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Employee Empowerment: Definition, Measurement  
and Construct Validation

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September 1995

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research in partial  
fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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## A B S T R A C T

The notion of improving employee productivity and satisfaction through increased work autonomy has led to a variety of managerial practices that seek to enhance employees' sense of control over their work and workplace. One such organizational intervention which has gained currency in the last decade is empowerment. This thesis is an attempt to clearly explicate the precise nature of the empowerment construct through theoretical analysis and empirical investigation.

An analysis of the construct of power from a psychological perspective yielded three dimensions of power: power as perceived control, power as perceived competence and power as being energized toward valued goals. Based on this analysis and a review of existing literature on empowerment, the empowered state was defined as a cognitive state characterized by perceived control, perceived competence and goal internalization. Building on this definition, a number of antecedents and consequences of empowerment were examined leading to theoretical propositions and testable hypotheses.

The empirical test of the proposed theoretical framework was carried out in two stages. Phase I was devoted to the development of a psychometrically sound measure of empowerment. Phase II was concerned with construct validation through the testing of hypotheses relating the empowerment construct to other established constructs.

The empirical results supported the view that empowerment is a construct conceptually distinct from other constructs such as delegation, self-efficacy and intrinsic task motivation. The proposed multi-dimensional nature of empowerment was also strongly supported. In addition, organizational and job level context factors as well as select managerial behaviors were identified as possible antecedents of empowerment. Empowerment was also found to be significantly related to a number of outcome variables including job satisfaction, job involvement and organizational commitment. The thesis concludes with implications for managerial practices and suggestions for future research.

## R E S U M É

La notion d'amélioration de la productivité et de la satisfaction de l'employé par une plus grande autonomie au travail a mené à diverses pratiques managériales qui cherchent à augmenter le sentiment de contrôle des employés sur leur travail ainsi que sur leur environnement de travail. Une de ces interventions organisationnelles qui a connu un certain succès durant la dernière décennie est l'*empowerment*. Cette thèse tente d'expliquer clairement la nature exacte du construit d'*empowerment* à l'aide d'une analyse théorique et d'une recherche empirique.

Une analyse du construit de pouvoir, d'un point de vue psychologique, a révélé trois dimensions: le pouvoir comme contrôle perçu, le pouvoir comme compétence perçu et finalement le pouvoir comme énergie créée par des buts valorisés. À partir de cette analyse et d'une revue de la littérature, l'état d'*empowerment* a été défini comme un état cognitif caractérisé par le contrôle perçu, la compétence perçu et par l'internalisation des buts. S'inspirant de cette définition, un certain nombre de conditions qui favorisent l'*empowerment* ainsi que quelques conséquences de l'*empowerment* ont été examinées menant ainsi à des propositions théoriques et à des hypothèses testables.

Le test empirique du cadre théorique proposé a été mené en deux étapes. La Phase I a été consacrée au développement d'une mesure psychométrique fiable de l'*empowerment*. La Phase II s'est intéressée à la validation du construit en testant les hypothèses reliant le construit d'*empowerment* à d'autres construits déjà établis.

Les résultats empiriques supportent l'idée que l'*empowerment* est conceptuellement différent d'autres construits tels que la délégation, la confiance en soi (*self-efficacy*) et la motivation intrinsèque du travail. La nature multi-dimensionnelle proposée de l'*empowerment* a été également fortement supportée. De plus, certains facteurs contextuels reliés à l'organisation et au niveau du travail ainsi que quelques comportements

managériaux ont été identifiés comme de possibles conditions favorisant l'*empowerment*. Selon les résultats, l'*empowerment* est relié d'une manière significative à un certain nombre de conséquences incluant la satisfaction au travail, l'implication au travail et l'engagement organisationnel. Cette thèse conclue par les implications sur les pratiques managériales et propose des suggestions pour la recherche future.

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## Chapter 1. The Changing Workplace: Focus on Empowerment

The workplace in the beginning of the next century will probably bear little resemblance to the nature of the workplace that was prevalent in the beginning of this century, at least in the industrialized world. Gone will be the proverbial sweat shops of yore characterized by semi-literate workers supervised by a "gang boss", toiling away at repetitive, monotonous jobs standardized by a time and motion study expert. In its place will be a clean and airy work environment characterized by work tasks that are more complex and intellectual (as opposed to physical) in nature. The computer terminal will be an ubiquitous fixture of both shop-floor and office alike. The old style supervisor will be part of a vanishing breed being increasingly replaced by team leaders, coaches, facilitators, resource persons and the like. One important facet of this dramatic change is the shift from mechanical technologies to electronic and computer controlled technologies. A second important dimension of the workplace revolution is the changing nature of the relationship between employees and their work, particularly with regard to autonomy and participation in decisions about work and working conditions. The present research is primarily related to this latter aspect of the changing workplace.

### 1.1: The Evolving Nature of Workplace Autonomy and Worker Participation

Up until the second half of the eighteenth century, the individual worker played a significant role in the production process. The worker invested in the process by contributing tools and acquired skills in a manner that he or she thought fit, largely independent of the supplier of capital. With the advent of mass production technologies based on steam and electric power, the vast majority of workers in part due to their inability to invest the large amounts of capital required to acquire the necessary machines and the facilities to house them, were reduced to the status of hired hands. Venture capitalists, in their capacity as owners of production facilities extended their

control to include the production process (Susman, 1976). Increasing specialization coupled with the division of labour into fractionated tasks reduced the skill levels required for work performance, adversely affecting the bargaining power of workers. The decline in workplace autonomy and worker participation reached its nadir in the early part of the twentieth century when industrialists influenced by the ideas of Frederick Taylor and Frank Gilbreth, strove to eliminate all vestiges of worker initiative by designing work according to the principles of scientific management (see Gilbreth, 1911 and Taylor, 1911).

The work environment that characterized much of early twentieth century rendered the worker powerless in two important respects. Firstly, the worker had no direct control over the primary conditions of his or her employment such as wages, job security, safety and physical work conditions. Secondly, the worker had effectively no control over the work process or work-related decision-making. With regard to the primary conditions of employment, the plight of the North American worker has since changed significantly for the better. The rise of organized labour movements coupled with protective legislation over the course of this century has done much to curb the arbitrary abuse of power by the employer. On the other hand, with regard to work autonomy and participation in work related decision-making, the onus of change has largely rested with the individual employer and the nature of change has been largely a function of the prevailing managerial philosophy.

The lack of work autonomy and participation was in line with Theory X assumptions (McGregor, 1960) that characterized much of managerial thought in the first half of this century. If the average human being wishes to avoid responsibility and prefers to be directed, it is only natural that work be designed to exclude any role for worker initiative. The change toward Theory Y assumptions was significantly influenced by the motivation-hygiene theory of Herzberg (Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman, 1959) who



campaigns for work designed to include responsibility and challenge as a prerequisite for worker satisfaction and motivation. At about the same time in Europe, the Quality of Working Life movement with its emphasis on worker participation and autonomy was taking hold and was extending its influence to North America. The work design model of Hackman & Oldham (1980) established job autonomy as a key characteristic of a well designed job. Thus by the early 1980s, although work autonomy and worker participation was not the norm in every North American workplace, it certainly was considered a sign of enlightened management.

Finally, in a diametrical reversal of managerial thinking at the beginning of the century, management experts in the last part of this century have been calling for workers with increased power and autonomy, i.e., empowered workers. For many organizations, giving workers the authority to make decisions and allowing them the control of resources is no longer a virtue but a survival strategy in an uncertain and fiercely competitive environment. According to Shipper & Manz (1992), empowerment is a major new industrial weapon against domestic and international competitive threats.

### 1.2: Popular Managerial Rationale for Empowerment

In the popular business press, empowerment is understood as the granting of the necessary authority to employees for making decisions in areas that affect their jobs, like customer service, production, and quality control (e.g., see Mathes, 1992). Empowerment is expected to result in improved quality and productivity, besides improved employee morale and satisfaction. The underlying philosophy behind this approach is contained in the belief that existing organizational conditions could render employees "powerless" to utilize their full productive and creative potential, thus resulting in ineffective or mediocre performance. By altering, removing or attenuating the conditions that lead to feelings of powerlessness, it is expected that employees would be in a position to perform at their productive and creative best. The creative

energies thus released could result not only in improved customer satisfaction, but also in improved operating efficiency and reduced costs. It is not surprising, therefore, that in the last decade employee empowerment techniques have captured the attention of the popular business press.

### 1.3: Empowering Practices

The 1985 survey report of the American Management Association entitled "The Changing American Workplace: Work Alternatives in the '80s", identifies four clusters of organizational practices which vary in their scope (individual/group/organizational) and in the extent to which they empower workers. The report conceives power as the capacity to mobilize the resources necessary to achieve a goal. The four broad categories of empowering interventions are:-

1. Job-related Work Alternatives. The practices in this group operate at the level of the individual employee. They include job enrichment, work-at home arrangements, cross-training, part-time job arrangements, job sharing, transition at retirement programs, and formal job rotation. These interventions empower workers only to a limited extent.

2. Quality of Working Life Alternatives. This set of practices is broader in scope and has the potential to empower employees significantly. This cluster includes practices such as gain-sharing, flexitime, compressed work week, quality circles, joint labor-management committees, work councils or communication councils, formal training in participative management, and pay-for-capability/skills programs.

3. Alternative Organizational Structures. The scope of these alternatives are primarily organizational. The arrangements included are matrix or multiple reporting structures and project team or project-based organization.

4. Employee Participation and Control. The interventions in this cluster also could result in reshuffling of work arrangements at the

organizational level. These include semi-autonomous or self-managed work groups, internal venture funds or other entrepreneurial opportunities, parallel organizations, and employee-owned organizations or equity participation.

In addition to the work arrangements listed above, numerous other techniques are also thought of as being empowering in nature. For example, practices such as transformational leadership, managerial behaviors such as delegation, and organizational development techniques such as total quality management are also said to result in empowerment.

#### 1.4: Results of Empowerment

The popular business press is rife with anecdotal evidence of the success of empowerment efforts both in North America and elsewhere (see for example, Fleming, 1991). Empowerment interventions are believed to be the cause of improved productivity, worker satisfaction, and innovation. For example, an empowered new product development team is considered key to the success of Nissan's 1988 Silvia in Japan (see Kiernan, 1993). A more recent example is the turnaround of Eastman Kodak's black-and white film division using an empowered work force (see Anfuso, 1994).

On the academic front, there have been very few empirical studies on the results of empowerment. However, available evidence supports the view that empowerment is largely beneficial for the organization. For example, Tymon (1988) found that empowerment was strongly related to job satisfaction and supervisory ratings of performance. More recently, London (1993) found that self-ratings of empowerment was significantly related to supervisor ratings of career motivation.

#### 1.5: Toward Employee Empowerment Research

Despite the popularity of the notion of empowerment in practitioner circles, academic researchers have been slow to research empowerment as a construct in its own right. To date there have been only four articles in

academic journals (see Conger & Kanungo, 1988; London, 1993; Parker & Price, 1994; and Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). There is a need to redress this paucity of research for at least two major reasons. Firstly, North American businesses are investing significantly in empowering techniques (see Shipper & Manz, 1992) and management scholars need to confirm the existence of the phenomenon of empowerment. Secondly, if one is to harness the power of empowerment successfully, then there is need for a better understanding of the nature of empowerment.

Scholarly research on empowerment is particularly relevant given the diverse and disparate nature of the so-called empowering techniques. If two very different practices such as job enrichment and employee ownership are both considered to be empowering, then the nature of the resulting empowerment is not obvious. It is possible that both techniques have the same type of empowering effect. Alternatively, it is possible that the two techniques result in two very different kinds of empowerment. In the absence of scientific enquiry on empowerment, these and other such issues of a fundamental nature will remain unsolved. It is therefore imperative that management researchers investigate the phenomenon of empowerment, its antecedents and its consequences through systematic and rigorous study.

## Chapter 2. Empowerment Research: Review and Critique

The emergence of empowerment as an independent research stream is a relatively recent phenomenon. Therefore, there are very few research studies that specifically address the issue of empowerment. There is, however, considerable research on the effects of worker autonomy and control. This chapter begins with a brief review of this literature. Recent developments on research specifically on empowerment are then examined. The chapter concludes with research questions that emerge from a critique of the existing empowerment literature.

### 2.1: Research on Worker Autonomy and Control

Study of the effects of increased worker control over the actual work process has been mainly in connection with work redesign initiatives. At the level of the individual, the interest in increased control and decision-making authority at work was triggered by Herzberg's notion of job enrichment (Herzberg et al. 1959; Herzberg, 1968, 1976). An important component of job enrichment was vertical loading which refers to the practice of increasing the amount of control an individual has over the planning and execution of his or her work. Job enrichment was said to lead to high performance and job satisfaction, a contention that was supported by a number of studies (e.g., Ford, 1973; Janson, 1971; Kraft, 1971; Powers, 1972). Job autonomy is also a key job characteristic according to the job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Hackman et al. 1975) and is said to be enhanced by the practice of vertical loading (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). At the level of the work group, the notion of semi-autonomous work groups grew out of social-technical systems thinking advocated by Eric Trist and others (see Emery, 1959 for a review). The semi-autonomous work group not only managed its own tasks but also took its own decisions on matters such as the allocation of labour or internal leadership (Kelly, 1978). The practice of creating semi-

autonomous or self-managed teams continues to be popular and is an important component of many employee involvement initiatives such as high involvement plants (Lawler, 1986) and Total Quality Management (Dean and Evans, 1994). Research on the benefits of increased work group autonomy has supported the claim that autonomous work groups are in general more productive and satisfied than traditionally designed work groups (Cummings & Molloy, 1977; Goodman et al., 1988).

Another important stream of research dealing with the issue of worker autonomy and control is that dealing with participation in decision making. Cotton et al. (1988) classified research in this area on the basis of six different forms of participation: participation in work decisions; consultative participation, where employees give their opinions but have no veto or complete decision making power as for example in quality circles; short term participation in laboratory or training sessions; informal participation through interpersonal relationships between managers and subordinates; employee ownership schemes; and representative participation. Cotton et al. (1988) conclude that different forms of participation are associated with different but nonetheless positive outcomes such as increased productivity, job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, etc.. Other reviews (e.g., Dachler & Wilpert, 1978; Ganster & Fusilier, 1989) on the effects of increasing employee control through participation in decision-making have also reached similar conclusions.

In general, autonomy is a central concept of all theories of job redesign and it is thought to have causal relations with job satisfaction, motivation, and even alienation (Wall, 1982). Similarly, increased work place control through participation in decision making also has been positively associated with outcomes like productivity and satisfaction.

## 2.2: The Traditional Approach to Empowerment

The predominant view in the management literature has been the notion of empowerment as the granting of power by powerholders to the less powerful. This derives from sociological approaches to power that are concerned with the interpersonal, exchange, and transactional aspects of social interactions, in the context of organizations. The variables of interest are the structural aspects of the context of interactions, the distribution of scarce resources, and the division of labour. If employees lower down in the hierarchy lack the power to perform effectively, it follows that empowerment is the granting of the necessary power and the relinquishing of decision making authority, by those in power, higher up in the hierarchy.

Kanter (1977, 1983) is representative of this traditional approach to empowerment. Besides increased employee participation, the empowering strategies described by Kanter (1977) include, flattening the hierarchy, decentralization, reducing the number of veto barriers for decisions, opening communication channels, making system knowledge and information widely available, mentorship, and training programs. Kanter(1983) regards the extent of empowerment as being a function of the amount of "power tools" that an organizational actor possesses. The power tools are *information* (data, technical knowledge, political intelligence, expertise); *resources* (funds, materials, space, time); and *support* (endorsement, backing, approval legitimacy). This parallels Astley & Sachdeva (1984)'s classification of power sources into network centrality, resource dependency, and hierarchical authority.

Two recent empirical research studies in empowerment have adopted variations of the above view of empowerment. London (1993) defines empowerment as the "... (practice of) ensuring that the employee has the authority to do his or her job" (p. 57). Parker & Price (1994), on the other hand, focus on the recipient of this authority and refer to empowerment as

the "belief that one has control (i.e., the belief that one can influence decisions)" (p. 913).

### 2.3: Empowerment through Leadership

Leadership approaches to empowerment focus on the energizing aspect of the leader-follower interaction. Bennis & Nanus (1985) describe leadership as empowering others to translate intention to reality. Further, leaders are seen as influencing followers and subordinates by attracting and energizing them to an exciting vision of the future. They are said to motivate by identification rather than through rewards and punishments. The essential thrust of the leadership approach is that empowerment entails a transformation of the attitudes of the followers. Bennis & Nanus have identified four critical dimensions of empowerment that are characteristic of an empowered employee: significance (feeling of making a difference); competence (sense of mastery); community (sense of family); and enjoyment/fun (feeling of work as pleasure).

Other management researchers (see for example, Block, 1987; Burke, 1986; Conger, 1989; and Neilsen, 1986) have also stressed the role of leadership in empowering subordinates. According to Burke (1986), empowering strategies adopted by leaders include (a) providing direction through clearly expressed superordinate goals (b) stimulating followers through intellectually exciting ideas (c) rewarding informally through non-material rewards like recognition and (d) developing followers by urging and encouraging them to take on difficult challenges. Burke further distinguishes between leaders and managers by their choice of empowering strategies: "leaders empower via direction and inspiration and managers via action and participation" (p. 75). Block (1987) also endorses the inspiring aspect of empowering leadership when he refers to "creating a vision of greatness" as the first step toward empowerment.



#### 2.4: Empowerment as a Motivational Construct

Conger & Kanungo (1988) proposed that empowerment be conceptualized as a motivational construct. These authors focus on the psychological enabling aspect of empowerment, which derives from effort - performance expectations (as formulated by Lawler, 1973; Vroom, 1964) and efficacy expectations (Bandura, 1977). To Conger & Kanungo, enabling involves the development of a strong sense of personal efficacy. This leads them to 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" (p. 474). Having thus defined empowerment, the authors present a five stage process of empowerment. The first stage is a diagnosis of organizational conditions that lead to powerlessness. The issues considered are organizational level factors such as organizational changes, competitive pressures, centralization, etc.; supervision; reward systems; and job design. The diagnosis is followed by the use of empowering strategies which include participative management, goal setting, feedback, modelling, contingent/competence based rewards and job enrichment (Stage 2). The focus of these strategies is on providing self-efficacy information to subordinates (Stage 3). Subordinates feel empowered when they receive such information (Stage 4), which in turn leads to the behavioral effects of empowerment like the initiation and persistence of behaviour required to accomplish task objectives (Stage 5).

Consistent with Conger & Kanungo's (1988) treatment of empowerment as a motivational construct, Thomas & Velthouse (1990) conceptualized empowerment in terms of "changes in cognitive variables (called task assessments), which determine motivation in workers" (p. 667). Thomas & Velthouse prefer to think of power as energy: to empower then, is to energize. This line of reasoning leads these authors to operationalize

empowerment in terms of intrinsic task motivation. These authors propose an interpretive model where an individual's interpretive styles, along with cues in the environment, influence the individual's task assessments, and therefore his or her empowerment. Task assessments are beliefs about the *impact* (degree to which the behaviour "makes a difference"); *competence* (degree to which the person can perform the task activities skilfully); *meaningfulness* (value or degree of importance of the task goal to the person) and *choice* (the extent of personal causation for the behaviour). The higher the individual's assessment of these dimensions, the greater the empowerment. The authors envision empowerment interventions as those that change the environmental events upon which the individual bases the task assessments and those that change the individual's styles of interpreting these environmental events. Another model based on intrinsic task motivation is Spreitzer's (1993) formulation. This model is very similar to the Thomas & Velthouse (1990) model and its four dimensions of impact, competence, meaning, and self-determination, closely parallel that of the Thomas & Velthouse model.

A related self-influence approach is Manz's (1986) self-leadership theory. While Manz does not explicitly deal with empowerment, self-leadership theory includes elements such as self-efficacy, self-control, competence, and intrinsic motivation. According to Manz, it is self-leadership that enables individuals to gravitate towards naturally motivating tasks and to manage performance on tasks that have to be done, but which are not intrinsically motivating. Self-leadership strategies include choosing and working to create a work context that makes task performance enjoyable and building natural rewards into the work process (p. 593). Three natural reward elements identified by Manz are feelings of competence, self-control, and purpose. The perspective implicit here is that employees can empower themselves (in the intrinsic task motivation sense of Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) through self-influence processes.

### 2.5: Empowerment Research : The Need for Clarity and Integration

The four broad approaches to control and empowerment outlined above are testimony to the diversity of thinking on empowerment. For example, Burke (1986) equates empowerment with delegation, while Conger & Kanungo (1988) define empowerment as a self-efficacy belief. Others, led by Thomas & Velthouse (1990) conceptualize empowerment as intrinsic task motivation. One important concern that emerges from a review of these formulations is that of construct independence. If empowerment is equivalent to delegation or intrinsic task motivation, then the status of empowerment as a distinct construct is under question. Delegation has been extensively researched either directly as participation in decision-making (Dachler & Wilpert, 1978), or as part of work redesign (Hackman & Oldham, 1980) through the job characteristic of autonomy. Similarly, practices aimed at increasing intrinsic motivation such as job enrichment (Herzberg et al., 1959) and more recently high-involvement management (Lawler, 1986) have been well documented. By being equated to well established constructs such as those mentioned above, the construct of empowerment runs the risk of being reduced to the status of a fad, being no more than old wine in new bottle, or the latest catchy "buzzword". Thus, the task of clearly establishing empowerment as an independent and distinct construct worthy of scholarly research is of primary importance to empowerment researchers.

Secondly, it may be noted that these approaches address very different aspects of empowerment, suggesting multi-dimensionality of the empowerment construct. Further analysis of the above literature reveals many implicit assumptions that point in this direction. Consider, for instance, the work of many of the above researchers who view empowerment from a relational standpoint, focusing on the downward transfer of power in the organizational hierarchy. While dealing with various empowering techniques, or the effect of these techniques on the target employee, many of the above cited authors do not restrict themselves to the sharing of power, but implicitly

allude to a variety of intrapersonal motivational process. Burke (1986) provides an illustrative example. To Burke, empowerment is clearly synonymous with the delegation of power and authority: "To empower,...implies the granting of power - delegation of authority" (p.51). Yet, while discussing the differing empowering styles of leaders and managers, he notes that "...leaders empower via direction and inspiration and managers via action and participation" (p.75). The empowering strategies enumerated by Burke are: providing direction for followers and subordinates; stimulating followers and subordinates; rewarding followers and subordinates; developing followers and subordinates; and appealing to follower and subordinate needs. None of these strategies seem directly related to the relational dynamic of power sharing and delegation. Rather, they seem to pertain to processes such as transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), psychological identification, cognitive involvement and motivation. The following observation by Burke serve to highlight this point: *Empowerment comes from the stimulation of an intellectually exciting idea* (p.69) [Italics added].

In these instances cited above, Burke (1986) is referring to empowerment as a state of being of the target employees. Thus, even though empowerment is equated with the delegation of decision-making authority i.e., a relational dynamic, the process of empowerment is understood in terms of the mental states of the target employees, which is a psychological dynamic. This duality and the description of empowerment in terms of the way employees feel is characteristic of other researchers as well. For example, Belasco (1991) states that "empowerment occurs when people feel that they can do whatever it takes to satisfy their customers" (p. 2) [Emphasis added]. However, despite this "state of mind" approach, none of the authors cited above probe into the underlying psychological mechanisms of the empowerment process. It may be noted in contrast that the researchers in the motivationalist tradition focus primarily on the psychological state of the employees, dealing with variables such as self-efficacy (Conger & Kanungo,

1988), competence, and meaningfulness (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Even if we were to adopt exclusively a "state of mind" approach, we would still have to deal with the psychological dynamics of delegation, self-efficacy, and inspiring leadership. There is thus a need to explore the dimensionality of the empowerment construct.

A third issue of interest concerns the antecedents of employee empowerment. The structuralist tradition primarily posits organizational factors as the antecedents of empowerment (or its absence). Work in the leadership tradition as well as the Conger & Kanungo (1988) model emphasize the role of managerial practices in enhancing or discouraging employee empowerment. The Thomas & Velthouse (1990) model highlights the role of individual interpretive styles of assessment on the resulting empowerment. These formulations raise many questions that are as yet unanswered by empowerment research. For instance, what is the relative importance of these factors? Do they interact? For example, is the effect of managerial practices that enhance employee self-efficacy (and thus empowerment) nullified by the presence of environmental factors that promote powerlessness, such as a rigid hierarchical structure? Further, what is the role of employee perception of empowering practices as well as environmental factors? Do all employees react similarly to these managerial practices and environmental conditions? Thus, it would seem that role and nature of the antecedents of employee empowerment need to be clearly delineated.

A final consideration deals with the consequences of empowerment. While the business press has credited empowerment with increases in productivity, reduced costs, improved financial performance, enhanced morale, etc., there is a dearth of theoretical formulation and empirical research in this regard. It is well known that, given the host of intervening variables affecting productivity and financial performance, it is difficult to establish links between individual level variables and the various

organizational level performance indicators. On the other hand, it is certainly possible to establish links between individual empowerment and individual level outcomes. Conger & Kanungo (1988) refer to the "initiation/persistence of behavior to accomplish task objectives" (p.475), as the behavioral effect of empowerment. This rather general statement needs to be translated into testable hypotheses. Thomas & Velthouse (1990) list activity, concentration, initiative, resiliency and flexibility on the part of the individual as the possible behavioral consequences of empowerment. These authors further cite Tymon's (1988) dissertation study which found task assessments (which are thought to influence empowerment according to the Thomas & Velthouse model) to be strongly related to job satisfaction and stress and modestly related to supervisory ratings of performance. Further studies of this nature are required to support such findings.

## 2.6: Research Questions

The above discussion raises the following research questions:

- (a) Is employee empowerment as a construct distinct from or similar to existing constructs such as delegation, self-efficacy, and intrinsic task motivation ?
- (b) Is employee empowerment a multi-dimensional construct ?
- (c) What are the principal antecedents and consequences of employee empowerment?

The first of these questions deals with the very existence of employee empowerment as a distinct construct. Answering this question is important for continued scholarly research on empowerment and to counter scepticism regarding its conceptual novelty. The second question has to do with understanding the nature of employee empowerment. If empowerment is indeed a multi-dimensional construct, then much of existing research can be conceptually integrated. The last question leads to a comprehensive model

of employee empowerment and in turn to effective strategies for designing, implementing, and evaluating empowerment programs in organizations.

### 2.7: Research Strategy

The basic construct underlying the phenomenon of empowerment is power. Research on the nature of empowerment, therefore, has to begin with a fundamental understanding of power. In the present research, the construct of power is first analyzed. The existing literature on empowerment is then reinterpreted in the light of this analysis leading to an integrative definition of empowerment. Based on this formulation of empowerment, various antecedent and outcome variables are proposed resulting in an integrative framework of empowerment complete with propositions and testable hypotheses. Empirical investigations are then carried out to test the proposed theoretical framework.

### Chapter 3: Dynamics of Power and Empowerment

At the root of the empowerment construct is the concept of power. Approaches to the study of power can be broadly categorized as sociological and psychological. Sociological approaches to power are concerned with the interpersonal, exchange, and transactional aspects of social interactions. Psychological treatments of power and control on the other hand, are intrapersonal, and hence are concerned with the personal nature of power. They deal with power through concepts such as the power motive and through expectancy belief-states that are internal to the individual like locus of control, self-determination, and self-efficacy. The present research emphasizes the psychological perspective with the aim of arriving at an understanding of the psychological states underlying the experience of empowerment.

#### 3.1: Sociological Approaches to Power

Sociological approaches treat power as potential influence in the context of social interaction. The variables of interest are the structural aspects of the context of interactions, the distribution of scarce resources, and the division of labour. Bacharach & Lawler (1980) make a useful distinction between the bases of power and the sources of power in the context of interpersonal exchanges or transactions. Bases of power refer to the "what" that power-holders control that enable them to manipulate the behaviour of others. Sources of power refer to the nature or mode of acquisition of these bases of power by the power holders. French & Raven (1959) identified five bases of social power: reward; coercive; legitimate; referent; and expert. In terms of the popular "A-B model", A's power over B is a function of the bases of power A has and B's perception of the same (French & Raven, 1959). Reward and coercive power (of A over B) derive from A's ability to reward or punish B. In the case of legitimate power, B perceives that A has the



legitimate right to influence him or her. A's referent power over B is based on B's identification with A, while A's expert power over B is based on the attribution of expertness to A by B. From an exchange perspective, both A and B bring into an exchange things that are mutually desirable and power cannot exist in the absence of such interdependence (Pfeffer, 1981).

Most treatments of power in organizations deal with the sources of power. In organizational interactions, sources of power can be classified into three main categories: hierarchical authority, resource dependency/control, and network centrality (Astley & Sachdeva, 1984). Hierarchical authority is the most formal source of power in organizations, whose base is largely legitimate. Persons in positions of authority have the formal right of decision-making. Authority often permits the control of the decision premises, the control of the considered alternatives, and information about these alternatives. A second important source of power is the control of resources. Positions which provide an opportunity for the control of resources tend to acquire power. Resources can be monetary or otherwise (e.g., in the form of expert knowledge/information which is scarce or irreplaceable). Finally, since organizations can be thought of as a network of resource dependencies, the centrality of a given position in this network serves as an additional source of power; the more central the position, the greater the power, since a centrally located position acts as a conduit for integrating the more discrete functional contributions of others who are not directly related. Thus from a sociological viewpoint, power is the capacity to effect (or affect) organizational outcomes (Mintzberg, 1983).

### 3.2: Psychological Approaches to Power

Psychologists have tended to treat power and control as motivating factors and/or as expectancy belief states within the individual. In the rest of this chapter, various psychological approaches to power will be examined.

### 3.2.1: Power as a Motive

Sampson (1965) referred to power as a compensatory mechanism to overcome insecurity and weakness. A predominant approach to power has been to treat it as an internal urge or drive, to influence and control others. This has been referred to as the power motive or need for power (McClelland, 1961; Winter, 1973).

McClelland (1975) further developed this notion of power motive using a two by two matrix of power orientation which corresponds to the stages of ego-development proposed by Erikson (1963). The two dimensions of the matrix are the source of power (outside or inside oneself) and the object of power (oneself or someone/something outside oneself). According to McClelland, depending on one's "stage of development", one uses different strategies to fulfil one's power motive. Thus, in Stage I, where the source of power is outside oneself and the object of power is the self, the individual's orientation is to draw strength from others. Stage II (self acting on self) is characterized by an "I strengthen myself" orientation where individuals try to have control over themselves and feel independent. In Stage III (self acting on others/other things) the individual tries to have an impact on others and feels powerful by controlling others or events. In Stage IV (outside source of power acting on others/other things), the individual believes himself or herself to be an agent of a higher power or principle in the act of influencing others. To McClelland, the organizational member, for instance a manager, who subordinates his or her personal goals to that of the organization and hence influences others for "the good of the organization", is an example of an individual operating in Stage IV orientation.

### 3.2.2: Power as Perceived Control

Thus, from the perspective of the individual, to have power is to experience a sense of control. Perceived control has received the attention of psychologists in research on locus of control (Rotter, 1966), effectance

motivation (White, 1959), personal causation (De Charms, 1968), intrinsic motivation (Deci, 1975), and helplessness (Seligman, 1975). Rotter (1966) distinguished between internal and external locus of control. Persons with internal locus of control have a tendency to perceive an event that follows some action of theirs as being primarily contingent upon their own behaviour or their own relatively permanent characteristics. On the other hand, persons with external locus of control would tend to perceive the event as being primarily contingent on factors such as luck, the behaviour of powerful others, or unpredictable forces (Rotter, 1966). These latter class of persons are more likely to exhibit behaviors such as passivity, withdrawal, compliance, and conformity.

Many researchers have proposed that the desire for control is an innate characteristic of man. Adler (1956) claimed that control was an intrinsic necessity of life. White (1959) also refers to an intrinsic need to exercise control over the environment. To De Charms (1968), "Man's primary motivational propensity is to be effective in producing changes in his environment. Man strives to be a causal agent, to be the primary locus of causation for, or the origin of, his behavior; he strives for personal causation" (p. 269). De Charms (1968) also makes a useful distinction between "origins" and "pawns" (p. 273). An origin is a person who perceives his or her behaviour as determined by himself or herself, while a pawn is a person who perceives his or her behaviour as determined by external forces beyond his or her control. Thus an origin has a high sense of perceived control. De Charms points out that this distinction is continuous rather than discrete, i.e., a person could feel more like an origin under some circumstances, while under others he or she could feel more like a pawn. Perceiving oneself to be an origin or a pawn has behavioral implications. An origin has a strong feeling of personal causation which acts as a powerful motivational force influencing future behaviour. In contrast, a pawn experiences strong feelings of powerlessness and ineffectiveness.

This sense of perceived control is contingent on the ability to competently deal with the surrounding environment and the problems that arise therein. To White (1959), competence refers to one's ability or capacity to deal effectively with one's environment. He called the underlying need the competence motive or *effectance motivation*. Effectance motivation causes behaviour that leads to feelings of efficacy and self-determination. Based on this conceptualization, Deci (1975), defined intrinsically motivated behaviours as those behaviours engaged in by a person to feel competent and self-determining (p. 61). It follows that, if feelings of efficacy and self-determination lead to perceived control, any action that increases feelings of efficacy and self-determination would be empowering in nature.

The consequences of a perceived lack of control has also been studied by researchers in the area of learned helplessness. Learned helplessness (Abrahamson, Garber, & Seligman, 1980), refers to a psychological state characterized by motivational, cognitive, and emotional deficits, as a result of expectations of future uncontrollability of outcomes, the expectations themselves being the result of repeated exposure to non-contingent or uncontrollable outcomes. The condition of learned helplessness is characterized by retarded initiation of voluntary responses (motivational deficit), difficulty in perceiving a relationship between responses and outcomes when they exist (cognitive deficit), and depression (emotional deficit).

A related concept is Rothbaum, Weisz, and Snyder's (1982) distinction between primary and secondary control. Primary control is through direct action on the environment, while secondary control is through changing one's internal states and beliefs to cope with the external environment. However, the emphasis of these authors is on the use of secondary control to cope with uncontrollable events in the environment.

In sum, power-holders experience power if they can perceive themselves as having control over the actions of others in the context of social

interaction. From a purely psychological perspective, this corresponds to Stage III in McClelland's frame work, where the individual sees himself or herself as the source of power influencing others and events. Feelings of power can also come from the experience of autonomy and self-determination. This corresponds to McClelland's Stage II where the individual sees himself or herself as being independent. The above formulations suggest that a sense of perceived control is vital for feelings of power. It follows that, the lack of perceived control should correspond to a state of powerlessness. Seeman (1959) referred to powerlessness as a variation of alienation, where the individual perceives a lack of control over important work and life events. According to Ashforth (1989), feelings of helplessness ultimately lead to an experience of powerlessness in the organizational context.

#### 3.2.2a: Perceived Control and Empowerment

Perceived control thus seems to be the primary psychological state underlying the experience of empowerment. This proposition is supported by the bulk of research on empowerment. In the social sciences, empowerment has mainly been studied in connection with women and minority groups. The four general phenomena that one can discern in the approaches to empowerment of groups are: striving for freedom or autonomy, as in the case of the Afro-American (e.g., see Evans, 1987) ; organizing for political representation, as in the case of Americans of Latin American origin (e.g., see Neighbor & Villareal, 1988); development of a distinct identity (Evans, 1987); and development of capabilities and self- confidence (e.g., see Solomon, 1976). These phenomena can be related to perceived control and a sense of self-determination. This implies that the result of the empowerment effort should be manifested in feelings of perceived control in the empowered individuals. Trickett's (1991) case study supports this contention. The case describes the creation of an alternative high school in New Haven, Connecticut, in a predominantly black neighbourhood, using empowerment

concepts. Trickett describes empowerment as the "feeling of being heard" (p. 141):

"Students, parents and teachers all felt that they had the power to influence the school if they so desired" (p. 141).

"... the overall impact of the school suggests that empowerment, defined as feelings of influence, was real" (p. 141).

Clearly then, the underlying psychological mechanism in community empowerment is the feeling of perceived control experienced by community members.

The treatment of empowerment in the business press and traditional structuralist approaches to empowerment referred to in Chapters 1 and 2, emphasizes perceived control. Delegation of decision-making authority, increased work autonomy, increased participation, increased availability of "power tools" (Kanter, 1983) such as information, resources and support, all serve to directly increase the employees' sense of perceived control. According to House (1988), empowered employees are those who feel confident and in control of their environments. Motivational models like those of Conger and Kanungo (1988) and Thomas and Velthouse (1990) also include elements of perceived control. Conger and Kanungo (1988) emphasize the removal of organizational conditions that lead to powerlessness as the first stage of the empowerment process. The Thomas and Velthouse model includes two constructs that reflect a sense of perceived control: impact (the degree to which the individual's behavior makes a difference) and choice (the extent of personal causation for the behavior).

### 3.2.3: Power as Perceived Competence

In the above section, feelings of power, conceptualized as perceived control was linked to feelings of competence in dealing with the environment. If this line of thinking is extended to the level of a specific activity or behavior, a belief in one's personal capability to perform the activity or

behavior can also lead to feelings of power. This belief in personal competence is commonly referred to as self-efficacy.

Wood and Bandura (1989) refer to self-efficacy as "beliefs in one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (p. 408). The individual forms these beliefs based on available efficacy information. Bandura (1977) identified four such sources of efficacy information: enactive attainment (or through actual task performance); vicarious experience (or through observing others); verbal persuasion (or through the statements of others); and emotional arousal. Bandura further pointed out that efficacy beliefs determine the effort people will expend at a given task as also their persistence in the face of obstacles. It also affects the choice of behavioral settings and initiation of effort. People tend to avoid situations that they believe would exceed their coping skills. On the other hand, they get involved in activities which they believe to be within their power to handle. It follows that, an increase in self-efficacy beliefs will result in increased feelings of power. It may be noted that this conceptualization of the experience of power was shown as a specific case of the more general competence motive (White, 1959). However, perceived control referred to in the previous section emphasizes effects on the environment/others and the choice of one's actions, while self-efficacy beliefs focus on personal performance capabilities.

### 3.2.3a: Perceived Competence and Empowerment

Conger and Kanungo (1988) conceptualize empowerment as psychological enabling through the enhanced self-efficacy beliefs. To these authors increases in self-efficacy would lead to increased empowerment. This proposition has also been endorsed by other empowerment researchers under the label of competence. Bennis and Nanus (1985) identified competence as a critical dimension of empowerment. These authors characterized competence as an increased sense of mastery. In the Thomas and Velthouse

(1990) model, competence (degree to which the person can perform the task activities skilfully) is an individual assessment or belief about the task. The higher the individual's assessment of competence the greater the empowerment. To Manz (1986), feelings of competence is a natural reward of self-leadership strategies. Thus, a sense of competence seems to be another significant psychological state underlying the experience of empowerment.

#### 3.2.4: Power as Being Energized Toward Achieving Valued Goals

The word power also has the sense of physical energy. The effectance motivation (White, 1959), the need for personal causation (De Charms, 1968), and the need for self-determination (Deci, 1975) discussed earlier are all sources of energy which in turn lead to specific behaviors. Another important source of energy for the individual, in the context of empowerment is that of a goal, typically in the form of a valued cause, a meaningful purpose, or an exciting project. The energizing power of the goal is well documented in history in connection with wars and struggles for freedom and autonomy. It was also the power of the goal that energized missionaries in the 17th and 18th centuries.

##### 3.2.4a: The Need for Involvement

It may be noted that in the case of patriotic soldiers, zealous missionaries, or minority groups struggling for autonomy and self-determination, the beneficiaries of their actions were either these individuals themselves or an entity they closely identified with. However, in the organizational context, predominantly characterized by contractual relationships between the organization and the employee, the same cannot be assumed. Why would employees be enthusiastic about a new product or a total quality program, where they cannot readily see accrued personal benefits? They would be inspired by the goal alone to the extent that it is



intrinsically motivating. In the sense used here, an intrinsically motivating goal is one which generates energy for action due to its positive appeal to the individual. The goal may be appealing to the individual for any number of reasons. It could be congruent with personal values, it could provide clarity, meaning, and a sense of purpose, it could be intellectually stimulating and challenging and it could be seen as a possible solution to a salient problem. Intuitively, the more involved the individual is with the goal, the more the energy generated. Here, involvement is used in the sense of psychological identification (Kanungo, 1982).

At the level of the task, the above formulation has gained wide acceptance. In Hackman and Oldham's (1980) model, the variables of task identity (the degree to which a job requires completion of a whole or identifiable piece of work) and task significance (the degree to which the task has substantial impact on the lives of other people) lead to experienced meaningfulness of work, which in turn leads to internal work motivation. At the level of the goal, this formulation has gained ground among researchers on a particular class of leadership practices variously known as visionary leadership, inspirational leadership, charismatic leadership, and more generally, transformational leadership.

#### 3.2.4b: Transformational Leadership

The transformation of the attitudes of followers (or employees in the organizational context) is the aim of a broad class of leadership practices subsumed under the label of transformational leadership. Charismatic leaders win over employees by the appeal of a clearly articulated vision that is meaningful (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Inspirational leaders arouse motivations in their followers to transcend self-interest for the good of the team (Bass, 1985). Burns (1978) differentiated transformational leadership from transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is built around the notion of social exchange with the leader eliciting desired behaviour from the

followers in exchange for valued rewards. In transformational leadership on the other hand, the leader seeks to modify the behaviour of the followers by producing a change in their attitudes and beliefs. Burns likened transformational leadership to the creation of an ideological movement united by a high moral purpose. The transformational leader effects major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of the organizational members and builds commitment for the organization's mission, objectives and strategies (Yukl, 1989). According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders transform the followers by activating their higher order needs, making them more aware of the importance of their tasks and by inducing them to transcend self-interest for the sake of the organization. Transformational leadership assumes added importance in times of organizational crisis where the organization needs to undergo radical transformation and revitalization for survival.

#### 3.2.4c: Transformational Leadership and Empowerment

Several authors have linked transformational leadership as described above and empowerment as described in Chapter 2. According to Yukl (1989), the effect of the transformational influence is to empower subordinates to participate in the process of transforming the organization. Conger (1989) asserts that empowering subordinates is a major component of leadership. Burke (1986) has emphasized the role of leaders in empowering subordinates through providing clarity of direction; *"but not just any direction - a direction that encompasses a higher purpose, a worthy cause, an idea, and will require collective and concerted effort"* (p.69) [Italics added]. Burke also lists stimulating followers with an intellectually exciting idea as an empowerment strategy. Bennis and Nanus (1985) recommend a leadership style that attracts and energizes people to an exciting vision of the future: *"it (the style) motivates by identification, rather than through rewards and punishments"* (p.80)[Italics added]. Bennis and Nanus contend that this style of leadership is linked to four critical dimensions of empowerment:

*significance* ( the feeling of making a difference both for the organization and in the greater context of the world); *competence* (development and learning on the job and increased sense of self-mastery); *community* (sense of family, interdependence, and common purpose); and *enjoyment/fun* (work as a pleasing, enjoyable experience). It may be noted that feelings of significance, community, and enjoyment/fun reflect the appeal of ideas. The transformational leader empowers by enhancing these four dimensions through the transformation of the attitudes and beliefs of the followers.

A common theme in the above approaches to transformational leadership is the building of employee involvement and employee commitment to organizational objectives. Block (1987) squarely links these notions to empowerment when he states that to feel empowered is (a) to feel responsible for one's actions, (b) to have sense of purpose in achieving something worthwhile, and (c) to commit to achieving that purpose. In the organizational context, this sense of purpose comes from the employee identifying with the objectives and goals of the organization and clearly understanding his or her role in their attainment. This process is greatly enhanced by the leader clearly articulating an inspiring vision. It is important that the vision is expressed in a form that is relevant to the needs and concerns of the followers. Bass (1985) also stresses this point when he states that transformational leaders induce additional effort on the part of the subordinates not only by focusing on transcendental interests but also by elevating the value of outcomes for subordinates.

### 3.3: Summary

In this chapter, the phenomenon of power was examined predominantly from a psychological perspective. The various aspects of power considered germane to the psychological experience of empowerment include the notion of power as perceived control, as perceived competence, and as being energized toward achieving valued goals. In the present research, the approach to empowerment adopted is based on the above psychological perspective.

## Chapter 4: Empowerment: An Integrative Framework

The word empowerment has been used by researchers and practitioners in many different ways. A major cause for the apparent differences in defining empowerment is the underlying semantics. The word "empowerment" can be used to denote the act of empowering (others) or to describe the internal processes of the individual being empowered. Consequently, the definition of the term empowerment would differ depending on the perspective adopted. Adopting the former perspective would lead to empowerment being defined as a set of strategies, while the latter perspective would lead to a definition that describes the inner experience of the employee. Thus, since researchers in the sociological tradition use the former sense of the word, their definitions of empowerment typically are action oriented (e.g., delegation, participatory goal setting, etc.). On the other hand, since psychological theorists favour the latter use of the word, typically their definitions are process oriented (e.g., enhancing feelings of self-efficacy, increasing intrinsic task motivation, etc.). Clearly, the cause of empowerment research would be furthered by explicitly recognizing this distinction and by adopting a standard terminology.

### 4.1: Defining Empowerment

The emphasis of the present research is on the state of mind of the individual employee. Keeping in mind the issue of semantics discussed above and in line with the analyses presented in Chapter 2, the definition adopted is as follows:

*In the organizational context, the empowered state is a cognitive state characterized by a sense of perceived control, competence, and goal internalization.*

In the above definition, the qualifier "in the organizational context" is added to distinguish employee empowerment from a more general usage of the term empowerment. Henceforth, the term empowerment is used to mean employee empowerment unless otherwise indicated. Empowerment, as used here, refers to the individual psychological state of being empowered, rather than the act of empowering. This distinction is essential for three reasons. Firstly, the act of empowering is usually undertaken by an external agent, for example, the manager, while the focus of the present research is on the effect of such acts on the employee. Secondly, the act of empowering can be studied, in general, only in terms of specific empowering techniques. As noted in Chapter 1, empowering techniques range from initiatives such as flexitime to employee ownership programs. The present research is not concerned with the study of any particular technique or the relative efficacy of different techniques. Rather, the focus is on the inner experience of the individual employee who is the target of the empowering techniques. Thirdly, acts of empowering initiated by the organization need not necessarily result in employees feeling empowered. On the otherhand, employees may feel empowered in a given organization even if there are no conscious efforts to empower employees. The present research addresses this issue by focusing on the empowered state, rather than the presence or absence of conscious empowering efforts.

#### 4.1.1: Empowerment as a Multi-dimensional Construct

As the above definition indicates, empowerment is considered to be a multi-dimensional construct. The first dimension is that of perceived control which is the extent to which the employee believes he or she can affect the work environment. This includes beliefs about authority, decision-making latitude, availability of resources, autonomy in the scheduling and performance of work, etc.. This dimension of perceived control intuitively corresponds to the traditional approach to empowerment. Consider, for

example Kanter's (1983) approach to empowerment. Providing employees with *power tools* such as information, resources, and support increases their sense of perceived control.

The second dimension is that of perceived competence, which is the extent to which the employee believes he or she is capable of executing the behaviors required to deal with and successfully accomplish tasks required by his or her role. This formulation is analogous to the construct of self-efficacy but the term perceived competence is preferred since self-efficacy is a task specific construct (Bandura, 1977). Here the intent is to capture role-mastery, which besides requiring the skilful accomplishment of one or more assigned tasks, requires successful coping with non-routine role-related situations. This dimension of perceived competence primarily corresponds to Conger and Kanungo's (1988) notion of empowerment as a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy. Providing efficacy information and the removal of conditions that foster powerlessness should lead to an increased sense of perceived competence. It may be recalled that the dimension of competence has also been alluded to by other empowerment researchers such as Thomas and Velthouse (1990), Spreitzer (1993), and Bennis and Nanus (1985).

The third dimension is that of goal internalization, which is the extent to which the employee has internalized organizational goals and objectives. The greater the goal internalization, the greater the identification with the goals and objectives of the organization. This dimension captures the energizing aspect of valued goals discussed earlier. It relates to the sense of purpose and inspiration experienced by employees who are committed to achieving work objectives which are, in their minds, clearly linked to valued organizational objectives. Goal internalization corresponds most closely to the empowered state desired by advocates of the leadership approach to empowerment. Transformational leaders are keen to portray organizational objectives as valued goals and their efforts are successful to the extent that followers psychologically identify with the mission of the organization. Goal

internalization is also the empowered state attained under Burke's (1986) notion of empowering leadership, Bennis and Nanus's (1985) idea of energizing leadership, and Block's (1987) formulation of empowerment as a feeling of responsibility, purpose, and commitment.

The above formulation implies that empowerment is some positive additive function of these three dimensions. From the perspective of the individual employee, an empowered employee is one who can say:

1. "I have control over my work and work context";
2. "I have the personal competence to do my work"; and
3. "I am personally energized by the goals and objectives of my organization".

These three beliefs in turn reflect, respectively, affirmative answers to the three basic questions:

1. "Do I have control of resources as well as the necessary authority and influence to successfully perform my work?";
2. "Am I personally capable of doing my work?"; and
3. "Am I willing to work for the attainment of organizational objectives?".

#### 4.1.2: Orthogonality of dimensions

Thus far, the three dimensions have been presented as orthogonal, or independent of each other. Though the dimensions are conceptually distinct, there could be some empirical relation between the dimensions of perceived control and perceived competence. Consider for example, the practice of delegation which in the present formulation is expected to increase perceived control. Delegation in the organizational context implies the transfer (or more appropriately sharing) of decision-making authority. The objective of increasing the decision-making authority is to enable the subordinate to take action on task-relevant issues without needing permission from above. This could enhance competence perceptions in two ways. Successful application

of authority resulting in desired outcomes leads to increased feelings of competence. This is analogous to the increase in self-efficacy through *enactive attainment* (Bandura, 1977). Secondly, being cognitively aware that one has the authority to make decisions also increases feelings of competence. This route to perceived competence can be considered as a variant of *verbal persuasion* referred to by Bandura (1977).

There is therefore, an a priori possibility of an empirical non-orthogonal relationship between the constructs of perceived control and perceived competence. The focus of the perceived control construct however, is on issues such as decision-making authority, control over work process, and work independence, while the focus of the perceived competence construct is on the personal belief about self-efficacy or the capability to cope with role demands, i.e., the two dimensions are formulated as being conceptually distinct.

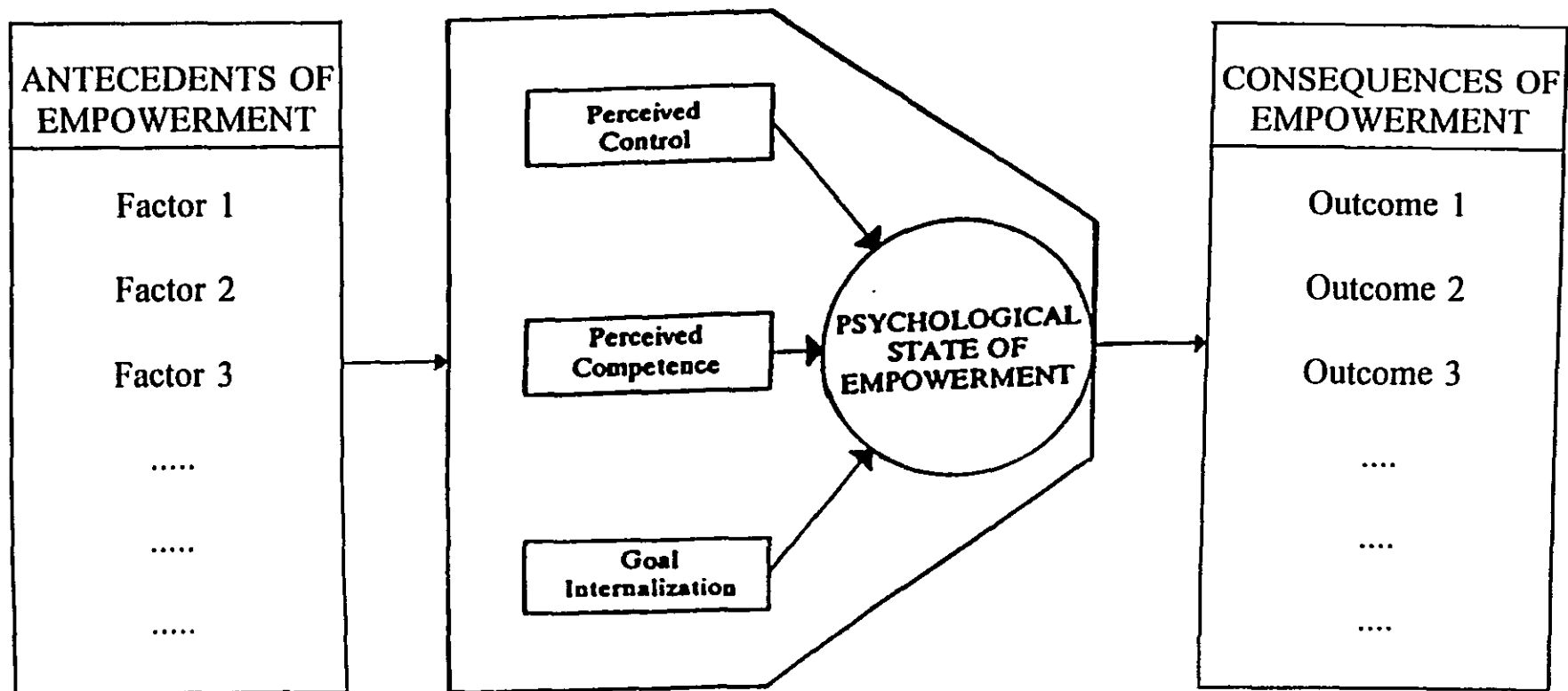
Although the dimensions of perceived control, perceived competence, and goal internalization are formulated as being conceptually distinct, it must be noted that they are conceptualized as *sub-dimensions* of empowerment. It can therefore be expected that, empirically, these three sub-dimensions would be positively related to each other.

#### 4.1.3: An Integrative Framework

Based on the above conceptualization, it is possible to build and test a comprehensive model of empowerment. Figure 1 shows the general outline of this model. Antecedent conditions are shown to be leading to the state of empowerment, which in turn results in consequences. The rest of this chapter is concerned with identifying specific antecedent conditions and consequences. Each antecedent condition and consequence is linked to empowerment with specific propositions. In turn, these propositions lead to testable hypotheses.



**FIGURE 1**  
**General Outline of the Integrative Model of Empowerment**



## 4.2: Antecedents of Empowerment

Review of the literature on empowerment reveals that the factors that are thought to result in or affect empowerment can be classified into two broad categories - context factors and managerial practices. For the purposes of the present analysis, context factors are further classified into organizational level context factors and job level context factors. These factors can either promote powerlessness (hence prevent empowerment) or encourage empowerment.

### 4.2.1: Organizational Level Context Factors

Organization level context factors refer to factors in the internal work environment of the organization that are shared by employees regardless of their individual positions. The factors considered here are perceived uncertainty in the work environment, degree of formalization, degree of centralization, perceived effectiveness of communication, and the perceived fairness of reward systems.

#### 4.2.1a: Perceived Uncertainty in the Work Environment

Significant organizational changes, start-up ventures, and competitive pressures could lead to powerlessness as the associated uncertainty generates anxiety related to the future of the organization, job security, etc. Individuals might fear whole-sale erosion of jobs and responsibilities or may feel diffident about acquiring new skills required to function in the restructured environment. This could seriously affect their sense of control and competence (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). This in turn would increase feelings of powerlessness and hence detract from empowerment. Therefore,

Proposition 1 : Increased perceived uncertainty in the work environment will lead to decreased perceptions of control and hence to lower (individual feelings of) empowerment.

#### 4.2.1b: Formalization

Impersonal bureaucratic conditions that inhibit self-expression and autonomy could also detract from empowerment. Block (1987) squarely blames the bureaucratic mentality which emphasizes rules and encourages avoidance of responsibility, for the absence of empowerment in many organizations. House (1988) also points out that empowerment cannot take place in bureaucratic organizations that stress symbols of power, hierarchical differentiation, social stratification between hierarchical levels, and identification with positions. According to Kanter(1983), inequities in the distribution of power arising from bureaucratic differentiation lead to increased employee powerlessness. A distinguishing characteristic of bureaucracy is formalization or the extent to which the norms of an organization are explicitly formulated (Hall, 1982), especially in written form. Increased bureaucracy in organizations is characterized by the increased reliance on explicit rules and routines, formal written procedures and established rules of behavior. These explicit rules, procedures and excessive documentation inhibit self-expression and limit employee autonomy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Kanter, 1983), perceptions of control and competence, and in turn feelings of empowerment. Hence,

Proposition 2: Increased formalization will lead to decreased perceptions of control and competence and hence to lower empowerment.

#### 4.2.1c: Centralization

Centralization refers to the distribution of decision-making authority in an organization. It reflects the participation of employees in decision-making. It also is a reflection of the faith in the capabilities of employees. As the extent of centralization increases perceptions of control and competence decrease, leading to reduced empowerment. This is the concern addressed

by practitioners and researchers who advocate delegation as the principal empowering strategy (e.g., Burke, 1986). Centralization has also been used to refer to the degree to which power is differentially distributed within an organization (Hall, 1982). Maximum centralization would exist if all power rested in the hands of one individual. The above formulations indicate that,

Proposition 3: Increased centralization will lead to decreased perceptions of control and competence and hence to lower empowerment.

#### 4.2.1d: Effective Communication

Communication refers to the degree to which information is transmitted among members of an organization (Price & Mueller, 1986). Employees receive information about their work and work environment through various sources including their immediate supervisor, co-workers and peers, executive addresses, official communication in the form of reports, newsletters, etc. For Kanter (1983), information is an important "power tool" that empowers employees. Poor communications and lack of network forming systems are among the organizational factors listed by Conger and Kanungo (1988), that lead to powerlessness. Information increases perceptions of control over the environment. Hence,

Proposition 4: Poor communication in an organization will lead to lower perceptions of control and hence to lower empowerment.

#### 4.2.1e: Reward Systems

Non-contingent or arbitrary reward allocations that do not recognize employee competence, initiative, and persistence of innovative job behaviours increase a sense of powerlessness (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). If rewards (or punishments) in an organization are not related to employee inputs it affects

perceptions of control, since the employee no longer feels that his or her outcomes are affected by his or her actions. Outcomes which are not related to inputs could also result in perceptions of inequity and low distributive justice which is the degree to which rewards and punishments are related to performance inputs (Price & Mueller, 1986). This also should result in lower perceptions of control and hence to lower empowerment. Thus,

Proposition 5: The more non-contingent or arbitrary the reward systems in an organization, the lower the perceptions of control and hence the lower the empowerment.

#### 4.2.2: Job Level Context Factors

Jobs characterized by lack of challenge and meaning, lack of autonomy and role clarity, and unrealistic goals, also contribute to employee powerlessness (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). That is, characteristics of the job itself could detract from empowerment. According to Hackman & Oldham's (1980) job characteristic model, task significance and job autonomy lead to the psychological states of experienced meaningfulness and responsibility respectively. In the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model, favourable task assessments on the dimensions of meaningfulness and choice lead to the empowered state. Additionally, job feedback can provide valuable efficacy information, whose effect is similar to Bandura's (1977) enactive attainment. In the present model, increased job autonomy, feedback, and meaningfulness will have the largest impact on increasing perceived control, perceived competence, and goal internalization respectively. Thus,

Proposition 6: The greater the job autonomy, the greater the perceived control and hence greater the empowerment.

Proposition 7: The greater the job feedback, the greater the perceived competence and hence greater the empowerment.

Proposition 8: The greater the meaningfulness of the job, the greater the goal internalization and hence greater the empowerment.

Two other job-related factors that could influence empowerment are role ambiguity and role conflict. Role ambiguity is the degree to which role requirements (or expectations) and the manner of meeting these requirements is unclear. Individuals may experience role ambiguity because they are unsure of task objectives, the extent of their authority, or the behavior expected of them. Increased role ambiguity affects perceptions of control and predictability of outcomes. This in turn could lower feelings of empowerment. Role conflict occurs when the individual is subject to conflicting role demands or expectations. For example, individuals may be subject to conflicting work directives from superiors or may have difficulty fulfilling the obligations of multiple roles. Since the individual is forced to choose between competing demands, perceptions of control over work and perceptions of competence about dealing with role demands decrease and this results in reduced empowerment. Thus,

Proposition 9: The greater the role ambiguity, the lower the perceptions of control, hence lower the empowerment.

Proposition 10: The greater the role conflict, the lower the perceptions of control and competence, hence lower the empowerment.

#### 4.2.3: Managerial Behaviors that Empower

Another important influence on empowerment is the managerial and leadership behavior that the individual is exposed to. The managerial

behavior of the immediate supervisor can either promote or prevent empowerment. Supervisory styles that could result in powerlessness are authoritarian in nature and are characterized by lack of employee discretion, unexplained arbitrary acts, and negativism or an emphasis on failures (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). On the other hand, a number of behaviors can enhance empowerment. These include delegation, consulting, recognizing employee contributions, inspiring, and mentoring.

#### 4.2.3a: Delegation

Delegation or the transfer of power and authority has a direct effect on empowerment. The knowledge that one has the power to take decisions affecting one's work and work environment increases perceptions of control. In contrast, authoritarian styles of supervision can detract from perceptions of control; rather they promote feelings of powerlessness and helplessness. Thus,

Proposition 11: The higher the delegation behaviors of the immediate supervisor, the greater the perceptions of control, hence greater the empowerment.

#### 4.2.3b: Consulting

Consulting behaviors are those behaviors that invite the subordinate to suggest improvements and innovations regarding his or her work and major work-related changes. Consulting behaviors gain credibility with subordinates only to the extent that the subordinates feel that their suggestions or expressed concerns are being listened to and acted upon. In this event, subordinates feel that they have an influence on their work environments which enhances feelings of control. As Trickett (1991) says empowerment is the feeling of "being heard" (p. 141). Consulting also promotes self-respect and self-worth. Consulting behavior on the part of the

superior is an expression of confidence in the subordinates' capabilities and it thereby boosts perceptions of competence. Hence,

Proposition 12: The greater the consulting behavior displayed by the immediate supervisor, the greater the perceptions of control and competence, hence greater the empowerment.

A related issue is that of participative decision-making. The extent of participation (by employees) in decision-making can vary from zero (autocratic decision-making) to one hundred per cent, where employees make decisions and inform the management through their representatives. Consulting employees is an option that lies somewhere along this continuum, wherein employees provide inputs but the manager still takes the decisions. The extent of participation as a variable affecting empowerment has already been addressed through the variable centralization in section 4.2.1c.

#### 4.2.3c: Recognizing

Recognizing behaviors involve the expression of appreciation for special effort on the part of the employee in terms of creativity, initiative, perseverance, special contributions, improvements, etc. Recognizing behavior provides direct feedback and reinforcement to the employees' efficacy perceptions. This is similar to Bandura's (1986) treatment of verbal persuasion in which verbal feedback and words of encouragement enhance self-efficacy. Leaders often invoke images of past and present successes to empower subordinates (Conger, 1986; Deal & Kennedy, 1982) by increasing efficacy beliefs. Thus,

Proposition 13: The greater the recognizing behavior displayed by the immediate superior, the greater the perceptions of competence, hence greater the empowerment.



#### 4.2.3d: Inspiring

Inspiring behavior deals with persuasively articulating a goal or vision that subordinates can identify with. Inspiring behavior often includes expressing a vision that appeals to a sense of pride or higher mission. According to the "leadership school" of empowerment (see section 2.3), setting inspirational and meaningful goals directly leads to empowerment (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Block, 1987). Inspiring behavior empowers by generating enthusiasm for achieving the goal or vision. The inspiring behavior that the employee is exposed to is not limited to the immediate supervisor. It is often the case that a visionary or charismatic leader in the office of the president or CEO inspires employees. (e.g., Lee Iacocca of Chrysler and Mary Kay Ash of Mary Kay Cosmetics). Hence,

Proposition 14: The greater the inspiring behavior displayed by superiors, the greater the goal internalization, hence greater the empowerment.

#### 4.2.3e: Mentoring

Mentoring behavior in this context refers to nurturing and developing the subordinates in terms of their ability to take on increasingly greater responsibilities. Mentoring behavior includes providing opportunities to develop job-related skills, assigning challenging tasks or special assignments that allow subordinates to test and demonstrate higher skill levels, offering strategic advice on career advancement, encouraging subordinates to attend training programs, etc. Such mentoring behavior can be empowering to the extent that the subordinates feel more in control of their work environment and develop a sense of competence with respect to their work. Hence,

Proposition 15: The greater the mentoring behavior displayed by superiors, the greater the perceptions of control and competence, hence greater the empowerment.

#### 4.2.4: Interactive Effects of Context Factors and Managerial Behaviors

It is possible that the effect of context factors on empowerment could be influenced by managerial and leadership behaviors. For instance, employees in an organization undergoing large-scale restructuring and down-sizing may tend to feel powerless due to the increased uncertainty, perceived loss of control, and accompanying anxiety. But this could be mitigated to a large extent by leadership behavior which is reassuring to the employee. Such behaviors would include clearly articulating and communicating the nature and scope of the change, the reasons for the change and its significance in the broader strategic vision; involving the employees through delegation and consultation; and inspiring employees to embrace the principles behind the change. On the other hand, the effect of managerial behaviors that promote empowerment may be blunted by factors such as an inflexible reward system or poorly designed jobs. Thus,

Proposition 16: The effect of context factors on empowerment will be moderated by the effect of managerial behaviors that enhance empowerment; and vice versa.

#### 4.3: The Role of Individual Differences

Approaches to empowerment rooted in the sociological tradition have been virtually silent on the role of individual differences in the empowerment process. The few references that are offered focus more on the agent of empowerment rather than the target of empowerment. For example, House (1988) recommends that to facilitate the empowerment process, managers should be selected on the basis of their willingness "to use power in a positive

manner". Block (1987) alludes to the personal value of enlightened self-interest as a necessary characteristic of the empowered manager.

The motivational approach of Conger and Kanungo (1988) was the first empowerment model to discuss individual level phenomena, by identifying enhanced self-efficacy as the target of empowerment efforts. Even so, this model like its predecessors, does not refer to the role of individual difference variables in empowerment. This shortcoming is addressed by the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model which includes the construct of interpretive styles to reflect possible variations in individual cognitions. The three interpretive processes identified by the model are attribution (explanation of past events and outcomes), evaluation (assessment of progress), and envisioning (expectations of future events and outcomes). The individual's style of performing these processes influences his or her task assessments which in turn influences empowerment.

According to Thomas and Velthouse, attributional styles that favour internal, stable, global explanations of setbacks (e.g., "I cannot think creatively") negatively influence empowerment. Dysfunctional styles of evaluation also negatively influence task assessments (and hence empowerment). For instance, an "absolutistic" style of evaluation (e.g., "I have not attained the perfection that I must achieve") reduces assessments of impact since anything short of total success will be termed a failure. Lastly, according to the model, a cognitive style which visualizes future successes rather than failures, is expected to have a positive impact on assessments on impact, competence, and meaningfulness. To date, there have been no empirical validations of these hypotheses.

In the context of the conceptualization of empowerment developed here, the task is to identify individual difference variables that would affect perceptions of control, perceived competence, and enthusiasm. Four such variables that could influence these components are Type A behavior, locus of control, self-esteem, and optimism.

#### 4.3.1: Type A Behavior

Type A behavior pattern, characterized by a competitive achievement orientation, a sense of time urgency, and excessive hostility is treated as a stable personality trait by stress researchers. Initial interest in Type A behavior was in connection with the observed association between Type A behavior and risk of coronary heart disease (Friedman & Rosenman, 1959; 1974). Glass (1977) first proposed that Type A behavior is a response style that reflects an attempt to gain and maintain control over environmental events. Type A behavior emerges when situational elements threaten the individual's control over environmental outcomes. Glass and his associates (Glass, 1977; Glass & Carver, 1980) further suggested that individuals displaying Type A behaviors (Type As) either succeed in reasserting control or give up their control attempts altogether resulting in learned helplessness (Seligman, 1975). Carver and Humphries (1982) document research evidence for both these phenomena.

Thus it appears that the Type A behavior pattern is critically dependent on the individual's perception of the impending uncontrollability of environmental events. But why should some individuals (Type As) perceive this while others (Type Bs) do not? Prkachin and Harvey (1988) offer two explanations to account for this phenomenon. On the one hand, compared to Type Bs, Type As may be inherently more sensitive to variations in the controllability of events and hence may be more likely to react (showing Type A behavior) when controllability decreases. On the other hand, it is possible that Type As are more likely to perceive an absence of control in general, i.e., have a negative response bias, regardless of the actual extent of control; thus being more likely to engage in Type A behavior. Prkachin and Harvey (1988) found empirical support for both these hypotheses in a controlled laboratory experiment. It may be noted that these hypotheses are consistent with the reassertion (of control) and helplessness phenomena alluded to earlier (Carver & Humphries, 1982).

Both sensitivity to variations in the controllability of events and the negative response bias attributed to Type As by Prkachin and Harvey (1988) have implications for the present formulation of empowerment, primarily with respect to the effect of context factors. When context factors are favourable, Type As by virtue of their greater sensitivity to the controllability of events will perceive higher levels of control as compared to Type Bs. On the other hand, when context factors are unfavourable, the greater sensitivity and the negative response bias will lead Type As to experience much lower perceived control than Type Bs. Thus we can say that,

Proposition 17: The effect of context factors on empowerment will be moderated by Type A behavior.

It may be noted that many studies have found that Type As reported higher levels of perceived control (e.g., Burke & Weir, 1980; Chesney & Rosenman, 1980). In the Burke & Weir (1980) study Type As also reported higher responsibility while in the Chesney & Rosenman (1980) study there were no differences in perceived workload. Kushnir & Melamed (1991) also found that by and large Type As reported higher levels of perceived control. These authors indicated that this could be attributed either to greater exposure to work overload and high control levels or to Type A/B differences in cognitive appraisal. Thus, the observed association between Type As and perceived control is consistent with the hypothesis that Type A's are more sensitive to the controllability of their environment and hence consistent with the above proposition.

#### 4.3.2: Locus of Control

According to Rotter (1966), individuals differ in the extent to which they are likely to attribute personal control to received outcomes or rewards. A person with an internal locus of control would tend to perceive outcomes

or rewards following an action as being contingent on his or her own actions or relatively permanent characteristics, while a person with an external locus of control would tend to perceive the same received outcomes or rewards as resulting from the influence of external factors such as luck, fate, powerful others and uncontrollable or unpredictable forces.

Individuals with external loci of control are thus more likely to be adversely affected by context factors that promote powerlessness since they are predisposed to interpreting events and outcomes as being beyond their control. In addition, they are less likely to react favourably to managerial and leadership behaviors that empower. For example, despite delegating and consulting behaviors on the part of the immediate supervisor, perceptions of control of individuals with external loci of control may not increase since they are predisposed to believing outcomes as being externally determined. For the same reasons, competence enhancing messages through recognizing behaviors or inspiring behaviors aimed at enhancing goal internalization may not have the desired effect. This formulation is similar to the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) formulation of attributive style discussed earlier. Thus,

Proposition 18: The effect of context factors on empowerment will be moderated by locus of control.

Proposition 19: The effect of managerial behaviors on empowerment will be moderated by locus of control.

#### 4.3.3: Global Self-esteem

Self-esteem can be considered as an evaluation of the self. It reflects affective evaluation of the self such as self-liking and self-worth (Gist & Mitchell, 1992). Self-esteem can be distinguished from self-efficacy in that self-efficacy is a judgement of perceived capabilities which is not inherently evaluative. Further, self-esteem is a global concept (i.e., a total evaluation of

the self) while self-efficacy is task-specific (Brockner, 1988). For example, a university professor may have low self-efficacy beliefs with regards to repairing home appliances. But this need not be accompanied by negative evaluations of the total self. Indeed, the professor's self-esteem might be enhanced if he or she regards incompetence with regards to mechanical gadgets as an indication of being inherently intellectual!

In the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model, along with interpretive styles, *global assessments* or generalized beliefs about *impact*, *competence*, *meaningfulness* and *choice* are also conceptualized as individual difference variables that influence *task assessments*. The construct of global competence is conceived as a generalized belief about one's ability to perform adequately in new situations. According to Thomas and Velthouse, global competence is closely linked to self-esteem and has been operationalized as such. Further, higher global assessments are said to result in higher optimism with regard to undertaking new activities. Lower global assessments are expected to have the opposite effect (p. 674).

In terms of the present formulation, low levels of self-esteem may be associated with lower levels of perceived control. According to Brockner (1988), individuals with low self-esteem are more reactive to adverse conditions in the work environment like role ambiguity, overload and poor supervisory support. They are more likely to experience stress, have a tendency to become passive, and are less likely to take corrective action to mitigate the effect of the unfavourable conditions (Ganster & Schaubroeck, 1991). Thus it would seem that when exposed to conditions that lead to powerlessness, individuals with lower self-esteem are likely to experience diminished perceptions of control as compared to individuals with higher self-esteem. Thus,

Proposition 20: The effect of context factors on empowerment will be moderated by global self-esteem.

It is also possible that global self-esteem has a direct effect on empowerment. Individuals with higher global self-esteem are likely to feel competent across a variety of situations regardless of prior experience in those situations. Thus,

Proposition 21: The higher the levels of global self-esteem, the higher the perceived competence, hence higher the empowerment.

#### 4.3.4: Optimism

The interpretive style of envisioning in the Thomas and Velthouse model is concerned with the motivating power of vivid mental images of success. Neck and Manz (1992) contend that favourable self-talk or self-verbalizations and mental imagery enhance actual performance. These authors quote studies primarily in the field of sports psychology, which link self-talk and mental imagery to performance, to support their contention (e.g., Feltz & Landers, 1983). The role of a powerful vision in the empowerment process has also been alluded to by researchers such as Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Block (1987).

It is possible that the tendency to engage in vivid images of success rather than failures and get excited by them, reflects an underlying sense of optimism for the future. Psychologists have captured this through the construct of hopelessness (Beck et al., 1974). Low levels of hopelessness would correspond to high levels of optimism regarding the future. In the present formulation, the third dimension of empowerment is goal internalization. A goal or action plan for the future would appeal to and excite only those individuals who retain some optimism and hope with regards to desirable outcomes in the future. Individuals low on optimism are less likely to be enthusiastic about an inspiring vision. It is optimism regarding the future that makes new tasks meaningful.



Thus it would seem that the variable of optimism captures the effects of the interpretive style of envisioning and the concept of global meaningfulness referred to in the Thomas & Velthouse model. Therefore,

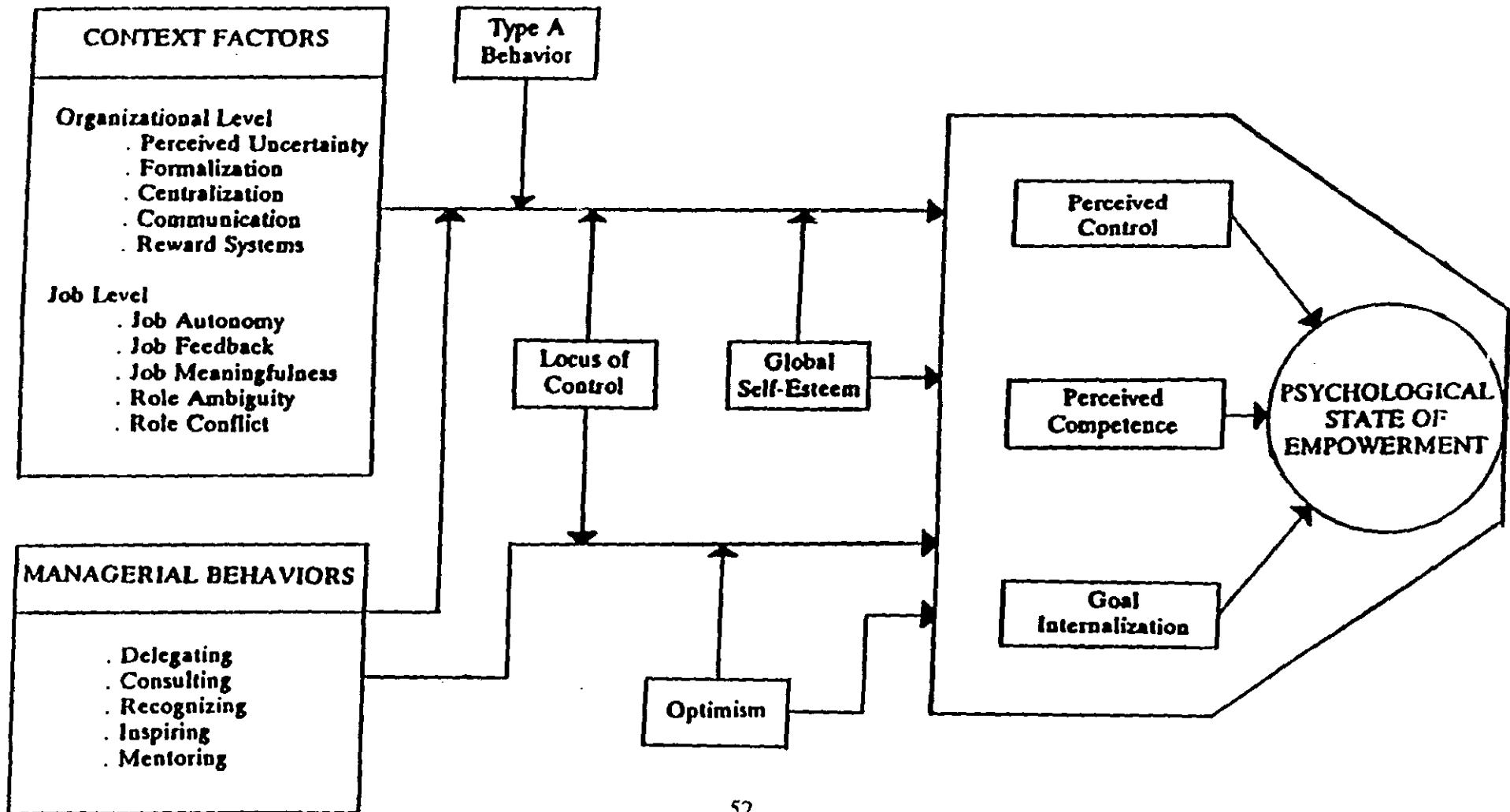
Proposition 22: The effect of managerial and leadership behaviors on empowerment will be moderated by optimism.

As in the case of global self-esteem, it is possible that optimism has a direct effect on empowerment. Individuals with a high sense of optimism would have a tendency to look forward to desirable outcomes in the future, regardless of the surrounding context and are more likely to internalize the goals of the organization. Thus,

Proposition 23: Individuals with higher levels of optimism will have higher goal internalization, and hence higher empowerment.

The general model of empowerment outlined in Figure 1 can now be expanded by including the antecedent variables discussed above. The enhanced model is shown in Figure 2. The general model can now be completed by identifying possible consequences of the state of empowerment.

**FIGURE 2**  
Antecedents of Empowerment



#### 4.4: Consequences of Empowerment

Popular business literature often attributes all manners of desirable consequences to employee empowerment, ranging from improved productivity, quality, creativity, initiative, and employee satisfaction, to improved organizational effectiveness and customer satisfaction (see for example, Fleming, 1991; Mathes, 1992). Much of this evidence is anecdotal in nature and as mentioned in chapter 2, there is a dearth of scholarly research on the consequences of empowerment. This section develops a preliminary list of outcome variables that may be meaningfully linked with empowerment. Bearing in mind that the model proposed in the present research is at the level of the psychological state of the individual, the outcome variables considered are also at the level of individual attitudes and behaviors. The individual level outcomes considered are internal work motivation, job satisfaction, job stress, job involvement, extra-role behavior, and organizational commitment.

##### 4.4.1: Internal work motivation

Pinder (1984) defined work motivation as "a set of energetic forces that originate both within as well as beyond an individual's being, to initiate work-related behaviour, and to determine its form, direction, intensity, and duration" (p. 8). It is proposed here that the empowered state is an internal source of motivating forces for work behavior.

The present conceptualization of empowerment is based on the constructs of perceived control, perceived competence, and goal internalization. Many of the empowering techniques that increase the strength of these dimensions are already known to increase internal work motivation. Hackman and Oldham's (1980) model links increased job autonomy with increased internal work motivation. Further, a number of studies have linked participative decision-making and employee participation programs to work motivation. Spector (1986), after a meta-analysis of studies

relating perceived control variables to various outcome variables concluded that "Employees who perceive comparatively high levels of control at work are more satisfied, committed, involved, and motivated...This same pattern holds for participation studies" (p. 1013).

In the Hackman and Oldham (1980) model, individual growth need strength is a moderator between job characteristics and outcomes such as internal work motivation. According to the model individuals with low growth need strength are expected to react negatively to enriched job characteristics and thus experience reduced internal work motivation. This is not in conflict with the present formulation since the variables of interest are perceptions of control and competence, not the objective amount of job responsibility or decision-making. Individuals who do not wish to assume responsibilities should experience lowered perceptions of control when thrust into positions of responsibility. Further, if job demands are perceived to exceed their capabilities then these individuals will experience lower perceived competence. Hence, individuals with low growth need strength are likely to experience powerlessness rather than empowerment as a result of added responsibility.

In the light of the above discussion, therefore,

Proposition 24: The greater the empowerment the higher the internal work motivation.

#### 4.4.2: Job Satisfaction

If people have a natural striving for control, in the form of a need for power (McClelland, 1961) or competence motive (White, 1959), then perceptions of control and competence should result in satisfaction. In the organizational context, increased autonomy has been linked with increased satisfaction.

Secondly, working on a vision, idea, or project that is personally appealing and meaningful should also lead to satisfaction. At the level of the

task, increased task significance has been linked to increased satisfaction.

Thus,

Proposition 25: The greater the empowerment the higher the job satisfaction.

#### 4.4.3: Job Stress

Research on job stress has linked perceptions of control with reduced effects of role stressors. Karasek (1979) proposed that maximum job strain occurs under conditions of high job demands and low job controllability. The strain is a result of the inability on the part of the individual to channel the arousal that results from high job demands, such as increased heart rate and adrenalin levels, into effective coping responses since response latitude is restricted. On the other hand, the effects of high job demands can be mitigated through high levels of control.

Empirical evidence for this interactive effect has been inconsistent. Although Fox, Dwyer and Ganster (1993) provide recent evidence, many research findings have not supported the interactive aspects of the Karasek model. For example, Perrewe and Ganster (1989) found only marginal support for the interactive hypothesis while Kushnir and Melamed (1991) found no evidence for the workload x perceived control interaction. Moreover, many occupations with high job demands are known to have high stress levels despite being high on perceived control (e.g., police work).

On the other hand there is evidence for the direct negative effect of perceived control on job stress (e.g., Kushnir & Melamed, 1991) and the importance of perceived control for worker well-being has found acceptance (Sauter, Hurrell, & Cooper, 1989; Sutton & Kahn, 1987). Here, it is worth noting that the increased responsibility (that is expected to result in increased perceived control) beyond a certain optimum level tends to increase stress (Karasek, 1979). According to Karasek (1979), as responsibility exceeds the optimum level and appropriate coping responses become critical, stress

increases due to outcomes becoming less predictable and/or because the situation increasingly threatens to exceed the individual's coping capabilities. This means that the relationship between responsibility and stress could be curvilinear (inverted U shape).

We can however expect greater levels of empowerment to be associated with lower levels of stress. According to the present formulation, initial increases in responsibility increase perceptions of control and competence and hence will increase empowerment. In the event of responsibilities increasing beyond the individual's coping abilities, perceptions of control and competence are bound to decrease resulting in lower empowerment. Thus, while the relationship between responsibility and stress could be curvilinear, the relationship between empowerment and stress should be negative and linear. Thus,

Proposition 26: The greater the empowerment, the lower the job stress.

#### 4.4.4: Job Involvement

Job involvement has been identified as a cognitive state of identification with one's job (Kanungo, 1982; Lawler & Hall, 1970). Involvement with one's job depends upon the extent to which the job satisfies or is perceived to have the potential to satisfy one's salient needs (Kanungo, 1982). According to the present formulation an empowered employee is satisfied with respect to his or her natural striving for control, feels competent and identifies with projects for which he or she displays enthusiasm. Hence, we can expect the empowered employee to be highly job involved. Therefore,

Proposition 27: The greater the empowerment, the greater the job involvement.

#### 4.4.5: Extra-role Behaviors

Extra-role behaviors are discretionary behaviors that are not required by the formal organizational role, but which contribute to the improvement and successful functioning of the organization. Extra-role behaviors have been variously referred to as spontaneous behaviors (Katz & Kahn, 1966), organizational citizenship behaviors (Organ, 1988; Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983), and pro-social behavior (Brief & Motowild, 1986). Such behaviors include helping co-workers, going out of one's way to help customers or to finish projects ahead of time, and accepting additional assignments voluntarily. Organization citizenship behavior has been attributed to organizational commitment (Becker, 1992) and to task characteristics (Farh, Podsakoff, & Organ, 1990). According to Farh et al. (1990), the increased meaningfulness and responsibility arising from favourable task characteristics could lead to extra-role behaviors, since the individual experiences a sense of personal accountability beyond formal job descriptions. In line with this hypothesis, the authors found evidence of a strong relationship between job scope and organizational citizenship behaviour in a sample of Chinese employees.

As per the present formulation, employees with increased perceptions of control and competence will tend to think of themselves as "origins" (De Charms, 1968). Further, if organizational objectives have been internalized, this should lead to initiation of extra-role behaviors that facilitate important work outcomes. Hence,

Proposition 28: The greater the empowerment, the greater the manifest extra-role behaviors.

#### 4.4.6: Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment, which refers to the individual's identification with a particular organization, is characterized by a belief in the organization's goals and values, willingness to exert extra effort on

behalf of the organization, and a desire to maintain membership in the organization (Porter et al., 1974). According to Kanungo (1982) identification with a job is dependent upon need satisfaction and/or the perceived potential for need satisfaction offered by the job. Here, though the focus of the identification is the organization rather than the specific job, the need satisfaction aspect is still relevant. As per the present formulation, empowered employees are likely to find need satisfaction through their jobs since they are thought to be more motivated, involved, and satisfied. They are also likely to experience lower stress on the job. Since these positive job experiences are associated with membership in the organization, we could expect such an employee to be more committed to the organization.

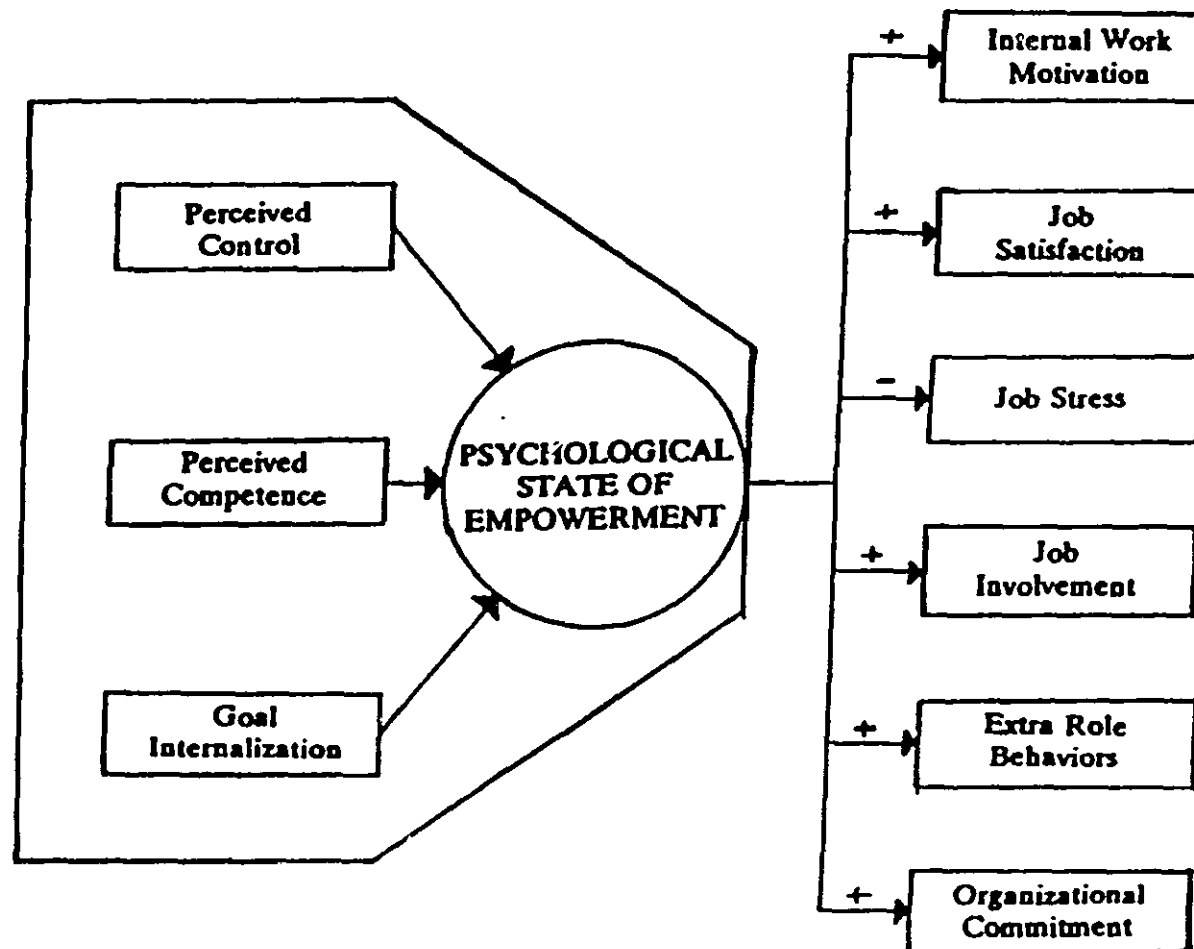
There is also some empirical evidence linking some of the antecedent variables of empowerment to organizational commitment. Mathieu and Zajac (1990), in their meta-analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment, found evidence for a relationship between task characteristics and organizational commitment. Jackson and Schuler (1985) found moderate negative correlations between role ambiguity and role conflict and organizational commitment. This relationship was also confirmed by Mathieu and Zajac (1990). In terms of our formulation, these empirical relationships are in agreement with the mediating role of empowerment. In the light of the above,

Proposition 29: The greater the empowerment, the greater the organizational commitment.

Figure 3 summarizes the possible consequences or outcome variables associated with the state of empowerment. Direct and reciprocal relationships between the outcome variables are not considered in the model since they are not of immediate interest to the present research.



**FIGURE 3**  
**Consequences of Empowerment**



#### 4.5: Summary

In this chapter, empowerment was defined as a psychological state characterized by a sense of perceived control, perceived competence, and goal internalization. Organizational conditions promoting powerlessness, job level context variables, managerial practices that are empowering, and individual differences in Type A behavior, locus of control, global self-esteem, and optimism were proposed as the antecedents of empowerment. Increased internal work motivation, work satisfaction, work involvement, organizational commitment, and extra-role behaviors, as well as reduced stress were hypothesized as some of the principal consequences of employee empowerment.

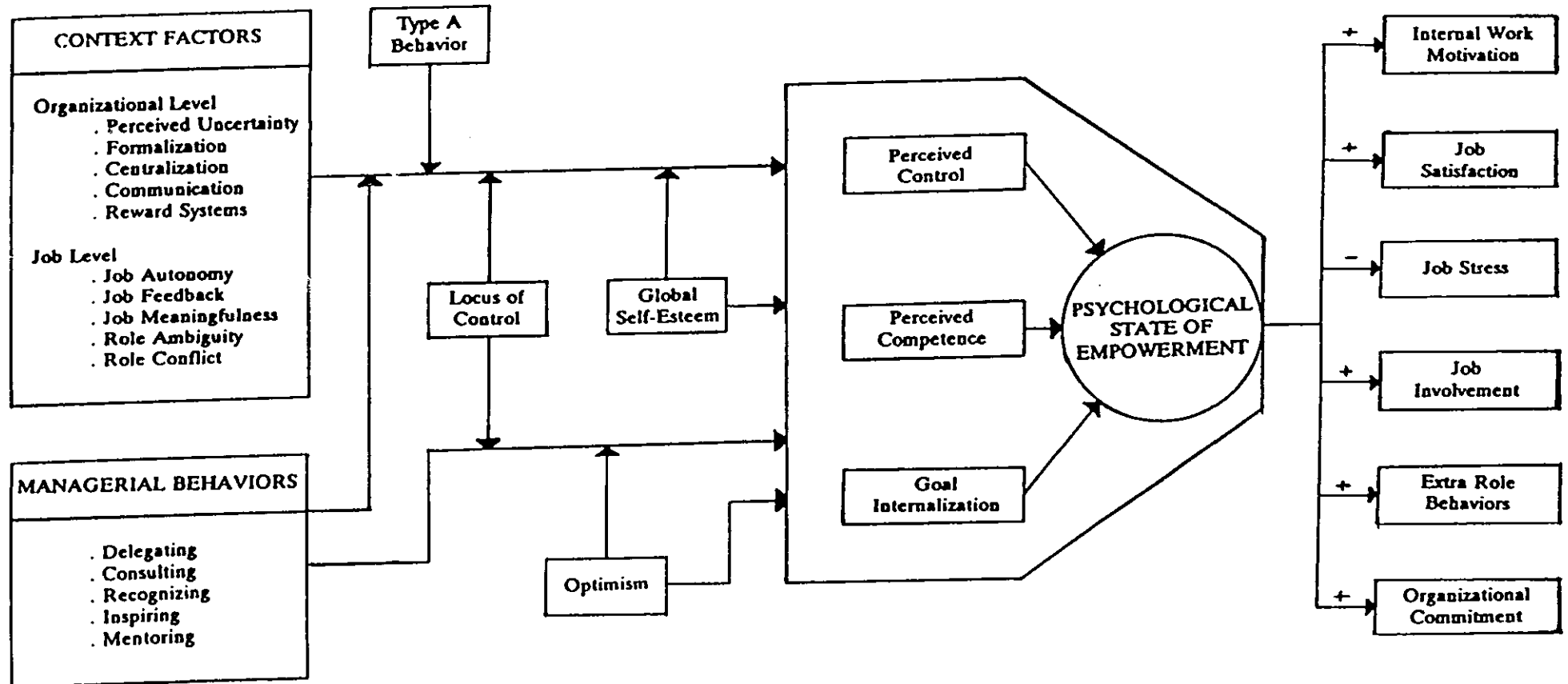
Based on the propositions developed in this chapter, three sets of hypotheses can be identified: those dealing with the direct effects of antecedent variables, those dealing with the interactive effects of antecedent variables, and those dealing with the consequences of empowerment. The hypothesis clusters are as follows:-

- I. (a) The greater the presence of context factors that promote powerlessness such as, perceived uncertainty, formalization, centralization, poor organizational communication, non-contingent and arbitrary reward systems, role ambiguity, and role conflict, the lower the empowerment.
- (b) The greater the job autonomy, job feedback, and job meaningfulness, the greater the empowerment.
- (c) The greater the managerial behaviors such as delegation, consulting, recognizing, inspiring, and mentoring, the greater the empowerment.
- (d) The lower the global self-esteem and optimism of individuals, the lower their empowerment.

- II. (a) The effect of context factors on empowerment will be moderated by the effect of managerial and leadership behaviors; and vice versa.
  - (b) Type A behavior will moderate the effects of context factors on empowerment.
  - (c) Locus of control will moderate the effects of context factors and managerial and leadership behaviors on empowerment.
  - (d) Global self-esteem will moderate the effects of context factors on empowerment.
  - (e) Optimism will moderate the effects of managerial and leadership behaviors on empowerment.
- III. The higher the empowerment,
- (a) the higher the internal work motivation, job satisfaction, job involvement, extra-role behaviors, and organizational commitment; and
  - (b) the lower the job stress.

The integrative model of empowerment described above and the principal hypotheses linking the various components of the model are summarized in the nomothetic network depicted in Figure 4. In line with the general model shown in Figure 1, the state of empowerment is envisaged as a mediating construct between specific antecedent and outcome variables. Many direct and reciprocal relationships among antecedent and outcome variables are not considered in the above formulation since they are not of immediate interest to the present research.

**FIGURE 4**  
**Antecedents and Consequences of Empowerment: An Integrative Framework**



## Chapter 5: Nature and Scope of Empirical Investigations

The present research is concerned with developing and testing a model of employee empowerment. It is worth bearing in mind that the empowerment construct, as an object of scholarly research, is relatively new to management researchers. There is no universally accepted definition or approach to the study of empowerment. At the time of this writing, there are only four publications on empowerment in scholarly journals. Two of these articles (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990) are conceptual model building exercises and as yet there is no published empirical validation of these models. The other two articles (London, 1993; Parker & Price, 1994), though empirical in nature, use definitions of empowerment which differ considerably from each other and from the major theoretical perspectives referred to in Chapter 2. Given this perspective, the present research can be considered an exploratory attempt to understand the empowerment construct through concept development and empirical validation.

Further, the present research is not directly concerned with evaluating the effects of particular contextual factors or managerial and leadership behaviors that affect empowerment over time. It is also not concerned with the evaluation of the effectiveness of deliberate empowerment efforts. The present research is only concerned with the individual experience of empowerment at a given moment in time. Accordingly, the present study is cross-sectional in nature.

In contrast to research studies that explore links between established constructs, the present research is concerned with construct establishment. While this task is more fundamental by comparison, it is also more tentative in nature. Disadvantaged by the lack of precedent and support of previous research, such research has to rely to a large extent on original theoretical reasoning. There is also the additional burden of developing and validating

measures of the constructs of interest. Given these considerations, the present research is primarily meant to be a stepping stone for further research.

### 5.1: Research Design

As was mentioned in Chapter 2, the primary research objective of the present research is to understand the nature of empowerment and its possible antecedents and consequences, through the development and test of a conceptual model. Since there are no established measures of the empowerment construct and since the present formulation as developed in Chapter 4 conceptually differs from existing theoretical models, it is necessary to carry out the research in two stages. In Phase I, the objective is to develop a psychometrically sound measure for the construct of empowerment based on the proposed model. Phase II uses this measure to establish a preliminary nomothetic network of antecedents and consequences of the empowerment construct.

### 5.2: Participants

As the construct of interest is employee empowerment, participants must necessarily be employees in organizations. Since the conceptual framework developed here is at the level of the psychological state of mind of the individual employee, neither the nature of the organization's business (i.e., manufacturing, service, government agency, etc.) or the type of industry (steel, or textiles, or aerospace, etc.), is expected to play a significant part in the test of the model. Despite this possible latitude in the selection of participants, it is desirable to include respondents from a variety of organizations especially in the scale development phase (Phase I), so as to minimize the possible effects of idiosyncratic organizational factors.

Secondly, in the present model, the term employee does not refer to any particular level in the organizational hierarchy. As an extreme example,

it is possible for the CEO of an organization to feel as powerless or as empowered as a shop-floor machine operator. In the case of the CEO the source of powerlessness could be an all powerful, interfering board and an uncertain external environment, while the operator could be feeling powerless due to increased mechanization. However, since most of the studies on which the present formulation is based on have typically relied on middle management and lower level employees, preferred participants would also be from middle or lower levels of the organization.

### 5.3: Method

Since the proposed formulation envisages empowerment as a psychological state of employees, the research primarily relies on self-report measures collected through survey questionnaires. Design of the actual questionnaires is discussed in subsequent chapters.

In Phase I, the questionnaire consisted of items designed to capture the empowerment construct, items to establish convergent and discriminant validity, as well as validation items to check for biases such as social desirability. This is in accordance with standard scale development practices (DeVellis, 1991). The questionnaire was administered to a sample of employed individuals for scale development. The final version of the empowerment scale developed using this sample was further tested for test-retest reliability with a separate but smaller sample. The Phase II questionnaire consisted of standard measures for the antecedent variables, individual difference variables, and the outcome variables, besides the empowerment scale developed in Phase I. This questionnaire was first tested in a pilot study and then was administered to a separate validation sample for a formal test of the hypotheses.

This chapter presented a brief overview of the empirical approach adopted in this research. Subsequent chapters include detailed descriptions of the individual studies that constitute the present research endeavour.

## Chapter 6. Phase I: Measure Development

While there are no established measures of empowerment published in scholarly journals, individual researchers have been using measures based on their own definitions of empowerment. For example, the measure used by Spreitzer (1993) is a 12-item scale with three items for each of the sub-dimensions of *meaning* (correspondence between the job and individual beliefs and attitudes), *competence* (belief in one's capability to perform a job well), *self-determination* (a sense of choice regarding job execution), and *impact* (belief that one can influence organizational decisions). These four dimensions closely resemble Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) notion of task-assessments which lead to empowerment.

Despite the availability of this measure, there is a need to develop an independent measure of empowerment because of the following considerations. Firstly, the present formulation is qualitatively different from the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model. It is based on an integration of existing literature on power and empowerment while the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model is one of many approaches to empowerment, namely the motivational approach. Secondly, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) equate empowerment to intrinsic task motivation. This raises the issue of redundancy and discriminant validity. Empowerment as defined in the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model and measured by the Spreitzer (1993) measure has to be shown to be conceptually distinct from intrinsic motivation. Thirdly, the Thomas and Velthouse (1990) model and the Spreitzer (1993) measure restrict the scope of empowerment to intrinsic task motivation thereby precluding non-task facets of empowerment, for example, those related to an exciting organizational vision. Lastly, the dimension of goal internalization has no parallel in the Spreitzer measure and is unique to the present formulation.



## 6.1: Method

The measure development study was conducted in accordance with the general procedures for scale development recommended by DeVellis (1991). The major stages of the measure development process are described in the following sections.

### 6.1.1: Item Generation

In this stage, the intention was to generate a large pool of items for possible inclusion in the scale. Since in the present formulation empowerment is envisaged as a multi-dimensional construct, items that tap all three dimensions needed to be included. Given the dearth of empirical precedent, the bulk of the items had to be written anew. Dwyer and Ganster's (1991) scale of perceived control, Paulhus's (1983) sphere-specific measures of perceived control, Jones' (1986) measure of generalized self-efficacy, and Hill, Smith & Mann's (1987) scale for computer efficacy were referred to for initial guidance.

In addition, items were also generated by administering a short open-ended survey to a random sample of 18 employed individuals during their lunch break in the food court of a large shopping mall. Respondents were asked to write five sentences each describing situations at work where they felt "in control", competent, and enthusiastic about organizational objectives. The responses were then analyzed and items were written to capture the major themes therein. The above approaches resulted in an initial item pool of 60 items, 20 items for each dimension.

### 6.1.2: Expert Review

The 60 items were then evaluated by a panel of two faculty members and three doctoral students. The faculty members, both familiar with the content area of empowerment, were first asked to review each item in terms of its relevance to the domain of empowerment. This initial screening

resulted in a reduced list of 40 items for further consideration. The doctoral student reviewers were then provided with the definition of empowerment developed for this research and were asked to judge each item with regard to (a) its relevance to the empowerment construct as defined, (b) conceptual ambiguity, (c) sentence clarity, (d) conciseness, (e) the sub-scale to which it belonged, and (f) social desirability. Based on the average rating provided by the reviewers, each item was separately ranked in ascending order from least ambiguous to most ambiguous, most clear to least clear, most concise to least concise, lowest sub-scale placement errors to highest sub-scale placement errors, and least socially desirable to most socially desirable, respectively. For each item, a mean score was calculated by averaging these rankings; the lower the score the better the item. For each empowerment dimension, the best six items were selected to form the final list of 18 items (see Appendix I) to be included in the questionnaire. A six point (strongly disagree, moderately disagree, mildly disagree, mildly agree, moderately agree, strongly agree) response format was chosen for these items.

#### 6.1.3: Inclusion of Validation Items

To check for social desirability bias, a ten item social desirability scale developed by Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) was included. This is a shortened version of the Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960) and is recommended by DeVellis (1991). To establish construct validity, the 12 item empowerment scale developed by Spreitzer (1993) and Ashforth's (1989) 6 item helplessness scale were included. Spreitzer (1993) reported reliabilities ranging from .79 to .88 for the four sub-scales of the measure. She further reported that a second order confirmatory factor analysis with "gestalt" empowerment as the latent construct behind the four dimensions had provided good fit. Ashforth's (1989) original 8-item measure had an alpha of .81 (Ashforth, 1989).

#### 6.1.4: Procedure and Sample

Since the majority of respondents were expected to be from Quebec, the questionnaire was made available in both English and French. Standard translation - back translation procedures as recommended by Brislin et al. (1973) was used to produce a bilingual questionnaire. The questionnaire was administered to a sample of employed individuals enrolled in part time business programs at four (two English and two French) universities in Montreal; 311 usable responses were obtained.

The sample was fairly heterogeneous in terms of demographic variables such as sex, age and linguistic background, and other variables such as industry type or nature of business. Of the total sample, one hundred and twenty seven (41%) were women and one hundred and forty one respondents (45%) answered in French. Sixty eight percent had at least a college degree and forty five percent worked for large organizations. Respondents were fairly evenly distributed by functional specialization and industrial sector with no specialization or sector accounting for more than 28% and 23% of the respondents respectively. Fifty percent of the respondents were single and the average age of the respondents was 30 years ( $sd=6.5$  years). Average job tenure was 5.4 years ( $sd=4.7$  years) and their annual incomes ranged from less than \$10,000 (8%) to over \$50,000 (28%).

**TABLE 1**  
**Means, Standard Deviations, Item-total Correlations and Intercorrelations:**  
**Empowerment Scale Items**

Item	Mean	sd	Item- total Corr.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. CNTRL1	4.55	1.24	.51																	
2. CNTRL2	4.42	1.44	.19	.11																
3. CNTRL3	4.46	1.32	.56	.57	.15															
4. CNTRL4	4.71	1.15	.60	.41	.18	.63														
5. CNTRL5	4.42	1.36	.60	.74	.21	.55	.41													
6. CNTRL6	4.85	1.08	.49	.44	.15	.48	.35	.47												
7. COMP1	5.54	0.63	.32	.14	-	.13	.21	.16	-											
8. COMP2	5.52	0.73	.32	.03	-	.10	.20	-	-	.38										
9. COMP3	5.56	0.62	.43	.19	-	.09	.21	.18	-	.57	.49									
10. COMP4	5.00	1.29	.33	.14	.13	.17	.18	.15	.13	.14	.22	.24								
11. COMP5	5.39	0.82	.46	.23	-	.24	.28	.28	.15	.36	.31	.37	.21							
12. COMP6	5.25	0.80	.43	.17	.20	.20	.34	.19	.14	.34	.32	.37	.24	.41						
13. GOAL1	4.39	1.26	.62	.30	.14	.38	.38	.37	.42	-	.18	.20	.26	.18	.20					
14. GOAL2	4.62	1.18	.65	.28	.11	.39	.42	.41	.38	.16	.14	.22	.21	.22	.20	.68				
15. GOAL3	4.75	1.01	.59	.32	-	.36	.42	.34	.34	.16	.18	.27	.16	.31	.23	.49	.61			
16. GOAL4	4.34	1.22	.65	.28	.11	.35	.40	.41	.40	.10	.19	.25	.20	.26	.25	.73	.71	.55		
17. GOAL5	5.22	1.00	.57	.31	.16	.30	.31	.41	.42	-	.09	.29	.16	.25	.24	.46	.52	.44	.54	
18. GOAL6	5.14	1.28	.44	.23	-	.24	.29	.33	.23	-	.10	.17	.21	.30	-	.42	.45	.35	.40	.45

Only correlations with  $p < .001$  are shown

### 6.2: Item Analysis

The means and variances for the 18 items of the empowerment scale are presented in Table 1. There were no items with very low variance. Further, there were no significant differences in means and variances across language or sex, justifying the treatment of all 311 respondents as a single sample. The correlation matrix of the 18 items and the correlation of each item with total of the other 17 items (item-total correlations) are also shown in Table 1. Items within each sub-scale were all significantly correlated with each other. Items CNTRL2, COMP4, and GOAL6 had the lowest correlations with other items of their respective sub-scales. Only one item, CNTRL2, had an item-total correlation of less than 0.2.

### 6.3: Factor Analysis

In order to investigate the presence of common latent factors underlying the 18 items, a common factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted. Three factors as originally envisaged emerged. The first factor with an eigen value of 5.49, was characterized by high loadings for items representing the dimension of goal internalization. The second factor with an eigen value of 1.59, had high loadings for items representing the dimension of perceived control. Items from the perceived competence dimension loaded highly on the third factor with an eigen value of 1.08. The variance explained by each of the three factors were 67%, 19% and 13% respectively. The factor loadings are shown in Table 2. As can be seen, most of the items loaded on the three factors as originally hypothesized. Items CNTRL2 and COMP4 did not load highly on any factor and were dropped from further analysis. Compared to other items in the goal internalization sub-scale, item GOAL6 had the lowest factor loading and was dropped for reasons of scale brevity.

**TABLE 2**  
**Common Factor Loadings of Empowerment Scale Items**

Item	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
GOAL2	.79	.22	.15
GOAL4	.79	.21	.17
GOAL1	.76	.22	.10
GOAL5	.58	.29	.15
GOAL3	.57	.26	.22
GOAL6	.53	.20	.10
CNTRL1	.13	.77	.10
CNTRL5	.27	.75	.11
CNTRL3	.24	.71	.10
CNTRL4	.32	.52	.27
CNTRL6	.35	.51	-.00
CNTRL2	.08	.20	.05
COMP3	.15	.03	.73
COMP1	-.03	.09	.67
COMP2	.10	-.02	.59
COMP6	.13	.17	.54
COMP5	.19	.22	.52
COMP4	.20	.11	.28

#### 6.4: Dimensionality Analysis

To confirm the dimensionality of the resulting 15-item scale, single, two-factor, and three-factor latent variable models were compared using the LISREL7 program. For the purposes of this analysis, three indicators each were developed for each of the three dimensions of perceived control, perceived competence, and goal internalization using the procedure adopted by Brooke, Russell, and Price (1988) and Mathieu and Farr (1991). First, a single factor solution was determined for the five items in a sub-scale. The items with the highest and lowest loadings were averaged to form the first indicator, while the items with the next highest and lowest loadings were

averaged to form the second indicator. The remaining item was retained as the third indicator. This procedure is in keeping with Bentler and Chou's (1987) recommendation that the total number of variables in a latent variable model be restricted to at most 20.

For the single factor model all nine indicators from all three subscales were forced on to one latent variable. Three two-factor models were constructed by forcing the indicators of two of the three dimensions on to a single latent variable. All models were evaluated using the criteria of Adjusted Goodness of Fit (AGFI),  $X^2/df$ , and the Normed Fit Index (NFI). To construct the NFI, the single factor model rather than the null model was used as the baseline model for a more conservative test. The results of these comparisons are shown in Table 3. As can be seen the three-factor model provided the best fit with a  $X^2/df$  ratio of 1.68 and an NFI of .91.

**TABLE 3**  
**Comparison of Single, Two-Factor, and Three-Factor Models**

Model	$X^2$	df	GFI	AGFI	rmsr	$X^2/df$	NFI
Single Factor	451.07	27	.720	.534	.127	16.71	-
<u>Two Factor</u>							
[CNTRL & COMP] [GOAL]	242.37	26	.839	.721	.115	9.32	.46
[CNTRL] [COMP & GOAL]	235.43	26	.844	.730	.109	9.06	.48
[CNTRL & GOAL] [COMP]	265.72	26	.802	.658	.078	10.22	.41
Three Factor	40.33 (p=.02)	24	.971	.946	.034	1.68	.91

A second order factor analysis was conducted to test the proposition that the three dimensions of perceived control, perceived competence, and goal internalization share empowerment as the overall higher order latent variable. The resulting model provided a good fit with  $X^2_{24}$  of 40.33 ( $p=.02$ )

and AGFI=.946. It may be noted that the fit of the second order model is not worse than that of the three factor first order model thus providing justification for considering the total scale made up of the three individual dimensions as a single empowerment scale. The second order gamma coefficients (all significant at  $p < .001$ ) were as follows: .789 (perceived control); .507 (perceived competence); and .827 (goal internalization).

The coefficient alpha reliability for this 15-item scale was .87. The alpha reliabilities of the sub-scales were as follows: .84 (perceived control); .76 (perceived competence); and .87 (goal internalization).

#### 6.5: Convergent and Discriminant Validity

Empowerment as measured by the 15-item scale was correlated with helplessness as measured by the Ashforth (1989) scale (6 items,  $\alpha=0.86$ ) and the Spreitzer (1993) empowerment scale (12 items,  $\alpha=0.84$ ) to test for convergent validity. Empowerment should be significantly and negatively related to the helplessness scale and significantly and positively related to the Spreitzer scale. The new empowerment scale correlated -0.73 with helplessness and 0.72 with the Spreitzer empowerment scale. The magnitude and direction of these correlations are as hypothesized.

Discriminant validity was assessed by examining the relationships among the sub-scales of the 15-item scale and the sub-scales of the Spreitzer scale. The Spreitzer scale has four sub-scales: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact, with three items to each sub-scale. These sub-scales can be compared and contrasted with the empowerment scale developed here. The sub-scales "self-determination" and "impact" should correspond to the dimension of perceived control while the sub-scale "competence" should correspond to the dimension of perceived competence in the new scale. The sub-scale "meaning" has no strict parallel in the scale under development.



Common factor analysis of the Spreitzer scale items with a forced four-factor solution revealed the four sub-scales. The alpha reliabilities were as follows: .85 (meaning); .72 (competence); .74 (self-determination); and .93 (impact). Correlations between the dimensions of the new empowerment scale and the Spreitzer sub-scales are shown in Table 4. In line with prior expectations, the dimension of perceived control is most highly correlated with the sub-scales "impact" and "self-determination", while the dimension of perceived competence is most highly correlated with the sub-scale "competence". The dimension of goal internalization is most highly correlated with the sub-scale "meaning". This is intuitively understandable since individuals with higher levels of goal internalization are likely to experience their jobs as being more meaningful.

**TABLE 4**  
**Correlations of Empowerment Sub-scales with Spreitzer Sub-scales**

	Perceived Control	Perceived Competence	Goal Internalization
Meaning	.39	.18 <sup>b</sup>	.52
Competence	.13 <sup>a</sup>	.61	.0
Self-determination	.56	.22	.33
Impact	.76		.45

a=  $p < .05$

b=  $p < .01$

all other estimates =  $p < .001$

Further, individual scale items, sub-scales, and the total scale were correlated with the social desirability scale. There were no substantial correlations; the correlation with total empowerment scale being .10 (ns). The correlations with the sub-scales were as follows: -.01 (ns) with perceived control; .13 ( $p=.02$ ) with perceived competence; and .15 ( $p=.01$ ) with goal internalization. The absolute values of correlations with individual items ranged from .02 to .17 and the average correlation was .096.

#### 6.6: Test-Retest Reliability

The 15-item empowerment scale was administered to a separate sample of 85 employed respondents twice with a two week interval between administrations. The overall scale had a test-retest reliability of .87. The test-retest reliabilities of the three sub-scale were as follows: .86 (perceived control); .73 (perceived competence); and .86 (goal internalization).

#### 6.7: Discussion

The scale development process used in this study has adhered to standard scale development practice as recommended by DeVellis (1991). Starting with a well-reasoned theoretical framework, items were generated both by reference to existing literature and by an analysis of responses from a sample of employed individuals. This procedure and the expert review process that followed provides adequate assurance of the content validity of the scale items.

For scale development, Nunnally (1978) recommends that a sample size of 300 is adequate to eliminate subject variance as a significant concern. The sample size of 311 for this study satisfies this criterion. The validity of the results is enhanced by the fairly heterogeneous nature of the respondent sample in terms of gender, language, functional specialization and industrial sector.

The results of the study indicate that the 15-item empowerment scale has excellent reliability and validity. The high internal consistency of the scale is indicated by the fact that the total scale reliability of .87 and sub-scales reliabilities ranging from .76 to .87 are all greater than .70, the minimum acceptable for new scales (Nunnally, 1978). Further, the high test-retest reliability of .87 using an independent sample points to the excellent temporal stability of the scale.

The factorial validity of the three-dimensional scale is demonstrated by the pattern of factor loadings, with each of the 15 items loading highly on only the hypothesized underlying factor it represented. This was further confirmed by the dimensionality analysis which showed that the three-factor model had the best fit. The presence of a higher order latent factor underlying the three dimensions of perceived control, perceived competence, and goal internalization was supported by the results of the second order factor analysis.

The results also support the contention that the 15-item scale has good convergent and discriminant validity. The scale was significantly and negatively correlated with the helplessness scale ( $r = -.73$ ), significantly and positively correlated with the Spreitzer empowerment scale ( $r = .72$ ) and not significantly correlated with the social desirability scale ( $r = .10$ ). Correlations between the sub-scales of the present scale and those of the Spreitzer scale provide further evidence of convergent and discriminant validity. For example, the sub-scale "perceived competence" is highly correlated ( $r = .61$ ) with the sub-scale "competence" in the Spreitzer scale with no correlations of comparable magnitude with the other sub-scales of the Spreitzer scale.

Thus the results of the various analyses serve to establish the reliability and validity of the multi-dimensional empowerment scale developed here. The sound psychometric properties of the scale justify its use in Phase II of the research.

## Chapter 7: Assembling and Testing the Phase II Questionnaire

Phase II of the research was concerned with the testing of the theoretical framework proposed in Chapter 4. It involved the validation of a nomothetical network with empowerment as the central construct. The questionnaire used consisted of the empowerment measure developed in Phase I and the measures for the various antecedent and outcome variables referred to in Chapter 4.

### 7.1: Measures of Antecedent Variables

The two broad types of antecedent variables discussed in Chapter 4 were context factors and managerial behaviors. The context factors were further categorized into organizational level context factors and job level context factors. The different measures used for the above antecedent conditions are described below.

#### 7.1.1: Measures of Organizational Level Context Factors

For organizational level factors, established measures were used to the extent possible. New items were generated to form scales to measure variables for which no appropriate measures were readily available.

##### 7.1.1a: Perceived Uncertainty in the Work Environment

Since there are no established measures for perceived uncertainty in the work environment, this variable was assessed by the following 6 items developed for this study:

1. My organization is currently undergoing major changes.
2. These days in my organization, it seems that anybody could get laid-off at anytime.
3. They are constantly changing the way things are done in my organization.

4. It is difficult to keep pace with all the changes going on in my organization.

5. These days, things are pretty stable in my organization. (Reverse scored)

6. There is a lot of uncertainty in my organization at the moment.

The response format chosen was a 6-point Likert type scale with the following response choices: Strongly Disagree, Moderately Disagree, Mildly Disagree, Mildly Agree, Moderately Agree, and Strongly Agree.

#### 7.1.1b: Formalization

Inkson, Pugh, and Hickson (1970) measured formalization in terms of the number and distribution of role-defining documents such as information booklets, organization charts, and procedure manuals. Here, since the focus is on the dysfunctional inflexibility of the bureaucratic environment, formalization was operationalized as the extent of explicit formulation of organizational norms. It was assessed by items patterned on the formalization scales developed by Inkson et al. (1970) and by Oldham and Hackman (1981). Individuals were asked to indicate the extent to which the following 5 items are characteristic of their organization:

1. Most of the communication between people is in written form.

2. There are explicit written rules and regulations for most aspects of work.

3. Senior officers prefer to be addressed through the formal hierarchy.

4. Most people have written job descriptions.

5. Most people work according to operation manuals or policy books.

The response format was a 6 point Likert type scale with the following response choices: Very uncharacteristic of my organization, uncharacteristic of my organization, somewhat uncharacteristic of my organization, somewhat characteristic of my organization, characteristic of my organization, and very characteristic of my organization.

#### 7.1.1c: Centralization

Centralization was operationalized as the concentration of decision-making with regard to strategic and managerial functions and task performance, in line with Dewar, Whetten, and Boje (1980). The items in the scale tapped two dimensions of centralization, namely, participation in decision-making and hierarchical authority. For the participation measure, Dewar et al. (1980) reported reliability alphas of .81 for their data set and .95, .92, and .93 for the original Aiken and Hage (1968) data which was used for developing the measure. The alphas for the hierarchy measure were .79, .96, and .70 for the Aiken and Hage data.

#### 7.1.1d: Communication

The state of communication in the organization was operationalized as the extent of perceived information accuracy and openness. O'Reilly and Roberts (1976), in their study of relationships between source credibility and communication, found that both accuracy and openness are significantly and positively associated with the frequency of contact and the number of others contacted. Thus these dimensions of accuracy and openness could reflect the state of communications and network forming systems mentioned by Conger and Kanungo (1988) and the availability of the "power tools" referred to by Kanter (1983).

Perceived information accuracy and perceived communication openness was measured by the 10-item scale developed by O'Reilly and Roberts (1976). These two dimensions had reliabilities of .78 and .85 respectively in the original study.

#### 7.1.1e: Reward Systems

The non-arbitrary or contingent nature of the reward system was operationalized through the variable of distributive justice and was measured

by the Price and Mueller (1986) Distributive Justice Index (DJI). This variable captures the facet of arbitrary or non-contingent rewards since Price and Mueller (1986) define distributive justice as "the degree to which rewards and punishments are related to performance inputs" (p. 123). The DJI is widely used and is very reliable with alphas from the original three studies ranging between .94 and .95.

#### 7.1.2: Measures of Job Related Context Factors

Established measures were used to assess all the job related context factors. However, for reasons of questionnaire brevity, reduced versions of some scales were used as described below.

##### 7.1.2a: Job Autonomy, Job Feedback, and Job Meaningfulness

Job autonomy, job feedback, and meaningfulness were measured by respective items from the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1975). Hackman and Oldham (1975; 1976) and Fried and Ferris (1987) provide evidence of adequate reliability and validity of the JDS. The reliabilities in the original sample were .66 (autonomy), .71(feedback), and .74(meaningfulness).

##### 7.1.2b: Role Ambiguity and Role Conflict

Role ambiguity was measured by items taken from the scales developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970). These scales are widely used and are recommended as being satisfactory measures by Jackson and Schuler (1985). The total scale alphas for role ambiguity and role conflict were .78 and .82 in the original study. In order to restrict the length of the questionnaire, a smaller number of items was used for each scale. The items were chosen on the basis of the original factor loadings reported by Rizzo et al. (1970). For role ambiguity, the following six items were used:

1. I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.

2. I feel certain about how much authority I have.
3. I know that I have divided my time at work properly.
4. I know what my responsibilities are.
5. I know exactly what is expected of me.
6. I have to work under vague directives or orders.

For role conflict, the following six items were used:

1. In my job, I have to do things that should be done differently.
2. I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.
3. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.
4. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.
5. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.
6. I perform work that suits my values.

### 7.1.3: Managerial Behaviors

Managerial behaviors such as delegation, consulting, recognizing, inspiring, and mentoring were measured by items taken from Yukl's (1988) Managerial Practices Survey. Each behavior is assessed on a 4-point frequency scale ranging from 1(never/seldom) to 4(always/very frequently).

## 7.2: Measures of Individual Difference Variables

The individual difference variables included were Type A behavior, locus of control, global self-esteem, and optimism. Established measures were used for all variables.

### 7.2.1: Type A behavior

Type A behavior was measured by Bortner's (1969) scale. In their assessment of this scale, Price (1979) reported a reliability of .72 to .74, while Johnston and Shaper (1983) found a reliability of .80 for their sample.



Bortner (1969) reported a reliability of .68 for the original sample and Bass (1984) found a test-retest reliability of .84 for this scale which has also been used in the behavioral sciences (e.g., Jamal, 1990).

#### 7.2.2: Locus of Control

Locus of control was measured by the shortened version of Nowicki and Duke (1974). This scale is preferred to Rotter's (1966) scale since the latter has been criticized for containing socially desirable items and for difficult reading level (Nowicki & Duke, 1974). In their original twelve studies, these authors found split-half reliabilities ranging from .74 to .86.

#### 7.2.3: Global Self-esteem

Global self-esteem was measured by the widely used Rosenberg's (1965) self-esteem scale. Rosenberg (1965) reported a test-retest reliability of .85 for this scale (p.30).

#### 7.2d: Optimism

Optimism was measured by Scheier and Carver's (1985) Life Orientation Test (LOT) for dispositional optimism. These authors reported an alpha of .76 for the scale with a test-retest reliability of .79.

### 7.3: Measures of Outcome Variables

As with the antecedent variables, established measures of outcome variables were used wherever possible. The actual measures are described below.

#### 7.3.1: Internal Work Motivation

Internal work motivation was measured by items from the JDS (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). The reliability for this sub-scale in the original sample was .76.

### 7.3.2: Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured by the satisfaction scale used by Gorn and Kanungo (1980). This scale measures satisfaction on eight organizationally controlled rewards, four interpersonally mediated rewards and three internally mediated rewards. These authors reported a reliability of .91 for this satisfaction scale. This scale is preferred to other job satisfaction scales since this scale has been successfully used with samples from the same population as is envisaged for the present study (see for example, Kanungo, 1980). In addition to this scale, the short version of the Female Faces Scale recommended by Dunham and Herman (1975) was used as a second measure to check for possible method variance.

### 7.3.3: Job Stress

Job stress was measured by the subjective stress measure developed by Motowildo, Packard, and Manning (1986) and by items from the two-dimensional stress measure developed by Parker and Decotiis (1983). Motowildo et al. reported an alpha of .83 for their scale while, Parker and Decotiis reported alphas of .86 and .74 for the two dimensions of time stress and anxiety, respectively.

### 7.3.4: Job Involvement

Job involvement was measured by Kanungo's (1982) Job Involvement Questionnaire. The alpha for this scale in the original sample was .87 and the test-retest reliability reported was .85.

### 7.3.5: Extra-role Behaviors

Extra-role behaviors was operationalized as organizational citizenship behaviors (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983) and was measured by a modified measure of the original 16-item measure used by Smith et al. (1983). This modification is necessitated by the self-report nature of the present

questionnaire. Respondents were asked to state how many times in the past month they performed the various citizenship behaviors. The response format was the form of a 5 point scale with the following response options: never, seldom, sometimes, often, always/very frequently. A 10-item social desirability scale by Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) was also included elsewhere in the questionnaire to check for possible social desirability bias.

#### 7.3.6: Organizational Commitment

Organizational commitment was measured by the Affective Commitment Scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990). This scale was chosen since the authors' definition of affective commitment as emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization was closest to the type of organizational commitment envisaged as the outcome of empowerment in the present formulation. Allen and Meyer (1990) reported a reliability of .87 for this scale.

#### 7.4: Assembling the Phase II questionnaire

The Phase II questionnaire was thus composed of the 15-item empowerment scale developed in Phase I and scales for the various antecedent, individual difference, and outcome variables described above. Based on their original response formats, the scales were grouped into 11 clusters which formed the 11 sections of the questionnaire. For instance, the scales for job involvement, empowerment, perceived uncertainty, and formalization all have a 6 point response format ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. Accordingly, items from these scales were clustered together to form a section. Wherever appropriate, the order of individual items from the different scales in each section were scrambled and interspersed such that it was difficult for the respondent to readily discern any systematic pattern. The faces scale for job satisfaction was retained as a

separate section. The final section of the questionnaire consisted of demographic variables.

#### 7.5: Testing the Phase II Questionnaire

The Phase II questionnaire was administered to a test group of 66 employees of a financial services company headquartered in Western Ontario. The primary purpose of the test administration was to assess the reliabilities of the various scales in the questionnaire.

The administration of the questionnaire was coordinated by the operations department at the company headquarters. All 162 employees of the company received the questionnaire through internal mail. Response was voluntary. A total of 66 questionnaires were returned yielding a response rate of 41%. The sample made up mostly of female employees (92%) had an average age of 27.3 years. Forty two percent of the sample had college degrees and the average organizational tenure was 4.2 years.

Item-total correlations and Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients were calculated for each of the scales included in the questionnaire. As a general guideline, measures were considered to have adequate reliability if the reliability coefficient was at least .70. An evaluation of the various measures is described below.

##### 7.5.1: Organizational Level Factors

Table 5 shows the reliabilities of the various scales used to measure organizational level context factors. All scales except the formalization scale had acceptable reliabilities. It was decided to replace all the items of the formalization scale with a new set of items focusing on the bureaucratic aspect of organizations characterized by high formalization.

**TABLE 5**  
**Reliabilities: Organizational Level Factors (Pilot Study)**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Coefficient Alpha
Perceived Uncertainty	6	.72
Formalization	5	.44
Centralization	9	.78
Communication	10	.83
Reward Systems	6	.95

The items in the new scale were:

1. There is too much paper work in this organization.
2. The work environment in my organization is very bureaucratic.
3. There are too many rules and regulations to be followed in this organization.
4. It is very difficult to do things differently in this organization.
5. Most people here think that this organization is very rigid and inflexible.

#### 7.5.2: Job Level Factors

Table 6 shows the reliabilities of the scales used to measure job level factors. The job meaningfulness and role conflict scales had acceptable reliabilities. However, one item in the role conflict scale, "I perform work that suits my values", was dropped on grounds of low item-total correlation.

The job autonomy scale had a low reliability of .50. It was decided to add two more items to the scale. Further, one negatively worded item, "There is very little autonomy in my job", with a low item-total correlation was replaced. The items in the revised scale were as follows:

1. My job gives me complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done.

2. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgement in carrying out the work.
3. I have complete freedom in deciding how I do my job.
4. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my work.
5. My job requires me to make my own decisions.

**TABLE 6**  
**Reliabilities: Job Level Factors (Pilot Study)**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Coefficient Alpha
Job Autonomy	3	.50
Job Feedback	3	.65
Job Meaningfulness	4	.84
Role Ambiguity	6	.65
Role Conflict	6	.76

Both the feedback and role ambiguity scales had somewhat low reliabilities of .65. In the feedback scale, the item "Just doing the work required by the job provides many chances for me to figure out how well I am doing" was replaced by "The job is set up so that as I work I get constant feedback about how well I am doing". Further, a new item "My job is such that I could go on working for a long time without finding out how well I am doing", was added to the scale.

In the role ambiguity scale, two items with low item-total correlations were rewritten as follows. The item, "I have clear, planned goals and objectives for my job", was replaced by "I have a clear idea of what is to be done on this job" and the item, "I have to work under vague directives or orders", was replaced by "What I have to do on this job is often not clear".

### 7.5.3: Managerial Behaviors

Table 7 shows the reliabilities of the scales measuring various managerial behaviours. All the scales were considered to have acceptable reliabilities. However, one item each was dropped from the recognizing and inspiring behaviour scales for reasons of scale brevity.

**TABLE 7**  
**Reliabilities: Managerial Behaviors (Pilot Study)**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Coefficient Alpha
Delegating	3	.68
Consulting	5	.82
Recognizing	6	.86
Inspiring	6	.82
Mentoring	4	.79

### 7.5.4: Individual Difference Variables

Table 8, shows the reliabilities of scales measuring the four individual difference variables. The self-esteem and optimism scales had acceptable reliabilities. The Type A scale had a somewhat low reliability. This was attributed to the ambiguous nature of the response format<sup>1</sup>. The response format was altered so that respondents were now required to position themselves on a scale of 1 to 7 between two extremes characterized by Type A and non Type A behaviors.

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<sup>1</sup>The response format used was the original format used by Bortner (1969). It required respondents to make a vertical mark on a line 1.5" long to indicate where they thought they belonged between two extremes characterized as Type A and non Type A behaviours. Scoring was accomplished by measuring the distance from the non type A end of the line to the vertical mark made by the respondent, corrected to the nearest 1/16th of an inch.

**TABLE 8**  
**Reliabilities: Individual Difference Variables (Pilot Study)**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Coefficient Alpha
Type A Behaviour	14	.60
Locus of Control	10	.36
Self Esteem	10	.81
Optimism	9	.81

The reliability of the locus of control scale was found to be unacceptably low. The entire scale was replaced by the following 10 pairs of forced choice items selected from the original Rotter (1966) scale on the basis of high item-total correlations:

1.   a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.  
     b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
2.   a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.  
     b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
3.   a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.  
     b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
4.   a. When I make plans I am almost certain that I can make them work.  
     b. It is not wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
5.   a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.  
     b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.



6.
  - a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
  - b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it.
7.
  - a. As far as world events are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.
  - b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
8.
  - a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
  - b. There really is no such thing as luck.
9.
  - a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
  - b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
10.
  - a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over things that happen to me.
  - b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

#### 7.5.5: Empowerment Scale

Table 9 shows the reliability of the empowerment scale and the three sub-scales. The overall empowerment scale and the individual sub-scales had acceptable reliabilities.

#### 7.5.6: Outcome Variables

Table 10 shows the reliabilities of outcomes variables hypothesized to be related to empowerment. All the scales had satisfactory reliabilities. The correlation between the faces scale for job satisfaction and the 16-item job satisfaction scale was .46 ( $p < .001$ ).

**TABLE 9**  
**Reliabilities: Empowerment and Sub-scales (Pilot Study)**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Coefficient Alpha
Empowerment	15	.89
Perceived Control	5	.76
Perceived Competence	5	.84
Goal Internalization	5	.90

**TABLE 10**  
**Reliabilities: Outcome Variables (Pilot Study)**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Coefficient Alpha
Internal Work Motivation	15	.75
Job Satisfaction	16	.91
Subjective Stress	4	.86
Time Stress	8	.81
Anxiety	5	.70
Orgnl. Citizenship Behavior	16	.70
Job Involvement	10	.85
Organizational Commitment	8	.84

For reasons of scale brevity, the following alterations were made. Based on item-total correlations, the item "Most people on this job feel bad or unhappy when they have performed the work poorly" was dropped from the internal work motivation scale. From the time stress scale, the items "I sometimes dread the telephone ringing at home because the call might be job related" and "Too many people at my level in the company get burned out by job demands", were dropped on similar grounds. The item "I feel guilty when I take time off from the job" was dropped from the anxiety scale as it had the

lowest item-total correlation. In the same vein, from the job involvement scale, the items "Usually I feel detached from my job" and "Most of my personal life goals are job-oriented" were dropped. Lastly, the items "I really feel as if this organization's problems were my own" and "I do not feel like part of the family at my organization" were dropped from the organizational commitment scale for the same reason.

It may be recalled that the social desirability scale was included to test for social desirability effects in the 16-item self-report measure of organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The 10-item social desirability scale had a reliability of .74 and its correlation with OCB was .40 ( $p < .01$ ). Thus, the self-report OCB measure in its present form indicates the possibility of social desirability bias. To investigate the nature of the social desirability bias further, the 16-item OCB scale was split into a 7-item altruism scale and a 9-item general compliance scale, in line with the original factor analysis reported by Smith, Organ, and Near (1983). The altruism scale contains items dealing with voluntary helping behaviors while the general compliance scale contains items dealing with organizationally desirable behaviours such as punctuality, not taking undeserved breaks, etc.. Table 11 shows the correlations of these sub-scales with social desirability.

In line with intuitive expectations, the general compliance scale is highly correlated with social desirability ( $r = .55$ ,  $p < .001$ ). On the other hand, despite very high correlation with the overall OCB measure ( $r = .88$ ,  $p < .001$ ), the altruism scale is not significantly correlated with social desirability ( $r = .19$ , n.s.). Thus it appears that the social desirability bias in the self-report measure arises mainly from the general compliance items. Therefore, it was decided to eliminate these nine items from the self-report measure of OCB. In addition, two items were dropped for reasons of scale brevity resulting in a final 5-item self-report measure of OCB.

**TABLE 11**  
**Correlations: OCB and Social Desirability**

	1	2	3	4
1. OCB (16 items)	(.70)			
2. Altruism (7 items)	.88***	(.80)		
3. General Compliance (9 items)	.64***	.21	(.50)	
4. Social Desirability (10 items)	.40**	.19	.55***	(.74)

\*\*      $p < .01$

\*\*\*    $p < .001$

Figures in parentheses along the diagonal indicate scale reliabilities.

#### 7.5.7: Conclusion

The pilot test indicated satisfactory reliabilities for the majority of the scales included in the Phase II questionnaire. Scales with low reliabilities were altered with a view to increase their reliabilities. The length of the questionnaire was considerably shortened by dropping items where appropriate. The Phase II questionnaire in its final form is shown in Appendix II.

## Chapter 8: The Validation Study: Analysis and Results

This chapter describes the main validation study of Phase II. The principle objective of Phase II is to establish the nature of the empowerment construct by testing specific hypotheses linking empowerment to various antecedent and outcome variables. After a description of the conduct of the study, a detailed account of the data analyses and the associated results is provided.

### 8.1: Method

The study used the Phase II questionnaire described in Chapter 7. In contrast to the measure development study where it was desirable to have as heterogeneous a sample as possible, in the Phase II study it is preferable to have respondents from a single organization. Although there is the risk of reduced variance in many of the organizational level measures, this type of sample eliminates the need to consider factors such as organizational size, culture, or industry type as possible alternative explanations for the obtained results. This reasoning is in line with the recommendations for theory testing advanced by Calder, Phillips and Tybout (1981).

#### 8.1.1: Questionnaire Preparation

The Phase II questionnaire in its final form was translated into French using five independent translators. The questionnaire was first translated into French by one translator and back translated into English by another translator. This process was replicated by another independent pair of translators. The fifth translator compared the original questionnaire to the two French versions and the two back translated English versions and formulated the final French version of the questionnaire. Individual sections were clearly demarcated and suitably arranged for ease of response. The final version of the questionnaire is presented in Appendix III.

### 8.1.2: Sample and Administration

The study was conducted in a small general hospital located in a predominantly francophone town in Northeastern Quebec. The methodology used for data collection was as follows. The human resources department of the hospital first selected three days on which the study would be conducted. The heads of the various departments were then informed about the research and they in turn advised their employees about the study. Employees were requested to participate in the study at any time of their convenience during the three-day period. The researcher was allowed the exclusive use of a conference room for the purpose of administering the questionnaire and employees were released from work by their supervisors if they chose to come and complete the questionnaire.

A total of 182 employees were scheduled to work on the assigned three days. Eighty one of these employees completed the questionnaire personally administered by the researcher. In addition nineteen employees who could not free themselves from their work stations during the assigned three days mailed completed questionnaires directly to the researcher. The final sample size was thus 100, equalling a response rate of 55%. The sample was predominantly female (60%) and the average age of the respondents was 42 years.

### 8.2: Analysis and Results

Since this study is concerned with the validation of the nomothetic framework with empowerment as the central construct, the data analysis primarily deals with the testing of the various hypotheses that constitute the framework. The hypotheses are arranged into three broad categories:

- 1) Hypotheses involving proposed antecedent conditions of empowerment.
- 2) Hypotheses involving proposed interactions among antecedent conditions.

3) Hypotheses involving proposed consequences of empowerment. Accordingly, the analyses and results are presented in three main sections. A final section explores the possible mediating role of empowerment in the relationship between the antecedent conditions and the outcome variables. The reliability of the empowerment scale is first examined.

#### 8.2.1: The Empowerment Scale

The 15-item empowerment scale yielded a reliability of .80. Item-total correlations revealed that the item EMP13, "Important responsibilities are part of my job", had an extremely low item-total correlation of -.04. Further examination revealed a high mean of 5.62 (on a scale of 1 to 6) and a low standard deviation of .63. This response pattern is possibly due to the nature of the hospital setting with employees uniformly attributing a high degree of responsibility to their jobs. It was decided to drop this item from further analysis. Table 12 gives the reliability of the resultant 14-item scale and also the sub-scale reliabilities.

**TABLE 12**  
**Reliabilities: Empowerment and Sub-scales**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Coefficient Alpha
Empowerment (EMP)	14	.82
Perceived Control (CNTRL)	4	.70
Perceived Competence (COMP)	5	.72
Goal Internalization (GOAL)	5	.83

#### 8.3: Hypotheses Involving Antecedent Conditions

In this section, the relationship between the proposed antecedent conditions and the empowerment construct is explored. As in the previous

chapter, antecedent conditions are further sub-divided into context factors at the organizational and job levels, managerial behaviors, and individual difference variables.

### 8.3.1: Organizational Level Context Factors and Empowerment

Table 13 shows the means, standard deviations and reliabilities of the measures for the variables perceived uncertainty in the work environment (PU), formalization (FORM), centralization (CENT), perceived accuracy and openness of communication (COMMN), and perceived fairness of reward systems (REW), grouped together as organizational level factors. All measures except the formalization measure had reliabilities over .70. The reliability of the formalization measure at .66 represents a considerable improvement over the previous measure which had a reliability coefficient of only .44. Thus all measures were considered to have satisfactory reliabilities.

**TABLE 13**  
**Means, Standard Deviations & Reliabilities: Organizational Level Factors**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Mean	std. dev.	Reliability
Perceived Uncertainty (PU)	6	4.14	.97	.71
Formalization (FORM)	5	3.87	.93	.66
Centralization (CENT)	9	3.41	.74	.80
Communication (COMMN)	10	4.83	1.21	.87
Reward System (REW)	6	2.89	1.10	.91

The hypotheses involving the organizational level context variables are:

- H1. Perceived uncertainty in the work environment will be negatively related to empowerment.
- H2. Formalization will be negatively related to empowerment.
- H3. Centralization will be negatively related to empowerment.



H4. Communication as measured by perceived information accuracy and openness will be positively related to empowerment.

H5. Appropriateness of the reward system as measured by the Distributive Justice Index will be positively related to empowerment.

Table 14 shows the correlations among the organizational level factors and empowerment. In line with the hypotheses, empowerment is significantly and negatively related to perceived uncertainty, formalization, and centralization while being significantly and positively related to accurate and open communications and perceived fairness of reward systems. Thus, all the hypotheses dealing with the relationship between organizational level context factors and empowerment are strongly supported.

**TABLE 14**  
**Correlations: Organizational Level Factors and Empowerment**

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Perceived Uncertainty					
2. Formalization	.59***				
3. Centralization	.06	.39***			
4. Communication	-.18	-.27**	-.19		
5. Reward Systems	-.30**	-.31**	-.21*	.28**	
6. Empowerment	-.33***	-.34***	-.31**	.36***	.34***

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

To explore the nature of the relationship between the organizational level factors and empowerment further, the correlations among each of these factors and the empowerment sub-scales were examined. Table 15 shows the results of the correlational analysis. The organizational level factors as a whole seem to be related to the sub-scales perceived control (CNTRL) and goal internalization (GOAL). None of the factors were significantly related to the sub-scale perceived competence (COMP). Perceived uncertainty while being negatively related to perceived control has the strongest negative relationship with goal internalization. As can be expected, both formalization and centralization were strongly and negatively related to perceived control. In addition, formalization was strongly and negatively related to goal internalization. Communication and reward systems were strongly and positively related to both perceived control and goal internalization.

**TABLE 15**  
**Correlation Coefficients: Empowerment Sub-scales and**  
**Organizational Level Context Factors**

Organizational Factors	Empowerment Sub-scales		
	CNTRL	COMP	GOAL
1. PU	-.24*	-.02	-.40***
2. FORM	-.29**	-.02	-.37***
3. CENT	-.47***	.11	-.22*
4. COMMN	.34***	.14	.32**
5. REW	.29**	.14	.35***

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

*Expanded variable names and abbreviations same as shown in Table 13*

Finally, to assess the relative influence of the five organizational level factors on empowerment, a multiple regression analysis was conducted with empowerment as the dependent variable and the organizational level factors as independent variables. To avoid problems of multicollinearity, standardized Z scores of the independent variables were used. The results of the multiple regression are given in Table 16. As can be seen the only variable with a significant ( $p < .05$ ) regression coefficient is perceived uncertainty. Among the remaining variables, centralization had the largest regression coefficient ( $\beta = -.20$ ,  $p < .10$ ). Together these variables accounted for 20% of the total variance.

**TABLE 16**  
**Multiple Regression: Empowerment on**  
**Organizational Level Context Factors**

Variable	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	p
Perceived Uncertainty	-.20	.090	-.27	-2.188	.031
Formalization	-.04	.096	-.05	-.407	.685
Centralization	-.18	.097	-.20	-1.863	.066
Communication	.07	.074	.09	.886	.378
Reward Systems	.08	.076	.11	1.056	.294

In summary, all the hypotheses relating the various organizational level context factors to empowerment (H1 to H5) were strongly supported. There are, however, some significant respects in which the empirical results differ from earlier expectations, particularly at the level of the sub-scales. According to Proposition 1 in Chapter 4, perceived uncertainty in the work environment was hypothesized to be related to empowerment, primarily through the dimension of perceived control. But the results in Table 15

indicate that perceived uncertainty is most strongly related to goal internalization. This is probably because increased perceptions of uncertainty with regards to the broader work environment and the associated feelings of lack of stability and anxiety detract from internalizing the goals and objectives of the organization.

In Proposition 2, increased formalization was expected to be related to decreased perceptions of control and competence. From Table 15 it can be seen that although formalization is significantly and negatively related to perceived control, it is not significantly related to perceived competence. Rather, the strongest negative relationship is with goal internalization. This is possibly due to the alienating effect of increased bureaucratic formalization, which makes it difficult for employees to identify with organizational goals.

The variables centralization, communication, and reward systems are all related to perceived control in line with Propositions 3, 4, & 5. Perceived competence was not, however, related significantly to centralization. The variable reward systems was found to be significantly related to goal internalization, possibly because perceived unfairness in the distribution of rewards could be alienating, which in turn could detract from goal internalization.

The results of the multiple regression suggest that among the organizational context variables, perceived uncertainty and centralization have the most influence on empowerment, explaining a total of 20% of the variance. This is intuitively understandable and in line with Conger & Kanungo's (1988) argument that work environments that are highly centralized and highly uncertain promote powerlessness rather than empowerment.

### 8.3.2: Job Level Context Factors and Empowerment

Table 17 shows the means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the job level context factors such as job autonomy (AUTO), job feedback (FBK),

job meaningfulness (MEAN), role ambiguity (RA), and role conflict (RC). While calculating reliabilities for the job autonomy and job meaningfulness scales, one item each was dropped from the original scale due to low item-total correlation. Only the job feedback measure had a relatively low reliability of .60. All other measures were considered to have satisfactory reliabilities. The hypotheses involving these job level factors are as follows:

- H6. Job autonomy will be positively related to empowerment.
- H7. Job feedback will be positively related to empowerment.
- H8. Job meaningfulness will be positively related to empowerment.
- H9. Role ambiguity will be negatively related to empowerment.
- H10. Role conflict will be negatively related to empowerment.

**TABLE 17**  
**Means, Standard Deviations & Reliabilities: Job Level Context Factors**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Mean	s.d.	Reliability
Job Autonomy (AUTO)	4	4.81	1.34	.73
Job Feedback (FBK)	4	4.32	1.27	.60
Job Meaningfulness (MEAN)	3	5.59	1.23	.75
Role Ambiguity (RA)	6	2.03	0.73	.66
Role Conflict (RC)	5	3.42	1.39	.76

Table 18 gives the correlations among empowerment and the various job level context factors. In line with expectations, empowerment is significantly and positively related to job autonomy, job feedback, and job meaningfulness while being significantly and negatively correlated to role ambiguity and role conflict. Thus, all the hypotheses relating to job level context factors appear to be strongly supported.

**TABLE 18**  
**Correlations: Job Level Context Factors and Empowerment**

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Job Autonomy					
2. Job Feedback	.13				
3. Job Meaningfulness	.10	.29**			
4. Role Ambiguity	.05	-.30**	-.33**		
5. Role Conflict	-.03	-.39***	-.55***	.43***	
6. Empowerment	.27**	.33**	.49***	-.36***	-.41***

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

The correlations among the sub-scales of the empowerment scale and the job level context factors were examined to better understand the nature of the relationship between empowerment and each of the job level context factors. The results of the correlation analysis are presented in Table 19. As can be expected, job autonomy is related to empowerment mainly through perceived control while role ambiguity is related to empowerment mainly through perceived competence. Both meaningfulness and role conflict are related to all three sub-scales while job feedback is related to both perceived control and goal internalization.

**TABLE 19**  
**Correlation Coefficients:**  
**Empowerment Sub-scales and Job Level Context Factors**

Job Level Variable	Empowerment Sub-scales		GOAL
	CNTRL	COMP	
1. AUTO	.34***	.00	.21*
2. FBK	.27*	.16	.320**
3. MEAN	.44***	.24*	.43***
4. RA	-.19	-.59***	-.22*
5. RC	-.34***	-.27**	-.34***

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

*Expanded variable names and abbreviations are as shown in Table 17.*

In order to assess the relative influence of the various job level context factors on empowerment, a multiple regression analysis was conducted with empowerment as the dependent variable and the five job level factors as independent variables. As before standardized Z scores were used for the independent variables. Table 20 shows the results of the multiple regression. As can be seen the only variable with a significant ( $p < .05$ ) regression coefficient was job autonomy.

**TABLE 20**  
**Multiple Regression: Empowerment on Job Level Context Factors**

Variable	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	p
Job Autonomy	.17	.070	.23	2.373	.020
Job Feedback	.08	.080	.11	1.066	.289
Job Meaningfulness	.17	.084	.15	1.391	.168
Role Ambiguity	-.12	.081	-.16	-1.528	.130
Role Conflict	-.09	.089	-.13	-1.030	.306

In summary, all the hypotheses relating the various job level context factors to empowerment (H5 to H10) were supported (all p's < .01). The empirical results are also in line with Propositions 6 to 10 in chapter 4, although there are some significant deviations. In line with expectations, job autonomy seems related to empowerment mainly through the sub-dimension of perceived control. On the other hand, job feedback was expected to be primarily related to perceived competence. This relationship, however, was empirically non-significant as can be seen from Table 19. Job feedback seems more related to goal internalization than the other two dimensions although the rather low reliability (.60) of the job feedback measure precludes definitive conclusions. Job meaningfulness was, as expected strongly related to goal internalization. It was also found to be strongly related to perceived control possibly because of the element of choice inherent in performing meaningful jobs. One could presume that individuals, in general, would prefer more meaningful jobs to less meaningful ones. Therefore, individuals who perceive their jobs as being less meaningful possibly do not have a choice in



the matter, in turn leading to lower perceived control of their work and work environment.

Role ambiguity was expected to lower empowerment primarily through reduced perceptions of control. The empirical results in Table 19 indicate, however, that role ambiguity is primarily related to the dimension of perceived competence. This is intuitively understandable since increased role ambiguity implies reduced understanding of role expectations which in turn could increase doubts about one's capabilities to meet performance standards. Reduced efficacy expectations possibly coupled with actual poor performance could lead to lower perceived competence.

Increased role conflict, in line with expectations was significantly related both to decreased perceived control and decreased perceived competence. In addition, it was significantly related to decreased goal internalization. Experienced role conflict could detract from the internalization of organizational goals since in the face of conflicting role demands, organizational objectives would appear to be contradictory or lacking in coherence.

The results of the multiple regression suggest that job autonomy has the most influence on empowerment. This is in line with expectations since increased job autonomy has been traditionally associated with increased empowerment.

### 8.3.3: Managerial Behaviors and Empowerment

The managerial behaviors thought to influence employee perceptions of empowerment were delegating (DLG), consulting (CNSL), recognizing (RCG), inspiring (INSP), and mentoring (MENT). Table 21 presents the means, standard deviations and reliabilities for the measures of each of these behaviors. All measures except for delegating behavior had high reliabilities. The hypotheses involving these managerial behaviours are:

H11. Delegating behavior will be positively related to empowerment.

H12. Consulting behavior will be positively related to empowerment.

H13. Recognizing behavior will be positively related to empowerment.

H14. Inspiring behavior will be positively related to empowerment.

H15. Mentoring behavior will be positively related to empowerment.

**TABLE 21**  
**Means, Standard Deviations & Reliabilities: Managerial Behaviors**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Mean	s.d.	Reliability
Delegating (DLG)	3	2.54	.70	.59
Consulting (CNSL)	5	2.92	.82	.90
Recognizing (RCG)	5	2.71	.84	.92
Inspiring (INSP)	5	2.80	.79	.89
Mentoring (MENT)	4	2.56	.84	.85

Table 22 gives the correlations among the various managerial behaviors and empowerment. All the five managerial behaviors are significantly and positively correlated to empowerment at the .001 level. Thus all the hypotheses directly relating the five managerial behaviours to empowerment were strongly supported.

Table 23 shows the results of correlation analyses at the level of the sub-scales, where the sub-scales of empowerment. As can be seen, managerial behaviors are related to empowerment through the perceived control and goal internalization. None of the coefficients involving the sub-scale perceived competence were significant.

Lastly, the five managerial behaviors were entered into a multiple regression analysis as independent variables with empowerment as the dependent variable. The results of the multiple regression analysis is shown in Table 24. As can be seen the only variable with a significant ( $p < .001$ ) regression coefficient was inspiring behavior.

**TABLE 22**  
**Correlations: Managerial Behaviors and Empowerment**

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Delegating					
2. Consulting	.57***				
3. Recognizing	.49***	.76***			
4. Inspiring	.56***	.83***	.79***		
5. Mentoring	.51***	.70***	.63***	.75***	
6. Empowerment	.35***	.45***	.50***	.58***	.37***

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

In summary, empowerment seems to be positively related to all five managerial behaviors, providing strong support for hypotheses H11 to H15. The more the superiors are perceived as practising delegation, consulting, recognition, inspiring, and mentoring, the more the employees perceive themselves to be empowered.

At the level of the sub-scales, the empirical results provide insights that go beyond those suggested by Propositions 11 to 15 in Chapter 4. The most noteworthy result is the important role played by the sub-scale goal internalization in the relationship between each of the managerial behaviors and empowerment. Delegating, consulting, and mentoring behaviors were expected to primarily result in increased perceived control and this was empirically supported by the results in Table 23. These behaviors, however, were strongly related to goal internalization. It is possible that delegation engenders a sense of responsibility in the employee as well as a better understanding of and involvement in work- related decision-making leading to greater goal internalization. Consulting behaviors also increase employee

involvement in decision-making regarding work and organizational issues, facilitating goal internalization. Mentoring behavior would highlight the individual's role in the achievement of organizational objectives and promote long-term involvement thereby facilitating goal internalization. The results of the multiple regression would seem to indicate that among the managerial behaviors, inspiring behavior has the most influence on empowerment, explaining 33% of the variance.

**TABLE 23**  
**Correlation Coefficients:**  
**Empowerment Sub-scales on Managerial Behaviors**

Managerial Behaviors	CNTRL	Empowerment Sub-scales COMP	GOAL
1. DLG	.37***	-.04	.37***
2. CNSL	.43***	-.11	.51***
3. RCG	.51***	.01	.48***
4. INSP	.52***	.04	.62***
5. MENT	.37***	-.05	.39***

\*\*\*  $p < .001$

*Expanded variable names and abbreviations are as shown in Table 21.*

**TABLE 24**  
**Multiple Regression: Empowerment on Managerial Behaviors**

Variable	b	s.e.	$\beta$	t	p
Delegating	.05	.073	.07	.676	.501
Consulting	-.09	.111	-.14	-.830	.409
Recognizing	.10	.099	.14	.973	.333
Inspiring	.44	.127	.66	3.478	.000
Mentoring	-.11	.092	-.16	-1.208	.231

A significant deviation from expectations was the non-significant relationship between recognizing behaviors and perceived competence. Recognizing behavior was expected to increase perceived competence through increased feedback and reinforcement of efficacy expectations. But the empirical results in Table 23 indicate that recognizing behaviors on the part of the immediate supervisor primarily affects perceived control and goal internalization. This is possibly because the recognition is interpreted as a sign of successful coping with the work environment leading to increased perceived control. It is possible that the recognition for successfully achieving organizationally desirable work objectives co-opts the individual into the pursuit of organizational objectives, thus enhancing goal internalization.

#### 8.3.4: Individual Difference Variables and Empowerment

The four individual difference measures included in the study were Type A behavior (TA), locus of control (LC), self esteem (EST), and optimism (OPT). The original 14 item Type A measure had a low reliability coefficient of .50. Examination of the item-total correlations revealed that 7

of the 14 items had very low correlations with the total, the average item-total correlation for these items being .06. Rather than using the full scale including these items, it was decided to use an abridged scale with 6 items chosen from the remaining 7 items. The items in this abridged scale were:

- a) Always rushed vs Never feels rushed, even under pressure
- b) Goes "all out" vs Casual
- c) Emphatic in speech (may pound desk) vs Slow, deliberate talker
- d) Wants good job recognized by others vs Only cares about satisfying himself no matter what others may think
- e) Fast (eating, walking, etc.) vs Slow doing things
- f) Easy going vs Hard driving

The use of this abridged scale was justified on the grounds that these six items capture the characteristics of competitiveness, time urgency, and aggressiveness commonly thought to characterize individuals who display Type A behavior. The reliability coefficient for this abridged scale was .69.

Table 25 gives the means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the measures of the various individual difference variables. Based on item-total correlations, one item was dropped from the locus of control scale which was scored in the direction of increasing internal locus of control. The comparatively low reliability coefficient of this scale could be due to reduced length (10 items as compared to the original 29 items) and the fact that the scale is additive. Items are not strictly comparable and this tends to underestimate the split-half reliability estimate (Rotter, 1966). Two items were dropped from the optimism scale on the basis of low item-total correlations. The self-esteem measure had satisfactory reliability.

The two hypotheses involving direct relationships between empowerment and individual difference variables are:

H16. Global self-esteem will be positively related to empowerment.

H17. Optimism will be positively related to empowerment.

Table 26 gives the correlations between the individual difference variables and empowerment. Both self-esteem and optimism are significantly and positively correlated with empowerment at the .001 level. Thus, hypotheses H16 and H17 were strongly supported. Internal locus of control was also significantly ( $p < .01$ ) and positively associated with empowerment. Although there was no specific hypothesis linking internal locus of control to empowerment, the significant correlation between the two variables is intuitively understandable since individuals with internal loci of control might be inherently biased toward greater perceptions of control over their work environment.

**TABLE 25**  
**Means, Standard Deviations & Reliabilities:**  
**Individual Difference Variables**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Mean	s.d.	Reliability
Type A behavior (TA)	6	4.50	0.87	.69
Locus of control (LC)	9	5.13	2.08	.61
Self esteem (EST)	10	3.43	0.38	.77
Optimism (OPT)	7	3.72	0.66	.71

Table 27 gives the correlations among the empowerment sub-scales and self-esteem, optimism, and locus of control. Self-esteem seems to be related to empowerment mainly through the sub-scales of perceived control and perceived competence. Optimism seems to influence empowerment mainly through perceived control and goal internalization. In line with intuitive expectations, locus of control seems to be associated with the sub-scale of perceived control.

**TABLE 26**  
**Correlations: Individual Difference Variables and Empowerment**

	1	2	3	4
1. Type A Behavior				
2. Locus of Control	.08			
3. Self-esteem	-.05	.13		
4. Optimism	.03	.44***	.41***	
5. Empowerment	.05	.30**	.36***	.61***

\*\* p < .01  
\*\*\* p < .001

**TABLE 27**  
**Correlation Coefficients:**  
**Empowerment Sub-scales and Individual Difference Variables**

Individual Difference Variables	Empowerment Sub-scales		
	CNTRL	COMP	GOAL
1. Self-esteem	.37***	.35***	.20
2. Optimism	.61***	.23*	.51***
3. Locus of Control	.30**	.08	.28**

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



In summary, all hypotheses dealing with direct relationships between the proposed antecedent conditions and empowerment (H1 to H17) were strongly supported. In addition, empowerment was found to be positively related to internal locus of control.

#### 8.4: Interactions among Antecedent Conditions

In the previous sections, direct relationships between the proposed antecedent conditions and empowerment were explored. This section deals with a test of proposed interactions among these antecedent conditions which were broadly grouped as organizational and job level context factors, managerial behaviors, and individual difference variables. The hypotheses dealing with interactive relationships are:

- H18. The effect of context factors on empowerment will be moderated by managerial behaviors.
- H19. The effect of context factors on empowerment will be moderated by Type A behavior.
- H20. The effect of context factors on empowerment will be moderated by locus of control.
- H21. The effect of context factors on empowerment will be moderated by global self-esteem.
- H22. The effect of managerial behaviors on empowerment will be moderated by locus of control.
- H23. The effect of managerial behaviors on empowerment will be moderated by optimism.

##### 8.4.1: Creating Block Variables

Rather than individually testing the above hypotheses on interaction effects using all ninety possible combinations of ten context factors, five managerial behaviors, and four individual difference variables, it was decided to create block variables for both context factors and managerial behaviors,

using the following procedure. First, the 10 context factors namely, perceived uncertainty (PU), formalization (FORM), centralization (CENT), communication (COMMN), reward systems (REW), job autonomy (AUTO), job feedback (FBK), job meaningfulness (MEAN), role ambiguity (RA), and role conflict (RC) were subject to a maximum likelihood factor analysis. Two factors emerged with factor loadings as shown in Table 28. The eigen values were 5.49 and 1.83 respectively. The first factor explained 75% of the variance while the second factor explained the remaining 25% of the variance.

**TABLE 28**  
**Maximum Likelihood Factor Loadings: Context Variables**

Variable	Factor 1	Factor 2
Role Conflict	.78	.18
Role Ambiguity	.56	-.17
Perceived Uncertainty	.39	.29
Job Feedback	-.45	-.20
Job Meaningfulness	-.65	-.21
Communication	-.68	-.17
Centralization	.12	.72
Formalization	.37	.51
Reward Systems	-.24	-.34
Job Autonomy	.05	-.60

Accordingly, two block variables were formed. The first labelled CNTXT1, was formed by combining the variables role conflict, role ambiguity, perceived uncertainty, job feedback, job meaningfulness, and communication. The second labelled CNTXT2, was formed by combining the variables centralization, formalization, reward systems, and job autonomy. These groupings seem intuitively sound since the first factor deals with perceived clarity and precision of the individual's relationship with the work environment while the second factor captures the extent of the individual's

perceptions of control and influence over the work environment. The actual procedure adopted for combining the variables was as follows. In the case of variable CNTXT1, the measures for role conflict, role ambiguity and perceived uncertainty were first reverse scored so as to be related to empowerment in the same direction as the variables job feedback, job meaningfulness, and communication. Next, scores for role conflict, role ambiguity, job feedback, job meaningfulness, and communication were converted to a scale of 1 to 6. All the six scores were then averaged to obtain the score for the variable CNTXT1. Similarly, in the case of variable CNTXT2, first the measures for centralization and formalization were reverse scored. Then, the measures for centralization, reward systems, and autonomy were converted to a scale of 1 to 6. Finally, the four individual scores were averaged to obtain the score for variable CNTXT2. The reliabilities of these composite measures were .77 and .65 for CNTXT1 and CNTXT2, respectively.

The five managerial behaviors were also subject to a maximum likelihood factor analysis the results of which are shown in Table 29. All the five behaviors loaded on one factor with an eigen value of 10.89 explaining 100% of the variance. Therefore, a single block variable (MGLBEH) was formed by averaging the scores of the five individual managerial behaviors. This variable was labelled MGLBEH and the reliability of this composite measure was .91.

In order to test the hypotheses involving interactions, the traditional hierarchical moderated multiple regression strategy (Stone, 1988) was used. This method involves a two stage hierarchical regression analysis. First, the dependent variable (Y) is regressed on both the independent variable (X1) and the proposed moderator (M). This regression yields an estimate of the proportion of the variance in Y explained by the main effects of X1 and M. Next, the interaction term (cross product of X1 and M) is added to the model. If the additional variance explained by the introduction of the cross

product term is statistically significant, it is concluded that X1 and M interactively influence Y.

**TABLE 29**  
**Maximum Likelihood Factor Loadings: Managerial Behaviors**

Variable	Factor 1
INSP	.93
CNSL	.89
RCG	.84
MENT	.79
DLG	.61

Table 30 gives the results of the hierarchical moderated multiple regression analysis with empowerment as the dependent variable. To avoid problems of multicollinearity, standardized Z scores were used for the independent variables and the proposed moderators. The cross product interaction term was obtained by multiplying the Z scores of the independent variable and the proposed moderator. While the variables CNTXT1, CNTXT2, and MGLBEH have independent main effects on empowerment, none of the interactive effects are significant. The interactive effects involving individual difference variables are also not significant although the main effects are in line with previous results from Table 26. While it is possible that the relatively small sample size results in reduced power to detect significant interactions, for the purposes of the present research it can be concluded that hypotheses H18 to H23, dealing with proposed interactions among antecedent variables, were not supported<sup>2</sup>.

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<sup>2</sup> To verify the possibility that the use of composite measures masked the discovery of true effects, the above analysis was repeated without combining variables. A total of 90 regressions equations with interaction terms were required to test hypotheses H18 to H23. The interaction term was significant in only 2 (2.2%) of the possible 90 cases. Based on an experiment-wise error rate of 5%, these results were not considered for further analysis or interpretation.

**TABLE 30**  
**Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis with**  
**Empowerment as the Dependent Variable**

Hypothesis	Variable entered	$\beta$	$R^2_{\text{change}}$	$R^2$
H18	Step 1 CNTXT1	.38***	.38***	.38***
	MGLBEH	.35***		
	F 27.89***			
	df 2,90			
H18	Step 2 CNTXT1 x MGLBEH	-.02	.00	.38***
	F <sub>change</sub> .08			
	df 3,89			
H18	Step 1 CNTXT2	.19	.24***	.24***
	MGLBEH	.32**		
	F 13.76***			
	df 2,85			
H18	Step 2 CNTXT2 x MGLBEH	-.08	.00	.25***
	F <sub>change</sub> .69			
	df 3,84			
H19	Step 1 CNTXT1	.45***	.21***	.21***
	Type A	.15		
	F 12.26***			
	df 2,92			
H19	Step 2 CNTXT1 x Type A	-.07	.00	.21***
	F <sub>change</sub> .01			
	df 3,91			
H19	Step 1 CNTXT2	.42***	.18***	.18***
	Type A	.14		
	F 9.65***			
	df 2,87			
H19	Step 2 CNTXT2 x Type A	-.07	.00	.19***
	F <sub>change</sub> .47			
	df 3,86			

\*\* p < .01  
\*\*\* p < .001

**TABLE 30 (Contd.)**  
**Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis with**  
**Empowerment as the Dependent Variable**

Hypothesis	Variable entered	$\beta$	$R^2_{\text{change}}$	$R^2$
H20	Step 1 CNTXT1	.39***	.21***	.21***
	Locus of Control (LC)	.16*		
	F 12.30***			
	df 2,92			
	Step 2 CNTXT1 x LC	-.04	.00	.21***
	F <sub>change</sub> .22			
	df 3,91			
H20	Step 1 CNTXT2	.37***	.18***	.18***
	Locus of Control (LC)	.14		
	F 9.69***			
	df 2,87			
	Step 2 CNTXT2 x LC	-.00	.00	.18***
	F <sub>change</sub> .00			
	df 3,86			
H21	Step 1 CNTXT1	.36***	.21***	.21***
	Self-esteem (EST)	.18*		
	F 12.34***			
	df 2,92			
	Step 2 CNTXT1 x EST	.03	.00	.21***
	F <sub>change</sub> .13			
	df 3,91			
H21	Step 1 CNTXT2	.37***	.21***	.21***
	Self-esteem (EST)	.22*		
	F 11.62***			
	df 2,87			
	Step 2 CNTXT2 x EST	-.04	.00	.21***
	F <sub>change</sub> .19			
	df 3,86			

$\pi$     p < .10  
 \*\*    p < .05  
 \*\*\*   p < .001

**TABLE 30 (Contd.)**  
**Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analysis with**  
**Empowerment as the Dependent Variable**

Hypothesis	Variable entered	$\beta$	$R^2_{\text{change}}$	$R^2$
H22	Step 1 MGLBEH	.50***	.30***	.30***
	Locus of Control (LC)	.17*		
	F 19.37***			
	df 2,91			
	Step 2 MGLBEH x LC	.06	.00	.30***
	F <sub>change</sub> .45 df 3,90			
H23	Step 1 MGLBEH	.44***	.35***	.35***
	Optimism	.31**		
	F 24.92***			
	df 2,91			
	Step 2 MGLBEH x Optimism	.04	.00	.35***
	F <sub>change</sub> .16 df 3,90			
<hr/>				
π	p < .10			
**	p < .01			
***	p < .001			

### 8.5: Empowerment and Outcome Variables

The outcome variables included in the study were internal work motivation (IWM), job satisfaction, job stress, job involvement (INV), organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and organizational commitment (COMMIT). There were two measures of satisfaction, the 16-item scale (SAT) and the faces scale (FSAT). Three measures of stress were used: subjective stress (STR), time stress (TIME), and anxiety (ANX).

Table 31 gives the means, standard deviations, and reliabilities of the various outcome measures. The majority of measures had satisfactory reliabilities. The reliability of the internal work motivation scale was calculated after eliminating two items on the basis of low item-total

correlations. The resulting reliability coefficient was still rather low. The organizational citizenship behavior measure also had a relatively low reliability coefficient. The hypotheses involving these outcome variables are as follows:

- H24. Empowerment will be positively related to internal work motivation.
- H25a. Empowerment will be positively related to job satisfaction.
- H25b. Empowerment will be positively related to the faces scale.
- H26a. Empowerment will be negatively related to subjective job stress.
- H26b. Empowerment will be negatively related to time stress.
- H26c. Empowerment will be negatively related to job-related anxiety.
- H27. Empowerment will be positively related to job involvement.
- H28. Empowerment will be positively related to organizational citizenship behavior.
- H29. Empowerment will be positively related to organizational commitment.

**TABLE 31**  
**Means, Standard Deviations & Reliabilities: Outcome Variables**

Variable Measured	Number of items	Mean s.d.		Alpha
Work Motivation (IWM)	3	6.25	0.79	.56
Job Satisfaction (SAT)	16	3.96	0.82	.92
Faces scale (FSAT)	1	4.79	0.98	-
Subjective Stress (STR)	4	3.63	0.93	.82
Time Stress (TIME)	6	2.24	0.61	.80
Anxiety (ANX)	4	2.49	0.54	.69
Job Involvement (INV)	8	4.01	0.87	.77
Citizenship Beh. (OCB)	5	3.19	0.67	.64
Orgnl. Commitment (COMMIT)	6	4.95	1.11	.72



**TABLE 32**  
**Correlations: Empowerment and Outcome Variables**

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. IWM									
2. SAT	.22*								
3. FSAT	.40***	.59***							
4. STR	-.11	-.43***	-.37**						
5. TIME	-.08	-.33**	-.35**	.38***					
6. ANX	-.10	-.37***	-.36**	.61***	.51***				
7. INV	.01	.26*	.15	.01	.10	.14			
8. OCB	.02	.21*	.13	.21*	.21*	.19	.17		
9. COMMIT	.09	.55***	.34**	-.12	-.19	-.10	.48***	.29**	
10. EMP	.23*	.68***	.50***	-.24*	-.13	-.17	.42***	.32**	.56***

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

*Expanded variable names are available in Table 31.*

The correlations among these outcome variables and empowerment are given in Table 32. The two satisfaction measures are highly correlated with each other ( $r=.59$ ,  $p<.001$ ). In line with expectations, empowerment is significantly and positively related to both measures of satisfaction ( $p < .001$ ). Empowerment is also significantly and positively associated with job involvement and organizational commitment ( $p < .001$ ). The relationship between empowerment and citizenship behavior is positive and significant ( $p < .01$ ) and there appears to be a positive and significant relationship between empowerment and internal work motivation ( $p < .05$ ). The three stress measures are significantly and positively correlated among themselves.

Empowerment had a negative relationship only with subjective stress, significant ( $p < .05$ ).

Thus, hypotheses H25a, H25b, H27, H28 and H29 relating empowerment to the two satisfaction measures, job involvement, organizational citizenship behavior, and organizational commitment, respectively, were strongly supported. Hypotheses H24 and H26a relating empowerment to internal work motivation and job stress were somewhat less strongly supported. Hypotheses H26b and H26c, relating empowerment to time stress and anxiety respectively, were not supported.

#### 8.6: Empowerment as a Mediating Construct

The conceptual framework on which this research is based envisages empowerment as a possible mediating construct between the antecedent conditions and the outcome variables. In general, a mediator variable can be used to explain significant relationships between independent variables and criterion variables. Equally, it can be used to explain the absence of significant relationships between independent variables and criterion variables. In the latter case the mediator variable is said to suppress direct relationships between the independent variables and the criterion variables (Bollen, 1989).

In line with Baron & Kenny's (1986) general recommendation, in order to conclude that empowerment mediates the relationship between a given antecedent condition and a given outcome variable, it is necessary

- a) to regress empowerment on the antecedent condition and demonstrate a significant relationship;
- b) to regress the outcome variable on the antecedent condition and demonstrate a significant relationship;
- c) to regress the outcome variable on both the antecedent condition and empowerment and demonstrate a significant relationship between the outcome variable and empowerment;

- d) that the effect of the antecedent condition on the outcome variable in (c) is smaller than the effect of the bivariate relationship in (b).

On the other hand to demonstrate a suppressor effect, it is necessary

- a) that there is a non significant relationship between the antecedent condition and the outcome variable;
- b) to regress empowerment on the antecedent condition and demonstrate a significant relationship;
- c) to regress the outcome variable on both the antecedent condition and empowerment and demonstrate that the significant coefficients are of opposite signs;
- d) to demonstrate that the magnitude of the direct and indirect effects of the antecedent condition on the outcome variable are roughly equal.

For the purposes of this analysis, the three block variables CNTXT1, CNTXT2, and MGLBEH were considered as the three antecedent conditions and the following general strategy was used. First, the nature of the relationship between a given antecedent condition and each of the outcome variables was examined. Next, all significant relationships were analyzed to test if empowerment plays a mediating role. Then, all non significant relationships were analyzed to explore the possible suppressor effects of empowerment.

#### 8.6.1: CNTXT1, Empowerment, and Outcome Variables

The antecedent condition variable CNTXT1 was first entered into a regression equation as an independent variable with the outcome variables and empowerment as dependent variables. Table 33 gives the results of the bivariate regression analyses. CNTXT1 has a significant relationship with internal work motivation, the two satisfaction measures, the three stress

measures and organizational commitment. The relationships between CNTXT1 and the outcome variables job involvement and organizational citizenship behavior were not significant.

**TABLE 33**  
**Regression Coefficients:**  
**Outcome Variables and Empowerment on CNTXT1**

Dependent Variable	b	s.e.
1. Internal Work Motivation (IWM)	.46***	.110
2. Job Satisfaction (SAT)	.77***	.093
3. Faces Scale (FSAT)	.73***	.137
4. Subjective Job Stress (STR)	-.36**	.134
5. Time Stress (TIME)	-.29**	.089
6. Job-related Anxiety (ANX)	-.35***	.075
7. Job Involvement (INV)	.12	.133
8. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB)	.13	.099
9. Organizational Commitment (COMMIT)	.80***	.145
10. Empowerment (EMP)	.54***	.084

\*\*      $p < .01$

\*\*\*    $p < .001$

**TABLE 34**  
**Regressions: Outcome Variables on CNTXT1, Empowerment**

Dependent Variable	Variables entered	Coefficient of CNTXT1 <sup>a</sup>	Coefficient of EMP <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>
IWM	CNTXT1	.46*** (.110)	-	.15***
	CNTXT1, EMP	.43** (.134)	.04 (.138)	.15***
SAT	CNTXT1	.77*** (.093)	-	.42***
	CNTXT1, EMP	.46*** (.097)	.57*** (.100)	.57***
FSAT	CNTXT1	.73*** (.137)	-	.27***
	CNTXT1, EMP	.50** (.163)	.43* (.169)	.33***
STR	CNTXT1	-.36** (.134)	-	.07**
	CNTXT1, EMP	-.27 (.162)	-.19 (.166)	.08*
TIME	CNTXT1	-.29** (.089)	-	.10**
	CNTXT1, EMP	-.33*** (.106)	.06 (.109)	.11**
ANX	CNTXT1	-.35*** (.075)	-	.19***
	CNTXT1, EMP	-.38*** (.090)	.06 (.093)	.19***
COMMIT	CNTXT1	.80*** (.145)	-	.25***
	CNTXT1, EMP	.44** (.164)	.70*** (.175)	.36***

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

a *Unstandardized regression coefficients*

*Figures in parentheses are standard errors.*

*Abbreviations are as in Table 33.*

In order to investigate the mediating role of empowerment, the Baron and Kenny (1986) criteria outlined above were applied. As can be seen from Table 33, CNTXT1 has a significant relationship with the outcome variables internal work motivation, the two satisfaction measures, subjective stress, time stress, anxiety, and organizational commitment as well as with empowerment. Thus the first two conditions are satisfied. The results of the multivariate regressions of the seven outcome variables on both CNTXT1 and empowerment is given in Table 34. The results of the bivariate regression with CNTXT1 as the independent variable is also reproduced in Table 34 for easier comparison of coefficients.

As can be seen from Table 34, the coefficient of empowerment is significant only for the multivariate regression models involving the dependent variables job satisfaction (both SAT and FSAT) and organizational commitment. Further, a comparison of the coefficients shows that the effect of CNTXT1 on the outcome variables in these multivariate regressions is smaller than the effect of CNTXT1 in the bivariate regressions. Thus all four of the Baron and Kenny criteria are satisfied only for the outcome variables job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Therefore, it can be concluded that empowerment partially mediates the relationship between CNTXT1 and the outcome variables job satisfaction and organizational commitment<sup>3</sup>.

It may be recalled that CNTXT1 had a non significant relationship with citizenship behavior and job involvement. To check for a possible suppressor effect of empowerment it is necessary to examine the direction and significance of the coefficients of CNTXT1 and empowerment in a multivariate regression with the outcome variables as dependent variables. It is also necessary to compare the directions and magnitude of the direct and

---

<sup>3</sup> Complete mediation can be concluded only if the coefficient of CNTXT1 becomes non significant in the multivariate model after having been significant in the bivariate model.

indirect effects of CNTXT1 on the outcome variables. Table 35 gives the results of this regression analysis. The bivariate relationships are also reproduced for easier comparison of coefficients.

**TABLE 35**  
**CNTXT1 and Outcome Variables: Test for Suppressor Effects**

Dependent Variable	Variables entered	Coefficient of CNTXT1 <sup>a</sup>	Coefficient of EMP <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>
INV	CNTXT1	.12 (.133)	-	.00
	CNTXT1, EMP	-.27 <sup>π</sup> (.143)	.70 <sup>***</sup> (.144)	.21 <sup>***</sup>
OCB	CNTXT1	.13 (.099)	-	.02
	CNTXT1, EMP	-.06 (.115)	.35 <sup>**</sup> (.118)	.11 <sup>**</sup>
EMP	CNTXT1	.54 <sup>***</sup> (.084)	-	.30 <sup>***</sup>

<sup>π</sup> p < .10

<sup>\*\*</sup> p < .01

<sup>\*\*\*</sup> p < .001

<sup>a</sup> *Unstandardized regression coefficients*  
*Figures in parentheses are standard errors.*  
*Abbreviations are as in Table 33.*

In line with previous results, the coefficients of empowerment in both multivariate regressions shown in Table 35 are significant. However, the coefficients of CNTXT1 in both multivariate regressions are not significant. Therefore, although the direction of the coefficients of CNTXT1 and empowerment are opposite in sign, suppressor effects cannot be inferred. It is possible, however, that CNTXT1 has no significant direct effect on job

involvement and citizenship behaviour but has indirect effects through empowerment.

Table 36 gives the direct and indirect effects of variable CNTXT1 on all the outcome variables. The direct effect is given by the coefficients of CNTXT1 in the multivariate regressions and the indirect effect is given by the product of a) the coefficient of CNTXT1 when empowerment is regressed on CNTXT1 and b) the coefficient of empowerment in the multivariate regression. The standard error of the indirect effect was calculated by Sobel's (1982) formula<sup>4</sup>. As can be seen, even though CNTXT1 has no significant direct relationship with job involvement, it has a significant indirect relationship.

In summary, empowerment partially mediates the relationship between the antecedent condition CNTXT1 and the outcomes job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In addition CNTXT1 has an indirect effect on job involvement through empowerment. The relationships among the variables CNTXT1, empowerment, and the outcome variables are diagrammatically represented in Figure 5.

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<sup>4</sup> If  $a$  and  $b$  are the coefficients forming the indirect effect  $ab$  and if  $s_a$  and  $s_b$  are the respective standard errors, then the standard error of  $ab$  is given by  $(s_a^2 a + s_b^2 b)^{1/2}$ .



**TABLE 36**  
**Direct and Indirect effects of CNTXT1 on Outcome Variables**

Dependent variable	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
IWM	.43** (.110)	.02 (.102)	.46*** (.110)
SAT	.46*** (.097)	.31** (.097)	.77*** (.093)
FSAT	.50** (.163)	.23 <sup>π</sup> (.135)	.73*** (.137)
STR	-.27 <sup>π</sup> (.162)	-.10 (.116)	-.36** (.134)
TIME	-.33** (.106)	.03 (.083)	-.29** (.089)
ANX	-.38*** (.090)	.03 (.071)	-.35*** (.075)
INV	-.27 <sup>π</sup> (.143)	.37** (.127)	.12 (.133)
OCB	-.06 (.115)	.19 <sup>π</sup> (.099)	.13 (.099)
COMMIT	.44** (.164)	.38* (.146)	.80*** (.145)

<sup>π</sup> p < .10

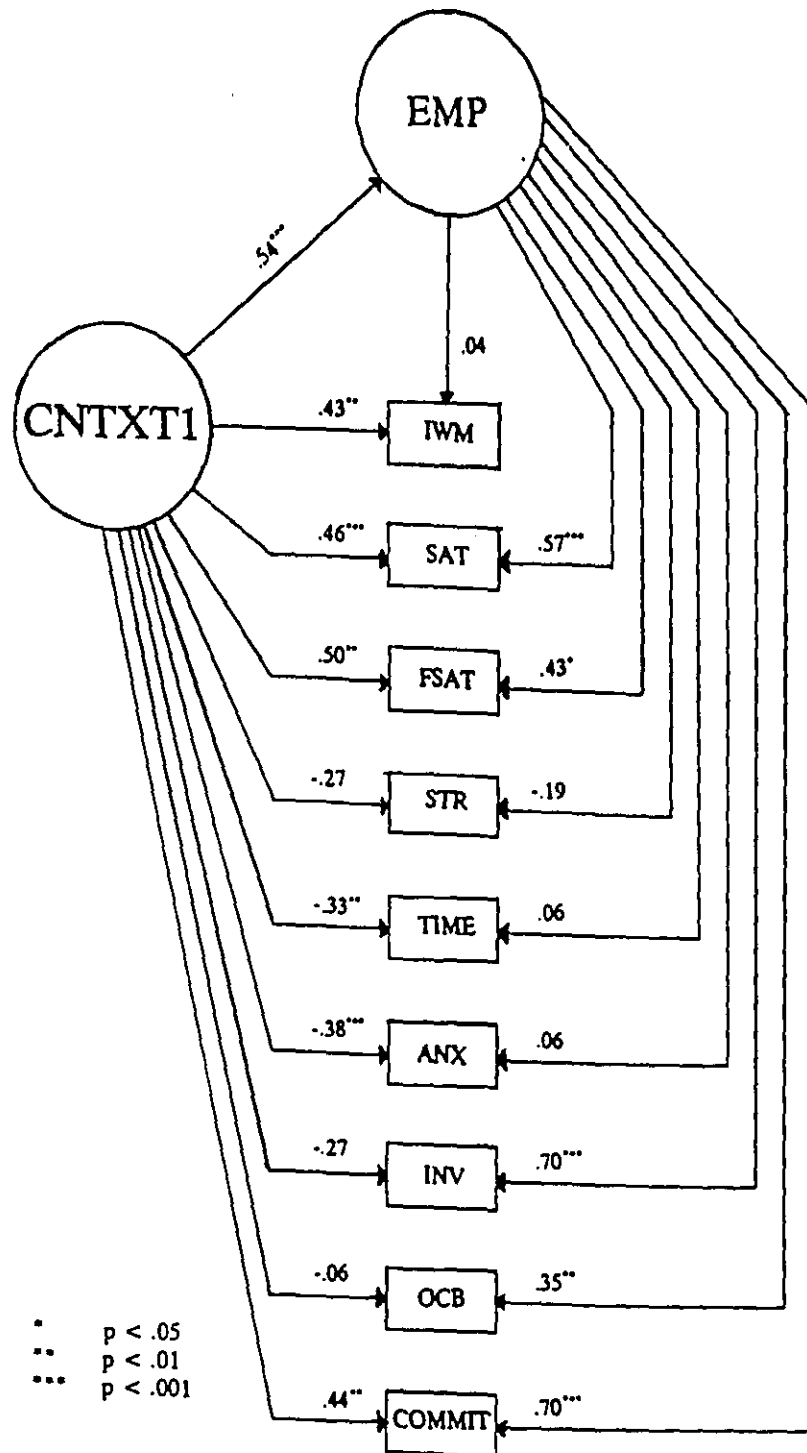
\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

*Figures in parentheses are standard errors.  
Abbreviations as in Table 33.*

**FIGURE 5**  
**Summary of Three-Variable Relationships:**  
**CNTXT1, Empowerment, and Outcome Variables**



### 8.6.2: CNTXT2, Empowerment, and Outcome Variables

Table 37 gives the results of the bivariate regressions of outcome variables and empowerment on the antecedent condition variable CNTXT2. Both measures of job satisfaction, all three measures of stress, and organizational commitment have significant relationships with CNTXT2. In line with prior results, CNTXT2 has a significant relationship with empowerment.

**TABLE 37**  
**Regression Coefficients:**  
**Outcome Variables and Empowerment on CNTXT2**

Dependent Variable	b	s.e.
1. IWM	.08	.118
2. SAT	.69***	.094
3. FSAT	.63***	.143
4. STR	-.53***	.124
5. TIME	-.23**	.085
6. ANX	-.26***	.073
7. INV	.15	.130
8. OCB	.12	.095
9. COMMIT	.76***	.139
10. EMP	.38***	.086

\*\*      $p < .01$

\*\*\*    $p < .001$

**TABLE 38**  
**Regressions: Outcome Variables on CNTXT2, Empowerment**

Dependent Variable	Variables entered	Coefficient of CNTXT2 <sup>a</sup>	Coefficient of EMP <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>
SAT	CNTXT2	.69*** (.094)	-	.38***
	CNTXT2, EMP	.46*** (.086)	.61*** (.096)	.58***
FSAT	CNTXT2	.63*** (.143)	-	.21***
	CNTXT2, EMP	.42** (.151)	.51** (.162)	.31***
STR	CNTXT2	-.53*** (.124)	-	.17***
	CNTXT2, EMP	-.49*** (.138)	-.11 (.155)	.17***
TIME	CNTXT2	-.23** (.085)	-	.08**
	CNTXT2, EMP	-.22* (.095)	-.03 (.107)	.08*
ANX	CNTXT2	-.26*** (.073)	-	.12***
	CNTXT2, EMP	-.25** (.081)	.015 (.092)	.13**
COMMIT	CNTXT2	.76*** (.139)	-	.25***
	CNTXT2, EMP	.50** (.151)	.61*** (.175)	.35***

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

a Unstandardized regression coefficients.

Figures in parentheses are standard errors.

Abbreviations are as in Table 33.

Table 38 gives the results of the multivariate regression of the above six outcome variables on CNTXT2 and empowerment. The coefficient of empowerment in these multivariate regressions is significant only in the case

of the two satisfaction measures and organizational commitment. Further, in these three cases, the direct effect of CNTXT2 in the multivariate regressions is smaller than the total effect of CNTXT2 in the bivariate regressions. Thus, according to the Baron & Kenny criteria, empowerment partially mediates the relationship between the antecedent condition variable CNTXT2 and the outcome measures of job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

**TABLE 39**  
**CNTXT2 and Outcome Variables: Test for Suppressor Effects**

Dependent Variable	Variables entered	Coefficient of CNTXT2 <sup>a</sup>	Coefficient of EMP <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>
IWM	CNTXT2	.08 (.118)	-	.01
	CNTXT2, EMP	-.02 (.129)	.29* (.144)	.05
INV	CNTXT2	.15 (.130)	-	.02
	CNTXT2, EMP	-.05 (.132)	.56*** (.145)	.16***
OCB	CNTXT2	.12 (.095)	-	.02
	CNTXT2, EMP	.00 (.102)	.29* (.115)	.08*
EMP	CNTXT2	.38*** (.086)	-	.19***

\* p < .05

\*\*\* p < .001

a *Unstandardized regression coefficients*  
*Figures in parentheses are standard errors.*  
*Abbreviations are as in Table 33.*

As shown in Table 37, CNTXT2 has a non significant relationship with the outcome variables internal work motivation, job involvement, and organizational citizenship behavior. Table 39 gives the results of the multivariate regression of each of these outcome variables on CNTXT2 and empowerment. While in all the three cases, the coefficient of empowerment is significant, the coefficient of CNTXT2 is not significant in any of the cases. Thus, although the coefficients of CNTXT2 and empowerment are opposite in sign in the case of the regressions with internal work motivation and job involvement, a suppressor role for empowerment cannot be inferred. However, indirect effects of CNTXT2 on these outcome variables through empowerment cannot be ruled out. Table 40 gives the direct and indirect effects of CNTXT2 on each of the outcome variables.

In summary, empowerment partially mediates the relationship between the antecedent condition variable CNTXT2 and the outcome variables job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In addition CNTXT2 has a weak indirect effect on job involvement through empowerment. The relationships among the variables CNTXT2, empowerment, and the outcome variables are diagrammatically represented in Figure 6.

#### 8.6.3: MGLBEH, Empowerment, and Outcome Variables

The results of the regression of each of the outcome variables and empowerment on the antecedent condition variable MGLBEH is given in Table 41. The two measures of job satisfaction, the subjective stress and anxiety measures, citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and empowerment have significant relationships with MGLBEH. The outcome variables internal work motivation, time stress, and job involvement have non significant relationships with MGLBEH.

**TABLE 40**  
**Direct and Indirect Effects of CNTXT2 on Outcome Variables**

Dependent variable	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
IWM	-.02 (.129)	.11 (.101)	.08 (.118)
SAT	.46*** (.086)	.23** (.090)	.69*** (.094)
FSAT	.42** (.151)	.20 <sup>π</sup> (.118)	.63*** (.143)
STR	-.49*** (.138)	-.04 (.092)	-.53*** (.124)
TIME	-.22* (.095)	-.01 (.065)	-.23** (.085)
ANX	-.25** (.081)	-.01 (.056)	-.26*** (.073)
INV	-.05 (.132)	.21 <sup>π</sup> (.110)	.15 (.130)
OCB	.00 (.102)	.11 (.085)	.12 (.095)
COMMIT	.50** (.151)	.23 <sup>π</sup> (.127)	.76*** (.139)

<sup>π</sup> p < .10

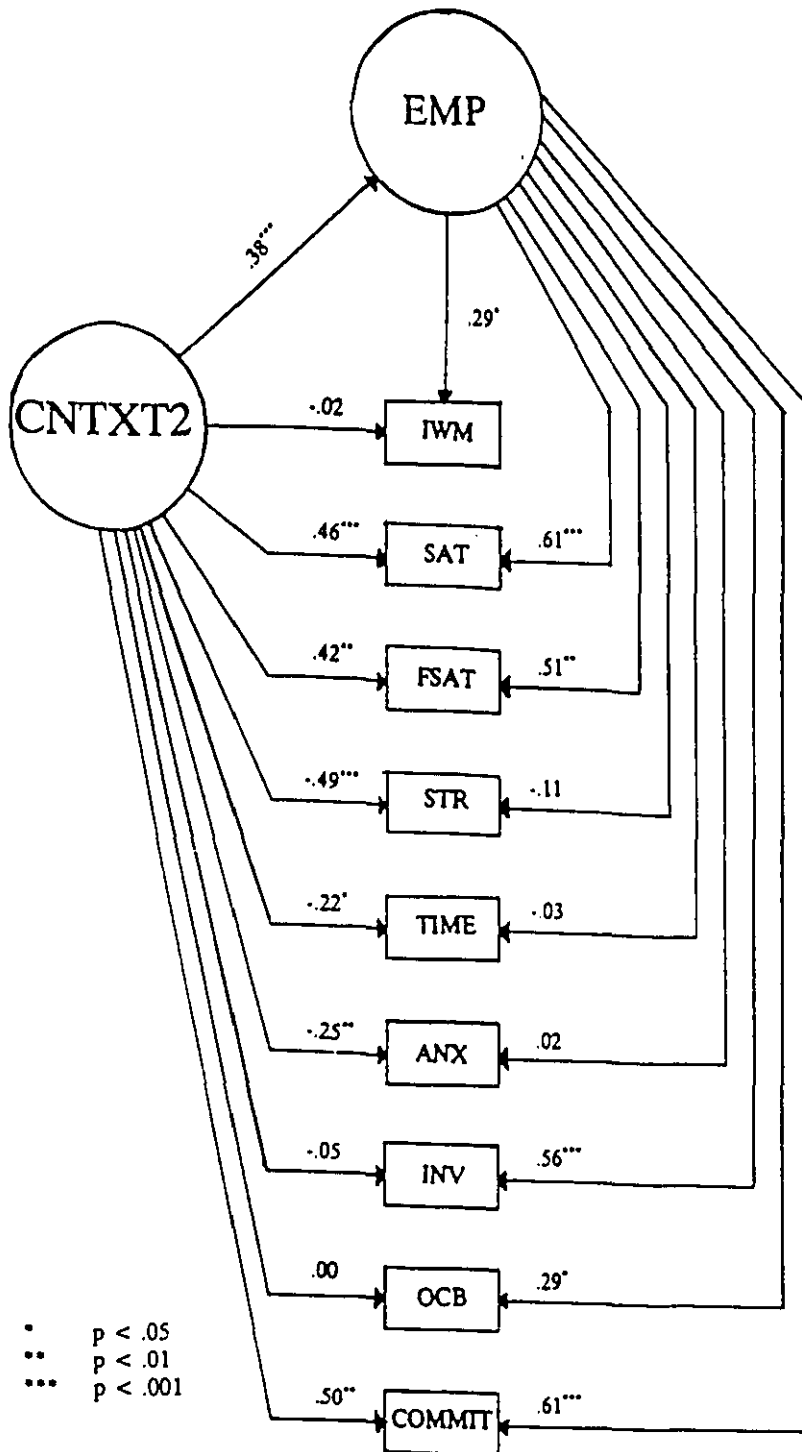
\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

*Figures in parentheses are standard errors.  
Abbreviations are as in Table 33.*

**FIGURE 6**  
**Summary of Three-Variable Relationships:**  
**CNTXT2, Empowerment, and Outcome Variables**





**TABLE 41**  
**Regression: Outcome Variables and Empowerment on MGLBEH**

Dependent Variable	b	s.e.
1. IWM	-.02	.122
2. SAT	.73***	.098
3. FSAT	.57***	.160
4. STR	-.31*	.138
5. TIME	-.13	.094
6. ANX	-.18*	.082
7. INV	.15	.132
8. OCB	.26**	.096
9. COMMIT	.76***	.149
10. EMP	.51***	.088

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

*Abbreviations are as in Table 33.*

Table 42 gives the results of the multivariate regression of each of the outcome variables with significant relationship with MGLBEH, on MGLBEH and empowerment. The coefficient of empowerment in each of these multivariate regressions is significant except for those involving subjective stress and anxiety. In the case of the first satisfaction measure SAT and organizational commitment, a comparison of the coefficients of MGLBEH

indicates that the direct effect of MGLBEH in the multivariate regression is smaller than the total effect of MGLBEH in the bivariate regression models. This would imply a partial mediation effect of empowerment in these two cases. In the case of organizational citizenship behavior the coefficient of MGLBEH which was significant in the bivariate model ( $p < .01$ ) becomes non significant in the multivariate model, suggesting complete mediation. Similarly, with the second satisfaction measure FSAT, the coefficient of MGLBEH previously significant ( $p < .001$ ) becomes non significant when empowerment is added to the model.

Table 43 gives the results of the multivariate regression of those outcome variables with nonsignificant relationships with MGLBEH, on MGLBEH and empowerment. In the case of time stress none of the coefficients are significant ( $p$ 's  $> .05$ ). In the case of internal work motivation and job involvement the coefficients of empowerment are significant although the coefficient of MGLBEH is non significant in both cases. Thus, although the coefficients of MGLBEH and empowerment are opposite in sign in both cases, a suppressor role for empowerment cannot be inferred (all  $p$ 's  $> .05$ ). However, the coefficient of empowerment in the case of job involvement is significant ( $p < .001$ ) suggesting an indirect effect of MGLBEH on job involvement through empowerment. This is confirmed in Table 44 which gives the direct and indirect effects of the antecedent condition MGLBEH on each of the outcome variables.

**TABLE 42**  
**Regressions: Outcome Variables on MGLBEH, Empowerment**

Dependent Variable	Variables entered	Coefficient of MGLBEH <sup>a</sup>	Coefficient of EMP <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>
SAT	MGLBEH	.73*** (.098)	-	.37***
	MGLBEH, EMP	.44*** (.098)	.58*** (.099)	.56***
FSAT	MGLBEH	.57*** (.160)	-	.14***
	MGLBEH, EMP	.28 (.178)	.56** (.171)	.26***
STR	MGLBEH	-.31* (.138)	-	.05*
	MGLBEH, EMP	-.17 (.163)	-.26 (.165)	.07*
ANX	MGLBEH	-.18* (.082)	-	.05*
	MGLBEH, EMP	-.14 (.097)	-.08 (.099)	.06
OCB	MGLBEH	.26** (.096)	-	.07**
	MGLBEH, EMP	.15 (.112)	.23* (.114)	.11**
COMMIT	MGLBEH	.76*** (.149)	-	.22***
	MGLBEH, EMP	.40** (.169)	.70*** (.177)	.34***

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

a *Unstandardized regression coefficients.  
Figures in parentheses are standard errors.  
Abbreviations are as in Table 33.*

**TABLE 43**  
**MGLBEH and Outcome Variables: Test for Suppressor Effects**

Dependent Variable	Variables entered	Coefficient of MGLBEH <sup>a</sup>	Coefficient of EMP <sup>a</sup>	R <sup>2</sup>
IWM	MGLBEH	-.02 (.122)	-	.00
	MGLBEH, EMP	-.21 (.139)	.38** (.141)	.07*
TIME	MGLBEH	-.13 (.094)	-	.02
	MGLBEH, EMP	-.07 (.111)	-.10 (.111)	.03
INV	MGLBEH	.15 (.132)	-	.01
	MGLBEH, EMP	-.16 (.141)	.63*** (.143)	.19***
EMP	MGLBEH	.51*** (.088)	-	.27***

\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

a *Unstandardized regression coefficients.*  
*Figures in parentheses are standard errors.*  
*Abbreviations are as in Table 33.*

In summary, empowerment seems to completely mediate the relationship between the antecedent condition MGLBEH and organizational citizenship behavior. Empowerment also at least partially mediates the relationship between MGLBEH and the outcome variables job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In addition, MGLBEH has an indirect effect on job involvement through empowerment. The relationships among the

variables MGLBEH, empowerment, and the outcome variables are diagrammatically represented in Figure 7.

**TABLE 44**  
**Direct and Indirect Effects of MGLBEH on Outcome Variables**

Dependent variable	Direct effect	Indirect effect	Total effect
IWM	-.21 (.139)	.20 (.115)	-.02 (.122)
SAT	.44*** (.098)	.30** (.098)	.73*** (.098)
FSAT	.28 (.178)	.29* (.139)	.57*** (.160)
STR	-.17 (.163)	-.13 (.109)	-.31* (.138)
TIME	-.07 (.111)	-.05 (.075)	-.13 (.094)
ANX	-.14 (.097)	-.04 (.066)	-.18* (.082)
INV	-.16 (.141)	.33** (.124)	.15 (.132)
OCB	.15 (.112)	.12 (.092)	.26** (.096)
COMMIT	.40* (.169)	.36*** (.021)	.76*** (.149)

π p < .10

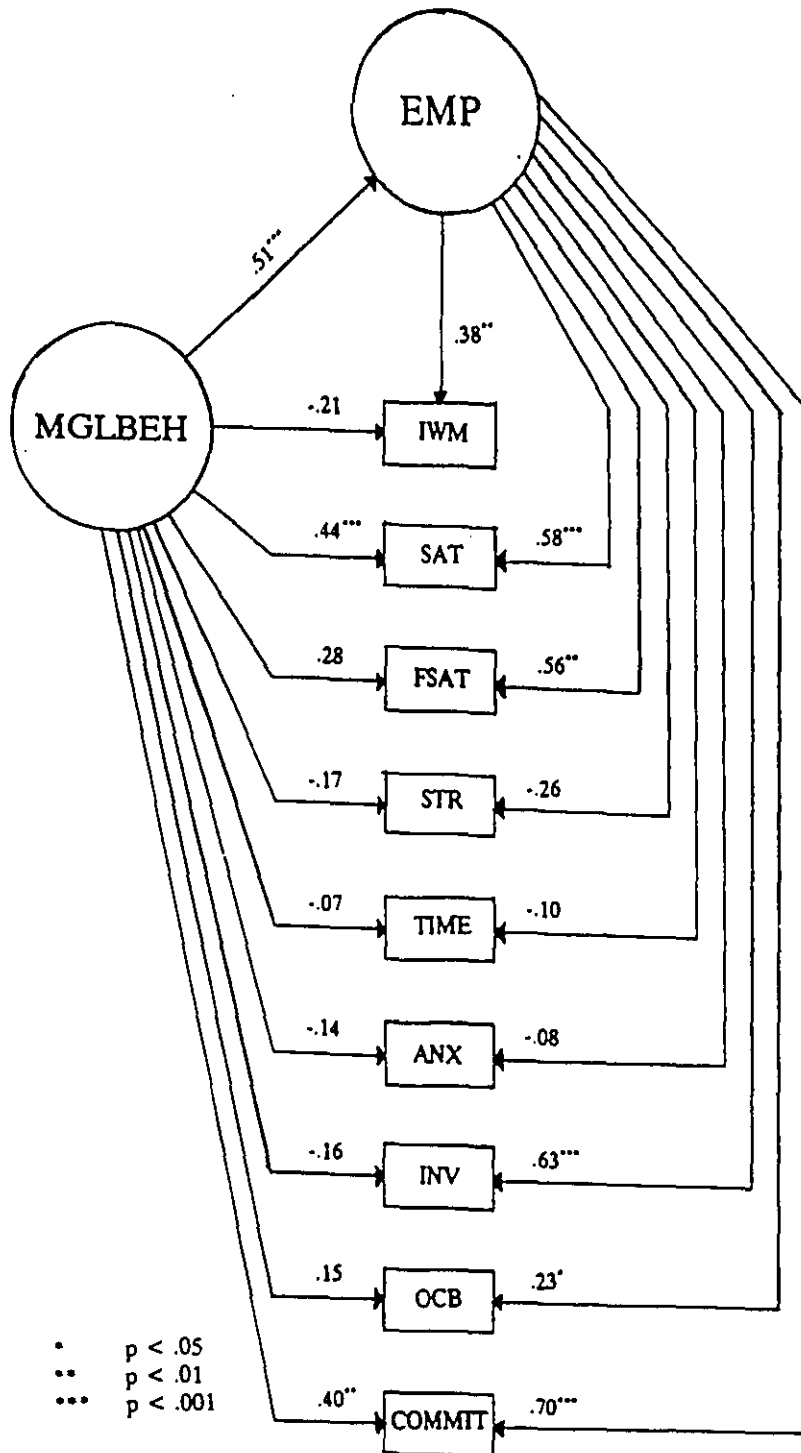
\* p < .05

\*\* p < .01

\*\*\* p < .001

*Figures in parentheses are standard errors.  
Abbreviations are as in Table 33.*

**FIGURE 7**  
**Summary of Three-Variable Relationships:**  
**MGLBEH, Empowerment, and Outcome Variables**



### 8.7: Conclusion

The main validation study provides support for most of the proposed hypotheses relating empowerment to the various antecedent and outcome variables. All hypotheses involving direct relationships between empowerment and the antecedent conditions were strongly supported, although none of the interactive hypotheses involving these variables were supported. All hypotheses relating empowerment to the proposed outcome variables were supported except for those involving the outcomes of time stress and job related anxiety. In addition, a direct relationship between internal locus of control and empowerment was detected.

The results of the mediated regression analysis provides support for the notion of empowerment as a mediating variable in the relationship between antecedent conditions and select outcome variables. In particular, empowerment appears to partially mediate the relationships between context variables and the outcomes of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Empowerment also appears to mediate the relationships between managerial behaviors and the above outcome variables. The context variables and managerial behaviors also seem to have an indirect effect on job involvement via empowerment. In addition, empowerment appears to completely mediate the relationship between managerial behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors.

## Chapter 9. Research Objectives in Retrospect: Significant Results, Limitations, and Future Research

The empirical component of this research project described in Chapters 6 to 8 was directed toward testing the integrative framework for empowerment described in Chapter 4. This chapter reexamines the research objectives and associated theoretical propositions in the light of the empirical results. The limitations of the present research and possible directions for future research are also discussed.

### 9.1: The Nature of Empowerment

One important objective of the present research was to determine if the empowerment construct can be distinguished from existing constructs such as delegation, self-efficacy, and intrinsic task motivation. Conceptually, the multi-dimensional empowerment construct developed here can be differentiated from these latter constructs. Firstly, delegation was identified as an empowering strategy which could result in the empowered state as defined in the present formulation, notably through the dimension of perceived control. This was supported by the significant relationship between delegating behavior and empowerment (Table 22) and the significant relationships between delegating behavior and perceived control (Table 23). Secondly, the dimension of perceived competence captures the enabling aspect of self-efficacy. The confirmation of the multi-dimensional nature of empowerment in the Phase I study, and results of the sub-scale regressions in Phase II show that perceived competence (and by implication self-efficacy belief) is not the only component of the empowerment construct. For example, the antecedent condition, formalization, is significantly and negatively related to empowerment (Table 14) but the sub-scale of perceived competence is not significantly related to formalization (Table 15). Thirdly, intrinsic task motivation was conceptualized as a possible outcome of



empowerment. Empirically, a significant positive relationship between empowerment and intrinsic task motivation was obtained. The correlation between the two constructs was, however, only .23 ( $p < .05$ ). Further evidence of the independence of the two constructs is provided by the results of the regression analysis shown in Table 37. While the antecedent condition CNTXT2 is significantly related to empowerment at the .001 level, it is not significantly related to intrinsic task motivation. Thus, the empirical results support the proposition that empowerment as a construct is distinct from other constructs such as delegation, self-efficacy, and intrinsic task motivation.

A second objective of the present research was to test if empowerment is a multi-dimensional construct. The results of the Phase I and Phase II studies support the integrative multi-dimensional nature of the empowerment construct proposed in this research. The results of the factor analysis and the dimensionality analysis in the Phase I study provide empirical support for the multi-dimensional conceptualization of the empowerment construct. The analysis at the level of the sub-scales in the main Phase II study also supports the multi-dimensional hypothesis. For example, the antecedent condition centralization is significantly related to the dimension of perceived control (Table 15). In contrast the antecedent condition of role ambiguity is significantly related to the dimension of perceived competence while not being significantly related to the dimension of perceived control (Table 19). Again, as can be seen from Table 23, the managerial behavior inspiring is significantly related to both perceived control and goal internalization, but not to perceived competence. Though all the above mentioned antecedent conditions are significantly related (all  $p$ 's  $< .01$ ) to empowerment at least at the .01 level, the bivariate relationships between a given antecedent condition and the sub-scales of empowerment are not identical, thereby supporting the hypothesis that empowerment is a multi-dimensional construct.

## 9.2: Antecedents and Consequences of Empowerment

The third stated objective of the present research was to determine the principal antecedents and consequences of empowerment. Given the cross-sectional nature of the present study, causality cannot be established. In addition the antecedent and outcome variables included in the present study form only a subset of all the possible antecedents and consequences of empowerment. However, all the variables that were hypothesized as being the antecedent variables of empowerment were found to be significantly related to empowerment in the predicted direction. Similarly, empowerment was significantly related to most of the proposed outcome variables in the predicted direction. The mediated regression analyses further revealed that many of the antecedent conditions could have indirect effects on the outcome variables via empowerment. Therefore, even though causality was not established, significant associations between empowerment and a host of proposed antecedent and outcome variables were confirmed, paving the way for future longitudinal research to establish causality.

## 9.3: Limitations

One possible limitation of the scale development study is the fact that although all respondents in the sample were employed individuals, they were also part-time students and hence represent only a sub-section of the total working population. Therefore, the results of this study need to be replicated with other organizational samples. It may be noted however, that in both subsequent organizational samples, the empowerment scale had a reliability of atleast .80. A second possible limitation is that the correlations among the present empowerment scale, the helplessness scale and the Spreitzer scale were inflated due to method variance, all three scales being measured in a single questionnaire. On the other hand, the presence of a possible method bias make the tests of factorial and discriminant validity used in this study more conservative.

The main validation study also has at least two possible limitations. Firstly, some of the measures for the proposed antecedent and outcome variables had only modest reliabilities. For example, the measure for the antecedent condition delegation has a reliability of only .59. Similarly, the measure for the outcome variable, internal work motivation has a reliability of only .56. This implies that significant results involving these scales have to be interpreted with caution. For example, internal work motivation was found to be significantly related to empowerment ( $r=.23$ ) at the .05 level. Due to the low reliability of the work motivation measure and the relatively small size of the correlation coefficient, it is difficult to make a strong case for the relationship between empowerment and internal work motivation as measured here. On the other hand the large error variance may be attenuating a true relationship between empowerment and internal work motivation. This issue can only be resolved with further studies on other samples using more reliable measures.

A second important limitation of the main validation study is that of possible method variance. The empowerment scale and the scales for the various antecedent and outcome variables were contained in a single questionnaire leading to the possibility that the observed relationships between empowerment and the other variables were inflated by common method variance.

While possible method variance is a natural limitation of questionnaire research, a number of measures were taken in the present study to minimize the problem. First, the items from a given scale were randomly interspersed with items from the other scales so that there was no easily discernable pattern to the questionnaire. Secondly, a number of different response formats were used. For example, role conflict was measured with a 7-point agree/disagree scale while managerial behaviors were assessed with a 4-point never/always frequency scale. Thirdly, multiple measures were used for certain outcome measures. Job satisfaction was measured by a 16-item 6-

point scale as well as by the pictorial faces scale. Multiple indicators were also used for job stress which was measured with three different scales with two different response formats.

The pattern of the obtained empirical results also seem to indicate that method variance was not a serious problem in the present study. For instance, if the observed relationship between the various antecedent variables and empowerment were inflated due to method variance, then the antecedent variables should be significantly related to all three sub-scales of empowerment. The regression analyses for the sub-scales, however, indicate that antecedent variables are differentially related to the different sub-scales. For example, in Table 22, all managerial behaviors are significantly related to empowerment ( $p$ 's < .001). But, as can be seen from Table 23, none of the managerial behaviors are significantly related to the sub-scale perceived competence. Another indication of the minimal role of method variance is provided by the relationships between empowerment and the three different stress measures. If method variance is a significant problem then the relationships between empowerment and these three stress measures should have some similarity to each other. The results in Table 32 show that this is not the case. Though all three measures have satisfactory reliabilities, empowerment is significantly related to subjective stress but is not significantly related to time stress or job related anxiety. In addition, the results of the mediated regression in Table 34 and Table 38 show that both the antecedent context variables are significantly related to time stress and job related anxiety. In other words, even though both antecedent context variables are highly correlated with both empowerment and the above-mentioned stress measures, there is no significant relationship between empowerment and these stress measures. This would not have been the case in the presence of significant method variance. Therefore, the above pattern of results provides some assurance that observed significant relationships between the various constructs in the study have not been unduly influenced by method variance.

#### 9.4: Future Research

Future research that builds on the present research can follow at least four different streams. The first necessity is to replicate the measure development and validation studies with independent samples and possibly different measures for the various antecedent and outcome variables. It may be noted that in the factor analysis and many of the regression analyses, goal internalization emerged as the strongest underlying dimension of empowerment. This is an important finding because the concept of empowerment has traditionally been associated with the dimension of perceived control. More research is needed to understand the nature of the goal internalization dimension more completely.

A second stream of research could focus on further establishing criterion-related validity by using a different set of criterion measures that use more than one method of data collection. A third type of research could be longitudinal in nature with an emphasis on studying the temporally lagged effect of empowering interventions on employee empowerment. Yet another genre of research could focus on the sub-scales of empowerment, tracing the effects of specific empowerment strategies on individual sub-scales. A related stream of research could focus on the development of empowerment techniques based on these sub-scales.

## Chapter 10. Conclusion: Implications of Findings

The primary objective of this research project was to obtain a comprehensive understanding of the empowerment construct: its nature, its antecedents and associated outcomes. This concluding chapter assesses the contributions of the research findings described earlier in the light of the above objective. Implications for research and managerial practice are also discussed.

### 10.1: Conceptual Refinement

The present research has helped refine empowerment research in two important ways. First, it has shown that it is useful to distinguish between empowering strategies and the effect of these strategies on employees. Rather than trying to find commonalities between two apparently very different empowering strategies such as job enrichment and employee ownership, the present research has tried to understand the experience of empowerment that is supposed to result from these (or other) strategies. In this research project, the emphasis was squarely on the effect of empowering strategies. This enabled the researcher to focus on the individual experience of being empowered without being distracted by the bewildering array of seemingly unrelated empowering strategies.

Secondly, the present research has produced a comprehensive definition of the empowerment phenomenon. This a notable advance in empowerment research considering the fact that many researchers use the word empowerment without ever explicitly defining it (e.g., Kanter, 1977; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Moreover, the definition developed here uses the term *empowered state*, rather than empowerment *per se*, thus avoiding the potential for confusion between the act of empowering (and associated strategies) and the experience of being empowered.

### 10.2: The Multi-dimensional Nature of the Empowerment Construct

The multi-dimensional conceptualization of the empowerment construct proposed and tested in the present research is also an important contribution for empowerment research. Firstly, the multi-dimensional nature of the construct was derived from a fundamental analysis of the psychological experience of power. Secondly, the multi-dimensional construct serves to integrate existing research on empowerment into one comprehensive model. Lastly, by showing the empowerment construct to be conceptually and empirically distinct from other constructs such as intrinsic task motivation and self-efficacy or strategies such as delegation, the present research has demonstrated that the empowerment construct is an independent construct worthy of scholarly attention in its own right.

### 10.3: The Empowerment Measure

Another significant contribution of this research is the development of a psychometrically sound measure of individual empowerment. It may be recalled that convergent and discriminant validity was established using a general helplessness scale and another empowerment scale based on a different view of empowerment. Construct validity was demonstrated using other well established measures. Further, since the present formulation integrates existing approaches to empowerment, the empowerment scale developed here can be used by researchers even if their particular definition of empowerment does not completely overlap with the present conceptualization of empowerment. Thus, future research on empowerment as well any research that includes empowerment as a construct of interest will greatly benefit from the availability of a reliable and valid measure.

The self-report organizational citizenship behavior measure is also a useful by-product of this research. Citizenship behavior of employees has traditionally been assessed by the ratings of their supervisors to overcome possible social desirability bias. The present research distinguished between

compliance type citizenship behavior and altruistic citizenship behavior, the latter being free from social desirability bias. A convenient five point response format assessing the frequency of these behaviors was also successfully tested. In case where research design or practical considerations preclude obtaining supervisory ratings of citizenship behaviors, this measure of altruistic behaviors can be used.

#### 10.4: Managerial Implications

As was noted in Chapter 1, North American businesses are beginning to invest significantly in so called empowering techniques. In the context of this industry trend, one basic service that academic research can provide to practitioners is confirmation of the "existence" of the phenomenon of empowerment through rigorous research. A second related service would be the development of a model of the empowerment process in terms of the nature of empowerment, its antecedents, and its consequences.

The present research has many direct implications for managerial practice. Firstly, by demonstrating the "existence" of the empowerment phenomenon, this research lends credibility to organizational practices that promote employee empowerment. In addition the empowerment measure developed here can be directly used by organizations to gauge the level of perceived empowerment of employees at a given point in time. Further, repeated measurements over time can be used to assess the effectiveness of specific empowerment strategies. For example, for the organizational sample in the main validation study described in Chapter 8, the empowerment score is 4.89 on a scale of 1 to 6. If this organization were to undertake an empowerment intervention, the change in the level of perceived empowerment over time could be assessed by determining the empowerment score at appropriate intervals.

The multi-dimensional nature of the empowerment construct as developed here can be used to design specific empowerment interventions.



For example, for the organizational sample in the pilot study described in Chapter 7, the overall empowerment score is 4.80, while the sub-scale scores are 4.38 (perceived control), 5.61 (perceived competence), and 4.47(goal internalization). This indicates that empowerment efforts should focus on enhancing perceived control and goal internalization. If on the other hand, the use of the empowerment measure revealed that a group of employees experience low levels of empowerment as a result of low perceived competence, the organization can focus on training programs that address this issue, take specific measures to enhance self-efficacy (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), or clarify job descriptions to reduce role ambiguity.

The present research has identified a number of antecedent conditions of empowerment as well as a number of possible outcomes associated with empowerment. The results indicate that employees with higher levels of empowerment are more satisfied, more motivated, and more involved than those with lower levels of empowerment. They have higher levels of organizational commitment and engage in voluntary helping behaviors more frequently. They also have lower stress. It must be borne in mind, however, that causality has not been established in this research. Nor is the list of antecedent and outcome variables comprehensive. Nevertheless, organizational practitioners could potentially manipulate some of these antecedent conditions in order to empower employees.

In terms of organizational level antecedent conditions, the present research indicates that the level of perceived empowerment tends to decrease with increased levels of formalization, centralization, and perceived uncertainty in the work environment. This lends support to the conventional wisdom that organizations can enhance employee empowerment levels by reducing unnecessary bureaucracy and by decentralizing. Organizations can also increase empowerment levels by reducing perceived uncertainty in the work environment. It may be recalled from the results described in Chapter 8 that the organizational level factor that had the most influence on

empowerment was perceived uncertainty. While change and the associated uncertainty are a fact of modern organizational life, managers could actively seek to reduce the level of uncertainty by properly explaining proposed changes and by installing formal mechanisms for disseminating information on an ongoing basis.

The present research has also identified effective communication and perceived fairness of reward systems as two organizational factors positively associated with empowerment. Open and accurate communication within the organization enhances feelings of perceived control thereby empowering employees. With regard to reward systems, managers can forestall the powerlessness that results from arbitrary rewards by designing equitable reward systems and by reducing perceptions of inequity through clearly conveyed performance expectations and through performance appraisals that involve employee participation.

In terms of job level antecedents, the present research indicates that job autonomy has the most influence on empowerment levels. While this is not a new insight it underscores the importance of designing enriched jobs with increased autonomy and control. The results also indicate that empowerment levels are adversely affected by role ambiguity and role conflict at work. This is an important new insight since role ambiguity and role conflict have been traditionally associated mainly with increased stress levels. Managers can seek to reduce role ambiguity and role conflict through mechanisms such as clear job descriptions and clearly conveyed expectations, thereby enhancing empowerment levels.

Finally, to enhance the empowerment level of their subordinates, managers can practice such behaviors as delegating, consulting, recognizing, inspiring, and mentoring. The present research identified these behaviors to be associated with enhanced empowerment levels in subordinates. In this context it may be recalled that inspiring behavior had the most influence on perceived empowerment. Inspiring behavior by the manager facilitates goal

internalization and in turn enhances employee empowerment. This behavior becomes especially relevant when the organization is in the midst of a turnaround or is undergoing radical change.

The trend toward employee empowerment is a significant departure from extant managerial practices at the turn of the twentieth century. As was noted in Chapter 1, for many modern day organizations employee empowerment is a strategic business imperative. While the present research did not explore the link between employee empowerment and organizational success, it did demonstrate positive associations between empowerment and outcomes such as motivation, satisfaction, involvement, commitment, and voluntary helping behaviors. Given that these highly desirable outcomes are possible consequences of empowerment, it does not require a great leap of faith to propose, *ceteris paribus*, a positive association between empowerment and organizational success. The popular business press has already proclaimed this connection and the results from the present research indicate that employee empowerment may be well worth the effort.

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**APPENDIX I**  
**EMPOWERMENT SCALE: ORIGINAL ITEMS**

**Perceived Control**

- CNTRL1. I can influence the way work is done in my department.
- CNTRL2. I don't have access to information and other resources to work effectively.
- CNTRL3. I have the authority to make decisions at work.
- CNTRL4. I have the authority to work effectively.
- CNTRL5. I can influence decisions taken in my department.
- CNTRL6. Important responsibilities are part of my job.

**Perceived Competence**

- COMP1. I have the skills and abilities to do my job well.
- COMP2. I have the competence to work effectively.
- COMP3. I have the capabilities required to do my job well.
- COMP4. I cannot cope with the demands of my work competently.
- COMP5. I can handle the challenges I face at work.
- COMP6. I can do my work efficiently.

**Goal Internalization**

- GOAL1. I am inspired by the goals of the organization.
- GOAL2. I am enthusiastic about working towards the organizations objectives.
- GOAL3. I am enthusiastic about the contribution my work makes to the organization.
- GOAL4. I am inspired what we are trying to achieve as an organization.
- GOAL5. I am keen on our doing well as an organization.
- GOAL6. I am not keen on working to improve the organization's performance.

## APPENDIX II PHASE II QUESTIONNAIRE

The following statements deal with various aspects of work in organizations. Please read each statement carefully in the context of your own work in your organization and indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by writing a number (1 to 6) in the space provided:-

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Mildly Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

- \_\_\_ 1. The most important things that happen to me involve my present job.
- \_\_\_ 2. The organization is currently undergoing major changes.
- \_\_\_ 3. There is too much paper work in this organization.
- \_\_\_ 4. To me, my job is only a small part of who I am.
- \_\_\_ 5. I can influence the way work is done in my department.
- \_\_\_ 6. I have the skills and abilities to do my job well.
- \_\_\_ 7. I am inspired by the goals of the organization.
- \_\_\_ 8. These days in my organization, it seems that anybody could get laid-off at anytime.
- \_\_\_ 9. I am very much involved personally in my job.
- \_\_\_ 10. I live, eat, and breathe my job.
- \_\_\_ 11. The work environment in this organization is very bureaucratic.
- \_\_\_ 12. I have the authority to make decisions at work.
- \_\_\_ 13. I have the competence to work effectively.
- \_\_\_ 14. I am enthusiastic about working towards the organization's objectives.
- \_\_\_ 15. They are constantly changing the way things are done in the organization.
- \_\_\_ 16. Most of my interests are centered around my job.
- \_\_\_ 17. I have very strong ties with my present job which would be very difficult to break.
- \_\_\_ 18. There are too many rules and regulations to be followed in this organization.
- \_\_\_ 19. I have the authority to work effectively.
- \_\_\_ 20. I have the capabilities required to do my job well.
- \_\_\_ 21. I am enthusiastic about the contribution my work makes to the organization.
- \_\_\_ 22. It is difficult to keep pace with all the changes going on in the organization.
- \_\_\_ 23. It is very difficult to do things differently in this organization.
- \_\_\_ 24. I can influence decisions taken in my department.
- \_\_\_ 25. I can handle the challenges I face at work.
- \_\_\_ 26. I am inspired by what we are trying to achieve as an organization.
- \_\_\_ 27. These days, things are pretty stable in my organization.
- \_\_\_ 28. I consider my job to be very central to my existence.
- \_\_\_ 29. I like to be absorbed in my job most of the time.
- \_\_\_ 30. Most people here think that this organization is very rigid and inflexible.

- 1
- \_\_\_ 31. Important responsibilities are part of my job.
- \_\_\_ 32. I can do my work efficiently.
- \_\_\_ 33. I am keen on our doing well as an organization.
- \_\_\_ 34. There is a lot of uncertainty in my organization at the moment.

The following items are concerned with job characteristics or qualities that people look for in their jobs. Please indicate the degree of your satisfaction or dissatisfaction with each of the job qualities as they relate to your job by writing a number (1 to 6) in the space provided:-

1	2	3	4	5	6
Extremely	Moderately	Mildly	Mildly	Moderately	Extremely
Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Satisfied	Satisfied

I feel

- \_\_\_ with the amount of security I have on my job.
- \_\_\_ with the kind of company policies and practices that govern my job.
- \_\_\_ with the amount of compensation that I receive for maintaining a reasonably good living.
- \_\_\_ with the kind of benefits plans (vacation, retirement, medical, etc.) that go with my job.
- \_\_\_ with the chance of future promotion that I have in my job.
- \_\_\_ with the kind of working conditions (lighting, noise, office space, etc.) surrounding my job.
- \_\_\_ with the interesting or enjoyable nature of my work.
- \_\_\_ with the amount of recognition and respect that I receive for my work.
- \_\_\_ with the opportunity I have in my job to work with people I like.
- \_\_\_ with the technical competence of my immediate superior.
- \_\_\_ with the opportunity I have to achieve excellence in my work.
- \_\_\_ with the considerate and sympathetic nature of my immediate superior.
- \_\_\_ with the kind of responsibility and independence I have in my job.
- \_\_\_ with the opportunity for acquiring higher skill.
- \_\_\_ with the amount of compensation I receive for the work I do.
- \_\_\_ with respect to my job, from an overall consideration.

The following statements deal with certain other aspects of the work context. Keeping your own work in mind, please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by writing a number (1 to 7) in the space provided:-

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Agree	Agree
Strongly	Moderately	Mildly	Agree nor	Mildly	Moderately	Strongly
			Disagree			

- \_\_\_ 1. The information I receive is often inaccurate.
- \_\_\_ 2. It is easy to talk openly to all members of my work group.
- \_\_\_ 3. Most of the things I do on this job seem useless or trivial.
- \_\_\_ 4. My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree Strongly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Mildly	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Mildly	Agree Moderately	Agree Strongly

- \_\_\_ 5. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.
- \_\_\_ 6. My job gives me complete responsibility for deciding how and when the work is done.
- \_\_\_ 7. My job itself provides me with very little information about my work performance.
- \_\_\_ 8. I have clear idea of what is to be done on this job.
- \_\_\_ 9. In my job, I have to do things that should be done differently.
- \_\_\_ 10. I can think of a number of times when I received inaccurate information from others in my work group.
- \_\_\_ 11. I find it enjoyable to talk to other members of my work group.
- \_\_\_ 12. The work I do on this job is very meaningful to me.
- \_\_\_ 13. I feel a great deal of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.
- \_\_\_ 14. I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
- \_\_\_ 15. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgement in carrying out the work.
- \_\_\_ 16. The job is set up such that as I work I get constant feedback about how well I am doing.
- \_\_\_ 17. I feel certain about how much authority I have.
- \_\_\_ 18. I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.
- \_\_\_ 19. It is often necessary for me to go back and check the accuracy of the information I've received.
- \_\_\_ 20. It is easy to ask for advice from any member of my work group.
- \_\_\_ 21. Most people on this job feel that the work is useless or trivial.
- \_\_\_ 22. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on this job.
- \_\_\_ 23. I have complete freedom in deciding how I do my job.
- \_\_\_ 24. I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.
- \_\_\_ 25. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do the work.
- \_\_\_ 26. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am performing well.
- \_\_\_ 27. I know that I have divided my time at work properly.
- \_\_\_ 28. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.
- \_\_\_ 29. I sometimes feel that others don't understand the information that they have received.
- \_\_\_ 30. Communication in my work group is very open.
- \_\_\_ 31. Most people on this job find the work very meaningful.
- \_\_\_ 32. My own feelings are not affected much one way or the other by how well I do on the job.
- \_\_\_ 33. My job requires me to make my own decisions.
- \_\_\_ 34. I know what my responsibilities are.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Disagree Strongly	Disagree Moderately	Disagree Mildly	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Mildly	Agree Moderately	Agree Strongly

- \_\_\_ 35. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.
- \_\_\_ 36. The accuracy of information passed among members of the group could be improved.
- \_\_\_ 37. When people talk to each other in this group there is a great deal of understanding.
- \_\_\_ 38. Most people on this job feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when they do the job well.
- \_\_\_ 39. I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
- \_\_\_ 40. I know exactly what is expected of me.
- \_\_\_ 41. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.
- \_\_\_ 42. My job is such that I could go on working for a long time without finding out how well I am doing.
- \_\_\_ 43. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
- \_\_\_ 44. What exactly I have to do on this job is often not clear.
- \_\_\_ 45. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

The following questions deal with the distribution of rewards in the organization. Please answer each question by placing a cross mark (X) in the appropriate space:-

To what extent are you fairly rewarded,	Very fairly distributed		Not distributed at all fairly	
. considering the responsibilities that you have?	_____	_____	_____	_____
. taking into account the amount of education and training that you have had?	_____	_____	_____	_____
. in view of the amount of experience that you have?	_____	_____	_____	_____
. for the amount of effort that you put forth?	_____	_____	_____	_____
. for work that you have done well?	_____	_____	_____	_____
. for the stresses and strains of your job?	_____	_____	_____	_____

The following statements deal with certain work activities and behaviours that are part of organizational life. Please indicate how frequently you engage in each kind of behaviour by writing a number (1 to 5) in the space provided:-

1 Never	2 Seldom	3 Sometimes	4 Often	5 Always/Very Frequently
1. How frequently do you usually participate in the decision to hire new staff?				[   ]
2. How frequently do you volunteer for things that are not required?				[   ]
3. How frequently do you usually participate in decisions on the promotion of any of the professional staff?				[   ]
4. How frequently do you orient new people even though it is not required?				[   ]

- |            |             |                |            |                             |
|------------|-------------|----------------|------------|-----------------------------|
| 1<br>Never | 2<br>Seldom | 3<br>Sometimes | 4<br>Often | 5<br>Always/Very Frequently |
|------------|-------------|----------------|------------|-----------------------------|
5. How frequently do you help others who have heavy work loads? [    ]
  6. How frequently do you participate in decisions on the adoption of new policies? [    ]
  7. How frequently do you assist your supervisor with his or her work? [    ]
  8. How frequently do you participate in decisions on the adoption of new programs? [    ]
  9. How frequently do you make innovative suggestions to improve the department? [    ]

The following statements deal with certain individual reactions to various aspects of work life. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by writing a number (1 to 5) in the space provided:-

- |                           |                             |                                    |                          |                        |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| 1<br>Disagree<br>Strongly | 2<br>Disagree<br>Moderately | 3<br>Neither Agree<br>nor Disagree | 4<br>Agree<br>Moderately | 5<br>Agree<br>Strongly |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. There can be little action taken here until a supervisor approves a decision.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. In uncertain times, I usually expect the best.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. I feel a great deal of stress because of my job.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. If something can go wrong for me, it will.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. A person who wants to make his own decisions will be quickly discouraged here.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. I always look on the bright side of things.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Very few stressful things happen to me at work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. I hardly ever expect things to go my way.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. Even small matters have to be referred to someone higher up for a final decision.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. I'm always optimistic about my future.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. My job is extremely stressful.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. It's important for me to keep busy.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. I have to ask my boss before I do almost anything.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. Things never work out the way I want them to.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. I almost never feel stressed at work.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. I'm a believer in the idea that "every cloud has a silver lining".
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. Any decision I make has to have my boss' approval.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. I rarely count on good things happening to me.

The next set of statements describe certain managerial behaviours. Please think of your own boss or supervisor and describe how often this person uses the following specific behaviours. For each item, use your observations of the person's behaviour to choose one of the following responses:

- |                           |                                   |   |                                    |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|------------------------------------|
| 1<br>Never,<br>not at all | 2<br>Seldom,<br>to a small extent | 3<br>Sometimes,<br>to a moderate extent | 4<br>Usually,<br>to a great extent |
|---------------------------|-----------------------------------|---|------------------------------------|

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Delegates to you the authority to make important decisions and implement them without his/her prior approval.

1  
Never,  
not at all

2  
Seldom,  
to a small extent

3  
Sometimes,  
to a moderate extent

4  
Usually,  
to a great extent

- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Presents a policy or strategy in general terms, and then asks you to determine specific action steps for implementing it.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Asks you to determine for yourself the best way to carry out an assignment or accomplish an objective.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Encourages you to suggest improvements and innovations (e.g., better ways to do the work, new or improved products).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Consults with you to get your reactions and suggestions before making major changes that will affect you.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Encourages you to express any concerns or doubts you may have about a proposal that is under consideration.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Listens carefully to any concerns that you may express about his/her plans without getting defensive.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. Modifies his/her proposals or plans to deal with your concerns and incorporate your suggestions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. Compliments you for demonstrating unusual creativity, initiative, persistence, or skill in performing a task.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Gives you credit for helpful ideas and suggestions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. Expresses personal appreciation when you do something for him/her that requires a special effort.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. Recognizes special contributions and important achievements by acknowledging them during a meeting or ceremonial event.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. Praises improvements in performance.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. Develops enthusiasm for a project by appealing to your pride in accomplishing a challenging task, beating competitors, or doing something never done before.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. Describes a clear and appealing vision of what can be achieved with your cooperation and support.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. Proposes challenging but realistic objectives.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. Makes persuasive arguments to gain support for a proposed project, policy, or plan.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. Inspires you to greater effort by setting an example in his/her own behaviour of dedication, courage, or self-sacrifice.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. Offers helpful advice on how to advance your career (e.g., people to cultivate, events to attend, assignments or positions to seek, aspects of the work to emphasize, traps to avoid).
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. Provides you with opportunities to develop your skills and demonstrate what you can do (e.g., gives you challenging new responsibilities or special assignments).

1  
Never,  
not at all

2  
Seldom,  
to a small extent

3  
Sometimes,  
to a moderate extent

4  
Usually,  
to a great extent

- \_\_\_\_ 21. Encourages you to attend relevant training programs, workshops, or night courses to develop greater skill and expertise.
- \_\_\_\_ 22. Provides extra instruction or coaching to help you improve your job skills or learn new ones.

The following statements describe reactions to various aspects of the general work environment. Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by writing a number (1 to 4) in the space provided:-

1  
Disagree  
Strongly

2  
Disagree

3  
Agree

4  
Agree  
Strongly

- \_\_\_\_ 1. Working here makes it hard to spend enough time with my family.
- \_\_\_\_ 2. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
- \_\_\_\_ 3. I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my job.
- \_\_\_\_ 4. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
- \_\_\_\_ 5. I spend so much time at work, I can't see the forest for the trees.
- \_\_\_\_ 6. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am failure.
- \_\_\_\_ 7. My job gets to me more than it should.
- \_\_\_\_ 8. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
- \_\_\_\_ 9. Working here leaves little time for other activities.
- \_\_\_\_ 10. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
- \_\_\_\_ 11. There are lot of times when my job drives me right up the wall.
- \_\_\_\_ 12. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
- \_\_\_\_ 13. I frequently get the feeling that I am married to the company.
- \_\_\_\_ 14. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
- \_\_\_\_ 15. Sometimes when I think about my job I get a tight feeling in my chest.
- \_\_\_\_ 16. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
- \_\_\_\_ 17. I have too much work and too little time to do it in.
- \_\_\_\_ 18. I certainly feel useless at times.
- \_\_\_\_ 19. I feel like I never have a day off.
- \_\_\_\_ 20. At times I think I am no good at all.



The following pairs of statements deal with common issues in work and non-work life. Please read each pair carefully and select the statement you agree with more by appropriately circling either "a" or "b" appearing against the statement.

1. a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.  
b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
2. a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.  
b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
3. a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.  
b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
4. a. When I make plans I am almost certain that I can make them work.  
b. It is not wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
5. a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.  
b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
6. a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.  
b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
7. a. As far as world events are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.  
b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
8. a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.  
b. There really is no such thing as luck.
9. a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.  
b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
10. a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over things that happen to me.  
b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

Each pair of phrases listed below describe opposite extremes of everyday behaviour. Each of us belongs somewhere between these two extremes. For example, most of us are neither the most competitive nor the least competitive person we know. Please circle a number (1 to 7) to indicate where your behaviour belongs between these two extremes.

- |   |               |   |
|---|---------------|---|
| 1. Never late   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Casual about appointments   |
| 2. Not competitive  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Very competitive  |
| 3. Anticipate what others are going to say<br>(nod, interrupt, finish for them) | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Good listener,<br>hear others out                                       |
| 4. Always rushed  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Never feel rushed, even under pressure                                  |
| 5. Can wait patiently   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Impatient when waiting  |
| 6. Go "all out"   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Casual  |
| 7. Take things one at a time  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Try to do many things at once,<br>think about what I'm going to do next |
| 8. Emphatic in speech<br>(may pound desk)                                       | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Slow, deliberate talker   |
| 9. Want good job recognized by others   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Only care about satisfying myself,<br>no matter what others may think   |
| 10. Fast<br>(eating, walking, etc.)   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Slow doing things   |
| 11. Easy going  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Hard driving  |
| 12. Sit on feelings   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Express feelings  |
| 13. Many interests  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Few interests outside work  |
| 14. Satisfied with job  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Ambitious   |

Carefully study the following set of figures and circle the one that best represents your overall satisfaction with your present job:-



PLEASE RESPOND TO THE FOLLOWING ITEMS:-

Sex: ☐ Female ☐ Male Age:  years

Education: ☐ some high school ☐ college degree  
☐ high school graduation ☐ some graduate study  
☐ some college ☐ advanced degree

Number of years in present job:  years and  months

Number of years in present organization:  years and  months

Your current area of functional specialization: \_\_\_\_\_  
(e.g., production, finance, sales, etc.)

Your present annual income: ☐ less than \$20,000  
☐ \$20,000 to less than \$30,000  
☐ \$30,000 to less than \$40,000  
☐ \$40,000 to less than \$50,000  
☐ \$50,000 to less than \$60,000  
☐ \$60,000 and above

Your marital status: ☐ Married ☐ Single  
☐ Divorced/Separated ☐ Engaged to be married

THANK YOU ONCE MORE FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT !

# APPENDIX III

## PHASE II QUESTIONNAIRE: FRENCH VERSION

Les énoncés suivants concernent différents aspects du travail dans les organisations. Veuillez lire attentivement chaque énoncé à la lumière de votre propre travail. Veuillez indiquer dans quelle mesure vous êtes en accord ou en désaccord avec chaque énoncé en écrivant un chiffre (1 à 6) dans l'espace prévu à cet effet:-

1	2	3	4	5	6
Fortement en désaccord	Modérément en désaccord	Un peu en désaccord	Un peu en accord	Modérément en accord	Fortement en accord

- \_\_\_ 1. Les événements qui comptent le plus pour moi sont liés à mon emploi.
- \_\_\_ 2. L'organisation est présentement soumise à des changements majeurs.
- \_\_\_ 3. Il y a trop de paperasse dans cette organisation.
- \_\_\_ 4. Pour moi, le travail n'est qu'une petite partie de ce que je suis en tant que personne.
- \_\_\_ 5. Je peux influencer la façon dont le travail est effectué dans mon département ou service.
- \_\_\_ 6. J'ai les connaissances et les habilités pour bien faire mon travail.
- \_\_\_ 7. Je suis stimulé par les buts de l'organisation.
- \_\_\_ 8. Ces temps-ci, dans mon organisation il semble que chacun peut être mis à pied à tout moment.
- \_\_\_ 9. Je suis personnellement très impliqué dans mon travail.
- \_\_\_ 10. Je vis, mange, et respire pour mon travail.
- \_\_\_ 11. L'environnement de travail dans cette organisation est très bureaucratique.
- \_\_\_ 12. J'ai la latitude nécessaire pour prendre des décisions au travail.
- \_\_\_ 13. J'ai les compétences pour travailler efficacement.
- \_\_\_ 14. Travailler pour les objectifs de l'organisation m'enthousiasme.
- \_\_\_ 15. Ils sont constamment en train de changer la façon dont les choses se font dans mon organisation.
- \_\_\_ 16. La plupart de ce qui m'intéresse tourne autour de mon travail.
- \_\_\_ 17. J'ai des liens très forts avec mon poste actuel qui seraient très difficiles à rompre.
- \_\_\_ 18. Il y a trop de règles et règlements dans cette organisation.
- \_\_\_ 19. Je dispose de la marge de manoeuvre nécessaire pour travailler de façon efficace.
- \_\_\_ 20. J'ai les capacités requises pour bien faire mon travail.
- \_\_\_ 21. Je suis enthousiasmé par la contribution de mon travail à l'organisation.
- \_\_\_ 22. Il est difficile de garder le rythme avec tous les changements ayant cours dans mon organisation.
- \_\_\_ 23. C'est très difficile de faire les choses de façon différente dans cette organisation.
- \_\_\_ 24. Je peux influencer les décisions prises dans mon département ou service.
- \_\_\_ 25. Je peux relever les défis posés par mon travail.
- \_\_\_ 26. Je suis stimulé par ce que l'organisation essaie d'accomplir.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Fortement en désaccord	Modérément en désaccord	Un peu en désaccord	Un peu en accord	Modérément en accord	Fortement en accord

- \_\_\_\_ 27. Ces temps-ci, les choses sont plutôt stables dans mon organisation.  
 \_\_\_\_ 28. Je considère mon emploi comme le centre de mon existence.  
 \_\_\_\_ 29. La plupart du temps, j'aime être absorbé par ce que je fais dans mon travail.  
 \_\_\_\_ 30. La plupart des gens travaillant ici pensent que cette organisation est très rigide et inflexible.  
 \_\_\_\_ 31. Mon travail comporte des responsabilités importantes.  
 \_\_\_\_ 32. Je peux faire mon travail de manière efficiente.  
 \_\_\_\_ 33. Il m'est important que l'organisation réussisse.  
 \_\_\_\_ 34. En ce moment, il y a beaucoup d'incertitude dans mon organisation.

Les phrases suivantes parlent des caractéristiques que les gens recherchent dans leur emploi. Indiquez s.v.p., quel est le degré de satisfaction ou de dissatisfaction avec chacune des qualités de votre travail en écrivant un chiffre (1 à 6) dans l'espace prévu à cet effet:-

1	2	3	4	5	6
Extrêmement Dissatisfait	Modérément Dissatisfait	Un peu Dissatisfait	Un peu Satisfait	Modérément Satisfait	Extrêmement Satisfait

Je me sens

- \_\_\_\_ avec le degré de sécurité que j'ai au travail.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec le type de politiques et procédures qui règlent mon travail.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec le niveau de rétribution que je reçois pour maintenir un niveau de vie raisonnable.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec le type d'avantages sociaux (vacances, caisse de retraite, services médicaux, etc.)  
 que je reçois au travail.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec les chances d'avancement que j'ai au travail.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec le type de conditions (éclairage, bruit, espace, etc.) dans lesquelles je travaille.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec les aspects intéressants et agréables de mon travail.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec le niveau de reconnaissance et de respect que je reçois au travail.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec les occasions que j'ai de travailler avec des gens que j'apprécie.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec les compétences techniques de mon supérieur immédiat.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec les occasions que j'ai au travail d'atteindre l'excellence.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec l'attitude sympathique et pleine de considération de mon supérieur immédiat.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec le type de responsabilité et d'indépendance que j'ai au travail.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec les occasions que j'ai d'améliorer mes habilités.  
 \_\_\_\_ avec le niveau de rétribution que je reçois pour le travail que je fais.  
 \_\_\_\_ en considérant l'ensemble de mon travail.

Les énoncés suivants concernent d'autres aspects du travail. En pensant à votre propre travail, veuillez indiquer dans quelle mesure vous êtes en accord ou en désaccord avec chaque énoncé en écrivant un chiffre (1 à 7) dans l'espace prévu:-

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fortement en désaccord	Modérément en désaccord	Un peu en désaccord	Ni en accord ou en désaccord	Un peu en accord	Modérément en accord	Fortement en accord

- \_\_\_ 1. L'information que je reçois est souvent inexacte.
- \_\_\_ 2. Il est facile de parler librement à tous les membres de mon groupe de travail.
- \_\_\_ 3. La plupart des choses que je fais dans ce travail, me paraissent inutiles ou triviales.
- \_\_\_ 4. L'opinion que j'ai de moi-même s'élève lorsque je fais bien mon travail.
- \_\_\_ 5. Je serais très heureux de poursuivre le reste de ma carrière avec cette organisation.
- \_\_\_ 6. Mon travail me donne l'entière responsabilité de décider quand et comment il est fait.
- \_\_\_ 7. Mon travail en soi ne me procure que très peu d'information sur ma performance.
- \_\_\_ 8. J'ai une idée claire de ce qui doit être fait dans mon travail.
- \_\_\_ 9. Je dois faire des choses qui devraient normalement être faites différemment.
- \_\_\_ 10. Je peux me rappeler plusieurs fois où j'ai reçu de l'information inexacte des membres de mon groupe.
- \_\_\_ 11. Je trouve agréable de parler aux autres membres de mon groupe.
- \_\_\_ 12. Mon travail fait beaucoup de sens pour moi.
- \_\_\_ 13. Je ressens une grande satisfaction personnelle lorsque je fais bien ce travail.
- \_\_\_ 14. J'aime discuter de mon organisation avec des gens qui n'en font pas partie.
- \_\_\_ 15. L'exécution de mon travail ne me laisse aucune chance d'exprimer mon initiative ou mon jugement.
- \_\_\_ 16. Mon travail est organisé de manière à ce que j'ai un feedback permanent sur ma performance.
- \_\_\_ 17. Je connais bien la marge de manoeuvre dont je dispose.
- \_\_\_ 18. Je travaille en fonction de politiques et directives incompatibles.
- \_\_\_ 19. Je suis souvent obligé de retourner à la source et vérifier l'exactitude de l'information que j'ai reçue.
- \_\_\_ 20. Il est facile de demander conseil auprès de chacun des membres de ce groupe.
- \_\_\_ 21. La plupart des personnes qui font ce travail ont l'impression qu'il est inutile ou trivial.
- \_\_\_ 22. Je me sens mal et triste lorsque je découvre une mauvaise performance dans ce travail.
- \_\_\_ 23. J'ai la liberté totale de décider comment j'accomplis mes tâches.
- \_\_\_ 24. Mon sentiment d'appartenance pour cette organisation pourrait facilement être transféré à une autre.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fortement en désaccord	Modérément en désaccord	Un peu en désaccord	Ni en accord ou en désaccord	Un peu en accord	Modérément en accord	Fortement en accord

- \_\_\_ 25. Mon travail me laisse énormément de possibilités d'indépendance et de liberté dans la façon de l'exécuter.
- \_\_\_ 26. Le travail en soi me procure très peu d'indices sur ma performance.
- \_\_\_ 27. Je sais que j'ai réparti mon temps de façon adéquate.
- \_\_\_ 28. Je dois tricher avec un règlement ou une politique afin de réaliser une tâche.
- \_\_\_ 29. J'ai parfois l'impression que les autres ne comprennent pas l'information qu' ils sont reçue.
- \_\_\_ 30. Les communications au sein de ce groupe sont très libres.
- \_\_\_ 31. La plupart des personnes qui font ce travail trouvent qu'il fait beaucoup de sens.
- \_\_\_ 32. Mes sentiments personnels sont peu affectés par mon niveau de réussite dans mon travail.
- \_\_\_ 33. Mon travail exige que je prenne mes propres décisions.
- \_\_\_ 34. Je connais mes responsabilités.
- \_\_\_ 35. Je reçois des requêtes incompatibles de deux ou plusieurs personnes.
- \_\_\_ 36. L'exactitude de l'information qui circule entre les membres du groupe pourrait être améliorée.
- \_\_\_ 37. Quand les gens discutent dans ce groupe, ils se comprennent très bien.
- \_\_\_ 38. La plupart des personnes dans ce travail ressentent une grande satisfaction personnelle lorsqu'ils font bien leur travail.
- \_\_\_ 39. Je ne me sens pas "émotionnellement attaché" à cette organisation.
- \_\_\_ 40. Je sais exactement ce qu'on attend de moi.
- \_\_\_ 41. Je fais des choses qui sont susceptibles d'être acceptées par une personne et non par d'autres.
- \_\_\_ 42. Mon travail est tel que je pourrais travailler longtemps sans avoir de feedback sur ma performance.
- \_\_\_ 43. Cette organisation représente beaucoup de choses pour moi.
- \_\_\_ 44. Souvent, ce que je dois faire dans mon travail n'est pas clair.
- \_\_\_ 45. Je ne ressens pas un sentiment d'appartenance très fort à mon organisation.

S'il vous plaît, regardez soigneusement les dessins ci-dessous et encerlez celui qui représente le mieux votre satisfaction avec votre travail.



Les questions suivantes s'intéressent à la manière dont les récompenses sont distribuées dans l'organisation. S.V.P., répondez en mettant un (X) dans la case adéquate:-

Jusqu'à quel point êtes-vous récompensé de façon juste,	Très équitable				Pas équitable du tout
.considérant les responsabilités que vous assumez ?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
.considérant le niveau d'instruction et de formation que vous avez ?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
.gardant en perspective la somme d'expérience que vous avez ?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
.pour les efforts déployés ?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
.pour le travail bien fait ?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
.pour le stress et les tensions subis au travail ?	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

Les phrases suivantes s'intéressent à des comportements et activités au travail qui font partie de la vie de l'organisation. S.V.P., indiquez avec quelle fréquence vous agissez de la sorte en écrivant un chiffre (1 à 5) dans l'espace prévu:-

1 Jamais	2 Rarement	3 Parfois	4 Souvent	5 Toujours/Très souvent
1. A quelle fréquence participez-vous de façon habituelle à des décisions d'embauche ?	[ ]			
2. A quelle fréquence proposez-vous vos services pour des choses non obligatoires?	[ ]			
3. A quelle fréquence participez-vous de façon habituelle aux décisions de promotion du personnel professionnel?	[ ]			
4. A quelle fréquence orientez-vous de nouvelles personnes même si ce n'était pas obligatoire ?	[ ]			
5. A quelle fréquence aidez-vous d'autres personnes qui ont une charge de travail lourde?	[ ]			
6. A quelle fréquence participez-vous aux décisions de nouvelles politiques?	[ ]			
7. A quelle fréquence aidez-vous votre superviseur dans son travail?	[ ]			
8. A quelle fréquence participez-vous aux décisions de nouveaux programmes?	[ ]			
9. A quelle fréquence faites-vous des suggestions innovatrices pour améliorer le travail du département ou service?	[ ]			



Les phrases suivantes concernent certaines réactions individuelles aux aspects variés de la vie au travail. Veuillez indiquer dans quelle mesure vous êtes en accord ou en désaccord avec chaque énoncé en écrivant un chiffre (1 à 5) dans l'espace prévu à cet effet:-

1	2	3	4	5
Fortement en désaccord	Modérément en désaccord	Ni en accord ou en désaccord	Modérément en accord	Fortement en accord

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Peu d'actions peuvent être entreprises ici avant qu'un superviseur approuve la décision.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Devant l'incertitude, j'anticipe habituellement le meilleur.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Mon travail me cause beaucoup de stress.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Si quelque chose peut mal aller, ç'à arrivera.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Une personne qui veut prendre ses propres décisions sera vite découragée ici.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Je regarde toujours le beau côté des choses.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Il ne m'arrive que très peu de choses stressantes au travail.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. Je ne m'attend à peu près jamais à ce que les choses se produisent à ma façon.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. Même les questions de peu d'importance doivent être référées à un supérieur pour décision finale.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Je suis toujours optimiste face à mon avenir.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. Mon travail est extrêmement stressant.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. Il m'est important de rester occupé.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. Je dois référer à mon patron avant de faire quoi que ce soit.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. Les choses ne se produisent jamais de la façon que je voudrais.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. Je ne me sens pratiquement jamais stressé au travail.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. Je crois en l'idée qu'il y a toujours du bon à tirer d'un événement fâcheux.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. Toute décision que je prends doit avoir l'accord de mon patron.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. Je compte rarement sur le fait que de bonnes choses vont m'arriver.

Les phrases suivantes décrivent certains comportements des gestionnaires. SVP, réfléchissez aux comportements de votre supérieur ou chef et marquez avec quelle fréquence il/elle se comporte comme décrit. Pour chaque phrase, utilisez votre expérience avec cette personne pour choisir la réponse adéquate.

1	2	3	4
Jamais, pas du tout	Rarement, un petit peu	Parfois, modérément	Souvent, très fréquemment

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. Vous délègue l'autorité de prendre des décisions importantes et de les mettre en action sans son approbation.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. Présente les politiques et stratégies en termes généraux et vous demande de préciser les moyens de mise en oeuvre.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Vous demande à décider par vous-même de la meilleure façon de réaliser une tâche ou d'atteindre un objectif.

- | 1<br>Jamais,<br>pas du tout | 2<br>Rarement,<br>un petit peu | 3<br>Parfois,<br>modérément | 4<br>Souvent,<br>très fréquemment |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------|
- 
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. Vous encourage à suggérer des voies d'amélioration et des innovations (ex. meilleures façons de faire le travail, produits nouveaux ou améliorés).
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Vous consultez afin d'obtenir vos réactions et suggestions avant de procéder à des changements majeurs qui vous affecteront.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Vous encourage à exprimer toute inquiétude ou doute que vous pourriez avoir sur un projet en délibération.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Écoute attentivement les inquiétudes que vous pourriez exprimer en regard de ses projets sans adopter une attitude défensive.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 8. Modifie ses propositions ou projets afin de tenir compte de vos inquiétudes et suggestions.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 9. Vous complimente pour toute réalisation très créative exceptionnelle quant à l'exécution d'une tâche.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 10. Vous accorde le crédit pour vos idées et suggestions utiles.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 11. Vous exprime son appréciation positive lorsque vous faites une chose pour lui/elle qui exige un effort particulier.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 12. Reconnaît les contributions et les performances exceptionnelles en les mentionnant au cours de réunions ou événements officiels.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 13. Louange pour les améliorations dans la performance.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 14. Crée de l'enthousiasme pour un projet en faisant appel à votre fierté dans la maîtrise d'un défi, la victoire sur les compétiteurs ou l'exécution d'une chose jamais faite auparavant.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 15. Présente de façon claire et attrayante la vision de ce qui peut être réalisé avec votre coopération et support.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 16. Propose des objectifs qui représentent un défi mais qui sont toutefois réalistes.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 17. Présente des arguments persuasifs afin d'obtenir le support requis à un projet, une politique ou un plan.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 18. Par son exemple d'engagement, de courage et d'abnégation, il/elle vous est une source d'inspiration à l'effort.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 19. Donne des conseils utiles sur la manière de progresser dans votre carrière (ex. quelles personnes fréquenter, événements à ne pas rater, positions ou tâches à convoiter, aspects de votre travail sur lesquels mettre l'accent, pièges à éviter).
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 20. Vous donne des opportunités de développer vos compétences et de démontrer ce dont vous êtes capable (ex. vous donne des nouvelles responsabilités ou des tâches spéciales).
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 21. Vous incite à participer à des programmes de formation ou à des cours du soir pour développer des capacités et un savoir-faire.
  - \_\_\_\_\_ 22. Vous donne un entraînement additionnel afin d'améliorer vos compétences au travail ou d'en acquérir des nouvelles.

Les phrases suivantes décrivent certaines réactions à des aspects variés de l'environnement du travail. Veuillez indiquer dans quelle mesure vous êtes en accord ou en désaccord avec chaque énoncé en écrivant un chiffre (1 à 4) dans l'espace prévu à cet effet:-

- | 1<br>Fortement<br>en désaccord   | 2<br>En désaccord | 3<br>En accord | 4<br>Fortement<br>en accord |
|--|-------------------|----------------|-----------------------------|
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 1. A cause de mon travail ici, il m'est difficile de passer suffisamment de temps avec ma famille. |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 2. Je pense être une personne de valeur, du moins à égalité avec les autres.                       |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 3. Je me suis déjà senti agité ou nerveux à cause du travail.                                      |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 4. Je pense avoir un bon nombre de qualités.   |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 5. Je passe tellement de temps au travail, je ne distingue plus les arbres de la forêt.            |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 6. De façon générale, j'ai tendance à penser que je suis nul.                                      |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 7. Mon travail m'atteint plus qu'il ne devrait.  |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 8. Je suis capable de faire les choses aussi bien que les autres.                                  |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 9. Mon travail ici me laisse peu de temps pour d'autres activités.                                 |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 10. Je pense ne pas avoir grand chose dont je puisse être fier.                                    |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 11. Il arrive souvent que mon travail me fasse grimper dans les murs.                              |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 12. J'adopte une attitude positive envers moi-même.  |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 13. J'ai fréquemment l'impression d'être marié à l'organisation.                                   |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 14. Dans l'ensemble, je suis satisfait(e) de qui je suis.  |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 15. Parfois, lorsque je pense à mon travail, je ressens un serrement à l'estomac.                  |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 16. Je souhaiterais avoir plus de respect envers moi-même.   |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 17. J'ai trop de travail et trop peu de temps pour l'exécuter.                                     |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 18. Il m'arrive parfois de me sentir inutile   |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 19. Je me sens comme si je n'avais jamais de journée de congé.                                     |                   |                |                             |
| _____  | _____             | _____          | _____                       |
| 20. Parfois, je pense que je ne vauds rien.  |                   |                |                             |

Les paires d'énoncés suivants concernent les sujets communs au travail et à la vie. Veuillez lire attentivement chaque paire et choisissez l'énoncé avec lequel vous êtes le plus d'accord en encerclant le "a" ou le "b".

1.     a. A long terme on obtient le respect que l'on mérite.  
       b. Malheureusement, la valeur d'un individu n'est pas souvent reconnue, quelque soient les efforts qu'il fait.
  
2.     a. Sans de véritables opportunités on ne peut devenir un leader efficace.  
       b. Les gens compétents qui n'arrivent pas à devenir des leaders n'ont pas saisi les opportunités qui se sont présentées à eux.

3.
    - a. Avoir du succès est une question de force de travail, la chance n'a peu ou rien à y voir.
    - b. Trouver un bon emploi dépend surtout du fait d'être à la bonne place au bon moment.
  4.
    - a. Quand j'établis des plans, je suis presque sûr de les faire marcher.
    - b. Il n'est pas sage de planifier en détail à l'avance, car beaucoup de choses finissent par dépendre de la bonne ou mauvaise fortune de toutes façons.
  5.
    - a. Dans mon cas, obtenir ce que je veux n'a peu ou rien à voir avec la chance.
    - b. Des fois, on pourrait aussi bien décider quoi faire en tirant à pile ou face.
  6.
    - a. Qui devient patron dépend souvent de qui aura eu la chance d'être au bon endroit en premier.
    - b. Réussir à faire réaliser par les gens l'action appropriée, dépend de l'habilité, la chance n'a peu ou rien à y voir.
  7.
    - a. S'agissant des événements mondiaux, la plupart des nous sommes victimes de forces que nous ne pouvons ni comprendre ni contrôler.
    - b. En s'engageant activement aux niveaux politique et social les gens peuvent contrôler les événements mondiaux.
  8.
    - a. La plupart des gens ne réalisent pas à quel point leurs vies sont contrôlées par des événements accidentels.
    - b. La chance n'existe pas vraiment.
  9.
    - a. Il est difficile de savoir si une personne vous aime vraiment ou pas.
    - b. Le nombre d'amis que vous avez dépend de votre gentillesse.
  10.
    - a. Souvent je sens que j'ai peu d'influence sur ce qui m'arrive.
    - b. Il m'est impossible de croire que le hasard ou la chance jouent un rôle important dans ma vie.
-

Chaque paire de phrases ci-dessous décrit des comportements quotidiens extrêmes. Chacun de nous se situe entre les deux cas extrêmes. Par exemple, la plupart d'entre nous ne sont ni la personne la plus compétitive ni la moins compétitive que nous connaissons. Veuillez encirclez un nombre (de 1 à 7) pour indiquer où votre comportement se situe entre les deux extrêmes.

- |  |               |  |
|--|---------------|--|
| 1. Jamais en retard  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Pas rigoureux avec les rendez-vous   |
| 2. Pas compétitif  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Très compétitif  |
| 3. Anticipe ce que les autres vont dire<br>(approuve, interrompt, complète pour eux) | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Bon écouteur,<br>laisse la parole aux autres   |
| 4. Toujours pressé   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Ne se dépêche jamais,<br>même sous pression  |
| 5. Peut attendre patiemment  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Impatient en situation d'attente   |
| 6. Se défonce  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Prend les choses à la légère   |
| 7. Prend les choses une à la fois  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Essaie de faire plusieurs choses à la fois, pense à ce que je vais faire prochainement |
| 8. Parle avec emphase<br>(peux frapper sur le bureau)                                | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Parle lentement de manière délibérée   |
| 9. Voudrais que mon travail soit reconnu par les autres                              | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Ne pense qu'à ma propre satisfaction, peu importe ce que les autres pensent            |
| 10. Fait tout rapidement<br>(manger, marcher, etc.)                                  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Lent, de façon général   |
| 11. Décontracté  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Exigeant, pousse fort  |
| 12. Retiens mes émotions   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Exprime mes émotions   |
| 13. Ai plusieurs centre d'intérêts   | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Ai peu d'intérêts en dehors du travail   |
| 14. Satisfais de mon emploi  | 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 | Ambitieux  |

MERCI ENCORE POUR VOTRE TEMPS ET VOTRE EFFORT !