Empowerment in the Workplace

by

Alan J. H. Thorlakson

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Name ALAN J. H. THORLAKSON # 5174898

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A Thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of

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Acknowledgments

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Abstract

Empowerment in the workplace was developed and practiced in the 1950's and 1960's. Recent forces in the business community such as globalization, skilled staff shortages, and the need for innovation and productivity have added momentum to the search for ways to survive. Despite limited empirical evidence, empowerment has been advocated as a promising panacea for this dilemma. This thesis analyzes the theoretical and empirical aspects of empowerment, primarily within the constructs of power, managerial functions, leadership styles, and motivation. It also examines the implications of empowerment on other parameters common to a work environment. A natural experiment was conducted in an organizational setting utilizing selected items from a previously administered employee attitude survey. Post-treatment data from 81 employees who were formally empowered were compared to a similarly sized control group. Results provided limited support for the hypotheses which predicted the positive impact of empowerment. Extenuating factors, such as downsizing, corporate size, and time, may have contributed to the limited results. Alternatively, empowerment may actually have had no measurable effect. Within the constraint of the study, this issue could not be resolved.

History

The last few decades have seen many attempts by organizations to encourage employee participation. This has included such initiatives as job enrichment, quality circles, Quality of Working Life programs, Managing by Objectives, and profit sharing. Initially, in the 1950's and 1960's many of these attempts focused on treating employees from a humanitarian perspective in the belief that benefits would accrue for business (Gandz, 1990). More recently, the motivation for these developments has been organizational survival. This has resulted in the emergence of employee empowerment, which simply stated, is "getting workers to do what needs to be done rather than doing what they're told" (Darraugh, 1991, p.3). It involves delegation, individual responsibility, autonomous decision making, and feelings of self efficacy. Definitions of empowerment will be more fully presented later.

Empowerment is being espoused as a panacea for combating such threatening forces as globalization, skilled staff shortages, and the needs for more productivity and innovation (Gandz, 1990). Recent literature portrays empowerment as the corporate equivalent of the fountain of youth (Kizilos, 1990), and a business watchword of the 1990's (Catlin, 1991). Gandz

(1990) describes the 1990's as the empowerment era.

Empowerment permeates the multifaceted dimensions of organizational behavior, structure, and processes. An historical review of such pertinent constructs as power, managerial functions, leadership styles and motivation helps set the stage for an analysis of empowerment in an organizational setting.

Power

Although the construct of power (or control) has long been an integral component of organizational literature, there is still no universally accepted definition. Gibson et al. (1988) described power as the ability to get things done in the way that one wants them to be done. From a psychological perspective, power is involved every time individuals interact to influence the behavior of another (Lawless, 1979). Cobb (1984) observed that power has been interpreted by some as an inherently primitive concept of little analytical value and notes that others feel one should simply come up with his/her own definition. As a result of this obfuscation, when it comes to analysis, it is far easier to appreciate the importance of power in social relations than it is to understand the concept itself (Cobb, 1984). Yukl (1981) defined power in broad terms "as an agent's potential at a given point in time to influence the

attitudes and/or behavior of one or more specified target persons in the direction desired by the agent" (p.18).

Despite these definitional limitations there has been considerable analysis of power over the years and from this there has evolved a number of classic approaches which have provided us with a better insight into the impact of power on organizational effectiveness. French and Raven (1959), for example, developed a taxonomy of different types of power, namely reward, coercive, referent, expert, and legitimate. Reward power is dependent on a leader's ability to provide rewards to subordinates in return for their compliance. Rewards can include pay increases, special assignments, and opportunities for advancement. Coercive power involves a leader's use of fear and punishment such as official reprimands, pay cuts, suspensions, or firing. Referent power is based on a leader's influence on others because of their personal identification with the leader. This type of power is often associated with leaders possessing admirable personal characteristics, charisma, or excellent reputations (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1988). Expert power involves the leader's influence because of specialized knowledge. Expert power is usually narrow in scope as a leader's expertise is often limited to specific task areas. Legitimate power is based on a

leader's formal position in an organizational hierarchy. The higher the position, the greater the legitimate power. It was noted by Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) that, although a number of typologies or frameworks exist, the power typology by French and Raven is perhaps the most influential.

One of the more recent approaches, taken by Yukl (1981), was to create a composite of several earlier typologies, including French and Raven's. The result is a typology of eleven different forms of influence where power is considered a dynamic variable. This approach dramatically illustrates the diversity of power over subordinates. In addition to five typologies which essentially parallel those of French and Raven (1959), Yukl (1981) also included rational faith, inspirational appeal, indoctrination, information distortion, situational engineering, and decision identification.

Yukl (1981) also identified counterpower which is the subordinates' influence on leaders. This concept is particularly relevant to empowerment as it acts as a restraint on the leader's exercise of power. Another constraint which Lawless (1979) refered to as the cost of using power also serves as a limiting factor. According to Lawless, (1979 there is always a cost associated with using resources to influence another and the

more costly it is to use a resource, the less power one holds over another person. This cost is alleviated to some degree in an empowered environment where power is shared.

Jaques (1990) links decision-making power to authority and accountability. If a group is given authority to do something they must also be accountable. Jaques (1990) feels that there should be just enough authority given to discharge the accountability.

Management and leadership

There is a distinction between managing and leading which is pertinent to empowerment. In managing, the emphasis is on a rational analysis of situations, setting goals and devising strategies, organizing resources, coordinating activities, and directing and controlling employee behavior (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1988). Management is viewed by Appelbaum, Beckman, Boone, and Kurtz (1990) as the achievement of the objectives of organizations through people and other resources. Basic functions of management typically identified are planning, organizing, directing, and controlling. Narrower definitions, however, may include such functions as staffing, communicating, motivating, innovating, coordinating, and evaluating. Leadership, on the other hand, is an ability to influence, inspire, and direct individual or group actions toward

attaining desired objectives (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1988). Specific skills which successful leaders develop during their careers are empowerment, intuition, self-understanding, vision, and value congruence (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1988).

Over the years a number of approaches have been used to classify leadership (Yukl, 1981; Hellriegel and Slocum, 1988). Each approach has been dependent on the researcher's conception of leadership and methodological preferences. As will be demonstrated, the contingency/situational models of leadership are particularly relevant to the empowerment process. These types of models examine the relationship between the characteristics of a given situation and a leader's behavior. According to Hellriegel and Slocum (1988) three of the most influential contingency models are: Fiedler's (1978) contingency model (Appendix A), House's (1971) path-goal model (Appendix B), and the Vroom-Yetton (1973) decision model (Appendix C). Another well-developed model is the situational leadership theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1993).

Fiedler's model, which was the first and most prominent contingency model (Hollander & Offermann, 1990), was based on the premise that a job should be fitted to a manager rather than the manager being retrained or readjusted to different supervisory

styles (Lawless, 1979). To quote Fiedler (1978, p. 60), "the contingency model states that effectiveness of interacting groups or organizations depends, or is contingent, upon the appropriate match between leader personality attributes, reflecting his or her motivational structure, and the degree to which the leader has situational control and influence." According to Fiedler, it was easier to change almost anything in the job situation than to change a person's personality and leadership style (Lawless, 1979).

Although Fiedler's model generated a lot of interest, it was also quite controversial (Hollander and Offermann, 1990). According to Hellriegel and Slocum (1988) it had a number of limitations: The contingency variables used were complex and difficult to access. To this end, it could be subjective when measuring actual leader-member relations, task structure, and position power; it paid little attention to the characteristics of subordinates; it made assumptions about the intellectual abilities and training of leaders; and the effectiveness of the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale was questionable. Hellriegel and Slocum (1988) concluded that LPC was neither a clearly stable trait nor a clearly motivational condition.

House's path-goal contingency model (Appendix B) was based on the premise that effective leaders clarified the paths, or means, by which subordinates could attain both high job satisfaction and high performance (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1988). This could be accomplished by clearly specifying the tasks, reducing roadblocks, and increasing opportunities for task-related satisfaction. Like other situational or contingency leadership approaches, the path-goal model attempted to predict leadership effectiveness in different situations (Gibson, Ivancevich, & Donnelly, 1988). An important characteristic of this model, which contrasts with Fiedler's contingency model, was that each of the four styles of leadership could be practiced by the same leader in various situations. Fiedler's model, with its emphasis on the difficulty of altering style, offered less flexibility than the path-goal approach (Gibson et al., 1988).

An important characteristic of both Fiedler's contingency model and House's path-goal model was that participative leadership styles were not always regarded as the most effective and in fact could be ineffective under some conditions (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1988). Hellriegel and Slocum (1988) pointed out that the effectiveness of House's path-goal theory of leadership was arguable because it was still fairly new.

The third contingency model being examined is the Vroom-Yetton decision model (Vroom & Yetton, 1973)(Appendix C) which was subsequently modified by Vroom-Jago (1987) to improve accuracy and predictability (Gibson et al., 1988). The Vroom-Yetton (1973) model was a leadership and decision making model that identified situations most conducive to various degrees of employee participation. This model was similar to House's path-goal model in that it argued for flexibility in leaders' behavior to fit situations (Gibson et al., 1988). Unfortunately, it was also similar in its lack of compelling empirical evidence establishing its validity.

The situational leadership theory developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1993) was somewhat less complex than the preceding models. This model focused primarily on traits, characteristics, and behaviors of subordinates in determining which leadership style was best. This model was based on two broad categories of leader behavior: directive and supportive. Directive behavior involved any action by the leader which directed subordinates. Supportive behavior involved any action which was designed to support subordinates. Out of these two broad categories four leadership styles evolved, depending on the different maturity levels of the subordinates. These styles were high directive/low

supportive (telling), high directive/high supportive (consulting), low directive/high supportive (participating) and, low directive/low supportive (delegating). In selecting the best style, the leader took into consideration the overall competence of the subordinate(s) with respect to a particular task.

The four contingency models presented represent major theories of leadership. Clearly, in each model, participative decision making was not regarded as an applicable approach in all situations. Circumstances leading to the selection of a participative style varied among the theories. Fiedler's contingency model, with its inflexible approach to leadership adjustment to situational variables, identified situations where leaders with high control perform best. High control equates to low participation. House's path-goal contingency model with its directive, supportive, participative, and achievement leadership styles offered definite alternatives to a participative approach. Similarly, the Vroom-Jago decision model with its two variations of autocratic styles and Hersey and Blanchard's (1993) situational leadership theory, with two leadership styles involving a highly directive approach, argued that participative leadership, depending on the situation, may not always be the most appropriate.

Participatory leadership styles

Participative management was viewed by Gibson et al. (1988) as a managing concept which encouraged employees to participate in decision making and on matters affecting their jobs. Mulder (1971) described participation as the most vital organizational problem of our time.

This leadership style was not without controversy. One of the earliest studies (Coch and French, 1948) was on the effects of participation in a garment factory. The results of this particular study led to the conclusion that participation results in better performance but, as noted by Lawless (1979), in terms of productivity levels there were as many studies favoring directive as there were favoring participative leadership (e.g., Leana, 1987). McGregor (1960), who ranked among the strongest of advocates in favor of participation (Lawless, 1979), described it "not as a panacea, a manipulative device, a gimmick, or a threat. Used wisely, and with understanding, it is a natural concomitant of management by integration and self-control" (p. 131). In his classic and influential Theory X and Theory Y, McGregor (1960) viewed participation in terms of managerial actions which ranged from a strong exercise of authority with negligible participation to a relatively small exercise of

authority with maximum participation. McGregor (1960), in harmony with the Contingency theories, reiterated the position that participation was not the only logical alternative. He pointed out that the degree of suitable participation depended upon a variety of situational factors such as the problem or issue, the attitudes and past experience of the subordinates, and the manager's skill. Similarly, a more recent viewpoint (Locke, Schweiger, & Latham, 1986) considered participation as a managerial technique that was appropriate only in certain circumstances. They concluded that participation was useful sometimes and other times it was not.

Yukl (1981) summarized a number of prerequisites to effective participation. The first was that the leader must have authority to make decisions. Without this authority, a leader could not make decisions that affected his/her work area. Second, the decision could not be made under strong time pressure. For example, an emergency situation such as evacuating a burning building would not be conducive to a participatory approach. Third, subordinates had to have the necessary relevant knowledge; otherwise they would be unable to participate effectively. Fourth, the subordinates had to be willing to participate. Many factors such as liking or disliking the

leader could be influential. Fifth, the leader had to have confidence in participative techniques. Without confidence in the relevance and effectiveness of participation, a leader was less likely to involve subordinates. The last point identified by Yukl (1981) was that the leader had to be skilled in participative techniques. Without the necessary skills, the potential benefits associated with consultation, joint decision making, and delegation were not likely to be achieved.

In analyzing the participative decision-making process, one of the most exasperating issues one encounters is the diversity of forms of participation and their nebulous integration. For example, Macy, Peterson, and Norton (1989), identify six forms of participation into which most empirical studies published in U.S. journals can be classified. These were participation in work decisions, consultative participation, short-term participation, informal participation, employee ownership, and representative participation. Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, and Jennings (1988), discussed the many distinct ways that participative decision making could be defined both operationally and conceptually and questioned the effectiveness of evaluation when almost everyone who employed the term was thinking of something different. Although Macy et al. (1989) felt that

the literature on organizational theory and change was replete with intuitively reasonable descriptions of potential effects of participation, it could be argued that this labyrinth of terminology may explain the reason why few efforts have been made to test empirically participation theory.

Participative decision making was viewed by some as basic to entrepreneurial thinking and behavior (Barnes, 1987) and another factor which lead to organizational success (Turnage, 1990). The impetus towards this approach is obvious (Belasco, 1990; Bennis, 1989; Block, 1991; Kanter, 1983; Kanter, 1989; Peters, 1987; Peters & Waterman 1982; Peters & Austin, 1985). This shift towards the popularity of participative decision making, despite its controversy, brings into question the effectiveness of previous studies which may not have taken into suitable account the applicability of this management and leadership style to specific tasks. This viewpoint is further augmented by recent trends in research which question if leadership as we know it is really necessary (Stoner & Freeman, 1988). One of these trends has been a move towards self-managed groups and self-leadership which Manz and Sims (1987) perceived as being more effective than the more formal and traditional roles. If this is true, the previously described contingency theories with their

situation-oriented leadership approaches and superior/ subordinate relationships must be questioned seriously.

Employee motivation

Employee motivation was viewed by Hellriegel and Slocum (1988) as any influence that caused, channeled, and sustained people's behavior. They identified it as an extremely important managerial skill and they focused on three of the many factors which influence motivation. These factors were differences in individual characteristics, differences in job characteristics, and differences in the work environment or organizational characteristics.

The Hawthorne studies revolutionized management's approach to motivation (Appelbaum et al., 1987). Prior to this, it was felt that money was the primary means of motivating workers. As Appelbaum et al. (1987) noted, the Hawthorne findings were important because they emphasized the presence of a number of other sources of employee motivation other than money. Subsequent to this, other researchers such as Maslow (1954), with his hierarchy-of-needs model, Herzberg (1966), with his two-factor model, and McGregor (1960), with his theory X-theory Y shed more light on the complexities of motivation. This has led to a number of developments over the past few decades.

Management by objectives (MBO), which focused on employee participation in goal setting, has played an instrumental role in motivating workers (Gibson et al., 1988). In this process, management and subordinates agreed on goals which clarified to employees exactly what was expected of them. These goals were then used as an evaluation tool. Quality of working Life (QWL) also emerged as a motivational approach (Jenkins, 1981). It was viewed by Appelbaum et al. (1990, p.203) as a process where all organizational members could, through appropriate communication channels, have some say about the work environment in general and their job designs in particular.

Job enrichment and job enlargement have also evolved from the search for ways to motivate. Job enrichment, which built on Herzberg's (1966) ideas on motivation, gave workers more authority to plan their work and decide how it was to be accomplished. Job enlargement was a method of increasing the number of tasks a worker performed in order to increase the psychological rewards of the job (Appelbaum et al., 1990).

Employee motivation clearly plays an influential role in organizational effectiveness. Many of the motivational techniques utilized over the years have incorporated employee involvement in participative decision making to some degree. For

example, Levering (1988) described an observation about workers in a job enrichment program which epitomized the close link between motivation and participation. The organization under study wanted to motivate the workers by making their jobs more interesting and challenging. The workers wanted more control over their work and more participation in decisions about how the work was done, instead of being ordered from above. An interesting corollary to this link was identified by Mulder (1971) who noted that a prerequisite for participation in decision making was that members had to be motivated to participate.

Trends

Developments over the last decade have led to a trend in research on power and leadership in organizations where greater interest in the role of the follower is examined (Hollander & Offermann, 1990). As Hollander and Offermann view it, empowerment and power sharing concepts reflect the change from a leader-dominated view to a broader one of follower involvement in expanding power. The leader-dominated view, which permeates the literature on leadership, participation, and motivation, can serve as a basis for studying the impact of a shift in power to the worker. The research on participatory leadership, with its emphasis on follower involvement, can be used to interpret

empowerment which goes beyond participation.

In analyzing these trends relative to empowerment, the contingency/situational models of leadership provide particularly enlightening reference points because they all incorporate participation as one of the possible options available.

Motivation, which is integral to performance and satisfaction, continues to play a critical role in organizations. Trends such as automation, the rapid move from manufacturing to service jobs, and the increase in the number of workers who choose to start their own business rather than work for a large organization all reinforce the importance of finding better ways to motivate employees (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1988). Empowerment and its potential to motivate employees will clearly play an important role in the future.

Organizational culture, which is a system of shared values and beliefs that produce norms of behavior, is an important cause of organizational effectiveness which is also being impacted by change (Gibson et al., 1988). According to Gibson et al. (1988), there is a managerial challenge to create and maintain cultures that contribute to organizational effectiveness. They note that many management practitioners and consultants are experimenting with alternative change approaches as they move into the 1990's.

Empowerment, which is advocated as a means of improving organizational effectiveness, can have a profound impact on organizational culture.

Definitions of empowerment

One of the dilemmas of researching empowerment is the lack of a definitive meaning of the term. To Gandz (1990), empowerment means that "management vests decision-making or approval authority in employees where, traditionally, such authority was a managerial prerogative" (p.75). Hollander and Offermann (1990) view empowerment as giving power to individuals so they have the opportunity to act more freely within some realms of organizational operations, through power sharing. Lawler describes empowerment as a deepening of interest in notions that have been around the block a few times (cited in Kizilos, 1990). He goes on to note that the ideas behind empowerment aren't radically different, although there has been some evolution in some of the practices that companies use to support participative or democratic management, as it used to be called. Kizilos (1990) views empowerment as "the process of coming to feel and behave as if one has power (in the sense of autonomy or authority or control) over significant aspects of one's life or work" (p. 49). Thomas and Veldhouse (1990)

succinctly note that the term has been used, often loosely, to capture a family of somewhat related meanings which includes a variety of specific interventions and their presumed effects on workers.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) attempt to resolve this dilemma by viewing power as either a motivational or relational construct. The motivational perspective views power as an intrinsic need for self-determination. The relational perspective considers the perceived power or control that an individual or subunit has over others. They favor the motivational perspective as it encompasses enabling rather than simple delegation. They view the relational concept, which describes the perceived power or control that an individual actor or organizational subunit has over others, as too restrictive in scope to accommodate empowerment's complex nature. They argue that delegation or resource sharing is not the only set of conditions that empowers subordinates. Conger and Kanungo (1988, p. 474) define empowerment as "a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information."

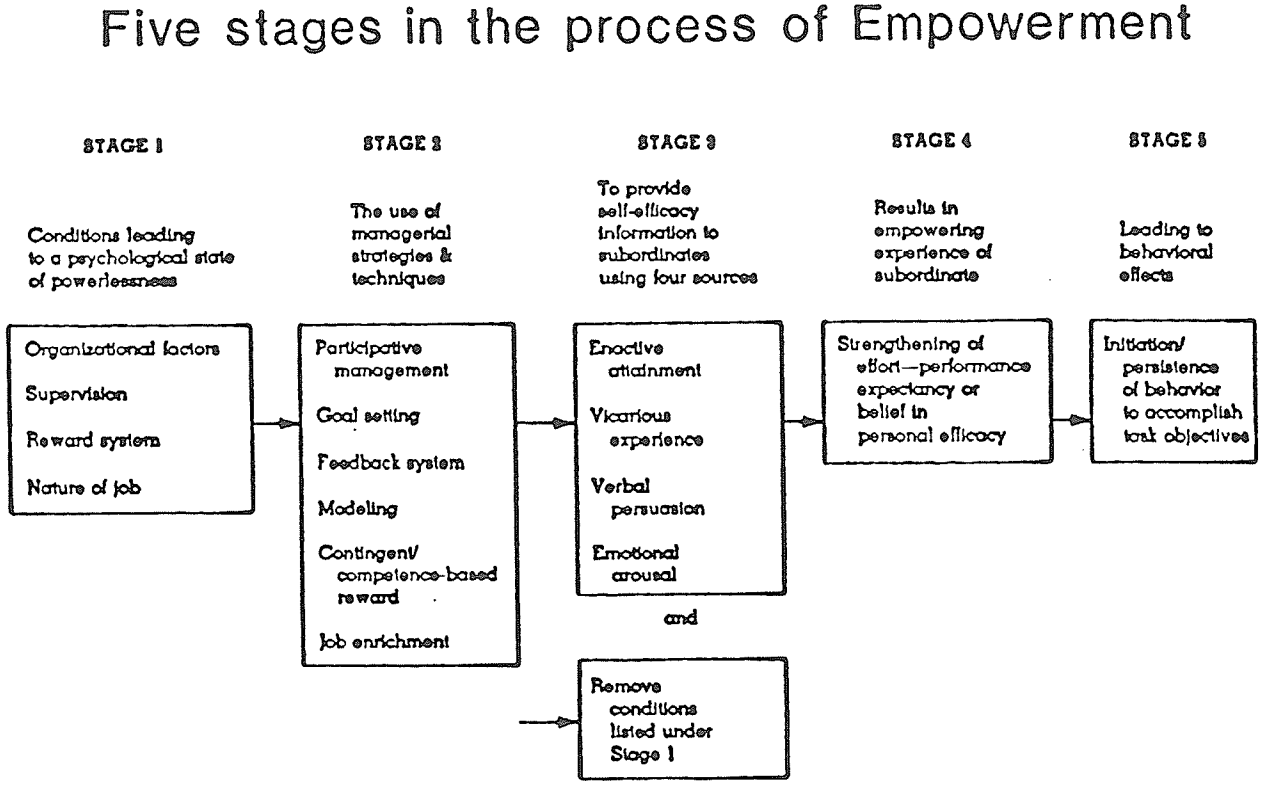
History of empowerment

Despite its current popularity, as illustrated by the proliferation of articles, testimonials, books, and training films, little empirical research has been conducted on empowerment in the workplace. As a result, our understanding of the construct of empowerment and its underlying processes remains limited (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Although empowerment is a relatively new concept in terms of organizational effectiveness, it has been widely used by other social scientists in dealing with issues of the powerlessness of such minority groups as women, blacks, and the handicapped (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). Two recent articles (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) begin to provide a theoretical basis in this area.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) attempt to integrate the theory and practice of the empowerment process. To this end, they have developed a five stage model (See figure 1 on Page 23) to describe the empowerment process.

Although the effectiveness of their model has not been tested, Conger and Kanungo feel it provides a useful framework for researchers.

Figure 1:



Source: Conger & Kanungo (1988)

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) further developed Conger and Kanungo's approach by examining the cognitive elements of empowerment and the development of an interpretive model of intrinsic task motivation. They define intrinsic task motivation as generic conditions pertaining directly to a task that produces individual motivation and satisfaction. According to Thomas and Velthouse, their model offers improvements in three major areas. First, they make the concept of empowerment as motivation more precise by defining it as intrinsic task motivation. Second, they attempt to specify a more nearly complete set of task assessments that produce this motivation. They do this by supplementing self-efficacy with additional task assessments, namely impact (performance-outcome expectancy), competence (effort-performance expectancy), meaningfulness (anticipated outcome valence), and choice (perceived decision opportunity). Finally, they attempt to capture the interpretive process through which workers arrive at task assessments. With this model, Thomas and Velthouse offer a relatively comprehensive cognitive model of intrinsic task motivation which can be used to describe the empowerment process in individuals.

Constraints on empowerment

From an historical perspective, empowerment, or power sharing as it is sometimes called, is in direct contrast to the axiomatic belief that power should remain at the higher levels of an organizational hierarchy. A direct result of this is an entrenchment against empowerment. Even advocates of empowerment have some reservations as they attempt to reconcile empowerment strategies with work force realities.

Baloff and Doherty (1989) describe three potential problem areas which constrain employee participation: (1) peer-group pressure, (2) management coercion or retribution, and (3) reentry adaptation. Peer group pressure can result in diminished cooperation and effort or, in some cases, outright obstruction of the participation process. Baloff and Doherty view managerial coercion as a manager's use of power to influence the participatory process or outcomes in a nonparticipatory manner. They consider managerial retribution as a manager's overt actions against employee participators because the manager is unhappy with the behavior or attitudes of the participators. Both managerial coercion and retribution, which may not always be visible, can result in a variety of consequences including employee resentment, disappointment in the participation process,

punishment, and feelings of guilt and compromise. Reentry adaptation refers to participants returning to their jobs upon completion of the participation activity. If the participation task was intrinsically more motivating, a return to normal activity may lead to relative dissatisfaction and demotivation.

Kizilos (1990) also identifies a major constraint. Many managers who have plotted, sweated, and sacrificed for years to acquire power and authority may be somewhat reluctant to give it up. He also points out that empowerment sounds really good if you are out of power and ambiguous and perhaps unattractive if you are in power. Kizilos (1990, p.56) sardonically notes:

> How lovely 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 the 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 very 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 power.

Another potential constraint in the empowerment process is the lack of a shared vision which, as expressed by its proponents, is an essential ingredient. Block (1991) describes the creation of a vision, which expresses values and what one hopes to contribute, as the first step towards empowerment. Belasco (1990) notes that an empowering vision clearly spells out what you want and provides inspiration for people to produce it. He stresses the importance of not only having a vision but empowering people to use it. Kanter (1983) pointed out the need for specificity. Based on the assessment of a particular corporation's strengths and traditions the concepts and visions driving change must be both inspiring and realistic. From an organizational perspective, Peters (1987) believed that an effective vision in the marketplace would emphasize the creation of enduring capability that would in turn allow the organization to execute the strategy. In his analysis, Peters included empowerment of people as a criterion for effective visions.

Despite its current popularity, it is evident that there are a plethora of constraints surrounding the empowerment process. This situation is aggravated by the lack of empirical evidence supporting its effectiveness.

Empowerment's impact on power

Traditionally, power has had a leader-dominated focus. Empowerment and power sharing show a shift in this focus to a broader view of follower involvement as power expands (Hollander and Offermann, 1990). In other words, power of position is giving way to power of the person (Kanter, 1989). A formal title and its placement on an organizational chart does not necessarily reflect the degree of power held by the incumbent. Hollander and Offermann (1990) point out the erroneous but pervasive belief that to empower others is to lose power oneself. This contrasts with findings such as those of Tannenbaum (1968) who found that power in organizations is not finite but can expand. These findings were supported by Kanter (1979) who noted that, when a leader empowers others, the leader does not decrease his/her power but instead may increase it - especially if the whole organization performs better. Block (1991) reiterates this view and observes that as managers become more powerful they nurture the power of those below them. When considered from the perspective of effectiveness, Conger and Konunga (1988) conclude that when superiors share power and responsibility there is an increase in the more productive forms of organizational power.

The contingency theories are oriented to the leader-dominated view. Fiedler's contingency theory discussed power in terms of situational control and influence and position power of the leader. Fiedler (1978) discerned that high degrees of control and influence implied that leaders would have correspondingly high certainty that their decisions and actions would have predictable results, and that the leader's desired goals would be achieved and the leader's needs gratified in the situation. Fiedler's leader-dominated viewpoint was also demonstrated when he commented on training programs which deliberately or unwittingly decreased leader control and influence. His solution was to develop a training program to teach leaders to change the situation to fit their personalities instead of changing their behavior or personalities to fit the situation. This position flies in the face of empowerment where power is delegated to subordinates.

House's (1971,1979) path-goal model with its premise that there are situations where an authoritarian style, with its leader-dominated perspective, was more appropriate differs from an empowered environment. This theory was designated "path-goal" because of its focus on how leaders influence follower's perception of work, goals, self-development goals, and their

paths to goal attainment (Gibson et al., 1988). In certain situations, the path-goal model assumes that a directive approach is required to influence subordinate attitudes about job satisfaction, acceptance of the leader, and expectations about effort-performance-reward relationships (Gibson et al., 1988). In an empowered environment, which is less dependent upon situational dependency for leadership styles, it is assumed that a directive approach is not a prerequisite. Rather, leaders share power with subordinates and this approach influences attitudes about job satisfaction, leader acceptance, and expectations.

The Vroom-Jago (1987) contingency model is also challenged by the concept of empowerment. The authoritarian style where managers retain their power and solve problems or make decisions by themselves contrasts sharply with an empowered approach where power is shared. In an empowered environment the employees are delegated with the power to solve problems and make decisions with limited management intervention.

A similar phenomenon is observed with the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993) which has a directive category of leadership behavior.

Clearly, the proponents of empowerment have a positive outlook on its impact on power. When considered in the context

of a comment by Hellriegal and Slocum (1988) about managers needing power to influence subordinates, it becomes imperative that the degree of empowerment required for an effective organization be confirmed by systematic empirical analysis which integrates variables such as power and leadership. Empowerment can permeate many facets of an organization. This was noted by Mulder (1971) who felt that there would be a change in leadership functions when the less powerful participated in leadership functions. This would lead to the development of new structures for leadership, decision making, and communications. When trying to extricate the relevance of power, researchers would be well advised to note that, according to Hollander and Offermann (1990), assumptions about power are often unstated and untested. Also, they add, that those having the most power and influence in organizations are typically the most able to shield themselves from study.

Empowerment's impact on management and leadership

When subordinates become empowered they, to a large degree, become their own managers and their managers have to adapt to a new environment. This can have profound implications for managers for, in addition to coping with a perceived threat of loss of power, influence, and, ultimately, importance (Manz,

Keating & Donnellon, 1990), they also have to deal with the replacement of their partially obsolete managerial skills. As Kanter (1989) explains, participatory standards can easily make executives feel vulnerable and exposed even though they like to look as though everything is fully under control. Gandz (1990) observes that managers who prefer to work by organizing, directing, and controlling others will have little opportunity for advancement in empowered organizations. Managers and those selected for management advancement will need to be high on dimensions of caring, concern for the development of others, communicating and listening skills, and team leadership skills. Sherwood (1988) sees a shift in the role of management to one of supporting the culture rather than controlling the work force.

From a leadership perspective it is worth recalling that Hellriegel and Slocum (1988) included empowerment (i.e., the leader's sharing of power with subordinates) and vision as two of five skills developed by successful leaders. Vision is integral to the concept of empowerment, and is frequently cited as an essential element of effective leadership, at least by the non-empirical writers on the subject (Belasco, 1990; Bennis and Nannus, 1985; Bennis,1989; Block,1991; & Kanter, 1983).

Leadership was previously described in terms of contingency models. The contingency theory model developed by Fiedler, which indicated that successful leadership depended on matching a leader's style to situational demands, was criticized because of its limitations. Further limitations are also apparent when this leadership model is analyzed in terms of empowerment. Although Fiedler recommended that a leader reduce his/her position power in certain situations, one of the premises of the model was that in the most favorable situation, a leader's position power was high. With empowerment one can reasonably argue that a leader's position power would be weak, in view of the fact that it is shared with employees. It can also be reasonably argued that empowerment, where power is shared by subordinates that have the same vision as the leader, can achieve results similar to those of a strong leader.

House's (1971) path-goal contingency model which called for an authoritarian style of leadership in certain situations is also challenged by empowerment. Advocates of empowerment dismiss this style in favor of a participatory approach. This is exemplified by Bailey (1988) who identified the problem with excessive autocracy which breeds mediocrity down, in, and through the corporation. He felt the more participatory you are, the

more people have a chance to be full and aggressive team members. The Vroom-Jago (1987) contingency model (with its continuum of leadership styles, which included an authoritarian approach), and the situational leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993)(which incorporated highly directive styles) are similarly challenged.

An important parameter identified by all four contingency/ situational models previously discussed concerns the feasibility of empowerment in specific situations. All four models identify the fact that, although participative leadership styles are condoned, they are not always, depending on the situation, the most effective alternative. Empowerment, with its emphasis on participatory leadership, clearly leans towards an alternative to pure authoritarian management and leadership styles.

Empowerment's impact on motivation and job satisfaction

Empowerment is conducive to motivation in the appropriate organizational setting. Hellriegel and Slocum (1988) note that leaders who spend time with subordinates can unlock motivation, which serves the purposes of the group in pursuing shared objectives. Empowerment may also be useful in motivating subordinates to persist despite difficult organizational/

environmental obstacles (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). In examining when participation works best, Locke et al. (1986) concluded that motivational mechanisms were important. These mechanisms included trust, greater work control, more ego involvement in the job, increased organizational identification, increased group support (when there is group participation) and, most importantly, a setting of higher goals and/or increased goal acceptance.

In examining motivation, it is important to bear in mind that, while it is quite possible for people to be very satisfied with their jobs, they may not be particularly motivated to perform them well (Lawler, 1986). More research is needed to determine the linkage between job satisfaction and participation. Cotton et al. (1988) pointed out inconsistent results. Out of six studies, although four showed improvements in satisfaction, only two of the four were statistically significant.

While motivation focuses on empowerment (Kotter, 1990) there are noted differences in the ways that the contingency/ situational models approach this important parameter. Fiedler's (1978) model did not take the motivation of subordinates into account; however, it did measure the leader's motivational

structure in determining the least preferred co-worker. House's (1971) path-goal model was based, in part, on the proposition that an individual's motivation depended on his or her expectations of reward and the valence, or attractiveness, of the reward (Stoner & Freeman, 1988). According to House and Mitchell (1979), the behavior of a leader was motivational to some degree because it made satisfaction of subordinates' needs contingent on effective performance, and it helped provide subordinates with the guidance, clarity of direction, and rewards necessary for effective performance. The Vroom-Jago contingency model did not address motivation or job satisfaction directly but the implication was that selecting the correct leadership style would positively influence both these variables. The situational leadership theory takes into consideration the motivation of workers when determining the best style to use.

Clearly, in terms of motivation and job satisfaction, all four contingency/ situational models contrast, in at least one important dimension, with empowerment. Each model includes an authoritarian/directive alternative approach to participative decision making whereas empowerment provides more participatory alternatives.

Empowerment's impact on work group culture

Culture has been viewed simply as the sum total of all the standard ways individuals are supposed to act and actually do (Belasco, 1990). In describing an empowered work culture, Gandz (1990) outlines six essential conditions: (1) employees must be properly trained, (2) there needs to be a shared vision, (3) a set of shared values is needed, (4) benefits need to be shared, (5) managers need faith in employees, and (6) the overall culture of the organization must support risk taking. Sherwood (1988), in his analysis of work cultures, included empowered people as one of the five defining characteristics of a high-performance, high-commitment work culture in its most developed form.

For empowerment to work effectively in an organization, many authors emphasize the need for a culture which incorporates a vision (Belasco, 1990; Block, 1991; Kanter, 1983; McKenna, 1990; Plunkett & Fournier, 1991; Smith, 1989). This vision should identify a preferred future, a state which is desirable or ideal (Block, 1991). It should also spell out clearly what you want and inspire people to produce it (Belasco,1990). Sherwood (1988) believes that the vision of an organization should provide energy and direction. He compares it to a beacon which aligns everyone toward a common purpose and empowers individual employees and

also forms the basis of a planned culture. It is important to note that Sherwood (1988) sees the role of management shifting to supporting the culture rather than controlling the work force, and the major responsibilities of leaders to be primary keepers of the vision, managers of the environment, and ones who anticipate and manage the future. Stodghill (1992, p.55) captures the essence of empowerment's impact on culture when he quotes Robert A. Lutz, the president of Chrysler Corporation. Lutz describes the actions of their top manufacturing executive, Dennis Pawley, as "fundamentally changing our manufacturing culture by empowering the people to do what they know they can do."

This approach conforms to the new organizational structure envisioned by Drucker (1988) who sees typical large organizations twenty years from now having fewer than half the levels of management of its counterparts today, and no more than a third the managers. Drucker goes on to describe a fast moving fundamental shift in the center of gravity in employment from manual and clerical workers to knowledge specialists who will resist the command-and-control model that was taken from the military one hundred years ago. Drucker (1988) feels we are shifting to information-based organizations.

A direct consequence of this shift is a change in career paths (Kanter, 1989), which traditionally consisted of a slow climb up the corporate ladder. With a flattening of hierarchies and restructuring, managers will remain as professionals much longer in their careers. Empowerment will help satisfy the needs of employees who no longer have the opportunities for career advancement. An example of this is described by Harker (1991) who sees an environment with a flat and dynamic organizational structure that works on a horizontal axis, more like professionals in a hospital where doctors are self-managed work units. The move away from an organizational hierarchy to a flatter, more responsive organization is well under way (Vice, 1989) and will have a dramatic effect on organizational culture. One of the challenges identified by Harker (1991) is the striking of a balance between the degree of local empowerment, which is needed to survive, and corporate constraints, which are needed to be profitable. Another balance is also required between authority and accountability. Jaques (1990) views group authority without group accountability as dysfunctional.

An empowered workplace culture, with its emphasis on participative decision making, clearly contrasts with cultures which would be found in organizations utilizing the

authoritative approaches advocated in the contingency/situational models.

Does empowerment in the workplace really work?

Although empowerment has been discussed by several management scholars, it has been concluded by Conger and Kanungo (1988) that little empirical research has been performed in this area. This dearth of objective research into empowerment in the workplace has profound implications for both psychology and management. Testimonials advocating an empowerment approach without empirical validation and a detailed understanding of the complexities involved may readily lead to management practices that generate negative effects such as overconfidence and misjudgments. On the other hand, they argue that lack of awareness of constraints surrounding the empowerment process can also lead to failure and abandonment of a vital form of influence which leaders may use when inducing and managing organizational change.

Purpose of the research

The purpose of this research is to expand our knowledge of the empowerment process and to examine empirically its impact in an organizational setting. A basic premise is that the environment of empowered employees differs significantly from

that of employees who are not empowered. Areas where major differences are anticipated are power, management/leadership styles, and motivation. Culture, and a number of other variables common to work place settings will also be positively impacted by empowerment.

HYPOTHESES

1. Employees at both managerial and non-managerial levels in an empowered environment will view their situation more favorably than the control group (whose employees are in a contingency style environment with situational potential for authoritarian leadership) in terms of power, management/leadership styles, and motivation.
2. Non-managerial employees in the empowered group will report significantly more positive attitudes than those in the non-empowered group in the following areas: supervision, work group climate, work management, work group productivity/quality, resources, work group organization and commitment, job duties, rewards, corporate values, management style, communication, overall job satisfaction and authority.

   In terms of authority, it is anticipated that the empowered non-management group will report that they

understand the lines of authority better, have sufficient authority to do their job responsibilities, and understand the boundaries of their authority better than the control group.

3. The empowered group will describe the company's culture as more empowering than will the control group.

Limitations

It was not possible in this project to measure empirically the extent or effectiveness of the manipulation, which was employee empowerment, independently of the measurement of employee attitudes which are the subject of these hypotheses. The changes in job attitudes that are measured are interpreted as the consequences of the manipulation.

The study had no capacity to specify different situations to differentially assess the impact of empowerment. That is, situations that the contingency model might view as calling for an authoritarian/directive approach could not be distinguished from other situations in the data.

Method

Subjects

Two hundred and thirty-seven employees of a major Canadian life insurance company were asked to serve as voluntary

participants. From this original group, one hundred and seventy-seven replies (i.e., 75%) were returned. Six of the replies were omitted from the study as the respondents did not complete the page outlining their characteristics. Out of the remaining one hundred and seventy one participants, eighty-one were in the experimental group, and ninety were in the control group.

The sample was stratified into two levels - managerial and non-managerial - with 40 employees in managerial ranked positions (i.e., managerial/supervisory), and 129 in other than management positions (i.e., technical, clerical, and secretarial). Two participants did not indicate their positions. Participants were further classified by sex, age, length of service, employment status, division within the corporate organizational structure, and occupational rank of each employee as defined by a formal job grading system.

The researcher was not able to randomly allocate participants into the empowered or comparison group. Employees who were formally empowered were automatically classified as such when a corporate decision was made by upper management to implement empowerment in one area of the company. In March, 1992 middle management of the empowered group were introduced to the

concept of empowerment at a meeting called by the vice-president of the area. This was followed by meetings with the non-managerial employees. At these meetings, the vice-president, supported by other upper management, discussed the concept of empowerment, espoused his support, and showed a film which demonstrated how empowerment worked. The experimental group was established by recruiting volunteers from this formally empowered area.

Although the study did not have a control for a "Hawthorne" effect, it was felt that this phenomenon would be offset to some degree by the length of time empowerment was in effect before its effects were assessed in February, 1993.

The comparison group was established by recruiting 90 volunteer employees from another division where empowerment had not been formally adopted. The control group was located in another building and had limited interaction with the experimental group. The absence of physical proximity between the two groups helped to alleviate problems of transference. The control group was selected through the auspices of the Human Resources department and was chosen because the work was similar to the type of work performed by the formally empowered group.

The baseline data for this study were derived from the responses of all staff in the experimental (empowered) and

control areas who had completed an anonymous in-house employee opinion questionnaire administered by the company in 1989. The mean responses to that survey were compared to the mean responses of the present survey. Further, responses to the present survey were compared between those who reported having completed and not having completed the 1989 questionnaire. This approach was used to help assess the extent of sampling bias in the selection process for both the experimental and control groups. Comparisons were also made using available demographic variables, and some major attitude scales from the 1989 baseline data. Although the 1989 survey was completed anonymously, it was possible to distinguish the average responses for the recently empowered group and those of the control group.

One of the disadvantages of conducting research outside of controlled laboratory conditions is the increased potential for the presence of confounding variables which can dramatically influence results. When interpreting these data it is necessary to keep in mind that in the organization where this research on empowerment was conducted, there were influential factors in process. Between the time the experimental group was formally empowered and the follow-up questionnaires were completed a dramatic and unprecedented organizational change took place.

Consultants were brought in and, with their assistance, the organization underwent the initial stages of a major restructuring and resizing process. A direct result of this was the release of some 215 staff members in November 1992, (out of a total of 2100 employees) and there were strong indications that more layoffs were pending. This event, accompanied by persistent rumors and uncertainties among the staff, who feared layoffs, created an environment which placed constraints on the empowerment process.

Procedure

A questionnaire [Appendix D] consisting of 77 questions was used. Seventy-two of the questions were selected from 161 in a 1989 Employee Attitude Survey conducted anonymously at the life insurance company by the Life Management Institute. Those questions not relevant to empowerment were discarded. An additional 5 questions were selected out of 184 questions from a 1989 LOMA (Life Office Management Association) survey which was administered across North America to ninety life and health insurance companies. Questions selected fall into one of the following categories which were established in the previous surveys: supervision, work group climate, work management, work productivity/quality, resources, authority, work

group/organizational commitment, job duties, company image, rewards, corporate values, management style, communication, and overall job satisfaction. Questions selected from each of the above categories were reclassified, based on their content, into one of the following aggregate scales: power, management/ leadership, and motivation. The aggregate scales in the 1993 data were them subjected to tests of reliability using coefficient alpha.

Although a five point Likert-type scale would have been preferable, a four point scale, which was used in the 1989 survey, was used to record responses. This allowed direct comparison to baseline data.

The questionnaires were delivered to the respective areas for distribution to individual participants. To maintain anonymity and confidentiality, each questionnaire was enclosed in an unmarked envelope and returned to the experimenter through the company's internal mail distribution system. All individual responses were kept anonymous and confidential. Covering memos [Appendix D] from the Human Resources department, which authorized the study, and from the experimenter, which explained to participants that they had the right to refuse, and would receive a short feedback sheet, were attached to the front of each questionnaire.

Analysis

Questions which were worded negatively had their scoring reversed, such that for all questions in the resulting data set, a score of "4" represents a positive attitude and a score of "1", a negative attitude. A score of "0" represents missing data or "no opinion". Items coded as missing were excluded from the analysis.

Average item scores were tabulated individually as a descriptive display, comparing the 1993 responses of the experimental group to the control group, and to the 1989 item averages of the experimental and control groups.

As described above, items were grouped under the constructs that they represent: power, management/leadership, and motivation. For each construct, all non-missing question scores were averaged together to provide an appropriate score. The first hypothesis was tested by comparing the empowered versus the control group's mean score for the three constructs in question. Each of these comparisons took into consideration the corresponding baseline differences. These comparisons were evaluated for statistical significance by t-tests. Since individual responses in the anonymous 1989 survey could not be matched to individual responses in the current survey, a repeated

measures approach to analysis was not feasible.

The second and third hypotheses were evaluated in a similar manner, but the latter used responses to an individual questionnaire item.

Because this study involved the repeated use of univariate tests on the same body of data, some adjustment to the overall alpha level was necessary. Therefore, alpha = .01 was selected as the criterion of significance. Although this more stringent criteria of significance was selected, for comparative purposes alpha levels of .05 are also reported.

Results

The data from the 1989 RSVP Survey and the 1993 Questionnaire were subjected to a variety of analyses in order to assess the impact of empowerment in the workplace. The characteristics of the respondents were first scrutinized as shown in Table 1 on Pages 50 and 51.

Although there was nominal variation of characteristics among the groups, the most dramatic differences were observed when comparing 1989 and 1993 demographics for length of service

Table 1

Characteristics of the Respondents

Characteristics	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
Length of Service				
Less than 1 year	13.7%	12.4%	2.5%	1.1%
1 to less than 5 years	29.8	39.8	25.9	28.9
5 to less than 10 years	24.2	18.0	24.7	32.2
10 to less than 20 years	21.8	21.1	37.0	28.9
20 or more years	8.9	8.1	9.9	8.9
Not reported	1.6	0.6	0.0	0.0
Job Grade				
1 to 4	27.9	30.8	16.5	38.9
5 to 8	52.5	40.9	62.0	44.4
9 and 10	6.6	12.6	12.7	11.1
11 or over	13.1	15.7	8.9	5.6
Age				
Under 25 years	26.6	23.6	12.3	17.8
25 to 39 years	27.4	32.3	24.7	26.7
30 to 39 years	29.0	23.0	46.9	35.6
40 to 49 years	11.3	17.4	13.6	13.3
50 years or over	4.0	3.1	2.5	6.7
Not specified	1.6	0.6	0.0	0.0

(table 1 continues)

(Table 1 continued)

Characteristics of the Respondents

Characteristics	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
Employment status				
Full time/Reg. Part Time	90.3%	94.4%	98.8%	96.7%
Temporary/Casual	2.4	1.9	1.2	3.3
Not reported	7.3	3.7	0.0	0.0
Completed 1989 RSVP				
Yes	n/a	n/a	76.5	77.8
No	n/a	n/a	16.0	15.6
Can't remember	n/a	n/a	7.4	6.7
Sex				
Male	n/a	n/a	7.5	10.2
Female	n/a	n/a	92.5	89.8
Position				
Managerial	n/a	n/a	26.6	21.1
Non-managerial	n/a	n/a	73.4	78.9
Length in Department				
Less than 4 months	n/a	n/a	6.2	3.3
4 months or more	n/a	n/a	93.8	96.7

and age. The 1989 baseline experimental and baseline control groups had 13.7% and 12.4% of respondents respectively with a length of service under one year. By 1993, the participants with less than one year of service in the follow-up experimental and follow-up control groups had decreased to 2.5% and 1.1% respectively. Age characteristics also changed dramatically when comparing 1989 to 1993. In the experimental group, the percentage of employees aged 30 to 39, increased from 29.0% to 46.9% and in the control group the same age range increased from 23.0% to 35.6%. Both characteristics identify a maturing work force.

Table 2 (See pages 53 to 55) shows the mean responses and standard deviations for all four groups to aggregate scales by category. It also utilizes t-tests to compare the two 1993 groups. Two scales were used in this analysis. The first scale, designed by the experimenter, amalgamates specific questions to analyze power, management/leadership, and motivation. This scale was subjected to tests of reliability and coefficient alpha scores of .830, .874 and .914 , respectively, were attained. The second scale, which was designed by LOMA, categorizes questions into a number of previously identified variables. Footnotes identify specific questions used to construct the various aggregate scales.

Table 2

Mean Response to Aggregate Scales by Category by Year

Scales	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up		1993
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)	Between Groups t
	Scales used in this analysis				
Power	2.65(0.52)	2.65(0.50)	2.78(0.45)	2.79(0.38)	-0.156
Management/Leadership	2.39(0.46)	2.40(0.48)	2.51(0.42)	2.47(0.36)	0.665
Motivation	2.72(0.46)	2.73(0.42)	2.96(0.41)	2.90(0.41)	0.956
	Scales used by LOMA				
Supervision	2.89(0.70)	2.75(0.87)	2.91(0.73)	2.97(0.74)	-0.533
Work Group Climate	2.84(0.69)	2.74(0.79)	2.97(0.48)	2.96(0.55)	0.127
Work Management	2.50(0.74)	2.54(0.67)	2.80(0.54)	2.84(0.58)	-0.467
Work Group Productivity	2.76(0.70)	2.63(0.66)	3.16(0.51)	3.11(0.52)	0.634
Resources	2.58(1.00)	2.51(1.07)	3.09(0.81)	3.00(0.83)	0.717
Authority	2.86(0.76)	2.94(0.71)	2.98(0.61)	3.09(0.50)	-1.281
Work Group/Org. Commitment	2.69(0.64)	2.69(0.65)	3.10(0.75)	3.02(0.59)	0.769
Job Duties	2.63(0.61)	2.74(0.53)	2.94(0.49)	2.82(0.57)	1.480
Company Image	3.36(0.63)	3.38(0.72)	3.10(0.89)	3.03(0.98)	0.489
Rewards	2.60(0.84)	2.67(0.86)	2.66(0.64)	2.55(0.78)	1.012

(table 2 continues)

(Table 2 continued)

Mean Response to Aggregate Scales by Category by Year

Scales	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up		1993
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)	Between Groups t
Scales used by LOMA					
Corporate Values	2.80(0.73)	2.79(0.71)	2.57(0.78)	2.41(0.89)	1.253
Management Style	2.33(0.58)	2.41(0.59)	2.46(0.49)	2.39(0.50)	0.924
Communication	2.30(0.67)	2.36(0.64)	2.52(0.59)	2.48(0.50)	0.476
Overall Satisfaction	2.86(0.85)	2.99(0.75)	3.01(0.68)	2.93(0.70)	0.758
Overall Scores	2.64(0.44)	2.64(0.43)	2.82(0.42)	2.77(0.37)	0.822

Note. Standard deviation shown in brackets.

Note. Aggregate scales derived from consolidation of questions as follows:

Power: 2,4,5,17,24,26,27,35,40,46,56,57,58,60,61,62,65,69,70,71,74, and 76.

Management/Leadership: 1,2,3,4,5,6,24,25,26,27,51,52,53,54,55,56,57,58,59, 60,61,62,63,64,65,66,67,68,69,70,71,77, and 78.

Motivation: 7,8,9,10,11,12,13,14,15,16,17,19,20,21,22,23,28,29,30,31,32,33,34, 35,36,37,38,39,40,42,43,47,48,49,50,72,73, and 75.

Supervision: 1 to 6, Work Group Climate: 7-12, Work Management: 13-18, Work Group Productivity: 19-23, Resources: 24, Authority: 25-27, Work Group/ Organizational Commitment: 28-32, Job Duties: 33-44, Company Image: 45,

(table 2 continues)

(Table 2 continued)

Mean Response to Aggregate Scales by Category by Year

Rewards: 46-49, Corporate Values: 50-53, Management Style: 54-63, Communication: 64-70, Overall Satisfaction: 71-72, Overall Scores: 1-72.

Note. Scale for each question ranges from 4 for Very Good,Very Satisfied,Strongly Agree to 0 for Very Poor or No Opinion.

When comparing the 1993 follow-up experimental and control groups' responses to the aggregate scales utilizing t-tests no significant differences were found.

Comparisons utilizing t-tests were also made between the 1989 baseline experimental and control groups. Both aggregate scales and individual questionnaire items were scrutinized and no significant differences were detected at the .01 significance level. This suggests that the two groups were substantially equivalent at baseline.

A series of models were run using logistic regression to find a model that fit best. The first model (Table 3) included variables representing power, management/leadership and, motivation which were used as predictors of experimental group membership. For this equation, $X^2(148)$ for the -2 log likelihood ratio = 215.73, which was significant ($p<.001$), the model did not fit.

Three demographic variables (i.e., length of service, gender, and position in the organization) were added to the above equation (Table 3, Step 2). Although adjusting for these variables improved the overall fit of the model, $X^2(154)$ for the

-2 log likelihood ratio = 206.96, $p<.001$) a good fit was still not attained.

Three additional models were run for each of the main variables (i.e., motivation, management/leadership, and power) and in each case, although the likelihood-ratio goodness-of-fit test was nonsignificant (indicating that the models fit), it was found that none of the predictors (Table 4) made any significant individual contribution (motivation $X^2(37)$ for the -2 log likelihood ratio = 68.12, $p>.001$; management/leadership $X^2(51)$ for the -2 log likelihood ratio = 62.89, $p>.001$ and, power $X^2(37)$ for the -2 log likelihood ratio = 47.09, $p>.001$). See Table 3 on Pages 58 and 59 and Table 4 on Page 60.

Table 5 on Pages 63 to 73 presents mean responses and standard deviations for each response to 77 individual questions for all four groups involved in the study. The maximum score for each question based on positive responses was set at 4. Minimum responses were set at 1. No responses or no opinion scores were set at 0. Responses to the last 5 questions, which were selected from the 1989 LOMA (Life Office Management Association) survey, were only available from the 1993 follow-up experimental and control groups.

Table 5 also shows levels of significance at alpha = .001, .01, and .05 levels (asterisks) when using t-tests to compare the

Table 3

Logistic Regression for the First Hypothesis, Predicting Group Membership

Variable	Beta Coefficient	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Prob.
Step 1				
Intercept	-1.01	1.20	0.70	0.40
Power	-2.21	1.20	3.39	0.07
Management/Leadership	0.06	0.03	2.60	0.10
Motivation	0.86	0.64	1.85	0.17
Step 2				
Intercept	-1.65	2.09	0.62	0.43
Power	-2.67	1.24	4.66	0.03
Management/Leadership	0.65	0.35	3.49	0.06
Motivation	1.04	0.66	2.49	0.11
Length of Service	0.15	0.18	0.01	0.93
Sex	0.60	0.63	0.91	0.34
Position in the organization	-0.38	0.44	0.76	0.38

(Table 3 continues)

(Table 3 continued)

Logistic Regression for the First Hypothesis, Predicting Group Membership

Variable	Beta Coefficient	Standard Error	Chi-Square	Prob.
Step 3				
Intercept	-1.10	1.14	0.93	0.34
Motivation	0.35	0.39	0.82	0.36
Step 4				
Intercept	-0.63	1.01	0.39	0.53
Management/Leadership	0.01	0.01	0.26	0.61
Step 5				
Intercept	-0.03	1.06	0.00	0.97
Power	-0.02	0.38	0.01	0.94

Table 4

Mean Values of the First Hypothesis Variables in the Experimental and Control Group, 1993

Variable	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
Power	2.78(0.45)	2.79(0.38)
Management/Leadership	2.51(0.42)	2.47(0.36)
Motivation	2.96(0.41)	2.90(0.41)

Note. Standard deviation shown in brackets.

1993 follow-up experimental and control groups. At alpha = .001, when asked about the communication between their work group and other work groups (Question 65), the control group indicated they had better communication. Three questions showed significant effects at the alpha = .01 level. The 1993 follow-up experimental group responded more positively than the control group regarding their work (Question 34), the rewards of their job in terms other than money (Question 44), and described their work culture as more empowering (Question 75).

There were 8 responses which had significance at the .05 level. When asked if they would regret leaving their work group (Question 31) or if their job was important (Question 40), the 1993 follow-up experimental group indicated they would have more regret and felt their jobs were more important than the control group. Similarly, they also expressed more personal satisfaction with doing a good job (Question 47) and felt that new approaches for productivity were tried in their group (Question 62). The 1993 follow-up experimental group also felt they received sufficient notice of changes affecting their work (Question 70) and were more positive than the control group when responding to relying on the grapevine to get job-related information (Question 69). The control group was more positive than the experimental

group in their responses to knowing what was expected of them on their job (Question 36) and felt more presence of a lot of unnecessary rules and regulations (Question 60).

Another measure using t-tests was conducted to compare the 1989 baseline control group to the 1993 follow-up control group (See Table 6 on pages 74 and 75). A number of differences were noted. At a .001 level of significance, on the positive side, there was a definite improvement from 1989 to 1993 in motivation, work management, work group productivity, resources and, work group/organizational commitment. Two areas where negative responses were reported were company image and corporate values.

At a .05 level of significance, four differences from 1989 to 1993 were observed. Power increased along with supervision, work group climate, and overall scores.

Table 5.

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Text	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
1. Overall, how good a job is being done by your supervisor?	2.93(0.82)	2.80(0.97)	2.91(0.78)	3.03(0.87
2. How good is the working relationship between you and your supervisor?	3.09(0.85)	3.01(0.92)	3.21(0.70)	3.18(0.80
3. How good is your supervisor's understanding of the technical nature of your job?	2.81(1.01)	2.92(1.10)	2.90(0.97)	3.03(0.93)
4. How good is your supervisor's ability to manage your work?	3.05(0.78)	2.78(1.01)	2.69(0.97)	2.90(0.85)
5. How good is your supervisor's ability to manage people?	2.75(0.95)	2.45(1.14)	2.80(1.04)	2.78(0.97)
6. How good is your supervisor's ability to clearly communicate work group goals and objectives?	2.68(0.97)	2.57(1.08)	3.01(0.84)	2.87(0.93)
7. Most of the employees in my work group cooperate.	3.11(0.77)	3.07(0.80)	3.12(0.51)	3.16(0.56)
8. Most of the employees in my work group trust each other.	2.79(0.97)	2.61(1.06)	2.72(0.90)	2.89(0.74)

(table 5 continues)

(Table 5 continued)

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Text	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
9. Most of the employees in my work group get along well with each other.	2.81(1.03)	2.74(1.09)	3.12(0.43)	2.98(0.62)
10. Most of the employees in my work group do their fair share of the work.	2.52(1.14)	2.58(1.20)	2.75(0.83)	2.89(0.77)
11. Most of the employees in my work group repect each other.	2.75(0.91)	2.58(1.09)	3.02(0.57)	2.81(0.86)
12. Most of the employees in my work group are willing to share ideas and information.	2.94(0.94)	2.83(1.06)	3.05(0.72)	3.01(0.78)
13. In my work group, work group goals and objectives are clearly stated.	2.64(1.08)	2.73(0.97)	3.05(0.79)	2.94(0.79)
14. In my work group, the workload is distributed fairly.	2.17(1.23)	2.27(1.22)	2.72(0.84)	2.88(0.80)
15. In my work group, work group members understand each others roles.	2.43(1.13)	2.45(1.13)	2.83(0.82)	2.82(0.85)
16. In my work group, problems are handled promptly.	2.58(1.11)	2.40(1.11)	2.74(0.86)	2.80(0.84)

(table 5 continues)

(Table 5 continued)

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Text	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
17. In my work group, schedules and time limits are clearly stated.	2.87(1.00)	2.84(0.95)	3.17(0.67)	3.16(0.67)
18. In my work group, the workload is too heavy.	2.33(1.41)	2.53(1.42)	2.31(1.07)	2.42(1.02)
19. Most of the time my work group cuts unnecessary costs whenever possible.	2.70(1.01)	2.39(1.05)	2.95(0.89)	2.91(0.94)
20. Most of the time my workgroup is run efficiently.	2.73(0.97)	2.46(1.07)	3.11(0.72)	3.10(0.63)
21. Most of the time my workgroup tries new ways to improve productivity.	2.84(1.06)	2.68(1.01)	3.31(0.61)	3.12(0.80)
22. Most of the time my work group produces high quality work.	3.01(0.90)	3.06(0.81)	3.41(0.52)	3.37(0.59)
23. Most of the time my work group emphasizes quality more than quantity.	2.52(1.15)	2.56(1.13)	3.01(0.90)	3.03(0.80)
24. Most of the time my work group is provided with sufficient information to get the work done.	2.58(1.00)	2.51(1.07)	3.09(0.81)	3.00(0.83)

(table 5 continues)

(Table 5 continued)

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Text	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
25. I understand the company's lines of authority.	2.86(1.01)	2.94(0.85)	2.91(0.91)	3.01(0.57)
26. I have sufficient authority to fulfill my job responsibilities.	2.86(1.11)	2.91(0.91)	3.00(0.67)	3.10(0.64)
27. I understand the boundaries of my authority.	2.85(1.03)	2.98(0.91)	3.04(0.75)	3.17(0.60)
28. I plan to look for a job with another company within a year.	1.85(1.74)	1.86(1.87)	2.64(1.49)	2.77(1.29)
29. If asked, I would be willing to make an extra effort to help this company.	2.94(0.91)	3.09(0.76)	3.26(0.88)	3.07(0.74)
30. I feel a high level of loyalty to my work group.	2.92(1.06)	2.99(1.06)	3.15(0.85)	3.14(0.71)
31. I would have little or no regret about leaving my work group.	2.48(1.62)	2.29(1.68)	3.06(1.05)	2.72(1.21)*
32. If asked, I would be willing to make an extra effort to help my work group.	3.27(0.80)	3.23(0.82)	3.38(0.72)	3.38(0.51)
33. My workload is too heavy.	2.68(1.51)	2.78(1.35)	2.56(0.99)	2.69(0.76)

(table 5 continues)

(Table 5 continued)

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Text	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
34. I like the kind of work I do.	2.89(0.97)	3.05(0.94)	3.36(0.71)	3.04(0.89)**
35. I have enough freedom over how I do my job.	2.71(1.12)	2.83(1.10)	3.01(0.83)	3.17(0.64)
36. I know what is expected of me on my job.	2.91(1.07)	3.07(0.80)	3.07(0.93)	3.32(0.58)*
37. I feel too much pressure on my job.	2.70(1.43)	2.86(1.35)	2.58(0.93)	2.58(1.00)
38. Generally, I think my job is boring.	2.03(1.82)	2.17(1.84)	3.20(0.87)	2.94(0.99)
39. Generally, I think my job is challenging.	2.67(1.10)	2.78(1.06)	3.02(0.89)	2.80(1.05)
40. Generally, I think my job is important.	3.08(0.95)	3.17(0.72)	3.38(0.58)	3.13(0.85)*
41. Generally, I think my job is a good match from my skills and abilities.	2.60(1.24)	2.54(1.20)	2.83(0.93)	2.74(1.11)
42. Generally, I think my job is a good match for my career interests.	2.16(1.28)	2.29(1.20)	2.59(1.20)	2.23(1.27)

(table 5 continues)

(Table 5 continued)

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Text	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
43. Generally, I think my job is too demanding.	2.82(1.53)	2.98(1.47)	2.83(0.88)	2.80(0.93)
44 Generally, I think my job is rewarding in ways other than money.	2.27(1.26)	2.41(1.14)	2.89(0.99)	2.42(1.18)**
45. Generally, I think this company is a good place to work.	3.36(0.63)	3.38(0.72)	3.10(0.89)	3.03(0.98)
46. Satisfactions with the amount of recognition received for doing a good job.	2.23(1.21)	2.29(1.21)	2.54(0.96)	2.48(0.99)
47. Satisfaction with the amount of personal satisfaction received for doing a good job.	2.90(0.92)	2.92(1.01)	3.11(0.69)	2.87(0.82)*
48. There is a strong link between my performance and recognition and praise.	2.41(1.28)	2.65(1.23)	2.56(0.96)	2.46(1.05)
49. There is a strong link between my performance and higher appraisal ratings.	2.82(1.18)	2.81(1.14)	2.42(1.14)	2.40(1.15)

(table 5 continues)

(Table 5 continued)

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Text	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
50. Generally, I feel this company cares about its employees - not just about profits and losses.	2.68(0.93)	2.78(0.94)	2.16(1.09)	2.04(1.08)
51. Generally, I feel this company values employees who make an extra effort.	2.70(1.01)	2.66(1.01)	2.81(0.99)	2.54(1.05)
52. Generally, I feel this company values loyalty.	2.79(0.99)	2.81(0.90)	2.67(0.99)	2.45(1.10)
53. Generally, I feel this company tries hard to provide good places for people to work.	3.02(0.85)	2.90(0.91)	2.65(1.03)	2.57(1.09)
54. Management makes a sufficient effort to get the opinions of people who work here.	1.93(1.17)	2.19(1.12)	2.77(0.73)	2.57(0.86)
55. Decisions are often made which could be better made at lower levels.	2.23(1.07)	2.56(1.10)	1.85(0.88)	1.81(0.95)
56. Employees are encouraged to participate in making decisions affecting them.	1.99(1.19)	2.11(1.09)	2.69(0.90)	2.44(0.85)

(table 5 continues)

(Table 5 continued)

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Text	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
57. Management is usually open to new ideas.	2.47(1.01)	2.39(1.03)	2.89(0.76)	2.87(0.69)
58. Management tends to stay abreast of employees needs.	2.02(1.09)	2.07(1.09)	2.52(0.87)	2.47(0.97)
59. Management gives sufficient notice to employees prior to making changes in policies and procedures.	1.67(1.17)	1.90(1.19)	2.40(0.93)	2.16(0.93)
60. A lot of unnecessary rules and regulations exist.	3.04(1.22)	3.09(1.24)	2.10(1.04)	2.45(1.03)*
61. This company's management "drags its feet" on solving important problems.	3.03(1.32)	3.03(1.30)	2.10(1.31)	2.27(1.13)
62. New approaches for productivity are tried.	2.82(0.77)	2.67(0.77)	3.05(0.57)	2.82(0.73)*
63. Management is willing to take risks.	2.08(1.06)	2.12(1.01)	2.28(1.12)	2.04(1.24)
64. The channels for communication with top management are effective.	1.72(1.18)	1.88(1.11)	2.16(1.18)	2.09(1.11)

(table 5 continues)

Table 5 continued)

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Text	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
65. The communication between my work group and other work groups within the company are effective.	2.22(1.13)	2.44(1.00)	2.26(1.05)	2.71(0.64)***
66. Top management is adequately informed of the important issues in my department.	2.45(1.06)	2.34(1.08)	2.25(1.24)	2.33(1.12)
67. Company policies and procedures are clearly communicated to employees.	2.43(1.06)	2.53(0.99)	2.80(0.75)	2.84(0.58)
68. Company goals and objectives are clearly communicated to employees.	2.30(1.05)	2.47(1.03)	2.83(0.79)	2.60(0.85)
69. I often have to rely on the "grapevine" to get job-related information.	2.68(1.28)	2.67(1.33)	2.54(1.06)	2.24(0.85)*
70. Most of the time I receive sufficient notice of changes affecting my work.	2.32(1.13)	2.21(1.13)	2.81(0.73)	2.57(0.75)*
71. Considering everything how satisfied are you with your job?	2.50(1.18)	2.69(1.06)	2.94(0.84)	2.93(0.78)

(table 5 continues)

(Table 5 continued)

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Text	1989 Baseline		1993 Follow-up	
	Experimental Group (n=124)	Control Group (n=161)	Experimental Group (n=81)	Control Group (n=90)
72. Considering everything how satisfied are you with this company as a place to work?	3.21(0.84)	3.30(0.70)	3.07(0.70)	2.93(0.87)
73. I have enough input in deciding how to accomplish my work.	n/a	n/a	3.01(0.70)	2.99(0.72)
74. Generally, I feel this company provides a climate that cultivates the generation of new ideas.	n/a	n/a	2.81(0.84)	2.58(1.02)
75. Generally, I would describe this company's culture as empowering.	n/a	n/a	2.43(1.01)	1.89(1.37)**
76. Management makes a real effort to build teamwork throughout the organization.	n/a	n/a	2.64(0.87)	2.35(1.06)
77. Management allows for growth through mistakes.	n/a	n/a	2.50(1.10)	2.21(1.27)

Note. n/a (i.e., not applicable) to 1989 RSVP Survey. Questions were selected from LOMA Survey.

Note. Standard deviation shown in brackets.

(table 5 continues)

(Table 5 continued)

Mean Responses to Individual Items by Group and by Time

Note. Scale for questions 1 to 6: Very Good(4), Good(3), Fair(2), Poor(1), Very Poor(0).

Note. Scale for questions 7 to 45, 48 to 70, and 73 to 77:

Strongly Agree(4), Agree(3), Disagree(2), Strongly Disagree(1), No Opinion(0).

Note. Scale for questions 46, 47, 71, & 72:

Very Satisfied(4), Satisfied(3), Dissatisfied(2), Very Dissatisfied(1),

No Opinion(0).

Note. When comparing the 1993 Experimental to the 1993 Control Group:

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001.

Table 6

Between groups t tests for 1989 and 1993 - Control Group

Scales	Control Group		
	1989 Baseline (n=161)	1993 Follow-up (n=90)	t test
Scales used for this analysis			
Power	2.65(0.50)	2.79(0.38)	-2.492*
Management/ Leadership	2.40(0.48)	2.47(0.36)	-1.306
Motivation	2.73(0.42)	2.90(0.41)	-3.123***
Scales used by LOMA			
Supervision	2.75(0.87)	2.97(0.74)	-2.118*
Work Group Climate	2.74(0.79)	2.96(0.55)	-2.586*
Work Management	2.54(0.67)	2.84(0.58)	-3.714***
Work Group Productivity	2.63(0.66)	3.11(0.52)	-6.352***
Resources	2.51(1.07)	3.00(0.83)	-4.032***
Authority	2.94(0.71)	3.09(0.50)	-1.951
Work Group/Org. Commitment	2.69(0.65)	3.02(0.59)	-4.096***
Job Duties	2.74(0.53)	2.82(0.57)	-1.093
Company Image	3.38(0.72)	3.03(0.98)	2.970***
Rewards	2.67(0.86)	2.55(0.78)	1.126

(table 6 continues)

(Table 6 continued)

Between groups t tests for 1989 and 1993 - Control Group

Scales	Control Group		
	1989 Baseline (n=161)	1993 Follow-up (n=90)	t test
Corporate Values	2.79(0.71)	2.41(0.89)	3.479***
Management Style	2.41(0.59)	2.39(0.50)	0.285
Communication	2.36(0.64)	2.48(0.50)	-1.645
Overall Satisfaction	2.99(0.75)	2.93(0.70)	0.635
Overall Scores	2.64(0.43)	2.77(0.37)	-2.516*

Note. Standard deviation shown in brackets.

Note. *p<.05. **p<.01. ***p<.001.

Discussion

One of the main purposes of the present research was to measure empirically the impact of empowerment in the workplace. The results did not support the hypotheses.

The first hypothesis, that employees in the empowered group would perceive their situation more favourably in terms of power, management/leadership, and motivation, was tested using logistic regression to compare the empowered group to the non-empowered group. Models were found which adequately fit the data but none of the variables were found to make a significant contribution. Similar results were noted when examining the other attitude variables on other issues outlined in the second hypothesis. Some significant differences between groups were noted in analyzing responses to specific questions.

Only one question (question 65) elicited a difference at the .001 level of significance and the response was in the opposite direction of that predicted. This question asked if the communication between the individual's work group and other work groups within the company were effective. Based on the literature advocating empowerment it would be assumed that communication would be much better in an empowered group. This reversed result may reflect something in the way empowerment was implemented or something about the corporate environment in which empowerment was introduced (e.g., layoffs).

At the .01 level the empowered group indicated that they liked their work significantly better than the non-empowered group (question 34) and found it rewarding in ways other than money (question 44). Advocates of empowerment would concur that job satisfaction and job importance are both indicators of the beneficial aspects of empowerment (Kotter, 1990). Similarly, evidence that work which is perceived as challenging and not boring would also be indicators. These last two categories were not supported by the data. No noticeable differences in these areas were found between the two groups.

The third hypothesis was supported by the results. This hypothesis predicted that the empowered group would describe the company's culture as more empowering than would the control group. At the .01 level of significance, the mean scores for the empowered group were more positive than the means for the control group. An alternative interpretation of this significant effect might be that the empowered group was more familiar with the term "empowered" than was the control group.

It was noted that no significant differences were found when comparing aggregate and individual responses for the two 1989 baseline groups. This can be interpreted to mean the two groups started out at essentially the same level, which in turn

addresses to some degree, previously identified concerns associated with random sampling.

In summary, no clear evidence for the predicted effects of enpowerment were found in this study. Although the hypotheses were not substantially supported, the effectiveness of empowerment should not be ruled out. Extenuating factors, such as downsizing, corporate size, and time can have a dramatic impact on the empowerment process. Downsizing, with its stressful, demoralizing, and depressing effects (Catlin, 1991) clearly has a negative impact on empowerment. This is reflected in the aggregate responses for company image which deteriorated from 1989 to 1993. Corporate size also plays a major role. According to Brown (1992), the larger the corporation, the harder it is to institute participatory management. Although the two participating areas were relatively small they were part of a large organization. From a time perspective, it has been stressed the empowerment process is not an overnight phenomenon, it may take at least eight or ten years of change to just about every piece of the management system (Kizilos, 1990). According to Burgess (1992), change of an organization's culture can prove to be long and sometimes difficult but it is here to stay. This research was conducted just under a year after empowerment was

formally put into place.

Further research should be conducted within organizational settings to examine empowerment empirically. There is a trend towards leaner, flatter organizations which leads to an environment conducive to empowerment (Barwick, 1992). Although extenuating factors such as downsizing may have impacted this particular research, its aftermath, which is common to many organizations, has resulted in fewer organizational levels and a greater need for participative decision making at the lower levels. Despite the reported null results, which are always problematic for research, the quest to determine whether empowerment in the workplace is effective must be encouraged.

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APPENDIX A

FIEDLER'S CONTINGENCY MODEL

Fiedler's approach is to first identify the leadership style of individuals and then determine the atmosphere of the groups. Next, one predicts which leadership styles go with which groups. To identify leadership styles, Fiedler's contingency model was developed around the concept of Least Preferred Coworkers (LPC). A Least Preferred Coworker is a person with whom one works least well. This coworker can be someone a person currently works with or has worked with in the past. Depending on their responses a leader can be described as a High LPC or a Low LPC leader. High LPC leaders would describe their LPC relatively favorably and would be concerned more with interpersonal relations than with task accomplishment (Fiedler, 1978). Low LPC leaders, on the other hand, would describe their coworker unfavorably and would be concerned more with the task than with their interpersonal relationships. (Fiedler, 1978).

To identify the atmosphere of groups, Fiedler isolated three independent variables or dimensions, namely leader-member relations, task structure, and position power. Leader-member relations, which Fiedler (1978) describes as the most important variable, refers to the degree to which group members trust and like a leader and will follow his or her guidance. A trusted leader does not require special rank or power to get things done (Lawless, 1979). Tasks can be structured or unstructured. Unstructured tasks such as typical committee assignment or research and development work (Fiedler, 1978) create vagueness which leads to difficulty in exerting leadership influence. Structured tasks, in contrast, offer a clearer delineation of authority and leadership influence through discipline.

The third variable, position power, is viewed by Fiedler (1978) as the degree to which leaders can reward and punish, recommend sanctions, or otherwise enforce compliance by subordinates. Position power implies (Fiedler, 1978) that a leader will have correspondingly high certainty that his or her decisions and actions will have predictable results, and that they will achieve the desired goals and gratify the leader's needs in the situation. Fiedler classified leader position power into two strata - strong and weak. In matching leadership styles to groups, Fiedler (1978) observed that task-motivated leaders performed best in situations in which their control is either high or relatively low and that relationship-motivated leaders performed best when they had moderate control or influence.

APPENDIX B

HOUSE'S PATH GOAL MODEL

In this model, two contingency variables are identified. They are employee characteristics such as high needs for self esteem and affiliation, and task characteristics such as routine and simple or nonroutine and complex. Effective leadership involves selecting the most appropriate style based on a particular situation and the needs of the subordinates. House's model has evolved into four styles of leadership: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement. A directive leader tends to let subordinates know what is expected of them. A supportive leader treats subordinates as their equals. A participative leader consults with subordinates and uses their ideas and suggestions before reaching a decision. An achievement oriented leader sets challenging goals, and expects subordinates to perform at the highest level, and continually seeks improvement in performance (Gibson et al, 1988).

APPENDIX C

VROOM-YETTON DECISION MODEL

In the original model five leadership styles were identified. These styles fell along a continuum from authoritarian, to consultative, to fully participative. The two authoritarian styles essentially involved managers making decisions or solving problems themselves. The two consultative styles still involved managers making the decisions but subordinates were allowed to share the problem and give ideas or suggestions which may or may not be reflected in the manager's decision. The fully participative style involved sharing the problem with subordinates and working together towards a solution. To determine which style was best for a particular problem, leaders answered seven diagnostic questions or problem attributes on a decision process flow chart (i.e., decision tree). Each question was designed to protect both the quality and acceptance of the decision. As managers answered the questions such as, "do I have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision?" they were required to give either a "yes" or "no" response. The type of response made determined which branch of the decision tree to take. Depending on the nature of the problem more than one leadership style could be appropriate. To narrow the selection further, Vroom and Yetton provided additional guidance. If a decision had to be made quickly or timely they recommended an authoritarian decision style. If managers wished to develop the knowledge and decision making skills of subordinates, they would select a more participative style. In situations where participative or autocratic styles were both feasible, they recommended an autocratic approach as it involved the least "manhours" invested in making the decision.

Vroom and Jago's (1987) model which extends the approach taken by Vroom and Yetton (1973) presents effectiveness in the form of equations for decision effectiveness and overall effectiveness. Decision effectiveness is equal to decision quality plus decision commitment minus a decision time penalty. Overall effectiveness is equal to decision effectiveness minus costs of time lost through use of a given decision process plus development costs. An important enhancement to the new model is the addition of five problem attributes to supplement the original seven in Vroom and Yetton's (1973) model. The most important additional problem attribute takes into consideration the information and expertise possessed by subordinates. This additional variable helps improve decision quality and the effectiveness of the model. The second problem attribute involves time constraints which can restrict opportunities to involve subordinates. The third problem attribute is concerned with geographical restrictions which may hinder interactions among subordinates. The last two additional attributes concern the importance of time and development which, taken together, can influence the costs of employing participative decision making methods. Another important enhancement is the utilization of continuous scales in contrast to the dichotomous (Yes-No)

responses required in the original Vroom-Yetton (1973) model. Of the twelve possible attributes in the new model, ten of them use five-point scales. These scales can be expressed in answers ranging from "no importance" to "critically important" for attributes involving quality, commitment, time, and development. Probability estimates are used for the attributes dealing with leader information, problem structure, commitment probability, goal congruence, conflict, and subordinate information (Gibson et al., 1988).

APPENDIX D

TO: Selected Participants

DATE: January 20, 1993

FROM: J. K. Johnston, Director, Corporate Resources

RE: RESEARCH

Alan Thorlakson, Associate Manager, Traditional Life Changes, is currently working on his Masters degree in Psychology at the University of Manitoba. He has approached the Company asking for authorization to contact a number of our staff members with the intention of gathering data for research on his thesis. That authorization has been provided in keeping with our past practise of supporting requests of this nature on a selected basis.

In this regard, find attached a confidential questionnaire for your completion. Please note that your participation in this project is completely voluntary. Completed questionnaires should be returned to Alan in the enclosed envelope.

JKK:vg
Attach.

APPENDIX D

To: Selected participants

Date: February 15, 1993

From: Alan Thorlakson, FLMI, Associate Manager, Client Service 1S

Re: Research

The following questionnaire involves empowerment in the workplace.

Participation is completely voluntary and confidential. If you wish you may withdraw from this study prior to completion of the questionnaire.

In order to keep your responses completely confidential, you will notice that your name does not appear anywhere on the questionnaire to be returned. Further, responses will not be presented individually in the thesis. Nevertheless, in order for participants to have access to the averaged results, a short feedback sheet summarizing the results will be sent to you. Also, a copy of the thesis will be available through the company library.

If you are willing to participate, please take a few minutes to complete the questionnaire and return it in the attached envelope by February 19, 1993.

Thank you for your interest and participation in this project.

Before you complete the questionnaire, please fill in the following:

Personal History

Position

[ ] Officer
[ ] Managerial
[ ] Supervisory
[ ] Technical
[ ] Clerical
[ ] Secretarial

Sex

[ ] Male
[ ] Female

Length of Service with Company

[ ] Less than one year
[ ] One to less than five years
[ ] Five to less than ten years
[ ] Ten to less than twenty years
[ ] Twenty or more years

Length of Service in current department

[ ] Less than 4 months
[ ] 4 months or more

Job Grade

[ ] 1
[ ] 2
[ ] 3
[ ] 4
[ ] 5
[ ] 6
[ ] 7
[ ] 8
[ ] 9
[ ] 10
[ ] 11
[ ] 12

Age

[ ] Under 25 years
[ ] 25 to 29 years
[ ] 30 to 39 years
[ ] 40 to 49 years
[ ] 50 years or over

Area

[ ] Individual Client Service
[ ] Retirement & Investment Services

Employment Status

[ ] Full time/Regular Part time
[ ] Temporary/Casual

Did you complete the RSVP Questionnaire which Great-West Life used in 1989? This employee attitude questionnaire asked 161 questions about your job. It included questions about supervision, work group climate, work management, authority, job duties and communication.
[ ] Yes [ ] No [ ] I can't remember.

SUPERVISION

	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor	Very Poor
1. Overall, how good a job do you feel is being done by your supervisor?					
2. How good is the working relationship between you and your supervisor?					
3. How good is your supervisor's understanding of the technical aspects of your job?					
4. How good is your supervisor's ability to manage your work?					
5. How good is your supervisor's ability to manage people?					
6. How good is your supervisor's ability to clearly communicate work group goals and objectives?					

WORK GROUP CLIMATE

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
7. Most of the employees in my work group cooperate.					
8. Most of the employees in my work group trust each other.					
9. Most of the employees in my work group get along well with each other.					
10. Most of the employees in my work group do their fair share of the work.					
11. Most of the employees in my work group respect each other.					
12. Most of the employees in my work group are willing to share ideas and information.					

WORK MANAGEMENT

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
13. In my work group, work group goals and objectives are clearly stated.					
14. In my work group, the workload is distributed fairly.					
15. In my work group, work group members understand each other's roles.					
16. In my work group, problems are handled promptly.					
17. In my work group, schedules and time limits are clearly stated.					
18. In my work group, the workload is too heavy.					

WORK GROUP PRODUCTIVITY/QUALITY

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
19. Most of the time my work group cuts unnecessary costs whenever possible.					
20. Most of the time my work group is run efficiently.					
21. Most of the time my work group tries new ways to improve productivity.					
22. Most of the time my work group produces high quality work.					
23. Most of the time my work group emphasizes quality more than quantity.					

RESOURCES

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
24. Most of the time my work group is provided with sufficient information to get the work done.					

AUTHORITY

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
25. I understand the company's lines of authority.					
26. I have sufficient authority to fulfill my job responsibilities.					
27. I understand the boundaries of my authority.					

WORK GROUP/ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
28. I plan to look for a job with another company within a year.					
29. If asked, I would be willing to make an extra effort to help this company.					
30. I feel a high level of loyalty to my work group.					
31. I would have little or no regret about leaving my work group.					
32. If asked, I would be willing to make an extra effort to help my work group.					

JOB DUTIES

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
33. My workload is too heavy.					
34. I like the kind of work I do.					
35. I have enough freedom over how I do my job.					
36. I know what is expected of me on my job.					
37. I feel to much pressure on my job.					
38. Generally, I think my job is boring.					
39. Generally, I think my job is challenging.					

JOB DUTIES

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
40. Generally, I think my job is important.					
41. Generally, I think my job is a good match for my skills and abilities.					
42. Generally, I think my job is a good match for my career interests.					
43. Generally, I think my job is too demanding.					
44. Generally, I think my job is rewarding in ways other than money.					
45. Generally, I think this company is a good place to work.					

REWARDS

	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	No Opinion
46. Satisfaction with the amount of recognition received for doing a good job.					
47. Satisfaction with the amount of personal satisfaction received from doing a good job.					

REWARDS

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
48. There is a strong link between my performance and recognition and praise.					
49. There is a strong link between my performance and higher performance appraisal ratings.					

CORPORATE VALUES

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
50. Generally, I feel this company cares about its employees- not just about profits and losses.					
51. Generally, I feel this company values employees who make an extra effort.					
52. Generally, I feel this company values employee loyalty.					
53. Generally, I feel this company tries hard to provide good places for people to work.					

MANAGEMENT STYLE

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
54. Management makes a sufficient effort to get the opinions and feelings of people who work here.					
55. Decisions are often made which could be better made at lower levels.					
56. Employees are encouraged to participate in making decisions affecting them.					
57. Management is usually open to new ideas.					
58. Management tends to stay abreast of employees needs.					
59. Management gives sufficient notice to employees prior to making changes in policies and procedures.					
60. A lot of unnecessary rules and regulations exist.					
61. This company's management "drags its feet" on solving important problems.					

MANAGEMENT STYLE

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
62. New approaches for productivity are tried.					
63. Management is willing to take risks.					

COMMUNICATION

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
64. The channels for communication with top management are effective.					
65. The communication between my work group and other work groups within this company are effective.					
66. Top management is adequately informed of the important issues in my department.					
67. Company policies and procedures are clearly communicated to employees.					
68. Company goals and objectives are clearly communicated to employees.					
69. I often have to rely on the "grapevine" to get job-related information.					
70. Most of the time I receive sufficient notice of changes affecting my work group.					

OVERALL JOB SATISFACTION

	Very Satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	Very Dissatisfied	No Opinion
71. Considering everything how satisfied are you with your job?					
72. Considering everything how satisfied are you with this company as a place to work?					

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	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	No Opinion
73. I have enough input in deciding how to accomplish my work.					
74. Generally, I feel this company provides a climate that cultivates the generation of new ideas.					
75. Generally, I would describe this company's culture as empowering.					
76. Management makes a real effort to build teamwork throughout the organization.					
77. Management allows for growth through mistakes.					