner and more

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efficient. As evidenced in the business press, these changes exacerbate issues of empowerment for middle managers. For example, as O'Reilly (1992) reports,

> We hear over and over again that [middle] managers are feeling increasingly disenfranchised. Decision-making is moving higher and higher. Companies talk a good game about employee empowerment, but as times get tough, top management calls the shots (1992: 46).

Similarly Fisher (1991) notes,

> All too often, the people who used to be the brass's most reliable backers - middle managers, professionals - now seem to feel more disenfranchised and cynical than the hourly folks ... they are angry, distrustful, stressed out, and scared (1991: 69).

And it seems clear that issues surrounding middle managerial empowerment are likely to continue to increase in the coming decade (Dopson and Stewart, 1990; Huey, 1992; Fulop, 1991; Johnson and Frohman, 1989; Schilit, 1987).

Definition of middle managers

Because middle managers have been relatively neglected in the organizational studies literature, definitional issues of middle managers are seldom addressed. One exception is Mintzberg (1983) who defines middle management as all individuals not at the strategic apex or in the operating core of the organization. The strategic apex consists of those individuals "charged with overall responsibility for the organization -- the chief executive officer and any other [senior] managers whose concerns are global" (Mintzberg, 1983: 13). The operating core "encompasses those members -- the operators -- who perform the basic work related directly to the production and services" (Mintzberg, 1983: 12) as well as first-line supervisors who have direct authority over the operators. Middle managers have the following role characteristics:

> [The middle manager] collects "feedback" information on the performance of his unit and passes this up to the managers above him. He also intervenes in the flow of decisions. Flowing up are disturbances in the unit, proposals for change, decisions requiring

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> authorization. Flowing down are resources that he must allocate to his unit, rules and plans that he must elaborate, and projects that he must implement. He, too, has boundary conditions to manage. Each middle manager must maintain liaison contacts with other managers, analysts, support staffers, and outsiders whose work is interdependent with that of his own unit. Furthermore, he is concerned with formulating the strategy for his unit [1983: 15].

In addition to middle-line management, middle managers also encompass those in the technostructure (i.e. analysts) and those who serve as support staff (i.e. legal counsel, public relations, industrial relations, personnel, and research & development) (Mintzberg, 1983).

Research Design

Sample

Recently, Cappelli and Sherer (1991) have discussed the "missing role of context in OB." Since context plays a critical role in both theory development and empirical interpretation, the context of this study is briefly discussed before describing the sample. The study was conducted in a global, Fortune 50 industrial organization (hereafter referred to as the Major Corporation). The Major Corporation has operations in North America, Europe, and Asia. Though it might be considered "a machine bureaucracy" (Mintzberg, 1979) overall, there are strong differences in social structure across the Major Corporation's many divisions, functions, and geographic locations. In many ways, the Major Corporation represents a conglomeration of a number of smaller companies. In the 1980s, the Major corporation underwent a major crisis and transformation in its business practices (from management to product development to quality) in an attempt to regain market share and enhance its competitive advantage. At present, like most companies today, the Major Corporation is facing an economic recession. As described above, such turbulent environmental circumstances are

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likely to exacerbate issues of middle managerial empowerment in the Major Corporation.

The sample was drawn from the population of middle managers in the Major Corporation. The data were collected as part of a managerial development program in which all 3,000 middle managers from the organization will have participated over a three year period. The purpose of the program was to prepare the middle managers to be the leaders of the company in the 21st century. All functions of the organization were represented in the sample: marketing and sales, human resources, research and development, manufacturing and production, engineering, and finance. Further, the managers represented each division (including among others a luxury product division, an economy product division, a high technology division, a financial services division, and a components division) and numerous localities of the Major Corporation across the world (North America, South American, Europe, and Asia-Pacific).

Each middle manager was drawn from a separate unit of the organization. Data were collected from 279 middle managers who participated in the executive development program between September, 1991 and March, 1992. Program selection processes followed a random process within the company with equal representation across functions, divisions, and geographic locations; each division and function was allocated a representative number of slots in the program per year. No differences were found in a comparison of demographic and performance data between the middle managers in this sample and the middle managers in the rest of the company. Thus, the sample appears to be representative of the total population of middle managers within the organization.

The middle managers were approximately 93 percent male and over 85 percent white. Their mean age was 45.9 years. Seventy percent of the middle managers had at least a college education with many having some graduate

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training. Their mean tenure in the company was between 11 and 14 years, and their mean position tenure was just over three years.

Procedure

As described in Chapter II, qualitative interview data on the experiences of empowerment were collected and integrated into the construct development of empowerment. These qualitative data were also used in the development of the theoretical framework described in Chapter III and were also used to inform the results from the quantitative data analyses. Quantitative data were collected from a series of questionnaires administered during the managerial development program. All respondents were assured of complete confidentiality.

This mode of data collection had a number of advantages. First, because all middle managers participated in the program and because they were selected randomly, there was little chance of selection bias. Typically when using executive education data, selection bias can be a problem as participants are usually selected for a specific reason (e.g., high or low performance). Further, because the data were collected through the program, a 100 percent response rate was obtained from the middle managers, further reducing the potential for bias. Second, the validity of the data is potentially enhanced because the middle manager received confidential feedback from the data. In order to learn from the data, they must give valid responses. The managers were assured that their individual data would not be linked to them nor be used for appraisal purposes. They were told that the data would never be used in a non-aggregated form by the Major Corporation and that the data set would be housed at the University of Michigan. Third, a much richer set of data was able to be collected than might be expected from a discrete research project. Multiple assessments of key concepts in the theoretical framework were collected from different middle managerial

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associates (i.e., subordinates and their immediate superior). This mode of data collection helped avert problems of "same source" data bias. The procedure for the survey distribution to associates is briefly described below.

Associate Survey Procedure. Multiple assessments by the middle managers themselves, their subordinates, and their superiors were collected for culture, innovation, upward influence, and effectiveness. The middle managers were each provided with a package of 10 surveys, one to be completed by the manager him or herself. The middle managers were instructed to distribute the remaining surveys to their immediate superior and eight subordinates and peers with whom they interacted frequently on job-related matters and who knew them well. All associates were assured of complete confidentiality as only aggregate data would be provided as feedback to the middle manager. The confidentiality of all responses was emphasized strongly. The instructions provided to the associates are provided in Appendix B.[11]

Excellent cooperation was obtained from all associates. An average of seven of the nine of each of the middle manager's associates (a total of almost 2,000 associates) responded resulting in an associate response rate of over 78%. Because the number of subordinates varied across the middle managers (from two to seven), an exact assessment of interrater reliability (such as the chow test conducted by Ashford and Tsui, 1991) would be very complicated to conduct for the sample of 279 middle manager. However, the extent of interrater consistency may be assessed by examining the variance across the responses of the subordinates for each middle manager. Low variances across subordinates for a

---

[11] As described by Tsui (1984), the ideal design would be to identify the actual constituency set for each manager. The researcher then would randomly select the constituency samples. It would be, however, quite difficult and perhaps even prohibitive to identify the constituency set for 279 managers, particularly in an organization with some matrix structures.

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given middle manager would be indicative of strong interrater consistency. For subordinate assessments of unit culture, the average variance across subordinates for a given manager was .54 on a seven-point Likert scale. For subordinate assessments of innovating and upward influencing behaviors, the average variances across subordinates for a given middle manager were .37 and .55, respectively, on a seven-point Likert scale. Finally, for subordinate assessments of managerial effectiveness, the average variance across subordinates for a given middle manager was .39 on a five-point Likert scale. The average variance across all subordinate responses was substantially higher than the average variance across subordinates for a given middle manager (see Table 4.1). These low variances are indicative of good internal consistency across subordinate responses for a given manager.

Measures

Where possible, already validated and reliable scales from the literature were employed for the constructs in the theoretical framework. In cases where appropriate measures from the literature were not able to be identified, new measures were developed which reflect the conceptual development of the framework and which incorporate information obtained from the interviews described in Chapter II. The specific measures are described below.

Individual Empowerment. Separate scales were used to measure each of the four dimensions of individual empowerment. I encountered difficulty in identifying appropriate measures from the literature. Many scales encompassed inadvertently more than one of the dimensions of empowerment. For example, the Tipton and Worthington (1984) generalized self-efficacy scale includes items which emphasize the other four dimensions (e.g., "I have more than the average amount of self-determination"). Thus, these scales were clearly inappropriate for

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purposes of construct validity (particularly discriminant validity) of the four dimensions of empowerment. Consequently, for each of the four dimensions of empowerment, new items were created which were modeled after related items from the literature. Most items were adapted to be more job-specific. The items were also changed to a common response format -- a seven-point Likert scale. In addition, three negatively worded items were included in the instrument to minimize a response set bias. These specific items are described below and included in Appendix B:

> (1) **meaning**: Five items were adapted from Tymon's (1988) measure of meaningfulness and from Hackman and Oldham's (1980) measure of meaning. Tymon's measure had a cronbach alpha reliability of 0.72 and Hackman's measure had a reported cronbach alpha reliability of 0.74.
>
> (2) **competence**: Five items were adapted from Jones (1986) and Coppel (1981) measures of self-efficacy. Jones's measure had a reported cronbach alpha of 0.71 and Coppel's measure had a reported cronbach alpha reliability of .91 and a test-retest reliability of .86 over two weeks.
>
> (3) **self-determination**: Five items were adapted from Hackman and Oldham's (1980) autonomy scale. The Hackman and Oldham autonomy scale, which has only three items, had a reported cronbach alpha reliability of .66. Their first item is broken into two separate items which should significantly increase the internal consistency of the scale.
>
> (4) **impact**: Five items were adapted from Ashforth's (1989) helplessness scale. The Ashforth scale, which describes the cognitive inference that is drawn from powerlessness, had a reported cronbach alpha reliability of .87.

To increase the psychometric quality of the empowerment measures, some pretesting of the empowerment instrument was conducted on a sample of 80 middle managers in the Major Corporation. After examining the results from these preliminary respondents, the questionnaire was revised to clarify ambiguous wording. The results of the pretest facilitated the development of a modified 16 item questionnaire used in this study. All data presented in this study were from the main body of research (N=279) with the modified

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questionnaire. Because of their theoretical centrality to the study and the preliminary stage of measurement development, the construct validation of the measures of the dimensions of empowerment is explored in some detail in Chapter V.

Unit Structure. Zanzi's (1987) assessment of unit structure was adapted for this study (see Appendix C for the items). His instrument assesses the organic or mechanistic nature of a unit's structure and has a reported cronbach alpha reliability of 0.80. In an exploratory factor analysis in this study, Zanzi's scale factored into two separate factors (see Table 4.2).[12] The first factor, FLEXIBLE JOB DESIGN, had two items and represents a job where new solutions must be continually found and where it is difficult to predict how a job should be performed (alpha = .76). The second factor, FLEXIBLE ROLE DEFINITION, had three items and represents a unit where goals, lines of authority, and lower level tasks are not well defined (alpha = .60). The reliability for the last factor is fairly low using conventional standards, and any results including this measure should be interpreted with caution. As noted in the table, one item was dropped due to a low loading.

In general, unit structure should be assessed as "objectively" as possible, such as through key informants. However, because of data collection limitations, only self-assessments of the unit structure were able to be collected in this study. In order to increase our confidence about the validity of these self-assessments, comparisons were made between the two factors of organic structure identified above and the different organizational functions at the Major Corporation. Functions traditionally viewed as organic (i.e., research and manufacturing) were

[12] For each exploratory factor analysis in this chapter, the principle axis factor technique was employed and a varimax rotation was conducted. An item was retained if it had a primary factor loading of over .45 and no cross-loadings higher than .35 (Finkelstein, 1992).

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expected to relate positively to the self-assessments of organic structure. Similarly, functions traditionally viewed as more mechanistic (i.e., engineering and finance) were expected to be related negatively to the self-assessments of organic structure. As expected, in examining simple correlations, the research and manufacturing functions in this organization were found to be associated with higher assessments of flexible role definition and flexible job design. Similarly, the engineering and finance functions were found to be associated with lower assessments of flexible role definition and flexible job design. Thus, some support for these expected relationships was found, and we can have fair confidence in the validity of the organic structure measure in spite of the subjective nature of its measure.

Two additional, more objective, questions which measure unit size and the middle manager's superior's span of control (elements of organicity not captured in Zanzi's measure) were also collected. Univariate statistics for each of these measures are provided in Table 4.1. When included in a factor analysis with Zanzi's measures, they did not load onto either factor. Furthermore, their correlations with Zanzi's two measures were quite low (i.e., a high of .14 between flexible job design and unit size). Thus, these two measures capture independent components of organic structure, and each is used as an additional measure of organic structure in the substantive analyses.

Access to Sources of System Power. A set of Likert scales was created to measure access to membership in support networks, access to strategic information, and access to organizational resources. No previously validated scales could be located in the literature. These items were developed from information gleaned from the interviews described in Chapter II (see Appendix C for a description of the items). In an exploratory factor analysis, these items

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loaded onto three factors, as conceptualized (see Table 4.3). The first factor, ACCESS TO RESOURCES, had four items (alpha = .84). The second factor, ACCESS TO INFORMATION, had four items (alpha = .81). The third factor, SOCIOPOLITICAL SUPPORT, had four items (alpha = .84). As noted in the table, two items were dropped due to low loadings. A separate scale was created for each of the factors.

Unit Culture. Items from the Competing Values Model of Organizational Culture (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991) were used to assess organizational culture. In this study, items which assess human resource-oriented values and innovation-oriented values were employed (see Appendix C for the actual items). These measures have been shown to have appropriate convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991). In an exploratory factor analysis, these items loaded onto a single factor (see Table 4.4), which was labeled INTEGRATIVE CULTURE. It had eight items and was assessed by the middle manager's subordinates (alpha = .88). Univariate statistics for this scale are provided in Table 4.1.

Innovating and Upward Influencing Behaviors. Items from the Competing Values Model of Leadership (Denison, Hooijberg, and Quinn, 1991) were used to assess managerial behaviors. The items reflect eight different managerial roles, two of which are innovating and upward influencing. Scales for each of the eight roles in the competing values model have been shown to have adequate validity (convergent, discriminant, and nomological) and reliability (Denison, Hooijberg, and Quinn, 1991). See Appendix C for the specific items used to create the scales.

In this study, data on innovating and upward influencing (four items per role) were collected from the middle manager, his or her immediate superior, and

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subordinates. The subordinate responses were aggregated using their mean to create a single subordinate measure for each middle manager. In order to ascertain construct validity of the behaviors, a factor analysis of the items for innovating and upward influencing was conducted for each of the three sets of respondents (i.e., self, subordinates, and superior). In the analysis of the self-assessment responses (see Table 4.5), innovating and upward influencing behaviors each broke out as separate factors. The INNOVATOR factor had four items (alpha = .82), and the UPWARD INFLUENCE factor had four items (alpha = .83). In the factor analyses of the subordinate and superior assessments (see Table 4.6 and 4.7, respectively), innovating and upward influencing behaviors loaded onto a single factor (subordinate: alpha = .91; superior: alpha = .92). A separate scale was computed for each of the above factors. Univariate statistics for each of these scales is provided in Table 4.1.

Second Order Change. As part of an exercise in the managerial development program, middle managers were asked to reflect on some change initiative that they undertook in the previous six month period. The middle managers were asked to write a short description of the initiative and then answer a set of questions including characteristics of first and second order change. The items measuring the second order change were taken from Levy's (1985) theoretical work on second order change. They included such issues as level of risk, dimensionality, continuity, and irreversibility. See Appendix C for the actual items.

The items were factor analyzed, and a two factor solution was found (see Table 4.8). The first factor had three items and reflects revolutionary, discontinuous, and paradigmatic change (alpha = .67). The second factor had two items and reflects the scope and risk inherent in the initiative (alpha = .63).

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One item did not load strongly on either factor (i.e., irreversible) and one item (i.e., multidimensional orientation) loaded on both factors; each of the problematic items were dropped from further analysis.

In order to gain deeper insight into the meaning of these two factors (because they emerged unexpectedly), a content analysis of the middle managers' written descriptions of their change initiatives was conducted. It was found that initiatives scoring high on the first factor of change were changes that involved a paradigm change, changes in behavior that were conceptually different from previous modes of role activity, or the status quo. For example, one middle manager described a complete redefinition of a credit approval system where the traditional assumptions of customer service were challenged. As a result, a totally new process was conceived, and the time required to complete the credit approval process dropped from four days to two days. In contrast, a content analysis of the middle managers' descriptions of initiatives scoring high on the second dimension of change indicate that these initiatives did not represent a paradigm change, rather more of an incremental change. For example, one middle manager described improving a quality assurance process through greater manpower and financial resources. Another manager described how she conducted the performance appraisal process more systematically. In these initiatives, the system or process tended to be improved or maintained but no assumptions were challenged.

Given the information gleaned from the content analysis of the stories, the first factor captured the essence of second-order change. Thus, only the scale constructed for the first factor (i.e., the second order factor) was used in the following substantive analyses. Univariate statistics for this scale are also provided in Table 4.1.

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Managerial Effectiveness. Given the diverse jobs represented across the sample of middle managers, no common objective measures of effectiveness were available. Therefore, the Quinn, Faerman, and Dixit (1988) measure of perceived overall performance was used. It includes items assessing performance standards, overall success, comparison to peers, performance as a role model, and overall effectiveness (see the actual items in Appendix C). High scores on this measure indicate perceived overall performance. Quinn *et al.* (1988) found this scale to have an alpha reliability of 0.77. This measure is similar to Tsui's (1984) measure of reputational managerial effectiveness which emphasizes the extent to which focal managers had met constituents' performance expectations.

Self, subordinate, and the middle manager's immediate superior assessments of this scale were collected. The three separate assessments of managerial effectiveness were collected because it is believed that middle managers are presented with different expectations or demands from different constituencies (Tsui, 1984). The subordinate responses were aggregated to create a single subordinate score on each measure. For each of the three sets of respondents (i.e., self, subordinates, and superior), the five effectiveness items were factor analyzed, and in each case, a single factor solution was found (see Table 4.9). Respective reliabilities were found for each group: self (alpha = .85), subordinate (alpha = .93), and superior (alpha = .92). A separate scale was then computed for each of the three assessments of effectiveness. Univariate statistics for the three scales are provided in Table 4.1.

In addition, two additional items which proxy a more objective measure of managerial effectiveness were also collected. These variables included the number of promotions received within the last five years the middle manager and the percent of salary increase over last year's base salary. The psychometric properties of these two measures could not be assessed because they were

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measured with single items. However both promotions and salary increases correlated significantly (r = 0.34, 0.17, respectively) with superior assessments of effectiveness (see Table 5.18). Univariate statistics for these two scales are also provided in Table 4.1.

Self-Esteem. Self-esteem was assessed with Coopersmith's (1967) 17 true/false questions. After appropriate recoding, an index was formed by summing the true responses. Thus, a high value indicates a strong level of self-esteem. When summed, the index takes on the properties of an interval scale. These items were administered as part of a larger instrument, the Lifestyle Analysis Questionnaire, which was administered to the middle managers by the Fitness Research Center at the University of Michigan. The middle managers then received confidential personal feedback on their responses. The self-esteem index has a KR-20 reliability of 0.76 (a cronbach alpha reliability is not appropriate because of the dichotomous nature of the individual items). Univariate statistics for this scale are provided in Table 4.1.

Demographic Variables. A number of additional variables were collected including age, gender, educational level, race, and functional specialty. These data were collected in response to Mitchell's argument that researchers should "actively try to conceptualize and measure those variables that may serve as potential confounds" (1985: 196). Kanter (1977, 1983) has argued that women and minorities are less likely to feel empowered in most organizations because of their token status. It is argued that older middle managers are also less likely to feel empowered because they tend to be perceived as plateaued in the Major Corporation. It is further argued that individuals with higher levels of education are more likely to feel empowered, particularly with respect to the competence dimension of empowerment.

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If significant relationships are empirically found for these variables in the study, they will be statistically controlled for in the substantive analyses. Univariate statistics for these demographic variables are included in Table 4.1. Their actual measures are provided in Appendix C.

Social Desirability. In order to control for social desirability response bias, an instrument to assess social desirability was included in the questionnaire. As described by Bradburn,

> Individuals with a strong need for approval will be more likely to select socially desirable answers on a questionnaire. Thus questionnaires that enquire about socially desirable or undesirable behavior or attitudes (which includes a very large proportion of surveys in social science research) will be subjected to response biases due to the differential strength of this need among respondents [1983: 316].

The Jackson (1967) social desirability scale was employed. The items were recoded where appropriate and then summed to obtain an overall measure of social desirability. This index was found to have a KR-20 reliability of 0.65. See Appendix C for the actual items.

Method Bias

In order to control for bias due to "same source" data (Felson, 1981; Frone, Adams, Rice, and Instone-Noonan, 1986; Saal, Downey, and Lahey, 1980), different sources of data were used for the scales on unit culture, innovating and upward influencing behaviors, and managerial effectiveness. Subordinates assessed unit culture, innovating and upward influencing behaviors, and managerial effectiveness. Innovating and upward influencing behaviors and managerial effectiveness were also assessed by the manager's immediate superior. In addition, objective assessments of managerial effectiveness were assessed with data on promotions and salary increases. Because psychological empowerment has been conceptualized as a subjective phenomena, it was assessed by the middle

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manager him or herself. In addition, because the individual is likely to have the most valid assessment of the extent of their access to strategic information and resources as well as sociopolitical support, these measures were also assessed by the manager him or herself. As described above, because of data collection limitations, organic structure was also assessed by the middle manager. However, some validity checks of this measure were assessed to determine it's objectivity. In sum, these different data sources create a rich data set that minimizes the potential for response biases.

Analyses

Construct Validation of Empowerment. One objective of this analysis was to examine the validity and reliability of the theory-based four-dimensional measure of empowerment. Both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to determine the construct validity and reliability of the four empowerment dimensions as described by Bagozzi, Yi, and Philipps (1991) and Bagozzi and Yi (1988). A second order confirmatory factor analysis was also conducted to ascertain the *gestalt* of empowerment. Scales for each dimension were then created. An index of empowerment, using the formula developed in Chapter II, was also created for use in the following substantive analyses. Concurrent and discriminant validity of empowerment from self-esteem was also assessed using LISREL, as was the potential for social desirability bias. In addition, the theory-based multiplicative formulation of empowerment was compared to two, more simple, formulations (i.e., a simple additive formulation and a linear combination based on the coefficients generated in the second order confirmatory factor analysis).

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Relationship between Social-Structure and Empowerment. To examine the relationship between the hypothesized organizational contextual variables and empowerment, correlational analyses as well as regression analyses were conducted. Regression analyses (i.e., ORDINARY LEAST SQUARES) were used to assess the independent effects of each of the social structure variables on empowerment. In an exploratory analysis, separate regression analyses were run for each of the four empowerment dimensions to ascertain their different effects on the dependent variables. Because of their potential to confound coefficient estimates of primary interest (i.e. empowerment), age, education, gender, and social desirability were also included as control variables.

Relationship between Empowerment and Outcomes. To examine the relationship between empowerment and the various outcome variables, correlational and regression analyses were employed to examine the relationships between empowerment and each of the dependent variables hypothesized in Chapter III. In an exploratory effort to learn more about the individual effects of the four dimensions of empowerment, a second series of regression analyses were conducted where the four dimensions were substituted for the overall index of empowerment. Because of their potential to confound coefficient estimates of empowerment, age, education, gender, and social desirability were also included as control variables.

Mediating Effect of Empowerment on the Relationship between Social-Structure and Outcomes. To examine the mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between social structural antecedents and behavioral outcomes (see Figure 3.1), hierarchical regression analyses were employed. As described by Baron and Kenny, a variable functions as a mediator when it meets the following conditions:

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> (a) variations in levels of the independent variable significantly account for variations in the presumed mediator, (b) variations in the mediator significantly account for variations in the dependent variable, and (c) when [the previous relationships are controlled for], the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant [1986: 1176].

The above estimation procedures enabled me to assess the direct and indirect effects (through psychological empowerment) of the organizational contextual variables on the behavioral outcomes. Again, because of their potential to confound coefficients of empowerment, age, education, gender, and social desirability were included as control variables.

Chapter Summary

This chapter described the research design for the study. Here the context of the study and sample were discussed, procedures for data collection were presented, the measures developed for the study were provided, and the analyses were described, noting how potential response and method biases were addressed. In Chapter V, the results of the analyses are presented and discussed.

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CHAPTER V

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to present and discuss both the results of the construct validation of empowerment and the analyses of the hypotheses developed in the theoretical framework.

Construct Validation of Empowerment

Construct validity was assessed through a series of analyses. Both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to examine convergent and discriminant validity and reliability. Second order confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to assess the *gestalt* of empowerment. The concurrent and discriminant validity of empowerment from the related construct of self-esteem was also examined. Further, the empowerment measures were examined for potential social desirability bias.

Univariate statistics for the 16 empowerment items are provided in Table 5.1. The means of the items ranged from approximately five to six (on a seven-point scale) with a standard deviation approaching one. These means suggest that individuals in the sample report feeling fairly empowered. Correlations between the 16 empowerment items are provided in Table 5.2. Virtually all of the intercorrelations were significant at the .001 level suggesting moderate relationships between the items. In general, though, the highest intercorrelations were between items measuring the same dimension of empowerment. This pattern of correlations suggests some preliminary evidence of convergent and

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discriminant validity (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). The results of both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses provide further evidence of validity.

Exploratory Factor Analyses

In order to examine the underlying structure of the 16 empowerment items, exploratory factor analyses using principle axis factoring were conducted. No specific number of factors was specified in the analyses. As shown in Table 5.3, the eigenvalue criterion suggested a four factor solution identical to the four theoretical dimensions described above: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Because the four dimensions of empowerment were not assumed to be orthogonal, an oblique rotation was most appropriate to interpret, and those results are described here. Together the four factors explained approximately 69 percent of the variance. Importantly, each of the items loaded on the appropriate factor with primary loadings ranging from .53 to .95. In addition, the cross-loadings were quite low, none being higher than .26. Each factor had adequate internal consistency as measured by a cronbach alpha reliability (Long, 1983).

Thus, the exploratory factor analysis provided preliminary evidence of the convergent and discriminant validity and reliability of the four-dimensional measurement of empowerment. However, due to the potential for measurement error, confirmatory factor analyses must be conducted to ascertain convergent and discriminant validity among the four factors.

Confirmatory Factor Analyses of the Empowerment Construct

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is necessary to assess the construct validity of the four factor structure of empowerment. Without assessing the construct validity of the empowerment measure, a hypothesis might be rejected or accepted because of excessive error in measurement, not because of the adequacy or inadequacy of the theory.

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As described in Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillips (1991), the CFA model provides the following advantages over exploratory factor analysis:

> (1) measures of the overall degree of fit are provided (e.g., the chi-square goodness-of-fit test), [and] (2) useful information is supplied regarding if and how well convergent and discriminant validity are achieved (i.e., through chi-square difference tests, the size of factor loadings for traits, and the estimates for trait correlations) [1991: 429].

The CFA model is depicted in Figure 5.1. As described by Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillips (1991), the CFA model can be estimated with LISREL (Joreskog and Sorbom, 1989). First, the full CFA model using a correlation matrix as input was examined (see Table 5.4 for results). In assessing the fit of the model, Bagozzi and Yi's (1988) guide for the evaluation of structural equation models was followed. Each of the items loaded strongly on the appropriate factor with loadings ranging from .64 to .92. As expected, the four factors were moderately correlated with each other, ranging from .32 and .64, suggesting that the dimensions were indeed related, yet distinct from unity. The preliminary evaluation criteria suggest an acceptable fit for the CFA model: (1) no error variances were negative, (2) no correlations were greater than one, and (3) no parameter estimates were extremely large. Moreover, the ratio of sample size to the number of free parameters met the 5:1 criterion. Thus, given that the preliminary standards were met, an examination of the more formal criteria was made.

Global Measures of Fit. The adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), which is "independent of sample size and relatively robust against departures from normality" (Joreskog and Sorbom as cited in Bagozzi and Yi, 1988: 79), approached the 0.9 rule-of-thumb (AGFI = .85). Because 0.9 is only a rough guideline and because it errs on the side of conservatism, the AGFI leaves room for interpretation of what constitutes an appropriate level of fit. The root mean

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square residual (RMSR) is another measure of overall fit where values under .05 are considered a good fit. The RMSR for this model was .06 which also approaches an acceptable fit.

The chi-square goodness of fit statistic yielded a value of 286.49 with 98 degrees of freedom ($p = 0.00$). By the usual rules-of-thumb, one would reject this model. However, the chi-square test is particularly sensitive to large sample sizes (Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillips, 1991). The likelihood of rejecting a model as the sample size increases is great because the larger sample size makes it easier to detect discrepancies between the implied and observed correlation matrices. Because of the relatively large size of this sample, the noncentralized normed fit index (NCNFI) was computed to obtain an assessment of comparative fit (Bentler, 1990; McDonald and Marsh, 1990). This index gives the proportion of total information accounted for by the full model. Because the equation subtracts the appropriate degrees of freedom from the respective chi-square, the NCNFI removes the bias due to sample size. When comparing two models, a large change in chi-square compared to the difference in degrees of freedom indicates that the freed parameters constitute a real improvement in fit. An index greater than or equal to 0.9 can be considered indicative of an adequate fit. In this study, the hypothesized model was contrasted with both the general null model (which hypothesized that all variables were mutually independent) and a one factor model. In comparison to the baseline null models, the full four-factor model appeared to be quite good ($NCNFI_{null} = 0.92$; $NCNFI_{one\ factor} = 0.90$). Thus, the four factor full CFA model explains a significant proportion of information and any increase in fit would be minor.

Nevertheless as Bagozzi and Yi note:

> One problem with the use of incremental fit indices is that comparisons to the null model may not be very meaningful ... the choice of the null model or any other baseline model is an arbitrary

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> one. Not only are the criteria for such a choice necessarily subjective, but the question of what constitutes an acceptable increment in fit is still open to debate. Keeping this in mind, judicial use of incremental fit indices can help in the comparison of hypotheses and aid in the interpretation of research [1988: 78].

Heeding their warning, although the NCNFI suggests an adequate fit, it should be viewed in comparison to other goodness of fit criteria. Additional information on the fit of the model was gained through an inspection of the standardized residuals and the Q-plot. These inspections indicated a number of potential misspecifications of the model and suggested that the full model did not represent an appropriate level of fit. Clues regarding the sources of the misspecification were discovered by examining the fit of the internal structure of the model.

Assessment of Internal Fit. While the global measures of fit address the overall fit of the model, they do not provide explicit information regarding the nature of individual parameters in the model. An assessment of internal fit may help identify problematic parameters leading to the mediocre global fit described above. As appropriate, the lambda's were all greater than 0.6, statistically significant, and in the hypothesized direction. The theta delta's were fairly small (the highest reaching 0.57) but significant. The average variance extracted per factor was greater than 0.5 in all cases, and the composite reliability for each factor was above 0.8.

Nevertheless, although these internal criteria did not suggest any major problems, the modification indices suggested two particularly troublesome correlated error variances. These correlated error variances were on items across factors, rather than items within factors, suggesting a spurious relationship between the measures, most likely a method factor. These correlated errors suggest that the less than perfect fit of the full model was at least partially caused by relationships between items of unlike factors. In fact, when a separate CFA was conducted on each of the four individual dimensions of empowerment,

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each was found to have an acceptable fit (see Table 5.5). This result suggests good internal consistency within factors and leads one to conclude that much of the problematic fit was caused by correlated errors. As expected, when the two correlated error variances were freed in subsequent analyses, the overall fit of the model did improve (chi-square = 216.86 (p=0.0), AGFI=.88, RMSR=.06).[13]

In sum, the findings of the confirmatory factor analysis are more precise than those of the exploratory factor analysis because the confirmatory factor analysis accounts for measurement error. The confirmatory factor analysis results suggest that measurement error is present in the structure of the data. Nevertheless, given the preliminary nature of the questionnaire items, the large number of parameters to estimate, and the single method approach, the fit of the model was surprisingly good. Virtually every goodness of fit measure, both global and internal, approached, if not met, the appropriate standards. Further, the comparative fit index indicated an adequate fit. Thus, it is reasonable to conclude that the results suggest preliminary evidence for the construct validity of the empowerment measures. Nevertheless, further efforts which might improve the fit of the model in future research are described below.

Strategies for Improving the Fit of the Model in Future Research.

In future research, a number of steps should be taken to provide further evidence of the validity of the empowerment construct. First, PRELIS should be used to assess the adequacy of the input data. Although univariate skewness and kurtosis appear to be at acceptable levels, multivariate kurtosis may be problematic and should be formally assessed in future research. Second, cross-validation should be conducted. In cross-validation, the parameters of the model are estimated in one subsample, and the efficacy of the model is subsequently

[13] The correlated errors were between the items "Self-Assured Capability" and "Personal Initiative" and between the items "Care about Work" and "Job Within Ability."

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determined on a separate, independent sample from the same population (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). Additional data are currently being collected from other middle managers in the Major Company in order that cross-validation may be conducted in future research efforts. Third, validity generalization should be assessed across samples from different contexts. Access to other data sources is currently being negotiated for validity generalization in future research. Third, data should also be collected from multiple sources or methods. Having multiple methods would allow one to test for the existence of a method factor(s) in addition to the trait factors identified above. This approach would likely eliminate the significant correlations between error variances across factors as seen in this analysis.

Instrument Development

One goal of this study is the development of a valid instrument for assessing empowerment. The items in the instrument should be reliable, have good convergent and discriminant validity, and be parsimonious. Because it is sometimes difficult to collect data on a large number of items, I was interested in discovering whether a shortened version of the instrument could be developed without losing any essential information relating to empowerment. In an effort to gain insights into instrument development, a 12 item CFA was also conducted (see Table 5.6 for results). Here the three most highly intercorrelated items for each dimension were included in the CFA. The items deleted included the two items with correlated error identified in the above confirmatory factor analysis. Though the chi-square was significant (once again most probably due its sensitivity to sample size), all other global goodness of fit measures suggest an adequate fit (GFI = 0.95; AGFI = 0.92; RMSR = 0.04). Further, all LISREL loadings, error variances, construct reliability, and average variance extracted met or surpassed their appropriate standards. These results suggest that the

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four items which were deleted (i.e., one item per factor) were most troublesome in terms of correlated error variance and residuals. In future studies, researchers may choose to use this shortened 12-item instrument.

Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis: The Gestalt of Empowerment

As described in Chapter II, together the four dimensions are argued to reflect a higher order construct of empowerment. A second order CFA may be used to model such a higher order construct. In a second order CFA, the factor structure is further specified to account for the relationships among the first order factors (in this case the four dimensions of empowerment). The second order factor represents the shared variance among the first order factors. As conceptualized in Chapter II, the four elements of empowerment (i.e., meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact) are argued to be individual components of empowerment, parts of the larger whole (see Figure 5.2). Using the 12 item condensed measure described above, a second order CFA was conducted (see Table 5.7). The second order model resulted in a good fit with the data (chi-square = 105.30; AGFI = .91; RMSR = .05). Each of the gamma coefficients, which represent the links between each of the first order dimensions of empowerment and the second order empowerment factor, was highly significant and positive. This second order CFA suggests that empowerment reflects the shared variance among the four dimensions; that is, empowerment is indeed a "gestalt" of the four dimensions.

Scale Development

In order to preserve as much information as possible in the following substantive analyses, all 16 items were used to assess the four dimensions of empowerment. Using the 12 item condensed model would be inappropriate for

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substantive analysis on the same sample used in the construct validation because any improved findings would capitalize on chance. In order to create a scale corresponding to each of the four dimensions of empowerment, the mean of the four items for each dimension was computed. The univariate statistics for each of the scales are provided in Table 5.1. The correlations between these scales are provided in Table 5.8. These correlations ranged from .29 between COMPETENCE and IMPACT to .57 between SELF-DETERMINATION and IMPACT. As expected, these correlations suggest that the four dimensions are distinct but related.

In order to create an overall index of empowerment, the formulation for the integration of the four dimensions developed in Chapter II was used:

$$Empowerment = Meaning \times (Competence + Self\text{-}Determination + Impact).$$

Univariate statistics for the index are also included in Table 5.1.

Concurrent and Discriminant Validity of Empowerment

Another aspect of construct validity is the concurrent and discriminant validity of empowerment from related constructs. As described in Chapter II, in this study the concurrent and discriminant validity of empowerment with self-esteem is examined. Self-esteem is hypothesized to be related, yet distinct, from empowerment.

This relationship was first examined using correlational analyses (see Table 5.9). To show evidence of concurrent and discriminant validity, the correlation must be significantly high yet distinct from unity (Bagozzi, 1981). As expected, empowerment (particularly the competence and impact dimensions) was found to be significantly related to self-esteem. Because a correlational approach does not take in to account measurement error explicitly, this finding was

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confirmed with LISREL (see Table 5.10). Importantly, in the LISREL analysis, though self-esteem was correlated significantly with two of the dimensions of empowerment (i.e., competence and impact), none of its correlations was higher than any of the intercorrelations between the empowerment dimensions. This finding suggests that empowerment was related, yet empirically distinct, from self-esteem. In sum, modest support is provided for the concurrent and discriminant validity of empowerment from self-esteem. In order to simplify the substantive analysis, self-esteem is not included in the empirical analyses of the framework. However, when self-esteem was included in the analysis (not reported here), none of the other estimates in the model changed in significance or magnitude.

Social Desirability and Empowerment

The relationship between empowerment and social desirability was also examined. Using correlational analysis, the Jackson (1967) measure of social desirability was found to be modestly correlated with empowerment (particularly the dimensions competence and impact) (see Table 5.9). To account for measurement error, these findings were confirmed with LISREL analysis (see Table 5.11). Importantly, none of the correlations between social desirability and the dimensions of empowerment were higher than the intercorrelations among the dimensions of empowerment. These correlations suggest that empowerment and social desirability are indeed related, yet distinct, concepts. Thus, consistent with Zimmerman and Rappaport (1988), empowerment was found to have some socially desirable properties. Consequently, the social desirability measure should be included in the following substantive analyses in order to statistically control for this type of response bias.

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Summary of Construct Validity

In sum, the construct validation of the empowerment construct is generally confirmed. Evidence was provided regarding the convergent and discriminant validity of the measures of the four dimensions of empowerment through both exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses. A second order confirmatory factor analysis provided evidence for a higher order construct of empowerment composed of the four individual dimensions. Further, evidence of the concurrent and discriminant validity of empowerment from the related construct self-esteem was provided, and the potential for bias due to social desirability was identified. Suggestions were also made pertaining to further validation of the empowerment measure. The development of a valid and reliable instrument to assess empowerment is an important contribution to the literature and is necessary for further substantive research.

Given the construct validity of the empowerment construct, the relationship between unit social structure and empowerment is now examined.

Relationships Between Social Structure and Empowerment

In Chapter III, hypotheses regarding the relationship between a unit's social structure and empowerment were developed. Here both correlation and regression analyses were used to examine the hypotheses. Before these relationships could be examined, however, the independence of the social structural variables had to be assessed.

Discrimination of the Social Structural Variables

Though as shown in Chapter IV, each of the social structure scales achieved adequate reliability, their empirical independence (an assumption of regression analysis, had not been established). In order to assess the

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independence of the social structure measures in this study, an exploratory factor analysis of all the social structure items was conducted (see Table 5.12).[14] Using the eigenvalue criterion to determine the appropriate number of factors and an oblique rotation, the principle axis factor analysis suggested a six factor solution.[15] The six factors correspond precisely to the results of the individual factor analyses of the various measures which were described in Chapter IV: INTEGRATIVE CULTURE, ACCESS TO RESOURCES, ACCESS TO INFORMATION, SOCIOPOLITICAL SUPPORT, FLEXIBLE ROLE DEFINITION, and FLEXIBLE JOB DESIGN. A scale was created for each of the above factors.

The univariate statistics for these scales as well as the two single-item measures of unit size and span of control are provided in Table 4.1. Correlations between the social structure scales are provided in Table 5.13. These correlations ranged from a high of .55 between ACCESS TO INFORMATION and SOCIOPOLITICAL SUPPORT to a low of -.23 between ACCESS TO INFORMATION and FLEXIBLE ROLE DEFINITION. Though I found no definitive statement on the level of correlation that would constitute a serious multicollinearity problem, Ashford and Tsui (1991) suggest that most researchers recommend a multicollinearity threshold of 0.75. This exploratory factor analysis provides some evidence for the convergent and discriminant validity of the social structure variables.

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[14] Because the two items measuring unit size and the middle manager's superior's span of control were objective rather than perceptual measures, they were not included in the factor analyses. They were, however, included as single item measures in the substantive analyses which follow.

[15] Because of sample size limitations, confirmatory factor analyses could not be conducted as in the construct validity of the empowerment measures. As additional data are collected, such analyses can be conducted in future research.

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Correlational Analyses

Table 5.14 provides correlations between the eight social structure measures and empowerment (including the four dimensions of empowerment and the overall index of empowerment). As hypothesized, these correlations suggest positive and significant relationships between empowerment and most of the social structure constructs (i.e., SPAN OF CONTROL, SOCIOPOLITICAL SUPPORT, ACCESS TO INFORMATION, ACCESS TO RESOURCES, and INTEGRATIVE CULTURE). However, one measure of organic structure, FLEXIBLE ROLE DEFINITION, was found to be negatively related to empowerment. The two remaining measures of organic structure, FLEXIBLE JOB DESIGN and UNIT SIZE, were not found to be related to empowerment. All of these relationships were fairly consistent across the four individual dimensions of empowerment as well. These correlations suggest modest support for many of the social structure hypotheses. Nevertheless, because of some moderate correlations between some of the social structural variables, in order to ascertain the true relationships between social structure and empowerment, regression analyses were required. Multicollinearity between the independent variables of a regression analysis will not bias the estimates but may inflate the standard errors, making it more difficult to achieve significant regression coefficients.

Regression Analyses

A regression analysis of overall empowerment on the social structure variables was conducted and interpreted first (see Table 5.15). Then in an exploratory effort to learn more about the individual dimensions of empowerment, a separate regression analysis for each of the four dimensions of empowerment was also conducted.

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Control Variables. Because of their potential to confound, age, education, gender, and social desirability were controlled for in each regression analysis. Correlations between the demographic variables and empowerment are provided in Table 5.9 and show a number of significant relationships. Men were more likely to feel a sense of impact. Age was positively related to a sense of competence. And education was positively related to a sense of meaning, competence, and overall empowerment. Because each of the demographic variables had significant relationships with at least some of the dimensions of empowerment, each must be statistically controlled for in the regressions. In addition, because social desirability was found to be related to the competence and impact dimensions of empowerment, it must also be statistically controlled for in the regressions.

Regression Results. Each regression equation had a significant F-statistic and explained between 19 and 34 percent of the overall variance (see Table 5.15). In terms of overall empowerment, the SPAN OF CONTROL measure of organic structure, SOCIOPOLITICAL SUPPORT, and ACCESS TO INFORMATION were each found to be positive predictors. Contrary to expectations, FLEXIBLE ROLE DEFINITION was found to be negatively related to a sense of empowerment. Further, ACCESS TO RESOURCES and an INTEGRATIVE CULTURE were not found to be related to an overall sense of empowerment. In terms of control variables, social desirability (though only marginally) and having a higher education were found to be related to a sense of empowerment.

In an effort to learn more about the relationships between social structure and the individual dimensions of empowerment, exploratory analyses of the dimensions were also interpreted. A number of similarities exist between the

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regression on empowerment and the regressions on each of the four dimensions: (1) SOCIOPOLITICAL SUPPORT and ACCESS TO INFORMATION were found to be related to all four dimensions, and (2) ACCESS TO RESOURCES was not related to any of the four dimensions. Nevertheless, a number of differences were also found: (1) FLEXIBLE ROLE DEFINITION was found to be negatively related to only the meaning dimension of empowerment, (2) FLEXIBLE JOB DESIGN was found to be related only to the impact dimension of empowerment, and (3) UNIT SIZE and INTEGRATIVE CULTURE were found to be related only to the competence dimension of empowerment. These differences suggest that the social structure variables differentially affect the dimensions of empowerment. Further theoretical work on the linkages between social structure and each of the four dimensions of empowerment is necessary in order to draw firm conclusions regarding the meanings of these results.

Discussion of the Relationships Between Social Structure and Empowerment

A summary of the results with regard to the hypotheses is provided in Table 5.16. In general, the results provide modest support for many of the hypotheses developed in Chapter III. As hypothesized, the SPAN OF CONTROL measure of organic structure, SOCIOPOLITICAL SUPPORT, and ACCESS TO INFORMATION were found to be positively related to empowerment. Nevertheless, three findings were quite surprising and are discussed below.

Negative Effect of a Flexible Role Definition. A FLEXIBLE ROLE DEFINITION was found to be negatively related to empowerment. As described in Chapter IV, a flexible role definition encompasses low levels of goal and task definition and imprecise lines of authority. One reason for this unexpected negative relationship may be that individuals perceive a flexible role definition as

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chaotic rather than liberating. A flexible role definition may inject high levels of uncertainty and ambiguity into individual roles. For example, low levels of goal definition may diminish a sense of empowerment as individuals encounter goal conflict across various stakeholders. Similarly, imprecise lines of authority may create uncertainty as individuals attempt to fulfill the expectations of numerous stakeholders in the organization. Previous research has suggested that role ambiguity and role conflict both threaten an individual's sense of control (Katz and Kahn, 1978) and hence empowerment (Ashforth, 1990). Conversely, clarity in goal setting has been found to be an important determinant of effectiveness (Locke, Shaw, Saari, and Latham, 1981).

It may be that in the presence of strong sociopolitical support or high access to information, a flexible role definition may indeed facilitate empowerment (i.e., they may interact). However, when these interaction terms were each included in the regression equation, neither was significant. These initial findings suggest that one component of organic structure, flexible goal definition, may be dysfunctional in the empowerment of individuals because of its associated ambiguity and uncertainty. In order to be empowering, organic structures need to provide autonomy and independence yet minimize ambiguity and uncertainty. Nonaka's (1988) middle-up-down management may exemplify such a social structure. In his management system, "top management creates a vision or dream, and middle management creates and implements concrete concepts to solve and transcend the contradictions arising from gaps between what exists at the moment and what management hopes to create" (1988: 9). In Nonaka's (1988) model, middle managerial freedom and autonomy are encouraged while ambiguity is kept within tolerable limits.

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Lack of Predictive Power of Access to Resources. The second surprising finding was the general lack of predictive power of ACCESS TO RESOURCES for explaining empowerment. This finding was particularly unexpected because previous research has consistently found theories of resource dependence and critical contingencies to be quite powerful in explaining organizational dynamics. Nevertheless these findings suggest that having access to resources at the Major Corporation does not necessarily contribute to feelings of empowerment. This unexpected finding may be specific to the context of the study. In today's highly competitive and recessionary times, organizations are moving to "do more with less" and "become leaner," as evidenced in the widespread emphases on cost reductions and downsizing reported in the business press. In such contexts, resources are scarce, and there are few opportunities to negotiate for a larger share of the pie. These difficult economic conditions were mentioned numerous times in the interviews. For example, one individual noted,

> Before, I knew that if I made a good enough case for some budget increase that I could get it. Things are different now. We all just get the bare minimum. It's futile to try for more. At first, I was really down about it but now I realize that it's the new reality.

The mean on the ACCESS TO RESOURCE scale was substantially lower than the other social structural variables which were also measured on a seven-point scale. This lower mean may suggest that middle managers at the Major Corporation do not feel that they lack strong access to resources, perhaps due to the current economic pressures facing the company. Because the lack of access to resources is likely perceived as common across the middle managers and as the result of external (or company) constraints rather than internal (or personal) limitations, having access to resources may not enter into the psychological equation of empowerment. Under these circumstances, it seems reasonable that

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other sources of system power (i.e., sociopolitical support and access to strategic information) may substitute for access to resources.

Lack of Predictive Power of an Integrative Culture. The third surprising finding was that an integrative unit culture was not related to empowerment. One rationale for this unexpected finding is methodological. Culture theorists have argued that because culture represents the norms and values of the system, it must be assessed by multiple informants, as in this study (Ouchi and Wilkins, 1985). The common variance across the informants should serve as a measure of culture (Wilkins and Dyer, 1988). It may be, however, that when examining individual level variables such as empowerment, it is the individual perception of the culture that is most important, not some aggregate measure of culture. It may be that the individual's social construction of the culture is the important variable in predicting an individual sense of empowerment.

Some initial support for this rationale is provided here. When an individual's self-perception of an integrative culture was substituted for subordinate perceptions in the above regression equations, an integrative culture became a significant, positive predictor of empowerment and increased the total amount of variance explained (see Table 5.17). Importantly, none of the regression coefficients for the other social structure variables changed in magnitude or significance. These initial findings suggest that it is the individual's self-perception of empowerment that indeed facilitates a sense of empowerment. In contrast, the aggregate measure of integrative culture may be more predictive of group empowerment. Further examination of this issue is necessary before strong conclusions can be drawn.

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Given this initial understanding of the relationships between social structure and empowerment, I now turn to interpreting the analyses examining the hypotheses regarding empowerment and the various outcome variables.

Relationships Between Empowerment and Outcomes

Correlation Analyses

Table 5.18 provides correlations between each of the outcome variables. These correlations suggest that innovation and upward influence are related to managerial effectiveness particularly for within-group assessments (i.e., self, subordinates, or superior). Further, as previously found by Tsui (1984), assessments of effectiveness across the three sets of raters were not highly correlated, suggesting that the middle managers are indeed presented with different expectations and demands from different constituencies. These low correlations also suggest that individuals are perceived differently by various constituents. As might be expected, however, the objective measures of managerial effectiveness (i.e., promotions and salary increases) were correlated with superior assessments of managerial effectiveness. In brief, these modest correlations indicate the outcome variables do indeed reflect different constructs.

Table 5.19 provides the correlations between the overall index of empowerment (as well as the four dimensions) and each of the outcome variables described above. As hypothesized, empowerment was found to be significantly related to innovative and upward influencing behaviors, second order change, and effectiveness as assessed by the self and subordinates. Contrary to the hypotheses, no relationship was found between empowerment and superior assessments of effectiveness, promotions, and salary increases. These findings were fairly consistent across the four dimensions of empowerment.

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Regression Analyses

Though the correlations suggest modest relationships between empowerment and the outcome variables, because of moderate relationships between the dimensions of empowerment, regression analyses were necessary to obtain unbiased results. As in the previous regressions, multicollinearity between the independent variables does not bias the estimates but may increase their standard errors making it more difficult to achieve significance (Darlington, 1968). Table 5.20 provides the results of a series of regression analyses examining the effect of empowerment on the various outcome measures. Because of potential confounding effects, once again gender, age, education, and social desirability were included as control variables. In an exploratory effort to understand which dimensions of empowerment may be driving the results, a second series of regressions was also run where the four dimensions of empowerment were substituted for the overall index of empowerment (see Table 5.21). Each set of regressions are described below.

Innovating and Upward Influencing Behaviors and Second Order Change. The regression equations predicting innovating and upward influencing behaviors as well as second order change each had significant F-values. As hypothesized, the results suggest that a sense of empowerment was positively predictive of self, subordinate, and superior assessments of innovating and upward influencing behaviors and second order change. In terms of control variables, age was found to be related positively to self-assessments of innovating and negatively to superior assessments of innovating/upward influencing. Education was found to be related negatively to self-assessments of upward influencing and positively to superior assessments of innovating/upward influencing. Finally, social desirability was found to be positively related to self-

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assessments of upward influencing and superior assessments of innovating/upward influencing. This final result is particularly interesting because it suggests that individuals with a predisposition toward social desirability may emphasize impression management behaviors with superiors. None of the control variables was found to be related to second order change. In sum, strong support was found for the hypotheses regarding innovating and upward influencing behaviors and second order change.

Managerial Effectiveness. The regression equations predicting managerial effectiveness have significant F-values. As hypothesized, empowerment was found to be positively related to self and subordinate assessments of effectiveness. Contrary to expectations, empowerment was not related to superior assessments of effectiveness nor to the more objective measures of effectiveness. Instead, these variables were more highly influenced by the demographics of the middle manager, particularly age. Thus mixed support was found for the hypotheses regarding managerial effectiveness.

Relationships with the Four Dimensions. In an exploratory effort to further understand the relationships between the four dimensions of empowerment and the outcomes variables, a second series of regression analyses was estimated where the four dimensions of empowerment were substituted for the overall index of empowerment (see Table 5.21). These results suggest that the COMPETENCE and IMPACT dimensions of empowerment drive the relationships with innovating and upward influencing behaviors and self and subordinate assessments of effectiveness. These findings suggest that these two elements of personal control are crucial to system challenging behaviors and some types of effectiveness. In contrast, the MEANING dimension of empowerment drives the relationship between empowerment and second order change. This

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finding suggests that the meaning dimension of empowerment becomes particularly important when individuals are making deep change in the system. The COMPETENCE dimension of empowerment was also predictive of salary increases. Further theoretical work on the linkages between the dimensions of empowerment and the outcome variables is necessary before strong conclusions regarding these individual relationships may be drawn.

Discussion of the Relationships Between Empowerment and the Outcome Variables

A summary of the results as they relate to the hypotheses is provided in Table 5.22. These results suggest modest support for many of the hypotheses. Specifically, as hypothesized, empowerment was found to be an important predictor of innovating and upward influencing behavior, second order change, and self and subordinate assessments of managerial effectiveness.[16] These results suggest that empowerment does lead to behaviors which tend to challenge the system's status quo. Nevertheless, two findings were contrary to expectations.

No Relationship between Empowerment and Superior Assessments of Effectiveness. Though the middle managers themselves, their subordinates,

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[16] Following Heide and Miner (1992), as an audit on the distinctiveness of the various outcome variables, a multivariate regression analysis of the ten outcome variables on the independent variables (i.e., 4 dimensions of empowerment) was conducted. This analysis takes into account the correlation among the dependent variables. This analysis indicated that the four dependent variables were indeed related as a group to the independent variables. The multivariate test yielded a Wilks's lambda of .53 ($F = 3.18$; $df = 40, 707$; $p < .01$). In addition, the univariate test for each dependent variable was significant below the .01 level, with the exception of effectiveness assessed by the superior and salary increases. These results indicate that the multivariate significance was not attributable to any one particular dependent variable's relationship to the set of predictor variables. In addition the results suggest that when the relationships among the dependent variables are accounted for, the results do not change.

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and their superior did agree that empowered middle managers were innovating and upward influencing, their appraisals of empowered middle managers diverged. Whereas the middle managers and their subordinates perceived empowerment as effective, their superiors did not. Furthermore, empowerment was not related to promotions or salary increases, decisions also typically made by middle managers' superiors. These differences in perceptions seem to parallel distinctions made by Luthans (1988) regarding successful and effective managers. His thesis is that "the *successful* managers, the politically savvy ones who are being rapidly promoted into responsible positions, may not be the *effective* managers, the ones with satisfied, committed subordinates turning out quantity and quality performance in their units (1988: 127). In this study, empowered middle managers seem to fall into Luthans's latter category (i.e., "effective" in the eyes of their subordinates, but not "successful" in the eyes of their superiors). These results suggest that superiors, though they may preach the virtues of empowerment, are actually hesitant to recognize and encourage empowered behavior (Brown, 1990; Grantham, 1992). The following quote seems to reflect superiors' feelings regarding empowerment:

> An organization can be simultaneously attracted by the idea of empowerment and repelled by it. Just fantasize how it would be to have energetic, dedicated workers who always seize the initiative (but only when "appropriate"), who enjoy taking risks (but never risky ones), who volunteer their ideas (but only brilliant ones), who solve problems on their own (but make no mistakes), who aren't afraid to speak their minds (but never ruffle any feathers), who always give their best to the company (but ask no unpleasant questions about what the company is giving them back). How nice it would be, in short, to empower workers without actually giving them any power [Kizilios, 1990: 56].

These divergent perspectives on empowerment across levels of the organizational hierarchy are likely to create uncomfortable dynamics for middle managers. They suggest dire consequences for sustaining employee empowerment in the workplace -- after all, superior assessments of effectiveness are what count when rewards

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are administered. Additional theoretical investigation regarding these dynamics of empowerment in the workplace is necessary before strong conclusions may be drawn.

Interestingly, in contrast to self and subordinate assessments of effectiveness, superior assessments of effectiveness, promotions, and salary increases were more strongly predicted by demographic variables than by empowerment. In this sample, older middle managers were generally viewed as less effective by their superiors and received fewer promotions or salary increases. These negative perceptions are likely due to superior attributions of the older middle managers as plateaued. At the Major Corporation, it is commonly believed that individuals are plateaued for reasons of performance rather than system constraints -- thus, older middle managers are likely to be perceived as ineffective by superiors, regardless of their actual behavior. As career paths continue to become less vertical as organizational structures become flatter, these negative superior perceptions of older middle managers can have dire effects for their success in the organization (Ettington, 1991). One ray of hope, however, is that the middle managers themselves and their subordinates do not hold these blatantly negative perceptions of age. Perhaps the next generation of top managers will be more open to different career paths for middle managers.

Lack of Predictive Power of Self-Determination. The second surprising finding was the lack of predictive power of the SELF-DETERMINATION dimension of empowerment. In the additional exploratory analyses of the four dimensions of empowerment on the outcome variables, SELF-DETERMINATION was found to be only marginally predictive of promotions and not predictive of any of the other dependent variables. This finding is particularly interesting because self-determination is at the core of much of the

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popular work and organizational interventions related to empowerment. For example, many organizations (e.g., Hilton Hotels, McDonald's, IBM) are attempting to empower their work forces by giving them greater control over basic work processes (e.g., self-determination). Yet most fail to go the next step and involve employees in the development of organizational mission and policies where they can gain a sense of impact. These results suggest that interventions emphasizing self-determination will be relatively ineffective in terms of employee empowerment because they fail to give employees a sense of meaning, competence, and impact. As Atchison described, empowerment is more than self-determination:

> "Empowerment is not limited to work methods [i.e., self-determination] but must include the broader set of rules that define the procedural justice pattern within the organization, as well as strategic policy decisions. Without this, the employee's perception will be too narrow" and desired results will not be achieved (1991: 61).

Thus, these results provide evidence of a popular misconception in the literature and in practice (i.e., the importance of self-determination in gaining desired outcomes of empowerment). Further investigation of the role of the four dimensions, particularly self-determination, is necessary before strong conclusions can be drawn. It is possible that self-determination may be predictive of other outcomes not studied here.

Given an understanding of the relationships between the dimensions of empowerment and the various outcome variables, the discussion turns to the interpretation of the analyses examining the mediating role of empowerment on the relationship between social structure and the outcome variables.

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Mediating Effect of Empowerment

As described in the theoretical framework in Chapter III, empowerment is hypothesized to mediate the relationship between unit social structure and the various outcome variables. As described by Baron and Kenny, a mediating effect can be assessed in the following way:

> To test for mediation, one should estimate the following regression equations; first, regressing the mediator on the independent variable (see Table 5.15); second, regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable (see Table 5.23); and third, regressing the dependent variable on both the independent variable and on the mediator (see Table 5.24).
>
> To establish mediation, the following conditions must hold: First, the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation; second, the independent variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable in the second equation; and third, the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the third equation. If these conditions all hold in the predicted direction, then the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second [1986: 1177].

In this case, the social structural variables are the independent variables, empowerment is the mediating variable, and the various outcome variables are the dependent variables. In this study, the mediating effect of empowerment is also assessed with hierarchical regression analyses. In the hierarchical regressions, the social structural variables and control variables were entered as a group in the first step of the analysis. In the next step, empowerment was entered into the equation and the regression coefficients were calculated. This procedure was repeated for each of the outcome variables. A mediating effect held if the change is R^2 was significant when empowerment was entered into the regression equation.

Because empowerment was not found to be related to superior assessments of effectiveness, promotions, or salary increases in the analyses above, it is not possible, following Baron and Kenny's (1986) conditions, for empowerment to mediate their relationship with social structure. Thus, the mediating effect of

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empowerment was assessed only with respect to the relationships between social structure and innovating and upward influencing behaviors, second order change, and self and subordinate assessments of effectiveness. As shown in Table 5.15 and discussed above, Baron and Kenny's first condition was generally satisfied; the social structural (i.e., independent) variables were shown to affect the dimensions of empowerment (i.e., mediating variables). As shown in Table 5.23, Baron and Kenny's second condition was also generally satisfied; the social structural (i.e., independent) variables were shown to affect the outcome variables. Given that these two conditions were satisfied, the mediating effect of empowerment could be assessed.

Table 5.24 provides the hierarchical regressions where the dimensions of empowerment were controlled in assessing the relationship between social structure and the outcome variables. In order to assess the mediating effect of empowerment, each of these sets of regressions was addressed in turn.

Innovating and Upward Influencing Behaviors

As shown in Table 5.24, each of the hierarchical regressions was significant and explained between six and 44 percent of the variance. The hierarchical regression analyses suggest a modest mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between social structure and innovating and upward influencing behaviors. In each case the regression coefficient on empowerment was of moderate magnitude and significant. Further, in each case, the inclusion of empowerment resulted in a moderate increase in variance being explained. A number of the significant regression coefficients on the social structure variables also tended to decrease in magnitude and/or become insignificant when empowerment was controlled. Thus, these results suggest that empowerment does tend to mediate the relationship between unit social structure

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and innovating and brokering behaviors as assessed by the self, subordinates, and superior.

Second Order Change

As shown in Table 5.24, the regression equation estimating the mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between social structure and second order change was just marginally significant. However, the regression coefficient on empowerment was significant and explained a substantive amount of the total variance explained. Thus, some support was provided for a mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between social structure and second order change.

Managerial Effectiveness

As shown in Table 5.24, the hierarchical regression analyses suggest a modest mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between social structure and *self-assessments* of effectiveness. The empowerment regression coefficient was highly significant, and the inclusion of empowerment resulted in a moderate increase in variance being explained. In addition, the regression coefficients of the significant social structure variables tended to decrease in magnitude and/or become insignificant when empowerment was controlled. Thus, some evidence is providing for the mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between social structure and self-assessments of effectiveness.

It does not appear, however, that the dimensions of empowerment mediate the relationship between unit social structure and *subordinate assessments* of managerial effectiveness. Here the empowerment regression coefficient was not significant and contributed no additional variance explained. Further, there was little decrease in the magnitude and/or significance of the social structural variables when the dimensions of empowerment are controlled. This result

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suggests that the significant relationship found between empowerment and managerial effectiveness (see Table 5.20) is mitigated when social structure variables are controlled, particularly the culture of the unit. Thus, conflicting evidence regarding the mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between social structure and managerial effectiveness is found.

Summary of the Mediating Effect of Empowerment

In sum, the empowerment was found to mediate the relationship between unit social structure and innovating and upward influencing behavior (across self, subordinate, and superior assessments), second order change, and managerial effectiveness (as assessed by the self only). These results provide strong support for the nomological validity of empowerment and the theoretical framework. Contrary to expectations, the dimensions of empowerment did not contribute a significant amount of incremental variance in the relationship between social structure and subordinate assessments of effectiveness. In fact much of the variance in the equations predicting managerial effectiveness was explained by demographic variables. Much of the variance in subordinate assessments of effectiveness was also explained by the culture of the unit (this may be an artifact of same source response bias as both unit culture and effectiveness were assessed by the middle manager's subordinates). Future work using structural equations modeling may help to clarify these relationships by taking into account measurement error.

Comparison of Different Empowerment Formulations

The findings reported above were also consistent with other formulations of the index of empowerment. Earlier research has been skeptical about the value-added of multiplicative formulations, above and beyond additive ones, (e.g.,

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job design and expectancy theories). Thus, the multiplicative formulation of empowerment, developed in Chapter II, was also compared to other, more simple, formulations of empowerment (see Table 5.25). Two other formulations were assessed: (1) the simple mean of the four dimensions of empowerment and (2) a weighted linear combination of the four dimensions using the loadings identified in the second order confirmatory factor analysis. The findings suggest that the multiplicative formulation, when compared to the two additive formulations, was approximately as predictive of the dependent variables (in terms of both magnitude and significance). In addition, when each of the additive formulations was substituted for the multiplicative formulation in the regression analyses described above, the results remained consistent -- that is, the magnitude and significance of the coefficients did not change (one exception was the regression predicting second order change where the empowerment coefficient decreased in magnitude). Consequently, because the multiplicative formulation was developed theoretically, unlike either of the other two formulations, it was appropriate to use it in the substantive analyses described above.is employed in the substantive analyses that follow. Additional research is necessary to further explore the value added of different empowerment formulations.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided a discussion of the results of the construct validation of empowerment and initial tests of the hypotheses in the theoretical framework. Strong support was provided for the construct validation of the theory-based four dimensional conceptualization and measure of empowerment. In terms of the hypotheses regarding social structure and empowerment, mixed support was found. While a wide superior span of control, sociopolitical support, and access to strategic information were found to be important organizational

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levers for empowerment, no relationship was found for access to resources and an integrative culture as assessed by subordinates. A negative relationship was found for a flexible role definition. In terms of the hypotheses regarding empowerment and the outcome variables, strong support was found for innovating and upward influencing behaviors, second order change, and self and subordinate assessments of empowerment. No relationship was found for superior assessments of effectiveness and the more objective assessments of effectiveness. Finally, moderate support was found for the mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between social structure and the outcome variables innovating and upward influencing behaviors, second order change, and self-assessments of effectiveness. These findings suggest moderate overall support for the preliminary nomological network of empowerment, its social structural antecedents, and its behavioral outcomes.

The following chapter describes the contributions of the study to the organizational studies literature and to practice and suggests directions for future research.

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CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

Though there has been a growing interest in empowerment among both researchers and business practitioners, at present there exists little systematic conceptual or empirical knowledge about empowerment. This dissertation has taken a theoretical approach to understanding empowerment by addressing three fundamental research questions: (1) What is individual empowerment? (2) What social-structural variables are related to individual empowerment? and (3) Does a sense of empowerment enhance organizationally relevant work behaviors? A tripartite theoretical framework linking social structural antecedents and behavioral outcomes of empowerment was developed to address these questions. The framework was then examined empirically on a sample of middle managers in diverse units of a Fortune 50 organization. This chapter describes the contributions of the study to the organizational studies literature and to practice. It also suggests directions for future research, particularly directions which help overcome limitations of this study.

Contributions to the Organizational Studies Literature

Recent theorists (Aktouf, 1992; Alvesson and Willmott, 1992) have argued that current organization theory neglects issues of individual emancipation and liberation. They suggest that functional-consensus models of organizational behavior have been masking the increasing conflicts and contradictions

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undermining both the discipline and practice of management. These contemporary organizational theorists see a clear need to

> abandon management based on authority, on an order imposed by the organization, on the successive waves of scientism that have invaded the field (e.g., Taylorism, behavioral sciences, decision making, management information systems, office systems, and robotics). The solution is to open the way for managerial practices and theories that will permit development of the employees desire to belong and to use his or her intelligence to serve the firm (Aktouf, 1992: 411).

In the spirit of the radical humanist tradition, this dissertation contributes to this new direction in management theory by conceptualizing individual empowerment within an organizational context. Through the examination of the research questions outlined above, this dissertation contributes to the limited academic knowledge base on empowerment in the following ways.

Construct Definition and Validation of Empowerment

One factor limiting the advancement of substantive knowledge on empowerment has been the lack of consensus regarding a definition of empowerment. In this study, a theory-based, multidimensional conceptualization of empowerment was developed from an extensive interdisciplinary literature review with corroboration from a series of interviews on the individual experience of empowerment. Empowerment was found to be an active, rather than passive, self-orientation with respect to the larger organizational environment. Four dimensions of empowerment were identified: a sense of meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. A multiplicative formulation for integrating the four dimensions into a higher order construct of empowerment was also developed. The melding of qualitative and quantitative data in the process of construct definition provides a richer understanding of empowerment (Zimmerman, 1990a). In terms of content domain, this conceptualization extends previous conceptualizations in organizational studies (i.e., self-efficacy (Conger

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and Kanungo, 1988) and intrinsic task motivation (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990)). Such theoretical development is important because as Staw has suggested: "Seldom has the field seriously examined the basic role or orientation of individuals *vis-a-vis* their task environments" (1986: 311).

Another contribution to the literature is a measure of empowerment, something previously unattempted in the literature. In Chapter V, support for the reliability and convergent and discriminant validity of the four-dimensional conceptualization was obtained on a sample of middle managers. A second order confirmatory factor analysis provided evidence that a higher order construct, the *gestalt of* empowerment, captured the shared variance of the four dimensions. Evidence was also provided for the concurrent and discriminant validity of empowerment from the related constructs of self-esteem and social desirability. Overall, strong evidence was provided for the construct validation of the theory-based multidimensional conceptualization and measurement of empowerment. This construct validation is an important contribution to the literature and facilitates substantive research on empowerment (Schwab, 1980).

The Theoretical Framework

A second primary contribution to the literature was the development of a theoretical framework that identifies the social structural antecedents and behavioral outcomes of empowerment. The framework bridges the *relational* and *psychological* perspectives on empowerment.

Social-Structural Antecedents. The relationships between social-structural context and psychological empowerment were discussed theoretically and examined empirically. Though these linkages have been alluded to in the literature, no one has developed a theoretical framework nor specified actual hypotheses regarding these relationships. Five social structural variables were

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hypothesized to reflect an empowering organizational environment: an organic structure, sociopolitical support, access to strategic information, access to resources, and an integrative culture. These social structural characteristics reflect the organizational conditions Aktouf (1992) argues are necessary for the advent of *"vital work"* and individual empowerment -- subjective and creative work, capable of constant adaptation and innovation. These characteristics are also contrary to Marx's conditions for dead, ossified work where the employee is portrayed as a "passive cog" and work is dull and meaningless. Mixed support for these hypotheses was obtained in a sample of middle managers. As hypothesized, a large superior span of control, sociopolitical support, and access to strategic information were found to be important predictors of empowerment. Contrary to expectations, empowerment was not found to be related to access to resources and was found to be negatively related to a flexible role definition.

The findings suggest implications for developing new theories of organizational design and development that may be appropriate for post-industrial organizational forms (e.g., Drucker, 1988; Kanter, 1989a; Lewin and Stephens, 1992). For example, with respect to communication and interdependence, the findings suggest that empowering organizations develop open communications systems and create extensive sociopolitical networks. With respect to structure and decision making, the findings suggest that empowering systems cascade decision making authority throughout the organizational hierarchy in order that employees may experience a sense of autonomy and feel that they can make a difference in the larger system. Further, with respect to culture, the findings suggest that individuals perceive empowering systems as emphasizing cooperation, development, change, and human resources as crucial organizational assets. These findings counter classical theories of organizational social structure (e.g., bureaucracy, hierarchy) because they suggest that a

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"weaker" (Mischel, 1977) social structure is empowering. The findings suggest however that weak social structures must not be chaotic. Uncertainty and ambiguity must be held within tolerable limits for organic social structures to be empowering.

In these ways, this study responds to Conger and Kanungo's (1988) and Zimmerman's (1990a) calls for research that investigates and validates the antecedent conditions of empowerment and appropriate intervention strategies.

Behavioral Outcomes. This research also responds to Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) call for research that investigates and tests the effects of a sense of empowerment on specific behaviors. The dissertation begins to develop theoretically and empirically a profile of the organizationally relevant behaviors associated with empowerment, beyond those suggested by Conger and Kanungo (1988) (i.e., the persistence and initiation of behavior) and Thomas and Velthouse (i.e., concentration, initiative, and resiliency). These outcomes of empowerment are important to understand as a means for validating assumptions regarding the effectiveness of empowerment for organizations (Belasco, 1989; Block, 1988; Kizilos, 1990). Hypotheses predicting the relationship between empowerment and behaviors that challenge the status quo and managerial effectiveness were developed and tested in the context of middle managers. Notice that these behaviors (particularly challenging the status quo) differ from the behaviors typically predicted by other traditional constructs in organizational behavior such as motivation.

The findings of this study suggest that an individual sense of empowerment does make a difference in terms of individual behavior. Indeed, in the context of middle managers, empowerment was related to behaviors that challenge the status quo of the system. However, empowerment was only related

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to self and subordinate assessments of effectiveness, not to superior nor to more objective assessments of effectiveness. These findings suggest that while superiors may preach the virtues of employee empowerment, they clearly do not value empowerment when it comes to appraising and rewarding employees. The different perceptions of empowerment are likely to create uncomfortable dynamics in the organization. One can speculate that in the long run, unless superiors begin to value middle managerial empowerment, its demise is certain.

Mediating Effect of Empowerment. In terms of the overall theoretical model of empowerment, this study begins to shed some light on the "black box" of empowerment which is posited to mediate the relationship between organizational context and individual behavior. An investigation into this black box enhances understanding of individual responses to a changing organizational context. This study also begins to examine macro-micro linkages in organizations by conceptually uniting into a coherent system both contextual and psychosocial factors associated with empowerment, as recommended by House and Rousseau (1992). Theoretical frameworks which identify such macro-micro linkages have been few in number in organizational studies (Srivastva and Cooperrider, 1986). This research furthers understanding in organizational behavior regarding the ways in which an organizational setting influences individual mindset and behavior. The struggle to integrate levels of analysis is also important for understanding the construct of empowerment in its entirety. "The goal is to understand how what goes on inside one's head interacts with what goes on in one's environment to enhance or inhibit one's mastery and control over the factors that affect one's life" (Zimmerman, 1990a: 174).

Empowerment was found to mediate the relationship between social structure (particularly span of control, sociopolitical support, and access to

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information) and behavioral outcomes (particularly behaviors that challenge the status quo and individual effectiveness).

Empowerment and Managerial Roles

This study further contributes to the literature by addressing issues of empowerment at a managerial level. Earlier research on related topics such as alienation has focused primarily on the rank-and-file. The focus of these studies was the improvement of worker "quality of work life" and the deemphasis of scientific management techniques using theories of job enlargement and job rotation. Unlike line roles, managerial roles tend to be more difficult to quantify and encompass higher levels of responsibility. Thus, by nature of the job alone, the essence of empowerment is different across these different levels of the organizational hierarchy. For example, though the role of self-determination was not found to be important for empowered middle managerial behaviors, self-determination has been argued to be quite important for energizing line level workers (Deci and Ryan, 1987). In addition, different organizational levers for empowerment are likely to be relevant for managerial roles. For example, top managers in the organization may feel that middle managers may be trusted with confidential strategic information about the future of the organization, but top managers may be quite reluctant to share such information with the lower level workers in the organization for fear of a breach of confidence. Thus, this study suggests that the dynamics of empowerment are likely to be different across levels of the organizational hierarchy. Future research using a sample of lower level works is necessary to make direct comparisons across levels.

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Contributions to Practice

A greater understanding of empowerment also has implications for practice. In a recent article, Lawler (1988) describes the evolution of employee involvement over the past half century (see Table 6.1). The first approach, the human relations approach, focused on improving employee satisfaction through limited involvement strategies such as suggestion systems or attitude surveys. The second approach, the human resources approach, sought to expand job designs (such as through job enrichment and rotation) in order to improve employee productivity. These first two approaches have received considerable attention in the organizational literature and have been applied extensively in organizational interventions. In contrast, Lawler's third approach, the high involvement approach, is at the early stages of evolution. In the high involvement approach, the goal is employee empowerment where information, resources, and power are pushed down the organizational hierarchy, and individuals are encouraged to contribute to organizational decisions and vision. This high involvement approach parallels many of the recommendations for organizational design in post-industrial society (Lewin and Stephens, 1992). Though this third approach has received little theoretical or empirical attention, a number of organizations (e.g., General Electric, Intel, Johnson and Johnson, Square D, Ford, IBM, and McDonald's, among others) are struggling to implement high involvement interventions. The result of many of these interventions has been disappointing; in many cases, no real change has occurred.

This study provides the first theoretical and empirical examination of many of Lawler's assertions regarding high involvement management. The findings suggest some issues for organizations to consider in the development of empowerment interventions. First, many empowerment programs focus exclusively on developing a sense of self-determination in providing employees

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limited control over their work processes. In contrast, the findings of this study suggest that empowering interventions emphasize the development of personal meaning, a sense of competence, and a sense of impact beyond an individual's own specific role. In order for interventions to be empowering, employees must be encouraged to participate in meaningful ways in department and organization decision making, strategy building, and vision.

Second, in terms of the design of empowering social structures, a number of recommendations can be made from the findings of this study. In order to develop and sustain empowerment, leadership must encourage, support, and reward employee empowerment. False enthusiasm by superiors is transparent resulting in employee cynicism about organizational empowerment efforts. In addition, to be empowering, organizations need to facilitate the development of informal support networks and must cascade strategic information throughout the organization. Further, "micro-management" is disempowering as employees need to be trusted with autonomy and self-management. Finally, although an organic design can be facilitative to empowerment, ambiguity and uncertainty must be held within tolerable levels. One model for effective organizational design for empowerment may be Nonaka's (1988) middle-up-down management that integrates many of the above criteria for empowerment.

Directions for Future Research

Future research should extend and refine the theoretical framework, further examining the dynamics of empowerment in the workplace and addressing the limitations of this study. A number of steps for future research are outlined below.

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Structural Equations Modeling of the Theoretical Framework

In this study structural equations modeling could not be conducted because of sample size limitations. As more data are collected, structural equations modeling may be helpful to examine the linkages in the framework. The advantages of such an approach include the following: (1) measurement error could be accounted for in the analyses, (2) a second order factor of empowerment reflecting the relationship among the four dimensions could be used in the substantive analysis, and (2) the outcome variables specified in the framework could be examined in tandem with one another.

Dispositional Characteristics

One important addition to the theoretical framework is the inclusion of dispositional characteristics as antecedent conditions. House (1988) argues that motivational personality traits such as dominance, need for power, and Machiavellianism may be associated with individual empowerment. In addition, it is important to understand the interactive effects of social structural and dispositional antecedents on individual empowerment. For example, dispositional characteristics such as cognitive complexity or the desire for task variety may interact with flexible role definition to predict empowerment. An understanding of the interactions between social structure and dispositional characteristics will extend our knowledge of macro-micro linkages in organizations.

New Samples to Enhance Generalizability

To enhance the generalizability of the findings, additional data could be collected from (1) individuals in contrasting types of organizations (e.g., service-oriented, not-for-profit, governmental), (2) from individuals across levels of the organizational hierarchy, and (3) from more demographically diverse samples in

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order to enhance current understanding of the relationships between social structure and empowerment.

First, the generalizability of this research is limited because the sample is drawn from a single organization. The findings regarding the relationships hypothesized in the theoretical framework may be different in service, not-for-profit, or government organizations. In addition, because a single organization sample is employed, the variance on the social structural measures may be constrained. Despite the fact that a single organization was examined, however, the Major Corporation is highly diverse in terms of products, locations, divisions, and leadership -- much like a conglomeration of small companies. This intra-organizational diversity helps to minimize the limitations inherent in a single organization sample. Nevertheless, future research might contrast these findings from an overall machine bureaucracy with different types of organizations (e.g. simple structures, professional bureaucracies, divisionalized forms, and adhocracies) (Mintzberg, 1983).

Second, in order to generalize across levels of the hierarchy, additional data might also be collected from individuals across levels of the organization, beyond middle managers. Individuals across different levels of the organizational hierarchy (e.g. line workers, support staff, top management) are likely to experience different types of social structures and may display different types of behaviors. Further the dynamics of empowerment in the workplace are likely to differ across levels of the hierarchy.

And third, the homogeneous nature of the individuals in the sample precludes generalization of the findings to less represented groups such as women or minorities. Correlations between demographic variables and the dimensions of empowerment suggest some consistent relationships (see Table 5.10). Men were more likely than women to experience a sense of impact. Older individuals were

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more likely to feel a sense of competence. Highly educated individuals were more likely to feel a sense of meaning, competence, and self-determination. No differences were found across race. Because of the significant relationships, these differences were controlled in the analyses described above. Nevertheless, future research should examine the dynamics of empowerment in more diverse demographic samples, as the dynamics of empowerment are likely to differ in more heterogeneous samples (Kanter, 1977).

Other Relevant Outcome Variables

Future research should explore theoretically and empirically the relationships between empowerment and other organizationally relevant variables. Self-determination may be found to be predictive of other outcome variables not included in this study. One relationship gaining attention in organizations is the relationship between empowerment and quality/continuous improvement. In the quality literature, it is assumed that proactive, empowered employees are critical for quality programs to be effective. Quality efforts encourage employees to assume ownership for their own role as well as for the success of the total organization. In addition, future research should also examine the relationship between empowerment and actual change behaviors. Actual change behaviors might be examined through either laboratory or field experiments. For example, a field experiment might examine the differences in individual responses (with respect to empowerment) to an overall organizational mandate such as cost reduction. Experimental research designs would be helpful in eliminating unknown confounds and for providing evidence of causality.

Empowerment across Levels of Analysis

Following Zimmerman (1990), empowerment should be studied at different levels of analysis. In this study, empowerment is examined at an individual,

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psychological level of analysis. Future empowerment research might examine group level empowerment in such arenas as cross-functional or self-managing teams (Manz, 1990) including how to develop group meaning, leadership, and discretion. Research should also address organizational level empowerment including issues such as shared leadership, skill development, high involvement management, and self-designing systems. Interestingly, Chavis and Wandersman (1990) have found that empowering organizations (i.e., those that contribute to the development of psychological empowerment) are not necessarily empowered organizations (i.e. those that influence their environment and remain viable over time). Further, it is important to note that empowerment is not independent across different levels of analysis -- it embodies an interaction between individuals, organizations, and environments that is culturally and contextually defined (Zimmerman, 1990a). Thus multiple levels of analysis need to be addressed in future research.

Negative Dynamics of Empowerment

Future research should also examine the negative side of empowerment in organizations (Burger, 1989). In the interviews individuals at the higher levels of the organization expressed fears that empowered employees may become *loose cannons* in the organization, making issues of coordination infinitely more complex. In the interviews, empowerment was clearly viewed as attractive in theory but problematic in practice. Such tensions were also clear in the results of the quantitative analyses; different organizational constituencies perceived empowerment quite differently. Whereas middle managers and their subordinates perceived empowered individuals to be highly effective in the organization, superiors did not see a relationship between empowerment and effectiveness. Additional data might be collected to examine determinants of

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effective versus ineffective empowerment as well as to better articulate the manifest tensions of empowerment. I speculate that individual alignment to organizational strategy and accountability for empowered behaviors are particularly important for individuals to be effectively empowered. Alignment and accountability are believed to act as substitutes to more formal types of control mechanisms in organizations.

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FIGURES

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Figure 1.1
Relationships in an Emerging Post-Industrial Age

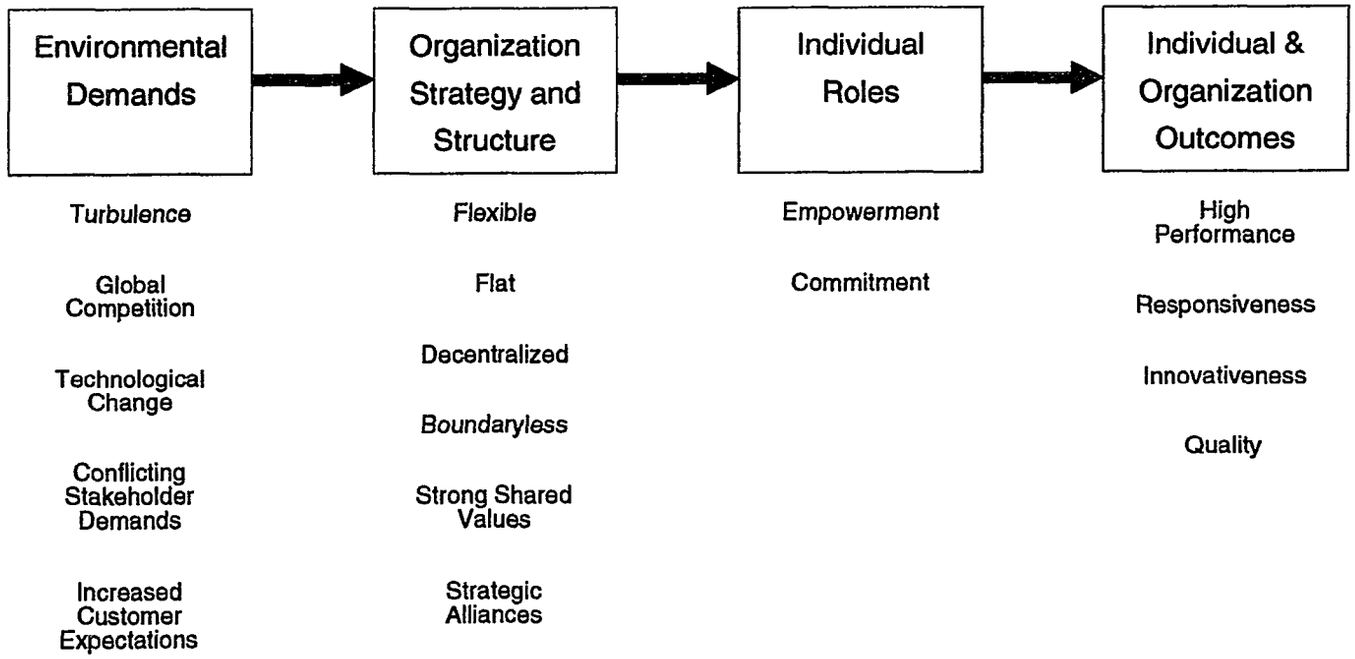
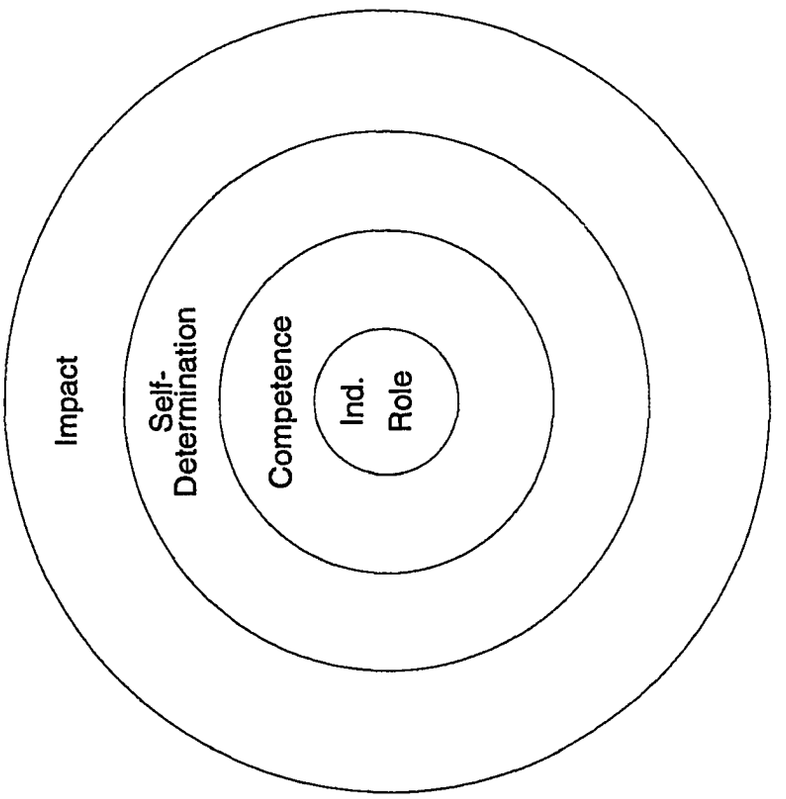


Figure 2.1
Three Control Dimensions of Empowerment



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Figure 3.1
A Theoretical Model of Individual Empowerment in Organizations

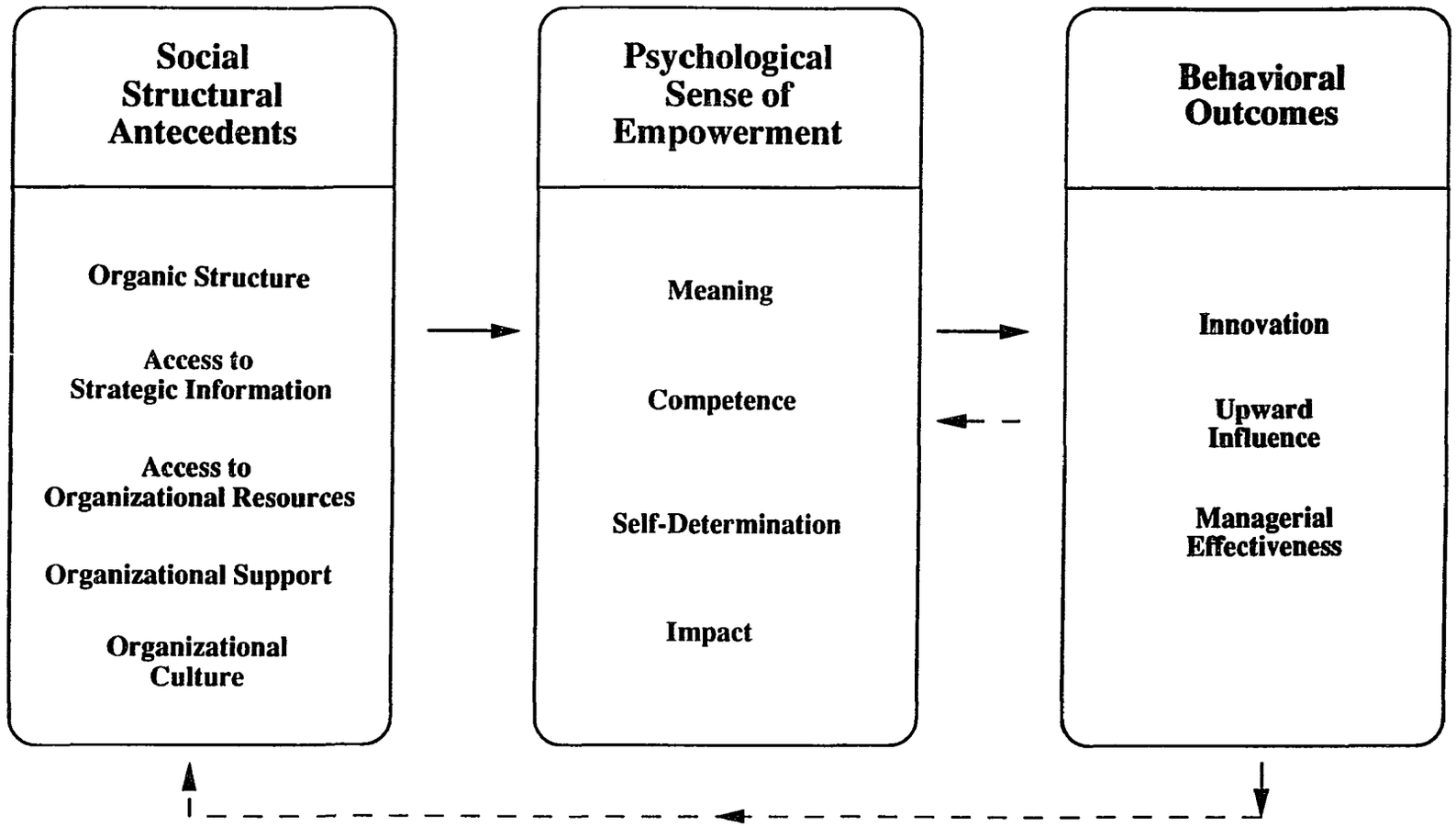
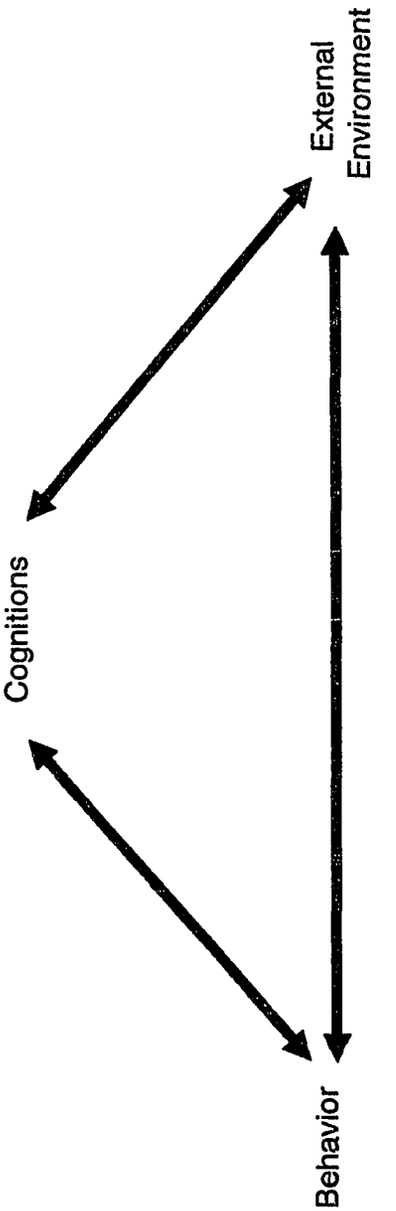
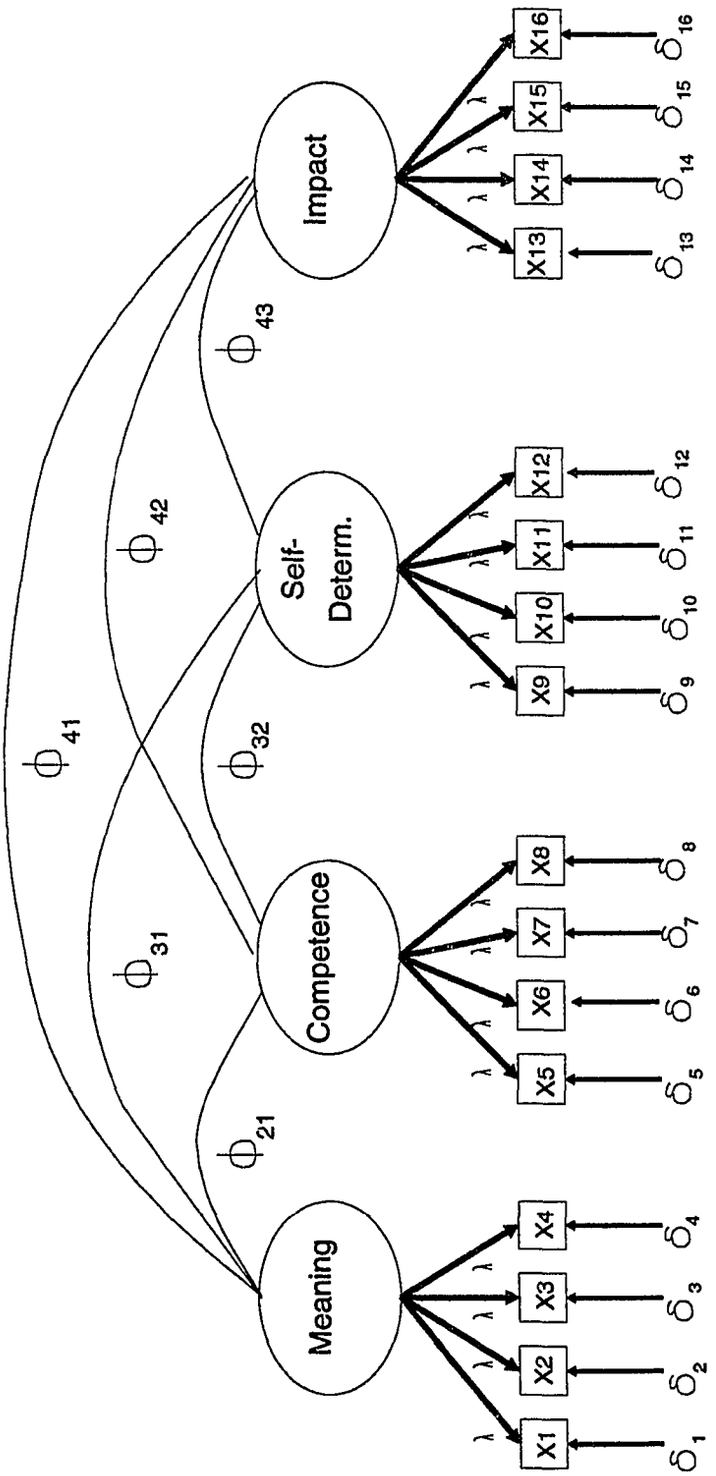


Figure 3.2
Bandura's Three Way Reciprocal Determinism



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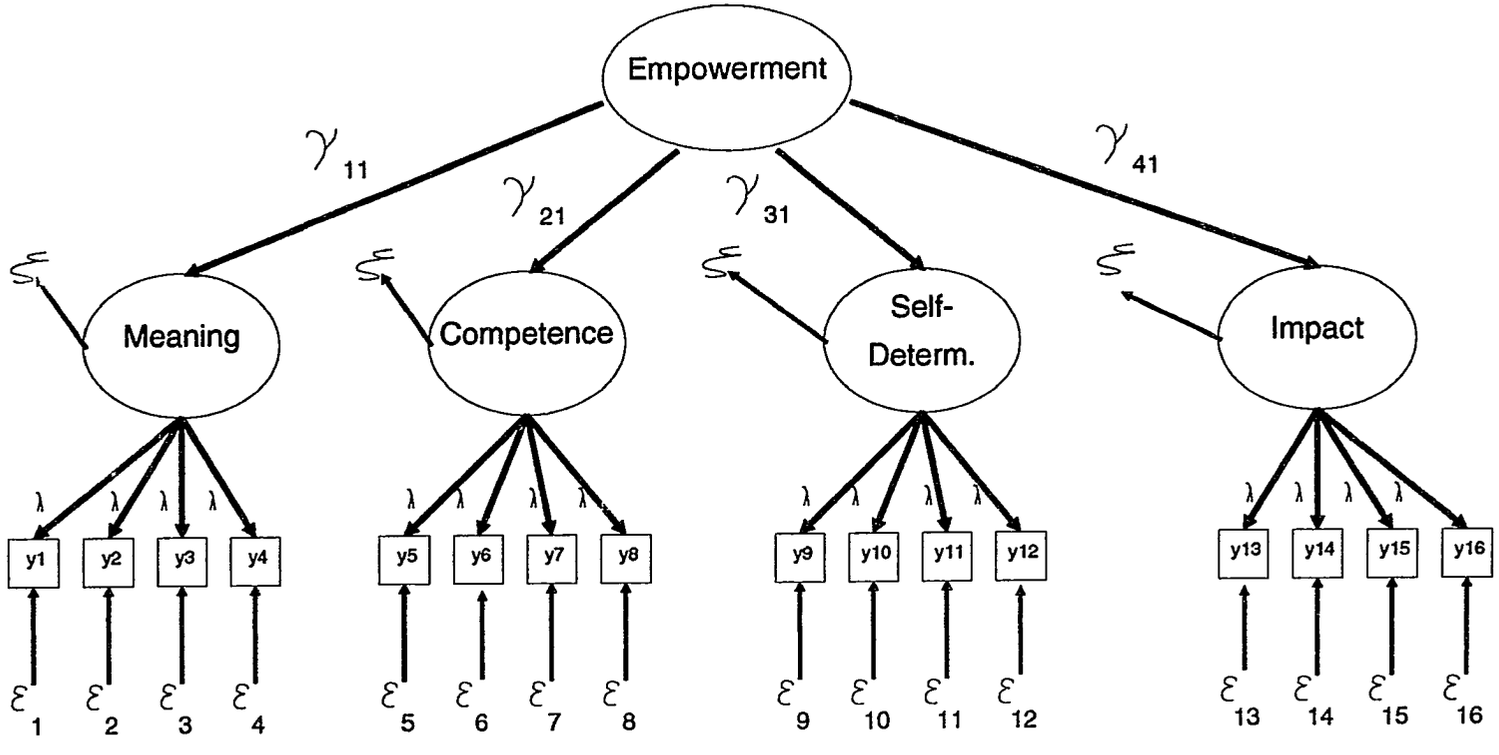
Figure 5.1
Confirmatory Factor Analysis Full Model



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Figure 5.2
Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis



TABLES

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Table 2.1
Integration of Literature Review on Empowerment

	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determination	Impact
General Description	A sense of meaning and and personal meaning	A belief in one's competence and mastery	A orientation toward choice and volition	An orientation toward making a difference
Organization Studies	- meaningfulness, - intrinsic motivation (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Vogt and Murrell, 1990) - personal significance (Bennis and Nanus, 1985) - underlying purpose (Block, 1987; Manz and Sims, 1989) - integrity and identity (Block, 1987; Byham, 1988 Bennis and Nanus, 1985) - self-worth (Neilsen, 1986)	- self-efficacy (Conger and Kanungo, 1988) - competence, choice (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Manz and Sims, 1989; Macher, 1988) - mastery (Vogt and Murrell, 1990; Block, 1987) - confidence in ability (Vogt and Murrell, 1990; Byham, 1988)	- choice, self-determination (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Conger and Kanungo, 1988) - proactive orientation, risk (Macher, 1988) - initiation, intensity (Block,1987;Vogt & Murrell) - self-leadership (Manz and Sims, 1989) - take ownership (Byham, 1987; Bennis & Nanus, 1985) - involvement (Blau and Alba, 1982) - autonomy (Neilsen, 1986; Burke, 1986)	- impact (Kanter, 1983,88;Peters,1987; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) - personal control (Manz & Sims, 1989; Byham, 1988) - making a difference (Macher, 1988; Block, 1987; Bennis & Nanus, 1985) - have an effect on the envt. (Vogt & Murrell, 1990 - change reality (Campbell, 1990)
Psychology	- purpose, excitement, passion (Bramucci, 1977) - intrinsic motivation (Deci and Ryan, 1987) -consciousness-raising (Szivos and Travers, 1988) - personal meaning (Gutierrez, 1990) - spiritual energy (Rappaport, 1981, 1987) - concern for personal connectedness (Zimmerman, 1990a,b)	- self-efficacy (Gecas, 1989; Gist, 1987; Ozer and Bandura, 1990; Zimmerman, 1988, 1990) - mastery (Zimmerman,1988, 1990; Rappaport, 1981, 1987) - strengthened ego functioning (Gutierrez, 1990) - competence (Kieffer, 1984; Bramucci, 1977) Balcazar, et al, 1990) - self-confidence (Barton, 1984; Vanderslice, 1989)	-motivational self-efficacy; experience of self-determ. self as originator (Gecas, 1989) -proactive orientation (Kieffer, 1986) - democratic partic. in life (Rappaport, et al, 1984; Rappaport, 1981,1987; Zimmerman, 1990, 1988; Rose and Black, 1985) - self-determination, self-control (Rappaport, 1986; Kieffer, 1986; Mahoney &Thorensen, 1974; Pennutter, 1979)	- desire to control the environment (Zimmerman, 1988, 1990) - having causal impact (Kieffer, 1984; Barton, 1984) - making a difference (Gutierrez, 1990) - controlling one's destiny (Pinderhughes, 1983; Mikulincer, 1988) - sense of personal control; not learned helplessness (Rappaport, 1981, 1986) - influence one's environment (Vanderslice,1989;Bramucci)

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Table 2.1
Integration of Literature Review on Empowerment

	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determination	Impact
Psychology (Related Concepts)	- intrinsic motivation (Deci, Connell, and Ryan, 1989)	- effectance motivation (Harter, 1978) - competence (Deci, 1975) - mastery motivation (Adler, 1927)	- self-determination (Deci and Ryan, 1987) - alienation (Marx, Seeman) - strive to encounter challenges (Harter, 1978)	-learned helplessness: no effect on one's environment (Seligman, 1975) -exp. self as causal agent - exploratory, creative playful (White, 1959)
Religion	liberation theology - raising individual consciousness; personal identity (Friere, 1970; Ellis and Maduro, 1989; Kee, 1990)	liberation theology - belief in capacity of self (Friere, 1970; Boff, 1988; Boff and Boff, 1986; Horton and Friere, 1990; Shor and Friere, 1987)	liberation theology - take personal responsibility - be proactive - become a subject, not object - active participant in life (Friere, 1970; Friere and Faundez, 1989; McGovern, 1989; Sigmund, 1990)	- control of one's own destiny (Freire, 1970) - have impact on world (Shor and Faundez, 1987) - coping with and altering an oppressing environment (Torre, 1986) - question & change status quo (Freire and Faundez, 1989; King, Maynard, & Woodyard 1988)
Sociology	- alienation loss of meaning (Seeman, 1959; Boyte and Riessman, 1987) - overcoming disillusionment; having purpose (Alinsky, 1971; King, Maynard & Woodyear, 1988) -raise personal consciousness (Boyte and Riessman, 1986) Halliday, 1987)	- develop feelings of competency & confidence (Soloman, 1976) - develop personal worth (Torre, 1986) - competent leadership (Bolin, 1989)	- acting at own initiative - taking personal action (Alinsky, 1972) - populism; grass roots power (Boyte and Riessman, 1986) - changing mindsets about role of self (Ryan, 1971) - taking charge of self - autonomy (Hoffman, 1975) - responisibility (Berger & Neuhaus, 1977)	- powerlessness (Marx, 1944; Blauner, 1964; Seeman, 1959; Parenti, 1978; Ryan,1971;Binstock & Eli,71) - being a realistic radical (Alinsky, 1971) - social change (Bookman and Morgan,1988;Boyte & Riess. 1986;Soloman,1976;Torre,86) - changing org. systems (Gruber and Trickett, 1987) - social movements (Useem & Zald, 1982)

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TABLE 4.1
Univariate Statistics
Social Structure, Outcomes, Related Constructs, and Demographic Scales

Scale	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	Cronbach Alpha
Social Structure					
Organic Structure					
Flexible Role Definition	2.32	.74	1	5	.60
Flexible Job Design	3.27	.91	1	5	.76
Unit Size	46.46	97.72	0	795	n/a
Span of Control	5.00	4.91	0	54	n/a
Sociopolitical Support	5.17	.58	3.86	7	.76
Access to Information	4.83	.97	2.25	7	.81
Access to Resources	4.45	1.03	1.33	7	.84
Integrative Culture(sub)	5.09	.74	2	6.86	.88
Innovating/Upward Influencing Behaviors					
Innovation (Self-Assess)	4.96	.70	2.8	7	.82
Upward Influ. (Self-Assess)	4.76	.75	2.25	7	.83
Innovation / Upward Influ. (Sub-Assess)	4.86	.70	2.25	6.63	.91
Innovation/Upward Influence (Sup-Assess)	4.89	.75	2.11	6.89	.92
2nd Order Change	3.61	.79	1	5	.67
Managerial Effectiveness					
Effectiveness (Self-Assess)	4.00	.55	1	5	.85
Effectiveness (Sub-Assess)	3.85	.56	1.8	5	.93
Effectiveness (Sup-Assess)	3.85	.68	1.5	5	.92
"Objective" Performance Assessments					
Number Promotions	4.01	3.49	1	9	n/a
Past Year Salary Increase	3.66	3.66	1	9	n/a
Related Constructs					
Self-Esteem	31.33	2.84	18	53	n/a
Social Desirability	16.75	1.14	13	21	n/a
Demographic Characteristics					
Gender	1.96	.19	1	2	n/a
Age	4.73	1.34	2	8	n/a
Education	5.58	1.63	1	8	n/a

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TABLE 4.2
Factor Analysis of Organic Structure Items

Item	F1	F2
Job Design	**.76**	.25
Continuous New Solutions	**.73**	.16
Direction of Communication	*.34*	*-.07*
Goal Definition	-.07	**.78**
Authority Definition	.13	**.53**
Task Definition	.24	**.48**
Eigenvalue	**2.20**	**1.43**
Percent Variance Explained	**27.5**	**17.9**
Cronbach Alph	**.76**	**.60**

TABLE 4.3
Factor Analysis of Sociopolitical Support and Access to Information and Resource Items

Item	F1	F2	F3
Access to Resources (2)	**.83**	.15	.13
Access to Resources (1)	**.77**	.14	.14
Access to Resources (3)	**.76**	.18	.10
Access to Resources (4)	**.52**	.30	.13
Access to Info (4)	.11	**.82**	.17
Access to Info (2)	.24	**.78**	.13
Access to Info (3)	.24	**.48**	.32
Access to Info (1)	.30	**.48**	.31
Workgroup Support	.13	.07	**.76**
Subordinate Support	-.01	.10	**.66**
Peer Support	.13	.20	**.48**
X-Functional Support	.15	.22	**.45**
Top Management Support	*.33*	*.39*	*.38*
Superior Support	*.27*	*.23*	*.32*
Eigenvalue	**5.11**	**1.72**	**1.27**
Percent Variance Explained	**36.5**	**12.3**	**9.10**
Cronbach Alpha	**.84**	**.81**	**.84**

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TABLE 4.4
Factor Analysis of Organizational Culture Items

Item	F1
Participation and Open Discussion	.78
Assessing Employee Concerns	.77
Human Relations, Teamwork, Cohesion	.77
Empowerment of Employees to Act	.76
Flexibility and Decentralization	.74
Creative Problem Solving	.73
Innovation and Change	.72
Expansion, Growth, and Development	.69
Eigenvalue	**10.82**
Percent Variance Explained	**47.0**
Cronbach Alpha	**.88**

TABLE 4.5
Factor Analysis of Innovating and Upward Influencing Items: Self-Assessments

Item	F1	F2
Innovator(26)	**.78**	.18
Innovator(1)	**.77**	.16
Innovator(28)	**.73**	.23
Innovator(11)	**.62**	.28
Upward Influence(17)	.20	**.77**
Upward Influence(30)	.25	**.68**
Upward Influence(22)	.10	**.66**
Upward Influence(3)	.22	**.65**
Eigenvalues	**3.98**	**1.42**
Percent Variance Explained	**49.8**	**17.7**
Cronbach Alpha	**.82**	**.83**

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TABLE 4.6
Factor Analysis of Innovating and Upward Influencing Items: Subordinate-Assessments

Item	F1
Upward Influence(30)	.85
Upward Influence(3)	.84
Innovator(28)	.80
Innovator(1)	.77
Innovator(26)	.76
Upward Influence(22)	.74
Upward Influence(17)	.74
Innovator(11)	.73
Eigenvalues	5.27
Percent Variance Explained	65.9
Cronbach Alpha	.91

TABLE 4.7
Factor Analysis of Innovating and Upward Influencing Items: Superior-Assessments

Item	F1
Innovator(28)	.81
Innovator(1)	.80
Upward Influence(30)	.77
Innovator(11)	.75
Upward Influence(3)	.72
Upward Influence(17)	.71
Innovator(26)	.70
Upward Influence(22)	.61
Eigenvalues	4.77
Percent Variance Explained	59.6
Cronbach Alpha	.92

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TABLE 4.8
Factor Analysis of Second Order Change Items

Item	F1	F2
Second Order Change		
Revolutionary	**.66**	.32
Discontinuous	**.64**	.06
New paradigm	**.52**	.25
Depth of Change		
Scope	.26	**.66**
Risk	.22	**.48**
Irreversible	.04	*.33*
Multidimensional	*.43*	*.46*
Eigenvalue	**2.82**	**1.06**
Percent Variance Explained	**35.2**	**13.2**
Cronbach Alpha	**.67**	**.63**

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TABLE 4.9
Factor Analysis of Effectiveness Items

Self-Assessment

Item	F1
Overall effectiveness	.88
Managerial success	.84
Comparison to peers	.69
Meet standards	.65
Role model	.63
Eigenvalue	**3.15**
Percent Variance Explained	**63.0**
Cronbach Alpha	**.85**

Subordinate-Assessment

Item	F1
Overall effectiveness	.92
Managerial success	.91
Role model	.83
Comparison to peers	.82
Meet standards	.78
Eigenvalue	**3.91**
Percent Variance Explained	**78.2**
Cronbach Alpha	**.93**

Superior-Assessment

Item	F1
Overall effectiveness	.90
Managerial success	.83
Comparison to peers	.83
Role model	.81
Meet standards	.79
Eigenvalue	**3.77**
Percent Variance Explained	**75.4**
Cronbach Alpha	**.92**

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TABLE 5.1
Univariate Statistics:
Empowerment Items

Item	Mean	Std Dev	Min	Max	Cronbach Alpha Reliability
Meaning	**5.88**	**.76**	**2**	**7**	**.86**
Personal Meaning	5.67	.92	1	7	
Work is Meaningful	5.83	.88	2	7	
Work is Important	5.88	.84	3	7	
Care about Work	6.18	.86	1	7	
Competence	**5.76**	**.76**	**1.75**	**7**	**.81**
Master Skills	5.39	1.10	2	7	
Confident in Ability	6.08	.86	1	7	
Self-Assured Capability	5.60	.92	1	7	
Job Within Ability	6.00	.91	1	7	
Self-Determination	**5.50**	**.78**	**2.50**	**7**	**.82**
Significant Autonomy	5.40	1.02	2	7	
Freedom on Job	5.36	.97	1	7	
Personal Initiative	5.74	.85	2	7	
Decide How to Work	5.52	.88	2	7	
Impact	**5.49**	**.85**	**2**	**7**	**.88**
Significant Influence	5.45	1.04	2	7	
Control in Department	5.23	1.05	1	7	
Large Impact	5.55	.97	2	7	
Opinion Counts	5.73	.91	2	7	
Empowerment Index	**99.12**	**20.11**	**22**	**147**	**.74**

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TABLE 5.2
Correlations Between Empowerment Items*

	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Meaning															
1. Pers. Meaning	.75	.63	.56	.12	.21	.31	.26	.26	.28	.33	.28	.33	.35	.34	.32
2. Work is Meaningful		.62	.58	.21	.31	.36	.36	.25	.26	.34	.29	.37	.38	.30	.38
3. Work is Important			.52	.07	.29	.29	.21	.18	.21	.30	.21	.21	.26	.27	.21
4. Care about Work				.16	.21	.25	.41	.17	.24	.32	.30	.28	.29	.25	.22
Competence															
5. Master Skills					.51	.50	.53	.22	.18	.22	.34	.16	.07	.16	.32
6. Confident in Ability						.63	.47	.26	.18	.30	.25	.17	.14	.16	.27
7. Self-Assured Capability							.48	.36	.35	.58	.30	.29	.19	.23	.35
8. Job Within Ability								.13	.19	.30	.23	.14	.15	.17	.29
Self-Determination															
9. Significant Autonomy									.63	.50	.57	.40	.38	.38	.33
10.Freedom on Job										.57	.50	.45	.42	.41	.42
11.Personal Initiative											.44	.44	.37	.39	.48
12.Decide How to Work												.36	.38	.32	.39
Impact															
13.Significant Influence													.79	.70	.63
14.Control in Department														.65	.55
15.Large Impact															.54
16.Opinion Counts															

*All correlations above 0.13 significant at the .05 level, above 0.14 significant at the .10 level, and above .17 significant at the .001 level.

TABLE 5.3
Exploratory Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Significant Autonomy	**.85**	-.05	.04	**-.04**
Freedom on Job	**.76**	-.07	-.03	.06
Decide How to Work	**.56**	.10	-.02	.05
Personal Initiative	**.53**	.17	-.14	.07
Master Skills	.02	**.75**	.14	.05
Confident in Ability	.02	**.71**	-.04	-.02
Job Within Ability	-.09	**.65**	-.17	.02
Self-Assured Capability	.26	**.63**	-.08	-.04
Personal Meaning	.04	-.09	**-.84**	.05
Work is Meaningful	-.03	.08	**-.81**	.08
Work is Important	.01	-.02	**-.76**	-.04
Care about Work	.02	.07	**-.65**	.00
Significant Influence	-.01	-.02	.04	**.95**
Control in Department	.02	-.11	-.07	**.83**
Large Impact	.03	-.02	-.03	**.73**
Opinion Counts	.04	.23	.01	**.60**
Eigenvalues	**6.11**	**2.00**	**1.82**	**1.15**
Percent of Variance Explained	**38.2**	**12.5**	**11.4**	**7.2**
Cronbach Alpha Reliab.	**.82**	**.81**	**.86**	**.88**

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Table 5.4
LISREL Analysis for Full Model of Empowerment

Empowerment Dimensions	LISREL Loadings	Error Variance	Item Reliab.	Composite Reliab.	AvgVar. Extrct.
Meaning					
Personal Meaning	.85*	.28	.73	.86	.62
Work Meaningful	.88	.23	.77		
Work Important	.72	.48	.52		
Really Care	.67	.57	.45		
Competence					
Mastery	.65	.57	.43	.81	.52
Confidence	.76	.43	.57		
Self-Assured	.81	.34	.66		
W/in Ability	.64	.59	.41		
Self-Determination					
Autonomy	.76	.42	.58	.82	.54
Independent	.78	.40	.60		
Initiative	.72	.48	.52		
Decide Work	.68	.54	.46		
Impact					
Influence	.92	.16	.84	.88	.66
In Control	.85	.27	.73		
Large Impact	.77	.41	.59		
Opinion Counts	.69	.53	.47		

Phi Matrix

	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determ.	Impact
Meaning	1.00			
Competence	.45	1.00		
Self-Determ.	.44	.53	1.00	
Impact	.46	.32	.64	1.00

Chi-square (98 d.f.)	286.49 (P=.00)
Goodness of Fit Index	.89
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	.85
Root Mean Square Residual	.06

* All LISREL factor loadings, error variances, and Phi estimates are minimally significant at the .05 level.

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Table 5.5
LISREL Analyses for Each of Four Dimensions of Empowerment

Empowerment Dimensions	LISREL Loadings	Error Variance	Item Reliab.	Composite Reliab.	AvgVar. Extrct.
Meaning					
Personal Meaning	.86*	.26	.74	.86	.62
Work Meaningful	.87	.25	.75		
Work Important	.73	.47	.53		
Really Care	.67	.56	.45		
Chi-square (2 df.)			2.31 (p=.32)		
Goodness of Fit Index			.99		
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index			.98		
Root Mean Square Residual			.01		
Competence					
Mastery	.68	.54	.46	.81	.52
Confidence	.78	.40	.60		
Self-Assured	.77	.41	.59		
W/in Ability	.65	.58	.42		
Chi-square (2 df.)			11.09 (p=.04)		
Goodness of Fit Index			.98		
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index			.90		
Root Mean Square Residual			.03		
Self-Determination					
Autonomy	.79	.37	.64	.82	.54
Independent	.79	.38	.62		
Initiative	.67	.55	.45		
Decide Work	.67	.55	.45		
Chi-square (2 df.)			6.49 (p=.04)		
Goodness of Fit Index			.99		
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index			.94		
Root Mean Square Residual			.02		
Impact					
Influence	.93	.14	.86	.88	.65
In Control	.85	.28	.72		
Large Impact	.76	.43	.58		
Opinion Counts	.68	.55	.46		
Chi-square (2 df.)			2.25 (P=.33)		
Goodness of Fit Index			.99		
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index			.98		
Root Mean Square Residual			.01		

* All LISREL factor loadings and error variances significant at at least the .05 level.

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Table 5.6
LISREL Analysis for Condensed Model of Empowerment

Empowerment Dimensions	LISREL Loadings	Error Variance	Item Reliab.	Composite Reliab.	AvgVar. Extrct.
Meaning					
Personal Meaning	.86*	.27	.73	.86	.67
Work Meaningful	.88	.23	.77		
Work Important	.71	.49	.51		
Competence					
Mastery	.61	.63	.37	.83	.63
Confidence	.76	.43	.57		
Self-Assured	.84	.29	.71		
Self-Determination					
Autonomy	.81	.35	.65	.80	.57
Independent	.76	.42	.58		
Decide Work	.70	.52	.48		
Impact					
Influence	.91	.17	.83	.89	.72
In Control	.87	.25	.75		
Large Impact	.76	.42	.58		

Phi Matrix

	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determ.	Impact
Meaning	1.00			
Competence	.43	1.00		
Self-Determ.	.39	.49	1.00	
Impact	.45	.30	.60	1.00

Chi-square (48 d.f.)	90.17 (P=.00)
Goodness of Fit Index	.95
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	.92
Root Mean Square Residual	.04

* All LISREL factor loadings, error variances, and Phi estimates are minimally significant at the .05 level.

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Table 5.7
Second Order Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Condensed Model of Empowerment

Empowerment Dimensions	LISREL Loadings	Error Variance	Item Reliability	Composite Reliab.	Avg.Var. Extracted
Meaning					
Personal Meaning	.87*	.25	.75	.86	.67
Work Meaningful	.87	.24	.76		
Work Important	.72	.49	.51		
Competence					
Mastery	.61	.62	.38	.78	.55
Confidence	.76	.43	.47		
Self-Assured	.84	.29	.71		
Self-Determination					
Autonomy	.81	.35	.65	.80	.57
Independent	.76	.42	.58		
Decide Work	.70	.52	.49		
Impact					
Influence	.92	.16	.84	.88	.72
In Control	.86	.26	.74		
Large Impact	.76	.42	.58		

	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determ.	Impact
Gamma Values	.58	.56	.80	.71

Chi-square (50 d.f.)	105.30 (P=.00)
Goodness of Fit Index	.94
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	.91
Root Mean Square Residual	.05

* All LISREL factor loadings, error variances, and Gamma estimates are minimally significant at the .05 level.

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TABLE 5.8
Correlations Between Empowerment Scales

	Meaning	Competent	Self-Determin.	Impact	Overall Empowerment
Meaning	(.86)	.38***	.41***	.41***	.88***
Competence		(.81)	.43***	.29***	.61***
Self-Determination			(.82)	.57***	.71***
Impact				(.88)	.69***
Overall Empowerment					(.74)

Cronbach alpha reliabilities in parentheses.

*** $p < .001$

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TABLE 5.9
Correlations between Empowerment and Self-Esteem, Social Desirability, and Demographics

	Empower-ment	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determin.	Impact
Self-Esteem	.19***	.08	.26***	.08	.23***
Social Desirability	.12*	.03	.17**	.08	.14*
Demographics					
Gender[+]	.07	.09	-.03	-.03	.12*
Age	.06	.04	.16**	.03	-.04
Education	.11*	.12*	.10*	.09	-.02

* significant @ .05 level
** significant @ .01 level
*** significant @ .001 level

[+] A correlation on a dichotomous variable should be interpreted cautiously. T-tests of gender on each of the dimensions of empowerment were consistent with the correlations.

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Table 5.10
LISREL Analysis to Assess Concurrent and Discriminant Validity with Self-Esteem

Empowerment Dimensions	LISREL Loadings	Error Variance	Item Reliability	Composite Reliability	Avg Var Extrctd
Meaning					
Personal Meaning	.84*	.30	.70	.85	.66
Work Meaningful	.89	.22	.78		
Work Important	.70	.51	.49		
Competence					
Mastery	.65	.58	.42	.78	.56
Confidence	.76	.43	.57		
Self-Assured	.83	.31	.69		
Self-Determination					
Autonomy	.80	.37	.63	.79	.55
Independent	.75	.44	.57		
Decide Work	68	.54	.46		
Impact					
Influence	.91	.17	.83	.88	.71
In Control	.86	.27	.73		
Large Impact	.75	.44	.56		
Self-Esteem (single measure)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

Phi Matrix

	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determ.	Impact
Meaning	1.00			
Competence	.41**	1.00		
Self-Determ.	.35**	.50**	1.00	
Impact	.44**	.30**	.60**	1.00
Self-Esteem	.12	.29**	.14	.24**

Chi-square (56 d.f.)	96.01 (P=.001)
Goodness of Fit Index	.95
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	.92
Root Mean Square Residual	.04

* All LISREL factor loadings and error variances are minimally significant at the .05 level.
** Phi value minimally significant at the .05 level.

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Table 5.11
LISREL Analysis to Assess Social Desirability Bias

Empowerment Dimensions	LISREL Loadings	Error Variance	Item Reliability	Composite Reliability	Avg Var Extrctd
Meaning					
Personal Meaning	.84*	.30	.70	.85	.66
Work Meaningful	.90	.18	.82		
Work Important	.70	.51	.49		
Competence					
Mastery	.69	.53	.47	.78	.56
Confidence	.73	.48	.53		
Self-Assured	.90	.20	.80		
Self-Determination					
Autonomy	.79	.37	.63	.79	.55
Independent	.78	.40	.61		
Decide Work	.72	.49	.52		
Impact					
Influence	.92	.15	.85	.88	.71
In Control	.87	.25	.75		
Large Impact	.79	.38	.62		
Social Desirability (single measure)	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

Phi Matrix

	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determ.	Impact
Meaning	1.00			
Competence	.43**	1.00		
Self-Determ.	.38**	.50**	1.00	
Impact	.50**	.33**	.58**	1.00
Social Desirability	.06	.28**	.14	.19**

Chi-square (56 d.f.)	101.18 (P=.00)
Goodness of Fit Index	.95
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index	.92
Root Mean Square Residual	.04

* All LISREL factor loadings and error variances are minimally significant at the .05 level.
** Phi value minimally significant at the .05 level.

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TABLE 5.12
Factor Analysis of Social Structure Variables

Item	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	Factor4	Factor5	Factor6
Human Relations, teamwork	**.80**	-.00	-.06	-.00	-.09	-.13
Assessing employee concerns	**.80**	-.04	-.10	-.03	-.00	-.04
Participation and discussion	**.78**	-.08	-.06	-.00	-.02	-.07
Empowerment of employees to act	**.76**	.07	.06	-.01	-.12	.07
Innovation and Change	**.76**	.10	.08	.02	-.10	.08
Expansion, development	**.74**	.08	-.00	.04	.01	.09
Flexibility and decentralization	**.71**	-.01	-.03	.04	.02	.09
Creative problem solving	**.67**	.07	.06	.05	-.03	.00
Access to resources (1)	.04	**.88**	.12	.15	.03	-.02
Access to resources (2)	.05	**.76**	.15	.10	.04	-.05
Access to resources (3)	.05	**.75**	.19	.08	-.06	-.06
Access to resources (4)	-.04	**.50**	.26	.10	.09	-.29
Access to information (1)	-.02	.10	**.80**	.17	.01	-.16
Access to information (2)	-.03	.26	**.75**	.15	-.01	-.08
Access to information (3)	-.03	.23	**.49**	.28	.02	.01
Access to information (4)	.04	.23	**.49**	.29	.03	-.12

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TABLE 5.12 (Continued)
Factor Analysis of Social Structure Variables

Item	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	Factor4	Factor5	Factor6
Workgroup support	.05	.09	.09	**.77**	-.03	-.10
Subordinate support	.04	.03	.11	**.69**	.12	-.02
Peer support	.07	.11	.18	**.46**	.05	-.12
X-functional team support	-.07	.14	.22	**.46**	.06	-.02
Structure-continuous	-.03	.07	-.02	.11	**.75**	.12
Structure-job design	-.05	.07	-.06	.04	**.72**	.29
Structure-goals	-.05	-.09	-.27	-.04	.01	**.61**
Structure-authority	.05	-.14	.04	-.09	.11	**.60**
Structure-task	-.02	.02	-.07	-.03	.27	**.48**
Eigenvalue	**6.17**	**2.27**	**1.97**	**1.55**	**1.37**	**1.17**
% Variance Explained	**29.7**	**9.1**	**7.9**	**6.2**	**5.5**	**4.7**
Cronbach Reliability	**.88**	**.84**	**.81**	**.84**	**.76**	**.60**

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TABLE 5.13
Correlations between Social Structure Scales

	Flexible Job Design	Unit Size	Span of Control	Sociopolitical Support	Access to Information	Access to Resources	Integrative Culture
Organic Structure							
Flexible Role Definition	.29***	.04	-.04	-.12*	-.23***	-.15***	-.06
Flexible Job Design		-.14*	.02	.07	.03	.08	.07
Unit Size			-.03	-.05	-.02	.03	-.01
Span of Control				.07	.07	.06	-.00
Sociopolitical Support					.55**	.36***	.07
Access to Information						.50***	.07
Access to Resources							.09

* significant @ .05 level
** significant @ .01 level
*** significant @ .001 level

TABLE 5.14
Correlations between Social Structure and Empowerment

	Empower-ment	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determin.	Impact
Organic Structure					
Flexible Role Definition	-.21***	-.20***	-.19***	-.10*	-.13*
Flexible Job Design	.05	.03	.06	.10*	-.05
Unit Size	.01	.05	-.08	-.05	.06
Span of Control	.16**	.14*	.13*	.06	.10*
Sociopolitical Support	.48***	.36***	.32***	.42***	.35***
Access to Information	.46***	.33***	.30***	.37***	.37***
Access to Resources	.30***	.23***	.22***	.33***	.24***
Integrative Culture	.12*	.06	.21***	.08	.10*

* significant @ .05 level
** significant @ .01 level
*** significant @ .001 level

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TABLE 5.15
Regression Analyses: Empowerment on Social Structure[a]

Independent Variables	Overall Empowerment	Dependent Variables: Meaning	Competence	Self-Determination	Impact
Social Desirability	.08+	.00	.19**	.04	.08
Gender	.04	.13*	.00	-.13*	-.07
Age	.02	.01	.15*	.01	-.10+
Education	.12*	.14*	.08	.05	.03
Organic Structure					
Flexible Role Definition	-.13*	-.18**	-.11+	-.01	.01
Flexible Job Design	.02	.03	.08	.05	.13*
Unit Size	-.00	.06	-.14*	-.05	.01
Span of Control	.14*	.12*	.10+	.04	.10+
Sociopolitical Support	.30***	.28***	.19***	.21**	.19**
Access to Information	.28***	.21**	.13*	.26***	.29***
Access to Resources	-.01	-.09	.06	.10+	-.03
Integrative Culture	.02	-.03	.15**	.01	.02
R^2	**.37**	**.26**	**.29**	**.27**	**.23**
Adjusted R^2	**.34**	**.21**	**.25**	**.22**	**.19**
F	**9.33*** **	**5.52*** **	**6.57*** **	**5.85*** **	**4.84*** **

[a] Values shown are the standardized regression coefficients. + $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

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TABLE 5.16
Summary of Results:
Empowerment on Social Structure*

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables: Overall Empowerment	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determination	Impact
Organic Structure					
Flexible Role Definition	-	-	-		
Flexible Job Design					+
Small Unit Size			+		
Span of Control	+	+	+		+
Sociopolitical Support	+	+	+	+	+
Access to Information	+	+	+	+	+
Access to Resources				+	
Integrative Culture			+		

* Cells indicate positive or negative directions of the significant regression coefficient.

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TABLE 5.17
Regression Analyses:
Empowerment on Social Structure (with Self-Assessments of Culture)[a]

Independent Variables	Overall Empowerment	Dependent Variables: Meaning	Competence	Self-Determination	Impact
Social Desirability	.06	.00	.18**	.03	.03
Gender	.08	.15*	-.06	-.07	.09
Age	.01	.01	.12+	-.01	-.10
Education	.14*	.16*	.10	.07	.05
Organic Structure					
Flexible Role Definition	-.11*	-.16**	-.07	-.01	.01
Flexible Job Design	.01	.03	.01	.06	.10+
Unit Size	-.00	.06	-.14*	-.05	.02
Span of Control	.13*	.11*	.09+	.03	.09+
Sociopolitical Support	.28***	.27***	.20***	.18**	.14*
Access to Information	.28***	.21**	.10+	.24***	.32***
Access to Resources	-.03	-.10+	.08	.09	-.08
Integrative Culture (Self)	.17**	.06	.13*	.20***	.24***
R^2	**.40**	**.26**	**.27**	**.30**	**.27**
Adjusted R^2	**.37**	**.22**	**.23**	**.26**	**.23**
F	**11.05*** **	**5.92*** **	**6.06*** **	**7.19*** **	**6.11*** **

[a] Values shown are the standardized regression coefficients. N=261 $^{+}p < .10$ $^{*}p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$ $^{***}p < .001$

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TABLE 5.18
Correlations Between the Outcome Variables

	Upward Influence (Slf-Assess)	Innovation Upward Influ (Sub-Assess)	Innovation Upward Influ (Sup-Assess)	Second Order Change	Effective-ness (Self-Assess)	Effective-ness (Sub-Assess)	Effective-ness (Sup-Assess)	Promo-tions	Salary Increase
Innovation (Self-Assess)	.48***	.20***	.16**	.16**	.36***	.02	.04	.10*	.06
Upward Influence (Self-Assess)		.25***	.22***	.15**	.42***	.13*	.16*	.08	.19***
Innovation Upward Influence (Sub-Assess)			.26***	.17**	.22***	.64***	.09	.04	.09
Innovation Upward Influence (Sup-Assess)				.05	.13*	.16*	.59***	.12*	.08
Second Order Change					.09	-.00	.01	-.05	.03
Effectiveness (Self-Assess)						.24***	.11*	.04	.11*
Effectiveness (Sub-Assess)							.19**	.17**	.05
Effectiveness (Sup-Assess)								.34***	.14*
Promotions									.27***

* significant @ .05 level ** significant @ .01 level *** significant @ .001 level

TABLE 5.19
Correlations between Empowerment and Outcome Variables

	Empower-ment	Meaning	Competence	Self-Determin.	Impact
Innovation (Self-Assess)	.35***	.23***	.27***	.26***	.33***
Upward Influence (Self-Assess)	.31***	.22***	.19***	.19***	.32***
Innovation Upward Influence (Sub-Assess)	.22***	.09	.29***	.18**	.25***
Innovation Upward Influence (Sup-Assess)	.24***	.16**	.20**	.13*	.22***
Second Order Change	.20***	.25***	.06	.08	.13**
Effectiveness (Self-Assess)	.39***	.27***	.37***	.25***	.34***
Effectiveness (Sub-Assess)	.14**	.04	.20***	.09	.21***
Effectiveness (Sup-Assess)	.04	.03	.00	.37***	.11
Promotions	.08	-.04	.17**	.10*	.04
Percent Salary Increase	.07	.09	.13*	.03	.04

* significant @ .05 level ** significant @ .01 level *** significant @ .001 level

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TABLE 5.20
Regression Analyses:
Outcome Variables on Demographics, Social Desirability, and Empowerment[a]

	Dependent Variables				
Independent Variables	**Innovation (Self-Assess)**	**Upward Influence (Self-Assess)**	**Innovation Upward Influence (Sub-Assess)**	**Innovation Upward Influence (Superior-Assess)**	**Second Order Change**
Control Variables					
Social Desirability	.05	.10	.03	.15*	-.01
Gender	-.07	-.05	-.08	-.09	.07
Age	.14*	.01	-.04	-.16*	.11
Education	-.09	-.19**	.02	.12+	-.01
Empowerment	.36***	.36***	.22***	.32***	.17*
R^2	**.15**	**.15**	**.06**	**.16**	**.06**
Adjusted R^2	**.13**	**.13**	**.04**	**.14**	**.04**
F	**7.61*** **	**7.54*** **	**2.61***	**6.63*** **	**2.20***

[a] Values shown are the standardized regression coefficients.

$^{+}p < .10$ $^{*}p < .05$ $^{**}p < .01$ $^{***}p < .001$

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TABLE 5.20 (Continued)
Regression Analyses:
Outcome Variables on Demographics, Social Desirability, and Empowerment[a]

	Dependent Variables				
Independent Variables	**Effectiveness (Self Assess)**	**Effectiveness (Subord. Assess)**	**Effectiveness (Superior Assess)**	**# Promotions in Past 5 Years**	**Percent Salary Increase Last Year**
Control Variables					
Social Desirability	.07	.07	.00	-.02	-.02
Gender	.06	-.11	.11	.10	.01
Age	-.03	-.10	-.31***	-.52***	-.30***
Education	-.11+	-.04	.01	-.01	-.14*
Empowerment	.39***	.14*	.07	.05	.06
R^2	**.18**	**.05**	**.10**	**.26**	**.10**
Adjusted R^2	**.16**	**.03**	**.07**	**.25**	**.08**
F	**9.11*** **	**2.22** **	**3.79** **	**15.23*** **	**4.90*** **

[a] Values shown are the standardized regression coefficients.

$^{+}$ $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

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TABLE 5.21
Regression Analyses:
Outcome Variables on Demographics, Social Desirability, and Dimensions of Empowerment[a]

	Dependent Variables				
Independent Variables	**Innovation (Self-Assess)**	**Upward Influence (Self-Assess)**	**Innovation Upward Influence (Sub-Assess)**	**Innovation Upward Influence (Superior-Assess)**	**Second Order Change**
Control Variables					
Social Desirability	.06	.10+	.02	.16*	-.04
Gender	-.06	-.06	-.04	-.09	.06
Age	.15*	.02	-.06	-.16*	.11+
Education	-.07	-.17**	.02	.12+	-.02
Meaning	.04	.09+	.11+	.11+	.32***
Competence	.15*	.10+	.31***	.20**	.10+
Self-Determination	.03	.01	-.03	-.05	.04
Impact	.26***	.27***	.19**	.18*	.15*
R^2	**.17**	**.16**	**.14**	**.18**	**.10**
Adjusted R^2	**.14**	**.13**	**.10**	**.14**	**.07**
F	**5.45*** **	**5.14*** **	**3.95*** **	**4.63*** **	**2.94****

[a] Values shown are the standardized regression coefficients. N=260
+ $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

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TABLE 5.21 (Continued)
Regression Analyses:
Outcome Variables on Demographics, Social Desirability, and Dimensions of Empowerment[a]

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables: Effectiveness (Self Assess)	Effectiveness (Subord. Assess)	Effectiveness (Superior Assess)	# Promotions in Past 5 Years	Percent Salary Increase Last Year
Control Variables					
Social Desirability	.02	.03	.00	.03	.04
Gender	.08	-.07	.10+	.07	.00
Age	-.04	-.10+	-.30***	-.50***	-.27***
Education	-.10+	-.03	.01	.00	-.12*
Meaning	.05	.10+	.02	-.02	.10+
Competence	.30***	.20**	.03	-.09	.18**
Self-Determination	.01	-.07	-.07	.11+	.08
Impact	.21**	.20**	.10	.13*	.12+
R^2	.22	.09	.10	.28	.14
Adjusted R^2	.19	.06	.06	.25	.10
F	**7.44*** **	**2.57** **	**2.48***	**10.24*** **	**4.18*** **

[a] Values shown are the standardized regression coefficients. N=264
+ $p < .10$ * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

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TABLE 5.22
Summary of Results:
Outcome Variables on Empowerment*

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables: Innovation (Self-Assess)	Upward Influence (Self-Assess)	Innovation Upward Influence (Sub-Assess)	Innovation Upward Influence (Sup-Assess)	Second Order Change
Empowerment	+	+	+	+	+
Meaning		+	+	+	+
Competence	+	+	+	+	+
Self-Determ.					
Impact	+	+	+	+	+

* Cells indicate positive or negation directions of the significant regression coefficients.

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TABLE 5.22 (Continued)
Summary of Results:
Outcome Variables on Empowerment

	Dependent Variables				
Independent Variables	**Effectiveness (Self Assess)**	**Effectiveness (Subord. Assess)**	**Effectiveness (Superior Assess)**	**# Promotions in Past 5 Years**	**Percent Salary Increase Last Year**
Empowerment	+	+			
Meaning		+			+
Competence	+	+			+
Self-Determination				+	
Impact	+	+		+	+

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TABLE 5.23
Regression Analyses:
Outcome Variables on Social Structure[a]

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables: Innovation (Self-Assess)	Upward Influence (Self-Assess)	Innov./Upward Infl. (Subordinate-Assess)	Innov./Upward Infl. (Superior-Assess)	Second Order Change
Social Desirability	.00	.03	.04	.16*	.02
Gender	-.07	-.08	-.06	-.04	.12*
Age	.12*	-.02	.06	-.13*	.13*
Education	-.04	-.15*	.03	.19**	.00
Organic Structure					
Flexible Role Definition	-.03	.14*	.03	.03	-.04
Flexible Job Design	.08	.02	.02	.07	.22**
Unit Size	.04	-.04	.13*	.17*	.11+
Span of Control	.04	.00	.07	.01	.07
Sociopolitical Support	.25***	.21**	-.09+	.15*	.04
Access to Information	-.03	.19*	.03	.14*	.03
Access to Resources	.17*	.12*	.09+	-.08	-.06
Integrative Culture	.01	.04	.63***	.03	.00
R^2	**.14**	**.21**	**.44**	**.15**	**.09**
Adjusted R^2	**.09**	**.16**	**.41**	**.09**	**.03**
F	**2.60****	**4.11****	**12.60*****	**2.33****	**1.47**

[a] Values shown are the standardized regression coefficients. N=260 $^{+}p < .10$ $^{*}p < .05$ $^{*}p < .01$ $^{*}p < .001$

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TABLE 5.23 (Continued)
Regression Analyses:
Outcome Variables on Social Structure[a]

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables: Effectiveness (Self-Assess)	Effectiveness (Subord-Assess)	Effectiveness (Superior-Assess)	# Promo Last 5 Years	% Salary Increase
Social Desirability	-.07	.02	.10+	.02	-.01
Gender	.04	-.08+	.04	.03	-.06
Age	-.01	-.03	-.25***	-.51***	-.31***
Education	-.05	-.02	.07	.02	-.14*
Organic Structure					
Flexible Role Definition	-.06	-.04	-.12+	.01	.06
Flexible Job Design	.10+	-.10*	-.03	-.15*	.07
Unit Size	.05	.07	.16*	.08	.03
Span of Control	.12*	-.02	.03	.02	-.00
Sociopolitical Support	.19*	.02	-.02	.00	.04
Access to Information	.05	.08	.22**	.08	-.01
Access to Resources	.01	.04	-.02	.06	.09
Integrative Culture	.11*	.63***	.04	-.07	.00
R^2	.12	.49	.19	.30	.12
Adjusted R^2	.07	.45	.13	.25	.07
F	2.24**	15.06**	2.99***	6.62***	2.21*

[a] Values shown are the standardized regression coefficients. N=256 $^{+}p < .10$ $^{*}p < .05$ $^{*}p < .01$ $^{*}p < .001$

TABLE 5.24
Hierarchical Regression
Outcome Variables on Social Structure and Empowerment

Independent Variables	**Innovative Behavior (Self-Assess)**	**Upward Infl. Behavior (Self-Asess)**	**Innovative Upward Infl. Behavior (Sub-Assess)**	**Innovative Upward Infl. Behavior (Sup-Assess)**
Social Desirability	.02	.05	.04	.20**
Gender	-.09	-.08	-.07	-.05
Age	.11+	-.03	.06	-.14*
Education	-.09	-.18**	.01	.16*
Organic Structure				
Flexible Role Definition	.01	.17**	.05	.07
Flexible Job Design	.07	.01	.02	.04
Unit Size	.04	-.04	.14**	.16*
Span of Control	-.01	-.03	.04	-.02
Socio-political Support	.14*	.14*	-.14*	.07
Information	-.14+	.13+	-.04	.03
Resources	.17*	.12+	.09+	-.07
Integrative Culture	.01	.03	.63***	.01
Mediating Variable				
Empowerment	.37***	.21**	.24***	.33***
Diff R^2	**.09**	**.04**	**.04**	**.06**
F	**20.98*** **	**7.14** **	**13.34*** **	**12.72*** **
Overall AR^2	**.17**	**.18**	**.44**	**.15**
F	**4.26*** **	**4.46*** **	**13.41*** **	**3.29*** **

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TABLE 5.24 (Continued)
Hierarchical Regression
Outcome Variables on Social Structure and Empowerment

Independent Variables	Second Order Change	Effectiveness (Self-Assessment)	Effectiveness (Subord.-Assessment)
Social Desirability	.03	-.05	.02
Gender	.11	.03	-.08
Age	.13+	-.02	-.02
Education	-.03	-.09	-.02
Organic Structure			
Flexible Role Definition	-.02	-.02	-.04
Flexible Job Design	.21**	.10+	-.10+
Unit Size	.11+	.09+	.07
Span of Control	.04	.07	-.02
Socio-political Support	-.02	.08	.01
Information	-.02	-.05	.08
Resources	-.06	.02	.04
Integrative Culture	-.01	.10+	.63***
Mediating Variable			
Empowerment	.21**	.36***	.01
Diff R^2	**.04**	**.08**	**.00**
F	**6.14****	**19.00*****	**.14**
Overall AR^2	**.06**	**.15**	**.45**
F	**1.87***	**3.73*****	**13.83*****

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TABLE 5.25
Correlations Between Different Formulations of Empowerment

	Theoretical-Forumulation	Simple Mean Formulation	Linear Combination Formulation
Mean	99.12	5.65	14.92
Standard Deviation	20.11	.59	1.59
Organic Structure			
Flex. Role Def.	-.21***	-.22***	-.20***
Flex. Job Design	.05	.05	.05
Unit Size	.01	.01	.01
Span of Control	.16**	.14**	.14**
Sociopolitical Supp.	.48***	.49***	.49***
Access to Inform.	.46***	.48***	.48***
Access to Resources	.30***	.32***	.32***
Integrative Culture	.12*	.16**	.15**
Innovation (Self-Assess)	.35***	.36***	.36***
Upward Influence (Self-Assess)	.31***	.31***	.31***
Innovation Upward Influence (Sub-Assess)	.22***	.24***	.25***
Innovation Upward Influence (Sup-Assess)	.24***	.26***	.24***
Second Order Change	.20***	.14*	.13*
Effectiveness (Self-Assess)	.39***	.41***	.40***
Effectiveness (Sub-Assess)	.14**	.18**	.18**
Effectiveness (Sup-Assess)	.04	.04	.04
Promotions	.08	.09	.08
Percent Salary Increase	.07	.07	.06

* significant @ .05 level ** significant @ .01 level *** significant @ .001 level

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TABLE 6.1
Three Types of Involvement Management*

Human Relations	Human Resources	High Involvement
Why Involvement Employees?		
• people should be treated fairly and with respect	• people are a valuable resource because they have ideas and knowledge	• people can be trusted to make important decisions about their work activities
• people want to participate	• when people have input, better decisions, better solutions result	• people can develop knowledge to make important decisions about their work activities
• when people participate, they are more satisfied and committed to the organization	• organizations should make a long-term commitment to its people because it makes them more valuable to the organization	• when people make decisions about their work, the result is greater effectiveness
Assumptions:		
• embraces the control orientation of the organization -- parallel structures	• moves information and power downward in the organization but does not delegate important decisions to low levels in the organization	• takes previous assumptions further to push more information, resources, & power throughout the organization, people contribute to decision making
Examples:		
• typical of most U.S. organizations; attitude-survey programs, quality circles	• gainsharing, job enrichment	• self-managing work teams, highly decentralized organizations, not many examples
Focus:		
• lowest levels of the organization • a problem focus	• lower levels of the organization • job focus	• all levels of the organization • organization focus
Desired Outcomes:		
• participation -> satisfaction -> productivity	• participation -> productivity -> satisfaction	• participation -> high performance and innovation

* Adapted from E. E. Lawler, Strategies for Involvement, AME, 1988.

APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A

PROTOCOL FOR EMPOWERMENT INTERVIEWS

1. How do you define empowerment?

2. Please describe for me a time when you felt personally empowered within your organization.

I then used the following probes: (some are borrowed from Kanter, 1983)

-- please provide a chronology of the experience from initiation through completion or present time?
-- what were the conditions of initiation, including the existence of a model and precedents, the nature and typicality of the assignment, the source of ideas, what were the motivators?
-- how did you acquire resources, information, and support?
-- what did you experience, how did you feel during and after?
-- how did you interface with the organization?
-- what were the organizational/unit norms for that type of situation (i.e. dominant reality)?
-- did you deviate in any way?
-- if necessary, how did you build legitimacy / credibility for your action?
-- did you experience any opposition, criticism, roadblocks ?
-- what strategies did you use to overcome them (both individual and organizational)?
-- what have been the results and pay-offs from the experience, to self and organization including gains as well as costs?
-- please provide me a description of the job, an organization chart for the department or function, and discuss any changes taking place around the department?

3. Now please describe a time when you felt particularly disempowered within the organization

-- probe with many of the same questions described above

4. What are some conditions in your organizational environment that you find empowering? Disempowering?

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APPENDIX B

DIRECTIONS TO ASSOCIATES FOR QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETION

This instrument is designed to obtain descriptions of your associate named below. There are no right or wrong answers. Instead these items will be used in the Major Company / University of Michigan Leadership Development program to give the manager an idea of how others perceive his/her performance as a manager. Please be as honest and fair in your assessment as possible.

Your own responses will remain strictly confidential. The manager will not be able to identify your responses. They will be aggregated with those of eight other subordinates, peers, and superiors in your organization who are also rating the manager named below. The data will then be analyzed and compiled into a feedback report at the University of Michigan. Therefore, when you finish completing the answer sheet, mail your responses back using the self-adddressed evelope. Do not return it to the manager. The aggregate data will be provided to the manager in a report during the program.

The manager you are rating has been assigned a number for data analysis purposes. This number should already be printed on the answer sheet. This number will not identify you.

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APPENDIX C

MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENTS

Here the scales that measure each of the components of the theoretical framework.

I. Empowerment Assessment

WORK ORIENTATION

Listed below are a number of orientations people can have with respect to their work roles. Using the following scale, please indicate the extent to which you believe each is true with respect to your work role.

1. Very Strongly Disagree		5. Agree
2. Strongly Disagree	4. Neither	6. Strongly Agree
3. Disagree		7. Very Strongly Agree

Meaning

_____ The work that I do is very important to me.*
_____ My job activities are personally meaningful to me.
_____ I really care about what I do on my job.
_____ The work I do is meaningful to me.

Competence

_____ I am confident about my ability to do my job.
_____ My job is well within the scope of my abilities.
_____ I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.
_____ I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.

Self-Determination

_____ I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
_____ I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
_____ I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.X
_____ I have a chance to use personal initiative in carrying out my work.

Impact

_____ My impact on what happens in my department is large.
_____ I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.
_____ I have significant influence over what happens in my department.
_____ My opinion counts in departmental decision-making.

---

* These items are randomized and the four dimension labels are deleted.

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II. Assessment of Social Structural Antecedents of Individual Empowerment

A. Organic Structure

Description of Your Unit

Here we would like you to describe the characteristics of your unit. Please indicate the number which most closely describes your unit.

1. Goals are well defined for total unit	1 2 3 4 5	Goals are not very well defined for the total unit
2. Lines of authority are precisely defined	1 2 3 4 5	Lines of authority are not precisely defined
3. Communications on job related matters are predominantly vertical	1 2 3 4 5	Communication on job related matters go in both vertical and horizontal directions
4. Most tasks performed at the lower levels of the total unit are well defined	1 2 3 4 5	Most tasks performed at at the low levels of the total unit are not well defined
5. Routine solutions exist to perform many tasks	1 2 3 4 5	New solutions must be continuously found for each job
6. It is relatively easy to predict in advance how each job is to be performed	1 2 3 4 5	It is difficult to predict in advance how each job job is to be performed

7. What is the number of full-time, paid members in your unit? _____

8. How many individuals, besides yourself, report directly to your immediate superior? _____

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II. Assessment of Social Structural Antecedents of Individual Empowerment (continued)

B. Sociopolitical Support and Access to Information and Resources

---

Description of Your Unit (Continued)
Please use the following scale to answer these questions about the environment in which you work.

1. Very Strongly Disagree		5. Agree
2. Strongly Disagree	4. Neither	6. Strongly Agree
3. Disagree		7. Very Strongly Agree

I have the support that I need from _____ to do my job well.

_____ my superior
_____ my peers
_____ my subordinates
_____ my workgroup or team
_____ top management
_____ the cross-functional teams of which I am a member

_____ I have access to the strategic information that I need to do my job well.
_____ I have access to the resources I need to do my job well.
_____ I understand top management's vision of the organization.
_____ I can obtain the materials and funds necessary to support new ideas and improvements in my unit.
_____ When I need additional resources to do my job, I can usually get them.
_____ Many times I do not feel as though I have all of the information necessary to do my job well.
_____ I understand the goals of the organization.
_____ It is hard for me to do a good job because I do not have all the materials, supplies, or equipment I need to do my job.

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II. Assessment of Social Structural Antecedents Individual Empowerment (continued)

C. Unit Culture

A Profile of Operating Values in the Work Unit
Here we would like you to describe the operating values or practices in the work unit in which the manager works. In responding, please use the following scale to indicate the extent to which each of the following items is now valued.

Minimally Valued	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Extensively Valued

_____ Participation and open discussion (human resource)*
_____ Flexibility and decentralization (innovation)
_____ Routinization, formalization, and structure (hierarchical)
_____ Assessing employee concerns and ideas (human resource)
_____ Expansion, growth, and development (innovation)
_____ Creative problem solving processes (innovation)
_____ Empowerment of employees to act (human resource)
_____ Innovation and change (innovation)
_____ Control and centralization (hierarchical)
_____ Direction, setting objectives, goal clarity (rational goal)
_____ Human relations, teamwork, cohesion (human resource)
_____ Predictable performance outcomes (rational goal)
_____ Task focus, accomplishment, goal achievement (rational goal)
_____ Stability, continuity, order (hierarchical)
_____ Outcome excellence, quality (rational goal)

---

* The words in parentheses describe the type of culture that item represents. They are deleted in the actual instrument.

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III. Outcomes of Individual Empowerment

A. Second Order Change:

Please describe a leadership initiative you have undertaken recently. Please explain your initiative in enough detail so that a naive reader can understand what you have done. In the remainder of the questionnaire, you will be asked about the initiative.

Overall description. The overall initiative could be described as:

1. Low in personal risk	1 2 3 4 5	High in personal risk
2. Minor in scope	1 2 3 4 5	Major in scope
3. An incremental change	1 2 3 4 5	A revolutionary change
4. A continuous change in line with the existing direction	1 2 3 4 5	A discontinuous change taking a completely new direction
5. Within the current paradigm or way of thinking	1 2 3 4 5	Requiring a new paradigm or way of thinking
6. A change in one or few dimensions of the current system	1 2 3 4 5	A change in many dimensions of the current system
7. Reversible, could go back	1 2 3 4 5	Irreversible, could not go back

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III. Outcomes of Individual Empowerment (continued)

B. Innovating and Upward Influencing Behaviors

Management Behaviors:
Listed here are some behaviors a manager might engage in. Using the following scale, please indicate, in the space provided, the frequency with which each one is exhibited.

1. Almost never		5. Frequently
2. Very Seldom	4. Occasionally	6. Very Frequently
3. Seldom		7. Almost Always

_____ Comes up with inventive ideas (innovator)*
_____ Ignores the need to achieve unit goals (producer)(recoded)
_____ Exerts upward influence in the organization (upward influence)
_____ Clarifies the unit's purpose (director)
_____ Maintains a "results" orientation in the unit (producer)
_____ Facilitates consensus building in the work unit (facilitator)
_____ Maintains tight logistical control (monitor)
_____ Surfaces key differences among group members, works participatively to solve them (facilitator)
_____ Listens to the personal problems of subordinates (mentor)
_____ Monitors compliance with the rules (monitor)
_____ Experiments with new concepts and procedures (innovator)
_____ Encourages participative decision making in the group (facilitator)
_____ Anticipates workflow problems, avoids crisis (coordinator)
_____ Holds open discussion of conflicting opinions in groups (facilitator)
_____ Makes the unit's role very clear (director)
_____ Treats people in cold, uncaring ways (mentor)(recoded)
_____ Influences decisions made at higher levels (upward influence)
_____ Compares, records, reports to detect discrepancies (monitor)
_____ Checks for errors and mistakes (monitor)
_____ Sees that the units delivers on stated goals (producer)
_____ Show empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates (mentor)
_____ Gets access to people at higher levels (broker)
_____ Clarifies the objective of the unit (director)
_____ Treats each individual in a sensitive, caring way (mentor)
_____ Keeps track of what goes on inside of the unit (coordinator)
_____ Does problem solving in clever, creative ways (innovator)
_____ Pushes the unit to meet objectives (producer)
_____ Searches for innovations and potential improvements (innovator)
_____ Clarifies the unit's priorities and direction (director)
_____ Persuasively sells new ideas to higher-ups (upward influence)
_____ Develops consensual resolution of openly expressed differences (facilitator)
_____ Brings a sense of order and coordination into the unit (coordinator)
_____ Shows concern for the needs of subordinates (mentor)
_____ Gets the unit to meet expected goals (producer)
_____ Solves scheduling problems in the unit (coordinator)
_____ Maintains a highly coordinated, well organized unit (coordinator)

* The words in parentheses describe the types of behavior the item represents. They are deleted in the actual instrument.

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III. Outcomes of Individual Empowerment (continued)

C. Managerial Effectiveness

An Overall Evaluation:
In this section we would like to know your general overall assessment of the person as a manager. In answering the following questions, please indicate the appropriate number:

1. Meeting of managerial performance standards:

below most	1 2 3 4 5	above most

2. Overall managerial success:

failure	1 2 3 4 5	success

3. Comparison to person's managerial peers:

worse	1 2 3 4 5	better

4. Performance as a role model:

poor	1 2 3 4 5	excellent

5. Overall effectiveness as a manager:

ineffective	1 2 3 4 5	effective

6. _____ Number of Promotions within Last Five Years

(0) None	(5) Five
(1) One	(6) Six
(2) Two	(7) Seven
(3) Three	(8) Eight
(4) Four	(9) Nine or more

7. _____ Percent increase received over last year's base salary

(1) 0%
(2) 1 - 3%
(3) 4 - 6%
(4) 7 - 9%
(5) 10 - 12%
(6) 13 - 15%
(7) 16 - 19%
(8) 19 - 21%
(9) 22% or more

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IV. Demographic / Descriptive Variables

_____ **Age (in years)**

_____ **Sex**
(1) Female
(2) Male

_____ **Education**
(1) Less than high school graduate
(2) High school graduate
(3) 1 - 2 Years College
(4) Associate Degree
(5) 3 - 4 Years College
(6) Bachelors Degree
(7) Graduate Work
(8) Masters Degree
(9) Doctorate Degree

_____ **Functional Specialty**
(1) Finance / Accounting
(2) Research
(3) Human Resources / Personnel
(4) Manufacturing / Production
(5) Marketing / Sales / Service
(6) Planning
(7) Engineering / Development
(8) Other

_____ **Position**
(1) Non-supervisory
(2) Supervisory

_____ **Years in Current Position**

(1) One or less	(6) Six
(2) Two	(7) Seven
(3) Three	(8) Eight
(4) Four	(9) Nine or more
(5) Five	

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V. Social Desirability Scale

Listed below are several statements concerning personal attitudes. Please read each statement and decide whether it is true or false as it pertains to you. Please place a T (true) or F (false) in the space provided for each item.

_____ I always try to be considerate of the feelings of my friends.*

_____ Nothing that happens to me makes much difference one way or the other.

_____ I often take some responsibility for looking out for newcomers in a group.

_____ I have a number of health problems.

_____ In the long run humanity will owe a lot more to the teacher than the salesman.

_____ I often have the feeling that I am doing something evil.

_____ I am seldom ill.

_____ I almost always feel sleepy and lazy.

_____ My memory is as good as other people's.

_____ I am not willing to give up my own privacy or pleasure in order to help other people.

_____ Most of my teachers were helpful.

_____ We ought to let the rest of the world solve their own problems and just look out for ourselves.

_____ My life is full of interesting activities.

_____ I often question whether life is worthwhile.

_____ I am able to make correct decisions on difficult questions.

_____ I believe people tell lies anytime it is to their advantage.

---

* Every other item is recoded.

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VI. Self-Esteem Scale

How You Feel Now

We all have different ways we feel about ourselves. Please circle true or false according to how you feel about the following statements.

	True	False
1. I find it very hard to talk in front of a group.	1	2
2. There are lots of things about myself I'd change if I could.	1	2
3. I'm a lot of fun to be with.*	1	2
4. I get upset easily at home.	1	2
5. I'm popular with people my own age.*	1	2
6. My family expects too much of me.	1	2
7. Things are all mixed up in my life.	1	2
8. Other people usually follow my ideas.*	1	2
9. I have a low opinion of myself.	1	2
10. There are many times when I'd like to leave home.	1	2
11. I often feel upset about the work I do.	1	2
12. I'm not as nice looking as most people.	1	2
13. My family understands me.*	1	2
14. Most people are better liked than I.	1	2
15. I usually feel as if my family is pushing me.	1	2
16. I often get discouraged with what I am doing.	1	2
17. I'm proud of my work.*	1	2

* Items are recoded.

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