

Employee involvement and the middle manager: A multi-level, cross-company study of their role in the effectiveness of employee involvement initiatives.

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Abstract

There is ample evidence that employee involvement practices can, in some circumstances, lead to improvements in both employee work attitudes and productivity. However, there is considerable variation in the extent to which organisations achieve these outcomes. It is argued in this thesis that a key moderator of outcomes is the extent of management support for or resistance to employee involvement. This thesis is organised around a sequence of successive related inquiries which address the question, *“In what circumstances do managers support or resist increased employee involvement in their organisations, and what is the effect of their resistance or support?”*.

The studies reported on in this thesis are: a qualitative pilot study drawing on interviews with multiple informants in twelve organisations seeking to implement employee involvement practices; a company level questionnaire survey of 155 UK companies; a questionnaire survey of 1,119 managers drawn from the membership of the Institute of Management; and a multi-instrument, multi-level questionnaire survey study of managers in 27 companies drawn from the original sample of 155.

It is concluded, from these studies, that there is no evidence for less support for EI among middle managers than among senior managers. However, hypotheses concerning a number of correlates of management support for EI were confirmed. Some support was found for a view of management resistance to EI as a rational response to threats to self interest. Strong support was also found for explanations of resistance to EI as arising out of shared normative beliefs in defence of the status quo, lack of experience/ competence and a mismatch between organisation systems and the goals of EI. The relationship between managers' own empowerment and their support for EI was found to be moderated by the climate of beliefs concerning the extent of common purpose in their organisation.

*In the midway of this our mortal life,
I found me in a wood, astray
Gone from the path direct: and e'en to tell,
It were no easy task, how savage wild
That forest, how robust and rough its growth,
...
Yet to discourse of what there good befell,
All else will I relate discover'd there.
(L'Inferno : Canto 1, Dante Alighieri)*

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my wife Marion and to our first child whose arrival is eagerly anticipated about the same time as my viva. I am deeply grateful to them both for teaching me the true meaning of involvement.

Acknowledgments

I would like to acknowledge my debt of gratitude to Nigel Nicholson, my supervisor from whom I have learned an enormous amount about theory and the process of carrying out research and who has persisted in giving me good advice even in the face of my occasional stubborn resistance to hearing it. Many of my colleagues at London Business School have given me invaluable support and suggestions. I am particularly grateful to Jane Murphy for her immense skill and patience in persuading managers and their firms to take part in the studies. The Department of Employment, Kinsley Lord, Blessing-White, and London Business School have all generously contributed financially to the conduct of this research. The Institute of Management provided encouragement and access to their membership as a research sample. Finally and importantly, this research could not have been carried out without the cooperation of nearly 1,800 managers who took the time to answer my questions. Of course none of the above named bear any responsibility for any errors or failings in this thesis. Those are the sole responsibility of the author.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Ideas of employee involvement and participative management are not new. A Roman agriculturalist, writing as long ago as 100 AD about the management of his estate workers, described the value of employee participation in decision making in enlisting commitment.

"Nowadays I make it a practice to call them into consultation on any new work...I observe they are more willing to set about a piece of work on which their opinions have been asked and their advice followed."
(Columella, 100 AD. quoted in Sashkin, 1976)

In more recent times employee involvement has been a consistent theme of social science prescriptions for management. In the postwar years there has been a growing base of academic interest in methods for fostering employee involvement. In the past two decades many of these ideas have passed into management practice.

There has been a recent surge of interest in employee involvement. The number of organisations in the British Workplace Industrial Relations Survey reporting initiatives to increase employee involvement increased from 24% in 1980 to 35% in 1984 to 45% in 1990. However, the proportion saying that this amounts to a substantial increase in employee influence over how their work is carried out still remains small (Millward *et al*, 1992).

It is clear that in the right circumstances increased employee involvement can be of value to organisations. Benefits can include increased job satisfaction for employees and increased commitment to the organisation (Miller & Monge, 1986; Spector 1986), greater success in managing change (Coch & French 1948), more effective use of tacit knowledge, lower turnover and absenteeism and, in some cases, significantly improved

productivity (Guzzo, Jette & Katzell, 1985).

However, research and practice have shown these benefits to elude many organisations. A significant proportion of employee involvement efforts founder or deliver only limited benefits (Cotton, 1993; Lawler, 1986). Key questions then concern the preconditions, first for effectively increasing employee involvement, and, secondly, for reaping organisational benefits from doing so.

One important facet of the successful implementation of employee involvement is the role played by middle managers. As the implementors of organisational strategy and policy they play an important role in any effort to increase employee involvement. Middle managers may find themselves targets of increased involvement, they may be the agents of increased involvement for their subordinates or in many cases they may come to be perceived as a major barrier to involvement.

Although there is ample anecdotal evidence (e.g. Saporito, 1986; Tomkin, 1987) of the key role played by middle managers and supervisors in the success or failure of employee involvement there is relatively little empirical research which focuses on this role.

This thesis is organised around a sequence of successive related inquiries which address the question, *“In what circumstances do managers support or resist increased employee involvement in their organisations, and what is the effect of their resistance or support?”*

Chapter 2 reviews the literature concerning the impact and outcomes of employee involvement practices and the nature and extent of middle management resistance to them. The literature review defines the key terms which will be used in the thesis, critically examines evidence concerning outcomes of employee involvement, the moderating role

of middle management and proposes a series of research questions which arise from the literature review and the pilot study reported in chapter 3. Detailed hypotheses for each study are developed in the relevant chapters, which draw on material from chapter 2 and review additional material where relevant. Where appropriate, key arguments from chapter 2 are summarised in the study chapters.

Chapter 3 describes an exploratory study on the nature of employee involvement practices and the barriers to their success in 12 firms. While the pilot study is placed after the literature review in this thesis, much of the literature review was stimulated by questions this study raised. The results of this study revealed a common perception of middle managers as a barrier to employee involvement and motivated the present focus on the role played by middle level managers in the success or failure of employee involvement processes.

From a study of the literature, it became clear that most of the evidence concerning middle management resistance to employee involvement came from case study research in single organisations. There was little in the way of comparative research across large numbers of organisations. For this reason there was little evidence concerning the relationship between middle management resistance and organisational context. The next study, detailed in chapter 4, undertook to address this gap.

Chapter 4 is based on a questionnaire survey of 155¹ companies. In each company a senior management respondent completed a questionnaire concerning the use of employee involvement (EI) practices and the extent of middle management and senior management support for them. The study tested hypotheses concerning the impact of

¹155 responded out of 465 ie. 33%

middle management resistance to EI and the organisational level antecedents of resistance. This study, however, did not collect data from individual managers on their own attitudes to EI, nor was it able to test hypotheses concerning antecedents of resistance to EI, or support for EI at the individual level.

To test hypotheses concerning individual level explanations of management attitudes to employee involvement the Institute of Management (IM) were approached to provide access to their membership database. In collaboration with the IM a questionnaire was distributed to their members. The IM is an professional association for British managers, which seeks to keep its members informed of best practice and developments in management. Members are at all levels of management and are drawn from all sectors. Chapter 5 reports on this study.

Responses were received from 1,119 managers² across a wide range of industry sectors. The study tested hypotheses concerning managers' attitudes and behavioural intentions towards EI and their antecedents (both organisational and individual).

The studies reported on in chapters 4 and 5 between them built a picture of the individual and organisational antecedents of managerial attitudes and behaviour toward EI. Each of the studies shed light on the nature and antecedents of managerial support for/resistance to EI but each had methodological limitations. Each study relied on a single instrument, hence it seem possible that some of the revealed relationships were a function of common method variance. The second study confounded individuals and organisations. It was not possible to be entirely sure whether relationships reported in this study applied between organisations or within them at the individual level. In combination

² 1,119 responded out of 4,500 questionnaires distributed, ie. 25%

these problems meant that one possible interpretation of the results was that they were solely due to perceptual effects.

To address these issues a further study was carried out using a multi-level, multi-instrument design. A number of the firms in the first study were approached and asked to distribute a questionnaire to a sample of their managers. Twenty-seven agreed and responses were received from 482 managers. It was now possible to use multi-level statistical techniques to test hypotheses at both the organisational and individual levels simultaneously. It was also now possible to test hypotheses concerning relationships between variables measured using different instruments and different respondents, eliminating concerns about common method variance (individual level data was combined with the organisation level data collected in the first study). Chapter 6 describes the results of this study.

Chapters 4 and 5 are written as self-contained studies. Chapter 6 builds on these two studies and reassesses their conclusions in the light of the third study. The final chapter (chapter 7) seeks to integrate the findings of the three studies, discusses the patterns of similarity and difference between the results, discusses the contribution to knowledge they make and draws conclusions concerning implications for practice and further research.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

This thesis is founded on three linked but quite distinct studies. Each study is described in a separate chapter. In this chapter the literature on employee involvement (EI) and the role of middle managers is reviewed to identify key research questions addressed in these studies. The detailed hypotheses that each study addresses are developed in the relevant chapters, since some questions raised by earlier studies lead to hypotheses addressed in a subsequent study.

This chapter first reviews the development of ideas concerning employee involvement in management theory and practice. Competing definitions of employee involvement are considered and a definition of employee involvement is developed for the purposes of this thesis.

The evidence for productivity and attitude improvements as outcomes of employee involvement is considered critically. It is argued that an important area of study concerns the moderators of EI outcomes and, in particular, the role of middle management attitudes and behaviour. The evidence for middle management resistance to EI is considered and arguments concerning the antecedents of middle management resistance to EI are developed.

What is employee involvement?

In the wake of the Industrial Revolution with the move from craft to mass production and the increasing size of enterprises there was a corresponding need for the development of ideas concerning efficient management and organisations. Weber (1946) described the rational-legal organisational authority system with its bureaucratic

organisational form as the dominant system of modern society. Fayol (1916), writing at the beginning of the 20th Century in France, described the role of the manager as forecasting, planning, organisation, command and control. Management thinking post First World War was much influenced by the work of F.W. Taylor. For Taylor, the role of the manager was to find "the one best way" of carrying out a piece of work, to specify precisely how that work was to be carried out, removing all elements of discretion and by providing an appropriate "rate" for the work, directly linking pay to output, motivate high productivity (Taylor, 1947). Taylor's ideas were highly influential both in the USA and Europe.

Despite the resistance of a few employers such as Cadbury (1912), Taylorist ideas took strong root on both sides of the Atlantic.

During the 1940s and '50s writers such as Lewin, Mayo and McGregor began to describe the adverse social consequences of Taylorist management methods. Lewin carried out a series of experiments that showed the value of participation in changing attitudes and enabling change (Lewin 1947). Mayo (1933) emphasised attention to the social dimension of work. His involvement in the Hawthorne investigation convinced him of the importance of social relationships at work as a motivator for workers. McGregor (1960) setting out his "Theory X" and "Theory Y" of management emphasised self-direction and self-control for workers.

These "Human Relations" theorists have been subsequently much criticised for a strongly unitarist view of organisations, largely ignoring the extent to which organisational subgroups have significantly divergent interests (Fox 1974). Much of Human Relations writing focused on individual management style. Little attention was paid to the inherent conflict of interests among different stakeholders in organisations. Rather, the solution

to problems of organisational conflict was seen to be a better understanding of practical psychology among first line supervisors and managers (Child, 1969, pp156-157). Conflict was seen as arising to a large extent from underdeveloped social skills of managers, rather than from underlying divergence of economic interests. A key theme developed later in this thesis concerns the extent to which employee involvement practices depend on the development of 'common purpose' and mechanisms for aligning the interests of organisation members for their success. Building on the work of Maslow (1968), Herzberg began to develop methods for job redesign, which, he claimed, led to increases in job satisfaction and productivity.

At the Tavistock Institute in London, during the 1950s and '60s, Eric Trist, Fred Emery and others developed their ideas of socio-technical work redesign. They argued, like the Human Relations theorists, that insufficient attention had been paid to the social dimension of work. However, unlike the Human Relations movement they emphasised paying attention to the interaction of the social and technical systems in organisations. Their work led to a number of notable experiments (particularly in Scandinavia) aimed at increasing employee participation in workplace decision making (Emery & Thorsrud 1976). Trist and Emery were early champions of the concept of "self-directed work teams" (teams of employees sharing common responsibility for achievement of a complete work task, largely responsible for organising and directing their own operations as a team). During the early 1970s companies such as General Motors began to experiment with joint employer-union quality of work-life programmes. Proctor & Gamble and General Foods used new plant setups to try out new working methods which put greater stress on employee involvement (Lawler 1986).

In Britain, post First World War, interest in forms of worker participation was

mainly driven by unions or by government concern to reduce industrial unrest and mostly focused on ideas of consultation, representative participation and limited industrial democracy rather than direct influence by employees over how they carried out their work. There was little support for these ideas among employers.

Despite considerable and increasing interest in forms of direct employee involvement amongst social scientists during the 1960s and '70s, examples of practical implementation of these ideas were rare. In Britain, what interest there was in increasing employee participation, focused mainly on representative consultative processes and found little support amongst managers (Marchington *et al.*, 1992).

However, by the 1980s, there were signs of increased interest amongst the senior management of firms (particularly in the USA) in forms of employee involvement. As noted in the introduction, this interest has continued to increase.

As interest in employee involvement has increased, the consequent expansion of writing and research arising out of different, and sometimes competing perspectives, has led to some degree of definitional confusion. "Participation", "empowerment" and "employee involvement" have all been used with different meanings by different writers, with varying degrees of overlap between their meanings.

Perhaps the most inclusive definition of EI has been offered by Dachler and Wilpert (1978), who see EI as encompassing all forms of employee influence over decision making. Dachler and Wilpert outline five dimensions of EI: Formal-informal, direct-indirect, level of access, content of EI and social range. Formal-informal refers to the extent to which employee involvement processes are codified or tacit. Direct involvement refers to the "*immediate personal involvement*" (ibid., p12.) of organisation members in influencing decisions. Indirect involvement is a process of influence through

representatives. Level of access is the level of influence organisation members have over decisions. Content refers to the issues organisation members can influence. Social range refers to which categories of organisation member are involved. Clearly this definition of employee involvement encompasses some very different phenomena. For example formal worker representation on a company board, discussion over lunch with a manager about where to site a vending machine, and shopfloor workers making decisions in teams about scheduling of work and changes to working methods would all count as forms of EI (although with different positions on each dimension). While this definition provides help with accurate description, the processes covered and their likely outcomes are so diverse that it seems unhelpful to consider them together.

Lawler (1986) describes employee involvement as the process of pushing power, information knowledge and rewards down the organisation. Lawler, Mohrman and Ledford (1992) list a number of strategies used by organisations to achieve employee involvement: -

Survey feedback - the use of employee attitude survey results as part of a larger problem-solving process in which survey data are used to encourage, structure and measure the effectiveness of employee participation;

Quality Circles - structured groups of volunteers from a particular work area meet regularly to identify and find solutions to work related problems. The groups generally have limited power and act principally by making suggestions to management;

Quality of Work Life schemes - joint union-management committees (often at multiple organisational levels) in parallel to the usual collective bargaining arrangements. These committees are charged with developing joint approaches to improving employee quality of work life and organisational performance. They are usually barred from

discussing contractual issues such as pay;

Job enrichment or redesign - redesigning work roles to increase skill variety, autonomy, significance and completeness of tasks and performance feedback. The aim is to increase worker performance and job satisfaction. The redesign is often undertaken in cooperation with employees;

Self-managing or autonomous work teams - the work group (sometimes without a supervisor) is assigned responsibility for a whole product or service and makes decisions about task assignments and work methods. The team may also be responsible for support services such as maintenance, purchasing and quality control and have some responsibility for personnel functions such as recruitment, termination and pay determination;

Mini-enterprise units - Small self contained organisational units that produce their own product or service and operate in decentralised partly autonomous fashion as a small business ; and

Gainsharing (Lawler, 1986) - paying a bonus to employees based on improvements in the operating results of an organisation.

Cotton (1993) includes the same list of practices as forms of employee involvement with the addition of representative processes such as works councils and worker directors. He also refers to employee ownership plans and workers' cooperatives as forms of "financial participation".

Lawler places particular emphasis on employee involvement as a property of organisations rather than individuals or their jobs. In particular, he describes employee involvement as a combination of processes which increase the power of employees to affect how their work is carried out, the use of appropriate reward and performance

measurement systems to align the interests of individuals with organisational goals, effective communication (both vertically and laterally) and performance feedback, and the training and development of employees to have a good understanding of the wider business (Lawler, 1986, pp24-27).

This conception bears a strong relationship to Kanter's (1977, 1984) concept of "Power Tools". Kanter suggests that effective "empowerment" depends on developing the conditions in an organisation for the "circulation of power". By the circulation of power, she means that powerful managers who are enabled by their organisational context to act effectively are in their turn able and likely to create the conditions for others to act. In this she follows Tannenbaum's (1968) proposal that control is not zero sum, rather by use of participative management techniques it is possible to increase the total amount of control in an organisation. The non-zero sum approach to power assumes that exercising power is something which benefits the whole organisation's membership.

Wagner (1995) offers a definition of empowerment as ". . . *the redistribution of authority to grant discretion to the formerly powerless.*" Wagner takes empowerment to be the wider term and to include both participation/involvement, which he describes as influence sharing and delegation (handing over authority). Conger and Kanungo (1988) have developed a model of empowerment as a psychological state. In their model the use of participative management, job enrichment and the removal of sources of powerlessness and anxiety lead to increased self-efficacy beliefs. For Conger and Kanungo, employee involvement processes lead to a perception of empowerment which, by providing an increased sense of self-efficacy, improves motivation and performance.

Other writers have also taken an individual centred view. Sashkin (1976) focuses on the psychological target of the employee involvement. He differentiates between four

types of involvement: participation in goal setting, decision making, problem solving and change. Sashkin argues that each can produce a sense of task "ownership", development of shared norms and values, and improved information flow. These in turn he claims lead to increased quality of work, commitment, and an increased capacity of the organisation to adapt to external change.

Wagner (1994, 1995) defines employee involvement as a "*process in which influence is shared among hierarchical nonequals*" and excludes "*delegation procedures*" in which managers surrender authority on particular issues to subordinates. Ledford and Lawler (1994) take issue with this definition which they describe as unduly restrictive and insist on the centrality of delegative practices such as self managing teams to the concept of EI. They also stress the embeddedness of the introduction of EI practices in wider systemic change.

Other writers have included forms of industrial democracy such as works councils, consultative committees, and worker directors in definitions of participation and involvement (eg. Kuhne, 1976; Bartolke, Eschweiler, Flechsenberger and Tannenbaum, 1982).

Marchington, Goodman, Wilkinson and Ackers (1992) suggest that use of the term 'employee involvement' be limited to those practices "*which are initiated principally by management and are designed to increase employee information about and commitment to the organisation*" (Marchington *et al.*, 1992, p8). They specifically exclude forms of representative industrial democracy from their definition. In their study of forms of employee involvement and participation, Marchington *et al.* operationalise employee involvement as a list of practices, such as quality circles, suggestion schemes and attitude surveys.

In much of the writing reviewed later in this chapter the terms ‘empowerment’, ‘employee involvement’ and ‘participation’ are used interchangeably. In some cases ‘involvement’, and in others ‘participation’ is taken to be the broader term. Wagner takes ‘empowerment’ to be the more inclusive term. This definitional confusion lies at the heart of a number of disputes about the meaning of research evidence on outcomes of employee involvement (eg. Wagner 1994, 1995 vs. Ledford & Lawler 1994; and Cotton, Vollrath, Frogatt, Lengnick-Hall, & Jennings, 1988 vs. Leana, Locke and Schweiger, 1990). In particular, some of the confusion seems to be founded in a failure to distinguish between the content of initiatives which aim to achieve or increase employee involvement, achieved employee involvement and the hypothesised outcomes of employee involvement.

Lawler *et al.*'s taxonomy of forms of employee involvement reviewed earlier is clearly concerned with the content of initiatives. The definition Lawler offers of employee involvement as pushing power, information, knowledge and rewards down the organisation seems to be partly about the necessary context for effective implementation of employee involvement rather than a definition of EI. Likewise Kanter's definition of empowerment as a process of creating the preconditions for the ‘circulation of power’ seems largely concerned with the context for effective employee involvement. On the other hand, the definitions of Sashkin and Conger and Kanungo focus largely on outcomes.

Figure 1.1 sets out the definitional framework I will draw on in this thesis. First in order to avoid conflating largely dissimilar practices I follow Marchington *et al.*'s suggestion (1992) and exclude representative democracy from the definition of employee involvement.

For the purposes of this thesis I propose the following definition of employee

involvement as:

the effective exercise, by employees, of influence over how their work is organised and carried out.

This definition excludes forms of financial participation except to the extent that they include the opportunity for employees to influence decision making processes, although this does not exclude the possibility that financial participation might form part of the context for successful EI. In this definition influence (*pace* Wagner, 1994, 1995) is taken to include complete control over decision making. Again, following Marchington *et al.*, participation is taken to be the wider term which includes EI, financial participation and industrial democracy but not more adversarial forms of influence such as collective bargaining.

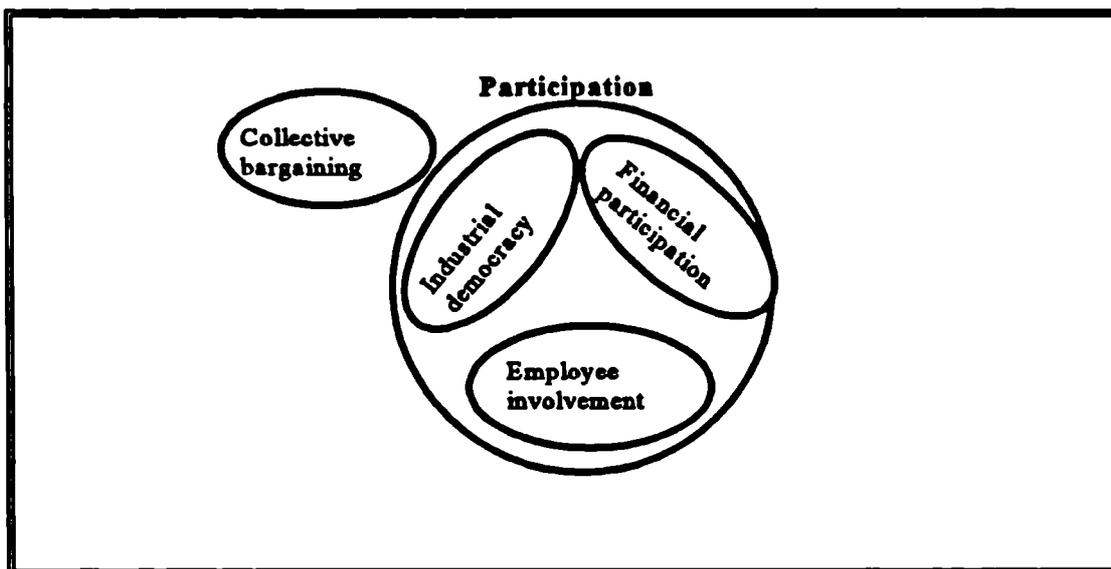


Figure 1.1: Definitional framework for employee involvement

For greater clarity this thesis will distinguish between “*employee involvement practices*”, “*employee involvement*” and “*empowerment*”. The term “*employee involvement initiative*” will be used to describe any initiative or programme which seeks

to achieve employee involvement as one of its principal goals. Hence both suggestion schemes and self managing work groups could be described as employee involvement practices, (although one might be more effective than the other in giving employees effective influence over decisions about their work). “*Empowerment*” will be used in Conger and Kanungo’s sense of a motivational state - the individual’s sense that they have power to influence their environment and those around them. Given this definition of EI as the effective exercise of influence, employee involvement practices are seen as an antecedent of EI, and may be more or less effective in creating genuine influence over decisions for employees. Empowerment is used in Conger and Kanungo’s sense of a psychological state - the perception of employees that they have power. In this sense empowerment can be a consequence of EI (Figure 1.2).

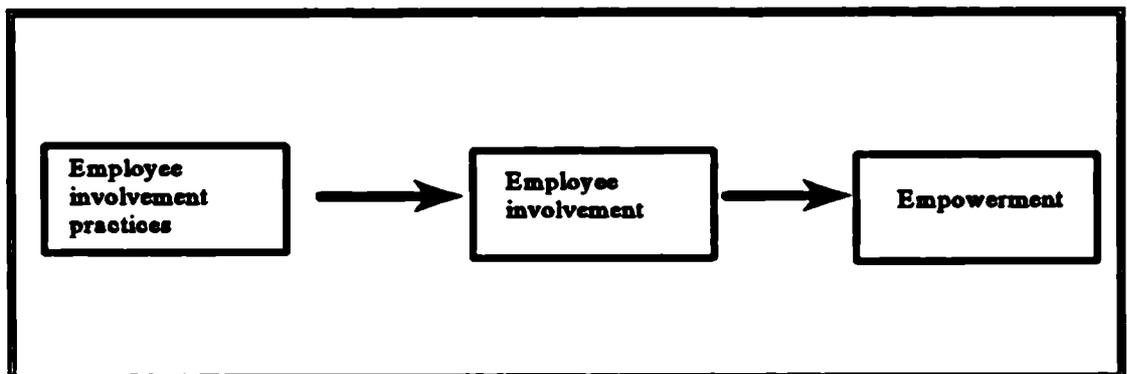


Figure 1.2

In Dachler and Wilpert’s sense the definition of EI presented here restricts attention to direct forms of employee involvement in which the content concerns the organisation and conduct of work and the level of access varies from some influence to complete control.

In the studies reported in this thesis employee involvement is operationalised both in terms of a list of employee involvement practices (the extent of use of: job enrichment

or redesign, quality circles, consultative committees, team briefing, problem solving task forces/project teams, self-managing work teams, small self contained business units, suggestion schemes, and employee attitude surveys.) and in terms of level of employee influence over a range of decision types.

EI and the nature of organisations

Writers such as Sashkin, Conger and Kanungo, and Kanter seem to espouse an implicitly unitarist view of organisations. From this perspective there is 'common purpose' among organisation members and a common set of values which bind those members together. The nature and provenance of organisational goals are seen as uncontroversial. While we may accept that Kanter's preconditions for the "circulation of power" are necessary to allow individuals to effectively exercise discretion there is little here which addresses the problem of which goals they choose to pursue.

Lawler, with his emphasis on the use of rewards and communications processes as mechanisms for the alignment of individual and organisational interests, adopts an implicitly more pluralist perspective on organisations, which admits of the possibility of competing goals and interests within the organisation.

However, what is shared by these perspectives is the concept of employee involvement as a process which is of value to both employer and employed, enriching the quality of working life and improving efficiency and effectiveness.

A number of authors have offered a radical critique of this perspective. Ramsay (1977) has suggested that interest in employee involvement and worker participation goes through cycles. He argues that interest in and extensiveness of participation is driven by employers' concern to maintain control. For example, at times of labour scarcity employers will by appearing to share some element of control diffuse the threat of

increased labour power. As the threat from labour abates, managements lose interest in participation and allow programmes to fade into more trivial forms or disappear.

Marchington *et al.* (1993), while not entirely rejecting Ramsay's explanation, suggest an alternative interpretation of the rise and fall of interest in EI within organisations. They suggest that the introduction of employee involvement is frequently motivated by the desire in managers to be noticed and engage in impression management, via the creation of new initiatives. Despite having a high profile, these programmes soon tend to fade in importance as a result of political rivalries between managers, the demise of champions of a particular initiative and the 'quick-fix' nature of many such initiatives.

At the heart of Ramsay's critique is the radical critique of pluralist ideology outlined by Fox (1974). From this perspective the pluralist perspective of an enterprise as a coalition of groups and individuals with variously competing and overlapping aspirations and perceptions of the organisation serves only to cover up the massive inequity of power between employees and employers and to justify the continuation of that inequity.

Braverman (1974) has argued that the prevailing trend in capitalist society is not of greater participation and involvement for employees, but rather of increasing 'Taylorisation'. Braverman's thesis is that there is a long-term trend for jobs to be increasingly 'de-skilled'; ie. increasingly routinised and mechanical. Braverman further argues that processes such as job enrichment are simply cosmetic and exist principally to habituate the worker to de-skilled jobs.

Others (Grenier, 1988) have argued that EI is pursued by firms in an attempt to undermine unions and worker solidarity and manipulate workers into working harder without increased rewards, or that EI initiatives are aimed at extracting from workers the "working knowledge" which has in the past been a key resource in bargaining over wages

and conditions (Kusterer, 1978).

There is then a debate concerning the motives of senior managers who introduce employee involvement practices. Do firms introduce EI in pursuit of efficiency and effectiveness, or do they do so in order to tighten management control to the detriment of the wage effort bargain for workers? The study reported in chapter 3, offers some evidence on this issue.

The radical critique of EI has two clear strands. First, EI is criticised as doing nothing to redistribute the essential balance of power in organisations but rather that it tightens management control under the guise of offering greater influence over work processes. Second, it is claimed that EI rests on a false assumption about organisations, an assumption of common purpose and shared interests.

The first criticism is essentially normative, it rests on a set of beliefs about social inequity and the claim that participation or involvement are only 'window dressing' unless they include the opportunity to change the nature of the wage effort bargain. To accept that EI does not involve radical changes in the balance of organisational power is not to say that such practices cannot benefit employees. Nor is the empirical evidence for deskilling as a 'master trend' compelling. Braverman has been criticised for simplistically equating the management process with Taylorism. Wood (1982), reviewing a number of empirical studies, concludes that not only is Braverman's description of de-skilling as an overarching trend suspect, but that

“. . . the deskilling which has occurred must be located in a context which is far broader than Taylorism”
(Wood, 1982, p22)

Wood has argued elsewhere (1989, pp40-43), that the impact of changes in technology affects the nature of employee skills required in the workplace in complex

ways, and that advances in technology and automation do not inevitably lead to de-skilling or indeed to 're-skilling'. Rather, similar technologies can have profoundly different effects on the nature of work and the level of employee skills required according to local conditions, organisation strategies, the national context and economic conditions.

Nor does the evidence support the view that EI undermines worker solidarity. A study by Hodson, Creighton, Jamison, Rieble and Welsh (1994) showed that rather than undermining worker solidarity, higher levels of EI were associated with greater solidarity.

We should be clear that employee involvement practices are not concerned with altering the essential balance of power in organisations and that the goals pursued by employee involvement programmes will most often be defined by senior managers. In examining the extent to which EI initiatives succeed or fail this thesis will focus principally on the extent to which they successfully achieve organisational goals as defined by senior managers. However, in considering the barriers to effective implementation of employee involvement initiatives we must consider how they serve the aspirations of multiple groups within the organisation. One focus of this thesis will be the extent to which middle and senior management perceptions and expectations of employee involvement initiatives vary.

The second criticism, that many writings on EI rest on assumptions of common purpose and shared interests, is concerned with an essential disagreement over the appropriate theoretical framework for understanding power in organisations. Much writing on the nature and outcomes of EI is founded on a non-zero sum concept of power. As will be explored later in this chapter, a non-zero sum concept of power rests on assumptions of common purpose and shared interests between organisation members and subgroups. It will be argued that EI does indeed depend on some degree of common purpose for its success, but that the extent of common purpose in organisations will vary

and is subject to empirical measurement. *This suggests that an important issue for empirical research concerns the relationship between the use of employee involvement practices and the reported extent of common purpose between organisation members.*

The outcomes of EI

Models of EI and its outcomes fall into two broad categories motivational and cognitive. The first category concerns the motivational impact of employee involvement. Greater employee involvement is hypothesised to lead to improved morale or commitment and hence it is argued to greater productivity, flexibility, quality etc.. The arguments of Sashkin(1976) and Conger and Kanungo (1988) fall into this category. Sashkin argues that by meeting employees' needs for autonomy and satisfying work, employee involvement leads to greater motivation to work effectively. This line of argument is unconvincing. While a number of studies have established a link between employee involvement practices and job satisfaction the evidence for a link between job satisfaction and performance is very weak.

Conger and Kanungo argue that the principal goal of employee involvement is to increase employees' self efficacy beliefs by removing organisational constraints which produce powerlessness and by effective coaching. They employ an expectancy theory of motivation, ie. motivation is determined by beliefs about ability to perform effectively, the likely outcomes of that performance and the desirability of those outcomes. Although they pay little attention to the other components of the equation, expectations about the outcomes of effort and their desirability, these ideas have been further developed by Thomas and Velthouse (1990). The evidence for a link between self efficacy beliefs and performance is more robust than the case for a link between satisfaction and performance (eg Wood & Bandura, 1989).

The second category of argument concerns the impact of employee involvement on the individuals' capacity to act effectively in the pursuit of organisational goals. Locke and Schweiger (1979) noted in a review of the EI literature that many proponents of EI focus on greater goal commitment as the mediator between EI and performance improvements. They argue that the cognitive effects of employee involvement may be more important in affecting productivity than the motivational effects. They suggest that increased upward communication and a better understanding of the job will be the mechanisms by which productivity gains are realised.

Schuler (1980) argues that greater employee involvement serves to reduce role conflict and role ambiguity. The more involvement an employee has with their supervisor and fellow workers the more chances there are for role clarification and role conflict reduction. Further, employee involvement will tend to increase the employee's expectancy between performance and potential rewards. Greater involvement will make clearer which behaviours are rewarded and which are not.

Latham, Winters and Locke (1994) in a laboratory study of participation concluded that while participation in goal setting did improve goal commitment, goal commitment was unrelated to performance. In contrast, they found that participation in formulating task strategies did significantly improve performance via improved task strategy quality and via heightened self efficacy beliefs. They also found, however, that participation in goal setting did affect performance via heightened self efficacy beliefs. They conclude that EI affects performance via task-knowledgable subordinates being given the opportunity to share and implement their task knowledge.

In summary, arguments that EI improves performance via increased commitment or satisfaction for employees seem implausible. Arguments that EI affects performance

via increased self efficacy and better use of employees task knowledge carry more weight. However, as we now examine, the empirical evidence for the impact of EI on performance and attitudes is mixed.

A review by Locke and Schweiger (1979) of 47 studies found that around 60% of studies they examined demonstrated positive effects of employee involvement initiatives on job satisfaction, but little consistency in results concerning effects on productivity. A broader review by Katzell and Guzzo (1983) examined 207 studies employing psychologically based methods of improving productivity. They found that 87% of the studies reported improvements in at least one measure of productivity. In a later extension of this study, Guzzo, Jette and Katzell (1985) used meta-analysis to examine the effect of psychologically based interventions across 98 studies. They concluded that the different interventions did produce small improvements in productivity overall. However, they also found considerable difference in the effects of different kinds of programmes. They found the greatest effect on productivity from socio-technical interventions, followed by job redesign. They also found larger effects in small organisations, government versus private or nonprofit organisations and for sales and managerial workers versus blue collar and clerical workers. More recently, Huselid (1995) found a significant and sizable relationship between measures of corporate performance and the use of 'High Performance Work Practices', the measure of which included a high proportion of practices defined here as employee involvement practices.

The overall pattern of findings suggests that employee involvement programmes do in general produce improvements in employee satisfaction and that some initiatives have a positive impact on productivity. However, the results across individual studies are highly variable. While some individual studies show evidence of significant productivity

gains there are others where organisations have failed to achieve any significant benefit (Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, & Jennings, 1988; Wagner, 1994, 1995) .

A number of different conclusions might be drawn from this disparity in results. Wagner and Gooding (1987) have shown that more significant outcomes tend to be reported in studies that rely on perceptual measures of EI outcomes. They suggest that much of the variation in reported outcomes is an artifact due to inflation of coefficients in the percept-percept studies. Wagner (1994, 1995) concluded, from a review and re-analysis of 11 previous reviews of relationships between EI, performance and satisfaction, that, while EI has statistically significant effects on performance and satisfaction , *“the average size of these effects is small enough to raise concerns about practical significance”*. Wagner argued that given the small average effect size, the costs of EI might well outweigh its benefits.

Another explanation concerns the nature of EI practices in each study. Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, & Jennings (1988) found outcomes to be affected by the form of the employee involvement process. Although these findings have since been criticised as based on a flawed classification and sample of studies (Leana, Locke and Schweiger, 1990) and statistically insignificant (Wagner, 1994).

Other writers have focussed on the moderating effect of contextual variables. Variables which have been found to affect the outcomes of employee involvement initiatives include personality (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Vroom, 1959), size of organisation (greater impact in smaller organisations), type of organisation (greater impact in government vs. private sector organisations), and type of worker (greater impact with white collar workers) (Guzzo, Jette and Katzell, 1985).

It is Wagner and Gooding’s (1987) finding that the most significant outcomes of

EI may be due to percept-percept artifacts that does most damage to claims for the effectiveness of EI. However, there are a number of problems with Wagner and Gooding's 1987 study and Wagner's 1994 findings. First, in both cases the studies excluded what the authors refer to as *multivariate* interventions in which other variables such as nature of tasks, rewards, structural arrangements and technologies are manipulated at the same time. They argue that this avoids the problem of confounding the effects of changes in influence with the effects of other variables. Consequently, practices such as self-managing teams, and job redesign were excluded. However, it is these excluded practices which have been shown to have the greatest effects. Further, others (Ledford & Lawler, 1994; Cotton, 1993) have argued that the success of EI initiatives depends on motivating and reinforcing changes in behaviour through changes to the wider organisational systems which signal organisation priorities and structure the control of resources. Second, while Wagner's (1994) review and meta-analysis is remarkably thorough, his assumption that average effect size is of central importance misses a key point. We are only entitled to judge the effectiveness of EI on an average effect size across different studies if we do not believe its effectiveness to be moderated by other variables which vary significantly among the studies reviewed. Indeed, most reviews (including Wagner's) note a considerable degree of variability in outcomes of EI. The average effect sizes noted in most meta-analyses mask very substantial effects in some individual studies and programmes (eg. Walton, 1977; Richter & Tjosvold, 1980; Bragg and Andrews, 1973).

Rather than conclude, as Wagner does, that the benefits of EI lack practical significance, it is more useful to investigate the causes of variation in EI outcomes. *A key question for research, then, concerns the moderators of the relationship between EI and the outcomes of EI.*

There is already ample evidence that in some circumstances EI increases employee satisfaction and leads to performance improvements. The most significant question to answer is no longer "What are the benefits of employee involvement?". Rather it is "What makes the difference between effective employee involvement programmes and those which fail to achieve their objectives?".

Perhaps the most likely hidden source of variation in many studies of EI is the effectiveness of implementation. Two identical organisations may use "self-managing work teams" or "quality circles" but vary considerably in the extent to which employees are given genuine influence over decisions or access to the resources they need to implement ideas for work improvement. In these circumstances we might expect significant variation in outcomes. Indeed, it might not surprise us to see a degree of cynicism developing among employees in a company in which EI is more a matter of rhetoric than genuine practice, leading to lower satisfaction and productivity.

It seems likely that a key intervening variable between EI and outcomes will be the role played by the immediate managers of the employees concerned. If EI affects performance via self efficacy and the more effective use of employees' knowledge, the role played by managers in building self efficacy beliefs and in facilitating the exchange of ideas will clearly be crucial.

Courtright, Fairhurst and Rogers (1989) studied communication patterns between managers and subordinates in two manufacturing plants of the same organisation. In one were well established self-managing teams, in the other a more traditional work organisation. In the self-managing team plant they observed a much higher frequency of interactions involving the manager asking a question and the subordinate making a suggestion. In the traditional plant, the manager-subordinate interaction was characterised

by managers issuing instructions and managers and subordinates frequently interrupting each other. Manz and Sims (1984) found a similar pattern. In another study (1987) Manz and Sims found a strong correlation between subordinates' ratings of their managers' effectiveness and of behaviours encouraging self-observation and high self-expectations.

The crucial role this suggests for managers in the effectiveness of EI indicates a key question for research. *Do managers' attitudes to EI and managers' assessments of their own competence in participative management moderate the relationship between EI and performance improvements?* The next section reviews evidence that middle managers' negative attitudes to EI constitute an important barrier to the effectiveness of EI practices.

The particular problem of middle management resistance

This section summarises existing research and writing on middle managers' attitudes to employee involvement. Appendix A contains a detailed overview of all the reviewed papers.

One can find examples of middle management roles throughout history, in the Church, Civil Service and Army. Kay (1974) refers to Moses' organisation of the nation of Israel in exile as the first recorded middle management structure! However, the development of middle management as we understand it today perhaps more properly dates back to the rise of the larger corporations during the 19th Century. Child (1969) places the main development of ideas of a professional managerial role in Britain around the time of the First World War.

There is evidence that middle management roles have been undergoing significant change recently. Dopson and Stewart (1990) found in their study of middle managers' roles that the majority had experienced an increase in environmental turbulence. In the

last two decades markets for the products of firms in the Western developed economies have become increasingly competitive. Japanese firms have set new standards for productivity and there has been growing and major pressure from the growth of manufacturing in low wage economies. Technological advances, especially in the field of information technology, have changed the nature of much work. The skills needed are of a higher order and changing much faster than ever before. Public and private service providers have faced greater pressures as a result of deregulation, commercialisation and increasing customer expectations. For most, this has meant a shift to a more generalist role with greater responsibilities and a wider range of tasks. A study of changing middle management roles in six European countries (Thurley & Peccei 1988) also found intensified competition to be a major source of pressure on middle management roles. The need for increased speed of response to market signals creates a need for more lateral coordination at middle management levels. Thurley and Peccei found as a consequence greater emphasis on the need for 'people management' and 'integrating' skills. They also found a trend towards more complex and sophisticated management systems for the measurement and control of performance.

Definitions of 'middle management' vary, but a common definition which will be adopted for the purposes of this thesis is: *any manager below the most senior tier of management, but not including first line supervisors with no career path to higher management levels.*

Articles in popular management periodicals (eg Ashton, 1992; Saporito, 1986) frequently cite supervisors and middle managers as an important and recurrent source of resistance to various forms of EI. As we now examine, a variety of studies (some with a substantive research foundation) have identified managerial resistance as a problem for

some, but not all, organisations.³

Although the number of studies which deal directly with the role of middle managers and supervisors in EI is small, the theme of resistance is remarkably constant. It is found in a variety of forms. In most cases resistance does not take a strongly active form, such as refusal to carry out top management instructions, but finds more subtle expression.

Bradley and Hill (1987) carried out a study of a quality circle programme in two similar pharmaceutical companies, one in the UK and one in the US. They used an attitude survey of participants, semi-structured interviews with union officials and managers and direct observation of quality circle operation. They supplemented their study with interviews with 20 senior managers in 10 companies in the US and UK which were using quality circles.

In their study, they observed managers restricting the issues considered to minor aspects of working arrangements, or deflecting attention to issues which did not reflect on the manager's area of competence. For example, they observed one manager in the production operations area exerting influence on a quality circle leader to focus on problems with their roots outside the department, such as maintenance. Others were seen to restrict the access of circles to key information.

In the main company studied, three quarters of long standing quality circle members felt managers withheld information from them, a finding also supported by

³It could be argued that middle managers and supervisors should be treated separately, since they are almost invariably treated separately in the literature, and often in relation to distinct sets of issues. However the convergence of findings concerning middle managers and supervisors resistance to EI is considerable. In the following discussion both groups are considered together.

archival data. Quite often middle managers were seen to be preempting suggestions before they reached top management and frustrating the implementation of suggestions.

Many of these problems intensified over time. In their early stages quality circles are able to reveal many small scale problems and solutions such as simple changes to equipment or products or improvements in 'housekeeping'. As they exhaust these improvements and gain confidence, they begin to seek out problems which impinge on managers or other parts of the organisation. Bradley and Hill (ibid.) quote the example of a circle which decided to consider the problem of materials flow in the department. Their suggested improvements were seen as threat by departmental management who considered they should have spotted the change themselves. The outcome was that the departmental manager preempted the quality circle by presenting the idea to senior management, claiming it as his own.

Brennan (1991), studied quality circle programmes in 10 UK organisations. She used interviews with facilitators, managers and quality circle leaders and nonparticipant observation of quality circle meetings and quality circle steering group meetings. In one organisation she carried out more extensive interviews and asked managers and quality circle members to complete a survey. Although noting that many middle managers were supportive of quality circles, Brennan found a "highly vocal" group of middle managers putting considerable effort into "rubbishing" the value of quality circles to peers and subordinates. These managers were particularly unhappy that quality circles could work on departmental problems without their cooperation and were dismissive of the ability of the circles to add value to any problem that managers had considered already. In all ten of the organisations Brennan studied, she reports, even the more positive managers were reluctant to let quality circles choose their own projects, considering that they would wish

to look at 'inappropriate areas'.

Connors and Romberg (1991), in a case study of EI in a quality programme in a US chemical testing plant, describe middle management and supervisors controlling access to activities such as quality circles and task forces and using them as a means of conferring favour or exerting discipline. By restricting access to training, managers were able to use their higher levels of knowledge as a means of reinforcing their power and status. Middle managers and supervisors tended to focus their efforts on "highly visible" activities such as producing complex and elaborate charts, rather than on facilitating the involvement of their subordinates. One employee commented, "*Quality control seems to mean who can have the prettiest chart.*" Some supervisors were observed to make efforts to intimidate or demean subordinates who had attended training sessions to protect their positions as holders of knowledge.

While research into quality circles is more common (perhaps reflecting their prevalence), examples of resistance to EI efforts are by no means confined to such studies. Baloff & Doherty (1989) in two case studies based on interviews with managers and employees, describe middle managers and first line supervisors acting to coerce participants in a job redesign programme, in order to achieve their own desired ends. Supervisory resistance and lack of middle management support were among the most frequently cited barriers to the success of self managed work teams in a survey of senior managers in organisations implementing such teams (Verespej, 1990). Gleeson, McPhee and Spatz (1988), in a survey of attitudes to a range of forms of EI in 47 Australian companies, found middle managers to be significantly less positive in their attitudes than senior managers.

In a study of self managing work teams, Buchanan and Preston (1991) found first-

line managers reluctant to relinquish tight control of the teams. These managers felt they were still held firmly accountable for achieving short term targets and hence needed to exercise direct control to protect their own interests. Buchanan and Preston noted that they were given little training to prepare them for a different way of managing (one day in this case).

In another study of 12 manufacturing plants involved in either job redesign efforts or implementation of self managing teams, Walton and Schlesinger (1979) found first line supervisors less satisfied with participative work systems than any other group, either above or below them in the hierarchy. They identified the following underlying causes of dissatisfaction among the supervisors:-

- An organisational assumption that work teams would start at an advanced state of development;
- Unrealistic assumptions from management about the rate of maturation of work groups;
- Too frequent changes in team membership and supervisor-team pairings;
- Poor recruitment and development of supervisors;
- Failure to tie supervisory reward systems to team development;
- Lack of support systems for supervisors;
- Lack of planning for what will happen to freed up supervisor time as teams develop.

As with a number of other studies in the field these 12 case studies are based on data from a mixture of research and consulting projects. There is little information in the paper on methods used to gather or systematise data. In other studies with more rigorous

methodology there are still a number of problems with the research as a basis for an understanding of the barriers to effective implementation of EI initiatives. Usually the barriers to implementation are not the principal focus of the investigation and as a result are reported anecdotally or with little reference to the source of evidence. Hence, we cannot yet conclude that there is an overwhelming weight of evidence that middle management resistance is a frequent and substantial barrier to EI. Two principal questions addressed in this thesis therefore are:

Is middle management resistance to EI endemic in the majority of organisations seeking to implement EI practices?

and secondly

Do middle managers exhibit substantially less favourable attitudes to EI than senior managers?

In most studies the small number of initiatives and organisations studied make generalisation problematic, while comparative survey research most often uses a single (senior management) respondent in each organisation. It seems possible that senior managers may more readily, for example, blame implementation problems on middle management recalcitrance rather than on their own actions. *An important question which research to date leaves unanswered concerns the relationship between senior management attributions of middle management resistance and middle managers' own attitudes to EI.*

Before considering the reasons for middle management resistance to EI it is worth considering whether this is a phenomenon unique to EI or whether it is part of a wider pattern of resistance to organisational change. There is some evidence that the latter is true. Nilakant (1991), in a study of four Indian companies found middle managers to be resistant to playing an active role in the market driven changes the companies were

engaged in. A common theme in all four organisations was a perception of powerlessness amongst middle managers. Guth and MacMillan (1986), researching interventions in organisational decision making process by middle managers, found that middle managers reported themselves as frequently acting to block decisions which threatened their own self-interest (as defined by the managers themselves) even where those decisions had major implications for the organisations concerned. They conclude that significant divergence between middle management self-interest and the demands of strategy will lead to ineffective strategy implementation.

A questionnaire survey (to senior management respondents) by Develin and Partners (1989) of the take-up of Total Quality Management (TQM) in UK firms found that 50% of surveyed firms saw middle management resistance as a barrier to effective implementation of TQM. Another study, sponsored by the IPM, found that a common theme for companies implementing TQM was concern among middle managers and supervisors about the loss of authority and increasing workload which they associated with TQM. In a paper based on case studies of three UK companies implementing TQM Wilkinson, Marchington, Ackers and Goodman, (1992, p15) conclude . .

"Companies attempting to introduce TQM are generally looking for immediate gains, and therefore are likely to adopt a quick fix approach rather than long term cultural change. Managers responsible for TQM are themselves likely to be pressurised through short run performance related pay assessment and are looking for projects which will deliver immediately. If these are not forthcoming TQM is likely to be short lived. . . . At the same time TQM has implications which can affect the organisation's traditional power culture because it is about empowering people to improve systems. . . . In many of the organisations we have researched, it is clear managers are unwilling to relinquish power. The new collaborative organisation may be 'predicated on a logic of flexible work arrangements, not of fixed job responsibilities', but managers do not appear reassured."

There is evidence too that middle management resistance may be an important

barrier to the introduction of new technology. The theme is not new. Buhl (1974) describes the resistance amongst officers in the American Navy to the introduction of steam ships after the civil war. He attributes the underlying cause of resistance to the disruptions to rank, status and authority caused by the rise of a professional cadre of engineers.

The nature and antecedents of resistance to EI

As reviewed above, the idea of middle management resistance to new initiatives is common to a number of studies. Nonetheless, many of these studies lack clarity concerning the nature of this resistance.

It is in the case study research that we see the clearest descriptions of 'middle management resistance to employee involvement'. Managers are variously described as restricting the issues employees may legitimately debate, withholding information relevant to EI processes, preempting employee suggestions by claiming them as their own (Bradley & Hill, 1987), verbally 'rubbishing' EI initiatives (Brennan, 1991), subverting the goals of EI initiatives (Connors & Romberg, 1991), coercing employees to make particular suggestions (Baloff & Doherty, 1989) and passively resisting delegation of decisions to subordinates (Buchanan and Preston, 1991).

Theoretical accounts and explanations of resistance to change fall into three major categories: individual, systemic and radical/critical.

Individual level explanations of resistance

At the individual level some accounts of resistance focus on the psychology of the individual. One account views resistance to change as a form of 'inertia'. Allport (1937) argued that, once established, a habit can become intrinsically satisfying and thus difficult

to change. Watson's (1971) idea of 'primacy' is similar. Watson has argued (from empirical evidence) that the way in which a person first successfully copes with a situation tends to set in a pattern of adaption that is highly resistant to change.

Another form of inertia may act through the formation of shared normative beliefs which serve to preserve the status quo. Miller and Rice (1967) described organisational groups defending outmoded task procedures because of concerns about upsetting group norms, and status, hierarchy, and reward systems. This would suggest that we might expect many managers' attitudes to EI to be strongly rooted in the status quo. We might hypothesise that: *individual managers' attitudes to EI will be significantly related to attitudes of other managers in the same organisation and to existing levels of EI.*

Another individual level explanation of resistance builds on the work of Freud. Jaques in particular (1952, 1955), and Argyris, to some extent, (1970) have drawn on Freud's work. In their account resistance serves to defend against anxiety. Embodied in the status quo, are mechanisms which serve to protect against unconsciously feared destructive forces both within and outside the organisation. Change threatens to confront organisation members with these fears. While the role of unconscious forces in organisational change processes is a rich area for study, it is beyond the scope of the methodologies employed in this thesis. Study of such phenomena requires in depth interviews and observation over long time periods (eg. Jaques, 1952).

Other accounts (Lippitt, Watson, and Westley, 1958) see resistance as an expression of rational self interest. Individuals or groups fear they will be the losers in planned change and mobilise resources to prevent change or dilute its impact.

Middle managers and supervisors see their interests threatened by EI in a number of ways. A frequent concern of supervisors and middle managers is that they will suffer

a loss of control, that their perceived low levels of authority and status will be significantly eroded (Abbott, 1987; Brennan, 1991; Manz *et al.*, 1990; Parnell *et al.*, 1992). There is ample evidence that many supervisors and middle managers feel relatively powerless with insufficient access to what Kanter calls "power tools": information, control of resources and influence in the organisation. Kay (1974) describes middle managers as beset by problems of uncertain authority. An AMA survey (Breen 1983) of 1,557 middle managers in the USA found that many felt a high degree of frustration with their level of decision making authority. A high proportion were critical of the level of communication and trust between themselves and top management and frustration with their opportunities to achieve personal lifetime goals. Open comments in the survey were often preoccupied with issues of "voice" (expression of opinion) and own career.

A detailed research analysis of the themes of powerlessness and frustration amongst middle managers has been provided by Scase and Goffee (1989), who studied 323 managers within six large UK organisations from both the public and private sectors. They describe a frequently encountered profile of "the reluctant manager" as having more energy for home than work life, high levels of stress in their work roles, feelings of psychological and emotional detachment from work and concern about career failure and the threat of redundancy.

Power is often perceived by middle managers as a scarce resource (Breen, 1983; Wood, 1972) and EI alters the distribution across the workforce of control and influence over tasks and decisions. In the absence of any increase in the ability of middle managers and supervisors to control resources, access information or exert influence, it seems likely they will perceive power as a fixed commodity, and its redistribution as a zero-sum game. Any increase in the power of their subordinates can only be diminishing their own. Under

this threat they may act often with some ingenuity and subtlety to block EI efforts. Kanter (1979; p73) has suggested that managers who have little power of their own are more inclined to see power as zero sum, whereas more 'empowered' managers are more able to see the benefits of subordinates having the power resources they need to carry out their work most effectively. The studies reported in this thesis thus test the hypothesis that: *managers with relatively low levels of power offer less support for EI than managers with relatively high levels of power.*

Given the pyramidal nature of organisations, in the absence of organisational expansion, a significant proportion of middle managers find their upward career paths blocked (Nicholson, 1993). There is evidence (Orpen 1983; Scase & Goffee, 1989) that for some this leads to lowered job satisfaction and a withdrawal from psychological and emotional engagement with work.

Kanter (1977, p188) found plateaued managers to be particularly preoccupied with issues of power and control. Plateauing most often commences for managers between the ages of 40 and 45 (Conner & Fielden, 1973; Levinson, 1978) and is more frequent during periods of recession when lack of organisational growth limits opportunities. Bushe (1983), Brennan (1991) and Kanter (1977) found that resistance to increased EI is often concentrated amongst plateaued managers, who have become aware that they are unlikely to progress any further up the organisational hierarchy. Kanter argues that those who have little hope of upward mobility have a greater tendency to be authoritarian and rule minded. On the principle that upward mobility brings power, and in the absence of upward mobility, plateaued managers may see tight control and reliance on rules as their only source of power. Additionally, those who resent their situation and feel passed over by senior management may be predisposed to resist initiatives from senior management.

The studies in this thesis test the hypothesis that: *managers' support for EI is positively related to their assessment of their own career prospects.*

There are other ways in which they may see their interests threatened. Some fear that employee suggestions arising from quality circles or suggestion schemes will reflect badly on them, especially where performance measurement focuses on short term performance targets (Bradley & Hill, 1987; Manz, Keating & Donnellon 1990). They fear that if employees make suggestions which lead to genuine improvements, senior management will blame them for not having come up with the ideas themselves already. This suggests another hypothesis; *in organisations which report considerable short term performance pressure, managers will show lower support for EI.*

Many middle managers have reached their positions through technical skill. Change which diminishes the functionality of their expertise is likely to be perceived as threatening to their career. EI, as discussed earlier places greater emphasis on skills such as coaching and facilitating. Managers with experience of EI are likely to have enhanced self efficacy beliefs in relation to managing in this style. This suggests a further hypothesis, that *those managers with least experience of EI will show least support for EI.*

There is some evidence (e.g. Dopson & Stewart 1990) that the role of the middle manager is not in such a sharp decline as some popular writings suggest. However, many organisations are restructuring to take out layers of middle management (Wheatley, 1992). The impact on middle managers is not only to affect job security for those remaining, but also dramatically to alter the nature of their work, not least because of increased spans of control. A survey of 150 UK companies (Wheatley 1992) showed the large majority (74%) had increased spans of control for middle managers. In a parallel survey of 1,044

middle managers, of the 81% who had experienced an organisational restructuring, 75% claimed it had significantly increased their workload. Another effect of de-layering is to intensify the problems of career plateauing. A reduction in levels of management means far fewer incremental promotion opportunities. Where EI efforts are accompanied by delayering and flattening of the hierarchy, the problem of career plateauing is intensified. Middle managers, often highly motivated by career opportunities, see the prospects diminishing for regular promotion. In some cases their job security is under threat. In these circumstances it is unlikely that middle managers will perceive the expected outcomes of EI initiatives to overlap significantly with their own aspirations. The studies in this thesis hence test the hypothesis that: *managers in organisations which have recently delayered or downsized will show lower levels of support for EI.*

Theories of motivation are also important to an understanding of resistance at the individual level. Certainly passive resistance may be understood as a failure of motivation. The reasoned action theory of motivation (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975) holds that intentions to act are formed on the basis of beliefs that behaviour will result in certain outcomes, and that those outcomes are valuable to the individual, that socially relevant others value the behaviour, and on beliefs concerning the individual's competence to carry out the behaviour. A number of perspectives are subsumed in this model. The model encompasses ideas of the pursuit of individual self interest (value to the individual), rational action, reference to social/ cultural norms and self efficacy. The studies reported in chapters 5 and 6 operationalise support for EI in terms of beliefs (the effectiveness of EI and the impact of EI on managerial power, and whether employees should be involved in decisions), self efficacy (belief in own competence to manage EI) and behavioural intentions.

Systems explanations of resistance

Systemic accounts focus on resistance to change as a system property of organisations. In their discussion of organisational change from a systems perspective Katz and Kahn (1978) note that:

“Enduring systems are over determined, in that they have more than one mechanism to produce stability. For example they select personnel to fill role requirements, train them to fill specific roles and socialise them with sanctions and rewards.”

Katz and Kahn (1978; p713)

In this context, they point out, strategies to bring about change which act only on individuals or groups often fail. The larger system nullifies local changes.

“Individual or group change applies only to specific points in organisational space and is likely to be vitiated by enduring systemic properties rather than to change them.”

Katz and Kahn (1978)

Nadler and Tushman (1989) also highlight the importance of subsystem interdependence in organisations and suggest the need to address multiple organisation systems to change the behaviour of organisation members. Some accounts of middle management resistance to EI suggest this resistance to be a consequence of a lack of congruence between organisation subsystems, signalled priorities and the goals of EI. A number of these accounts suggest that the people expected to implement quality circles, oversee Quality of Work Life programmes or set up "self managing teams", see themselves as placed in a double bind. They are required to implement new ways of working but their own performance is still measured in the same narrow fashion or by unchanged output criteria. It is unusual for example (Bradley and Hill, 1987; Brennan, 1991) for reward systems for supervisors and middle managers to be aligned with the goals of an EI programme. In many cases, (Bushe, 1983; Connors & Romberg, 1991), supervisors and middle managers remain unconvinced of top management commitment

to EI. Often they believe that this is "just another fad" which will last only a short while. This impression may be reinforced by dissension among the top management teams concerning the value of EI or how it should be implemented. Failures of training and development systems are also implicated by a number of accounts. Many middle managers and supervisors perceive themselves as lacking in interpersonal management skills (Scase and Goffee 1989). In many organisations (particularly in the UK) levels of non-technical training are very low. The introduction of EI programmes is often accompanied by, at best, cursory training for the managers expected to implement them.

Buchanan and Preston (1991) describe a job redesign programme in a precision engineering plant. Although some notable benefits were realised from the changes, the role of first line supervisors was problematic. The supervisors were expected to make a shift to a more facilitative, coaching style rather than their former command and control style of managing the workforce. To achieve this change supervisors were given just one day's training. In consequence, their management style changed little and there was considerable tension between supervisors and work teams over the extent to which they should intervene in the work. Supervisors felt they still needed to exercise direct control as their managers held them accountable for achieving targets.

When faced with demands to manage in a new way, to substitute facilitation for control, coaching and development for detailed specification of subordinates' jobs, asking questions for giving orders, many managers feel deskilled. Those who have reached their position from a technical background fear obsolescence of their old skills and anxiety about their ability to acquire new skills (Abbott, 1987; Manz, Keating & Donnellon, 1990; Emery and Thorsrud, 1976). This is compounded by the uncertainty surrounding the process and outcomes of initiatives. Managers are often unsure about which areas of

competence will be affected, and have exaggerated fears about the irrelevance of their existing skills.

The studies in this thesis examine the relationship between the level of managerial support (or resistance) for EI and the operation of key systems such as rewards, training, communication and resource control. They also examine the relationship between senior management support for EI and middle management support for EI.

Radical/critical explanations of resistance

The radical perspective (eg. Braverman, 1974; Collinson, 1992) has typically focused on resistance by blue collar workers. In this view, resistance arises out of class conflict as an inevitable consequence of capitalist social structures. Resistance is thus seen as a rational defence of individual and class interest. Radical/ critical writings have less to say on the subject of managerial resistance to change. However, Giddens' work, on class, the state, and structuration theory (1984), has more relevance to managerial behaviour. Giddens seeks to reconcile agency and social structural accounts of society and organisations in two key ways. Firstly he stresses, like Weick (1995), the reflexive nature of social/organisational systems. Managers are both constrained by and able to act on these structures. Secondly, he stresses the contradictory and overlapping nature of such structures. Whittington (1992), building on this perspective suggests:

"Managers. . . are faced with a variety of conflicting rules of conduct, all legitimate and plausible, but, often none with obvious superiority. Choice is possible, even mandatory, because more than one course of action has systemic legitimacy. . . Managers and managed alike are also people, who as full members of society, operate in a diversity of systems, and are therefore able to draw upon and respond to a multiplicity of rules and resources. Moreover, the boundaries of firms cross cut and overlay the boundaries of many other systems, particularly those of communities and states. . . To the extent that extraneous structural properties are acknowledged in the 'collective consciousness' of the firm's membership, then its actors, managers and managed, may draw upon these in their

organisational activities."
(Whittington, 1992, pp705-6)

Within this framework of managers making choices between the demands of competing legitimate structures, systems and goals, managers might be seen from one perspective as engaging in resistance to legitimate organisational initiatives, but from another, be engaged in the pursuit of legitimate goals. For example, a manager may be faced with the choice between, on the one hand, spending time developing subordinates and encouraging their participation in decision making and, on the other, spending their time in the pursuit of short term production targets. Both may be formally sanctioned organisational goals. From one perspective, the manager who focuses on short term production targets can be seen as resisting an EI initiative. From another (s)he may be seen as diligently pursuing a key organisational goal. For example, Abbot (1987), in a study of quality circles describes middle managers and supervisors as suffering from role strain.

"On the one hand, managers are expected to provide and promote greater decision making power on the part of individual workers. On the other hand, managers must somehow engineer 'success' in terms of the criteria for quality circles established by upper management, often in the absence of specific training or support. Thus managers and supervisors fear erosion of their control over the work process because of quality circles, but at the same time have come to equate success . . . with quality circle success"

Brower and Abolafia (1995), carried out a study of 120 'resistance episodes' through semi-structured interviews with 70 public sector managers. While accepting that many resistance episodes arose out of a straightforward conflict of interests they conclude that:

". . . resistance also often signals the clash of conflicting routines, disparate interpretations of organisational events, conflicting demands from 'customers' and other stakeholders, or even fundamental differences



over organisation norms, policies and goals.”
(Brower and Abolafia, 1995, p161).

For Brower and Abolafia, resistance is ‘structurally embedded’. By this they mean that behind the proximate causes of conflict lie structural conditions which create inherent procedural or policy conflicts. They propose that important structural conditions include networks of power, obligation and influence; formal organisation roles; and shared knowledge of organisational cultures.

This reinforces the importance of a question raised earlier in this chapter: Do senior managers and middle managers hold conflicting views over the extent to which middle managers support EI?

This discussion of middle management resistance to EI has generated research questions concerning both individual and system level explanations of resistance. *A key question left unanswered by the literature to date concerns the extent to which middle management resistance is an individual level phenomenon and explainable by individual differences between managers, or whether it is an organisational or group level phenomenon, which varies principally between organisations and has antecedents in the impact of organisation level variables on managers behaviour.* The final study in this thesis addresses this question.

A key question raised in this section concerned the relationship between managers’ own empowerment and their support for EI. The next section enlarges on this question via a brief discussion of theories of power.

Managers and power in organisations

Lukes has described the concept of power as “. . . *ineradicably evaluative and essentially contested*” (Lukes, 1974, p9). By this he means that definitions of the empirical

range of 'power' are often tied to particular sets of value assumptions and are central to competing ideas of the nature of society.

A key debate among power theorists concerns the extent to which power in organisations (or societies) is zero sum. That is, whether power concerns an individual's ability to impose their will on another in the face of resistance (Weber, 1947), or whether power is a resource which groups jointly create and draw on in the pursuit of common goals and which consequently expands as a consequence of cooperation.

Dahl (1957) asserts that A has power over B to the extent that A can make B do something B would not otherwise have done. For Dahl, the key test of who has power is who prevails in conflicts over decision making.

Bacharach and Baratz (1970) have argued that this view of power is insufficient.

They write:

"Of course power is exercised when A participates in decisions that affect B. Power is also exercised when A devotes his energies to creating or reinforcing social and political values and institutional practices that limit the scope of the political process to public consideration of only those issues that are comparatively innocuous to A."
(Ibid., p.7)

For Dahl, the exercise of power concerns the outcomes of contested decisions.

Bacharach and Baratz, however, suggest that power often concerns attempts to control the definition of issues which are the legitimate subject of discussion and decision making.

Other writers, such as Parsons (1951) and Arendt (1970), have argued for a view of power which rests more on Durkheim's conception of power as a collective resource through which social order and stability is achieved to the mutual benefit of members of society (Reed, 1992).

For Parsons

"Power . . (is the) . . generalised capacity to secure the performance of binding obligations in a system of collective organisation when the obligations are legitimised with reference to their bearing on collective goals. ."

(Parsons, 1957, p.308)

For Parsons, power is concerned with the pursuit of common goals. In the Parsonian sense the term 'power' is very closely allied with ideas of legitimate authority. Parsons quite clearly excludes the threat of coercive measures or compulsion from consideration as forms of power unless they are legitimised in terms of collective goals.

Similarly for Arendt, power is inextricably bound up with collective goals and action. She writes:

"Power . . corresponds to the human ability not just to act but to act in concert. Power is never the property of an individual; it belongs to the group and remains in existence only so long as the group keeps together. When we say of somebody that he is 'in power' we actually refer to his being empowered by a certain number of people to act in their name."

(Arendt, 1970, p44)

This perspective has been notably criticised as 'concealing from view' phenomena such as coercion, exploitation and manipulation (Lukes, 1974; Giddens, 1968). Giddens notes that Parsons' conceptualisation of power

". . allows him to shift the entire weight of his analysis away from power as expressing a relation between individuals or groups toward seeing power as a 'system property'. That collective 'goals', or even the values which lie behind them, may be the outcome of a 'negotiated order' built on conflicts between parties holding differential power is ignored, since for Parsons 'power' assumes the prior existence of collective goals".

(Giddens, 1968, p.265).

Kanter (1979) takes the position that power in organisations derives from location in the formal and informal systems of the organisation, in terms both of job location and connection to others in the organisation. For Kanter, the key bases of power are access to resources, access to information and access to support from other key organisational

actors.

Kanter suggests that effective employee involvement (she uses the term "empowerment") depends on developing the conditions in an organisation for the "circulation of power". By the circulation of power, she means that powerful managers who are enabled by their organisational context to act effectively are able and likely to create the conditions for others to act effectively. In other words, she takes the position that power is not zero sum, rather by use of participative management techniques it is possible to increase the total amount of power in an organisation.

This 'non-zero sum' approach to power, builds on Parsons' work and assumes that exercising power benefits the whole organisation's membership. In discussing power in organisations Kanter stresses 'power to' rather than 'power over'. As noted above, this "unitarist" view of power, reflected in the writings of Parsons, Arendt, Tannenbaum and Kanter has been much criticised as reifying organisations, ignoring inherent conflicts of interest and assuming the existence of common purpose (Fox, 1974, pp236-247; Johnson & Gill, 1991, p135). Other theorists such as Hickson, (1971) and Salancik and Pfeffer (1974) have also argued that the power of actors or groups in organisations rests on a series of power bases or resources such as, the ability to handle uncertainty (Crozier, 1964; Hickson, 1971), centrality to the organisation's workflow (Hickson, 1971), and ability to acquire resources critical to the organisation (Salancik and Pfeffer 1974.) However, in these accounts such power is exercised in the pursuit of individual or sub-unit interests rather than the interests of the organisation as a whole.

Do these problems with Kanter's account then imply that power can only be zero sum in the circumstance of completely shared interests between all members of an organisation? Such circumstances would of course be so rare as to make the zero-sum

view of power of little practical significance.

On the contrary, a non-zero-sum view of power need not rest entirely on unitarist assumptions. If we accept that organisations consist of individuals and subgroups with different and sometimes competing interests we may still accept that shared superordinate goals can be engendered through the management process. A dominant elite (eg. senior management or firm owners) may seek to align the interests of other organisation members with a set of goals by the use of reward structures, career opportunities, and selection and socialisation processes.

Where shared superordinate goals exist employee involvement can lead to greater control for managers, since employees will use greater influence over the way their work is carried out in pursuit of commonly agreed goals. Control over process is thus given up by managers in exchange for more effective control over outcomes. We do not require here complete agreement on goals or complete commonality of interests, only that the large majority of organisation members see sufficient benefit in committing to a set of common goals and that agreement on those goals is 'good enough'.

While a pluralist view of organisations may be consistent with a non-zero-sum model of power, a non-zero-sum model can be seen to be contingent on the existence of a set of commonly held superordinate goals. *We can predict that those management methods which depend on a non-zero-sum model of power will be most successful (and hence become established) in organisations where there are low levels of conflict between competing interest groups and agreement on a set of common goals.*

The studies in this thesis seek to understand managers' attitudes and behaviour towards employee involvement initiatives. A key issue to address is the extent to which managers hold non-zero-sum views of power and the extent to which they believe in the

existence of common purpose within their organisations. Do managers believe that they can increase their own power to achieve goals by empowering others or do they hold to Machiavelli's (1515) principle that, *"he who is the cause of another becoming powerful is ruined."* ?

Kanter's proposition that the most empowered managers will show most support for EI rests on a non-zero sum view of power. If for example a powerful manager believed his/her subordinates to be motivated by different or conflicting goals to his/her own it is likely that manager would be unsupportive of EI. *It is argued in this thesis, and later empirically tested, that managers who believe there to be common purpose in their organisations hold more favourable attitudes towards EI practices. It is further argued that the relationship between managers' own levels of empowerment and their support for EI is moderated by the extent to which they believe there to be common goals and shared interests in their organisations.*

CHAPTER 3: EXPLORATORY STUDY - INTERVIEWS IN COMPANIES UNDERTAKING EI INITIATIVES

This chapter describes an exploratory study carried out to help generate research questions for this thesis. The intention was to understand the nature of managers' problems and concerns in the process of implementing EI initiatives. The goal of the study was to establish how terms such as 'employee involvement', 'empowerment' and 'participative management' were being used in practice within UK organisations, what was driving the desire to engage in the programmes and what barriers to successful implementation were experienced. The study did not seek to test hypotheses but rather to explore managers' 'narrative knowledge' (Czarniawska-Joerges, 1995; Boje, 1991) concerning EI and barriers to success. In this way it was hoped to ground the research questions for this thesis in the practical concerns of managers actively engaged in sensemaking about the nature of EI and the barriers to successful outcomes.

Methodology and sample

Interviews were carried out in 12 organisations between 1991 and 1993. Senior managers in each organisation claimed to be making substantial efforts to benefit from employee involvement programmes. Interviews were carried out with key managers in each organisation and with a small cross section of employees in three organisations. The sample of organisations was identified from a list of organisations represented at a conference on "empowerment" and from personal contacts.

The organisations were:

- A large central government department (Department X)

- The UK manufacturing subsidiary of a large multinational (Alpha Manufacturing)
- A major UK chain of car and commercial vehicle dealerships (Beta Motors)
- A division of an aerospace manufacturer (Gamma Aerospace)
- The UK exploration division of a major multinational oil company (Delta Oil)
- The UK head office of an international automotive component manufacturer (Epsilon Automotive)
- A central government controlled organisation preparing for privatisation (Kappa services)
- A group of motorway service stations (Lambda Service Stations)
- The mortgage division of a financial services company (Omega financial services)
- A manufacturer of artificial human joints (Phi Orthopaedics)
- A manufacturer of surgical sutures (Sigma medical)
- A European sister company of Sigma Medical (Theta Medical)

In the interviews the author encouraged managers as far as possible to ‘tell the story’ of employee involvement in their organisation. As the stories unfolded the author prompted for further information about the following set of issues, if such information was not forthcoming.

- The drivers for change
- The key people involved in initiating change
- The methods used for creating employee involvement and which groups

of employees were affected

- The barriers to increasing employee involvement
- Perceived outcomes of the process
- The impact of the process on employees and their perceptions of it

Reported reasons for carrying out EI initiatives

In all of the studied organisations social change was seen as a key factor in creating pressure to find new ways of managing. In the words of one manager, *"The buggers won't just do as they are told anymore, they want reasons and they want to argue the toss"*. Other managers put it less succinctly but still expressed the feeling that traditional styles of autocratic management were increasingly inappropriate and ineffective.

Table 3.1 summarises the factors which were reported as leading to the introduction of EI in each organisation. Whilst in most organisations senior managers expressed the view that competitive pressures were a strong driver for change, it was also clear that increased employee involvement was not seen by all managers as the answer. The drive for greater productivity and reduced costs was in most cases being also addressed by delayering of management, tighter (in some cases more centralised) budgetary control, and reductions in employee numbers. For Gamma Aerospace and Delta Oil contracting out of non-core work was also a key strategy.

In Sigma medical and Theta medical, the threat of new entrants into their markets was acting as a pressure to seek ways of improving productivity and responsiveness to customer demands. Senior managers in these organisations saw reduction in production cycle times as a key target for improvement, to allow shorter lead times on orders and lower buffer inventories. Both organisations were also under pressure from their parent

organisation to consider employee involvement initiatives as a route to achieving their objectives.

For the operations director at Phi Orthopaedic, inventory reduction and reduced cycle times were also key objectives.

For the two public sector organisations, Department X and Kappa Services, pressure for change was associated with the central government drive to increase efficiency in the public sector. In Kappa services new accounting systems which for the first time separated out their costs and revenues completely from the parent department had made it clear just how much ground they had to make up to survive post-privatisation. In Department X changes in their role with the forthcoming Single European Market were creating a need for increased organisational flexibility.

Management informants in Kappa Services and Lambda Service Stations expressed a perception that high standards of customer service were increasingly important in winning customers.

Triggers for change

The factors described above were important in creating a background pressure for change. However, this was generally only translated into managerial action to increase employee involvement by the combination of some triggering opportunity or crisis and strong championing of ideas about employee involvement by one or more influential managers.

At Alpha Manufacturing, in the view of the regional HR director, the trigger for change was the opportunity to set up a plant on a greenfield site. The group of managers setting up the plant had been much influenced by Hackman and Oldham's ideas of work redesign. One of the managers (the Regional HR Director) was ex-Nissan(UK) and much

influenced by his experience of Japanese working methods.

At Beta Motors the Operations Director felt the trigger for change was the realisation that inconsistent quality standards could make them vulnerable to law suits under product liability legislation.

For Delta Oil a change in senior management at one of their oil fields meant the opportunity to try a new approach. This combined with pressure to reduce oil extraction costs to extend the life of a declining oil field.

At Omega Financial Services, a change in market conditions began to cause massive backlogs for one of their loan servicing teams. A new team manager (the principal informant), influenced by the ideas of Tom Peters tackled the problem by involving the whole team in finding solutions. Their success influenced the wider adoption of such management methods in the company.

At Lambda services, merger with another company created the need to rethink company strategy and opened the way for ideas about increasing employee involvement. Another driver for change cited at Lambda, by the HR Director, was the concern at the time that demographic trends suggested that the firm could shortly suffer a recruitment shortfall. It was felt that greater employee involvement could create a more attractive job profile. This lends some support to Ramsay's (1977, 1991) argument that employee involvement is essentially a response of employers to labour market shortages. However, as the labour market shortage reversed, the EI initiatives continued to be supported. At the time of interview, the labour market had been depressed for at least 2 years with no shortage of labour for the service stations. The emphasis of the EI initiatives had shifted to improving the quality of staff, both through recruitment and development in order to improve service standards, and to some extent towards facilitating cost reduction.

Within all the organisations an internal champion of employee involvement ideas was reported to have played a key role in getting initiatives agreed. In particular at Alpha manufacturing and Phi Orthopaedic the continued role of the same champion over several years seems to have been important for the entrenchment of these ideas in organisational practice. We should be careful of how we interpret these claims, since in the majority of these organisations the principal informant was also the internal EI champion. This may have led to a number of systematic biases in their accounts. In particular they may have had an unrealistic view of their own centrality. However, interviews with other staff in several of the companies lent some support to the importance of an EI champion.

The picture begins to emerge of social, economic and political forces creating a background of pressure for change. Within some organisations internal champions of employee involvement have been able to use crises or opportunities to translate those pressures into managerial action aimed at increasing employee involvement. In one company at least the reported motives for introduction of EI are consistent with the radical critique of EI, in that they were related to concerns about labour market shortages and may be interpreted as a response to the increased market power of labour. However, once established EI initiatives in this organisation seem to have taken on a separate momentum no longer driven by labour market considerations. In other organisations studied the combination of intensifying market pressures and the consequent need to find new ways of improving productivity and performance combined with a climate of ideas concerning EI seem to have been more important than labour market considerations. The reported importance of individual champions of EI ideas perhaps lends some support to Marchington *et al's* thesis (1992) that EI initiatives often proceed in waves in organisations, as they are largely driven by the need of individual managers to increase

their personal profile and consequently fade when these key individuals move on.

Table 3.1: Factors leading to the introduction of EI practices

Company	Pressures contributing to introduction of EI	Triggers for EI introduction
Department X	Pressure arising out of the UK government's "Next Steps" initiative combined with changes in their role brought about by European harmonisation.	The need to manage a change process so complex it would be impossible to plan it centrally in the time available.
Alpha Manufacturing	Climate of ideas about EI among an influential group of managers	The opportunity to set up a new plant on a greenfield site.
Beta Motors	Market strategy based on a high quality ,high customer service offering	Concerns about potential product liability suits in the event of quality failures.
Gamma Aerospace	Serious financial difficulties in the parent organisation leading to pressure for major improvements in productivity.	The transfer of managers from a sister organisation with entrenched EI practices.
Delta Oil	Pressure for increased productivity brought about by falling oil prices and a declining oil field. A communication programme from head office about the value of EI.	Appointment of a new senior manager sympathetic to the ideas about EI espoused by the HR department.
Epsilon Automotive	Informants seemed uncertain whether the EI initiative arose out of any pressure beyond the enthusiasm of one key senior manager.	Appointment of a new senior manager who espoused the value of EI.
Kappa Services	Pressure arising out of the UK government's "Next Steps" initiative and a desire to increase productivity in the lead-up to privatisation.	A sense of crisis arising out of the accounting separation of the organisation pre-privatisation. It was realised for the first time how poor the organisation's 'business results were.
Lambda Service Stations	Increased emphasis on customer service as competition increased.	Merger with another company led to the need/opportunity to rethink company strategy.
Phi Orthopaedic	Phi hoped to achieve market leadership in Europe. EI was introduced to help improve productivity and order lead times via a reduction in cycle times and reduced work in progress inventory levels.	Effective campaigning by an operations manager with a strong commitment to EI.
Sigma Medical	Competitive threat from new entrants required a new focus on productivity and responsiveness to customers. Parent organisation strongly encouraged operating companies to adopt EI practices.	Efforts by the training and HR departments to implement a parent company commitment to EI (in the face of some opposition from senior operations managers.)
Theta Medical		A strong alliance between the new operations director and new HR director who both believed strongly in the value of EI.

Company	Pressures contributing to introduction of EI	Triggers for EI introduction
Omega Financial Services	Collapse of the housing market leading to massive increases in workload.	Appointment of a new manager with a strong belief in EI

The nature of employee involvement in the study sample

There was considerable variation in conceptions of employee involvement between different organisations, although all interviewees focussed on the direct involvement of employees rather than on forms of representative participation. Organisations varied considerably in both the nature of decisions employees were given influence over and the level of intervention employed to bring about changes. Three broad levels of intervention emerged for increasing employee control over their work processes.

- i. Changes in organisational systems and structures designed to decentralise control over resources and access to information.
- ii. Selection, training and development processes aimed at changing the predominant management style from task centred or autocratic to one that is enabling, participative and concerned with developing employees.
- iii. Processes such as training, developmental activities and work redesign aimed at increasing employees sense of responsibility for and control over their work.

Table 3.2 summarises the nature of interventions intended to bring about EI in each organisation. As can be seen from table 3.2, most organisations took action at more than one level, the majority at all three. However it was only at Alpha manufacturing Phi Orthopaedic Theta Medical and Lambda Service Stations that actions at all three levels seemed well integrated. It was in these organisations that managers expressed most confidence in the benefits they had seen from EI.

Table 3.2: EI interventions in the study sample of companies

Company & nature of informants	Type of intervention		
	Changes in organisation structure and systems	Interventions focussed on managers and supervisors	Interventions focussed on employees and the nature of their jobs
Department X (Chief officer, HR manager, 2 middle level line managers and members of an established work team)	Decentralisation of budgeting, devolution of authority for aspects of manpower planning and work organisation to local managers.	Training for line managers in people management skills. Particular focus on communication, participative management and encouragement of initiative	Staff attitude survey. Personal development plans. Some reorganisation into teams with some devolution of work planning and budgeting responsibility into work teams.
Alpha Manufacturing (Regional HR manager, plant manager and 2 shopfloor workers)	Single status working conditions introduced for all employees (eg common uniform, canteen, car parking rights). Work teams developed around "whole tasks". Multi skilling introduced.	Team leaders developed out of the teams they worked in. Trained and assessed with the focus on people management rather than technical skills.	Role flexibility emphasised within teams. Teams encouraged to measure own performance against agreed standard and to take responsibility for improving own work methods.
Beta Motors (Operations director, dealer manager and questionnaire survey of 30 employees and their immediate managers)	Introduction of Quality coordinator role within each dealership	Some training for dealership managers in people management skills.	Staff at all levels involved in designing work processes and procedures to meet quality standards.
Gamma Aerospace (Plant personnel manager & union rep.)	Introduction of multi skilling within teams centred around complete tasks.	Redefined supervisory roles. Supervisors trained and selected on ability to manage in a participative manner.	Fitters and operators trained in their teams with their supervisors. As part of the training they redesigned their machine layout.

Company & nature of informants	Type of intervention		
	Changes in organisation structure and systems	Interventions focussed on managers and supervisors	Interventions focussed on employees and the nature of their jobs
Delta Oil (Field HR coordinator, production manager, EI trainer, 2 oil rig workers)	Organisational restructuring, to flatter less hierarchical form. Responsibility for coordination of work programmes and budgets for contact staff, materials and equipment devolved to first line supervisors,	Some training for managers and supervisors, emphasising a more open facilitating style.	More performance information given directly to employees. All employees involved in planning and coordinating new equipment commissioning and maintenance shutdowns.
Epsilon Automotive (Personnel manager, department manager)			Three month programme of employees meeting in regular groups to find ways of improving work processes.
Kappa Services (Personnel/ training manager)	Devolution of budgets and manpower planing to first line managers. Personnel records centralised but increased personnel responsibilities given to line managers	Management competencies list developed. Managers put through training and assessment based on competencies. Some demoted/ counselled out.	Working patterns rearranged so that discrete teams with common managers work together.
Lambda Service Stations (HR Director, supervisor and 2 catering staff + non-participant observation in one service station for half a day)	Diagonal slice task forces made up of employees from across service stations and spanning grades from supervisor to Service Station General manager. The task forces looked at ways of implementing key Human Resource objectives set by senior management in the areas of recruitment, training, management and staff retention.		
	Hierarchy in service stations flattened from 5 tiers to 2 tiers of management.	Training and assessment centres used to develop and select supervisors. The aim was to shift the emphasis of supervisor skills from task skills to interpersonal skills.	Induction training introduced for all new staff and planned training for all jobs. Employees encouraged to take the initiative in responding to customer needs

Company & nature of informants	Type of intervention		
	Changes in organisation structure and systems	Interventions focussed on managers and supervisors	Interventions focussed on employees and the nature of their jobs
Phi Orthopaedic (Operations director)	<p>Move to skill-based pay. Flattened hierarchy.</p> <p>Reorganisation into product-based groups under a single manager, bringing together the functions of planning, production, marketing and R&D.</p> <p>Move to 'cell-based production' and multi skilling.</p> <p>Major communication programme to help employees understand the business case for new ways of working and to develop wider understanding of the business.</p>	<p>Major investment in training for supervisors. Supervisor role increasingly managerial (to the extent that the supervisors were able to run the plant for a month while the management team were involved with the transfer of operations from an overseas plant.</p>	<p>Major investment in training for operators. Redesign of jobs into teams which were responsible for all stages of producing a product.</p>
Sigma Medical (Personnel director, training manager, operations director, middle level manager, supervisor)	<p>Shift from individual bonus based on work rate to team based bonus based on team work rate</p>	<p>Small amount of training for supervisors on weekends and in lunch times. Close control of planning and scheduling by supervisors.</p>	<p>Reorganisation of work from small batch work with workers specialising on a particular process to team working with some multi skilling. Teams took on responsibility for quality control and assisting with new product design.</p>

Company & nature of informants	Type of intervention		
	Changes in organisation structure and systems	Interventions focussed on managers and supervisors	Interventions focussed on employees and the nature of their jobs
<p>Theta Medical (Personnel director, operations director, first line manager)</p>	<p>Shift from individual bonus system to bonus based on team performance against 6 month targets and individual skill/experience. Greater emphasis on cross functional cooperation.</p>	<p>80 days of management training for supervisors. Supervisors closely involved in setting up of teamworking system. Some reduction in supervisor numbers. Supervisor role became increasingly managerial with emphasis on facilitating and supporting the work of the teams rather than close surveillance and control. Surveillance function to some extent transferred to a bar code system. However, this implied a shift in control from control on inputs and working methods to control on outputs.</p>	<p>Reorganisation of work into teams based around a product. Teams were made responsible for planning, scheduling, quality control, and record keeping (assisted by a computer bar coding system.) All team members were required to become proficient at all tasks.</p>
<p>Omega Financial Services (Department head, 3 team members)</p>		<p>New manager, with strong belief in participative methods.</p>	<p>Work teams encouraged to redesign own work processes.</p>

The barriers they have experienced to implementation

Demotivating factors

Although in all the organisations studied senior managers made some claim for increased motivation and commitment as goals of the EI process, it was clear that in several of the organisations studied, other aspects of the organisational changes were having a strongly demotivating effect.

All but two of the organisations studied were either undergoing rationalisation or were in circumstances which created considerable anxiety about job security amongst employees. In many cases this overshadowed any sense of increased control over work processes. At Dept. X for example, employees who had been reorganised into a team with considerable discretion about how work was carried out, spoke of their initial enthusiasm and commitment to the new way of working. They also described how they had become increasingly disenchanted as uncertainty about job security increased. At Alpha Manufacturing one employee commented *"It's not a bad employer to work for. You get a certain amount of respect, but the bottom line is that its profits come before you and like anyone else they've been laying people off. They're all the same when you come down to it."*

In several of the organisations an integral part of the changes taking place was delayering of the management hierarchy and some deemphasis of symbols of status. This effectively decreased the opportunities for using career progression as a form of recognition. It is clear that for some managers this has been highly demotivating.

Other important factors seemed to be speed of change and levels of support for employees. The extent to which employees were able to cope with new responsibilities and ways of working varied from employee to employee but was also a function of the

levels of training and support provided. Several managers voiced the view that if they were starting again they would not ask "*so much so soon*" of employees, and would try to take more account of individual differences in rates of learning. At Lambda, the HR Director felt that they had had relatively few problems because they had taken a steady approach to change and seen EI as part of a wider restructuring of the organisation and its HR practices.

Resistance from middle managers and supervisors

The barrier to increased employee involvement most consistently described by senior managers was the difficulty of changing managerial style at supervisory or middle management levels. These managers were described as often showing considerable cynicism about the changes and reluctance to pay more than lip service to new ways of managing. In the majority of the studied organisations middle managers were faced with disappearing career ladders, erosion of their status and authority and uncertainty about continuing job security. Some of the senior management informants made a connection between the two with comments such as

"... (T)hey look at the changes and wonder what's in it for them. If I'm honest there will be losers. I mean, its not always as bad as they think but some of them just can't cut it. They will have to go."

or

"Of course we are now saying to some of them that (promotion) could take ten years not three. Flatter organization means less moving forward, but they just think "What am I going to tell the wife?"

The clear implication was that for some managers resistance to EI was simply a rational defence of their own self interest.

At Beta Motors, the Operations Director reported that attempts to involve employees in the design of quality processes met with considerable resistance from

dealership managers. A key issue, identified by a company working group set up to consider (inter alia) lack of quality progress, was the lack of any link to performance measurement or pay systems. In their view, in this sales-based organisation, the lack of this link was taken by managers as a signal that employee involvement in quality was not an organisational priority. The resistance of dealership managers was described as consisting mostly of failure to give any priority to quality activities, while paying some lip service to their importance. In consequence, little progress was made in establishing and documenting quality procedures. The quality coordinators reported frequent disagreements between line workers and first line managers concerning the extent to which procedures were adhered to in practice.

Frequently the managers would insist that standard procedures were already followed whilst the workers when interviewed would describe how they were circumvented. The quality coordinators came under increasing pressure from first line managers to stop working directly with work teams and operate through the managers. The story in this organisation is consistent with an interpretation of management resistance to EI arising out of a lack of congruence between organisation systems, which motivate and signal appropriate behaviour to managers, and the goals of EI and quality management.

In Alpha Manufacturing, the greenfield start-up succeeded in gaining considerable support for self-managing work teams among the supervisors and managers. All employees, supervisors and middle managers were recruited in part on their ability to work in this way. However, a later attempt to transfer these working methods to three brownfield sites was less successful. In particular, according to the Regional HR Director, the move to single status for all employees met considerable resistance from managers.

Most resented the loss of their canteen and car parking privileges and the requirement that all employees wear a common uniform. At two of the sites, a combination of resistance from unions and managers to new working methods was one factor in a decision to transfer production elsewhere. At the third site new working practices were adopted, but at the cost of a substantial initial performance reduction before benefits of new working methods were seen. Managerial resistance was overcome to a large extent by exchange of managers with the greenfield site and by offering some managers early retirement. The (senior management) informant understood the difference in the greenfield and brownfield sights in terms of organisational inertia and defence of the status quo out of fear of the unknown. However, it is hard to completely dismiss an alternative interpretation: that the EI initiative in the brownfield sites was used to provoke a confrontation with the unions which provided an excuse for a rationalisation which was desired for quite different reasons.

Theta and Sigma Medical both undertook the same core work restructuring programme; switching from batch processing to continuous flow manufacture in small product-based work teams. However, there were major differences, between the two companies, in the attitudes of managers to the changes. At Sigma Medical many managers and supervisors were cynical about the ability of employees to take greater control over the way their work was carried out. A previous attempt to introduce quality circles had failed, largely due to resistance from middle managers and supervisors. At Theta, some supervisors and managers had proved resistant to EI in the early stages. However, as reported by the HR Director, Operations Director and a first-line manager, active involvement of supervisors and managers in the planning process and a considerable investment in training addressed many of the concerns about lack of competence and loss

of authority.

In the two public sector organisations, Kappa Services (source: training manager) and Department X (source two middle managers) there was considerable suspicion among middle level managers that efforts to increase employee involvement were part of a government strategy to reduce management numbers. Senior management informants in both organisations also reported concerns about lack of people management skills in their management ranks. Senior managers saw lack of middle management 'buy in' to new working practices and lack of competence in interpersonal skills as the major barriers to successful employee involvement. Both had made some attempt to tackle the problem with training, (typical training inputs were two or three days per manager and were not being made available in a systematic fashion to all managers). Here two quite different factors seem to lie behind reports of middle management resistance to EI. First, there was a lack of trust in senior management motives and a concern among middle managers that their own interests and senior management goals diverged in important ways. Second, there was an issue of managerial competence to manage in new ways in the context of under resourced and patchy training and development.

At Delta Oil, according to the HR coordinator, there was significant resistance from engineers, who had traditionally held considerable authority, to devolution of authority to supervisors and work teams. This resistance was reported as being manifested as complete refusal to cooperate in any new working practices on the part of some engineers. This was a particular problem since the oil rig specific knowledge held by the engineers was vital to the effective running of the rig. The solution arrived at was to put the most resistant into technical or advisory roles with little responsibility for man management.

In Epsilon Automotive the programme to generate and use employee suggestions for the improvement of work processes ended after 3 months. Despite a number of successful outcomes the programme did not become a normal part of working practice. This was, in the view of the personnel manager, due to a large extent to resistance from junior and middle level managers who felt bypassed and threatened and seemed unlikely to cooperate with a repeat of the 'experiment'. Many voiced the fear that the programme implied senior management felt they had not been doing their jobs properly. This fear was confirmed to some extent by one senior manager expressing the view that one benefit of the programme was to "expose" the less effective managers.

At both Delta and Epsilon managers were faced with threats to their competence either because they were asked to manage in new ways or by implication when others solved problems they had not addressed themselves.

At Gamma Aerospace poor industrial relations and a low-trust climate overshadowed the changes in working practice. Many managers, in the view of the site personnel manager, saw the switch to team working and more direct communication with employees as at best irrelevant, and at worst, part of a continuing process of shedding jobs. As at Department X and Kappa the lack of trust and divergence between managers' beliefs about unexpressed organisational goals and their own interests seemed to lie behind low levels of middle manager support for EI.

The operations director in Phi Orthopaedic reported initial resistance from managers and supervisors to working in new ways. However a feature of the changes at Phi was increased business responsibility for managers and supervisors (to the extent that the supervisors were left for an extended period to virtually manage the plant alone while the management team supervised transfer of production from a German subsidiary). This

greater business involvement, alongside substantial training and development efforts, meant delegation of work management to the production teams became increasingly necessary. The Operations Director felt that this greater 'empowerment' of managers and supervisors was instrumental in diffusing their resistance to change.

Poor role modelling from senior management

In some cases support for a more participative management style was patchy or inconsistent amongst senior managers, a view more often expressed by the small number of middle managers interviewed. This led, in their view, to cynicism and a reluctance to take any risks in changing their own behaviour amongst employees and middle managers. This seemed to be particularly the case at Kappa Services and Gamma Aerospace.

Resistance from unions

The union approach to the employee involvement programmes in these organisations varied from cautious cooperation to strong resistance. At Gamma Aerospace for example it took six months bargaining and concessions on working hours to get union agreement for a pilot scheme. At Alpha Manufacturing, although the introduction of new working methods was successful, if slow, at their greenfield site they met with resistance from both managers and unions at existing plants. Indeed so strong was the union resistance in two plants that the decision was made to close them. However, subsequently the union at Alpha has taken a more supportive stance to EI practices.

The union representative at Gamma voiced three main union concerns:

- - They had strong misgivings about some of the changes in communication with employees which they saw as bypassing their role as a channel of

employee concerns.

- They saw the changes as designed to decouple productivity increases from negotiations about pay and conditions.
- Where role flexibility and multi skilling were introduced there were some concerns that this was simply a mechanism for work intensification.

Some managers (at Kappa and Gamma) saw the present recession as an opportunity to push through changes that unions would otherwise have resisted. In both cases managers saw reduction of union influence as a covert goal of the employee involvement programme.

Managers at Kappa also perceived the union attitude towards EI to be '*suspicious and mostly hostile*'.

At Department X, according to management informants, the union adopted a largely 'wait and see' approach to initiatives such as decentralising resource control and team organisation, but retained a considerable mistrust in the motives behind the initiatives.

Reported outcomes

In several of the organisations, where changes had been made only shortly before this study was carried out, it was too early to judge the impact of those changes. In all cases outcomes are difficult to ascribe uniquely to the actions taken to increase employee involvement. Generally many changes were made in parallel. With those reservations the following section describes the outcomes as perceived by the principal respondents (mainly senior managers) for the studied organisations.

At Department X, as described earlier, any motivational impact of the programme was reported to be overshadowed by staff concerns about job security, and uncertainty

about the future shape of the organisation. However, decentralisation of budgetary control and some decision making authority showed signs of increasing local flexibility and innovation: key goals in the run up to changes occurring in the department's role and environment.

The Alpha Manufacturing greenfield site, despite taking substantially longer than anticipated to set up, has consistently achieved amongst the lowest unit costs in the industry. At another existing site where similar working patterns have been introduced the outcomes have been more mixed. Performance fell markedly early on but has since risen above original levels. As described earlier resistance to the introduction of these working methods led to the closure of two plants. (Although it should be noted that less modern equipment may have also played a part in the closure decision).

At Beta Motors, attempts to involve employees in improving quality (in both second hand car sales and servicing) have met with resistance from managers and apathy from some of the workforce. Subsequently, consultants have been brought in to implement quality procedures in a top down fashion with greater success in some of the dealerships. A key issue here seems to be that, whilst for most employees of Beta Motors performance related pay is a substantial part of the reward package, until recently this has had no component reflecting quality measures. Also, paradoxically, the autonomy afforded the dealership managers has meant they are well placed to resist these changes.

At Gamma Aerospace new working arrangements were introduced in the studied plant in the face of union resistance. Some significant improvements were made mostly in inventory reduction and reduced cycle times. However, the combination of market conditions and starting from a base of poor results has meant that the plant has since closed.

At Delta Oil, despite low morale as a result of continuing job insecurity and continuing resistance from some middle managers, there are some signs of success. Most notably in improved project coordination. A recent planned oil rig shutdown which for the first time involved all employees in planning the work was completed in four days rather than the usual ten.

The three-month head office initiative at Epsilon Automotive was successful in generating ideas for work improvement. A large proportion of these were implemented. However little changed permanently and some managers were reported to feel threatened by the way in which they were bypassed as a channel for making changes. Six months later many staff felt disenchanted. Although they were enthusiastic about a repeat of the "*experiment*", they saw it as having made no permanent change to the way they were managed. Indeed the personnel manager reported increased frustration among staff as a result of having had a channel for ideas which was then removed.

At Kappa Services changes were only just getting under way, but there were signs of considerable resistance to change from unions and lack of appropriate skills amongst first line managers. The parallel process of rationalisation meant low morale was also a problem.

For Lambda Service Stations the effort to increase employee involvement was embedded in a systematic, major change in Human Resource policies. These included changes in pay policies, increased training and changes in selection processes. It is therefore difficult to separate out the causes of performance improvements. However, the major goal of improving customer service was clearly achieved. Several independent surveys rated them as the top motorway service provider in the wake of the changes.

At Phi Orthopaedic new working practices reportedly led at first to greater unit

costs. There was a need for investment in machine overcapacity to allow team-based production and significant investment in training. However, significant reductions in work in progress inventory levels, much reduced lead times on orders and better quality performance enabled a rapid growth in market share. With the higher throughput unit costs came down again. Better cross-functional cooperation and involvement of machine operators in 'design for manufacture' has significantly reduced time to market for new products. The senior management team believe that team-based production and product based cross-functional organisation have allowed them to overtake competitors both on cost and service levels and, consequently, to establish a position of European market leader.

There is a significant contrast between implementation and outcomes at Theta Medical and Sigma Medical (although both are part of the same parent company). At Sigma, the main resource input has been into physical rearrangement of the plant layout and there has been only little training for managers, supervisors and the teams themselves. There was considerable disagreement among the senior management team about the value of employee involvement. In particular there has been a struggle between the HR function and the operations function about the need to free staff time for training. At the time of the interviews there was clearly resistance to new ways of working among a significant proportion of staff and managers. Sigma Medical was beginning to see some performance improvements. However, these could largely be attributed to the new machine layout.

In contrast at Theta Medical there was clear agreement among the senior team that self-managing teams would bring benefits to the organisation. Significant resources had been put into training both team members and supervisors in team working into cross-training, and considerable efforts had been made to understand the implications of team-

working for wider organisation systems such as pay, performance measurement and information management. Here there was much wider agreement concerning the value of the self managing teams. At Theta, implementation of self-managing teams had been relatively smooth. There had been clear improvements in cycle times and inventory levels. Staff satisfaction (as measured by attitude surveys) had also improved significantly. Absenteeism levels had dropped dramatically (from 15% to 4%).

Omega Financial Services started on a small scale with one work team. The success of this team in removing backlogs of work, reducing customer complaints and improving productivity was so apparent that their working practices were adopted in the rest of the department. A recent survey comparing staff in this department with staff carrying out similar work in the same organisation showed them to have significantly higher levels of commitment to the organisation and greater perceived meaningfulness of work. What has clearly been of importance in the success of this programme has been the individual managerial skills of the department manager. It remains to be seen whether greater involvement of employees in how their work is carried out will take root in other parts of the organisation.

Discussion

Senior managers in four of the organisations studied saw their employee involvement initiatives as highly successful: Phi Orthopaedic, Alpha Manufacturing Theta Medical and Lambda Service Stations. These organisations had two things in common. Senior managers took a long term view of the process of increasing employee involvement and they did not expect to see success straight away. In this they were helped by strong shared senior management beliefs concerning the value of employee involvement and by continuity of senior management.

Of course it may be that the link between belief in EI and success is that a strong belief in the value of employee involvement leads to selective perception of evidence which supports that view. However, in these four organisations there were externally verifiable measures of organisation success.

Katz and Kahn (1978) suggest that to be most effective change strategies need to be directed at the level of organisational variables. They suggest there are a number of common themes to most successful organisational change efforts. Most have changed some aspect of organisation structure, used several methods of change in combination and included consideration of extrinsic rewards. They have also generally been organisation wide in scope and involved changes in technology as well as adaption to it.

It is notable (Table 3.2) that the four organisations in which there had been the least difficulty in introducing employee involvement and in which the reported outcomes were predominately positive were also the organisations in which initiatives were well integrated at the organisational, managerial and individual levels. Changes in working practices and forms of management were part of a wider process of organisational change which paid attention to rewards and benefits, recruitment, training and other organisation wide systems and structures. While these structural considerations were important, we should also note the importance of individual managers as agents in the acceptance and implementation of EI practices. In particular, the case of Omega Financial Services illustrates the impact of an effective organisational champion of EI.

The principal barriers to implementation of employee involvement initiatives reported by the majority of senior management informants were:

- resistance from middle managers and supervisors;
- lack of people management skills among middle managers and supervisors;

- the de-motivating effect of associated downsizing and delayering;
- change fatigue among employees;
- lack of agreement about the value of employee involvement among the senior management team;

and for three of the organisations studied:

- resistance from unions.

Many of the barriers to employee involvement reported by these organisations may be understood in the context of Katz and Kahn's systems view of organisational change. Initiatives which rely mostly on intervention at the level of management training or work redesign are likely to be overwhelmed by conflicting signals from wider organisational systems. Within this framework, effective employee involvement may be seen as part of a wider organisational transformation as well as transformation of individual's jobs or management style.

The clearest example is the way in which, in the face of middle management pressure to retain the status quo, the involvement programme at Epsilon Automotive was allowed to lapse. The more enduring organisational structures absorbed local change.

The most consistent theme in the barriers reported is that of resistance from a significant proportion (although by no means all) of middle and first line managers. This theme is consistent with the findings of the literature review reported earlier in this thesis. The nature of the resistance to EI described by senior managers includes complete refusal to cooperate with EI initiatives (as with the engineers in Delta), but was more usually described as more subtle in nature. Examples given include, giving low priority to EI activities (Beta Motors), verbal commitment to EI goals but not acting on them

(Department X, Kappa and Alpha), and withholding information about EI activities from employees (Gamma).

Management resistance seems to have been the least problematic and most easily overcome in those organisations which paid attention to the wider organisational systems and involved managers in planning the employee involvement process.

There are a number of alternative explanations for senior management perceptions that middle managers are a barrier to EI initiatives. They fit four main headings, motivation, capability, culture and scapegoating:

Motivation - Middle managers may lack motivation to exert effort to implement EI initiatives. Drawing on expectancy theory, this may be due to a number of beliefs held by middle managers in relation to EI:

Lack of middle management belief in the effectiveness of EI as a means for achieving desired organisational goals (eg. the belief that EI will lead to less efficient working or poor quality decision making).

Middle management beliefs that the outcomes of EI will be undesirable (eg. belief that EI will lead to job insecurity or loss of career opportunities, or that effort expended on EI will not be rewarded or recognised, or that EI will lead to loss of power or status for managers).

Lack of confidence among middle managers in their competence to manage effectively in a climate of EI.

We should also note under this heading that the nature of middle managers beliefs about power and control in organisations will affect their expectations about the desirability of EI outcomes. For example, if managers conceive power as zero sum, they are likely to see EI initiatives as reducing their own power and control.

Capability - Middle managers may lack the skills or resources to effectively implement EI initiatives. This may be due to:

Lack of experience or training in skills such as coaching subordinates, giving effective feedback, and setting appropriate goals.

Lack of access to organisational sources of power such as information, control over budgets or materials and equipment, or influence with peers and senior managers.

Organisational systems and structures which impede the implementation of EI initiatives, (eg. performance measurement systems which emphasis short term performance targets over development of subordinates).

Culture - If EI practices are a good fit with existing organisational practices and normative beliefs among middle managers concerning the management process, then we might expect middle managers to be more likely to accept EI initiatives. If, on the other hand, a middle management subculture exists or forms with a set of normative beliefs antithetical to employee involvement (eg. subordinates should not be trusted to work unsupervised), middle managers are unlikely to do more than reluctantly comply with the demands of senior managers to engage in EI initiatives.

Scapegoating - Senior managers may be reluctant to take responsibility for failure of their own initiatives. Poorly conceived EI initiatives with insufficient support from senior managers may fail or falter through no particular fault of the middle managers expected to implement them. In these circumstances, senior managers reluctant to accept personal blame may, even unconsciously, seek to scapegoat those who have been expected to implement their ideas.

At Department X, Beta Motors and Epsilon Automotive middle managers interviewed expressed doubt about the commitment of senior managers to EI and concern

about the difficulty of implementing EI initiatives with insufficient organisational support. This lends some support to the capability explanation of middle management as a barrier to EI and perhaps also to the scapegoating explanation. The different responses of managers in the greenfield and existing plants in Alpha Manufacturing fit with a cultural explanation. However, we should be careful in drawing too many conclusions, concerning middle managers beliefs about, and attitudes to, EI, from the data revealed by this study. The sample of companies is small and hence the data may be strongly influenced by individual characteristics of these organisations. Also, much of the data is derived from the testimony of comparatively few individuals, mostly senior managers. In particular, the voice of managers in the middle levels is mostly missing. This leaves open the possibility of two rather different interpretations of these (mostly senior management) accounts. In the first interpretation middle management resistance to EI is a major and common obstacle to the successful implementation of EI. In the second, senior managers wrongly attribute resistance to middle managers as a consequence of situational constraints and pressures faced by middle managers, and senior managers own self-serving perceptual bias.

The next chapter (chapter 4) reports on an organisation level cross-company study of EI which examines the relationship between the outcomes of EI, middle management resistance, and organisational context. Chapter 5 reports on an individual level study which draws on responses from individual managers at all organisational levels to examine the relationship between managers' attitudes to EI, and both individual differences and organisational context.

CHAPTER 4: STUDY 1 - EVIDENCE FROM A SURVEY OF ORGANISATIONS

Summary

Although the literature on employee involvement suggests that some organisations experience significant benefits to employee attitudes and productivity, the results from individual studies vary widely. This study focuses on a factor that may mediate the success or failure of employee involvement practices: the role played by middle managers. A postal survey of 155 organisations examined the perceived outcomes of different employee involvement practices and the support or resistance attributed to middle managers. Hypothesised correlates of middle management resistance to employee involvement were examined. As hypothesised, positive outcomes of employee involvement were lower in organisations that experienced middle management resistance. The study supports the view that middle managers may resist employee involvement practices in response to threats to self interest (managerial job loss and delayering). However, lack of congruence between organisational systems and structures and the goals of EI, and fragmented or low senior management support for EI were also found to be strongly related to middle management resistance.

Case study research reviewed in chapters 2 and 3 suggests middle management resistance to EI may be a key moderator of EI outcomes. The previous two chapters raised the possibility that perceived middle management resistance to EI might be explained either by a mismatch between the goals of EI and the operation of key organisational subsystems, or rational defence of self interest in the face of threats to those interests. Evidence from a postal survey on forms of employee involvement and perceived outcomes is presented in this chapter. The study examines the impact of middle management resistance on perceived outcomes and the relationship between organisational context and the resistance to employee involvement attributed to middle managers. Hypotheses are tested concerning both rational self interest and systems explanations of middle management resistance to EI.

Outcomes of employee involvement

As reviewed in chapter 2, the empirical evidence for the outcomes of employee involvement initiatives is mixed. While some individual studies showed evidence of significant improvements in output measures, in others, organisations failed to achieve any significant benefit.

As suggested in chapter 2, the most significant question to answer is no longer, "What are the benefits of employee involvement?", rather it is, "What makes the difference between effective employee involvement programmes and those that fail to achieve their objectives?". Many writers have argued that success or failure of employee involvement initiatives will be affected by the form of the employee involvement process and by contextual variables (Cotton, Vollrath, Froggatt, Lengnick-Hall, & Jennings, 1988; Cotton 1993).

As discussed in chapter 2 and revealed by the study in chapter 3, the most

consistently identified barrier to the success of EI initiatives is resistance from lower and middle managers.

The particular problem of middle management resistance

In this study, middle manager is taken to refer to any manager below the most senior tier, but not including individuals with first line supervisory responsibility, who have no career path to higher management levels.

As noted in chapter 2, resistance to EI is found in a variety of forms. Often resistance does not take a strongly active form, such as refusal to carry out top management instructions, but finds more subtle expression, such as engaging in only those employee involvement activities most visible to senior management. Examples include: managers restricting the scope of issues to minor aspects of working arrangements (Bradley and Hill, 1987); middle managers "rubbishing" the value of quality circles to peers and subordinates (Brennan, 1991); controlling access to quality circles and task forces and using them to confer favour or exert discipline (Connors and Romberg, 1991); and coercing participants in a job redesign programme to propose changes wanted by middle managers (Baloff & Doherty, 1989).

It was argued in chapter 2 that middle management resistance to, or support for EI, will have a significant effect on the outcomes of EI initiatives. Hence this study tests:

Hypothesis 1.1: Organisations that report middle management resistance to employee involvement will report lower benefits (both as to tangible output measures and employee attitudes) than those that report middle management support for employee involvement

A subsystem congruence model of middle management resistance

Middle managers may be seen simultaneously as agents pursuing their own goals and interests, and members of an organisation that has selected and socialised them for a particular role. This organisation, through multiple organisational systems, signals and reinforces particular behaviour sets.

Several writers have proposed a subsystem congruence approach to organisational change (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Nadler & Tushman 1989; Shareef, 1994). They point out that strategies to cause change, which act only on individuals or groups, often fail because the larger system nullifies local changes. Nadler and Tushman (1989) also highlight the importance of subsystem interdependence in organisations and suggest the need to address multiple organisation systems to change the behaviour of organisation members. Key systems include the following:

Senior management behaviour - Bowers and Seashore (1966) found a strong relationship between managerial leadership behaviour and subordinate leadership behaviour suggesting the importance of senior managers showing clear personal commitment to proposed changes;

Performance measurement and reward systems - Lawler (1986) argues that the introduction of employee involvement should be accompanied by performance measures and rewards that reinforce the desired management style. He argues that failure to align performance management systems with the goals of employee involvement will mean top management exhortations to involve employees and manage in new ways will compete with systems that reinforce old ways of behaving.

Middle managers are both targets and agents of changes intended to create greater employee involvement. The subsystem congruence model of organisational change implies

that attempts to change the attitudes and behaviours of middle managers are likely to fail unless adequate attention is paid to changing the organisational systems and context that reinforce and constrain their existing patterns of behaviour. If middle managers are asked to carry out employee involvement initiatives through one organisational system (eg. line management) but receive conflicting signals from performance management systems or senior management behaviour they are unlikely to give those initiatives high priority. This response to conflicting organisational signals may be interpreted by senior managers sponsoring the initiatives as stubborn resistance to change.

Hypothesis 1.2: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be lower where there is strong senior management support for EI.

Hypothesis 1.3: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be lower in organisations that have made changes to performance measurement and reward systems to align them with the goals of EI.

Middle management capability

Based on case study research into the characteristics of effective managers, Kanter proposes three critical "power tools" which give employees the power to act effectively in the organisation's interests: access to resources, access to information and access to support/ influence. This is achieved by changes in organisational structure that remove barriers to the circulation of power, including decentralisation of resources and increasing the openness of internal communications systems. There is ample evidence that many supervisors and middle managers feel relatively powerless with insufficient access to what Kanter calls "power tools (Wheatley, 1992; Kay, 1974). Power is often perceived by middle managers as a scarce resource (Breen, 1983; Wood, 1972) and EI alters the

distribution across the workforce of control and influence over tasks and decisions. Lacking any increase in the ability of middle managers to control resources, access information or exert influence, it seems likely they will perceive power as a fixed commodity, and its redistribution as a zero-sum game. Under this threat they may act to block EI efforts. Other resources likely to affect middle managers' capability to carry out EI initiatives are training and management development activities.

Many middle managers perceive themselves as lacking in interpersonal management skills (Scase and Goffee, 1989) and, in many organisations, levels of nontechnical training are very low. The introduction of EI programmes is often accompanied by, at best, cursory training for the managers expected to carry them out (eg. Buchanan and Preston, 1991; Gleeson, McPhee and Spatz, 1988).

Many managers feel deskilled, when faced with demands to manage in a new way, to substitute facilitation for control, coaching and development for detailed specification of subordinates' jobs. Those who have reached their position from a technical background fear obsolescence of their old skills and are anxious about their ability to acquire new skills (Abbott, 1987; Manz, Keating & Donnellon, 1990; Emery and Thorsrud, 1976). This is compounded by the uncertainty surrounding the process and outcomes of initiatives.

If the organisational systems constrain middle managers' capability to implement employee involvement initiatives, their perceived inability to achieve employee involvement objectives will result in unwillingness to expend effort. In this event senior managers are likely to attribute lack of success to middle management resistance. Key constraints include lack of control over resources, poor communication and lack of training.

Hypothesis 1.4: Lower middle management resistance to EI will be

reported in organisations that have decentralised resource control.

Hypothesis 1.5: Lower middle management resistance to EI will be reported in organisations that have taken action to improve internal communication and access to information.

Hypothesis 1.6: Lower middle management resistance to EI will be reported in organisations that have provided training and development activities for middle managers to support EI.

Role strain

Where forms of EI have been 'tacked on' to the organisation (for example, in the setting up of quality circles outside normal working arrangements), middle managers may see them as simply increasing their workload at no benefit to themselves (Brennan, 1991; Bushe, 1983). Abbot (1987), in a study of quality circles, describes middle managers and supervisors as suffering from role strain,

"On the one hand, managers are expected to provide and promote greater decision making power on the part of individual workers. On the other hand, managers must some how engineer 'success' in terms of the criteria for QC's established by upper management, often in the absence of specific training or support. Thus managers and supervisors fear erosion of their control over the work process because of QC's, but at the same time have come to equate success . . . with QC success"

We would expect that managers' capability to carry out EI initiatives will be adversely affected where they are subjected to high, short term, performance pressures. Accounts of change efforts also frequently report 'change fatigue' in response to high levels of change over a short period (eg. Wheatley & New, 1994; Reddin, 1977).

Hypothesis 1.7: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be

higher in organisations that claim employees and managers are experiencing change fatigue.

Hypothesis 1.8: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be higher in organisations that report middle managers to be experiencing high short term performance pressure

We would expect middle managers to be motivated to support EI initiatives to the extent that they believe the outcomes will be desirable. Commitment to the organisation and its goals is, for most employees, provisional on satisfaction of their own work goals. For lower and middle managers, such goals are often career prospects and job security (Morris, Lydka and Fenton-O'Creevy, 1993.) However, EI initiatives are often associated with both delayering and downsizing which typically reduce both job security and promotion opportunities.

Hypothesis 1.9: Organisations in which EI initiatives have resulted in delayering and managerial job loss will report higher levels of middle management resistance to EI.

Methodology

Sample

A sample of organisations was identified from the Lotus One-Source database of UK companies. The organisations were chosen randomly from 5 industry sectors: public utility organisations; automotive manufacturers; pharmaceutical companies; soap and cosmetics manufacturers; and retail organisations. These sectors were chosen to provide sufficient diversity for results to be generalisable beyond industry specific effects. Companies with less than 100 employees were excluded. A total of 465 organisations

were asked to complete the questionnaire. In each case the questionnaire was completed by the Human Resources Director, Managing Director or nearest equivalent. Follow up letters and phone calls were used to achieve a final sample of 155 companies, representing a response rate of 33%. Of these 114 claimed to be making “significant use” of employee involvement practices. The response sample comprised representatives of organisations as summarised in table 4.1:

Table 4.1: Sample

Sector	number of employees					row totals
	100- 200	201 - 500	501 - 1000	1001 - 5000	> 5000	
Utilities	1	2	2	15	7	27
Automotive	25	18	9	3	2	57
Pharmaceutical	5	3	3	1	1	13
Soap and Cosmetics	4	6	5	3	2	20
Retail	1	2	5	11	8	27
Totals	36	31	24	33	19	144⁴

Follow up telephone calls (to 100 non respondents) revealed several common reasons for non response, as set out in table 4.2. It was also notable that response rates were lower for small organisations (with the exception of the automotive sector).

⁴ 11 respondents failed to give information on organisation size.

**Table 4.2: Reasons for non-response
N=100**

Too busy	28%
Company policy not to complete surveys	22%
Questionnaire not considered relevant	14%
Addressee unavailable	12%
Reason not stated/vague	24%

Measures

Size. "Approximately how many employees do you have in your company?";

Size change "By approximately what percentage has your workforce increased or decreased over the last five years";

Change in layers How many layers of management has your company removed or added in the last five years? . (Write in response under 'removed' or 'added');

Formal EI practices: An index of formal employee involvement practices was simplified⁵ and adapted from Lawler *et al.*(1992). Respondents were asked to what extent their organisations' use each practice ('don't use', 'use on a small scale', or 'make substantial use of'); table 4.3 shows the percentage of organisations using each practice. Definitions of each practice were given in a glossary that accompanied the questionnaire.

⁵ A larger and more complex questionnaire which more closely followed Lawler *et al's* index was abandoned after an initial pilot survey to 100 organisations received a response rate of less than 10%. A decision was made to simplify and shorten the questionnaire to encourage completion by respondents.

Table 4.3: proportion of sample using different EI practices N=155

	Use on a small scale	Substantial use
Team briefing	32%	60%
Task forces	44%	46%
Consultative committees	35%	41%
Self-managing teams	32%	20%
Small business units	26%	17%
Attitude surveys	41%	15%
Quality circles	34%	14%
Suggestion scheme	45%	13%
Job redesign	35%	12%

Outcomes: Respondents were asked to classify the extent to which they had experienced seven possible outcomes of employee involvement on a three-point scale (Little or no extent, moderate extent, or a great extent). The outcomes were chosen, from examination of the literature and interviews in 12 organisations using EI practices, as the outcomes most frequently associated with EI. They fall into two groups: those associated with improvements in output measures and those associated with changes in employee attitudes. (See table 4.4 for the proportion of organisations reporting each outcome).

Table 4.4: Outcomes of employee involvement practices

To what extent have the following been outcomes of employee involvement in your organisation?	Moderate extent	A great extent
Quality improvements.	54 %	33 %
Cost improvements.	52 %	31 %
Improved responsiveness to customers.	38 %	49 %
Improved responsiveness to change.	51 %	31 %
Improved productivity.	52 %	32 %
Greater job satisfaction or commitment among employees.	50 %	23 %
A greater sense of responsibility for business success amongst employees	48 %	25 %

Base: organisations reporting significant use of employee involvement practices N = 114

Hypotheses were tested using a series of regression analyses. Inspection of the correlation matrix of independent variables revealed high inter-correlation between a number of them. This collinearity of independent variables can cause problems with the interpretation of regression coefficients. In these circumstances factor analysis allows the construction of a smaller set of new variables with low inter-correlations. These new variables (or factors) may be interpreted in two ways. First, if there is sufficient theoretical justification they may be interpreted as an underlying common variable measured by the variables making up the factor. If there is insufficient justification for believing such an underlying variable to exist, then one is only entitled to note that the variables that make up the factor are confounded in the sample under study and that their effects cannot be distinguished. Factor analysis also has the virtue of reducing the complexity of the data studied. In carrying out this procedure, it is important to test for sampling adequacy to

ensure the sample under study is sufficient to support the derived factor model (Kaiser 1974).

Factor analyses, of employee involvement practices and outcomes, were carried out to simplify later analysis and to avoid problems of multi-colinearity among independent variables.

Factor analysis of EI practices

Inspection of Eigenvalues and scree chart from an initial principal component analysis of EI practice variables suggested a 3-factor model. The Kaiser-Meyer- Olkin test of sampling adequacy was 0.75 (middling to meritorious: Kaiser 1974). Individual variable sampling adequacies from the anti-image correlation matrix were all good. Three factors were extracted using maximum likelihood and the solution was rotated using the varimax procedure. (See table 4.5).

Table 4.5: Factor analysis of EI practices (rotated factor loadings) N=155

	Parallel EI	Core EI	Voice
Job enrichment or redesign	0.73	0.15	-0.03
Quality circles	0.60	-0.03	0.07
Consultative committees	0.56	0.23	0.28
Team briefing	0.56	0.13	0.36
Problem solving task forces/project teams	0.47	0.40	0.18
Self-managing work teams	0.04	0.83	-0.10
Small self contained business units	0.09	0.78	0.01
Suggestion scheme	0.09	-0.10	0.70
Employee attitude surveys	0.18	0.18	0.65

Interpretation of factors: Factor 1 loads principally on practices that affect individual jobs (self inspection of work, job redesign) or which imply the addition of parallel structures (quality circles, team briefing, consultative committees, task forces). These are also practices that have been relatively long established in management practice. This has been labelled “parallel EI”.

Factor 2 loads on practices that imply a restructuring of the core organisation (self-managing work teams and self-contained business units), requiring, for example, decentralisation of resource control and changes to reporting lines. This has been labelled “core EI”.

Factor 3 loads on practices concerned with employee voice (suggestion schemes and attitude surveys). This has been labelled “voice”.

Factor analysis of EI outcomes

A principal component analysis was carried out and a two-factor solution was identified by inspection of eigenvalues and scree plot. Maximum likelihood factor analysis was carried out with oblimin rotation ($\delta=0$) to identify the final factor solution. Oblimin rotation was used since output and attitude improvements resulting from EI are likely to be related and therefore correlated.

As predicted the variables that loaded on one factor reflected output measures (cost improvements, quality improvements, improved responsiveness to customers and improved productivity) and those that loaded on the second factor reflected attitude measures (greater sense of responsibility for business success among employees, greater job satisfaction or commitment from employees, and improved responsiveness to change).

See table 4.6 for factor loadings.

Table 4.6: factor analysis of outcome variables

To what extent have the following been outcomes of employee involvement in your organisation?	output improvements	attitude improvements
cost improvements	0.94	-0.06
quality improvements	0.91	-0.09
improved responsiveness to customers	0.70	0.22
improved productivity	0.66	0.21
greater responsibility for business success among employees	-0.02	0.88
greater job satisfaction or commitment among employees	0.03	0.80
improved responsiveness to change	0.41	0.48
(oblimin rotation, $\delta=0$) N=114		

Middle management resistance to EI “Most middle managers in this organisation demonstrate a belief in participative management” (R); “Many middle managers show anxiety about the impact of greater employee involvement on their own roles”; “Many middle managers in this organisation show enthusiasm for increasing employee involvement”(R); “Middle managers in this organisation show a great deal of cynicism about employee involvement”; “Many middle managers in this organisation see increased employee involvement as contrary to their interests”. (All scored on a five-point scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'). “To what extent are the following

barriers to the implementation of greater levels of employee involvement in your organisation? ... Middle management resistance.” (Scored on a 3-point scale: Little or no extent; moderate extent; great extent). A glossary included with the questionnaire stated that “ *‘Middle manager’ refers to any manager below the most senior tier of management, but not including individuals with first line supervisory responsibility who have no career path to higher management levels.*”

Factor analysis shows the questions load on a single factor. Scale alpha =0.83.

Factor analysis of predictors of middle management resistance

To produce a set of independent variables with low intercorrelation for use in regression analysis, variables hypothesised to affect middle management attitudes to employee involvement were factor analysed. Inspection of eigenvalues and scree chart from an initial principal component analysis suggested a 5-factor model. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .74, (considered “middling to meritorious”: Kaiser, 1974). Individual measures of sampling adequacy were all adequate. Finally, five factors were identified using the Maximum Likelihood procedure. The solution was rotated using the Varimax procedure. Table 4.7 shows the results of the factor analysis.

Table 4.7: Factor loadings from factor analysis of exogenous variables N=155

	Job loss.	Performance management/ reward changes	Power tools	Lack of senior management support	Pressure
Job losses among supervisors.	0.78	0.04	0.12	-0.03	0.03
Job losses among managers.	0.92	0.15	0.01	-0.03	0.00
Loss of promotion opportunities for managers.	0.74	0.09	0.07	0.14	0.17
Management layers reduced in last 5 years.	0.36	0.07	0.20	0.13	0.21
Changes in performance measurement and feedback for managers to support EI initiatives..	-0.07	0.83	0.12	-0.08	-0.02
Changes in performance measurement and feedback for non-managerial employees to support EI initiatives.	0.08	0.80	0.04	-0.22	-0.10
Changes in reward systems for managers/supervisors to support EI initiatives.	0.21	0.65	0.24	0.07	0.09
Changes in reward systems for non-managers to support EI initiatives.	0.23	0.64	0.23	-0.01	0.17
Action to improve communication/access to information	0.10	0.18	0.54	-0.05	0.06
Management development related to EI	0.05	0.19	0.49	-0.09	-0.21
Decentralisation of budgetary/resource control	0.18	0.19	0.54	0.19	0.11
Senior managers in this organisation see EI as vital to our success	0.00	-0.02	0.46	-0.33	-0.01
Lack of clear support for EI among senior managers	0.09	-0.20	-0.12	0.66	0.07
Senior managers are committed to participative management	-0.13	0.32	0.36	-0.60	-0.15
Senior managers disagree about the value of employee involvement	-0.09	0.13	0.04	0.62	0.00
Unclear objectives (are a barrier to employee involvement here)	0.14	-0.11	0.03	0.39	0.29
Change fatigue (is a barrier to employee involvement here)	0.14	0.10	0.00	0.06	0.98
Short term performance pressure (is a barrier to employee involvement here)	0.03	0.00	-0.37	0.20	0.38

Interpretation of factors: - Inspection of loadings in the rotated factor matrix reveals that all variables, except one, load clearly on just one factor. The exception is "Senior managers in this organisation see employee involvement as vital to our success" which loads on both factor 3 and factor 5.

Factor 1 (Job/promotion loss): represents a measure of the extent to which each organisation has shed jobs among managers and to which promotion opportunities have been reduced.

Factor 2 (Performance measurement/reward changes): is a measure of the extent to which each organisation has made changes in performance measurement and reward practices to support employee involvement initiatives.

Factor 3 (Power tools) access to: information(improved communication/access to information); resources (budgets, material resources and training and support. The overlap of these items means hypotheses 3c to 3e cannot be tested separately.

Factor 4 (Lack of senior management support for EI): the extent to which senior managers do not support or are divided in their support for EI.

Factor 5 (Pressure): the extent to which change fatigue and short term performance pressure are seen as a barrier to increased EI. "To what extent have the following been barriers to greater employee involvement in your organisation. . . ." "change fatigue"; "short term performance pressure" ("little or no extent"; "a moderate extent"; "a great extent").

Factor scores were calculated for each case using Bartlett's method.

Analysis and results

Of the 114 organisations making significant use of employee involvement practices, 49% said that middle management resistance had been a barrier to the introduction of employee involvement "to a moderate extent " and 14% "to a great extent". Most claimed some benefit from these practices.

Initial analyses were carried out controlling for company size and sector, which made no substantive difference to the results, so for simplicity results are reported for the

uncontrolled analysis. First, to test hypotheses 1, regression analysis was carried out separately with each outcome measure as the dependent variable. The three EI practice factors were entered as dependent variables, as was middle management resistance to EI. See tables 4.8 and 4.9.

Table 4.8: Tangible outcomes of EI, regression coefficients

Variable	B	Beta	T	Sig. T
Parallel EI	0.38	0.26	3.06	0.003
Core EI	0.21	0.26	2.67	0.008
Voice	0.24	0.15	1.91	0.068
Middle Management Resistance	-0.12	-0.17	-2.31	0.023
(Constant)	-0.02		-0.09	0.932

F= 12.13 sig. 0.0000; Adj. R²=0.23

All variables entered simultaneously, N=144

From table 4.8 we see that the independent variables jointly explain 23% of variance in perceived tangible output improvements. Parallel EI processes and core EI processes both have significant regression coefficients as does middle management resistance. However, voice fails to achieve significance at the 0.05 level. The relationship with middle management resistance is as hypothesised.

Table 4. 9: Attitude outcomes of EI, regression coefficients

Variable	B	Beta	T	Sig. T
Parallel EI	0.14	0.10	1.23	0.223
Core EI	0.26	0.26	3.53	0.001
Voice	0.29	0.12	0.25	0.013
Middle Management Resistance	-0.21	-0.32	-4.34	0.000
(Constant)	0.00		-0.09	0.932

F= 13.64 sig. 0.0000; Adj. R²=0.29
N=144

From table 4.9 we see that the independent variables explain 29% of variance in perceived attitude outcomes of EI. Core EI and voice are significantly positively related to attitude outcomes, although the regression coefficient for parallel EI is non-significant. Middle management resistance shows a significant inverse relationship with attitude outcomes, supporting hypothesis 1.1.

A regression analysis was carried out with middle management resistance to employee involvement as the dependent variable. The five factors from the factor analysis (table 4.7) of items hypothesised to predict middle management resistance were entered as independent variables (table 4.10).

From the results in table 4.10, we see that the factors jointly account for 35% of variance in middle management resistance. Regression coefficients are significant for all five factors. As predicted by hypothesis 1.2, lack of senior management support shows a positive relationship with middle management resistance. This is the largest effect. The significant positive coefficients, for performance measurement and reward system changes and job/promotion opportunity loss, support hypotheses 1.3 and 1.9.

Table 4.10: Middle management resistance to EI, regression coefficients

Variable	B	Beta	T	Sig. T
Lack of senior management support	0.38	0.45	6.60	0.00
Pressure	0.19	0.25	3.67	0.000
Job/promotion loss	0.15	0.15	2.29	0.024
Performance measurement/reward changes	-0.17	-0.19	-2.76	0.010
Power tools	-0.27	-0.32	-4.72	0.000
(Constant)	0.07		0.00	1.000

F= 14.24 sig. 0.0000; Adj. R²=0.35

All variables entered simultaneously

N=155

Hypotheses 1.3, 1.4 and 1.5 cannot be examined separately since resource decentralisation, management development and action to improve communication are subsumed under a common factor. Since organisations in the sample which do one, often do all three we cannot distinguish their individual effects. However, as we have noted, we could interpret this factor as a measure of the extent to which managers are given the capability, or power to take effective action in the organisation. This broad factor shows a significant negative relationship with middle management resistance to EI.

One cannot distinguish between the effect of “change fatigue” (hypothesis 1.7) and “short term performance pressure” (hypothesis 1.8), since they combine into a single factor. This factor can be interpreted as a measure of pressures managers are under in addition to any EI initiative. This “pressure” factor shows a significant positive relationship with middle management resistance to EI.

Discussion

Factor analysis distinguished three groups of employee involvement practices: -

- self-managing work teams and small self-contained business units;
- job enrichment, quality circles, consultative committees, team briefing, and problem solving task forces;
- suggestion schemes and attitude surveys.

The principal purpose in carrying out the factor analysis was to avoid multicollinearity in subsequent regression analysis. However, the revealed factor structure is also of some interest.

The first factor, which has been labelled 'core EI' consists of team-based practices which require fundamental change to the way in which work is carried out. They require changes to the core systems and management structures of the organisation.

The second factor, labelled 'parallel EI' consists of practices which can be 'bolted on' to an existing organisation. They require only minor adjustments to existing organisation structures and systems. Quality circles, for example, often involve groups of (volunteer) employees meeting outside normal working hours and with no authority to implement any proposals they may make. Cotton (1993) has suggested that because such practices take little managerial effort (or commitment) to establish they have been frequently adopted by organisations. However, because they require little real change in organisations such practices have often delivered little benefit (*ibid.*).

The third factor has been labelled 'voice'. Hirschman's (1970) term, voice, has been used here since suggestion schemes and attitude surveys both provide a medium through which employees may voice their concerns, but offer little involvement in decision making processes.

The factor analysis suggests that we might regard these as three essentially different underlying approaches to EI: transforming the core organisation, adding on

parallel forms of organisation, or providing an outlet for employee concerns and suggestions.

The use of EI practices is significantly related to perceived benefits for organisations, concerning changes in employee attitudes (job satisfaction, commitment, responsiveness to change and felt responsibility for business outcomes) and improvements in tangible outcomes (quality, cost, productivity and responsiveness to customers). Because these data are self reported, we cannot rule out perceptual effects. Senior management respondents may tend to inflate the impact of employee involvement practices if they have been the champion of their introduction. However, these results are broadly consistent with the results of other studies reported on earlier, which have used more direct outcome measures.

Hypothesis 1.1(H1.1) concerned the impact of middle management resistance to EI on outcomes of EI practices. Hypotheses 1.2 to 1.9 (H1.2 to H1.9) concerned correlates of middle management resistance to EI.

Around half of all respondents say that there has been some degree of middle management resistance to employee involvement in their organisations. The results suggest that, where there has been significant middle management resistance to employee involvement, this has affected the outcomes of employee involvement initiatives. The outcomes are less favourable in organisations that have experienced significant middle management resistance to employee involvement. This supports H1.1 and the findings of Bradley and Hill (1987), Brennan (1991), Verespej (1990) and others cited earlier.

One response to these findings would be to identify and remove middle managers showing negatives attitudes to EI. This assumes the problem to be a characteristic of individual managers. However, further analysis suggests that this resistance from middle

managers may be a symptom of a wider failure to set up EI initiatives effectively. In fact, the regression analysis of middle management resistance to EI reveals that a high proportion of variance in the extent of reported middle management resistance is explained by organisation level variables.

The most significant relationship is with the extent of senior management support for EI (H1.2). Reported middle management resistance to EI is lower where there is strong unambiguous support from senior managers for EI.

Other significant regression coefficients reflect the importance of paying attention to the wider organisational systems. Organisations report lower levels of middle management resistance where performance measurement and reward systems have been adapted to support the goals of EI(H1.3). Jointly, management development related to employee involvement, improvements to communications systems and decentralisation of resource control show an inverse relationship to middle management resistance (H1.3, H1.4, H1.5).

The organisational context is also important. Short term performance pressure (H1.7) and “change fatigue” (H1.8) are associated with higher levels of resistance.

Finally, middle managers’ support for employee involvement also varies with the extent to which it affects their own interests. Middle management resistance to EI is higher in organisations where EI has been associated with job loss, delayering and loss of promotion opportunities (H1.9).

Conclusions

Overall, these results suggest that, although middle management resistance to employee involvement is a significant barrier to success, it is largely a symptom of problems at the organisational level.

There are important implications for practice. If organisations wish to enlist the support of middle managers for EI initiatives, they must pay attention to wider organisational systems. Performance measurement and reward systems signal which goals are important and reinforce particular behaviour. If these systems do not change with the introduction of EI practices, old behaviours will be reinforced while new behaviours are demanded. Without improvements in communication, decentralisation of resource control and appropriate management development managers will feel unempowered and are likely to see power and control as a scarce resource and be reluctant to share it. Further, without power resources to draw upon themselves, they may lack the capability to involve their subordinates effectively

Managers who lack the skills needed to manage in the participative style demanded by employee involvement are more likely to resist it. This suggests organisations wishing to introduce employee involvement practices should devote significant resource to raising the people management skills base among managers.

While avoiding delayering or job loss may not be possible or desirable when introducing employee involvement practices, reducing the adverse impact on managers is important. There needs to be transparent advance planning and clear communication concerning what will happen to managers whose roles are eliminated during restructuring. Organisations need to consider what will replace the possibility of frequent promotion as a motivator for middle level managers.

Several studies have identified middle management resistance as a principal barrier to the success of employee involvement initiatives. It is clear from this study that, *based on the report of senior management respondents*, middle management resistance does act as a barrier to successful outcomes of EI in many organisations. This study has examined

key correlates of this resistance. The results of this study should have wide generalisability, being based on a sample that spans five diverse industry sectors and a wide range of organisation sizes.

However, some weaknesses should be noted. First, the data were collected from a questionnaire completed by a single senior informant in each organisation. The data on middle management resistance represents the opinion of this individual. Were we to ask the middle managers themselves we might get a different response. Further, we cannot assume from these results that middle management resistance causes failure of EI initiatives. It is possible that where EI initiatives have failed senior management look for scapegoats and middle managers are simply a convenient target.

Second, the methodology can only examine 'between organisation effects'. The study can say nothing concerning differences between individual middle managers, within the same organisation.

Perhaps the most important contribution of this study is in understanding the context in which middle management resistance occurs. We can understand middle management resistance to employee involvement as a symptom of system failures within the organisation, rather than solely as arising from individual attitudes and beliefs in relation to employee involvement. This is not to deny the importance of individual differences. The study reported in chapter 5 uses data collected at the individual level from managers to examine individual difference explanations of resistance to (or support for) EI. The study reported in chapter 6 uses multi-level analysis to examine simultaneously the effects of both organisation context and individual differences.

Within organisations, individuals will clearly vary in the extent to which they behave in ways which support or hinder employee involvement practices. Beliefs about

the effectiveness of EI may depend on personal experience of EI, the beliefs of peers, and training in participative management techniques. Beliefs about the desirability of EI outcomes may be strongly influenced by the extent to which managers see their own self interest threatened. Do they for example see power in their organisations as “zero-sum”? Do they see the likely outcomes of employee involvement to include reduced job security and promotion prospects? Self efficacy beliefs are likely to depend on individual experience of EI and on opportunities to develop appropriate skills.

The nature of managers’ beliefs about the consequences of employee involvement may also depend crucially on the nature of power relations in their organisation. To what extent are Parson’s (1951) assumptions of common purpose valid in particular organisations? Whether managers believe that greater employee discretion will be used in support of their own goals may depend on the climate of trust and the existence of commonly agreed organisational objectives. Again, the studies in chapters 5 and 6 examine the relationship between the extent of common purpose, managers’ perceptions of their own empowerment and the extent of support for EI.

While it is not possible to draw conclusions about causal relationships from this (cross-sectional) data, we might speculate concerning the routes by which management resistance to EI develops. At the individual level, it seems likely that attitudes to EI are learned in response to experience and exposure to the beliefs of others in the manager’s reference group (eg other managers). Greater experience of EI practices and training in participative management help to form positive attitudes while experience of adverse consequences (delaying and managerial job loss) leads to negative attitudes to EI. We should not discount the role played by influential individuals in the formation of middle managers attitudes to EI. In their study of EI practices in 25 organisations Marchington

et al. (1992) found waves of interest in employee involvement to be frequently associated with a strong individual champion of EI practices.

At the organisational level we might see managerial resistance to EI as embedded in the systems and structure of the organisation. Organisational constraints on middle managers ability to effectively support EI and conflicting signals from senior managers and performance management systems lead to inaction. Inaction which is easily interpreted, by senior managers seeking a scapegoat for failure, as “. . . *bloody minded, stubborn resistance to change*” (MD of one responding organisation).

CHAPTER 5: STUDY 2 - EVIDENCE FROM A SURVEY OF MANAGERS

Summary

This chapter reports on the results of a study of managers' attitudes to employee involvement (EI). The study found no differences between the attitudes towards EI of middle and senior managers. As hypothesised, managers' intentions to support EI were found to be inversely related to recent managerial job loss, positively related to managers' experience of employee involvement and positively related to the use of performance management systems which stress the goals of employee involvement. The study revealed a positive relationship between recent delayering and intentions to support EI. The study also reveals a complex curvilinear relationship between managers' perceptions of their own empowerment and their attitudes to employee involvement. It is concluded that constraints on managers' behaviour are at least as important as determinants of apparent resistance to EI as negative attitudes arising out of perceived threats to self interest.

As reviewed in chapter 2, overall results from the literature on the outcomes of EI suggest that employee involvement practices have a significant positive effect on employee work attitudes and a positive although weaker effect on performance. However, it is clear that in many organisations employee involvement initiatives either fail to become established or do not produce positive effects.

Middle level managers are often implicated by both academic and practitioner writers as principal barriers to the success of employee involvement practices. The previous chapter reviewed evidence from senior management respondents across 155 organisations which offers support for this conclusion. The study also offered support for both subsystem congruence and rational defence of self interest explanations of middle management resistance. However, the study left a number of questions unanswered. First, do middle managers perceive themselves to be resistant to EI and are there significant differences between middle and senior management support for EI? Second, to what extent are managers attitudes to EI determined by individual differences as opposed to organisational context?

The study reported in this chapter examines the attitudes to EI of 1,119 managers at all organisational levels. Management attitudes to EI are compared across management level.

The study also tests hypotheses concerning antecedents (at the individual and organisational level) of managerial attitudes to EI.

Managers' own levels of power, in terms of access to resources and levels of discretion, have been hypothesised to affect both the extent to which they see power and control as "zero sum" and their own capability to implement EI practices. Hence this study also examines the interrelationship between managers own empowerment and their

attitudes to and support for EI.

Power, control and employee involvement

The non-zero-sum view of power has been criticised as implicitly unitarist; implying 'common purpose' between organisation members and a common set of values which bind those members together and implying that the nature and provenance of organisational goals are uncontroversial.

This "unitarist" perspective has been much criticised as reifying organisations, ignoring inherent conflicts of interest and assuming the existence of common purpose (Fox, 1974; Johnson & Gill, 1991). However, as argued in chapter 2, a non-zero-sum view of power need not rest entirely on unitarist assumptions: shared superordinate goals can be engendered through the management process. A dominant elite (eg. senior management or firm owners) may seek to align the interests of other organisation members with a set of goals by the use of reward structures, career opportunities, and selection and socialisation processes.

While, a pluralist view of organisations may be consistent with a non-zero-sum model of power, it has been argued that the non-zero-sum model is contingent on the existence of a set of commonly held superordinate goals. We can predict that those management methods which depend on a non-zero-sum model of power will be most successful (and hence become established) in organisations where there are low levels of conflict between competing interest groups and agreement on a set of common goals. Hence:

Hypothesis 2.1: There will be a significant positive correlation between the reported extent of common purpose and reported levels of employee

involvement.

Middle managers and employee involvement

A review of the literature in chapter 2 found resistance from middle managers to be a commonly cited barrier to the success of employee involvement. This was supported by the data reported in chapters 3 and 4.

If resistance to employee involvement is concentrated among middle managers, we would expect to see significant variation in expressed attitudes and reported behaviour in relation to employee involvement with grade level. This study examines respondents' cognitive beliefs concerning EI (the extent to which they believe EI will result in desirable outcomes); their self efficacy beliefs (confidence in own ability to carry out EI); normative beliefs (how much non-managerial employees should be involved) and the extent to which they actively support EI. Hence this study tests:

H2.2: Lower and middle managers will report less positive beliefs (normative, cognitive and self efficacy) concerning EI and lower intention to support EI than senior managers

Job attitudes and behaviour

Job attitudes are often weakly predictive of job-related behaviours. While some theorists have claimed attitudes to be epiphenomenal, or a result of behaviour and hence not predictive of behaviour (Chadwick-Jones, Nicholson, & Brown, 1982), a number of models of the relationship between attitudes and behaviour have been successful in improving the predictive power of the attitude concept, notably Fishbein and Ajzen's (1974) reasoned action model. Well defined, specific and salient attitude objects also

increase the link between attitude and behaviour (Pratkanis and Turner, 1994).

Another key condition affecting the link between attitudes and behaviour is the degree to which environmental factors allow or constrain behaviour associated with the attitude (Pratkanis and Turner, 1994). In this study independent variables of interest are considered either to affect behavioural intentions via attitudes (ie. learning) or to act directly on behavioural intentions (environmental constraints).

One question the study seeks to answer is: to what extent does managers' support for employee involvement rest on learned attitudes, and to what extent is it a product of the organisation systems within which they operate? According to Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) reasoned action model, attitudes are evaluations of objects based on beliefs that behaviour towards the object will result in certain outcomes and on the value of those outcomes to the individual. Together with normative beliefs (based on perceptions of what socially relevant others think about a behaviour) these attitudes are used to form intentions to behave. Ajzen (1985) has added a third link to behavioural intention, the perceived ease of performing a behaviour (operationalised in this study as self efficacy).

The study examines managers' attitudes to employee involvement from the perspective of: *cognitive beliefs* - respondents' beliefs about the outcomes and effectiveness of employee involvement; *normative beliefs* - the extent to which respondents believe non-managers *should* be involved in decision making; *self efficacy* - respondents' beliefs in their own competence to carry out employee involvement; and *intention to support EI* - respondents' self report of their own behaviour and intentions in support of employee involvement practices. We first test the association between these attitudes towards employee involvement and intention to support EI.

H2.3: Managers' cognitive beliefs in relation to EI will show a positive

association with intention to support EI.

H2.4: Managers' normative beliefs in relation to EI will show a positive association with intention to support EI.

H2.5: Self efficacy beliefs in relation to EI will show a positive association with intention to support EI.

Antecedents of managerial support for employee involvement

One argument advanced to explain observed examples of middle management resistance to employee involvement suggests that managers act to protect their own interests (Abbot, 1987; Brennan, 1991; Manz *et al*, 1990). Employee involvement initiatives are often associated with delayering and downsizing. Both can pose significant threats to the interests of managers in terms of reduced job security and fewer opportunities for incremental job advancement. Hence:

H2.6: Recent reduction in numbers of managers employed will be associated with less positive attitudes towards EI and hence lower intention to support EI.

H2.7: Recent delayering will be associated with less positive attitudes towards EI and lower intention to support EI.

Self efficacy beliefs are reinforced by experienced success, and direct observation of others' success (Bandura, 1977). Managers with experience of EI will be more confident in their ability to manage employee involvement and hence more likely to support EI.

H2.8: Personal experience of EI will be associated with greater intention to support EI. This relationship will be mediated via self efficacy.

Many managers have achieved their positions through functional or specialist expertise rather than skill in the management and coordination of others' work. Lack of people management skills may cause many managers to doubt their ability to manage effectively in a climate of high employee involvement where the emphasis is on effectively coaching and facilitating subordinates to succeed rather than on close task supervision. So one can further predict:

H2.9: Recent training in people management skills mediated via self efficacy beliefs will be associated with greater intention to support EI.

Normative beliefs are socially learned, and powerfully affected by the norms operating in the social groupings most salient to the attitude object. We would then expect normative beliefs about employee involvement to be strongly influenced by the extent of existing employee involvement in the respondent's organisations. Hence this study tests:

H2.10: Perceived existing levels of non-managerial involvement in decision making will be positively related to greater intention to support EI. This relationship will be mediated via normative beliefs about EI.

While we may see managers as individual actors pursuing their own interests, they are also embedded in the systems of their organisation. The extent to which they behave to actively support employee involvement will depend not only on their attitudes but on the extent to which organisational systems constrain or encourage such support. Performance measurement and review are key systems in this context as they often signal

and enable the operation of other systems such as discipline, reward and career management. However, since these systems act as external constraints on the manager we might expect them to act directly on behaviour rather than via attitudes toward EI.

H2.11: An organisational emphasis on developing subordinates and involving them in decision making in managers' performance review will be directly associated with managers' greater intention to support EI.

Kanter has claimed that managers' attitudes to employee involvement are significantly affected by their perceptions of their own levels of empowerment. She argues that:

"Access to resources and information and the ability to act quickly make it possible to accomplish more and to pass on more resources and information to subordinates. . . Powerlessness in contrast tends to breed bossiness rather than true leadership. . . If organizational power can "ennoble," then, recent research shows, organizational powerlessness can (with apologies to Lord Acton) corrupt."
(Kanter, 1979; pp65-66).

She goes on to argue

". . . only those leaders who feel secure about their own power . . . can see empowering subordinates as a gain rather than a loss." (Ibid., pp73)

Kanter thus implies that managers with greater power will be more inclined to support employee involvement since they will feel less threatened by "empowered" subordinates, will be less inclined to see power as a scarce resource and hence less likely to hold to a zero-sum concept of power. An alternative view of the relationship between managerial power and attitudes to employee involvement is that the least powerful managers may see themselves as targets as well as implementors of employee involvement processes. In these circumstances the least powerful managers have most to gain. This would imply an inverse relationship between managerial power and support for employee

involvement.

This study then seeks to shed further light on this relationship between managerial power and support for power sharing.

H2.12: Managers' own levels of empowerment will be positively associated with intention to support EI, mediated by beliefs concerning the impact of EI on their own power.

In the same paper Kanter argues that it is those managers who have the least opportunities for advancement who are most likely to hold a zero sum view of power and thus be most resistant to EI. Hence this study also tests:

H2.13: Managers' positive assessment of their own career prospects will be positively associated with intention to support EI, mediated via beliefs concerning the impact of EI on managerial power.

As discussed earlier a non-zero sum view of power rests on an assumption of shared goals and common interests. Managers who perceive internal conflict and few common goals are unlikely to trust that subordinates given greater power will act in accordance with the manager's goals. In these circumstances they are likely to view employee involvement as ineffective and offer little support to EI practices.

H2.14: Shared organisational goals and low conflict will be associated with greater intention to support EI, mediated via managers beliefs concerning the effectiveness of employee involvement.

Methodology

A postal questionnaire was developed and piloted with 50 managers (Members of

the Institute of Management). After revising items which were ambiguous or poor discriminators the revised questionnaire was distributed to 4,500 members of the Institute of Management. The Institute of Management is a professional organisation for UK managers. The sample was selected to represent a broad range of industry sectors. 1,119 usable questionnaires were returned (a response rate of 25%). Respondents were from a broad range of industry sectors and organisation sizes.

Measures

Organisation size: "How many employees does your organisation have in the UK?"

Fewer than 25; 26-50; 51-100; 101-500; 501-1000; 1001-10,000; 10,001-50,000; more than 50,000.

Number of management levels: "How many management levels are there from first line supervisor/manager to Managing Director in your organisation?"(write in).

Own level: "If the most senior level of management in your organisation is 1, what level are you at? (Write level number)".

% change in managers: "What would you estimate to be the percentage change in managers employed in your organisation during the last three years? (Write number). % reduction; no change; % increase."

Delayering "Has your organisation reduced the number of layers of management in your part of the organisation, in the last three years? Yes/no.

Experience of EI: "How much experience have you had personally, of initiatives which have given people reporting to you significant involvement in decisions about their work?" Five point scale from 'none' to 'a great deal'.

Respondents' perceptions of the level of employee involvement in their organisations were measured in two ways.

First:

Perceived employee involvement in decision making: In this thesis employee involvement has been defined as *“The effective exercise, by employees, of influence over how their work is organised and carried out.”* This has been operationalised by asking to what extent employees exercise influence over a number of decision categories, a procedure used by Hage and Aiken (1969) and Dewar, Whetten and Boje (1980) in their studies of centralisation and participation in decision making. The categories of decision in this study were chosen to be relevant to employees across a wide range of job types and industry sectors, in the UK. Levels of non-managerial involvement in decision making were assessed by asking respondents how much involvement non-managerial employees have in 7 categories of decision on a 5-point scale from ‘none’ to ‘a very great deal’ (see table 5.2 for items). Items were chosen after discussion with a group of 20 managers from both manufacturing and service sectors attending an executive development course and piloted with a further group of 50 managers. Factor analysis shows the items to all load on a single factor (eigenvalue=4.07; % variance explained=51.5; $\alpha=.88$). The scale was calculated by taking the mean score over the 7 items.

Second:

Employee involvement practices: Respondents were given a list of employee involvement practices with definitions of each practice and asked to tick all that their organisation makes significant use of (see table 5.1). The list of practices is adapted from Lawler, Mohrman, & Ledford (1992).

Career prospects: Kanter (1982), has argued that career plateaued managers are more resistant to employee involvement practices. To test this assertion a two-item measure of perceived career prospects was used: “I have good opportunities for career

development (scored 'strongly disagree' to strongly agree'); "How likely do you think you are to be promoted in the next five years" (5 point scale, very unlikely to very likely).

$\alpha=0.60$.

Table 5.1: Employee involvement practices in use

	Proportion of respondents reporting "significant" use of practice
Suggestion schemes	42 %
Attitude surveys	28 %
Team briefing	72 %
Job enrichment/redesign	16 %
Quality circles	30 %
Consultative committees	38 %
Self-managing work teams	27 %
Small self-contained business units	26 %

Training: Single item, "Approximately how many days training have you had in people management skills (eg. Giving feedback, coaching, motivation, goal setting) in the last three years?"

EI performance measurement: Two item scale assessing how much emphasis is placed on "Developing subordinates" and "Involving subordinates in decisions about their work" as part of respondents' performance review. (Scored on five point scale from 'none' to a 'very great deal'; $\alpha=0.83$.)

Managerial empowerment: This was assessed as the extent to which respondents have control over resources, access to information and discretion in how they carry out their work. The first two were measured with items adapted from Quinn and Staines's (1979) resource adequacy scale, the third with Beehr's (1976) autonomy scale. Items were as follows: "I have good access to the information I need to do my job well"; "I could perform my job more effectively with better access to information" (R); "I have sufficient control over resources to do my best work"; "I could do a much better job with better control over resources"(R); "I have a lot of say over what happens in my work"; "My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own authority"; "I have enough freedom as to how I do my own work"; "I have enough authority to do my job most effectively". (All scored on a 5-point scale 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree.' Factor analysis revealed that all items loaded on the same factor (eigenvalue 4.25, 53% explained variance). The scale was calculated as the mean of all items, with negatively worded items reversed. $\alpha=0.88$.

Common purpose: Two items were used to assess the extent to which respondents saw unity of purpose among members of their organisations: "There is a lot of conflict of interest among members of this organisation"(R); and "Members of this organisation mostly share the same goals" (scored 'strongly disagree' to strongly agree'; $\alpha=0.79$).

Attitudes to EI: Respondents' attitudes to employee involvement were assessed using items intended to tap normative beliefs, beliefs concerning the outcomes of EI, and self efficacy in relation to EI. Normative beliefs were assessed using the same set of decision involvement items as the perceived employee involvement in decision making scale, except respondents were asked to rate how much involvement non-managerial employees in their organisation should have. Beliefs concerning EI outcomes were

assessed using an adapted form of Parnell, Bell and Taylor's "Propensity for Participative Management" scale (Parnell Bell, & Taylor, 1992). Items were adapted to refer to employee involvement rather than participative management. Self efficacy was assessed with two items intended to tap respondents' self efficacy beliefs concerning carrying out EI. Factor analysis of these attitude items was carried out using the Maximum Likelihood procedure and Varimax Rotation.

Four attitude factors were identified (table 5.2):

Normative ($\alpha=0.83$) - belief that non-managerial employees should be involved in decision making;

Cognitive 1 ($\alpha=0.66$) - belief that EI leads to effective decisions and good relationships;

Cognitive 2 ($\alpha=0.70$) - belief that EI leads to loss of power for managers;

Self efficacy ($\alpha=0.68$) - belief in own ability to carry out EI.

Intention to support EI, respondents' self report of behavioural intentions to actively support EI was assessed with three items: "I would support efforts to increase employee involvement in my organisation", "I give high priority in my work to increasing levels of employee involvement", "I encourage other managers to support employee involvement initiatives." (Five point response scale "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"). Alpha =0.78.

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Table 5.2: EI attitude factors	Normative	Cognitive 1	Cognitive 2	Sel effi
How much involvement <i>should</i> non-managerial employees have in decisions concerning . .				
Planning and scheduling of work	0.59	0.23	-0.16	(
The way work is done (procedures and methods)	0.64	0.22	-0.2	(
Speed of work	0.63	0.16	-0.11	(
Allocation of tasks and responsibilities within immediate workgroup	0.61	0.23	-0.13	-
Determining quality standards	0.62	0.02	-0.07	(
Determining how quality standards will be achieved	0.63	0.07	-0.12	(
Hiring new recruits	0.54	0.16	-0.08	(
How far do you personally agree with the following statements				
Many organisational problems disappear when everyone has the opportunity to participate in decision making	0.21	0.64	-0.14	(
Participative decision making usually results in effective decisions	0.21	0.60	-0.17	(
Employee involvement promotes positive relationships at all levels of the organisation	0.2	0.52	-0.21	(
Employee involvement gives too much power to subordinates	-0.19	-0.3	0.55	-
Participative decision making often requires divulging too much confidential information	-0.12	-0.12	0.73	-
Subordinates often cannot be trusted	-0.18	-0.12	0.52	-
I am confident in my ability to manage very effectively in an environment of high employee involvement	0.11	0.22	-0.14	(
I would expect to find it quite hard to manage well in a participative style	-0.09	-0.15	0.19	-

Maximum likelihood procedure, Varimax rotation.

KMO sampling adequacy = 0.87, Bartlett test of sphericity significance=0.0000

Analysis and results

Table 5.3 shows the correlation between shared organisational goals, EI practices and perceived employee involvement in decision making. Non-managerial involvement in decision making shows a significant correlation with common purpose, as do the use of team briefing, job redesign, quality circles and self managing work teams. This lends support to hypothesis 2.1; that there will be a significant positive correlation between the extent of shared organisational goals and interests, and levels of employee involvement.

In the second stage of analysis a series of regressions were carried out to test hypotheses 2.3 to 2.13.⁶ First, five regressions were carried out with each of the attitude variables and intention to support EI as dependent variables.

Table 5.3: Common purpose and employee involvement (zero order correlations)	Common purpose
Suggestion schemes	0.06ns
Attitude surveys	0.06*
Team briefings	0.09**
Job enrichment	0.20***
Quality circles	0.10***
Consultative committees	0.04ns
Self managing work teams	0.10***
Small self contained business units	0.04ns
Non managerial involvement in decision making	0.35***

* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, ns non-significant.

⁶ Inspection of scatter graphs indicated that variance in attitude variables decreased with the level of employee involvement in decisions. This was controlled for by using weighted least squares regression, with the weight set to $1/(\text{square root of employee involvement in decisions})$.

Organisation size is likely to affect the nature of work organisation and hence may correlate with use of employee involvement practices (Pugh, Hickson, Hinings & Turner, 1969). Individual attitudes often vary systematically with age, hence number of employees and age were controlled for in the regressions. Number of management levels was controlled for, so that, in combination with respondents' own level below MD, effects of respondents level relative to the bottom of the hierarchy could also be detected.

Zero order correlations, means and standard deviations of all dependent and independent variables are shown in table 5.4.

Table 5.5 shows the results of regressing⁷ each of the EI attitude variables and Intention to Support EI on the the following independent variables: reduction in managers employed, delayering, experience of EI, employee involvement in decisions, career prospects, training, EI performance measurement, respondent's management level, and managerial empowerment. Tolerance statistics showed only low levels of multicollinearity, making interpretation of coefficients straightforward. Inspection of scatter graphs suggested a curvilinear relationship between managerial empowerment and EI attitude variables, so managerial empowerment squared was also entered. Table 5.5 shows unstandardised regression coefficients in order to facilitate comparisons of the size of effects of independent variables across the dependent variables. Coefficients in bold are significant at $p < 0.05$ or better.

⁷ Weighted least squares regression was used to compensate for heteroscedacity in the sample (the variance of EI attitudes decreases with the extent of EI)

Table 5.4: Zero order correlation Coefficients (mean scores and standard deviations on diagonal)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	
Size (1)	5.01(2.35)																		
No. Mgmt levels (2)	.58**	3.85(1.75)																	
Age (3)	-.08*	-.10**	3.84(0.78)																
% reduction in managers (4)	.22**	.08**	-.05	10.0%(15.01)															
Delayer (5)	.26**	.11**	-.06*	.53**	0.44(0.50)														
EI experience(6)	.01	-.06	.02	.05	.09**	3.45(1.08)													
EI in decisions(7)	-.15**	-.15**	.00	.04	.08**	.34**	2.48(0.79)												
Career prospects (8)	-.03	-.05	-.24**	.02	.04	.11**	.21**	2.65(1.05)											
Training (9)	.07*	.01	-.02	.09**	.05	.06**	.02	.13**	9.46(34.6)										
EI performance management(10)	-.09**	-.09**	.07*	.03	.09**	.25**	.42**	.31**	.13**	2.57(0.97)									
Own level below MD(11)	.54**	.65**	-.07*	.10**	.03	-.17**	-.16**	-.13**	-.01	-.17**	2.69(1.40)								
Managerial empowerment(12)	-.23**	-.23**	.05	.01	.05	.24**	.32**	.27**	.03	.35**	-.42**	3.69(0.89)							
Common purpose (13)	-.23**	-.26**	.11**	-.00	-.01	.13**	.35**	.29**	.06*	.40**	-.34**	.50**	3.09(1.01)						
Normative (14)	.08**	.05	-.09**	.10**	.16**	.25**	.51**	.07*	-.02	.20**	.05	.03	-.00	3.33(0.67)					
Cognitive1 (15)	.08**	.05	-.05	.04	.03	.20**	.18**	.06*	-.02	.10**	.07*	.03	.03	.44**	3.77(0.65)				
Cognitive2 (16)	-.11**	-.09**	.12**	-.04	-.09**	-.19**	-.14**	-.02	.04	-.06*	-.06**	-.04	-.02	-.36**	-.43**	2.25(0.69)			
Efficacy (17)	.07*	.02	-.07*	.05	.06*	.28**	.15**	.06*	.05	.09**	-.01	.09**	.05	.25**	.39**	-.36**	3.96(0.68)		
Intent to support EI (18)	.13**	.10**	-.07*	.06	.17**	.33**	.16**	.09**	-.01	.17**	.06*	.04	-.05	.47**	.56**	-.43**	.47**	3.85 (0.63)	

* - Signif. $\leq .05$ ** - Signif. $\leq .01$ (2-tailed)

Table 5.5: Attitudes to EI and Intent to support EI regressed on independent variables (Unstandardised regression coefficients)

	Normative	Cognitive1	Cognitive 2	Self efficacy	Intent to support EI
Organisation size (employees)	0.01ns.	0.02*	-0.02ns	0.02*	0.02*
Number of management levels	0.01ns	-.03ns	0.01ns	-0.16ns	0.00ns
Age	-.05*	-.02ns	0.12***	-0.04ns	-0.03ns
% reduction in managers	0.00ns	0.00ns	0.00ns	0.00ns	-.003*
Delaying	0.11**	0.00ns	0.08ns	-0.02ns	0.19***
Experience of EI	0.04*	0.08***	-.10**	0.15***	0.15***
Employee involvement in decisions	0.48***	0.13***	-0.10**	0.11***	0.08**
Career prospects	0.00ns	0.03ns	0.02ns	0.02ns	0.05*
Training	0.00ns	0.00ns	0.00ns	0.00ns	0.00ns
EI performance measurement	0.04ns	0.03ns	-0.02ns	0.01ns	0.09***
Management level (levels below MD)	0.03ns	0.05**	-0.04*	0.04ns	0.03ns
Managerial empowerment	-0.63***	-0.68**	0.58*	-0.78***	-0.63**
Managerial empowerment ²	0.08**	0.09**	-0.08*	0.11***	0.08**
Common purpose	-.06**	0.04ns	-.06*	0.03ns	-.04ns
Adj. R ²	.39***	0.09***	0.08***	.12***	.18***

Weighted least squares regression. Weight set equal to 1/(employee involvement in decisions)¹⁻⁵

All variables entered simultaneously. Dependent variables at top of table. * p<0.05, **p<0.01, *** p<0.001, ns non-significant at p<0.05.

Secondly, a series of regressions were carried out with *intention to support EI* as the dependent variable in order to test for relationships mediated via attitudes. Baron and Kenney (1986) recommend:

"To test for mediation one should estimate the three following regression equations: first, regressing the mediator on the independent variable; second, regressing the dependent variable on the independent variable; and third, regressing the dependent variable on both the independent variable and on the mediator. Separate coefficients for each equation should be estimated and tested. . . . To establish mediation the following conditions must hold: First the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation; second, the independent variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable in the second equation; and third the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the third equation. If these conditions hold in the predicted direction, then the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second."

The results of regressing intent to support EI on the independent variables controlling for each of the attitude variables are shown in table 5.6. The significance of the indirect effect was estimated using the Sobell test (Ibid.). Regression coefficients which show a significant reduction when an attitude variable is controlled for are marked "#". Unstandardised regression coefficients are used to enable comparison of coefficient size between equations.

Organisation size shows a small positive association with belief that EI results in good decisions and relationships, self efficacy and intent to support EI. There is no significant relationship with number of management levels. Age shows an inverse relationship to normative beliefs about EI and a positive association with belief that EI leads to power loss for managers. Older managers are less inclined to say non management employees should be involved in decisions and more likely to see EI as a threat to their own power.

Hypothesis 2.2 is unsupported. Attitudes to EI and intent to support EI do not

become more positive with management level. In fact there is a small but significant negative effect of management level on cognitive beliefs concerning EI. More senior managers are slightly less inclined to believe EI leads to positive outcomes and more inclined to believe EI leads to loss of managerial power.

Table 5.6: Testing for mediation; regression of intent to support EI on independent variables, controlling for attitude variables (Unstandardised regression coefficients)

	Intent to support EI				
Organisation size (employees)	0.02*	0.16ns	0.01ns	0.01ns	0.01ns
Delaying	0.19**	0.14***	0.19***	0.17***	0.12***
Experience of EI	0.15***	0.13***	0.11***#	0.12***	0.09***#
Employee involvement in decisions	0.08**	-0.12***#	0.02ns #	0.05*#	0.04***#
Managerial empowerment	-0.63**	-0.37ns#	-0.30ns#	0.46*#	-.35ns#
Managerial empowerment ²	0.08**	0.05*#	0.04ns#	0.06*#	0.04ns#
Normative		0.41***			
Cognitive 1			0.49***		
Cognitive 2				-0.30***	
Self Efficacy					0.36***
Adj. R ²	.18***	.28***	.40***	0.27***	.31***

Weighted least squares regression. Weight set equal to 1/(employee involvement in decisions)^{1.5}

All variables entered simultaneously. Dependent variables at top of table. * p<0.05, **p<0.01, *** p<0.001, ns non-significant at p<0.05.

indirect effect significant at 0.05 level using Sobell test (Baron & Kenny, 1986)

The results support hypotheses 2.3, 2.4 and 2.5. All four attitude variables show a significant linear association with active support for employee involvement.

Hypothesis 2.6 (managerial job loss is associated with less positive attitudes to EI and hence lower intention to support EI.) is partially supported: a reduction in managers employed during the last three years is associated with lower intention to support EI. However, there is no significant effect on attitudes.

Hypothesis 2.7 (de-layering is associated with less positive attitudes to EI and hence lower intention to support EI) is not supported, the effect is the reverse to that hypothesised: delayering in the last three years is associated with greater intention to support EI. Although normative attitudes to EI show a significant positive relationship with recent delayering, no significant mediated relationship was observed, nor was there a significant relationship between recent delayering and other attitudes.

Hypothesis 2.8 (personal experience of EI is associated with greater intention to support EI, mediated via self-efficacy.) is supported. The association between personal experience of EI and self efficacy is highly significant. The association between experience and intention to support EI is highly significant and the regression coefficient is significantly reduced when self efficacy was controlled for suggesting the relationship is partially mediated via self efficacy. There is also a smaller (but still significant) mediating effect via Cognitive 1, the belief that EI leads to effective decisions and good relationships.

Hypothesis 2.9 (training in people management skills is associated with greater intention to support EI) is not supported. There is no significant relationship between training in people management skills and any of the attitude variables nor with intention to support EI.

Hypothesis 2.10 is partially supported: perceived levels of non managerial involvement in decision making are associated with normative beliefs about EI. There is

a small direct association with intention to support EI. However, controlling for the effect of the normative attitude variable results in a negative regression coefficient for employee involvement in decisions. This may be interpreted as intention to support EI being dependent on the gap between perceived employee involvement in decisions and the respondent's ideal level of employee involvement.

As hypothesised (H2.11), a focus on developing and involving subordinates in managers' performance reviews is associated with greater active support for employee involvement but has no impact on attitudes.

Hypothesis 2.12 is not supported by the data. The relationship between managerial empowerment and attitudes to, and support for EI, is not linear but curvilinear. The least positive attitudes and lowest intention to support EI are held by managers who say they are moderately empowered. Support is greater and attitudes are more positive among managers with very low and very high levels of empowerment. The results of controlling for employee attitude variables suggests that the effect of managerial empowerment on intent to support EI is completely mediated via attitudes.

There is partial support for hypothesis 2.13. There is a small but significant association between perceived career prospects and intent to support EI. However, there is no significant relationship between career prospects and attitudes. [A separate analysis failed to find any mediating effect of managerial empowerment between career prospects and intent to support EI.]

Hypothesis 2.14 is not supported. Shared organisational goals and interests do not show significant association with attitudes or behavioural intent toward EI, except for a small negative association with normative beliefs. A closer look at the zero order correlations in table 5.7 may help explain this. The correlation between common purpose

and normative beliefs is close to zero. The negative regression coefficient occurs because of the inclusion of level of employee involvement in the regression equation. As we can see from table 5.7, the difference between desired and actual employee involvement is correlated with the extent of common purpose and interests in the respondents' organisations. In other words, not only is the extent of use of employee involvement higher in organisations with shared goals and common interests between members, but the gap between managers normative beliefs concerning EI and the extent of EI is smaller.

Table 5.7: Common purpose and attitude toward EI: zero order correlation

	Employee involvement in decisions (perceived)	Employee involvement in decisions (normative)	EI shortfall (normative minus perceived EI)
Common purpose	.3524***	-.0002ns	-.3805***

Discussion

It has been argued in this chapter that a non-zero-sum view of power in organisations is compatible with a pluralist perspective. The correlation between common purpose and use of employee involvement practices lends support to the proposal that practices, such as EI, based on a non-zero-sum view of power will more often become established where there is commonality of goals and interests.

However, there are alternative explanations for the association between these two variables. It may be that employee involvement practices lead to greater commonality of goals and interests or that the association is purely perceptual - managers in organisations using employee involvement practices assume commonality of goals and interests. The

question can only be completely resolved in a longitudinal study using more objective measures such as direct observation of managers' behaviour. It should be noted that while the measure of non-managerial employee involvement in decision making is perceptual, the measures of formal employee involvement practices in use are less likely to be subject to perceptual error.

Managers' attitudes and support for employee involvement

A key finding is that there is no significant variation in either attitudes to EI nor in intention to support EI by job level. On the evidence of this study *middle managers are no more resistant to EI than senior managers*. Indeed, in the sample under consideration, the great majority of all managers (83%) suggest non-managerial employees should be more involved in decisions.

However, there is a significant correlation between respondent's hierarchical level and reported employee involvement in decision making (table 5.4). Senior managers tend to report slightly higher levels of EI than other managers. As expected, attitudes to EI show a strong relationship with intention to support EI. We know (Bem & McConnell, 1970) that estimates of personal behaviour may be revised to be consistent with attitudes. This may explain the relationship to some extent. However, other variables (managerial empowerment, delayering and managerial job loss) show differential association with attitude variables and intention to support EI offering support for divergent validity of the 'intention to support EI' variable.

The results offer some support for the argument that managers resist EI because they see it threatening their job security. Managers from organisations which have reduced numbers of managers employed in the last three years show lower intention to support EI. This relationship, however, is not mediated by attitudes to EI. Conversely, a reduction in

management layers is associated with greater intention to support EI (but not with attitudes to EI, other than normative beliefs).

Why is there an association with behavioural intentions but not with attitudes, and why is managerial job loss associated with lower intention to support EI while delayering is associated with higher intention to support EI? If recent managerial job loss leads to lower intention to support EI because managers see a threat to their own job security we might expect to see an effect on attitudes to EI not just behavioural intentions. However, it may be that a reduction in managerial numbers leads to greater workload for remaining managers and hence little opportunity to invest time in EI. Whereas, if management layers are reduced, without associated job loss, the necessary restructuring may remove existing constraints on managers' ability to implement employee involvement.

There is some support for Kanter's (1979) assertion that it is managers with the least opportunities for advancement who are the most resistant to EI. Career prospects have a small but significant association with intent to support EI. However, contrary to Kanter's argument, there is no evidence that this relationship is mediated via managers' beliefs about the effect of EI on their own power. Nor are managers' perceptions of career prospects diminished by recent delayering, there is no significant correlation between the two (table 5.4).

Taken together these results offer little support for a simple picture of middle level managers developing negative attitudes to employee involvement because they perceive it as a threat to their interests.

The one finding consistent with this view is that recent job loss among managers is associated with lower intention to support EI, (but not more negative attitudes to EI). This may reflect either greater workload constraining managers' ability to implement EI

or that facing job insecurity, managers are less willing to invest effort in activities with long term rather than short term payoffs.

Personal experience of EI has a significant impact on intention to support EI (mediated by self efficacy beliefs). The inclusion of EI-related goals in performance measurement for managers is not associated with attitudes to EI but is associated with greater intention to support EI and explains significant variance in active support beyond the effect of attitudes to EI. This suggests that perceived constraints on managers' ability to implement EI, whether perceptions about own ability or lack of alignment between performance measurement systems and EI goals, are at least as important as perceived threats to self interest in causing managerial resistance to EI.

Existing levels of employee involvement in decision making are most significantly associated with normative beliefs concerning EI. When entered after normative beliefs the regression coefficient of non-managerial involvement in decision making on active support is significantly negative. This is perhaps not as strange as it first may appear. In effect, this means that managerial propensity to expend effort to encourage EI is proportional to the gap between perceived and desired levels of EI.

Managerial empowerment and attitudes to EI

This study sought to test two opposing views of the relationship between managers' perceptions of their own empowerment and attitudes to EI.

The first, based on Kanter's arguments, asserts managers with greater power will be more inclined to support employee involvement since they will feel less threatened by "empowered" subordinates, will be less inclined to see power as a scarce resource and hence less likely to hold to a zero-sum concept of power.

The opposing view argues that managers who see themselves as least empowered

will support EI for non-managers on the basis that they may benefit too in the devolution of power down the organisation.

The results support neither argument exclusively. The effect of managerial empowerment on intention to support EI is entirely mediated via attitudes (most significantly self efficacy). However, the effect is not linear. The managers who show least support for EI are those with moderate levels of empowerment. Both, managers who report high levels of own empowerment and those who report low levels of empowerment show greater support for EI than those with moderate levels of empowerment. This suggests that both hypothesised effects may be at work.

That is, managers who report high levels of own empowerment do, as hypothesised, support EI because they experience little threat to their own power. However, managers who report very low levels of own empowerment also support greater EI as they hope such initiatives will result in greater empowerment for themselves.

This study suffers from two limitations. Firstly, it is not possible to distinguish between individual effects and organisation level effects. For this sample of respondents, individuals cannot be grouped by organisation and hence detected relationships may be occurring either within or between organisations. Secondly, a number of the variables have a highly perceptual element. In particular, reported levels of non-managerial involvement in decision making are the judgement of managers not the targets of this involvement. Nonetheless, most of the independent variables studied are more objective. We might, for example, expect the use of formal EI practices, delayering, days training, management level, and management job loss to be more objectively reported.

Conclusions

The pattern of results from this study suggests middle level managers have been

scapegoats rather than saboteurs of EI initiatives. There are no significant differences in attitudes nor in behavioural intentions by managerial level. Further the results suggest that where managers do not actively support EI practices, this may be due as much to constraints on their behaviour as negative attitudes brought on by perceived threats to self-interest. These constraints are both at the organisational level (lack of alignment between performance measurement systems and EI goals) and at the individual level (lack of experience and competence).

The curvilinear relationship between managers own empowerment and attitudes toward EI is of considerable interest. As noted earlier, it is the managers who see themselves as moderately empowered who hold the most negative attitudes to EI. It is possible that these are the managers (rather than the completely unempowered) who are most likely to see power as a contested resource and hold a zero sum view of power. Further research might usefully shed more light on the relationship between managers' own empowerment and their attitudes to employee involvement. In the next chapter it is argued (and tested empirically) that the extent of common purpose in an organisation will moderate the relationship between managers' own empowerment and their support for EI.

The interplay between managers' perceptions of their own power and attitudes to new forms of organisation and management may yield insights into both the nature of power in organisations and organisational change processes. Other extensions of this research could examine the level at which these phenomena occur. To what extent are managers attitudes to employee involvement an individual phenomenon and to what extent are they determined at the level of the organisation though the effects of organisation systems and culture? The final study in this thesis uses multi-level modelling methods to address this question.

The results reported in this chapter have clear implications for practice. Managers in the middle levels should not be made scapegoats for failure to achieve benefits from employee involvement practices. Their attitudes to EI are as positive as those held by senior managers. Rather senior managers should pay attention to the constraints which may be acting on managers required to implement EI practices. Are performance management systems for managers working against the goals of employee involvement? Are middle managers' roles structured so that they have no time to develop and involve subordinates?

Negative attitudes to EI do exist among some managers at all levels. These seem less related to threats to self interest than to lack of experience and concern about own competence to manage employee involvement. In seeking to establish employee involvement, organisations need to provide opportunities for managers to see EI working, perhaps through visits to other organisations. Many managers will need sustained coaching and support to build confidence in their own ability to manage EI effectively.

The impact of training on willingness to support EI is not high, perhaps reflecting the lack of link between training programmes and the workplace in many organisations. In building managers' sense of self efficacy in relation to employee involvement the emphasis needs to be on development in its broadest sense not just on training.

If middle managers see themselves as only moderately empowered they may be inclined to a zero sum view of power. This suggests managers need to be the first targets of empowerment and involvement practices rather than just the implementors of involvement for their subordinates.

Finally, if employee involvement practices are to succeed, it can only be in a climate of shared goals and common interests. Managers who wish their organisations to

benefit from employee involvement practices need to pay attention to the mechanisms by which superordinate goals are generated and communicated and the interests of employees (including managers) are aligned with those goals.

The results reported in this chapter have advanced our understanding of the antecedents of managerial support for EI. The sample and methods chosen have allowed an exploration of both individual difference explanations of support for EI (eg. power, career and experience) and organisational context explanations (eg. existing EI, common purpose and appraisal systems). However, a number of important questions remain unanswered. What is the relationship between senior management reports of middle management resistance to EI and managers' self reported attitudes? Do relationships revealed in this study operate between individuals within the same organisation, or between organisations? That is, do the variables of interest affect individual support for EI or affect the overall climate of support for EI among managers in each organisation? In other words, is resistance to EI a phenomenon that is characteristic of individual managers and subject to individual difference explanations, or is resistance to EI among managers a characteristic of organisations which needs explanation at the organisation level? There also remain concerns about common method variance and percept-percept inflation of coefficients arising from the use of a single questionnaire instrument to collect data from single respondents in each organisation. The final study, reported in the next chapter uses a multi-level, multi-measure methodology to address these questions and concerns.

CHAPTER 6: STUDY 3 - ATTITUDES TO EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT, INDIVIDUAL OR ORGANISATIONAL PHENOMENA?

Summary

This chapter reports on a multi-level study of correlates of managerial support for EI. The principal goal of the study was to determine to what extent middle management support for EI arises out of individual differences and to what extent it is an organisation level phenomenon arising out of the organisational context. The studies reported in the two previous chapters suffer from a number of limitations. In particular, they rely on correlating responses from the same (individual) respondents and study 2 confounds individuals and organisations. The study reported in this chapter uses two questionnaire instruments and multiple informants in each organisation. Multi-level statistical techniques are used to identify the appropriate level of analysis for each relationship and to test cross level hypotheses. As in study 2, no significant difference was found between senior managers' and middle managers' attitudes to EI. Senior managers' reports of middle management resistance to EI were found to be only weak predictors of managers' self-reports of support for EI. However, reports of middle management resistance to EI were strongly related to middle managers' reports of their own empowerment and to lack of senior management support for EI. Support for EI was also found to be strongly related (at the organisational level) to existing levels of EI and to managers experience of EI. A positive relationship between managers' own levels of empowerment and support for EI was shown to be contingent on the existence of a climate of unitarist beliefs among managers in the organisation.

This chapter reports on an extension to two earlier studies (reported in chapters 4 and 5) concerning the correlates of management support for employee involvement practices. The principal goal of the study reported in this chapter was to understand whether management support for EI is mostly a function of individual differences or is more properly understood as a phenomenon at the organisation level, arising out of the organisational context. Can the level of management support for EI be understood as an organisational phenomenon or is it no more than the sum of individual attitudes to EI which differ principally between individuals?

Study 1 tested hypotheses concerning the impact and antecedents of middle management resistance to EI. Data were gathered at the organisational level from a single (senior management) informant in each company. Study 2 examined individual managers' attitudes and intentions concerning EI and tested hypotheses concerning antecedents of managers' support for EI. Tables 6.1 and 6.2 summarise the hypotheses tested and the results.

The results of the previous two studies are revealing but suffer from some significant omissions. In study 1, senior management informants were asked to form judgements concerning middle managers' attitudes to employee involvement and the extent to which middle management resistance had been a significant barrier to the success of employee involvement. Questions remain about the extent to which these senior managers are accurately judging middle managers' attitudes and behaviour or whether their perceptions are strongly influenced by other factors such as the need to find a scapegoat for failure.

In study 2, individuals and companies are confounded. Since it is not possible to

group individuals by organisation membership, it is not possible to test whether relationships exist at the organisational level or the individual level. This places limitations on the conclusions we may draw. For example, if the relationship between reported levels of employee involvement and the extent of shared organisational goals is at the individual level and not the organisational level we must conclude that the relationship is purely perceptual - individuals who perceive common goals are also inclined to perceive high levels of employee involvement in their organisation. On the other hand, if the relationship exists at the organisational level, we can be more confident in concluding that individual perceptions reflect a shared organisational understanding.

In the third study, questionnaires were completed by managers at all levels in twenty-seven of the study 1 companies. It is possible to test hypotheses concerning the appropriate level of analysis for the relationships revealed in study 1. It was also possible to test relationships between variables observed in study 1 at the organisational level and variables observed in study 3, from multiple managers within each organisation.

Table 6.1: Study 1 hypotheses	Whether confirmed
Hypothesis 1.1: Organisations that report middle management resistance to employee involvement will report lower benefits (both as to tangible output measures and employee attitudes) than those that report middle management support for employee involvement.	Confirmed
Hypothesis 1.2: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be lower where there is strong senior management support for EI.	Confirmed
Hypothesis 1.3: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be lower in organisations that have made changes to performance measurement and reward systems to align them with the goals of EI.	Confirmed
Hypothesis 1.4: Lower middle management resistance to EI will be reported in organisations that have decentralised resource control.	Joint effect confirmed - cannot be tested separately because of intercorrelation.
Hypothesis 1.5: Lower middle management resistance to EI will be reported in organisations that have taken action to improve internal communication and access to information.	Joint effect confirmed - cannot be tested separately because of intercorrelation.
Hypothesis 1.6: Lower middle management resistance to EI will be reported in organisations that have provided training and development activities for middle managers to support EI	Confirmed
Hypothesis 1.7: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be higher in organisations that claim employees and managers are experiencing change fatigue.	Confirmed
Hypothesis 1.8: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be higher in organisations that report middle managers to be experiencing high short term performance pressure	Confirmed
Hypothesis 1.9: Organisations in which EI initiatives have resulted in delayering and managerial job loss will report higher levels of middle management resistance to EI.	Confirmed

Table 6.2: Study 2 hypotheses	Whether confirmed
H2.1: There will be a significant positive correlation between the reported extent of shared organisational goals and interests, and reported levels of employee involvement.	Confirmed.
H2.2: Lower and middle managers will report less positive beliefs (normative, cognitive and self efficacy) concerning EI and lower intention to support EI than senior managers	Disconfirmed - there is no significant variation by grade level.
H2.3: Managers' cognitive beliefs in relation to EI will show a positive association with intention to support EI.	Confirmed
H2.4: Managers' normative beliefs in relation to EI will show a positive association with intention to support EI.	Confirmed
H2.5: Self efficacy beliefs in relation to EI will show a positive association with intention to support EI.	Confirmed
H2.6: Recent reduction in numbers of managers employed will be associated with less positive attitudes towards EI and hence lower intention to support EI.	Partially confirmed - Reduction in managers employed is associated with lower intention to support EI but there is no evidence that this relationship is mediated via attitudes to EI.
H2.7: Recent delayering will be associated with less positive attitudes towards EI and lower intention to support EI.	Disconfirmed - Recent delayering is associated with more positive attitudes to EI.
H2.8: Personal experience of EI will be associated with greater intention to support EI. This relationship will be mediated via self efficacy.	Confirmed
H2.9: Recent training in people management skills mediated via self efficacy beliefs will be associated with greater intention to support EI.	Disconfirmed

Table 6.2: Study 2 hypotheses	Whether confirmed
H2. 10: Perceived existing levels of non-managerial involvement in decision making will be positively related to greater intention to support EI. This relationship will be mediated via normative beliefs about EI	Partially confirmed - Existing levels of EI are positively related to intention to support EI and to attitudes but the effect seems to be mediated via the <i>difference between normative beliefs and perceived levels of EI</i> .
H2. 11: An organisational emphasis on developing subordinates and involving them in decision making in managers' performance review will be directly associated with managers' greater intention to support EI.	Confirmed
H2. 12: Managers own levels of empowerment will be positively associated with intention to support EI, mediated by beliefs concerning the impact of EI on their own power.	Disconfirmed. There is a significant curvilinear relationship.
H2. 13: Managers' positive assessment of their own career prospects will be positively associated with intention to support EI, mediated via beliefs concerning the impact of EI on managerial power.	Partially confirmed - career prospects are positively related to intention to support EI, but the relationship is not mediated via beliefs concerning EI.
H2. 14: Shared organisational goals and low conflict will be associated with higher intention to support EI, mediated via managers beliefs concerning the effectiveness of employee involvement.	Disconfirmed

Are the results of study 1 due to common method variance?

In study 1, results suggested an inverse relationship between reported middle management resistance to EI and outcomes of employee involvement (both productivity improvements and employee attitudes). A key question concerns the extent to which senior management reports of middle management resistance to EI reflect middle managers' attitudes. Hence the following hypotheses were tested in the third study:

H3.1: There will be a positive correlation between the level of reported middle management resistance (study 1) and the company level mean of managers' self reported attitudes toward EI (study 3).

H3.2: There will be a positive correlation between positive outcomes of EI (study 1) and the company level mean of managers' self reported attitudes toward EI (study 3).

In study 1, the strongest predictor of reported middle management resistance to EI was whether the same respondent perceived low or divided senior management support for EI. Is this relationship the product of common method variance (ie. due to a spurious correlation caused by measuring each variable with common questionnaire instrument administered to the same individual at the same time)? If the relationship could be shown to hold when middle management resistance/attitudes to EI and senior management support for EI are measured using separate instruments, completed by different respondents, common method variance would be of less concern. It is also useful to examine whether management attitudes and senior management support as reported by managers in study 3 are related at the organisational level. (If the relationship holds principally within companies, then all that can be concluded is that individuals who

perceive senior management support for EI tend to have more favourable attitudes to EI. If the relationship holds at the between-company level, this implies that there is a more favourable climate of support for EI among managers with a shared perception of senior management support for EI. In other words, the relationship exists outside the minds of the individual respondents). Hence the following hypotheses are tested:

H3.3: There will be an inverse correlation between the level of reported middle management resistance (study 1) and the company level mean of reported senior management support for EI (study 3).

H3.4: There will be a positive correlation between the reported level of senior management support for EI (study 1) and the company level mean of managers' self reports of their attitudes towards EI (study3).

H3.5: There is a positive correlation between managers' reports of senior management support for EI (study 3) and managers' self reported attitudes to EI (study 3). This relationship will be significantly stronger between groups than within groups.⁸

Study 2 and the problem of level of analysis.

In study 2 a key problem with the interpretation of results is the confounding of individuals and organisations. The present study examines many of the same variables but offers the opportunity for aggregation of variables at the company level. It is thus possible

⁸Hypotheses 1.4 to 1.8 from study 1 (see table 6.1) are not examined in this fashion since the present study, with only 27 organisation level data points, has insufficient power to detect effects of the size found for these hypotheses in study 1. It could also be argued that the variables of interest in these hypotheses are less subject to individual perceptual error.

to extend these hypotheses to examine both the direction of relationships and the level of analysis at which they occur.

In the previous chapter, it was argued that EI practices are based on an assumption of shared superordinate goals. Giving more influence over decisions to employees will only lead to more effective achievement of management goals if those goals are held in common with the workforce. In consequence, it was argued, EI practices are more likely to be initiated (and retained) in organisations with low internal conflict and shared goals. The significant correlation between EI practices and extent of common purpose in study 2 supports this argument. However, this finding could be a product of common method variance (ie. mostly perceptual; perceptions of common purpose and employee involvement are both part of an overall “positive affect”). If the relationship is perceptual, we would expect the covariation to exist within companies rather than between them. If however, it can be shown that the relationship between common purpose and employee involvement exists at the company level of analysis using measures from different respondents and different questionnaires the common method variance explanation is less plausible. Hence this study tests:

H3.6: Study 1 measures of use of EI practices will show a positive correlation with the company level means of managers' reports of the extent of common purpose within their companies.

H3.7: There will be a positive correlation between managers' reports of common purpose and employee involvement in decision making. The between-company correlation will be significantly higher than the within-company correlation.

In study 2, It was hypothesised that managers would show less support for EI, out of a concern for their self interest, where there had been recent delayering or job loss. The study 2 data showed an inverse relationship between job loss and support for EI but a positive correlation between delayering and support for EI. Again, it is valuable to test whether these relationships are replicated in the present study and whether they hold at the level of the company and are not simply individual perceptual effects.

H 3.8: There is a significant negative correlation between mean company attitude towards EI and recent job loss and a significant positive correlation between mean company support for EI and recent delayering.

Study 2 examined four separate measures of attitude to EI and a measure of intent to support EI. With only 27 companies there are insufficient degrees of freedom to examine complex relationships at the company level. In order to reduce the complexity of models the five measures have been combined into one overall measure of attitudes towards EI (see measures section.)

Study 2 found no significant variation in attitudes to EI by management level. In this study it is possible to use a stronger test - do managers' attitudes to EI vary by management level within companies? Hence this study tests:

H3.9: There will be a significant within-companies correlation between management level and support for EI.

The strongest predictor of positive managerial attitudes towards EI in study 2 was the perceived extent of existing employee involvement. Managers were most favourably disposed towards EI where they reported high levels of existing employee involvement

in decision making. Again, unless it can be shown that this relationship holds at the organisational level of analysis rather than the individual, we must suspect the relationship to be purely perceptual. Hence this study tests:

H3.10: There will be a significant positive correlation between managers' attitudes toward EI and the extent of existing employee involvement. The between-companies correlation will be significantly higher than the within-companies correlation.

A key question which study 2 was unable to address is whether individual variation in identified antecedents of management attitudes towards EI affects individual attitudes, or the overall climate of support for EI within organisations. For example, does individual experience of EI affect only the attitudes toward EI of that individual, or is there a more general effect whereby an overall climate of support for EI is engendered by the pool of experience of EI within the group?

Hence this study tests:

H3.11: Personal experience of EI will be positively related to managers' favourable support for EI. This relationship will hold within companies rather than between companies.

H3.12: Recent training in people management skills will be positively related to managers' support for towards EI. This relationship will hold within companies rather than between companies.

H3.13: Favourable career prospects will be positively related to managers' support for EI. This relationship will hold within companies rather than between companies.

Managerial empowerment and support for EI

Study 2 data revealed a curvilinear relationship between managers' assessment of their own levels of empowerment and their support for EI. Managers who reported moderate levels of own empowerment showed lower support for EI than either those with low or high levels. The original hypothesis in study 2 was that managers who saw themselves as most empowered would be most inclined to support EI. This follows Kanter's argument that

“. . . only those leaders who feel secure about their own power . . . can see empowering subordinates as a gain rather than a loss.”
(Kanter, 1979, p73)

However, as argued earlier, leaders may feel secure in their power and still resist empowering subordinates if they believe their subordinates to be motivated to pursue different goals to themselves. Kanter's proposal might then be contingent on the extent of commonly held organisational goals. If the relationship between managerial empowerment and support for EI varies across organisations according to the extent to which there are shared superordinate goals, then this might account for the observed curvilinear relationship in a sample in which individuals and organisations are confounded. We might describe organisations with high levels of common purpose as having a “unitarist climate” and those with low levels of common purposes having a “pluralist climate”. It follows that we would expect to find both higher overall support for EI and a stronger positive relationship between managerial empowerment and support for EI in a unitarist climate than in a pluralist climate. Hence this study tests:

H3.14: The relationship between managerial empowerment and favourable attitudes towards EI will be moderated by the extent of shared

organisational goals such that in organisations with low levels of shared organisational goals (pluralist) there will be a low or inverse relationship and in organisations with high levels of shared organisational goals (unitarist) there will be a significant positive relationship. There will be a positive relationship at the company level between managers' reports of the extent of common purpose and the level of favourable attitudes towards EI.

Sample

In study one, 155 companies responded to a survey examining outcomes of employee involvement and the extent to which middle management resistance to employee involvement had been a barrier to success. This study relied on responses from one senior manager in each organisation. Companies were approached a second time and asked to distribute questionnaires to a cross-section of managers in their organisation.

Twenty-seven companies agreed to take part in the follow-up study. In seeking agreement from companies to conduct the follow up study, the author made efforts to ensure the companies recruited showed significant variation in reported use of EI practices and reported middle management resistance to EI. Examination of responses from the first study showed no significant differences between the follow-up sample and the rest in use of employee involvement practices, reported experience of middle management resistance or employee involvement outcomes. Since there was a gap of up to 6 months between completion of the study 1 survey and the study 3 survey, study 1 respondents were sent a copy of the study 1 questionnaire and asked to complete it again if they felt any of their answers would have changed materially (four made changes to their responses, principally concerning the use of particular EI practices).

The number of managers sampled in each organisation was a function of organisation size and the agreement reached with that organisation. Companies were asked to distribute questionnaires to a representative sample of at least 10 managers covering all grade levels. Companies with fewer than 10 managers were asked to distribute questionnaires to all managers. Table 6.3 sets out the detail of the sample composition. A total of 975 questionnaires were distributed. 482 were returned giving an overall response rate of 49%. Within company response rates varied from 22% to 100%. The companies come from the retail, pharmaceutical, automotive and public utility sectors.

While the absolute numbers of responses in some companies are low, and this will reduce the power of some tests, this is not of great concern for the analysis. The multi-level methods used for analysis use all the available data, but give greater weight to data from companies with greater number of responses. The most important concern in relation to the sample is whether the sampling process has led to any systematic bias in the results. First, do the 27 companies in this study vary in any pertinent systematic fashion from the larger sample they are drawn from? Second, do the respondents in the present sample drawn from each company differ in any pertinent systematic fashion from the population of managers in their company?

On the first point, there is no significant difference in means or variances for the variables measuring middle management resistance to EI or extent of use of EI practices between the larger sample and the 27 stage 3 companies. On the second point, we cannot rule out some degree of non-response bias. However, the response rates within companies are reasonably good (22% to 100%, mean 49%), which reduces concern about non-response bias.

Table 6.3: sample characteristics and response rates

Company	Sector	No. employees	No. managers	Questionnaires distributed	Questionnaires returned	response rate
1	Automotive	140	6	6	6	100%
2	Automotive	140	5	5	2	40%
3	Automotive	180	25	25	11	44%
4	Automotive	180	5	5	4	80%
5	Automotive	281	25	10	4	40%
6	Automotive	300	30	10	6	60%
7	Automotive	350	14	14	8	57%
8	Automotive	450	10	10	3	30%
9	Automotive	600	52	30	13	43%
10	Automotive	750	40	40	13	33%
11	Automotive	2300	110	50	11	22%
12	Automotive	2500	200	50	22	44%
13	Pharmaceutical	270	20	10	4	40%
14	Pharmaceutical	500	45	20	16	80%
15	Pharmaceutical	1000	102	30	12	40%
16	Pharmaceutical	1500	145	50	33	66%
17	Pharmaceutical	1730	60	50	21	42%
18	Pharmaceutical	2600	400	50	15	30%
19	Retail	550	70	50	29	58%
20	Retail	8000	700	50	28	56%
21	Retail	35000	150	50	24	48%
22	Retail	38000	200	50	21	42%
23	Retail	43000	200	100	65	65%
24	Retail	51000	210	100	77	77%
25	Utility Company	520	40	40	11	28%
26	Utility Company	700	40	40	11	28%
27	Utility Company	6610	600	30	12	40%
Overall				975	483	49%

Measures

A number of measures at the organisational level were derived from the study 1 (S1) questionnaire which was completed by a single senior respondent (generally MD or HR director) in each company.

Company level Measures

Size (S1) "Approximately how many employees do you have in your company?";

Size change (S1) "By approximately what percentage has your workforce

increased or decreased over the last five years”;

Change in layers (S1) “How many layers of management has your company removed or added in the last five years?” . (Write in response under ‘removed’, ‘none’ or ‘added’);

Formal EI practices (S1): An index of formal employee involvement practices was simplified and adapted from Lawler *et al.*(1992). Respondents were asked to what extent their organisations’ use each practice (‘don’t use’, ‘use on a small scale’, or ‘make substantial use of’). The practices were: suggestion schemes; attitude surveys; team briefings; job enrichment; quality circles; consultative committees; self managing work teams; and small self contained business units. Definitions of each practice were given in a glossary that accompanied the questionnaire (see appendix B, p257).

Outcomes (S1): Respondents were asked to classify the extent to which they had experienced seven possible outcomes of employee involvement on a three-point scale (Little or no extent, moderate extent, or a great extent). The outcomes were chosen, on the basis of the literature and interviews in 12 organisations using EI practices, as the outcomes most frequently associated with EI. Factor analysis in study 1 revealed two principal factors productivity improvements(4 items, $\alpha = .91$)and employee attitude improvements (3 items, $\alpha = .85$).

Middle management resistance to EI (S1) “Most middle managers in this organisation demonstrate a belief in participative management” (R); “Many middle managers show anxiety about the impact of greater employee involvement on their own roles”; “Many middle managers in this organisation show enthusiasm for increasing employee involvement”(R); “Middle managers in this organisation show a great deal of cynicism about employee involvement”; “Many middle managers in this organisation see

increased employee involvement as contrary to their interests". (All scored on a five-point scale from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'). "To what extent are the following barriers to the implementation of greater levels of employee involvement in your organisation? ... Middle management resistance." (Scored on a 3-point scale: Little or no extent; moderate extent; great extent). A glossary included with the questionnaire stated that " 'Middle manager' refers to any manager below the most senior tier of management, but not including individuals with first line supervisory responsibility who have no career path to higher management levels." Factor analysis shows the questions load on a single factor. Scale alpha =0.83.

Senior management support (S1)- "Senior managers in this organisation see EI as vital to our success"; "Senior managers in this organisation disagree about the value of EI"(R); "Senior managers in this organisation are strongly committed to participative management" (five point scale "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree"); "Lack of clear support/ agreement among senior managers [has been a barrier to the effective introduction of EI]"(R) (three point scale - "little or no extent to a great extent"). $\alpha=0.74$.

Individual level measures

Other measures were collected via a questionnaire completed by multiple managers at all levels in each company (Study 3).

Own level (S3): "How many levels of management are there above you, up to and including Managing Director?" (Write level number)".

Experience of EI (S3): Single item: "How much experience have you had personally of initiatives which have given people reporting to you significant involvement in decisions about their work?" (Five-point scale from 'none' to 'a great deal').

Employee involvement in decision making (S3): In this paper employee

involvement has been defined as *"The effective exercise, by employees, of influence over how their work is organised and carried out."* As in study 2, this has been operationalised by asking to what extent employees exercise influence over a number of decision categories. Levels of non-managerial involvement in decision making were assessed by asking respondents how much involvement non-managerial employees have in 7 categories of decision on a five-point scale from 'none' to 'a very great deal' (see study 2 for items). The scale was calculated by taking the mean score over the seven items ($\alpha=.88$). **Career prospects (S3)**; a two-item measure of perceived career prospects was used: "I have good opportunities for career development" (scored 'strongly disagree' to strongly agree'); "How likely do you think you are to be promoted in the next five years" (five-point scale, very unlikely to very likely). $\alpha=0.71$.

Training (S3); Single item, "Approximately how many days training have you had in people management skills (eg. giving feedback, coaching, motivation, goal setting) in the last three years?"

Managerial empowerment (S3); As in study 2, this was assessed as the extent to which respondents have control over resources, access to information and discretion in how they carry out their work. To strengthen this measure three questions were added for the present study concerning respondents' influence over major decisions. To keep the questionnaire short a number of items were also dropped from the study 2 measure. Access to information and control over resources was measured with items adapted from Quinn and Staines's (1979) resource adequacy scale. Discretion was measured with Beehr's (1976) autonomy scale. Decision making influence was measured by asking how much influence respondents have over three generic categories of managerial decision. Items were as follows: **Resource adequacy**; "I could perform my job more effectively with

better access to information" (R); "I could do a much better job with better control over resources". **Discretion** - "I have a lot of say over what happens in my work"; "My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own authority"; "I have enough authority to do my job most effectively". (All scored on a 5-point scale 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'.) **Decision making influence** - "Please indicate the amount of influence you have over the following types of decisions. . .A) Major resource allocation decisions (eg. Major capital expenditure or large promotional outlays). . . B) Organisational redesign/restructuring. . .C) Entering or exiting major markets". Factor analysis revealed that all items loaded on the same factor (eigenvalue 3.47, 43% explained variance). The scale was calculated as the mean of all items, with negatively worded items reversed. $\alpha=0.81$.

Common purpose (S3): Three items were used to assess the extent to which respondents saw unity of purpose among members of their organisations: "There is a lot of conflict of interest between managers and non-managers in this organisation"(R); "There is a lot of conflict of interest between different departments/ functions in this organisation" (R) and "Members of this organisation mostly share the same goals" (scored 'strongly disagree' to strongly agree'). $\alpha=0.70$.

Senior management support (S3) - "Top management in this organisation see employee involvement as vital to our success"; "Top managers in this organisation disagree about the value of employee involvement"(R)" (scored 'strongly disagree' to strongly agree'). $\alpha=0.77$

Attitudes to EI: In study 2, respondents' attitudes to employee involvement were assessed using items intended to tap normative beliefs, beliefs concerning the outcomes of EI, and self efficacy in relation to EI. Factor analysis of these attitude items was carried

out in study 2 using the Maximum Likelihood procedure and Varimax Rotation. Four attitude factors were identified (table 5.2): Normative- belief that non-managerial employees should be involved in decision making; Cognitive 1 - belief that EI leads to effective decisions and good relationships; Cognitive 2- belief that EI leads to loss of power; and Self efficacy. In the same study, respondents' self report of behavioural intentions to actively support EI was assessed(Intention to support EI).

In the present study relationships are modelled at the organisational level of analysis. With only 27 organisations in the study there are insufficient degrees of freedom to support the testing of complex models. Hence the items from the four EI attitude scales and the intention to support EI scale were pooled into a common measure of the respondents' overall attitude towards EI.

Items were: "How much involvement do you think employees should have in making decisions about each of the following: the way work is done; speed of work; determining quality/service standards; determining how quality/service standards will be achieved; planning and scheduling of work; hiring new recruits they will work with; allocation of tasks and responsibilities within their work group" (each decision category was rated on a 5-point scale from 'little or none' to 'a very great deal'); "Many organisational problems disappear when everyone has the opportunity to participate in decision making"; "Participation usually results in effective decisions"; "Employee involvement gives too much power to subordinates"(R); "Participative decision making often requires divulging too much confidential information" (R); "Subordinates often cannot be trusted"; "I am very confident in my ability to manage effectively in a climate of high employee involvement"; "I would find it hard to manage well in a highly participative style"; "Participative management comes naturally to me"; "I give high

priority in my work to increasing levels of employee involvement”; “I encourage other managers to support employee involvement initiatives”(all scored on a five-point scale from ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’). Factor analysis reveals that this pooled scale captures 29% of item variance. This pooled scale has been labelled **EI Attitude** ($\alpha=0.83$).

Procedure

*“I shoot the Hippopotamus
With bullets made of platinum,
Because if I use leaden ones
His hide is sure to flatten ‘em.”
(Hillaire Belloc, *The Hippopotamus*)*

The hypotheses in this study call for attention to variables at both the individual and company level. Individual variables are aggregated to the company level by taking the mean value for each company.

A number of methods are available for the analysis of multi-level data. First, it is possible to discount the organisational level and pool individual responses from all companies. Ordinary least squares (OLS) regression could be used to model relationships among the individual level variables. Variables collected at the organisational level could be dealt with by setting them to the same level for respondents from the same company. This has two major problems. First, the significance of regression coefficients for the organisation level variables is overestimated since they have significantly fewer degrees of freedom than coefficients of individual level variables. Second, the significance of regression coefficients for individual level variables is over estimated and estimates of those coefficients are subject to systematic bias (Nathan & Smith, 1989). This is because OLS regression assumes a sample population which is randomly selected from an underlying population and takes no account of any statistical interdependence of responses

within companies. This process also ignores possible heterogeneity of modelled relationships between companies; relationships which vary in strength or direction across companies may go undetected or effect sizes may be underestimated.

Aggregation: We could aggregate all responses to the company level and model all relationships at this level. This assumes aggregation is appropriate, and causes us to ignore within-company relationships and cross-level effects.

Within and between analysis (WABA; Dansereau, Alutto & Yammarino, 1989) seeks to identify the appropriate level of analysis for variables and relationships between them. WABA does this by partitioning the variances and covariances among measured variables into within-group and between-group components. The total correlation between two variables x and y can be represented as follows:

$$r_{Txy} = \eta_{Bx} \eta_{By} r_{Bxy} + \eta_{Wx} \eta_{Wy} r_{Wxy}$$

r_B is the between-groups correlation (calculated as the correlation between the group level means of x and y), r_W is the pooled within groups correlation (calculated by subtracting group means for x and y from individual values for x and y before calculating the bivariate correlation). η_{Bx} and η_{By} are the between etas for x and y respectively and η_{Wx} and η_{Wy} are the corresponding within etas. The between eta for a variable is the correlation of the raw scores for the variable with the group mean scores for that variable. The within eta is the correlation of the raw scores with deviations from group means. Hence the between eta squared represents the proportion of the variance in a variable that occurs between groups. The within eta squared represents the proportion of variance that occurs within groups.

WABA is based on the premise that it is not possible to make an unambiguous

interpretation of the total correlation without examining all six terms in the above equation.

WABA I examines the within and between etas for each variable of interest to assess whether variance occurs mostly within groups, between groups or at both levels. (Yammarino and Markham, 1992) suggest that the purpose of this procedure is to choose unequivocally between the within-group or between-group levels of analysis. However, as George and James (1993) have pointed out, phenomena may occur at more than one level of analysis. The key issue here is to ensure that inappropriate aggregation does not lead to problems with restriction of range (Dansereau, Alutto & Yammarino, 1989 p184). An F statistic with J-1 and N-J degrees of freedom is calculated.

$$F = \frac{\eta^2_B}{\eta^2_w} \cdot \frac{N-J}{J-1}$$

N equals the number of individuals and J equals the number of groups. The significance of this F ratio indicates whether there is significant variation between groups in the variable under examination. The inverse of this ratio with N-J and J-1 degrees of freedom can be used to determine whether there is significant variation within groups. This procedure is the equivalent of an ANOVA analysis with the categories of the independent variable aligned with the group entities.

WABA II uses between and within correlations to assess whether covariation between variables occurs mainly between or mainly within groups. Tests of practical significance (A) and statistical significance (Z) are calculated to determine whether the relationship exists mainly between groups or within groups. The A statistic⁹ is a test of

⁹ $A = \cos^{-1}(|r_w|) - \cos^{-1}(|r_B|)$

practical difference between the within and between effects and is independent of degrees of freedom and may be interpreted as an angular difference between the two correlations (max 90° , min -90°). The 30° criteria for the A test allocates a parts condition (covariation principally within groups) if $A < -30^\circ$ (ie. the within-groups correlation is substantially greater than the between-groups correlation), a wholes condition (covariation principally between groups) if $A > 30^\circ$ (ie. the between groups correlation is substantially greater) and an equivocal condition if $-30^\circ < A < 30^\circ$ (both correlations are of similar size). A fourth condition is possible (null) where neither correlation achieves statistical significance. In the 30° test the wholes, parts and equivocal conditions are all allocated equal intervals. Similarly the 15° test is based on assigning the equivocal condition to the interval $-15^\circ < A < 15^\circ$. The argument for the 15° test is that the three intervals contain the same percentage of variance (WABA; Dansereau, Alutto & Yammarino, 1989). It is the 15° test I have chosen to use in the present study.

To test for the significance of a difference between correlations, it is necessary to use the Fisher transformation to approximate a normal distribution¹⁰. The normal significance tests for a Z distribution then apply.

Two key criticisms have been made of the WABA procedure (George and James, 1993; Vancouver, Millsap & Peters, 1994). First, WABA assumes within-groups effects do not vary significantly between groups. In calculating the within-groups correlation, the WABA procedure deviates each variable from its group mean and then takes the

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$$Z = \frac{\text{Tanh}^{-1}(r_w) - \text{Tanh}^{-1}(r_B)}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{(N-J-2)} + \frac{1}{(J-3)}}$$

correlation across the whole sample. This process is only valid if within group correlations do not vary significantly between groups. Second, in consequence WABA does not allow for testing of person \times group interaction effects. Hypothesis 3.14 refers to such a person \times group interaction. The within-groups relationship between *managerial empowerment* and *EI attitude* is hypothesised to be moderated by the company level aggregate of *common purpose*.

Hierarchical linear modelling (HLM) is a technique recently developed in educational research (Raudenbush & Bryk, 1988; Prosser, Rasbash & Goldstein, 1991). A linear model relating dependent and independent variables is assumed to operate across individuals within each group. Parameters of this model (eg. regression coefficients and constant terms) are allowed to vary across groups. Random variation and co-variation in these parameters can be modelled at the group level. So for example we can model *EI attitude* as a function of *managerial empowerment* within groups and model the intercept and slope of the within groups regression equation as second level variables which vary between groups. Model parameters are estimated using “iterative generalised least squares” techniques. A software package for this purpose, ML3, has been developed at the Institute of Education, London University (Prosser, Rasbash & Goldstein, 1991).

HLM has a number of advantages. Statistical interdependence within groups is explicitly modelled. Data from both the individual and group levels are used. The effects of unsystematic sampling error are separated from systematic group level effects. In estimating coefficients within groups all the data are relied on, so that coefficients in groups with small numbers of responses are drawn somewhat toward the group mean. Finally, importantly for this study, HLM allows us to study cross-level effects.

HLM is, therefore, of particular value in studying cross-level effects or in correctly

assessing individual level effects from a clustered or stratified sample.

For the purposes of this study HLM has some disadvantages. First, unlike WABA, it says little explicitly about the appropriate level of analysis. Second, there are some practical problems in model estimation: with only 27 organisations there is a limit to the complexity of relationships which can be modelled at the group level. In particular, the software is unlikely to achieve a stable solution to models with more than 3 group level coefficients unless there are more than 50 groups (Prosser, Rasbash & Goldstein, 1991). In practice, this means that HLM does not offer the opportunity of examining group-level effects effectively in the present study.

Both WABA and HLM were used in this present study. WABA was used to identify the appropriate level of analysis for each modelled relationship and to test hypothesis concerning the direction and level of relationships between variables. HLM was used to check for the presence of cross-level relationships to ensure the use of WABA is appropriate, and to test hypothesis 3.14 which concerns a cross-level relationship. HLM was carried out using the ML3 package. WABA calculations were carried out with a spreadsheet model constructed by the author on the basis of equations given by Dansereau, Alutto & Yammarino (1989).

Results

Hypotheses 3.1 to 3.4 focus on the relationship between variables measured at the company level in study 1 and aggregated individual variables measured in the present study. Table 6.4 shows the (company-level) correlations between the variables.

Hypothesis 3.1 is supported. Middle management resistance to EI as reported by the senior management respondent is significantly correlated with managers' self-report

of attitudes to EI.¹¹ However, while the correlation (-.36) is significant it is not large. The results do not support hypothesis 3.2. The correlations between managers self-reports of attitude towards EI and positive outcomes from EI are in the hypothesised direction but low and non-significant.

Hypothesis 3.3 is supported. There is a significant inverse correlation (-.50) between the senior management respondent's report of middle management resistance to EI (S1) and managers' aggregate reports of senior management support for EI (S3).

Hypothesis 3.4 is supported. Senior management support for EI (S1) is significantly related ($r=.36$) to the company level aggregate of managers' self reported attitudes towards EI (S3).

Hypothesis 3.5 is supported. There is a significant correlation ($r=.70$; $p<.001$) between senior management support for EI (S3) and EI attitude(S3) at the between companies level. WABA analysis confirms that the appropriate level of analysis is between companies.

A number of other relationships revealed by the correlations in table 6.4 are worth noting. The two different measures of senior management support for EI are significantly correlated ($r=.41$). The company level aggregate of managers' own empowerment (S3) shows a strong relationship with the senior management respondent's reports of both middle management resistance to EI(S1) ($r=.63$) and senior management support for EI (S1)($r=-.62$). While middle management (self reported) attitudes to EI are not related to the (senior management) reported success of EI initiatives senior management support for EI (as reported by both groups) shows a significant relationship with positive outcomes of EI.

¹¹This result remains unchanged if senior managers are removed from the study 3 sample).

Table 6.4: Between organisation correlations.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Middle management resistance to EI	2.42(.76)								
2. Senior management support	-.93***	3.89(.66)							
3. Productivity improvements	-.35*	.49**	2.12 (.72)						
4. Employee attitude improvements	-.59**	.73***	.83***	2.02(.77)					
5. EI attitude	-.36*	.32*	.11	.15	3.52(.26)				
6. Managerial empowerment	.63***	-.62***	.02	-.18	.36*	2.83(.44)			
7 Common purpose	-.46*	.30†	.12	-.04	.63***	.26†	3.09(.32)		
8. Employee involvement in decision making	-.20	.12	.19	.15	.86***	.26†	.69***	2.28(.56)	
9. Senior management support for EI	-.50**	.41*	.25†	.36*	.70***	.01	.70***	.71***	3.42(.49)
Means and standard deviations of company level variables shown on diagonal. † p < 0.10 * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01 (1 tailed, 25 df.)									

We can summarise these results as follows: senior management perceptions of middle management resistance to EI are weakly predicted by middle managers' own reported attitudes to EI. They are however more strongly related to middle managers' self-reports of their own empowerment and inversely related to senior management support for EI as reported by both the senior management respondent and middle managers. (Middle managers who perceive themselves to be the most powerful are seen as most resistant to EI by senior management respondents). It is senior management support for EI, rather than middle managers' support for EI, which is significantly related to positive outcomes of EI initiatives.

Hypotheses 3.6 and 3.7 concern the relationship between the extent of common purpose and the extent of employee involvement. Table 6.5 shows the correlations between use of EI practices and the company level measure of common purpose. Table 6.5 also shows the correlations between EI practices employed by companies and managers' assessments of the extent to which non-management employees are involved in decision making.

Hypothesis 3.6 is partially supported. There is a significant correlation between self-managing work teams, small business units and attitude surveys and the company-level measure of common purpose. We can see from the same table that it is self-managing work teams and small business units which show a significant correlation with managers' perceptions of the level of employee involvement in decision making.

A WABA analysis of the relationship between managers' reports of the extent of non-managerial employee involvement in decision making and the extent of common purpose was also carried out. The F statistics for employee involvement and common purpose were 18.3 ($p < 0.001$) and 2.70 ($p < 0.05$) respectively, implying significant

variation at the company level. The correlation within companies was 0.22 and between companies was 0.69. Both the A test (15th) of practical significance and the Z test of statistical significance implied a wholes condition (ie. the relationship holds between rather than within companies). This supports hypothesis 3.7. The result from study 2 of a relationship between the extent of common purpose and the level of employee involvement is also supported in the present study and can be seen to hold at the organisational level of analysis.

Table 6.5: Between-company correlations (N=27)	Non managerial involvement in decision making (company mean)	Common purpose (company mean)
Suggestion schemes	-0.15	-0.09
Attitude surveys	0.18	0.34*
Team briefings	-0.04	-0.13
Job enrichment	-0.06	0.05
Quality circles	0.19	0.21
Consultative committees	-0.09	-0.22
Task force teams	0.23	0.04
Self managing work teams	0.37*	0.29†
Small self contained business units	0.39*	0.40*

† p < 0.10 * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01 (1 tailed significance with 25 degrees of freedom)

Hypothesis 3.8 is partially confirmed. There is a significant inverse relationship ($r = -.55$; $p < 0.01$) between the percentage change in numbers employed (in last three years) and management attitudes towards EI. There is no significant relationship between management attitudes and recent delayering.

WABA analysis¹² was used to test hypotheses 3.9 to 3.13 (see table 6.6).

Hypothesis 3.9 is not confirmed. As in study 2 no significant covariation is found between management level and attitudes to employee involvement. As we can see from the significant F value for management level, there is a significant variation in the average level of management respondents between companies. This is due (at least in part) to the difference in number of management layers between organisations.

Hypothesis 3.10 is confirmed. There is a strong between-company correlation between EI attitude and employee involvement in decision making. The between-company correlation ($r=.86$) is significantly higher than the within-company correlation ($r=.35$). There are also significant correlations between EI attitude and the use of task forces (.35; $p<0.05$), self-managing teams (.27, $p<0.10$) and small business units (.26, $p<0.10$) as measured in study 1.

Hypothesis 3.11 is partially confirmed. There is a significant relationship between managers' own experience of EI and EI attitude. However, the relationship is principally between companies ($r_b=.88$) rather than within companies ($r_w=.39$).

¹² First it was tested whether WABA was appropriate by checking whether the within company relationships varied significantly between companies. To do this, HLM was used entering EI attitude as the criterion variable and the other variables referred to in hypotheses 3.8 to 3.13 as explanatory variables. Then the variance across companies was estimated separately for each of the regression coefficients. Only the intercept term and the coefficient for managerial empowerment showed variance significantly different from zero.

Table 6.6: Within and Between Correlation Coefficients		Correlations with EI attitude (F=5.47***)	Z statistic Condition
Employee involvement in decisions F=18.33***	within	0.35 ***	4.38***
	between	0.86 ***	W
Career prospects F=2.51**	within	0.15 ***	-0.68
	between	0.00 ns	P
Common purpose F=2.70**	within	0.17 ***	2.73**
	between	0.63 ***	W
Senior management support for EI F=4.34***	within	0.23 ***	3.03**
	between	0.70 ***	W
Management level F=5.13***	within	-0.02 ns	0.35
	between	-0.10 ns	N
Own experience of EI F=3.14***	within	0.39 ***	4.64***
	between	0.88 ***	W
Training in people management skills F=1.47ns	within	0.20 ***	1.78*
	between	0.52 ***	W*

The appropriate condition; wholes, parts, equivocal or null was determined for each relationship using the 15^o A test. A Z statistic was calculated to determine if the within and between correlations are significantly different. (*W* - wholes condition (between companies relationship), *E* - equivocal condition (no practical or significant difference between within and between correlations), *P* - parts condition (within companies relationship, *N* - null condition (neither correlation is significant). * p 0.05, **p 0.01, *** p 0.001 (2 tailed probabilities, based on appropriate degrees of freedom for each statistic)

Hypothesis 3.12 is partially confirmed. There is a significant relationship between recent training in people management and EI attitude. However, the determination of level of analysis is impossible. While the between company correlation is significantly greater than the within correlation, the F statistic for 'Training' is non-significant, implying there is no significant variation in management training levels between organisations. This means that the high between-company correlation is likely to be due to a restriction of range effect.

Hypothesis 3.13 is confirmed. There is a significant correlation between career prospects and EI attitude within companies but no significant between company correlation.

HLM analysis was used to test hypothesis 3.14 Three questions arise from H14:

- 1) Is managerial empowerment related to EI attitude?

2) Adjusting for managerial empowerment, is the extent of common purpose related to EI attitude?

3) Does the relationship between managerial empowerment and EI attitude vary as a function of the extent of common purpose?

The model used is as follows: For each company there is assumed to be a separate linear relationship between managerial empowerment and EI attitude of the form

$$I) \quad Y_{ij} = B_{0j} + B_{1j} X_{ij} + e_{ij}$$

Where Y_{ij} and X_{ij} are the values of EI attitude and managerial empowerment respectively for the i^{th} respondent in the j^{th} company. B_{0j} and B_{1j} are regression coefficients (intercept and slope) for the j^{th} company. e_{ij} is a random error variable (individual level residual).

Now if we allow the regression coefficients to vary across companies, we can construct and test a second level model to answer questions 2 and 3.

To represent the hypothesised company level effects, we assume the regression coefficients in equation I) to be functions of the extent of *common purpose* (Z).

$$ii) \quad B_{0j} = \Gamma_{00} + \Gamma_{01} Z_j + u_{0j}$$

$$iii) \quad B_{1j} = \Gamma_{10} + \Gamma_{11} Z_j + u_{1j}$$

In order to facilitate interpretation of intercept terms, individual scores for managerial empowerment and common purpose were centred on their grand means. This means that Γ_{00} can be interpreted as the mean value of *EI attitude* across companies when *managerial empowerment* takes on its grand mean value. Γ_{10} can be interpreted as the mean regression coefficient (slope) for *managerial empowerment* across companies. Γ_{01} and Γ_{11} represent the rate of change for the intercept and slope respectively in relation to

the *common purpose* variable. The standard errors are also reported and used to determine significance.

Table 6.7: HLM results for variation of EI attitude regression on managerial empowerment with common purpose		
Intercept	Γ_{00} (Mean B_{0j})	3.53***
	SE Γ_{00}	0.04
	Γ_{01}	0.32*
	SE Γ_{01}	0.15
Slope	Γ_{10} (Mean B_{1j})	0.12***
	SE B_{1j}	0.03
	Γ_{11}	0.41*
	SE Γ_{11}	0.19
* $p \leq 0.05$, ** $p \leq 0.01$, *** $p \leq 0.001$		

The results of the HLM analysis are shown in table 6.7. The significant value for Γ_{11} implies that the company-level measure of *common purpose* moderates the individual level relationship between *managerial empowerment* and *EI attitude*.

The significant value for Γ_{01} implies that *EI attitude* is also positively related to *common purpose* at the company level. This confirms the finding from the WABA analysis.

The results confirm hypothesis 3.14. The extent of reported common purpose in an organisation both moderates the individual level relationship between *managerial empowerment* and attitudes towards EI and affects the overall level of favourable attitudes towards EI. Figure 6.1 shows the predicted regression lines for the minimum, average

and maximum observed levels of company level *common purpose*. The regression lines are plotted for the observed range of individual level *managerial empowerment*.

While the study 2 sample does not allow identification of within-company effects and hence cannot provide such a powerful test of hypothesis 3.14, with the large sample size ($N=1,114$) it seems likely that there should be some observable moderating effect of common purpose within the study 2 sample. The study 2 data were partitioned into three equal sets on the basis of the level of the *common purpose* variable and *EI attitude* was regressed on *managerial empowerment* separately for each subset of the data. The results are shown in table 6.8. As can be seen from the table, the variation in slope is as hypothesised. The proportion of variance explained is low and coefficients are either insignificant or barely significant in the Low and Medium common purpose conditions. This is unsurprising since we are trying to detect variation in a within-companies relationship using a sample in which individuals and companies are confounded.

Table 6.8: EI attitude regressed on managerial empowerment for different levels of common purpose (study 2 data)			
common purpose	intercept	slope	R ²
Low	3.74****	-.04	.004
Medium	3.68***	.05†	.006†
High	3.73***	.14**	.02**
† p≤0.10, * p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, *** p≤0.001			

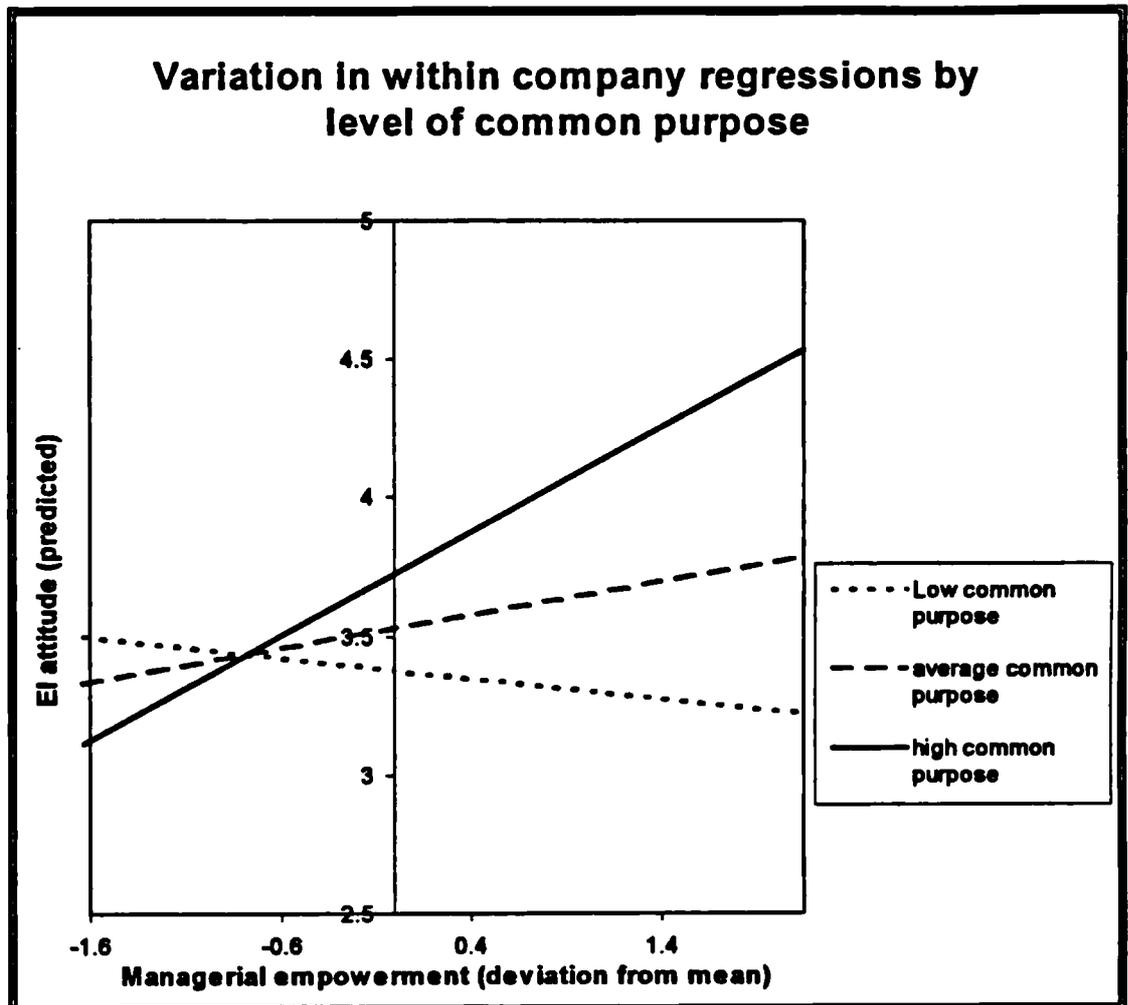


Figure 6.1: common purpose as a moderator of the relationship between managerial empowerment and support for EL.

Table 6.9, shows the use of moderated regression to examine the same effect. Again the effect is as hypothesised but only accounts for a small proportion of variance. [By comparison the R^2 in study 3, for the regression of *EI attitude* on *managerial empowerment* is 0.24 for the aggregate sample of the seven companies with the highest value for *common purpose*. This underlines the importance of an appropriate multi-level research design.]

Table 6.9: moderated regression - interaction of common purpose and managerial empowerment as predictors of EI attitude (study 2 data, N=1,114)		
	B	Change in R²
Managerial empowerment	.07**	.002
Common purpose	.00	
Managerial empowerment x Common purpose	0.08***	.016***
Constant	3.70***	
Total R ² =0.02. * p≤0.05, **p≤0.01, *** p≤0.001 Hierarchical regression: managerial empowerment entered first, then the interaction term.		

This analysis of the study 2 data provides some additional support for hypothesis 3.14, but also emphasises the importance of studying cross level effects with a multi-level sample.

Discussion

Reassessing study 1

The weak relationship between managers' self reported attitudes to EI and the senior management respondents' report of middle management resistance to EI must cause us to reassess the meaning of the study 1 results. If reported middle management resistance to EI is only weakly related to managers' attitudes to EI, what is being revealed by this measure of middle management resistance? There are significant clues in the nature of relationships with *senior management support for EI*, *EI attitude* and *managerial empowerment*. *Middle management resistance to EI* is strongly related to the company mean levels of *senior management support for EI* (inverse relationship) and *managerial empowerment*, as reported by managers in study 3. In other words, where the

senior management respondent perceives middle management resistance to EI, middle managers perceive lack of senior management support for EI.

Interestingly, it is the most empowered managers who are seen by the senior management respondents as most resistant to EI. If senior managers ascribe negative attitudes to EI to middle managers, it is perhaps the most powerful they will believe capable of the most effective resistance. Although, in general these (more empowered) managers report their own attitudes to EI as favourable.

While in study 1, middle management resistance to EI is related to less successful outcomes for EI practices, the study 3 results suggest that it is lack of senior management support rather than middle management attitudes which is related to less successful outcomes.

One explanation is that middle and senior managers are engaged in a mutual projective process. In the face of unsuccessful EI outcomes both tend to scapegoat the other (Adorno *et al.*, 1950). Neumann (1993) has argued (based on 30 case studies) that middle and first line managers are often scapegoated for failures of EI in a search for simplistic solutions to complex problems.

An alternative explanation, given the strong relationship between reported middle management resistance to EI and both measures of senior management support for EI, is that, when estimating others' attitudes and behaviour in relation to EI most managers (at any level), do not effectively distinguish between senior management and middle management support for EI. Rather, they form a general impression of a managerial climate of support for EI. It is this overall climate of support which predicts outcomes of EI.

Study 2 revisited

As in study 2, no significant relationship was found between managers' level in the hierarchy and attitudes to EI. Managers' attitudes to EI do not vary significantly by level. However, they do vary significantly between companies. As noted earlier, reports of senior management and middle management support for EI seem to be confounded. *Senior management support for EI* is related to *EI attitude* at the between-companies level rather than within companies. While there is variation in EI attitude at both the individual and company level, the company level variation accounts for a significant proportion of variance - 24% ($\eta_b^2=0.24$).

The correlations between EI practices and *common purpose* (table 6.5) support the claim that managerial practices, which rest on unitarist assumptions, will be more prevalent in companies where managers perceive higher levels of *common purpose*. The practices which show a significant relationship with the level of *common purpose* are *self-managing work teams*, *small self managing business units* and *employee attitude surveys*. *Self managing work teams* and *small self managing business units* are practices which require changes to the organisational core (see study 1: chapter 4) and are the practices which show a significant association with managers' reports of the level of *employee involvement in decision making*.

The reasons for the correlation between *employee attitude surveys* and *common purpose* is less clear. There is a high correlation ($r=.58$) between the use of attitude surveys and the use of small business units, in the present sample. It may also be the case that in organisations with low levels of common purpose, managers fear that an attitude survey would publicly surface results with implications for action which are inconsistent with their own agenda.

The extent of common purpose is also shown to be significantly related to positive attitudes towards EI at the aggregate company level (by both the WABA and HLM analysis). WABA analysis suggests the relationship occurs between, rather than within, companies. In other words the managerial climate of support for EI is more positive in organisations with a 'unitarist climate' than in those with a 'pluralist climate'.

These results are consistent with the view that managers will be more favourably disposed towards employee involvement (which will thus become more readily established) in organisations where managers hold unitarist rather than pluralist beliefs about the nature of organisational goals and internal conflicts of interest. The extent of *employee involvement* in decision making and managers' own *experience of EI* both show a strong between-organisations relationship to *EI attitude*. Organisations which have high existing levels of EI and a high level of experience of EI initiatives among their managers have more favourable climates of support for EI. That managerial *experience of EI* relates to *EI attitude* between rather than within-companies suggests that a manager's experience of EI affects the attitudes of other managers in the company. This perhaps implies that managers with experience of EI not only have more favourable attitudes to EI but they influence their peers to more favourable attitudes.

Of all the hypothesised antecedents of attitudes to EI, only *career prospects* shows a within-groups relationship to *EI attitude*. This effect was not significant in study 2. It seems that the relationship between *career prospects* and *EI attitude* is a 'frog-pond' effect (George, James & Lawrence, 1994); that is, it is managers' individual career prospects in relation to the career prospects of others in the same organisation that relate to support for EI. Managers who perceive their career prospects to be poor in comparison to other managers in their company are less favourably disposed towards EI.

Managerial empowerment and attitudes towards EI

Kanter (1979, 1982) has argued that it is the least powerful managers who are most resistant to EI. She argues (1979, p73) that the less powerful a manager is, the more likely that (s)he is to hold a zero-sum view of power and to see power as a scarce resource which can only be given to subordinates at the cost of the managers own control and influence. The results of the present study suggest that Kanter is right up to a point. Her thesis holds for organisations where managers hold unitarist beliefs.. However for organisations where managers hold strongly pluralist beliefs the reverse is true. Where managers see organisation goals as contested and report conflict across departments and between managers and non-managers, the most powerful are the least well disposed towards EI. In the context of contested goals a manager who empowers others risks them pursuing goals contrary to his/her own.

Conclusions

There are two broad sets of conclusions to be drawn from the present study: the first methodological, the second concerning managers attitudes to EI.

First, this study emphasises the value of studying organisational phenomena at multiple levels. In particular, only a cross-level analysis could draw out the variation in the within-company relationship between EI attitude and managerial empowerment. While this relationship was also revealed in a moderated regression using data where company and individuals were confounded, the size of the effect was significantly underestimated and would have been dismissed as of no practical significance without independent support.

Second, the results extend and refocus many of the findings from study 1 and 2 concerning the antecedents of managers attitudes towards EI.

There is no evidence across two large samples of a broad range of managers that middle managers are any more resistant to EI than senior managers. Given the large sample, the power to detect differences was high. There is some evidence for a relationship between the managerial climate of support for EI and its outcomes. However, the present study suggests the climate of support for EI among middle managers cannot be differentiated from the extent of senior management support.

One interesting finding of this study is that senior management respondents are more likely to perceive low support for EI where managers are more empowered. Certainly we would expect more empowered managers to be more able to resist initiatives they disliked. However, managers' self reports of attitudes to EI suggest organisations with greater levels of managerial empowerment have more favourable climates of support for EI. Perhaps these senior managers label as resistance what the middle managers themselves would call engagement and involvement in decisions about the form EI should take. Or perhaps, as Neumann (1993) has suggested, senior managers elect middle managers to carry the burden of failure rather than face the complexity and uncertainty underlying the failure of EI processes. At the very least, we must suspect that senior managers misinterpret behavioural signals from middle managers as resistance to EI which may only reflect organisational constraints on their behaviour.

While there is variation in attitudes to EI within companies (some of it related to managers own empowerment) there is also significant variation between companies. This reinforces a conclusion drawn from the study 2 results: that the extent of managers' support for EI is determined to a significant extent by constraints at the organisational level.

Finally, the findings concerning the impact of a climate of unitarist or pluralist

beliefs on the relationship between managers own empowerment and their support for EI and on the overall level of support for EI are important for both theory and practice.

Increasingly, the dichotomy between frameworks of analysis which rest exclusively on unitarist or on pluralist assumptions seems too simplistic (Guest, Peccei & Thomas, 1993). Many organisational phenomena may depend on the extent to which managers see their organisations in pluralist or unitarist terms. A more detailed understanding of how managers construe their environment in terms of power relationships and common or divergent goals may inform a more contingent view of organisational change processes and their outcomes.

CHAPTER 7: INTEGRATING THE STUDIES

This chapter compares the results from all three studies and draws conclusions from the common patterns of results and the apparent contradictions.

Is middle management resistance a key barrier to employee involvement?

What is the nature of the “resistance to EI” these studies have examined? Have the different studies been examining the same phenomena? This is a key question: study 1 relied on senior management reports of middle managers’ behaviour and attitudes towards EI, whereas studies 2 and 3 relied on managers’ self reports of attitudes and behaviour towards EI.

To address this question study 3 tested the following hypothesis:

H3.1: There will be a positive correlation between the level of middle management resistance (study 1) and the company level mean of managers’ self reported attitudes towards EI (study 3).

The hypothesis was confirmed, but the correlation revealed by the data was weak ($r=.36$: in other words one variable ‘explains’ $13\%=.36^2$ of variation in the other).

Middle management resistance, as measured in study 1, also shows a significant correlation with the (company level aggregate) extent of common purpose ($r=.46$); managerial empowerment ($r=.63$) and senior management support for EI ($r=.50$).

Senior managers’ reports of middle management resistance are associated with managers’ (self reported) attitudes to EI, but they are more strongly related to managers’ self reports of their own empowerment and (inversely to) managers’ reports of senior management support for EI.

It is this context that we need to re-examine the test of hypothesis 1.1.

H1.1: Organisations that report middle management resistance to employee involvement will report lower benefits (both as to tangible output measures and employee attitudes) than those that report middle management support for employee involvement.

H1.1 was confirmed, but the low correlation between reports of resistance and management attitudes requires a reassessment of the result. There are several possible reasons for the low correlation, principally:

- managers' attitudes towards EI are not, or are only partially, reflected in their behaviour;
- senior management respondents' attributions of middle management resistance to EI are not based on middle managers' actual behaviour;
- senior managers interpret as resistance, middle manager behaviours, which the middle managers themselves see as neutral or supportive to EI.

We are entitled to conclude, from study 1, only that senior managers often see middle management resistance as a barrier to effective EI. On the evidence of study 2 and 3 these perceptions may not be well founded. Study 3 tested the hypothesis (H3.2) of a significant correlation between reported outcomes of EI initiatives and managers' self reports of attitudes and behaviour towards those initiatives. No significant correlation was found. However, there was a significant correlation between all measures of senior management support for EI and reported outcomes.

In summary, there is some, albeit weak, evidence that middle management resistance to EI is related to less favourable outcomes and somewhat stronger evidence that senior management support for EI is related to more favourable outcomes.

A related question the research explored is whether middle managers are more

resistant to EI than senior managers.

Study 2 tested:

H2.2: Lower and middle managers will report less positive beliefs (normative, cognitive and self efficacy) concerning EI and lower intention to support EI than senior managers

and study 3 tested:

H3.9: There will be a significant within-companies correlation between management level and attitudes to EI.

Neither study found any significant variation, either in attitudes or self-reports of behaviour towards EI initiatives, by grade level. Both studies, having large samples, had high power to detect such differences. We should also note that in study 1, nearly as many respondents reported insufficient or divided support from senior managers to be a barrier to EI as reported middle management resistance to be a barrier. (Percentage reporting middle management resistance to be a barrier to EI (to a moderate or great extent) 60%, percentage reporting lack of senior management support to be a barrier 59%).

The relationship between middle management attitudes and senior management attitudes to EI.

Given the lack of significant difference between senior management and middle management attitudes towards EI the question arises: are senior management attitudes to EI a distinct phenomenon from middle management attitudes, or would it be more accurate to speak of an overall climate of management attitudes to EI?

Several tests were carried out of the relationship between senior management attitudes and middle management attitudes. Study 1 tested:

Hypothesis 1.2 : Reported middle management resistance to EI will be

lower where there is strong senior management support for EI.

Study 3 tested:

H3.3: There will be an inverse correlation between the level of reported middle management resistance (study 1) and the company-level mean of reported senior management support for EI (study 3).

H3.4: There will be a positive correlation between the reported level of senior management support for EI (study 1) and the company-level mean of managers' self reports of their support for EI (study3).

H3.5: There is a positive correlation between managers' reports of senior management support for EI (study 3) and managers' self-reported support for EI (study 3). This relationship will be significantly stronger between groups than within groups.

All four hypotheses were confirmed. The correlations were -.93 (H1.2), .70 (H3.5), -.50 (H3.3) and .32 (H3.4); all were significant at $p < 0.05$. The high correlation (-.93) between reports of senior management support for EI and middle management resistance to EI suggests that senior management respondents in study 1 do not effectively distinguish between them. The data broadly suggest that senior management and middle management support for EI are at least strongly related and, most likely, both part of the same broad climate of managerial support for EI. There are, however, significant differences in different actors' perceptions of the level of support for EI from both groups.

Organisational systems and middle management resistance

Several hypotheses tested arise out of a subsystem congruence framework for understanding organisational change (See page 88). Study 1 focused on the relationship between organisational subsystems and resistance to EI. The following hypotheses were tested:

Hypothesis 1.3: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be lower in organisations that have made changes to performance measurement and reward systems to align them with the goals of EI.

Hypothesis 1.4: Lower middle management resistance to EI will be reported in organisations that have decentralised resource control.

Hypothesis 1.5: Lower middle management resistance to EI will be reported in organisations that have taken action to improve internal communication and access to information.

Hypothesis 1.6: Lower middle management resistance to EI will be reported in organisations that have provided training and development activities for middle managers to support EI

Hypothesis 1.7: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be higher in organisations that claim employees and managers are experiencing change fatigue.

Hypothesis 1.8: Reported middle management resistance to EI will be higher in organisations that report middle managers to be experiencing high short term performance pressure

All these hypotheses were confirmed, except that hypotheses 1.4, 1.5 and 1.6 could not be tested independently of each other, nor could hypotheses 1.7 and 1.8. High multicollinearity meant that only the joint effect of these variables could be tested; within this constraint the relationship was as hypothesised.

Study 2 tested:

H2.11: An organisational emphasis, in managers' performance reviews, on developing subordinates and involving them in decision making will be directly associated with managers' greater intention to support EI.

As hypothesised, there was a significant relationship with intention to support EI. There was no relationship with any of the EI attitude measures. In other words, the results are consistent with emphasis on EI in managers' performance review affecting their behaviour but not their attitudes to EI.

Two separate studies then, using separate measures, at the organisational and at the individual level, offer some support for a subsystem congruence explanation of managerial resistance to EI/ support for EI

The effect of existing levels of employee involvement

As reviewed in chapter 2, one form of resistance may arise out of the formation of shared normative beliefs which serve to preserve the status quo. Miller and Rice (1967) described organisational groups defending outmoded task procedures because of concerns about upsetting group norms, and status, hierarchy and reward systems.

Study 1 tested:

H2.10: Perceived existing levels of non-managerial involvement in decision making will be positively related to greater intention to support EI. This relationship will be mediated via normative beliefs about EI

Study 3 tested:

H3.10: There will be a significant positive correlation between managers' attitudes towards EI and the extent of existing employee involvement. The between companies correlation will be significantly higher than the within companies correlation.

Hypothesis 2.10 was partially supported: perceived levels of non-managerial involvement in decision making are associated with normative beliefs about EI. There is a small direct association with intention to support EI. However, controlling for the effect of the normative attitude variable results in a negative regression coefficient for employee involvement in decisions. This may be interpreted as intention to support EI being dependent on the gap between perceived employee involvement in decisions and the respondent's ideal level of employee involvement.¹³

Hypothesis 3.10 was confirmed; there is a significant relationship between managers' attitudes to EI and the extent of existing EI. Further, this relationship occurs principally between companies, rather than within companies. The significant correlations between use of task forces, self managing teams, small business units (measured in study 1) and EI attitude (study 3) offers some reassurance that this relationship is not merely

¹³ This does not mean that the effect of existing levels of EI on behavioural intentions is not mediated via normative beliefs. Rather, that there is a direct negative effect of existing levels of EI on behavioural intentions and an indirect positive effect via normative beliefs.

perceptual.

Taken together these results suggest managers' attitudes to EI depend on existing levels of EI in their company. That the relationship occurs between rather than within-companies, suggests that attitudes depend on a shared perception (not just individual perceptions) of the extent of EI. The correlations with (independent) reports of the use of EI practices suggest the relationship is based, to some extent, on genuine rather than imagined levels of EI.

There is support then for an explanation of management resistance to EI as inertia. The evidence from study 3 (and to some extent study 2) suggests that this takes the form of shared beliefs in support of the status quo.

Job loss, delayering and attitudes to EI

One argument, discussed earlier(pp41-42), explains observed examples of middle management resistance to employee involvement as protective of their own interests (eg. Abbot, 1987; Brennan, 1991; Manz *et al*, 1990). Employee involvement initiatives are often associated with delayering and downsizing. Both can pose significant threats to the interests of managers via reduced job security and fewer opportunities for incremental job advancement.

Study 1 tested:

Hypothesis 1.9: Organisations in which EI initiatives have resulted in delayering and managerial job loss will report higher levels of middle management resistance to EI.

Study 2 tested:

H2.6: Recent reduction in numbers of managers employed will be

associated with less positive attitudes towards EI and hence lower intention to support EI.

H2.7: Recent delayering will be associated with less positive attitudes towards EI and lower intention to support EI.

Finally, study 3 tested:

H 3.8: There is a significant negative correlation between mean company attitude towards EI and recent job loss and a significant positive correlation between mean company attitude towards EI and recent delayering.

In study 1, delayering, loss of career opportunities and managerial job loss are confounded. The joint relationship of these variables on middle management resistance is as hypothesised. Middle management resistance is greater in organisations where there has been job loss and delayering.

In study 2, testing hypotheses concerning job loss and delayering separately was possible. Reduction in managers employed was associated with lower intention to support EI but not with attitude towards EI. Recent delayering was associated with *more favourable* attitudes towards EI.

Study 3 found a negative correlation between attitudes to EI (measured in study 3) and recent job losses (study 1). There was no significant relationship with delayering. However, as in study 1, delayering was confounded to some extent with downsizing, and there was little variation in extent of delayering across the sample of 27 companies.

The results from all three studies are consistent with recent job losses among managers leading to resistance to EI. However, two aspects of the results need further

consideration. First, where delayering could be considered separately from downsizing, it was related to more favourable attitudes to EI. Second, study 2 found managerial job loss to affect behavioural intentions but not attitudes.

One explanation of these results might be as follows: where delayering is not associated with job losses, greater spans of control for some managers create a context in which delegation of authority becomes more necessary. In these circumstances, managers perceive greater value in employee involvement as an aid to achieving their own goals. Further, delayering is a sign that there have been changes to the core structures of the organisation; a prescription of the subsystem congruence model. If we consider the impact of job loss on behaviour rather than attitudes, an alternative explanation to protection of self interest arises. It is possible that recent managerial job losses have increased managers' workloads to the point where support for EI initiatives is difficult rather than undesired. This is consistent with the finding in study 1 that reported middle management resistance was related to short term performance pressure.

The effect of career opportunities

Another threat to managers' self interest from EI might be a loss of career opportunities due to flatter organisational structures. Kanter (1979) has also argued that career plateaued managers feel most powerless and are least likely to support EI as they fear it will lead to loss of their own power. Study 2 tested:

H2.13: Managers' positive assessment of their own career prospects will be positively associated with intention to support EI, mediated via beliefs concerning the impact of EI on managerial power.

Study 3 tested:

H3.13: Favourable career prospects will be positively related to managers

favourable attitudes towards EI. This relationship will hold within companies rather than between companies.

H2.13 was partially confirmed; career prospects were positively related to intention to support EI but there was no relationship with beliefs about EI.

H3.13 was confirmed. However, in each case the size of the detected relationship was small and only explained a small proportion of the variance.

The effect of personal experience of EI

Self efficacy beliefs are reinforced by experience of success, and direct observation of others success (Bandura, 1977). It was hypothesised in study 2 that managers with experience of EI would be more confident in their ability to manage employee involvement and so more likely to support EI. Study 2 tested:

H2.8: Personal experience of EI will be associated with greater intention to support EI. This relationship will be mediated via self efficacy.

Personal experience of EI was associated with greater intention to support EI. The effect was mediated via self-efficacy beliefs and belief in the effectiveness of EI.

Study 3 also tested the relationship between personal experience and attitude towards EI.

H3.11: Personal experience of EI will be positively related to managers' favourable attitudes towards EI. This relationship will hold within companies rather than between companies.

The relationship between experience and attitude was as hypothesised. However, the relationship was found to hold principally at the between-company level of analysis. In other words, the level of managers' experience of EI across the company was related to the climate of support for EI. An individual manager's experience affected not only his

or her attitude but the attitudes of those around them.

The effect of training

It was common for managers in the pilot study to talk of management training as a solution to overcoming resistance to EI. The reasoned action theory of motivation and social learning theory would both suggest that managers will be more likely to support EI if they believe themselves competent to carry out EI initiatives.

Study 1 tested:

Hypothesis 1.6: Lower middle management resistance to EI will be reported in organisations that have provided training and development activities for middle managers to support EI

Study 2 tested:

H2.9: Recent training in people management skills mediated via self efficacy beliefs will be associated with greater intention to support EI.

Study 3 tested:

H3.12: Recent training in people management skills will be positively related to managers' favourable attitudes towards EI. This relationship will hold within companies rather than between companies.

The evidence for any effect of training on attitudes was weak in all three studies. Hypothesis 1.6 could not be adequately tested in study 1 as training was confounded with decentralisation and improvements in communication (the joint effect of these was related to lower resistance to EI). No significant effect was found in study 2, and a weak effect found in study three seems likely to be due to restriction of range (insufficient variation in one variable leading to a spurious correlation).

Common purpose and the use of EI

Drawing on arguments about the preconditions for the operation of a non-zero-sum model of power, it was proposed that EI practices would be most effective and therefore most common in organisations with low internal conflict and a high degree of common purpose. Study 2 tested:

Hypothesis 2.1: There will be a significant positive correlation between the reported extent of shared organisational goals and interests, and reported levels of employee involvement.

This hypothesis was confirmed. However, the extent of common purpose and employee involvement are reported by the same respondent in study 2. This leads to a concern that the revealed relationship is purely perceptual. Study 3 addressed this concern in three ways. First, the extent of common purpose was estimated from the aggregate response of multiple managers in each company. Second, measures of the extent of EI (use of EI practices) were taken from the study 1 respondent and correlated with the aggregate measures of common purpose from the study 3 instrument.

H3.6: Study 1 measures of use of EI practices will show a positive correlation with company level means of managers' reports of the extent of common purpose within their companies.

H3.6 was confirmed for self managing work teams, small self contained business units and attitude surveys. If the relationship between the study 3 measure of common purpose and the study 3 measure of the extent of EI was purely perceptual, we would expect the relationship to occur at the individual level. Hence study 3 tested:

H3.7: There will be a positive correlation between managers' reports of

common purpose and employee involvement in decision making. The between company correlation will be significantly higher than the within company correlation.

The hypothesis was confirmed. This relationship holds principally at the between-company level, suggesting that this is more than just an individual perceptual effect.

The measures of EI practices are well anchored (use or non-use of an EI practice) and unlikely to suffer from major perceptual bias. However, it is not clear from these results whether the extent of common purpose exists only in the minds of the respondents. Although the relationship has been shown to occur at the between company level, we cannot rule out a shared management misperception of the extent of common purpose. It is possible, for example, that non-managers would have a different view about the extent of common purpose. (Indeed, there is a small but significant tendency for more senior managers to give higher estimates than more junior managers of the extent of common purpose in their organisation.)

Does this invalidate the conclusions? We are at least entitled to conclude that *managers' beliefs* about the extent of common purpose are related to the extent of use of EI. The results from study 3 show the relationship to hold between companies. If the results are based on managers' misperceptions of the extent of common purpose in their organisations, it is at least a shared misconception.

The direction of causality is also a concern. With cross sectional data we cannot rule out that EI practices lead to common purpose rather than the converse; although a recent longitudinal study by Guest, Peccei and Thomas (1993) found no evidence that EI practices cause 'unitarist' beliefs.

In summary, the most reasonable interpretation of these results is that EI practices

are more common in organisations where there is a climate of unitarist beliefs among managers.

Managerial power, common purpose and attitudes towards EI

Study 2 sought to test two opposing views of the relationship between managers' perceptions of their own empowerment and attitudes to EI.

The first, based on Kanter's (1979, 1982) argument asserts that the least empowered managers will be most resistant to employee involvement. This rests on the argument that the least empowered managers will be most inclined to see power as "zero-sum". These managers will most fear losing what little power they have to subordinates, whereas the more empowered will not feel threatened by EI and will be more likely to support it.

The opposing view argues that managers who see themselves as least empowered will support EI for non-managers on the basis that they may benefit too in the devolution of power down the organisation. Therefore, study 2 tested

H2.12: Managers' own levels of empowerment will be positively associated with intention to support EI, mediated by beliefs concerning the impact of EI on their own power.

This hypothesis was not confirmed. In fact a curvilinear relationship was detected such that the managers with the least favourable attitudes concerning EI were those whose self reported level of empowerment was neither high nor low.

It was also argued that a non-zero-sum view of power rests on an assumption of common purpose and common interests. Managers who perceive internal conflict and few

common goals are unlikely to trust that subordinates, given greater power, will act according to the manager's goals. In these circumstances they are likely to view employee involvement as ineffective, and offer little support to EI practices. Hence study 2 also tested

H2.14: Shared organisational goals and low conflict will be associated with higher intention to support EI, mediated via managers' beliefs concerning the effectiveness of employee involvement.

This hypothesis was tested as part of a multiple regression involving a range of variables. The hypothesis was not confirmed, although zero-order correlations suggested a significant relationship in the hypothesised direction.

Why might this curvilinear relationship between managerial empowerment and support for EI occur? In study 3, it was argued that Kanter's conclusions concerning managerial power and support for EI rest on unitarist assumptions of common purpose in the organisation and that Kanter's proposal might be contingent on the extent of commonly held organisational goals. If the relationship between managerial empowerment and support for EI varies across organisations according to the extent to which there are shared superordinate goals, then this might account for the observed curvilinear relationship in a sample in which individuals and organisations are confounded. Thus, it was argued that we would expect to find both higher overall support for EI and a stronger positive relationship between managerial empowerment and support for EI in a unitarist climate than in a pluralist climate. Hence study 3 tested:

H3.14: The relationship between managerial empowerment and favourable attitudes towards EI will be moderated by the extent of shared organisational goals, such that in organisations with low levels of shared

organisational goals (pluralist) there will be a low or inverse relationship and in organisations with high levels of shared organisational goals(unitarist) there will be a significant positive relationship. There will be a positive relationship at the company level between managers' reports of the extent of common purpose and the level of favourable attitudes towards EI.

The results from study 3 fully supported this hypothesis. The extent of reported common purpose in an organisation both moderates the individual level relationship between *managerial empowerment* and attitudes towards EI and affects the overall level of favourable attitudes towards EI. Re-analysis of the study 2 data also reveals a pattern of results consistent with this hypothesis.

These results offer some support for Kanter's claim that it is managers who see themselves as lacking power who will be most resistant to EI. However, the results suggest that this only holds in organisations with a climate of unitarist beliefs among managers. Where managers see a greater conflict of interests between organisational subgroups, the relationship breaks down.

Interpreting the study results - real relationships or perceptual error?

The three major research studies in this thesis have relied on questionnaire instruments. This raises some questions about the status of the data collected and the relationships revealed between them. Key questions are as follows:

- How reliable are the reports of the questionnaire respondents?
- To what extent are revealed relationships due to common method variance?
- Are revealed relationships due to some underlying organisational reality, or

do they simply reflect, possibly erroneous, belief systems either of individuals or groups?

Both study 1 and study 2 correlated variables collected from the same informant using the same instrument. This raised the concern that at least part of any observed covariance may be due to relationships that exist only in the mind of the respondent. Certain variables are of particular concern here. For example, senior management reports of the outcomes of EI may reflect ideology as much as observation. Similarly, reports of middle management resistance may be the outcome of a search for scapegoats in response to failure as much as they are due to objective observation of middle managers' behaviour.

Study 3 sought to overcome these concerns in two ways. First, data were collected from multiple individuals in each organisation. Second, several hypotheses were tested by examining relationships between data collected in study 1 and data collected in study 3 from separate informants about the same organisations.

In this context, we can see that the robustness of the findings varies, depending on whether a particular finding was: replicated in more than one study; involved variables prone to perceptual bias; or was tested by examining relationships between data collected from different respondents or using different instruments. On this basis we can categorise the findings according to the robustness of the tests to which they were subjected. Table 7.1 summarises the findings of these studies and categorises them into strong moderate and weak conclusions.

Table 7.1: Summary of study findings, categorised by strength of conclusions

Result	Number of studies	Dependent and independent variables measured using different instruments/ respondents	Other comments	Strong/ Moderate/ Weak conclusion
Middle management resistance reduces success of EI	1	No		W
Training in people management/ EI skills relates to favourable attitudes to EI	weak support in 2 of 3 studies	No		W
Senior managers report higher levels of employee involvement in decision making than lower/ middle managers	2	No	Reports of EI practice use do not vary significantly	M
Personal experience of EI related to support for EI	2	No	Relationship holds between companies	M
Middle management resistance to EI related to non-alignment of organisational subsystems with goals of EI	2	No, but questions about nature of systems such as rewards and performance measurement are perhaps sufficiently concrete to avoid major perceptual bias.		M
Career prospects positively related to favourable attitudes towards EI	2	No	Relationship within companies not between	M

Result	Number of studies	Dependent and independent variables measured using different instruments/ respondents	Other comments	Strong/ Moderate/ Weak conclusion
Recent downsizing leads to less favourable attitudes to EI among managers	3	Yes (study 3)	S	S
Attitudes to EI are more favourable in companies with greater levels of EI	2	Yes	Relationship at between companies level not within companies	S
Middle management attitudes to EI highly correlated with senior management attitudes to EI	2	Yes	Study 3 shows relationship to occur at between groups level	S
Middle managers and senior managers do not differ significantly in their attitudes to EI	2	Study 2 - No Study 3 - Yes	Grade level is probably subject to little perceptual error	S
Climate of common purpose related to extent of EI use in companies	2	Yes	Relationship holds between companies	S
Relationship between managerial empowerment and support for EI is moderated by the climate of common purpose within companies	2	Yes	S	S

The weakest results (ie. methodologically, not in terms of effect size) concern the link between middle management resistance and the outcomes of employee involvement. The relationship is supported only by correlating the responses of a single respondent in each company. Further, it seems likely that respondents' reports of the success of EI outcomes will be significantly affected by their own beliefs about the value of EI. However, it seems implausible to suppose that significant levels of resistance to EI initiatives will not reduce their effectiveness. The findings concerning the impact of training are also weak.

Most findings are replicated across at least two studies. However, where these findings rely on correlating variables measured with the same instrument, the findings have been categorised as only moderately strong.

Some findings are supported by at least two studies and rely on correlating variables measured independently with different instruments completed by different respondents. These have been categorised as strong findings.

Conclusions

Is middle management resistance a principal barrier to EI?

This series of studies found no evidence of less support for EI among lower and middle managers than among senior managers. Two studies (study 2 and 3) with large samples failed to find any significant difference in support for EI between senior and middle managers. This is contrary to the findings of Buch (1992), Juravich, Hariss and Brooks (1992), Walton and Schlesinger (1979), and Gleeson, McPhee and Spatz (1988). However, excepting Gleeson, McPhee and Spatz, none of these studies asked the managers themselves about their attitudes towards EI. Given the increasing attention paid to EI within companies and in the media during the last decade, it is possible that managers'

attitudes to EI have shifted significantly since Gleeson, McPhee and Spatz carried out their survey of 47 Australian firms in 1988. It should also be noted that their study depended on only a single senior management respondent, and a single middle management respondent in each firm.

It is clear, both from the studies noted above and from study 1 in this thesis, that senior managers in a significant proportion of companies (about 50%) perceive middle management resistance to EI as a barrier to success. However, study 3 revealed only a weak link between senior management perceptions of middle management resistance to EI and managers' self-reported support for EI. To understand this we can draw on the picture of '*structurally embedded*' resistance to change drawn by Brower and Abolfia (1995) and on Giddens (1984) description of actors making choices within a framework of systemic constraints. As Brower and Abolfia point out:

" . . . resistance also often signals the clash of conflicting routines, disparate interpretations of organisational events, conflicting demands from 'customers' and other stakeholders, or even fundamental differences over organisation norms, policies and goals."

(Brower and Abolafia, 1995, p161).

Middle managers operate within the constraints of their organisation systems and structures. They also receive multiple and often conflicting signals about the goals and policies they should pursue and the relative priority of those goals. Such signals include how performance is measured, who gets promoted, which achievements receive most recognition, the operation of pay systems, communication with peers and communication with senior managers.

It is likely that senior management informants would find it difficult to distinguish between on the one hand, middle management failure to act in support of EI because of systemic constraints and conflicting signals about organisational priorities and, on the other

hand, resistance arising out of negative attitudes towards EI. Indeed in study 1, the extent of middle management resistance to EI reported by senior managers was strongly related to lack of organisational subsystem congruence with the goals of EI. Study 2 suggested the inclusion of EI issues in managerial performance measurement influenced behavioural intentions but not attitudes. This is consistent with middle management behaviour towards EI being constrained by organisational subsystems. It is also clear that middle management support for EI is strongly related to the extent of unambiguous senior management support for EI.

In short, there is little evidence that middle managers as a distinct group are a barrier to successful EI. Rather, it seems likely that senior management perceptions of middle management resistance to EI, largely arise out of middle managers' behaviour in response to the constraints of the systems within which they operate and mixed signals from senior managers and organisation systems about goals and priorities.

Antecedents of managerial support for EI

Although there is no significant variation in support for EI between senior and middle managers, there is substantial variation in the extent of managerial support for EI both within and between organisations. The studies in this thesis have explored antecedents of managerial support for, or resistance to EI, at the individual and organisation levels.

I have drawn on several organisation theory frameworks in this search for understanding of the variation in managerial support for EI. The organisation has been variously understood as an open-system, a negotiated order, and a network of actors pursuing rational self interest within a framework of (sometimes conflicting) incentives and constraints. At the individual level, explanations have drawn on the theory of reasoned

action, social learning theory and theories of power.

These perspectives are not tested one against the other, but in the spirit of Morgan's (1986) precept that "*Organisations are many things at once*" they are used as complementary metaphors for the nature of organisations. Much as physicists find it useful to sometimes describe light as particles and sometimes as waves, so with organisations we can usefully conceive of them at times as systems and at times as negotiated orders or socially constructed phenomena.

The studies in this thesis tested hypotheses in four principal categories of explanation for managerial resistance to EI:

- a) systemic constraints and mixed signals about goals and priorities;
- b) individual or cultural inertia;
- c) protection of self interest;
- d) lack of training/experience.

Hypotheses were confirmed from all four categories of explanation. Less managerial resistance to EI is reported in organisations that have aligned organisation systems with the goals of EI (a). The climate of management support for EI is significantly related to the extent of existing EI (b). There is less managerial support for EI in organisations where there has been recent downsizing and individual career opportunities relative to other managers in the same organisation are related to individual support for EI (c). The impact of training on managerial support for EI is weak. However, there is a strong relationship between the climate of managerial support for EI and the aggregate level of experience of EI among managers in each organisation (d).

In summary, variation in managerial support for EI cannot be accounted for solely within any one theoretical framework. A full understanding of managers support for and

resistance to EI requires multiple perspectives and attention to both the individual and organisational levels of analysis.

Power, common purpose and managerial support for EI

A key contribution made by the studies in this thesis concerns the contingent nature of the relationship between managerial support for EI and managers' own power. This thesis has distinguished between organisations with a unitarist climate of managerial beliefs and organisations with a pluralist climate of managerial beliefs. A unitarist climate of beliefs implies a degree of agreement among managers that there are common purpose and common interests among organisation members. Conversely, in organisations with a pluralist climate of beliefs managers report low levels of common purpose, and conflicts of interest.

In organisations where managers hold unitarist beliefs there is a positive relationship between managers' perceptions of their own power and their support for EI. Where there is a climate of pluralist beliefs this relationship is reversed, the managers with most power are the most reluctant to support EI.

Implications for Practice

The results reported in this thesis have important implications for practice. It is clearly unhelpful to scapegoat middle managers as principal culprits in the failure of EI initiatives. Nor is it sufficient to address lack of management support for EI with training. The impact of training alone on management support for EI is weak.

Companies wishing to build managerial support for EI initiatives need to address a number of issues simultaneously.

First, EI initiatives cannot succeed without some degree of common purpose among organisation members. A clear vision of organisational goals and priorities needs

to be articulated, communicated and signalled through key organisation systems. Attention needs to be paid to the mechanisms through which the interests of organisation subgroups are aligned with these goals. Performance measurement, pay and benefit systems, and career and development processes need to signal and reinforce these messages.

Second, it is important to address the organisational constraints which make it difficult for managers to implement EI initiatives. Are managers measured strictly on short term performance? If so, how will they react to the likely short term performance drop as EI initiatives take hold? Is resource control tightly centralised? This could mean managers are unable to respond flexibly to employees ideas for process improvements.

Third, while training in people management skills or EI processes may have some value, direct experience of EI is more important. The climate of support for EI will be directly affected by the level of managerial experience of EI. This implies creating opportunities for visits or secondments to other organisations already succeeding with EI. Alternatively, there may be value in specifically recruiting managers with experience of successful EI implementation, not only for their particular skills but also to help build a climate of support for initiatives.

Finally, where managers' interests are genuinely threatened by EI initiatives, as for example where there is likely to be a need for fewer managers, planning for these outcomes must at least be seen as fair and transparent.

Outstanding questions and implications for future research

A key finding of this research has been the way in which the unitarist/pluralist climate of beliefs among managers moderates the relationship between managers' own empowerment and their support for employee involvement. This is an important result both in methodological and theoretical terms. Methodologically the result is important

because it illustrates the value of using appropriate multi-level methods to test hypotheses concerned with cross level effects.

Importantly for theory, this finding suggests that in understanding the nature of power in organisations it is useful to consider the extent of common purpose as an empirically measurable variable which may effect the nature of power relationships rather than as an ideological given which drives the theoretical framework we rely on. Further research could usefully develop more broadly based measures of common purpose in organisations. These should examine the beliefs of non-managers as well as managers and could usefully examine the extent to which individuals believe they hold interests in common with a wide range of organisational subgroups.

While this research has demonstrated a relationship between the use of EI practices and a climate of unitarist beliefs among managers, the question of causality has not been resolved. A longitudinal study could help determine whether EI practices create a unitarist climate or whether (as argued in this thesis) EI practices take hold and succeed more readily where there is a climate of common purpose.

The focus of this thesis has been on the introduction of employee involvement practices into organisations. However, many of the conclusions may be relevant to other forms of organisational change. The implication of this research is that middle managers have been unfairly scapegoated as barriers to the success of EI. Does this apply to other forms of organisational change? Certainly there is a body of literature which identifies middle managers as a key barrier to other forms of change (eg. Nilakant (1991) Guth and MacMillan (1986), Marchington and Goodman, (1992)). Further research could usefully compare the extent of support among senior and middle managers for a broader range of forms of organisational change.

The studies in this thesis have examined the experience of managers in predominantly UK organisations. To this extent the results are somewhat culture bound. Important questions remain about the extent to which these results apply in other cultures. For example, the role identified for the climate of common purpose in these studies may look quite different in cultures with a highly individualistic orientation versus cultures with a collectivist orientation. Equally, the importance of managers' concerns about loss of control may vary according to the extent of power distance (Hofstede, 1980) common to a national culture.

As well as being tied to a particular national culture, these results are bound to a particular time. There is evidence (Millward *et al.* 1992, p175; this work, Ch.3) that attitudes to EI are changing and that this may be part of a wider social change. In this context, it is possible that the determinants of managerial attitudes to EI may have changed significantly in the last several decades, and that they may change again in the next few decades.

A final word

While, there is little in this thesis which has explicitly addressed the question, “do the benefits of EI outweigh the costs?”, the arguments and data presented do have some bearing on this question. Wagner’s (1994) conclusion was that the low average effects of EI found in his meta analyses imply that the costs of implementing EI outweigh the benefits. It has been argued in this thesis that this conclusion is erroneous. Rather the wide variation in outcomes of EI suggests that, for some organisations, the benefits of EI do considerably outweigh the costs, while for other organisations EI has clearly been a dismal failure. As suggested earlier, the key question does not concern the potential benefits of EI, but rather the circumstances in which those benefits can be achieved. Management support for EI is clearly a crucial factor in achieving effective implementation. The evidence in this thesis offers an improved understanding of the circumstances in which such support is achieved. This in turn advances our understanding of the conditions in which the benefits of EI will outweigh the costs.

There is evidence that some EI initiatives have failed because managers have wanted simple solutions, which can be ‘bolted on’ to their organisations. For example, the reason for the failure of many quality circles has been the lack of associated change to the core organisation (Lawler & Mohrman, 1985). I suggest that a similar conclusion may be drawn from this thesis. Resistance to change may be sometimes founded in individual conservatism or inertia. However, the evidence suggests that what is often interpreted as obstinate resistance to greater employee involvement is a consequence of organisational constraints and conflicting signals. Success requires that these constraints are addressed. Effective employee involvement requires the transformation of the core organisation. Nothing less than the complete restructuring of pay systems, career systems, resource

control, information flows as well as training and communication, will suffice to really embed employee involvement in the daily life of an organisation.

The evidence suggests that not only do many senior managers fail to recognise the range of issues which must be addressed to successfully involve employees, but that they are also often complacent about the extent of employee involvement in their organisations.

It is time to stop scapegoating middle managers and to address the genuine complexity of organisational transformation.

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APPENDIX A: SUMMARY OF RESULTS FROM KEY PAPERS CONCERNING THE ROLE OF MIDDLE MANAGERS AND SUPERVISORS IN EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT

Literature search methodology

A search was carried out on four major indexing and abstracting services. The services were

ABI Inform - a database of abstracts from journals and other periodicals in the field of business and management

Social Sciences Citations Index - wide coverage of the social sciences. Citation searching is possible but indexed articles only have abstracts available from 1992.

Psychological Abstracts - wide coverage of psychology (and related) journals, including non-English language. Available on Datastar.

Sociological Abstracts - covers sociology (and related) journals, including non-English language. Available on Datastar.

The first set of searches were carried out for papers referring to both "employee involvement" and "middle management". In those searches the following synonyms were used:

Employee involvement
 empowerment
 empowered team working
 self managing teams
 autonomous work teams
 participatory management
 participative management
 quality circles
 quality of work life
 quality of working life
 job design
 work redesign
 job enrichment
 gainsharing

Middle management
 middle manager(s)
 mid-level manager
 mid-level management
 first line manager
 first line management
 junior management
 lower management
 supervisor
 supervision

183 papers were identified. On scanning titles and abstracts for relevance this was reduced

to 45. Use of the Social Sciences Citations Index to identify papers with common references, suggestions from colleagues and tracking references in key papers led to the identification of a further 37, making 82 in total. Of these 63 were acquired.

Further searches were also carried out on the topics of middle management and:

- de-layering
- restructuring
- organisational change
- resistance
- changing role

Keyword facilities of the databases searched were also used to identify meta-analysis or review papers on EI, middle management and supervision. As key authors and references emerged more exploratory searches were carried out both by key author and using citation searching.

Summary of research

Paper	Sample	Methodology	Type of Employee Involvement	Results relating to the role of middle managers in Employee Involvement
Buch, 1992	2000 APQ members. 20% response rate.	Postal survey Supplementary information gathered by telephone interview.	Various	<p>The study focused mainly on the impact of organisational downsizing on EI. In the majority of organisations the impact was negative but a positive impact was associated with positive attitudes to EI at all levels before the downsizing.</p> <p>Responses concerning middle management commitment to EI were significantly less favourable than those concerning either top management or non-managerial employees.</p>
Gleeson, McPhee & Spatz, 1988.	47 Australian companies with EI/ participation practices	Interview and questionnaire survey of senior and middle managers and supervisors.	Various	<p>Senior managers perceived a greater degree of employee participation and expressed more positive views about it than did middle managers or supervisors.</p> <p>All three groups were asked about the training needs of middle managers and supervisors in relationship to EI. Senior managers stressed the need for both middle managers and supervisors to develop people management skills and for middle managers general management skills. Middle managers themselves tended to focus on the need to develop technical skills. Supervisors also saw themselves to be in need of training in people management skills.</p> <p>However, the levels of non-technical training available to supervisors and middle managers were negligible in the majority of organisations studied.</p>

<p>Nightingale, 1981.</p>	<p>1000 organisation members in a matched sample of 10 formally participative and 10 conventionally hierarchical organisations. The sample of organisation members was stratified by level</p>	<p>Structured interview, archival data and questionnaire survey.</p>	<p>Varying levels of formal and informal involvement</p>	<p>The study found participatory supervisor style and formal participative structure both to have independently positive effects on employee commitment, attitude towards management, attitude towards change and levels of alienation. They found the effect of supervisor style to be stronger than that of organisation structure.</p> <p>There was a significant correlation between formal participatory structure and supervisor style. This correlation was weakest for organisations which had most recently implemented participative structures.</p> <p>The correlation was stronger for organisations with formal <i>direct</i> involvement than those with formal <i>indirect</i> involvement.</p>
<p>Parnell, Bell & Taylor, 1992.</p>	<p>220 managerial employees in multiple firms</p>	<p>Correlational analysis of questionnaire survey data</p>	<p>Informal involvement</p>	<p>A regression model was constructed, modelling individual propensity for participative management (PM) as a function of the extent to which the organisational culture fostered participative management; beliefs about the relationship between organisational effectiveness and PM; and concerns about loss of power.</p> <p>All three were significant predictors of propensity for PM (jointly predicting around 42% of variance) Managers reported a greater propensity for participative management when the organisational culture was favourable, they believed it likely to increase organisational performance and their concerns about loss of power were low.</p>

Baloff & Doherty, 1989.	A consumer product plant and a large architectural firm	Case study, based on interview data	Job-redesign (in the consumer products plant) and representative participation in strategic planning	Study identifies problems of 're-entry' for employees participating in job redesign efforts. Participating employees found re-entry into their jobs and work groups difficult after having experienced greater levels of involvement. They observed employees experiencing pressure and a degree of hostility from non-participating peers concerned that they were 'selling out to management'. They also observed middle managers acting to coerce participants in order to achieve the outcomes they desired.
Pasmore, 1982.	Single manufacturing plant with poor safety record (around 300 employees)	Case study /action research	Job redesign	Describes a Job Redesign effort which failed. The goal of the job redesign was to use involvement of employees and supervisors in redesigning the work in order to reduce the incidence of muscle strain and related injury. Reasons for failure are described as: Middle management resistance to the idea that the problem might be related to work arrangements or managerial styles and managerial suspicion that the injury problem was being used by employees as a lever to pursue their own ends.
Abbott, 1987.	Ten quality circles (average size five members, average age of QC - 13 months)	Structured interviews and observation and questionnaire survey.	Quality Circles	The author describes middle and first level managers as suffering from role strain. <i>"On the one hand, managers are expected to provide and promote greater decision making power on the part of individual workers. On the other hand, managers must some how engineer 'success' in terms of the criteria for QC's established by upper management, often in the absence of specific training or support. Thus managers and supervisors fear erosion of their control over the work process because of QC's, but at the same time have come to equate success . . . with QC success"</i>

<p>Bradley & Hill, 1983 Bradley & Hill, 1987.</p>	<p>Two similar chemical and pharmaceutical companies, one in the UK and one in the USA. Both highly unionised with good employee relations.</p> <p>20 senior managers in 10 companies in the UK and USA</p>	<p>Questionnaire attitude survey, semi structured interviews with union officials and managers, direct observation of QC operation. Survey samples were 103 and 174 employees in respective companies</p>	<p>Quality Circles</p>	<p>The study found that both QC participants and middle managers believed the creation of QC's reflected on the competence of the managers. <i>"If managers had done their job properly in the past there would now be little need for quality circles."</i> Middle managers also complained that the QC's had increased their work load and responsibilities.</p> <p>The researchers found that middle managers attempted to influence QC's so as to minimise the adverse effects on their interests. Tactics included restricting QC's to minor aspects of working arrangements, restricting information to QC's, pre-empting QC suggestions before they reached senior management, and frustrating the implementation of suggestions.</p> <p>The study also found a key difficulty for QC's to be tension between QC members and non-members. Much of this focused on QC suggestions with the potential to increase productivity, without associated pay increases. Tension also focused on the fear that job losses might arise from productivity improvements coming out of QC's.</p> <p>The US company had greater success in overcoming middle management resistance than the UK company which the authors attribute to their willingness to adapt the managerial reward structure and the greater decision making authority and control over resources of the middle managers in the USA company.</p>
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<p>Brennan, 1991</p>	<p>Interviews with QC facilitators in 10 organisations. Further interviews with facilitators, managers QC leaders and non-participant observation of QC meetings and QC steering committee meetings.</p> <p>In one organisation interviews were extended and QC members and leaders asked to complete a questionnaire survey</p>	<p>Quality Circles</p>	<p>The study found considerable variation in middle management attitudes towards quality circles. Those who played an active role, for example as facilitators or co-ordinators were often positive about the QC's. There was some evidence however, that some of these managers seeing their own careers tied to QC success put considerable energy into activities such as ensuring no negative information came out of their groups.</p> <p>Some managers were quite vocal in their opposition to the value of QC's. A high proportion of these were middle managers whose careers had plateaued. Many middle managers saw QC's as an unwelcome addition to their work load with no apparent benefits to themselves. They were particularly unhappy that QC's could work on departmental problems without their cooperation and dismissive of the ability of QC's to add any value to problems that managers had considered already.</p> <p>In all the companies studied, even those managers who were positive about QC's were reluctant to let the members choose their own projects and anticipated that QC's would wish to become involved in 'inappropriate areas'.</p> <p>The author concludes that none of the QC's provided any major opportunity for increased EI and notes that the majority of QC programmes studied had been terminated within 5 years of the start of the study.</p>
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<p>Bushe, 1983</p>	<p>Four manufacturing organisations</p>	<p>Case study</p>	<p>Quality Circles</p>	<p>The study found considerable middle-management resistance to diffusion of QC's within their organisations. Reasons reported for such resistance focused on the following themes:-</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Middle management were often almost completely left out of the Quality Circle process - Lack of middle management trust in top management sincerity concerning QC's and fear QC's would detract from tasks on which they were assessed - Fear of increasing union power
<p>Collard & Dale, 1989</p>	<p>127 organisations which had introduced quality circles</p>	<p>The paper reports on the results of three postal surveys</p>	<p>Quality Circles</p>	<p>Responses concerning QC programme failure give the following main reasons: redundancy/ restructuring; little perceived advantage; lack of middle management support and opposition of trade unions.</p> <p>Reasons for individual QC failure were particularly focused on middle managers and supervisors. Of 370 QC failures reported in the surveys 157 (42%) were related to middle managers or supervisors.</p>

<p>Connors & Ro-mberg, 1991.</p>	<p>Single chemical testing plant in US midwest with around 600 employees</p>	<p>Case Study</p>	<p>Suggestion schemes, Quality Circles Task forces</p>	<p>Describes the introduction of a quality programme into a newly acquired plant by the parent company. The programme aimed to improve quality performance by involving employees in identifying and solving quality improvement opportunities. The programme was not a success.</p> <p>Reasons for failure: Lack of senior management clarity and commitment to the programme created a climate which encouraged middle managers and supervisors to manipulate it to pursue their own interests. Supervisors and middle managers carefully controlled access to quality activities and used them as ways of conferring favour or discipline. Quality activities were additional to existing supervisory and managerial workloads so often took second place to other work. Supervisors and managers spent most of their time on 'highly visible' quality tasks such as producing elaborate charts. Rather than delegate quality monitoring to subordinates supervisors often used them as a means of checking employees work personally and hence reinforcing their own authority. At all stages allowing these processes to increase EI was actively resisted by middle management and supervisors.</p>
<p>Hill, F.M. 1989</p>	<p>28 firms using quality circles</p>	<p>Questionnaire survey and telephone interview to firms in 1981 repeated in 1985</p>	<p>Quality Circles</p>	<p>The study looked at factors relating to Quality Circle survival. Over the 4 years of the study 40% of QC programmes survived. The study found that top management support, union support and company stability were important factors in QC survival and success.</p> <p>The most frequently cited reason for individual Quality Circle termination was middle management resistance, followed closely by lack of support from circle members. However this was cited by only one company as a reason for terminating the whole QC programme. The most frequent reason cited for termination of the programme (apart from plant closure) was top management indifference.</p>

<p>Industrial Society, 1987</p>	<p>148 member organisations of the National Society of quality circles</p>	<p>Questionnaire survey</p>	<p>Quality Circles</p>	<p>The most frequently cited pitfall encountered in the QC programmes was managerial resistance.</p>
<p>Juravich, Harris & Brooks, 1992.</p>	<p>236 organisations with EI programmes in Pennsylvania State, USA.</p>	<p>Questionnaire survey to employers</p>	<p>Various, but the majority (67%) were Quality Circles.</p>	<p>The survey found that 65% of unionised firms and 50% of non-unionised firms reported top management as 'very positive' about EI. The corresponding figures for middle management were 19% and 30%, although only 12% of union firms and 13% of non-union firms described middle managers as 'negative' or 'very negative' about EI.</p> <p>It should be noted that the respondents to these questionnaires are likely to have been from amongst top management.</p>
<p>Tang, Smith, Tollison & Whiteside, 1989.</p>	<p>Structures fabrication and assembly plant (about 4000 employees)</p>	<p>Analysis of archival data on Quality Circles over a 3 year period.</p>	<p>Voluntary Quality Circles.</p>	<p>The study examined Quality Circle effectiveness as measured by number of QC problems solved and speed of problem solving. Effectiveness was analysed in relation to level of management attendance, whether circles were initiated by workers or managers and whether they involved white collar or blue collar workers.</p> <p>High management attendance at QC meetings and management initiation of QC groups was significantly correlated with effectiveness. The authors suggest this supports the conclusion that QC success is related to management support. Although they point out that the direction of causality cannot be inferred from the data.</p>

<p>Bushe, 1988</p>	<p>Five plants in 3 divisions of a large manufacturing company</p>	<p>25 - 30 interviews with managers and supervisors in each plant and at least 5 interviews with union officials in each plant.</p>	<p>Quality of Work Life.</p>	<p>The study examined QWL programmes retrospectively over a 2 year period. A key finding was that the successful plants paid attention to relations within management at the same time as relations between management and employees. The author describes an improved managerial climate as being one important factor in encouraging supervisors to consult workers when solving problems.</p>
<p>Bushe, 1987</p>	<p>412 middle managers in four automotive manufacturing plants.</p>	<p>Questionnaire survey and interviews</p>	<p>Quality of Work Life groups.</p>	<p>The study examined middle management attitudes to Quality of Work Life projects as a function of membership of QWL groups. Attitudes measured were: belief in worker concern for the organisation; trust in the union; belief in the legitimacy of worker 'voice'; belief in top management support; belief in underlying values of QWL; belief in peer support for QWL; and willingness to give control to production workers. The study found attitudes to be consistently more favourable amongst managers participating in their own permanent QWL groups than non-members. Membership in temporary groups had little effect although attitudes concerning QWL values and belief in worker concern for the organisation were more negative amongst members of temporary groups than non-members.</p> <p>Interview data supported the conclusion that more favourable attitudes were caused by middle managers own involvement in problem solving groups.</p>

<p>Courtright, Fairhurst & Rogers, 1989</p>	<p>A manufacturing organisation making the transition from top-down control to self managing teams. Two plants were compared one with established self management and another more traditional.</p>	<p>Conversations were taped and analysed between 45 management/subordinate dyads.</p>	<p>Self managing work groups.</p>	<p>The study found that the frequency of interactions which involved the manager asking a question and the subordinate making a suggestion were much higher in the self-management plant. Interactions were more frequent the closer the hierarchical levels of the pair in the self management plant but more frequent the greater the hierarchical difference in the traditional plant</p> <p>In the more traditional plant, not only were managers more likely to issue direct instructions but manager and employee were more likely to interrupt each other.</p> <p>As in Manz & Sims study the content of questions used by managers in the self management plant tended to encourage self observation, high self expectations, forward thinking and self goal setting.</p>
<p>Manz, Keating & Donnellon. 1990</p>	<p>Single company, non-union, wholesale distribution business in USA</p>	<p>Case Study/ Action research</p>	<p>Self-managing teams</p>	<p>Describes the process in one company of overcoming middle management resistance to the introduction of self managed work teams. Initial resistance centred on concerns about loss of power and control; concern that past failures would be exposed and anxiety at rendering old skills obsolescent and learning new skills.</p> <p>Involving the middle managers in planning the change and their new roles, while allowing space to vent anxieties gradually won them over to the positive potential of the change. Role playing activities with managers helped them adopt new roles as facilitators.</p> <p>The paper gives little information on final outcomes.</p>

<p>Manz & Sims, 1987.</p>	<p>Medium sized manufacturing plant, with a successful, well established, self-managed team structure in place on the line. (Questionnaire survey to 276 of 300 hourly employees)</p>	<p>Structured observation and interview. Questionnaire survey of employees</p>	<p>Self-managed teams</p>	<p>The study used observation, interview and questionnaire survey to address the question of what role is played by the external leaders of self managed work teams. External team leaders showed a clear pattern of fostering independence within the teams. They tended to ask questions rather than issue instructions. Team assessments of leader effectiveness correlated highly with assessments of them as encouraging self-observation and self-expectation..</p>
<p>Rubowitz, 1992.</p>	<p>4 manufacturing plants in Sweden</p>	<p>Review of 4 case studies</p>	<p>Self managing work groups</p>	<p>Four cases of the implementation of autonomous work groups are reviewed. The author describes the role of middle managers and supervisors as changing dramatically. From an emphasis on control of quality and production speed their role shifted to one mainly concerned with training and development and the management of the boundaries of team responsibilities. All the cases reviewed resulted in improved quality, productivity and employee satisfaction. There was some evidence of resistance to change amongst middle managers but this was reduced by their active involvement in planning the changes.</p>

<p>Verespej, 1990.</p>	<p>232 respondents to a postal survey of 3,785 senior managers had at least one self directed work team in their organisation. These form the base of reported results.</p>	<p>Postal survey</p>	<p>Self managed teams</p>	<p>The most frequently cited barriers to the success of self managed work teams in the surveyed organisations were: Insufficient training (54%); Supervisory resistance (47%); Incompatible systems (47%); Lack of planning or going too fast ((40%); Lack of management support (32%); Lack of union support (24%).</p>
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Paper	Sample	Methodology	Type of employee involvement	Results relating to the role of supervisors in employee involvement
Graversen, 1985	Foremen and shop stewards in an Australian Dockyard (Numbers not cited)	Interview and questionnaire survey	Industrial democracy	<p>The study found foremen to be very resistant to the idea of any increase in worker influence, whether by direct or indirect involvement. They felt particularly threatened by the perceived high influence of shop stewards.</p> <p>The foremen described their position as constantly undermined by lack of support from management. They felt constantly bypassed, with workers and shop stewards constantly taking issues up directly with senior management. In this context they could only see any increase in worker influence as likely to lead to further loss of authority and status for themselves.</p>
Buchanan & Preston, 1991	Precision engineering plant	Case study	Job redesign/ team working as part of a shift to cellular manufacturing	<p>Although some notable benefits were realised from the changes the role of first line supervisors was problematic. The supervisors were expected to make a shift to a more facilitative, coaching style rather than their former command and control style of managing the workforce.</p> <p>To achieve this change supervisors were given just one day training. In consequence their management style changed little and there was considerable tension between supervisors and work teams over the extent to which they should intervene in the work. Supervisors felt they still needed to exercise direct control as their managers held them accountable for achieving targets.</p>

<p>Walton & Schlesinger, 1979</p>	<p>12 manufacturing plants medium size 350 employees</p>	<p>Interviews with supervisors</p>	<p>Job redesign/ self managing teams</p>	<p>Supervisors were less satisfied with participative work systems than others either above or below them in the hierarchy.</p> <p>The authors identify the following underlying causes of difficulties for the supervisors.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - An organisational assumption that work teams would start at an advanced state of development - Unrealistic assumptions from management about rate of maturation of work groups - Too frequent changes in team membership and supervisor - team pairings - Poor recruitment and development of supervisors - Failure to tie supervisory reward systems to team development - Lack of support systems for supervisors - Lack of planning for what will happen to freed up supervisor time as teams develop
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<p>Manz & Sims 1984</p>	<p>A non-unionised electrical battery manufacturing plant in the USA with 340 employees. The plant had used self managing teams since it opened 5 to 6 years before the study</p>	<p>Group interview including systematic data collection from individuals in the groups and non-participant observation. The group interviews were conducted at all levels of the organisation.</p>	<p>Self managed work groups</p>
<p>The study focused on the role played by 'co-ordinators' the first level supervisory level in the organisation. The co-ordinators had responsibility for external 'management' of the teams.</p>			
<p>Teams were organised around complete tasks as far as possible and in addition to production related tasks held responsibility for quality control, preparation of an annual budget, inventory monitoring, within group job assignments and quality problem solving.</p>			
<p>Team meetings were held each week, coordinators only attended if asked. Each team had an elected within group leader who received a higher pay rate. The pay system included skill based pay.</p>			
<p>Upper plant management saw the co-ordinator as a facilitator who should help teams manage themselves. They placed particular emphasis on communication as part of the co-ordinator's job.</p>			
<p>Co-ordinators themselves focused more on issues concerned with task completion. They saw their facilitating role as secondary.</p>			
<p>The (elected) team leaders felt the co-ordinators should balance their role between facilitation and acting as a resource. Team leaders placed particular emphasis on trustworthiness as an important characteristic for a co-ordinator.</p>			
<p>A key characteristic of co-ordinator behaviour observed by the researchers was the use of reflection and questions to push responsibility for problem solving back to the teams.</p>			

Klein, 1984	8 US manufacturing plants from 4 multi-national companies. 260 managers supervisors and employees were interviewed and completed a questionnaire survey	Interview and questionnaire survey	Self Managing Teams, Quality Circles and Quality of Work Life	<p>Supervisors saw the EI programmes as contrary to their interests. Overall 72% of supervisors (139 in sample) felt EI was good for the company, 60% felt it was good for employees but only 31% felt it was good for supervisors.</p> <p>Supervisory resistance to EI was rarely active but took the form of distancing themselves from EI activities or talking down activities to participants.</p> <p>The author divides supervisors with negative attitudes to EI into 5 groups: Proponents of theory X (those whose beliefs systems preclude participative management); status seekers (who fear a loss of status from EI); Sceptics (who doubt the sincerity and support of middle management); Equality seekers (who feel by-passed and left out of the programme; Deal makers (who feel stripped of their ability to manage relationships with workers by 'deal making')</p> <p>The programmes which successfully overcame supervisory resistance were those which also sought to increase levels of involvement and responsibility amongst supervisors both in relation to their own jobs and in implementing EI for workers.</p>
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Schlesinger 1982	7 industrial plants, 208 interviews with managers, supervisors and workers. 1 - 2 days direct observation of supervisors in each plant	Interview and direct observation	Various: from small scale job redesign to self-managing teams	Schlesinger describes a number of barriers to effective implementation of EI in the plants studied:- Underestimation of the adjustment problems for managers and the consequent problems for supervisors in understanding their role; underestimation of the required training investment; highly differential rates of learning and maturity amongst work groups and hence very different supervisory needs; insufficient stability of teams and supervisor/ team working relationships; inadequate training and recruitment of supervisors; insufficient attention paid to evaluation and reward systems for supervisors; absence of support systems for supervisors
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APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRES, DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND ZERO ORDER CORRELATIONS FOR EACH STUDY

In this appendix, a copy of each questionnaire used in the studies is followed by means, standard deviations and zero order correlations for each questionnaire item.

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STUDY 1

**SURVEY OF
EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT PRACTICES**

INSTRUCTIONS

This questionnaire is being sent to a sample of companies in the UK as part of a London Business School research study into employee involvement initiatives and barriers to their success.

The questionnaire should be completed by the Managing Director, Human Resources Director or another senior manager who is familiar with your company's management practices. Please answer all questions in terms of UK employees only.

The majority of questions ask you to respond by ticking a box. The questionnaire should take around 10 minutes to complete. If you cannot answer a question, or feel it does not apply to your company, please leave it blank.

Please address any enquiries to:

Mark Fenton-O'Creevy, Centre for Organisational Research
London Business School, Regents Park
London NW1 4SA
Tel. 071 262 5050 ext. 3578; Fax. 071 724 7875

YOUR COMPANY

1. Approximately how many employees do you have in your company? employ
2. By approximately what percentage has your work force increased or decreased over the last five years? %increased % decrease
3. Approximately how many of your employees fall into the following categories? Managers
Supervisors or team leaders
4. How many layers of management are there from managing director to first line supervisor (inclusive), in the largest part of your company? lay
5. How many layers of management (if any) has your company removed or added in the last five years? removed add

EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT PRACTICES

The following questions concern organisational innovations or programmes that some organisations have adopted in order to increase employee involvement in decisions affecting their work and work environment. Please refer to the Glossary insert for definitions of these practices.

6. Please indicate the extent to which your organisation makes use of the following practices/ initiatives to involve employees.

	Don't use	Use on a small scale	Make substantial use of
a. A suggestion scheme	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Employee attitude surveys	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Team briefing system	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Job enrichment or redesign	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Quality circles	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. Consultative committees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. Problem-solving task-forces or project teams	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h. Self-managing work teams	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i. Small self contained business units	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7. Please indicate to what extent, if any, each of the following have been adapted to support employee involvement efforts in your organisation?

	No Change	Minor changes	Substantial changes
a. Performance measurement and feedback for managers/ supervisors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Performance measurement and feedback for non-managerial employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Reward systems for managers/ supervisors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Reward systems for non-managerial employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8. To what extent have you carried out the following, in combination with or to support employee involvement initiatives?

	Little or no extent	Moderate extent	A great extent
a. Decentralisation of budget/ resource control	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Action to improve communication/ access to information	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Management development related to employee involvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Training for non-managers related to employee involvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

9. Which of the following best describes the role of the first line supervisor in your organisation? (Please tick one category only)

- Leadman - employed because of past experience and performance in the job they are supervising. Works alongside subordinates and directly supervises their work. 1
- One-to-one supervisor - responsible for monitoring, directing and controlling others who work mainly as individuals
- Group leader - responsible for the activities of a group who for the most part work individually but share some problem solving tasks
- Team coordinator - manages the group as an interdependent team, facilitates and coordinates their working together
- Team boundary manager - responsible for more than one team, they supervise less closely, but are still responsible for the teams' activities. They collect data and give feedback to teams about productivity
- Team resource person - available to work with teams for problem solving and trouble shooting.
- No first line supervisors (or equivalent) - employees are self managing

10. Which of the following best describes how work is carried out in your organisation? (Please tick one category only)

- It is the job of managers to plan, organise, coordinate and control. Employees may be informed in advance of changes in the way work is carried out but are not usually consulted
- Managers consult employees about changes in the way work is carried out and take their views and suggestions into account in making decisions
- Employees make decisions, as individuals or in teams, on a range of matters concerning how they organise and carry out their work
- Employees have wide discretion in how they achieve their work goals and exercise significant control over the resources they need to do their work

Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the following statements.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
11. Most middle managers in this organisation demonstrate a belief in participative management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Senior managers in this organisation are strongly committed to participative management	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Many middle managers show anxiety about the impact of greater employee involvement on their own roles	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Many middle managers in this organisation show enthusiasm for increasing employee involvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Senior managers in this organisation disagree about the value of employee involvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Middle managers in this organisation show a great deal of cynicism about employee involvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Many middle managers in this organisation see increased employee involvement as contrary to their interests	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Senior managers in this organisation see employee involvement as vital to our success ...	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

BARRIERS AND OUTCOMES

19. To what extent do you consider the following factors have been (or are likely to be) barriers to the effective introduction of greater employee involvement in your company?

	Little or no extent	Moderate extent	A great extent
a. Resistance or lack of interest from workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Resistance from middle managers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Resistance from union or other employee association	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Lack of clear support/ agreement among senior managers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Unclear objectives	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. "Change fatigue"	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. Short term performance pressures	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h. Lack of skills amongst workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i. Lack of skills amongst first line supervisors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
j. Lack of skills amongst managers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
k. Resource limitations	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
l. Other significant barrier. (Please specify) _____			

20. To what extent have the following been outcomes of employee involvement efforts in your organisation? (Please only complete this question if your organisation has made significant attempts to increase employee involvement).

	Little or no extent	Moderate extent	A great extent
a. Quality improvements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b. Cost improvements	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c. Improved responsiveness to customers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
d. Improved responsiveness to change	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
e. Improved productivity	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
f. Greater job satisfaction or commitment amongst employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
g. A greater sense of responsibility for business success amongst employees	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
h. Job losses amongst line workers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
i. Job losses amongst supervisors	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
j. Job losses amongst managers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
k. Loss of promotion opportunities for managers	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
l. Other significant outcome (please specify) _____			

Thank you for completing this questionnaire

We intend to extend the research by carrying out a follow up survey of managers and employees in a smaller number of companies. We hope to distribute a short questionnaire to a small number (20 to 50) of line workers and middle level managers in these companies. The questionnaire will ask about individual experiences of employee involvement

Would you, in principle be prepared to cooperate with us in this follow up study.

Yes

No

The label below shows the name and address of the person to which this questionnaire was posted. If the name or address to which we should send the report of findings, or write to concerning follow up research, is different please write details in the box provided.

Name and address for report of study findings /contact for follow up research

GLOSSARY OF EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT PRACTICES

(Please refer to the following definitions in answering questions)

Suggestion scheme - any formal system for encouraging, collecting and recognising employee suggestions for improvements in work processes or working conditions.

Employee attitude surveys - regular questionnaire surveys of employee attitudes and opinions concerning their work and the organisation they work for.

Team briefing system - regular communication of key information in team meetings. Structures exist to cascade information down the organisation and allow for feedback from team meetings back up.

Job enrichment/ redesign - redesign of jobs to increase work variety, completeness of tasks and autonomy, often with the direct involvement of employees in redesigning their own jobs.

Quality circles - groups of employees meeting on a regular basis to identify and suggest solutions to problems of productivity, quality, service etc.. These groups usually can only make suggestions to management and have no decision making authority.

Consultative committees - joint committees of managers and employee representatives (sometimes union or staff association representatives), which provide a forum for consultation over changes which affect employees.

Problem solving task forces/ project teams - teams of staff (sometimes from across departments and job levels) brought together on a temporary basis to solve a particular problem or carry out a specific project.

Self managing work teams - Work teams organised around complete tasks or processes or serving a specific set of customers. These teams (with or without a team leader) have responsibility for the every day management of their work, eg. allocating tasks among the team and work scheduling. Some teams have responsibility for areas such as discipline, bonus allocation, training, and recruitment.

Small self contained business units - groups of employees and managers organised around a product group or set of customers, which act as a semi-autonomous business.

Middle manager - any manager below the most senior tier of management but excluding first line supervisors with no career path to higher management levels.

Study 1: Descriptive statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation
SIZE (EMPLOYEES)	3796.0	12066.86
% SIZE CHANGE (EMPLOYEES)	13.85	59.21
MANAGERS	259.26	1595.93
SUPERVISORS	252.32	731.80
MANAGEMENT LAYERS	3.95	1.49
CHANGE IN LAYERS	-1.07	1.52
SUGGESTION SCHEME	1.71	.68
ATTITUDE SURVEYS	1.72	.72
TEAM BRIEFING	2.52	.65
JOB REDESIGN	1.59	.69
QUALITY CIRCLES	1.61	.72
CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES	2.17	.79
TASK FORCES	2.37	.65
SELF-MANAGING TEAMS	1.72	.78
SMALL BUSINESS UNITS	1.61	.77
PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT - MANAGERS	2.16	.81
PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT-WORKERS	2.07	.87
REWARDS - MANAGERS	1.82	.83
REWARDS - WORKERS	1.81	.84
DECENTRALISATION	1.71	.76
IMPROVE COMMUNICATION	2.34	.69
MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT	2.01	.72
EMPLOYEE TRAINING	1.84	.74
SUPERVISOR ROLE	2.90	1.49
MANAGEMENT CONTROL	1.76	.69
MM BELIEF IN PM	3.42	.96
SM COMMITMENT TO PM	3.50	.94
MM ANXIOUS ABOUT EI	2.98	1.03
MM ENTHUSIASTIC ABOUT EI	3.47	.84
SM DISAGREE ABOUT EI	2.59	1.00
MM CYNICAL ABOUT EI	2.57	.95
EI CONTRARY TO MM INTERESTS	2.52	.96
SM SEE EI AS VITAL TO SUCCESS	3.69	1.01
WORKER RESISTANCE	1.74	.65
MM RESISTANCE	1.74	.69
UNION RESISTANCE	1.39	.67
LACK OF SM SUPPORT	1.75	.72
UNCLEAR OBJECTIVES	1.89	.68
CHANGE FATIGUE	1.88	.78
SHORT TERM PERFORMANCE PRESSURE	2.20	.74
LACK OF WORKER SKILLS	1.66	.69
LACK OF SUPERVISOR SKILLS	1.87	.70
LACK OF MANAGER'S SKILLS	1.81	.69
RESOURCE LIMITATIONS	1.82	.74
QUALITY IMPROVEMENTS	1.91	.77
COST IMPROVEMENTS	1.86	.77
CUSTOMER RESPONSIVENESS	2.02	.85
RESPONSIVENESS TO CHANGE	1.85	.77
IMPROVED PRODUCTIVITY	1.87	.77
JOB SATISFACTION	1.72	.74
SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY	1.74	.76
WORKER JOB LOSS	1.23	.54
SUPERVISOR JOB LOSS	1.31	.59
MANAGER JOB LOSS	1.34	.61
LOSS OF PROMOTION OPPORTUNITIES	1.38	.67

Study 1: Zero Order Correlations

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. SIZE (EMPLOYEES)	1.00	.01	.93**	.84**	.83**	-.06	.15	.11	-.01	-.01	.05	.15	.07	.18*	-.01	.16*	.14	.21*	.21*	.16*
2. % SIZE CHANGE (EMPLOYEES)	.01	1.00	.02	-.05	-.07	.27*	-.13	-.15	-.02	-.08	-.15	-.15	-.02	-.12	-.03	-.20*	-.12	-.06	-.08	.01
3. MANAGERS	.80**	.02	1.00	.76**	.29**	-.01	.07	-.06	-.05	-.07	.05	.10	-.03	.15	-.05	.11	.12	.14	.13	.06
4. SUPERVISORS	.84**	-.05	.76**	1.00	.39**	-.11	.19*	.24**	.01	.06	.05	.07	.14	.03	.03	.16	.15	.22*	.14	.18*
5. MANAGEMENT LAYERS	.33**	-.07	.29**	.37**	1.00	-.07	.05	.10	.18*	.00	.02	.04	-.01	-.07	-.03	.15	.04	.21*	.07	-.08
6. CHANGE IN LAYERS	-.06	.27*	-.01	-.11	-.07	1.00	-.17	-.21*	-.22*	.07	.14	-.23*	-.09*	-.08	-.29**	-.16	-.02	-.15	-.14	-.20
7. SUGGESTION SCHEME	.15	-.13	.07	.19*	.05	-.17	1.00	.21**	.22**	.02	.11	.09	.05	-.07	-.01	.16	.11	.10	.04	.09
8. ATTITUDE SURVEYS	.11	-.15	-.06	.24**	.10	-.21*	.21**	1.00	.22**	.14	.21**	.25**	.22**	.11	.11	.25**	.17*	.14	.12	.20*
9. TEAM BRIEFING	-.01	-.02	-.05	.01	.19*	-.22*	.22**	.22**	1.00	.38**	.20*	.30**	.30**	.10	.20*	.28**	.22**	.27**	.15	.18*
10. JOB REDESIGN	-.01	-.09	-.07	.06	.00	.07	.02	.14	.38**	1.00	.25**	.37**	.32**	.12	.26**	.24**	.21*	.19*	.25**	.34**
11. QUALITY CIRCLES	.05	-.15	.25	.05	.02	.14	.11	.21**	.20*	.25**	1.00	.23**	.19*	.10	.13	.22**	.26**	.16*	.24**	.05
12. CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES	.15	-.15	.12	.07	.04	-.23*	.09	.25**	.30**	.37**	.23**	1.00	.36**	.19*	.14	.33**	.23**	.28**	.36**	.28**
13. TASK FORCES	.07	-.02	-.03	.14	-.01	-.09	.05	.22**	.30**	.32**	.19*	.36**	1.00	.27**	.23**	.18*	.29**	.15	.30**	.25**
14. SELF-MANAGING TEAMS	.18*	-.12	.15	.03	-.07	-.08	-.07	.11	.10	.12	.10	.19*	.27**	1.00	.44**	.08	.15	.10	.18*	.25**
15. SMALL BUSINESS UNITS	-.01	-.03	-.05	.03	-.03	-.29**	-.01	.11	.20*	.26**	.13	.14	.23**	.44**	1.00	.06	.06	.19*	.24**	.41**
16. PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT - MANAGERS	.16*	-.20*	.11	.16	.15	-.16	.16	.25**	.29**	.24**	.22**	.33**	.18*	.08	.06	1.00	.75**	.50**	.47**	.20*
17. PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT-WORKERS	.14	-.12	.12	.15	.04	-.02	.11	.17*	.22**	.21*	.26**	.23**	.29**	.15	.06	.75**	1.00	.48**	.48**	.18*
18. REWARDS - MANAGERS	.21*	-.06	.14	.22*	.21*	-.15	.10	.14	.27**	.19*	.16*	.28**	.15	.10	.19*	.50**	.49**	1.00	.65**	.27**
19. REWARDS - WORKERS	.21*	-.08	.13	.14	.07	-.14	.04	.12	.15	.25**	.24**	.36**	.30**	.18*	.24**	.47**	.48**	.65**	1.00	.23**
20. DECENTRALISATION	.16*	.01	.06	.18*	-.08	-.20	.09	.20*	.18*	.34**	.05	.28**	.25**	.25**	.41**	.20*	.18*	.27**	.23**	1.00
21. IMPROVE COMMUNICATION	.06	-.09	-.03	.08	-.02	-.17	.11	.23**	.28**	.30**	.20*	.26**	.32**	.11	.21*	.28**	.22**	.27**	.27**	.41**
22. MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT	.13	-.02	.02	.12	.14	-.20	.06	.19*	.36**	.25**	.15	.32**	.22**	.16*	.27**	.31**	.29**	.29**	.29**	.31**
23. EMPLOYEE TRAINING	-.01	-.02	-.10	-.02	-.05	-.06	-.02	.13	.34**	.34**	.24**	.24**	.24**	.17*	.22**	.27**	.24**	.16	.16**	.31**
24. SUPERVISOR ROLE	.03	-.05	.02	.06	-.02	-.08	.00	.16	.17*	.28**	.00	.09	.15	.20*	.14	.29*	.22**	.07	-.01	.13

Study 1: Zero Order Correlations

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
25. MANAGEMENT CONTROL	-.02	-.12	-.10	.00	-.09	-.15	.06	.10	.26**	.42**	.17*	.20*	.22**	.24**	.25**	.20*	.17*	.18*	.21**	.26**
26. IM BELIEF IN EI	-.06	-.14	.03	-.16	-.17*	.06	.05	-.05	.26**	.32**	.20*	.19*	.08	.08	.04	.29**	.29**	.09	.22**	.17*
27. SM COMMITMENT TO FI	.04	-.06	.05	-.04	-.03	.02	.09	.19*	.33**	.31**	.21*	.32**	.15	.10	.09	.41**	.40**	.23**	.30**	.23**
28. IM AMBITION ABOUT EI	.06	-.21	-.06	.17*	-.01	-.16	.12	-.04	-.02	-.07	-.11	.00	-.06	-.01	.16	.07	.01	.08	.11	.06
29. IM ENTHUSIASTIC ABOUT EI	.03	-.16	.05	-.05	-.06	-.07	-.01	.04	.25**	.26**	.23**	.14	.15	.01	.14	.25**	.29**	.13	.16	.23**
30. SM DISAGREE ABOUT EI	.03	.01	-.04	.17*	.00	.04	.04	-.01	-.11	-.10	-.07	-.08	-.14	.01	-.02	-.10	-.12*	.00	-.04	.01
31. IM CYNICAL ABOUT EI	.00	-.06	-.04	.12	.06	.00	-.04	-.06	-.25**	-.20*	-.14	-.18*	-.18*	-.09	-.03	-.21**	-.30**	-.07	-.18*	-.23**
32. EI CONTRARY TO IM INTERESTS	-.01	-.08	-.05	.11	.01	.06	.02	-.06	-.25**	-.16	-.12	-.13	-.12	.02	.06	-.21*	-.23**	.00	-.04	-.14
33. SM SEE EI AS VITAL TO SUCCESS	.04	-.02	.10	-.09	-.08	.05	.04	.03	.29**	.26**	.24**	.17*	.12	.20*	.16*	.18*	.26**	.16	.25**	.26**
34. WORKER RESISTANCE	-.08	.15	-.09	.05	-.12	.03	-.01	-.24**	-.09	-.26**	.02	-.16*	-.09	.00	.03	-.05	.01	-.01	-.01	-.08
35. IM RESISTANCE	.00	.05	-.07	.10	-.01	-.20	.17*	.13	-.09	-.09	-.03	-.12	.00	.14	.29**	-.10	-.18*	-.02	-.02	.11
36. UNION RESISTANCE	.00	.04	-.04	.08	.05	-.07	.07	.04	.10	-.08	.08	.05	.15	.10	.09	-.01	-.02	.05	.01	.10
37. LACK OF SM SUPPORT	-.03	.14	-.10	.09	.01	-.05	.06	.03	-.09	-.14	-.03	-.22**	.02	.07	.03	-.21*	-.20*	-.06	-.10	-.07
38. UNCLEAR OBJECTIVES	.06	.13	.02	.08	-.05	-.10	.02	.00	-.01	-.01	-.10	-.01	.14	.08	.15	-.07	-.10	.02	-.06	.14
39. CHANGE FATIGUE	.25**	-.11	.17	.24**	.08	-.16	.14	.07	-.03	.02	.11	.12	.16*	.09	.24**	.18*	.06	.17*	.21*	.15
40. SHORT TERM PERFORMANCE PRESSURE	.17*	.07	.12	.18*	.18*	.06	.10	.03	-.02	-.05	.06	-.05	.06	-.09	-.06	-.07	.01	.12	.02	-.15
41. LACK OF WORKER SKILLS	-.05	-.01	-.06	.01	-.09	-.09	.02	-.06	-.04	-.10	.05	.05	.03	.03	.05	-.01	.06	.00	-.04	.01
42. LACK OF SUPERVISOR SKILLS	-.07	-.06	-.09	-.06	-.04	.06	-.08	-.03	-.13	-.03	-.10	.01	-.01	.01	.01	-.06	-.04	-.10	.01	-.02
43. LACK OF MANAGER'S SKILLS	.01	.00	.04	-.05	-.09	-.02	-.06	.02	-.09	-.04	-.08	-.02	.10	.14	.05	-.02	-.11	-.04	-.06	.01
44. RESOURCE LIMITATIONS	-.08	-.10	-.10	-.09	-.04	-.06	-.07	-.15	-.13	-.03	.06	-.09	-.02	.04	.12	-.05	-.08	.00	.00	-.07

Study 1: Zero Order Correlations

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
45. QUALITY IMPROVEMENTS	.00	-.08	-.10	.00	-.10*	-.05	.00	.17*	.16**	.16**	.16**	.21**	.36**	.22**	.23**	.28**	.33**	.10*	.18*	.31**
46. COST IMPROVEMENTS	-.02	-.16	-.10	-.02	-.21*	-.04	.14	.00	.25**	.28**	.29**	.21**	.30**	.14	.34**	.28**	.29**	.17*	.18*	.31**
47. CUSTOMER RESPONSIVENESS	-.03	-.14	-.11	-.08	-.20*	-.13	.26**	.20*	.30**	.27**	.23**	.22**	.35**	.17*	.30**	.26**	.35**	.20*	.20*	.30**
48. RESPONSIVENESS TO CHANGE	.00	-.04	-.10	-.05	-.10*	-.12	.18*	.23**	.32**	.34**	.19*	.26**	.38**	.23**	.28**	.28**	.36**	.29**	.30**	.43**
49. IMPROVED PRODUCTIVITY	-.06	-.18*	-.10	-.10	-.21*	-.15	.13	.12	.24**	.28**	.27**	.27**	.31**	.13	.24**	.33**	.43**	.27**	.38**	.28**
50. JOB SATISFACTION	-.04	.04	-.00	-.16	-.28**	-.12	.07	.11	.14**	.29**	.11	.24**	.25**	.18*	.20*	.24**	.38**	.23**	.27**	.31**
51. SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY	.04	-.04	-.08	-.01	-.20*	-.18	.10*	.16*	.29**	.26**	.10	.16*	.20*	.26**	.25**	.34**	.43**	.36**	.38**	.34**
52. WORKER JOB LOSS	.07	-.13	-.01	.00	-.14	-.32**	.02	.12	.15	.01	-.09	.10	.15	.20*	.27**	-.01	.05	.00	.05	.20**
53. SUPERVISOR JOB LOSS	.05	-.10*	-.03	.04	-.10	-.36**	.13	.21**	.16	.08	.02	.18*	.23**	.24**	.31**	.08	.11	.28**	.22**	.26**
54. MANAGER JOB LOSS	.08	-.21*	-.03	.10	-.06	-.26*	.08	.13	.10	.15	.03	.20*	.31**	.22**	.31**	.14	.21*	.30**	.24**	.26**
55. LOSS OF PROMOTION OPPORTUNITIES	.12	-.18*	-.02	.21*	.01	-.30**	.13	.23**	.08	.09	.08	.14	.21**	.22**	.29**	.12	.17*	.26**	.18*	.20**

Study 1: Zero Order Correlations

Variables	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
1. SIZE (EMPLOYEES)	.00	.13	-.01	.03	-.02	-.06	.04	.06	.03	.03	.00	-.01	.04	-.08	.00	.00	-.03	.06	.05**	.17*
2. % SIZE CHANGE (EMPLOYEES)	-.09	-.02	-.02	-.05	-.12	-.14	-.06	-.01	-.16	.01	-.06	-.08	-.02	.15	.05	.04	.14	.13	-.11	.07
3. MANAGERS	-.03	.02	-.10	.02	-.10	.03	.05	-.06	.05	-.04	-.04	-.05	.10	-.09	-.07	-.04	-.10	.02	.17	.12
4. SUPERVISORS	.08	.12	-.02	.06	.00	-.16	-.04	.17*	-.05	.17*	.12	.11	-.09	.05	.10	.08	.08	.08	.24**	.18*
5. MANAGEMENT LAYERS	-.02	.14	-.05	-.02	-.09	-.17*	-.03	-.01	-.06	.00	.06	.01	-.08	-.12	-.01	.05	.01	-.05	.08	.18*
6. CHANGE IN LAYERS	-.17	-.20	-.06	-.08	-.15	.06	.02	-.16	-.07	.04	.00	.06	.05	.03	-.20	-.07	-.05	-.10	-.10	.06
7. SUGGESTION SCHEME	.11	.06	-.02	.00	.06	.05	.09	.12	-.01	.04	-.04	.02	.04	-.01	.17*	.07	.06	.02	.14	.10
8. ATTITUDE SURVEYS	.23**	.19*	.13	.16	.10	-.05	.19*	-.04	.04	-.01	-.06	-.06	.03	-.24**	.13	.04	.03	.00	.02	.01
9. TEAM BRIEFING	.28**	.36**	.34**	.17*	.26**	.26**	.33**	-.02	.25**	-.11	-.25**	-.25**	.29**	-.09	-.09	.10	-.09	-.01	-.01	-.02
10. JOB REDESIGN	.30**	.25**	.34**	.28**	.42**	.32**	.31**	-.07	.26**	-.10	-.20*	-.16	.26**	-.26**	-.09	-.08	-.14	-.01	.02	-.05
11. QUALITY CIRCLES	.20*	.15	.24**	.00	.17*	.20*	.21*	-.11	.23**	-.07	-.14	-.12	.24**	.02	-.03	.08	-.03	-.10	.11	.06
12. CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES	.25**	.32**	.24**	.08	.20*	.19*	.32**	.00	.14	-.08	-.18*	-.13	.17*	-.16*	-.12	.05	-.22**	-.01	.12	-.05
13. TASK FORCES	.32**	.22**	.24**	.15	.22**	.08	.15	-.06	.15	-.14	-.18*	-.12	.12	-.09	.00	.15	.02	.14	.16*	.07
14. SELF-MANAGING TEAMS	.11	.16*	.17*	.20*	.24**	.08	.10	-.01	.01	.01	-.09	.02	.20*	.00	.14	.10	.07	.08	.09	-.08
15. SMALL BUSINESS UNITS	.21*	.27**	.22**	.14	.25**	.04	.09	.16	.14	-.02	-.03	.06	.16*	.03	.29**	.09	.03	.15	.24**	-.06
16. PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT - MANAGERS	.28**	.31**	.27**	.20*	.20*	.29**	.41**	.07	.25**	-.10	-.21**	-.21*	.18*	-.05	-.10	-.01	-.21*	-.07	.18*	-.07
17. PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT-WORKERS	.22**	.29**	.24**	.22**	.17*	.29**	.40**	.01	.29**	-.19*	-.30**	-.23**	.26**	.01	-.18*	-.02	-.20*	-.10	.06	.01
18. REWARDS - MANAGERS	.27**	.29**	.16	.00	.19*	.09	.23**	.08	.13	.00	-.07	.00	.16	-.01	-.02	.05	-.06	.02	.17*	.12
19. REWARDS - WORKERS	.27**	.29**	.30**	-.01	.23**	.22**	.30**	.13	.16	-.04	-.18*	-.03	.25**	-.01	-.09	.01	-.10	-.06	.21*	.02
20. DECENTRALISATION	.43**	.35**	.23**	.13	.26**	.17*	.23**	.06	.23**	.01	-.23**	-.14	.26**	-.08	.11	.10	-.07	.14	.15	-.11*
21. IMPROVE COMMUNICATION	1.00	.46**	.41**	.11	.34**	.15	.35**	-.14	.21**	-.12	-.22**	-.21*	.40**	-.07	-.06	.18*	-.18*	-.08	.10	-.04
22. MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT	.46**	1.00	.54**	.12	.26**	.28**	.35**	.02	.31**	-.16*	-.22**	-.23**	.37**	.06	-.02	.02	-.21**	-.1	-.02	-.07**
23. EMPLOYEE TRAINING	.41**	.54**	1.00	.12	.38**	.35**	.31**	-.07	.34**	-.20*	-.26**	-.21**	.38**	-.06	-.08	.08	-.06	-.10	-.02	-.03**
24. SUPERVISOR ROLE	.11	.12	.12	1.00	.18*	.17*	.21**	.03	.09	-.19*	-.19*	-.19*	.22**	-.11	.01	.11	-.12	-.04	.01	-.11

Study 1: Zero Order Correlations

Variables	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
2. MANAGERIAL CONTROL	.34**	.26**	.39**	.18*	1.00	.44**	.29**	-.22**	.31**	-.25**	-.15**	-.26**	.32**	-.10	-.10	.01	-.24**	-.18*	.05	-.24**
26. IMI BELIEF IN EI	.15	.28**	.35**	.17*	.44**	1.00	.52**	-.27**	.55**	-.28**	-.51**	-.45**	.49**	-.04	-.33**	-.08	-.24**	-.20*	-.15	-.30**
27. SH COMMITMENT TO PH	.35**	.31**	.31**	.21**	.29**	.52**	1.00	-.13	.19**	-.38**	-.40**	-.44**	.52**	-.05	-.26**	.02	-.49**	-.27**	-.09	-.30**
28. IMI ALEXIS'S ABOUT EI	-.14	.52	-.22**	.63	-.22**	-.27**	-.13	1.00	-.28**	.30**	.40**	.56**	-.20*	.22**	.42**	.17*	.10	.13	.19*	.02
29. IMI ENTHUSIASTIC ABOUT EI	.21**	.31**	.34**	.09	.31**	.55**	.39**	-.28**	1.00	-.23**	-.45**	-.52**	.50**	-.09	-.25**	-.08	-.19*	-.15	-.06	-.14
30. SH DISAGREE ABOUT EI	-.12	-.16*	-.20*	-.19*	-.25**	-.28**	-.39**	.30**	-.23**	1.00	.41**	.37**	-.41**	.05	.17*	-.02	.42**	.23**	.03	.15
31. IMI CYNICAL ABOUT EI	-.22**	-.22**	-.26**	-.19*	-.35**	-.51**	-.40**	.40**	-.45**	.41**	1.00	.65**	-.39**	.12	.39**	.08	.29**	.16	.13**	.22**
32. EI CONTRARY TO IMI INTERESTS	-.21*	-.23**	-.21**	-.19*	-.26**	-.45**	-.44**	.56**	-.52**	.37**	.65**	1.00	-.40**	.15	.43**	.15	.23**	.29**	.21*	.13
33. SH SEE EI AS VITAL TO SUCCESS	.49**	.37**	.38**	.22**	.32**	.40**	.52**	-.20*	.50**	-.41**	-.39**	-.40**	1.00	.02	-.18*	.13	-.31**	-.11	.03	-.17*
34. WORKER RESISTANCE	-.07	.06	-.06	-.11	-.10	-.04	-.05	.22**	-.09	.05	.12	.15	.02	1.00	.26**	.25**	.12	.06	.15	.00
35. IM RESISTANCE	-.06	-.02	-.08	.01	-.10	-.33**	-.26**	.42**	-.25**	.17*	.39**	.43**	-.18*	.26**	1.00	.25**	.41**	.34**	.28**	.13
36. UNION RESISTANCE	.18*	.02	.08	.11	.01	-.08	.02	.17*	-.08	-.02	.08	.15	.13	.25**	.25**	1.00	.14	.15	.20*	.09
37. LACK OF SH SUPPORT	-.18*	-.21**	-.06	-.12	-.24**	-.24**	-.49**	.10	-.19*	.42**	.29**	.23**	-.31**	.12	.41**	.14	1.00	.48**	.13	.44**
38. UNCLEAR OBJECTIVES	-.08	-.12	-.10	-.04	-.18*	-.20*	-.27**	.13	-.15	.23**	.16	.28**	-.11	.06	.34**	.15	.48**	1.00	.39**	.25**
39. CHANGE FATIGUE	.10	-.02	-.05	.01	.05	-.15	-.09	.19*	-.05	.03	.23**	.21*	.03	.15	.28**	.20*	.13	.39**	1.00	.30**
40. SHORT TERM PERFORMANCE PRESSURE	-.08	-.22**	-.32**	-.11	-.24**	-.32**	-.30**	.02	-.14	.15	.22**	.13	-.17*	.00	.13	.09	.24**	.25**	.33**	1.00
41. LACK OF WORKER SKILLS	.02	-.01	.02	-.11	-.12	-.11	.00	.12	.03	.01	.18*	.06	.11	.20*	.24**	.12	.03	.25**	.19*	.17*
42. LACK OF SUPERVISOR SKILLS	-.06	-.08	.04	-.05	-.15	-.17*	-.07	.22**	-.03	-.01	.24**	.15	.10	.07	.28**	-.04	.04	.25**	.19*	.11
43. LACK OF MANAGER'S SKILLS	-.07	-.14	.01	-.02	-.13	-.19*	-.16	.16*	-.09	.14	.20*	.12	-.01	-.07	.35**	-.03	.27**	.41**	.33**	.15
44. RESOURCE LIMITATIONS	-.03	-.06	-.05	-.10	-.03	-.05	-.21**	.08	-.04	.12	.18*	.08	-.10	.21**	.09	.15	.12	.19*	.19**	.19**

Study 1: Zero Order Correlations

Variables	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40
45. QUALITY IMPROVEMENTS	.39**	.29**	.47**	.10*	.31**	.29**	.32**	-.06	.29**	-.18*	-.30**	-.20**	.36**	.05	.06	.25**	-.02	.01	.04	-.11
46. COST IMPROVEMENTS	.33**	.27**	.58**	.20*	.32**	.30**	.27**	.05	.31**	-.13	-.20*	-.11	.30**	.07	.06	.25**	-.06	.06	.16	-.04
47. CUSTOMER RESPONSIVENESS	.37**	.32**	.30**	.12	.27**	.28**	.26**	.02	.29**	-.27**	-.32**	-.18*	.36**	-.02	.03	.20*	-.10	.02	.11	-.01
48. RESPONSIVENESS TO CHANGE	.32**	.28**	.38**	.17*	.24**	.36**	.29**	-.01	.30**	-.24**	-.37**	-.21**	.37**	-.06	-.03	.20*	-.01	.14	.11	-.12
49. IMPROVED PRODUCTIVITY	.29**	.26**	.32**	.20*	.28**	.35**	.31**	.01	.33**	-.19*	-.31**	-.16*	.30**	-.03	-.03	.19*	-.10	.00	.02	-.02
50. JOB SATISFACTION	.25**	.20**	.35**	.23**	.33**	.35**	.34**	-.10	.31**	-.25**	-.43**	-.30**	.36**	-.14	-.15	.04	-.19*	.02	-.02	-.11
51. SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY	.23**	.30**	.29**	.26**	.29**	.31**	.30**	-.09	.30**	-.25**	-.39**	-.23**	.34**	-.06	-.02	.05	-.12	.07	.02	-.12
52. WORKER JOB LOSS	.12	.16*	.21	.12	.04	-.01	.04	.08	.11	-.12	.04	.09	.09	.15	.12	.19*	-.07	.07	.10	-.10
53. SUPERVISOR JOB LOSS	.14	.18*	.06	.09	.15	.03	.08	.11	.15	-.10	.05	.08	.07	.11	.22**	.14	.00	.08	.11	-.02
54. MANAGER JOB LOSS	.19*	.19*	.10	.12	.15	-.02	.03	.20*	.10	-.14	.06	.15	.08	.10	.19*	.17*	-.03	.02	.14	.02
55. LOSS OF PROMOTION OPPORTUNITIES	.14	.17*	.05	.08	.14	-.13	-.10	.27**	.06	.02	.10	.22**	.05	.05	.29**	.16	.06	.15	.23**	.08

Study 1: Zero Order Correlations

Variables	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
1. SIZE (EMPLOYEES)	-.05	-.07	.01	-.09	.00	-.02	-.01	.00	-.06	-.04	.04	.07	.05	.08	.12
2. % SIZE CHANGE (EMPLOYEES)	-.01	-.06	.00	-.10	-.08	-.16	-.14	-.04	-.18*	.04	-.04	-.13	-.19*	-.21*	-.18*
3. MANAGERS	-.06	-.09	.04	-.10	-.10	-.10	-.11	-.10	-.10	-.09	-.08	-.01	-.03	-.03	-.02
4. SUPERVISORS	.01	-.06	-.05	-.09	.00	-.02	-.08	-.05	-.10	-.16	-.01	.06	.04	.10	.21*
5. MANAGEMENT LAYERS	-.09	-.04	-.09	-.04	-.10*	-.11*	-.20*	-.16*	-.21*	-.28**	-.20*	-.14	-.10	-.06	.01
6. CHANGE IN LAYERS	-.09	.06	-.02	-.00	-.05	-.04	-.13	-.12	-.15	-.19	-.18	-.32**	-.36**	-.26*	-.30**
7. SUGGESTION SCHEME	.02	-.08	-.06	-.07	.00	.14	.26**	.18*	.13	.07	.19*	.02	.13	.08	.13
8. ATTITUDE SURVEYS	-.06	-.03	.02	-.15	.17*	.09	.20*	.23**	.12	.11	.16*	.12	.21**	.13	.23**
9. TEAM BRIEFING	-.04	-.13	-.09	-.13	.36**	.25**	.30**	.32**	.24**	.34**	.29**	.15	.16	.10	.08
10. JOB REDESIGN	-.10	-.03	-.04	-.03	.28**	.28**	.27**	.34**	.28**	.29**	.26**	.01	.08	.15	.09
11. QUALITY CIRCLES	.05	-.10	-.08	.06	.36**	.29**	.23**	.19*	.27**	.11	.10	-.09	.02	.03	.08
12. CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES	.05	.01	-.02	-.09	.21**	.21**	.22**	.26**	.27**	.24**	.16*	.10	.18*	.20*	.14
13. TASK FORCES	.03	-.01	.10	-.02	.36**	.30**	.35**	.38**	.31**	.25**	.20*	.15	.23**	.31**	.21**
14. SELF-MANAGING TEAMS	.03	.01	.14	.04	.22**	.14	.17*	.23**	.13	.18*	.26**	.20*	.24**	.22**	.22**
15. SMALL BUSINESS UNITS	.05	.01	.05	.12	.23**	.34**	.30**	.28**	.24**	.20*	.25**	.27**	.31**	.31**	.29**
16. PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT - MANAGERS	-.01	-.06	-.09	-.05	.28**	.28**	.26**	.28**	.33**	.24**	.34**	-.01	.08	.14	.12
17. PERFORMANCE MEASUREMENT-WORKERS	.06	-.04	-.11	-.08	.33**	.29**	.35**	.36**	.43**	.38**	.43**	.05	.11	.21*	.17*
18. REWARDS - MANAGERS	.00	-.10	-.04	.00	.16*	.17*	.20*	.29**	.27**	.23**	.36**	.09	.29**	.30**	.26**
19. REWARDS - WORKERS	-.04	.01	-.06	.00	.18*	.18*	.26**	.39**	.38**	.27**	.38**	.05	.22**	.24**	.18*
20. DECENTRALISATION	.01	-.02	.04	-.05	.31**	.31**	.36**	.43**	.28**	.31**	.34**	.26**	.26**	.26**	.26**
21. IMPROVE COMMUNICATION	.02	-.06	-.07	-.03	.39**	.33**	.37**	.32**	.29**	.25**	.23**	.12	.14	.19*	.14
22. MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT	-.01	-.08	-.14	-.06	.29**	.27**	.32**	.28**	.26**	.29**	.30**	.16*	.18*	.18*	.17*
23. EMPLOYEE TRAINING	.02	.04	.01	-.05	.37**	.28**	.30**	.39**	.32**	.35**	.29**	.01	.06	.10	.05
24. SUPERVISOR ROLE	-.11	-.05	-.02	-.10	.19*	.20*	.12	.17*	.20*	.23**	.26**	.12	.09	.12	.08

Study 1: Zero Order Correlations

Variables	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
25. MANAGEMENT CONTROL	-.12	-.15	-.13	-.03	.33**	.32**	.27**	.24**	.29**	.33**	.29**	.04	.15	.15	.14
26. MI BELIEF IN MI	-.11	-.17*	-.19*	-.05	.29**	.30**	.28**	.36**	.35**	.35**	.31**	-.01	.03	-.02	-.13
27. SM COMMITMENT TO MI	.00	-.07	-.16	-.21**	.32**	.27**	.26**	.29**	.31**	.34**	.30**	.04	.08	.03	-.10
28. MI ANTI-MI ABOUT EI	.12	.22**	.16*	.08	-.06	.05	.02	-.01	.01	-.10	-.09	.08	.11	.20*	.27**
29. MI EUTHUASTIC ABOUT EI	.03	-.03	-.02	-.04	.29**	.31**	.29**	.30**	.33**	.31**	.30**	.11	.15	.10	.06
30. SM DISAGREE ABOUT EI	.01	-.01	.14	.12	-.19*	-.13	-.27**	-.24**	-.12*	-.25**	-.25**	-.12	-.10	-.14	.02
31. MI CYNICAL ABOUT EI	.18*	.24**	.20*	.18*	-.30**	-.20*	-.32**	-.37**	-.31**	-.43**	-.39**	.04	.05	.06	.10
32. EI CONTRARY TO MI INTERESTS	.06	.15	.12	.08	-.28**	-.11	-.18*	-.21**	-.16*	-.30**	-.23**	.09	.08	.15	.22**
33. SM SEE EI AS VITAL TO SUCCESS	.11	.10	-.01	-.10	.36**	.30**	.36**	.37**	.30**	.36**	.34**	.09	.07	.08	.05
34. WORKER RESISTANCE	.20*	.07	-.07	.21**	.05	.07	-.02	-.06	-.03	-.14	-.06	.15	.11	.10	.05
35. MI RESISTANCE	.24**	.28**	.35**	.09	.06	.06	.03	-.03	-.03	-.15	-.02	.12	.22**	.19*	.29**
36. UNION RESISTANCE	.12	-.04	-.03	.15	.25**	.25**	.20*	.20*	.19*	.04	.05	.19*	.14	.17*	.16
37. LACK OF SM SUPPORT	.03	.04	.27**	.12	-.02	-.06	-.10	-.01	-.10	-.19*	-.12	-.07	.00	-.03	.06
38. UNCLEAR OBJECTIVES	.25**	.25**	.41**	.12	.01	.06	.02	.14	.00	.05	.07	.07	.08	.09	.15
39. CHANGE FATIGUE	.19*	.21*	.19*	.29**	.04	.16	.13	.11	.05	-.02	.06	.10	.11	.14	.23**
40. SHORT TERM PERFORMANCE PRESSURE	.15	.12	.16	.25**	-.13	-.04	-.01	-.12	-.09	-.11	-.12	-.10	-.05	.02	.08
41. LACK OF WORKER SKILLS	1.00	.62**	.55**	.25**	.09	.05	.05	-.06	.01	.00	-.07	.10	.13	.12	.16
42. LACK OF SUPERVISOR SKILLS	.62**	1.00	.72**	.19*	-.08	-.02	-.03	-.07	-.05	-.02	-.06	.09	.08	.10	.13
43. LACK OF MANAGER'S SKILLS	.55**	.72**	1.00	.20*	-.02	-.05	-.07	-.05	-.08	-.02	-.04	.08	.18*	.14	.20*
44. RESOURCE LIMITATIONS	.25**	.19*	.20*	1.00	-.06	.24	.03	-.07	.02	-.08	-.07	.01	.03	.04	.15

Study 1: Zero Order Correlations

Variables	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55
45. QUALITY IMPROVEMENTS	.09	-.08	-.02	-.06	1.00	.77**	.71**	.50**	.65**	.46**	.44**	.17*	.26**	.27**	.21**
46. COST IMPROVEMENTS	.05	-.02	-.05	.04	.77**	1.00	.75**	.60**	.74**	.49**	.50**	.31**	.31**	.37**	.27**
47. CUSTOMER RESPONSIVENESS	.05	-.03	-.07	.03	.71**	.75**	1.00	.73**	.69**	.57**	.58**	.23**	.29**	.33**	.29**
48. RESPONSIVENESS TO CHANGE	-.06	-.07	-.05	-.07	.59**	.60**	.73**	1.00	.69**	.60**	.64**	.22**	.32**	.37**	.22**
49. IMPROVED PRODUCTIVITY	.01	-.05	-.08	.02	.65**	.74**	.69**	.69**	1.00	.57**	.54**	.18*	.20*	.32**	.20*
50. JOB SATISFACTION	.00	-.02	-.02	-.08	.48**	.49**	.57**	.60**	.57**	1.00	.72**	.19*	.15	.14	.08
51. SENSE OF RESPONSIBILITY	-.07	-.06	-.04	-.07	.44**	.50**	.58**	.64**	.54**	.72**	1.00	.32**	.36**	.28**	.28**
52. WORKER JOB LOSS	.10	.09	.08	.01	.17*	.31**	.23**	.22**	.18*	.19*	.32**	1.00	.76**	.62**	.44**
53. SUPERVISOR JOB LOSS	.13	.08	.16*	.03	.26**	.31**	.29**	.32**	.20*	.15	.36**	.76**	1.00	.76**	.64**
54. MANAGER JOB LOSS	.12	.10	.14	.04	.27**	.37**	.33**	.37**	.32**	.14	.28**	.62**	.76**	1.00	.71**
55. LOSS OF PROMOTION OPPORTUNITIES	.16	.13	.20*	.15	.21**	.27**	.29**	.22**	.20*	.08	.28**	.44**	.64**	.71**	1.00

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

STUDY/2

 *the Institute
of Management*

MANAGEMENT HOUSE
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CORBY
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NN17 1TT
TELEPHONE (033) 204222
FACSIMILE (033) 204251

January 1995

Dear Member

EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT AND THE MANAGER

Much has been written about the benefits and problems of employee involvement and empowerment in recent years i.e. the direct involvement of employees in making decisions about how their work is carried out. In the right circumstances these practices can deliver considerable benefits such as increased job satisfaction, improved productivity and greater success in managing change.

Little attention has been paid however, to the opinion of managers who are often expected to implement such programmes. The Institute of Management, in conjunction with the London Business School, is therefore keen to investigate the extent to which managers are affected by these programmes and their views about the value of employee involvement.

The information that you give will be treated in strictest confidence and all replies are anonymous.

Please return the completed questionnaire in the enclosed reply-paid envelope by February 6th 1995.

If you mislay the envelope the return address is:

Survey Processing (EMP)
The Institute of Management
Management House
Cottingham Road
Corby
Northants NN17 1TT

Thank you for finding the time to take part in this project. The research results will form the basis of a report to be published later this year. If you have any queries about the questionnaire, Karen Cole in the IM's London office (Telephone 0171 497 0580) will be pleased to help.

Yours faithfully



ROGER YOUNG
Director General

A Registered Charity No. 27291
Incorporated in England
A Company Limited by Guarantee
Registered Address: 2nd Floor, 25 Abchurch Lane
London EC4N 3DF

EMPLOYEE INVOLVEMENT

1. Which of the following practices does your organisation make significant use of?

[Please tick as appropriate]

Suggestion schemes - any formal system for encouraging, collecting and recognising employee suggestions for improvements in work processes or working conditions. 1

Employee attitude surveys - regular questionnaire surveys of employee attitudes and opinions concerning their work and organisation. 2

Team briefing system - regular communication of key information in team meetings. Structures to cascade information down the organisation and allow for feedback. 3

Job enrichment/ redesign - redesign of jobs to increase work variety, completeness of tasks and autonomy, often with the direct involvement of employees in redesigning their own jobs. 4

Quality circles - groups of employees meeting on a regular basis to identify and suggest solutions to problems of productivity, quality, service etc., usually without decision-making authority. 5

Consultative committees - joint committees of managers and employee representatives, which provide a forum for consultation on management decisions. 6

Self managing work teams - work teams organised around complete tasks or customer groups. These teams (*with or without a team leader*) have responsibility for the day to day management of their work. Some have responsibility for discipline, bonus allocation, training and recruitment. 7

Small self-contained business units - small groups of employees and managers organised around a product group or set of customers, acting as a semi-autonomous business. 8

None of these 9

1M

2. How much involvement do you believe non-management employees in your organisation SHOULD have in decisions about each of the following?

[Please tick ONE box only in each line]

	None	A little	A moderate amount	A great deal	A very great deal	
Planning and scheduling of work	<input type="checkbox"/>	3				
The way work is done, (procedures and methods)	<input type="checkbox"/>	4				
Speed of work	<input type="checkbox"/>	5				
Allocation of tasks and responsibilities within the immediate work group	<input type="checkbox"/>	6				
Determining quality standards	<input type="checkbox"/>	7				
Determining how quality standards will be achieved	<input type="checkbox"/>	8				
Hiring new recruits with whom they will work	<input type="checkbox"/>	9				
	1	2	3	4	5	

3. How much involvement do non-management employees in your organisation ACTUALLY have in decisions about each of the following?

[Please tick ONE box only in each line]

	None	A little	A moderate amount	A great deal	A very great deal	
Planning and scheduling of work	<input type="checkbox"/>	10				
The way work is done, (procedures and methods)	<input type="checkbox"/>	11				
Speed of work	<input type="checkbox"/>	12				
Allocation of tasks and responsibilities within the immediate work group	<input type="checkbox"/>	13				
Determining quality standards	<input type="checkbox"/>	14				
Determining how quality standards will be achieved	<input type="checkbox"/>	15				
Hiring new recruits with whom they will work	<input type="checkbox"/>	16				
	1	2	3	4	5	

4. How much experience have you had, personally, of initiatives which have given people reporting to you significant involvement in decisions about their work?

[Please tick ONE box only]

None	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
A little	<input type="checkbox"/>	2
A moderate amount	<input type="checkbox"/>	3
A great deal	<input type="checkbox"/>	4
A very great deal	<input type="checkbox"/>	5
Not applicable / no direct reports	<input type="checkbox"/>	6

5. Which of the following best describes how employees are managed in your organisation?

(Please tick ONE box only)

- Managers plan, organise, coordinate and control. Employees may be informed in advance of changes in the way work is carried out but are not usually consulted 1
- Managers consult employees about the way work is carried out and take their views and suggestions into account in making decisions 2
- Employees make decisions, as individuals or in teams, on a range of matters concerning how they organise and carry out their work 3
- Employees have wide choice in how they achieve their work goals and control over the resources they need to do their work 4

18

6. How far do you personally agree with the following statements?

(Please tick ONE box only in each line)

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	
Many organisational problems disappear when everyone has the opportunity to participate in decision making	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	19
Participative decision making usually results in effective decisions	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	20
Employee involvement gives too much power to subordinates	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	21
Employee involvement promotes positive relationships at all levels of the organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	22
Participative decision making often requires divulging too much confidential information	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	23
Subordinates often cannot be trusted	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	24
I am confident in my ability to manage very effectively in an environment of high employee involvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	25
I would expect to find it quite hard to manage well in a highly participative style	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	26
I would support efforts to increase employee involvement in my organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	27
I give high priority in my work to increasing levels of employee involvement	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	28
I encourage other managers to support employee involvement initiatives	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	29
	1	2	3	4	5	

7. Thinking about your own job and organisation, how far do you agree with the following statements?

[Please tick ONE box only in each line]

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree	
I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	30
I have good access to the information I need to do my job well	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	31
My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own authority	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	32
I have enough freedom as to how I do my work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	33
I could perform my job more effectively with better access to information	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	34
I have enough authority to do my job most effectively	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	35
I have sufficient control over resources to do my best work	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	36
I could do a much better job with greater control over resources	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	37
There is a lot of conflict of interest among members of this organisation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	38
Members of this organisation mostly share the same goals	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	39
I have good opportunities for career development	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	40
	1	2	3	4	5	

8. How likely do you think you are to be promoted in the next five years?

[Please tick ONE box only]

Very unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>	1
Unlikely	<input type="checkbox"/>	2
Not sure	<input type="checkbox"/>	3
Likely	<input type="checkbox"/>	4
Very likely	<input type="checkbox"/>	5
		41

9. When your performance is reviewed, how much emphasis does your organisation place on the following factors?

[Please tick ONE box only in each line]

	None	A little	A moderate amount	A great deal	A very great deal	
Financial results/ outputs	<input type="checkbox"/>	42				
Professional/ technical competence	<input type="checkbox"/>	43				
Developing subordinates	<input type="checkbox"/>	44				
Involving subordinates in decisions about their work	<input type="checkbox"/>	45				
	1	2	3	4	5	

10. Approximately how many days training have you had in people management skills (eg. giving feedback, coaching, motivation, goal setting) in the last THREE years?

[Write in 0 if none]

..... Days
46N

11. How many levels of management are there from Managing Director to first line supervisor/manager (inclusive) in your organisation?

[Write number]

..... Level
49N

12. If the most senior level of management in your organisation is 1, what level are you at?

[Write level number]

..... Level
51N

13. If you stay with your current organisation which management level do you expect to reach?

[Write level number]

..... Level
53N

14. Has your organisation changed the number of layers of management in your part of the organisation in the last three years?

[Please tick ONE box only]

- Reduced 1
No change 2
Increased 3
55

15. What would you estimate to be the percentage change in the number of managers employed in your organisation during the last three years?

[Write number or tick if no change]

- % reduction 56N
..... No change 59
..... % increase 60N

16. How many employers (including your present one) have you worked for in your adult working life?

[Write number excluding casual or temporary jobs]

..... Employers
63N

17. How many years have you worked for your present organisation?

- 0 - 2 years 1
3 to 5 years 2
6 to 10 years 3
More than 10 years 4
65

PERSONAL DETAILS

18. Are you:

- Male 1
Female 2
66

19. Which age group are you in?

- | | | |
|-------------|--------------------------|----|
| 25 or under | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| 26 to 35 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| 36 to 45 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| 46 to 55 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| Over 55 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| | | 67 |

20. How many employees does your organisation have in the UK?

- | | | |
|------------------|--------------------------|----|
| Fewer than 25 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| 26 - 50 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| 51 - 100 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| 101 - 500 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| 501 - 1000 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| 1001 - 5,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| 5,001 - 10,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |
| 10,001 - 50,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 8 |
| More than 50,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> | 9 |
| | | 68 |

21. What is the main area of activity of your organisation?

- | | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------|----|
| Construction/engineering | <input type="checkbox"/> | 1 |
| Manufacturing/production | <input type="checkbox"/> | 2 |
| Distribution/transport | <input type="checkbox"/> | 3 |
| Retail/wholesale | <input type="checkbox"/> | 4 |
| Marketing/sales/advertising | <input type="checkbox"/> | 5 |
| Leisure | <input type="checkbox"/> | 6 |
| Utilities | <input type="checkbox"/> | 7 |
| Banking/insurance/finance | <input type="checkbox"/> | 8 |
| Public administration/government | <input type="checkbox"/> | 9 |
| Education/training | <input type="checkbox"/> | 10 |
| Health | <input type="checkbox"/> | 11 |
| Professional/consultancy | <input type="checkbox"/> | 12 |
| Information technology | <input type="checkbox"/> | 13 |
| Business services | <input type="checkbox"/> | 14 |
| Other services | <input type="checkbox"/> | 15 |
| Other (Please specify) | <input type="checkbox"/> | 16 |
| | | 69 |

22. What is your management function?

- Administration/company secretary 1
- Management services 2
- Finance/accounting 3
- Education/training 4
- Personnel/HR/IR 5
- Production/manufacturing 6
- Computing/IT 7
- Development/strategic affairs 8
- Marketing/sales 9
- Purchasing/contracting 10
- Corporate affairs/public relations 11
- Management consultancy 12
- General management* 13
- Other (Please specify) 14

71

* Only tick this box if you have a senior role managing across functions

ANY OTHER COMMENTS

.....

.....

.....

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.....

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.....

.....

.....

Thank you for your co-operation
Your reply will be treated in strictest confidence

Please return the questionnaire by 6 February 1995 to:

Survey Processing (EMP)
The Institute of Management
Management House
Cottingham Road
Corby
Northants NN17 1TT

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Suggestion schemes	.43	.49
Attitude surveys	.28	.45
Team briefing	.72	.45
Job enrichment/redesign	.16	.37
Quality circles	.30	.46
Consultative committees	.38	.49
Self-managing work teams	.27	.44
self-contained business units	.26	.44
Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	3.33	.93
The way work is done(desired EI)	3.78	.81
Speed of work (desired EI)	3.39	.88
Allocation of tasks(desired EI)	3.29	.97
Determining quality standards(desired EI)	3.33	1.09
How quality standards will be met(desired EI)	3.81	.92
Hiring new recruits(desired EI)	2.37	1.02
Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	2.63	1.05
The way work is done(actual EI)	2.89	1.01
Speed of work(actual EI)	2.71	1.05
Allocation of tasks(actual EI)	2.57	1.03
Determining quality standards(actual EI)	2.39	1.11
How quality standards will be met(actual EI)	2.62	1.10
Hiring new recruits(actual EI)	1.57	.87
EI experience	3.45	1.08
Management control style	1.90	.71
PDM solves problems	3.55	.99
PDM=effective decisions	3.72	.80
EI gives too much power to subordinates	2.18	.82
EI promotes positive relationships	4.04	.71
PDM requires divulging too much confidential information	2.50	.89
Subordinates often cannot be trusted	2.07	.92
Confident in own ability to manage effectively with EI	4.05	.70
Hard to manage well in participative style	2.13	.87
Would support efforts to increase EI	4.02	.71
Give high priority to increasing	3.73	.82
Encourage other managers to support EI	3.80	.73
I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	4.17	.91
I have good access to information	3.99	.92
I can make a lot of decisions on my own authority	4.18	.84
I have enough freedom in how I do my work	4.07	.90
I could perform my job effectively with better access to information	3.16	1.14
I have enough authority. .	3.82	1.02
I have sufficient control over resources . .	3.43	1.10
I could do a better job with better control over resources	3.21	1.15
There is a lot of conflict of interest . .	3.17	1.19
Members of this organisation mostly share the same goals	3.35	1.03

Study 2: Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation
I have good opportunities for career development	2.84	1.14
How likely are you to be promoted in next five years	2.45	1.33
Financial results/outputs	3.91	1.08
Professional/technical competence	3.79	.96
Developing subordinates	2.83	1.03
Involving subordinates in	2.31	1.06
Training in people skills	9.46	34.59
Levels of management	3.85	1.75
Own level	2.69	1.40
Expected final level	2.35	1.26
Change in management layers	1.67	.66

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Suggestion	1.00	.29**	.24**	.09**	.17**	.20**	.08**	.09**	.12**	.09**	.09**	.04	.07*	.08**	.05	.09**	.02
2. Attitude surveys	.29**	1.00	.21**	.17**	.16**	.21**	.15**	.13**	.15**	.15**	.12**	.13**	.10**	.12**	.07*	.15**	.10**
3. Team briefing	.24**	.21**	1.00	.15**	.23**	.24**	.15**	.09**	.11**	.11**	.08**	.11**	.09**	.12**	.10**	.15**	.15**
4. Job enrichment/redesign	.09**	.17**	.15**	1.00	.16**	.12**	.22**	.09**	.12**	.12**	.11**	.12**	.06	.07*	.13**	.21**	.22**
5. Quality circles	.17**	.16**	.23**	.16**	1.00	.21**	.16**	.13**	.08**	.06*	.04	.02	.10**	.10**	.04	.08**	.10**
6. Consultative committees	.20**	.21**	.24**	.12**	.21**	1.00	.06	.03	.06*	.08**	.06*	.08**	.08**	.10**	.07*	.07*	.07*
7. Self-managing work teams	.08**	.15**	.15**	.22**	.16**	.06	1.00	.14**	.13**	.13**	.09**	.14**	.05	.07*	.16**	.17**	.19**
8. self-contained business units	.09**	.13**	.09**	.09**	.13**	.03	.14**	1.00	.13**	.11**	.05	.04	.04	.09**	.09**	.16**	.15**
9. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	.12**	.15**	.11**	.12**	.08**	.06*	.13**	.13**	1.00	.49**	.47**	.47**	.35**	.34**	.41**	.54**	.33**
10. The way work is done(desired EI)	.09**	.15**	.11**	.12**	.06*	.08**	.13**	.11**	.49**	1.00	.52**	.44**	.38**	.48**	.34**	.27**	.42**
11. Speed of work(desired EI)	.09**	.12**	.08**	.11**	.04	.06*	.09**	.05	.47**	.52**	1.00	.43**	.43**	.38**	.34**	.25**	.29**
12. Allocation of tasks(desired EI)	.04	.13**	.11**	.12**	.02	.08**	.14**	.04	.47**	.44**	.43**	1.00	.34**	.40**	.47**	.27**	.29**
13. Determining quality standards(desired EI)	.07*	.10**	.09**	.06	.10**	.08**	.05	.04	.35**	.38**	.43**	.34**	1.00	.52**	.34**	.22**	.24**
14. How quality standards will be met(desired EI)	.08**	.12**	.12**	.07*	.10**	.10**	.07*	.09**	.34**	.48**	.38**	.40**	.52**	1.00	.37**	.15**	.19**
15. Hiring new recruits(desired EI)	.05	.07*	.10**	.13**	.04	.07*	.16**	.09**	.41**	.34**	.34**	.47**	.34**	.37**	1.00	.27**	.25**
16. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	.09**	.15**	.15**	.21**	.08**	.07*	.17**	.16**	.54**	.27**	.25**	.27**	.22**	.15**	.27**	1.00	.64**
17. The way work is done(actual EI)	.02	.10**	.15**	.22**	.10**	.07*	.19**	.15**	.33**	.42**	.29**	.29**	.24**	.19**	.25**	.64**	1.00
18. Speed of work(actual EI)	.04	.05	.12**	.22**	.04	.07*	.14**	.12**	.30**	.23**	.41**	.28**	.23**	.15**	.26**	.54**	.62**
19. Allocation of tasks(actual EI)	.06*	.11**	.16**	.23**	.11**	.07*	.23**	.11**	.33**	.26**	.23**	.48**	.21**	.17**	.34**	.55**	.55**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
20. Determining quality standards (actual EI)	.06	.10**	.14**	.18**	.15**	.10**	.13**	.13**	.23**	.23**	.25**	.20**	.52**	.26**	.23**	.49**	.54**
21. How quality standards will be met (actual EI)	.09**	.12**	.17**	.19**	.18**	.10**	.15**	.14**	.24**	.26**	.19**	.25**	.28**	.39**	.24**	.49**	.55**
22. Hiring new recruits (actual EI)	.05	.01	.09**	.21**	.02	.05	.14**	.06	.20**	.15**	.18**	.24**	.16**	.09**	.55**	.40**	.37**
23. EI experience	.09**	.15**	.13**	.20**	.14**	.14**	.11**	.10**	.20**	.21**	.20**	.17**	.15**	.19**	.13**	.25**	.31**
24. Management control style	.03	.10**	.14**	.23**	.07*	.08**	.23**	.13**	.19**	.19**	.19**	.16**	.11**	.07*	.16**	.43**	.47**
25. PDM solves problems	.03	.03	.07*	.08**	.06	.04	.01	-.01	.29**	.30**	.25**	.30**	.20**	.24**	.26**	.13**	.14**
26. PDM=effective decisions	.04	.05	.07*	.04	.00	.03	.00	.00	.31**	.31**	.24**	.27**	.19**	.23**	.23**	.11**	.12**
27. EI gives too much power to	-.07*	-.13**	-.09**	-.11**	-.10**	-.10**	-.04	-.02	-.28**	-.32**	-.25**	-.23**	-.14**	-.23**	-.19**	-.11**	-.14**
28. EI promotes positive relationships	.06*	.07*	.07*	.03	.04	.08*	.03	.04	.22**	.28**	.26**	.22**	.17**	.19**	.14**	.11**	.11**
29. PDM requires divulging too much confidential information	-.05	-.06*	-.11**	-.06*	-.06*	-.09**	-.03	.01	-.20**	-.25**	-.17**	-.21**	-.13**	-.17**	-.18**	-.07*	-.09**
30. Subordinates often cannot be trusted	-.04	-.08*	-.07*	-.03	-.01	-.09**	-.02	-.01	-.23**	-.24**	-.20**	-.19**	-.19**	-.21**	-.14**	-.10**	-.10**
31. Confident in own ability to manage effectively	.02	.10**	.06	.12**	.07*	.07*	.07*	.02	.18**	.21**	.18**	.14**	.13**	.17**	.14**	.07*	.09**
32. Hard to manage well in participative style	-.06*	-.08**	-.06	-.11**	-.07*	-.03	-.02	.01	-.18**	-.15**	-.17**	-.11**	-.13**	-.15**	-.13**	-.09**	-.10**
33. Would support efforts to increase EI	.09**	.15**	.07*	.03	.05	.09**	.04	.03	.32**	.37**	.28**	.28**	.23**	.31**	.23**	.07*	.06
34. Give high priority to increasing EI	.09**	.17**	.11**	.15**	.08**	.11**	.14**	.00	.32**	.34**	.31**	.28**	.22**	.24**	.24**	.12**	.14**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
35. Encourage other managers to support EI	.11**	.17**	.14**	.15**	.16**	.15**	.11**	.02	.30**	.32**	.32**	.27**	.23**	.24**	.23**	.14**	.14**
36. I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	-.02	.01	.05	.16**	.11**	.08**	.10**	.08**	.04	.06*	.05	.06	.05	.01	.06*	.22**	.28**
37. I have good access to	.08*	.08*	.09**	.15**	.12**	.10**	.08**	.04	-.01	.03	.01	-.02	-.03	-.04	-.02	.16**	.24**
38. I can make a lot of decisions on my own authority	.02	.01	.04	.14**	.11**	.11**	.09**	.04	-.02	.03	.00	.01	.02	.01	.02	.17**	.25**
39. I have enough freedom in how I do my work	.02	.04	.03	.14**	.10**	.06	.07*	.03	-.01	.06*	.04	.06	.02	.02	.02	.17**	.24**
40. I could perform my job effectively with better access to information	-.04	-.04	-.06*	-.08**	-.06	-.01	-.05	-.03	.00	-.02	-.02	-.02	.04	.02	.01	-.09**	-.14**
41. I have enough authority.	.07*	.08**	.10**	.15**	.11**	.10**	.07*	.02	.01	.05	.07*	.01	.05	.02	.05	.17**	.23**
42. I have sufficient control over resources . .	.03	.03	.06*	.20**	.10**	.06*	.09**	.00	-.03	-.01	.00	-.02	.00	-.04	.04	.16**	.21**
43. I could do a better job with better control over resources	-.01	-.02	-.02	-.13**	-.03	-.05	-.02	.03	.00	-.01	.02	-.01	.03	.02	-.03	-.09**	-.12**
44. There is a lot of conflict of interest . .	-.04	-.03	-.08*	-.19**	-.08*	-.02	-.08**	-.01	.01	.01	-.01	-.02	.02	.05	-.04	-.24**	-.28**
45. Members of this organisation mostly share the same goals	.07*	.08*	.09**	.16**	.10**	.05	.10**	.06*	-.02	-.01	.03	.01	.02	-.05	.02	.22**	.24**
46. I have good opportunities for career development	.10**	.06*	.14**	.19**	.13**	.11**	.11**	.05	.02	.01	.04	.03	.01	-.02	.09**	.22**	.21**
47. How likely are you to be promoted in next five years	.04	.05	.06*	.05	.05	.06*	.06*	.07*	.06*	.05	.02	.02	.06	.07*	.10**	.10**	.08**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
48. Financial results/outputs	.04	.07*	.05	.06*	.10**	.06	.04	.08**	.04	.07*	.02	.06*	.01	.06*	.05	.13**	.12**
49. Professional/technical	.05	.02	.09**	.07*	.02	.06*	.06	.00	-.02	.02	-.04	.00	.02	.06	.00	.09**	.11**
50. Developing subordinates	.14**	.17**	.20**	.15**	.11**	.11**	.15**	.05	.07*	.12**	.11**	.09**	.12**	.11**	.15**	.21**	.27**
51. Involving subordinates in decisions	.12**	.15**	.18**	.22**	.16**	.14**	.14**	.07*	.13**	.14**	.14**	.13**	.15**	.13**	.20**	.32**	.36**
52. Training in people skills	.02	.05	.06*	.03	.04	.09**	.04	-.01	-.05	-.05	-.05	-.04	-.01	.02	.07*	-.02	.01
53. Levels of management	.21**	.23**	.13**	-.06*	.03	.15**	.01	.04	.05	.06	.01	.02	.06*	.11**	-.03	-.11**	-.13**
54. Own level	.18**	.16**	.06	-.05	-.05	.03	.00	.03	.08*	.04	.00	.00	.06	.06*	.00	-.09**	-.15**
55. Expected final level	.17**	.13**	.04	-.03	-.06*	.01	.00	.01	.04	.04	-.01	-.01	.05	.05	.00	-.08*	-.13**
56. Change in management layers	-.17**	-.19**	-.17**	-.12**	-.11**	-.16**	-.10**	-.12**	-.15**	-.12**	-.06*	-.12**	-.10**	-.13**	-.06*	-.11**	-.10**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
1. Suggestion	.04	.06*	.06	.09**	.05	.09**	.03	.03	.04	-.07*	.06*	-.05	-.04	.02	-.06*	.09**	.09**
2. Attitude surveys	.05	.11**	.10**	.12**	.01	.15**	.10**	.03	.05	-.13**	.07*	-.06*	-.08**	.10**	-.08**	.15**	.17**
3. Team briefing	.12**	.16**	.14**	.17**	.09**	.13**	.14**	.07*	.07*	-.09**	.07*	-.11**	-.07*	.06	-.06	.07*	.11**
4. Job enrichment/redesign	.22**	.23**	.18**	.19**	.21**	.20**	.23**	.08**	.04	-.11**	.03	-.06*	-.03	.12**	-.11**	.03	.15**
5. Quality circles	.04	.11**	.15**	.18**	.02	.14**	.07*	.06	.00	-.10**	.04	-.06*	-.01	.07*	-.07*	.05	.08**
6. Consultative committees	.07*	.07*	.10**	.10**	.05	.14**	.08**	.04	.03	-.10**	.08*	-.09**	-.09**	.07*	-.03	.09**	.11**
7. Self-managing work teams	.14**	.23**	.13**	.15**	.14**	.11**	.23**	.01	.00	-.04	.03	-.03	-.02	.07*	-.02	.04	.14**
8. self-contained business units	.12**	.11**	.13**	.14**	.06	.10**	.13**	-.01	.00	-.02	.04	.01	-.01	.02	.01	.03	.00
9. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	.30**	.33**	.23**	.24**	.20**	.20**	.19**	.29**	.31**	-.28**	.22**	-.20**	-.23**	.18**	-.18**	.32**	.32**
10. The way work is done(desired EI)	.23**	.26**	.23**	.26**	.15**	.21**	.19**	.30**	.31**	-.32**	.28**	-.25**	-.24**	.21**	-.15**	.37**	.34**
11. Speed of work(desired EI)	.41**	.23**	.25**	.19**	.18**	.20**	.19**	.25**	.24**	-.25**	.26**	-.17**	-.20**	.18**	-.17**	.28**	.31**
12. Allocation of tasks(desired EI)	.28**	.48**	.20**	.25**	.24**	.17**	.16**	.30**	.27**	-.23**	.22**	-.21**	-.19**	.14**	-.11**	.28**	.28**
13. Determining quality standards(desired EI)	.23**	.21**	.52**	.28**	.16**	.15**	.11**	.20**	.19**	-.14**	.17**	-.13**	-.19**	.13**	-.13**	.23**	.22**
14. How quality standards will be met(desired EI)	.15**	.17**	.26**	.39**	.09**	.19**	.07*	.24**	.23**	-.23**	.19**	-.17**	-.21**	.17**	-.15**	.31**	.24**
15. Hiring new recruits(desired EI)	.26**	.34**	.23**	.24**	.55**	.13**	.16**	.26**	.23**	-.19**	.14**	-.18**	-.14**	.14**	-.13**	.23**	.24**
16. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	.54**	.55**	.49**	.49**	.40**	.25**	.43**	.13**	.11**	-.11**	.11**	-.07*	-.10**	.07*	-.09**	.07*	.12**
17. The way work is done(actual EI)	.62**	.55**	.54**	.55**	.37**	.31**	.47**	.14**	.12**	-.14**	.11**	-.09**	-.10**	.09**	-.10**	.06	.14**
18. Speed of work(actual EI)	1.00	.55**	.50**	.48**	.38**	.22**	.42**	.11**	.07*	-.11**	.09**	-.08**	-.09**	.10**	-.09**	.05	.12**
19. Allocation of tasks(actual EI)	.55**	1.00	.50**	.52**	.46**	.29**	.40**	.15**	.11**	-.14**	.12**	-.14**	-.10**	.10**	-.13**	.07*	.15**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
20. Determining quality standards(actual EI)	.50**	.50**	1.00	.74**	.41**	.26**	.36**	.11**	.10**	-.06	.10**	-.02	-.09**	.12**	-.12**	.04	.12**
21. How quality standards will be met(actual EI)	.48**	.52**	.74**	1.00	.40**	.29**	.37**	.13**	.11**	-.10**	.09**	-.06*	-.10**	.11**	-.12**	.04	.10**
22. Hiring new recruits(actual EI)	.38**	.46**	.41**	.40**	1.00	.18**	.30**	.10**	.06*	-.08**	.02	-.07*	-.02	.08*	-.08**	-.01	.07*
23. EI experience	.22**	.29**	.26**	.29**	.18**	1.00	.26**	.16**	.15**	-.21**	.16**	-.14**	-.10**	.27**	-.22**	.19**	.30**
24. Management control style	.42**	.40**	.36**	.37**	.30**	.26**	1.00	.11**	.08**	-.14**	.11**	-.09**	-.11**	.10**	-.12**	.06	.14**
25. PDM solves problems	.11**	.15**	.11**	.13**	.10**	.16**	.11**	1.00	.50**	-.33**	.38**	-.24**	-.22**	.30**	-.26**	.40**	.39**
26. PDM-effective decisions	.07*	.11**	.10**	.11**	.06*	.15**	.08**	.50**	1.00	-.33**	.34**	-.24**	-.23**	.28**	-.25**	.38**	.38**
27. EI gives too much power to positive relationships	-.11**	-.14**	-.06	-.10**	-.08**	-.21**	-.14**	-.33**	-.33**	1.00	-.33**	.49**	.37**	-.31**	.20**	-.37**	-.36**
28. EI promotes relationships	.09**	.12**	.10**	.09**	.02	.16**	.11**	.38**	.34**	-.33**	1.00	-.21**	-.25**	.27**	-.21**	.33**	.30**
29. PDM requires divulging too much confidential information	-.08**	-.14**	-.02	-.06*	-.07*	-.14**	-.09**	-.24**	.49**	.49**	-.21**	1.00	.44**	-.23**	.26**	-.28**	-.24**
30. Subordinates often cannot be trusted	-.09**	-.10**	-.09**	-.10**	-.02	-.10**	-.11**	-.22**	-.23**	.37**	-.25**	.44**	1.00	-.19**	.21**	-.28**	-.23**
31. Confident in own ability to manage effectively	.10**	.10**	.12**	.11**	.08*	.27**	.10**	.30**	.28**	-.31**	.27**	-.23**	-.19**	1.00	-.51**	.31**	.41**
32. Hard to manage well in participative style	-.09**	-.13**	-.12**	-.12**	-.08**	-.22**	-.12**	-.26**	-.25**	.28**	-.21**	.26**	.21**	-.51**	1.00	-.29**	-.38**
33. Would support efforts to increase EI	.05	.07*	.04	.04	-.01	.19**	.06	.40**	.38**	-.37**	.33**	-.28**	-.28**	.31**	-.29**	1.00	.52**
34. Give high priority to increasing EI	.12**	.15**	.12**	.10**	.07*	.30**	.14**	.39**	.38**	-.36**	.30**	-.24**	-.23**	.41**	-.38**	.52**	1.00

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
35. Encourage other managers to support EI	.16**	.17**	.17**	.16**	.09**	.34**	.18**	.35**	.37**	-.34**	.34**	-.24**	-.21**	.36**	-.32**	.50**	.62**
36. I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	.27**	.25**	.21**	.21**	.18**	.23**	.26**	.02	.01	-.03	.04	-.01	-.02	.13**	-.06*	-.02	.09**
37. I have good access to	.19**	.18**	.17**	.20**	.14**	.21**	.21**	.00	-.03	.00	.02	.00	-.01	.10**	-.05	-.07*	.04
38. I can make a lot of decisions on my own authority	.22**	.22**	.19**	.21**	.15**	.21**	.21**	.01	-.02	-.02	.05	.01	.02	.12**	-.03	-.04	.09**
39. I have enough freedom in how I do my work	.21**	.21**	.18**	.19**	.13**	.17**	.21**	.04	-.03	.00	.07*	.01	.00	.09**	-.02	-.07*	.07*
40. I could perform my job effectively with better access to information	-.12**	-.14**	-.09**	-.10**	-.08*	-.10**	-.11**	-.02	.02	.03	.02	.04	.04	-.01	.03	.08**	.04
41. I have enough authority. .	.22**	.24**	.23**	.24**	.18**	.21**	.22**	.02	-.01	-.05	.08**	-.02	-.01	.10**	-.08**	-.03	.07*
42. I have sufficient control over resources . .	.19**	.18**	.20**	.21**	.20**	.19**	.17**	.02	.04	-.02	.04	.00	.01	.08*	-.03	-.07*	.05
43. I could do a better job with better control over resources	-.12**	-.10**	-.09**	-.10**	-.13**	-.08**	-.11**	-.03	-.03	.04	-.04	.07*	.04	.02	.00	.06*	.00
44. There is a lot of conflict of interest . .	-.23**	-.24**	-.28**	-.30**	-.25**	-.12**	-.28**	.00	-.03	.03	-.05	.05	.05	-.05	.04	.14**	.01
45. Members of this organisation mostly share the same goals	.21**	.20**	.25**	.26**	.21**	.11**	.21**	.02	.02	.03	.04	.00	.03	.04	-.03	-.13**	-.02
46. I have good opportunities for career development	.18**	.20**	.21**	.22**	.20**	.14**	.18**	.02	.01	-.02	.04	.01	.03	.04	-.02	-.02	.06
47. How likely are you to be promoted in next five years	.04	.05	.06*	.07*	.07*	.06	.03	.04	.07*	-.05	.06	-.01	-.05	.05	-.07*	.09**	.09**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
48. Financial results/outputs	.08*	.12**	.08**	.13**	.08**	.10**	.06*	-.01	-.03	-.01	.02	.03	.00	.02	-.05	.05	.02
49. Professional /technical	.10**	.10**	.14**	.14**	.08**	.10**	.09**	.02	.02	.03	.00	.02	.01	.06	-.02	-.02	.03
50. Developing subordinates	.22**	.21**	.31**	.31**	.23**	.21**	.22**	.05	.07*	-.04	.04	-.01	-.03	.06*	-.06	.03	.10**
51. Involving subordinates in decisions	.31**	.30**	.37**	.37**	.31**	.25**	.30**	.09**	.13**	-.09**	.07*	-.06	-.03	.10**	-.08**	.07*	.17**
52. Training in people skills	.00	-.02	.01	.07*	.07*	.08**	.01	-.02	-.03	.06	-.01	.02	.03	.05	-.03	-.03	-.01
53. Levels of management	-.12**	-.10**	-.10**	-.07*	-.17**	-.06	-.11**	.05	.03	-.06	.04	-.06*	-.10**	.00	-.04	.14**	.07*
54. Own level	-.11**	-.13**	-.11**	-.14**	-.17**	-.17**	-.12**	.08*	.05	-.05	.03	-.04	-.10**	-.04	-.03	.12**	.05
55. Expected final level	-.07*	-.08*	-.07*	-.10**	-.14**	-.15**	-.10**	.07*	.05	-.03	.03	-.03	-.08*	-.05	.03	.08**	.02
56. Change in management layers	-.02	-.06*	-.04	-.09**	.02	-.09**	-.08**	-.04	-.03	.08**	-.08**	.06	.04	-.08**	.04	-.14**	-.13**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51
1. Suggestion	.11**	-.02	.08*	.02	-.04	.07*	.03	-.01	-.04	.07*	.10**	.04	.04	.05	.14**	.12**	
2. Attitude surveys	.17**	.01	.08*	.01	-.04	.08**	.03	-.02	-.03	.08*	.06*	.05	.07*	.02	.17**	.15**	
3. Team briefing	.14**	.05	.09**	.04	.03	-.06*	.10**	.06*	-.02	-.08*	.09**	.14**	.06*	.05	.09**	.20**	.18**
4. Job enrichment/redesign	.15**	.16**	.15**	.14**	.14**	-.08**	.15**	.20**	-.13**	-.19**	.16**	.19**	.05	.06*	.07*	.15**	.22**
5. Quality circles	.16**	.11**	.12**	.11**	.10**	-.06	.11**	.10**	-.03	-.08*	.10**	.13**	.05	.10**	.02	.11**	.16**
6. Consultative committees	.15**	.08**	.10**	.11**	.06	-.01	.10**	.06*	-.05	-.02	.05	.11**	.06*	.06	.06*	.11**	.14**
7. Self-managing work teams	.11**	.10**	.08**	.09**	.07*	-.05	.07*	.09**	-.02	-.08**	.10**	.11**	.06*	.04	.06	.15**	.14**
8. self-contained business units	.02	.08**	.04	.04	.03	-.03	.02	.00	.03	-.01	.06*	.05	.07*	.08**	.00	.05	.07*
9. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	.30**	.04	-.01	-.02	-.01	.00	.01	-.03	.00	.01	-.02	.02	.06*	.04	-.02	.07*	.13**
10. The way work is done(desired EI)	.32**	.06*	.03	.03	.06*	-.02	.05	-.01	-.01	.01	-.01	.01	.05	.07*	.02	.12**	.14**
11. Speed of work(desired EI)	.32**	.05	.01	.00	.04	-.02	.07*	.00	.02	-.01	.03	.04	.02	.02	-.04	.11**	.14**
12. Allocation of tasks(desired EI)	.27**	.06	-.02	.01	.06	-.02	.01	-.02	-.01	-.02	.01	.03	.02	.06*	.00	.09**	.13**
13. Determining quality standards(desired EI)	.23**	.05	-.03	.02	.02	.04	.05	.00	.03	.02	.02	.01	.06	.01	.02	.12**	.15**
14. How quality standards will be met(desired EI)	.24**	.01	-.04	.01	.02	.02	.02	-.04	.02	.05	-.05	-.02	.07*	.06*	.06	.11**	.13**
15. Hiring new recruits(desired EI)	.23**	.06*	-.02	.02	.02	.01	.05	.04	-.03	-.04	.02	.09**	.10**	.05	.00	.15**	.20**
16. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	.14**	.22**	.16**	.17**	.17**	-.09**	.17**	.16**	-.09**	-.24**	.22**	.22**	.10**	.13**	.09**	.21**	.32**
17. The way work is done(actual EI)	.14**	.28**	.24**	.25**	.24**	-.14**	.23**	.21**	-.12**	-.28**	.24**	.21**	.08**	.12**	.11**	.27**	.36**
18. Speed of work(actual EI)	.16**	.27**	.19**	.22**	.21**	-.12**	.22**	.19**	-.12**	-.23**	.21**	.18**	.04	.08*	.10**	.22**	.31**
19. Allocation of tasks(actual EI)	.17**	.25**	.18**	.22**	.21**	-.14**	.24**	.18**	-.10**	-.24**	.20**	.20**	.05	.12**	.10**	.21**	.30**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51
20. Determining quality standards(actual EI)	.17**	.21**	.17**	.19**	.18**	-.09**	.23**	.20**	-.09**	-.28**	.25**	.21**	.06*	.08**	.14**	.31**	.37**
21. How quality standards will be met(actual EI)	.16**	.21**	.20**	.21**	.19**	-.10**	.24**	.21**	-.10**	-.30**	.26**	.22**	.07*	.13**	.14**	.31**	.37**
22. Hiring new recruits(actual EI)	.09**	.18**	.14**	.15**	.13**	-.08*	.18**	.20**	-.13**	-.25**	.21**	.20**	.07*	.08**	.08**	.23**	.31**
23. EI experience	.34**	.23**	.21**	.21**	.17**	-.10**	.21**	.19**	-.08**	-.12**	.11**	.14**	.06	.10**	.10**	.21**	.25**
24. Management control style	.18**	.26**	.21**	.21**	.21**	-.11**	.22**	.17**	-.11**	-.28**	.21**	.18**	.03	.06*	.09**	.22**	.30**
25. PDM solves problems	.35**	.02	.00	.01	.04	-.02	.02	.02	-.03	.00	.02	.02	.04	-.01	.02	.05	.09**
26. PDM=effective decisions	.37**	.01	-.03	-.02	-.03	.02	-.01	.04	-.03	-.03	.02	.01	.07*	-.03	.02	.07*	.13**
27. EI gives too much power to	-.34**	-.03	.00	-.02	.00	.03	-.05	-.02	.04	.03	.03	-.02	-.05	-.01	.03	-.04	-.09**
28. EI promotes positive relationships	.34**	.04	.02	.05	.07*	.02	.08**	.04	-.04	-.05	.04	.04	.06	.02	.00	.04	.07*
29. PDM requires divulging too much confidential information	-.24**	-.01	.00	.01	.01	.04	-.02	.00	.07*	.05	.00	.01	-.01	.03	.02	-.01	-.06
30. Subordinates often cannot be trusted	-.21**	-.02	-.01	.02	.00	.04	-.01	.01	.04	.05	.03	.03	-.05	.00	.01	-.03	-.03
31. Confident in own ability to manage effectively	.36**	.13**	.10**	.12**	.09**	-.01	.10**	.08*	.02	-.05	.04	.04	.05	.02	.06	.06*	.10**
32. Hard to manage well in participative style	-.32**	-.06*	-.05	-.03	-.02	.03	-.08**	-.03	.00	.04	-.03	-.02	-.07*	-.05	-.02	-.06	-.08**
33. Would support efforts to increase EI	.50**	-.02	-.07*	-.04	-.07*	.08**	-.03	-.07*	.06*	.14**	-.13**	-.02	.09**	.05	-.02	.03	.07*
34. Give high priority to increasing EI	.62**	.09**	.04	.09**	.07*	.04	.07*	.05	.00	.01	-.02	.06	.09**	.02	.03	.10**	.17**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51
35. Encourage other managers to support EI	1.00	.13**	.09**	.14**	.07*	.01	.11**	.12**	-.05	-.02	.03	.08**	.08*	.11**	.07*	.19**	.22**
36. I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	.13**	1.00	.58**	.65**	.55**	-.22**	.51**	.51**	-.25**	-.31**	.33**	.30**	.11**	.19**	.25**	.24**	.23**
37. I have good access to	.09**	.58**	1.00	.53**	.50**	-.51**	.51**	.49**	-.30**	-.39**	.40**	.34**	.09**	.16**	.27**	.30**	.28**
38. I can make a lot of decisions on my own authority	.14**	.65**	.53**	1.00	.66**	-.21**	.59**	.50**	-.24**	-.31**	.32**	.31**	.12**	.21**	.24**	.25**	.23**
39. I have enough freedom in how I do my work	.07*	.55**	.50**	.66**	1.00	-.28**	.60**	.54**	-.29**	-.36**	.36**	.30**	.10**	.17**	.22**	.24**	.23**
40. I could perform my job effectively with better access to information	.01	-.22**	-.51**	-.21**	-.28**	1.00	-.31**	-.34**	.46**	.24**	-.23**	-.16**	.01	-.05	-.13**	-.14**	-.14**
41. I have enough authority. .	.11**	.51**	.51**	.59**	.60**	-.31**	1.00	.64**	-.38**	-.41**	.40**	.38**	.12**	.18**	.24**	.32**	.31**
42. I have sufficient control over resources . .	.12**	.51**	.49**	.50**	.54**	-.34**	.64**	1.00	-.63**	-.42**	.41**	.38**	.10**	.18**	.27**	.34**	.33**
43. I could do a better job with better control over resources	-.05	-.25**	-.30**	-.24**	-.29**	.46**	-.38**	-.63**	1.00	.29**	-.24**	-.19**	.01	-.06	-.13**	-.15**	-.17**
44. There is a lot of conflict of interest . .	-.02	-.31**	-.39**	-.31**	-.36**	.24**	-.41**	-.42**	.29**	1.00	-.66**	-.40**	-.06*	-.11**	-.20**	-.32**	-.37**
45. Members of this organisation mostly share the same goals	.03	.33**	.40**	.32**	.36**	-.23**	.40**	.41**	-.24**	-.66**	1.00	.38**	.08**	.14**	.26**	.31**	.33**
46. I have good opportunities for career development	.08**	.30**	.34**	.31**	.30**	-.16**	.38**	.38**	-.19**	-.40**	.38**	1.00	.42**	.21**	.32**	.40**	.36**
47. How likely are you to be promoted in next five years	.08*	.11**	.09**	.12**	.10**	.01	.12**	.10**	.01	-.06*	.08**	.42**	1.00	.09**	.15**	.16**	.11**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51
48. Financial results/outputs	.11**	.19**	.16**	.21**	.17**	-.05	.18**	.18**	-.06	-.11**	.14**	.21**	.09**	1.00	.13**	.14**	.13**
49. Professional /technical	.07*	.25**	.27**	.24**	.22**	-.13**	.24**	.27**	-.13**	-.20**	.26**	.32**	.15**	.13**	1.00	.49**	.33**
50. Developing subordinates	.19**	.24**	.30**	.25**	.24**	-.14**	.32**	.34**	-.15**	-.32**	.31**	.40**	.16**	.14**	.49**	1.00	.71**
51. Involving subordinates in decisions	.22**	.23**	.28**	.23**	.23**	-.14**	.31**	.33**	-.17**	-.37**	.33**	.36**	.11**	.13**	.33**	.71**	1.00
52. Training in people skills	.00	.05	.06*	.05	.04	.04	.08*	.05	.05	-.06	.06	.11**	.11**	.05	.09**	.15**	.10**
53. Levels of management	.04	-.22**	-.13**	-.19**	-.18**	.05	-.19**	-.23**	.18**	.26**	-.22**	-.14**	.06	-.14**	-.05	-.05	-.12**
54. Own level	-.02	-.38**	-.31**	-.36**	-.30**	.15**	-.36**	-.38**	.25**	.33**	-.29**	-.26**	.03	-.21**	-.09**	-.12**	-.19**
55. Expected final level	-.03	-.36**	-.29**	-.31**	-.24**	.10**	-.30**	-.29**	.17**	.29**	-.25**	-.31**	-.16**	-.19**	-.11**	-.13**	-.17**
56. Change in management layers	-.13**	-.08**	-.06*	-.05	-.07*	.01	-.08**	-.05	.05	.01	-.03	-.01	-.05	-.06	-.02	-.08**	-.09**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	52	53	54	55	56
1. Suggestion	.02	.21**	.18**	.17**	-.17**
2. Attitude surveys	.05	.23**	.16**	.13**	-.19**
3. Team briefing	.06*	.13**	.06	.04	-.17**
4. Job enrichment/redesign	.03	-.06*	-.05	-.03	-.12**
5. Quality circles	.04	.03	-.05	-.06*	-.11**
6. Consultative committees	.09**	.15**	.03	.01	-.16**
7. Self-managing work teams	.04	.01	.00	.00	-.10**
8. self-contained business units	-.01	.04	.03	.01	-.12**
9. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	-.05	.05	.08*	.04	-.15**
10. The way work is done(desired EI)	-.05	.06	.04	.04	-.12**
11. Speed of work(desired EI)	-.05	.01	.00	-.01	-.06*
12. Allocation of tasks(desired EI)	-.04	.02	.00	-.01	-.12**
13. Determining quality standards(desired EI)	-.01	.06*	.06	.05	-.10**
14. How quality standards will be met(desired EI)	.02	.11**	.06*	.05	-.13**
15. Hiring new recruits(desired EI)	.07*	-.03	.00	.00	-.06*
16. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	-.02	-.11**	-.09**	-.08*	-.11**
17. The way work is done(actual EI)	.01	-.13**	-.15**	-.13**	-.10**
18. Speed of work(actual EI)	.00	-.12**	-.11**	-.07*	-.02
19. Allocation of tasks(actual EI)	-.02	-.10**	-.13**	-.08*	-.06*

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	52	53	54	55	56
20. Determining quality standards (actual EI)	.01	-.10**	-.11**	-.07*	-.04
21. How quality standards will be met (actual EI)	.07*	-.07*	-.14**	-.10**	-.09**
22. Hiring new recruits (actual EI)	.07*	-.17**	-.17**	-.14**	.02
23. EI experience	.08**	-.06	-.17**	-.15**	-.09**
24. Management control style	.01	-.11**	-.12**	-.10**	-.08**
25. PDM solves problems	-.02	.05	.08*	.07*	-.04
26. PDM-effective decisions	-.03	.03	.05	.05	-.03
27. EI gives too much power to	.06	-.06	-.05	-.03	.08**
28. EI promotes positive relationships	-.01	.04	.03	.03	-.08**
29. PDM requires divulging too much confidential information	.02	-.06*	-.04	-.03	.06
30. Subordinates often cannot be trusted	.03	-.10**	-.10**	-.08*	.04
31. Confident in own ability to manage effectively	.05	.00	-.04	-.05	-.08**
32. Hard to manage well in participative style	-.03	-.04	-.03	.03	.04
33. Would support efforts to increase EI	-.03	.14**	.12**	.08**	-.14**
34. Give high priority to increasing EI	-.01	.07*	.05	.02	-.13**

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	52	53	54	55	56
35. Encourage other managers to support EI	.00	.04	-.02	-.03	-.13**
36. I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	.05	-.22**	-.38**	-.36**	-.08**
37. I have good access to	.06*	-.13**	-.31**	-.29**	-.06*
38. I can make a lot of decisions on my own authority	.05	-.19**	-.36**	-.31**	-.05
39. I have enough freedom in how I do my work	.04	-.18**	-.30**	-.24**	-.07*
40. I could perform my job effectively with better access to information	.04	.05	.15**	.10**	.01
41. I have enough authority. .	.08*	-.19**	-.36**	-.30**	-.08**
42. I have sufficient control over resources . .	.05	-.23**	-.38**	-.29**	-.05
43. I could do a better job with better control over resources	.05	.18**	.25**	.17**	.05
44. There is a lot of conflict of interest . .	-.06	.26**	.33**	.29**	.01
45. Members of this organisation mostly share the same goals	.06	-.22**	-.29**	-.25**	-.03
46. I have good opportunities for career development	.11**	-.14**	-.26**	-.31**	-.01
47. How likely are you to be promoted in next five years	.11**	.06	.03	-.16**	-.05

Study 2: Zero Order Correlations

	52	53	54	55	56
48. Financial results/outputs	.05	-.14**	-.21**	-.19**	-.06
49. Professional /technical	.09**	-.05	-.09**	-.11**	-.02
50. Developing subordinates	.15**	-.05	-.12**	-.13**	-.08**
51. Involving subordinates in decisions	.10**	-.12**	-.19**	-.17**	-.09**
52. Training in people skills	1.00	.01	-.01	-.04	-.03
53. Levels of management	.01	1.00	.65**	.56**	-.06
54. Own level	-.01	.65**	1.00	.89**	.01
55. Expected final level	-.04	.56**	.89**	1.00	.03
56. Change in management layers	-.03	-.06	.01	.03	1.00

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

STUDY 3

Managers and Employee involvement questionnaire

Much has been written about employee involvement and empowerment in recent years. However, little attention has been paid to the views of managers who are often expected to implement these programmes. This survey is part of a study by London Business School and seeks to understand the extent to which you are affected by these programmes and your views about the value of employee involvement.

I would be very grateful if you would spare 10 minutes of your time to complete this short questionnaire and return it in the post paid envelope provided. Please do complete the questionnaire even if you feel that employee involvement isn't very relevant to your organisation. We need to understand the full range of views. *Individual responses to this survey will be treated in complete confidence. The overall results and conclusions of the study will be made available to participating organisations for distribution to respondents.*

"Employee involvement" here means the direct involvement of employees in making decisions about their work and work environment.

The questionnaire should take you about ten minutes to complete. Most questions require you to answer by circling a number. If you cannot answer a question please leave it blank and continue to the next.

There is space on the last page for any comments you wish to make about the issues raised by the questionnaire.

Thank you for your help.

Mark Fenton-O'Creevy
London Business School

Please return the questionnaire in the reply paid envelope provided to:

Mark Fenton-O'Creevy
London Business School
Regents Park
London NW1 4SA

1. How much involvement do you believe non-management employees in your organisation *should* have making decisions about each of the following? (Circle one response for each statement.)

	Little or none	Some	A moderate amount	A great deal	A very great deal
A. The way work is done, (procedures and methods)	1	2	3	4	5
B. Speed of work	1	2	3	4	5
C. Determining quality/service standards	1	2	3	4	5
D. Determining how quality/service standards will be achieved	1	2	3	4	5
E. Planning and scheduling of work	1	2	3	4	5
F. Hiring new recruits who they will work with	1	2	3	4	5
G. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities within their work group	1	2	3	4	5

2. How much involvement do non-management employees in your organisation *actually* have in making decisions about each of the following? (Circle one response for each statement.)

	Little or none	Some	A moderate amount	A great deal	A very great deal
A. The way work is done, (procedures and methods)	1	2	3	4	5
B. Speed of work	1	2	3	4	5
C. Determining quality/service standards	1	2	3	4	5
D. Determining how quality/service standards will be achieved	1	2	3	4	5
E. Planning and scheduling of work	1	2	3	4	5
F. Hiring new recruits who they will work with	1	2	3	4	5
G. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities within their work group	1	2	3	4	5

	Little or none	A moderate amount	Quite a lot	A great deal	A very great deal
3. How much experience have you had, personally, of initiatives which give employees significant involvement in decisions about their work?	1	2	3	4	5
4. The following questions ask you about your own beliefs and actions. <i>(Circle one response for each statement.)</i>					
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
A. Many organisational problems disappear when everyone has the opportunity to participate in decision making	1	2	3	4	5
B. Participative decision making usually results in effective decisions	1	2	3	4	5
C. Employee involvement gives too much power to subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
D. Participative decision making often requires divulging too much confidential information	1	2	3	4	5
E. Subordinates often cannot be trusted	1	2	3	4	5
F. I am very confident in my ability to manage effectively in an environment of high employee involvement	1	2	3	4	5
G. I would find it quite hard to manage well in a highly participative style	1	2	3	4	5
H. Participative management comes naturally to me	1	2	3	4	5
I. Top management in this organisation see employee involvement as vital to our success	1	2	3	4	5
J. Top managers in this organisation disagree about the value of employee involvement	1	2	3	4	5
K. I give high priority in my work to increasing levels of employee involvement	1	2	3	4	5
L. I encourage other managers to support employee involvement initiatives	1	2	3	4	5

5. Thinking about your own job and organisation, please indicate whether you agree or disagree with each of the following statements. (Circle one response for each statement.)

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
A. I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	1	2	3	4	5
B. I have enough authority to do my job most effectively	1	2	3	4	5
C. My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own authority	1	2	3	4	5
D. I could perform my job much better with better access to information	1	2	3	4	5
E. I could do a much better job with greater control over resources	1	2	3	4	5
F. There is a lot of conflict of interest between managers and non-managers in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
G. There is a lot of conflict of interest between different departments/functions in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
H. Members of this organisation mostly share the same goals	1	2	3	4	5
I. In this organisation people talk about involving employees much more than they do it	1	2	3	4	5
J. Employee involvement makes little difference to where control really lies	1	2	3	4	5
K. I have good opportunities for career development	1	2	3	4	5

6. Please indicate the amount of influence managers at your level have over each of the following types of decisions

	Little or none	Some	A moderate amount	A great deal	A very great deal
A. Major resource allocation decisions (eg. major capital expenditure or large promotional outlays)	1	2	3	4	5
B. Organisational redesign/ restructuring	1	2	3	4	5
C. Entering or exiting major markets	1	2	3	4	5

	Very unlikely	Unlikely	Not sure	Likely	Very likely
7. How likely do you think you are to be promoted in the next five years?	1	2	3	4	5

8. Approximately how many days training have you had in people management skills (eg. giving feedback, coaching, motivation, goal setting) in the last three years? _____ days (Write in 0 if none.)

9. How many years have you worked for your present organisation?

- 0 - 2 years 1
- 3 to 5 years 2
- 6 to 10 years 3
- more than 10 years 4

10. What is your age?

- under 25 1
- 26 to 35 2
- 36 to 45 3
- 46 to 55 4
- over 55 5

11. How many levels of management are there above you in the organisation (up to and including Managing Director) ? _____ levels

12. Please use this space for any other comments you would like to make about employee involvement.

Study 3: Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Std. Deviation
The way work is done(desired EI)	3.80	.80
Speed of work(desired EI)	3.35	.88
Determining quality standards(desired EI)	3.58	1.06
.. how quality standards will be achieved(desired EI)	3.78	.96
Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	3.27	.94
Hiring new recruits(desired EI)	2.36	1.05
Allocation of tasks and responsibilities(desired EI)	3.37	.98
The way work is done (actual EI)	2.79	.97
Speed of work (actual EI)	2.58	1.00
Determining quality standards (actual EI)	2.53	1.09
.. how quality standards will be achieved (actual EI)	2.57	1.03
Planning and scheduling of work (actual EI)	2.40	1.06
Hiring new recruits (actual EI)	1.42	.79
Allocation of tasks and responsibilities (actual EI)	2.42	1.05
experience of EI	2.81	1.05
many problems disappear when everyone can participate in decisions	3.67	.89
PDM results in effective decisions	3.80	.74
EI gives too much power to subordinates	2.04	.67
PDM often requires divulging too much confidential information	2.31	.76
Subordinates often cannot be trusted	1.96	.82
confident in own ability to manage EI	4.01	.70
hard to manage in participative style	1.98	.75
Participative management comes naturally to me	3.66	.78
Top management see EI as vital to our success	3.61	.98
Top managers disagree about the value of EI	2.65	1.02
I give high priority to increasing EI	3.77	.70
I encourage other managers to support EI	3.70	.71
I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	4.12	.80
I have enough authority to do my job most effectively	3.91	.92
My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own authority	4.04	.80
I could perform my job better with better information	3.62	1.06
could do a better job with better resource access	3.27	1.03
there is a lot of conflict of interest between managers and	2.78	.93
conflict of interest between functions	3.42	1.00
members of organisation share goals	3.49	.91
people talk about EI more than do it	3.53	.91
EI makes little difference to where the control really lies	3.16	1.03
good opportunities for career development	3.17	1.02
influence resource allocation	2.76	1.28
influence.. organisational restructuring	2.74	1.34
influence..entering or exiting major markets	2.17	1.22
Likelihood of promotion in next five years	2.93	1.23
Days training in people skills	7.89	9.87
Tenure	2.78	1.18
Age	2.96	.94
Levels below MD	2.67	1.39

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. The way work is done(desired EI)	1.00	.49**	.32**	.15**	.11**	.33**	.40**	.44**	.26**	.15**	.20**	.24**	.21**	.27**	.25**
2. Speed of work(desired EI)	.42**	1.00	.53**	.41**	.41**	.29**	.20**	.40**	.49**	.33**	.29**	.30**	.22**	.24**	.24**
3. Determining quality standards(desired EI)	.32**	.53**	1.00	.56**	.37**	.29**	.25**	.34**	.32**	.53**	.43**	.24**	.18**	.22**	.26**
4. ... how quality standards will be achieved(desired EI)	.15**	.41**	.56**	1.00	.11**	.35**	.38**	.31**	.28**	.30**	.46**	.25**	.15**	.20**	.29**
5. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	.43**	.41**	.32**	.41**	1.00	.42**	.47**	.34**	.33**	.29**	.33**	.54**	.24**	.32**	.25**
6. Hiring new recruits(desired EI)	.37**	.29**	.29**	.36**	.40**	1.00	.47**	.21**	.16**	.18**	.22**	.25**	.54**	.22**	.20**
7. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities(desired EI)	.40**	.29**	.25**	.39**	.47**	.47**	1.00	.28**	.24**	.22**	.28**	.34**	.25**	.49**	.23**
8. The way work is done (actual EI)	.14**	.47**	.34**	.31**	.31**	.21**	.28**	1.00	.61**	.55**	.53**	.50**	.35**	.50**	.37**
9. Speed of work (actual EI)	.26**	.15**	.32**	.28**	.33**	.16**	.24**	.61**	1.00	.51**	.47**	.49**	.28**	.37**	.32**
10. Determining quality standards (actual EI)	.12**	.33**	.53**	.30**	.29**	.18**	.22**	.55**	.51**	1.00	.70**	.48**	.34**	.42**	.29**
11. ... how quality standards will be achieved (actual EI)	.20**	.29**	.43**	.46**	.33**	.22**	.28**	.53**	.47**	.70**	1.00	.50**	.27**	.37**	.30**
12. Planning and scheduling of work (actual EI)	.24**	.30**	.24**	.25**	.54**	.25**	.34**	.50**	.49**	.48**	.50**	1.00	.40**	.57**	.27**
13. Hiring new recruits (actual EI)	.21**	.22**	.18**	.15**	.24**	.54**	.25**	.35**	.28**	.34**	.27**	.40**	1.00	.43**	.23**
14. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities (actual EI)	.27**	.24**	.22**	.20**	.32**	.22**	.49**	.50**	.37**	.42**	.37**	.57**	.43**	1.00	.29**
15. experience of EI	.25**	.24**	.26**	.29**	.25**	.20**	.23**	.37**	.32**	.29**	.32**	.27**	.23**	.29**	1.00
16. many problems disappear when everyone can participate in decisions	.23**	.18**	.24**	.19**	.13**	.13**	.12**	.13**	.09**	.12**	.11**	1.00	.49**	.32	.45**
17. PM results in effective decisions	.17**	.14**	.19**	.17**	.16**	.05	.14**	.13**	.19**	.18**	.14**	.49**	1.00	.53	.41**
18. EI gives too much power to subordinates	-.33**	-.20**	-.13**	-.23**	-.22**	-.23**	-.24**	-.12**	-.07	.00	-.04	.32**	.53	1.00	.56**
19. PM often requires divulging too much confidential information	-.22**	-.03	-.01	-.09**	-.13**	-.11**	-.11**	-.09**	.01	.03	.06	.45	.41	.56**	1.00
20. Subordinates often cannot be trusted	-.22**	-.17**	-.12**	-.22**	-.28**	-.18**	-.26**	-.12**	-.06	-.04	-.08	.43**	.41	.32**	.41
21. confident in own ability to manage EI	.19**	.15**	.21**	.26**	.27**	.07	.18**	.15**	.09	.13**	.11**	.37**	.29	.29**	.34**
22. hard to manage in participative style	-.17**	-.09**	-.15**	-.17**	-.18**	-.05	-.11**	-.09**	-.02	.00	-.04	.41	.19	.25	.38**

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
23. Participative management comes naturally to me	.13**	.10*	.20**	.13**	.13**	.09	.12**	.11*	-.01	.09*	.11*	.44	.40*	.34**	.31**
24. Top management see EI as vital to our success	.14**	.15**	.21**	.22**	.21**	.08	.20**	.38**	.31**	.38**	.35**	.26**	.49**	.32**	.28**
25. Top managers disagree about the value of EI	-.4	-.10*	-.17**	-.10*	-.04	-.02	-.10*	-.23**	-.19**	-.26**	-.25**	.15**	.33	.53**	.30**
26. I give high priority to increasing EI	.21**	.19**	.28**	.24**	.27**	.14**	.19**	.24**	.20**	.22**	.20**	.20**	.29**	.43**	.46**
27. I encourage other managers to support EI	.24**	.15**	.19**	.19**	.13**	.13**	.16**	.11*	.05	.08	.09	.24	.30	.24*	.25**
28. I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	.17**	.13**	.13**	.12**	.11*	.16**	.16**	.27**	.17**	.13**	.17**	.21**	.22**	.18**	.15**
29. I have enough authority to do my job most effectively	.18**	.12**	.19**	.11*	.15**	.12*	.12**	.25**	.17**	.18**	.20**	.27**	.24**	.22**	.20**
30. My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own authority	.14**	.12**	.18**	.12**	.10*	.10*	.12**	.26**	.19**	.18**	.18**	.25**	.24**	.26**	.28**
31. I could perform my job better with better information	-.08	.01	.03	-.03	-.01	-.08	-.11*	-.05	.02	.01	-.08	.20	.18	.24	.19
32. could do a better job with better resource access	-.15**	-.03	.02	-.06	-.05	-.10*	-.14**	-.16**	-.08	-.01	-.12**	.17**	.14	.19**	.17
33. there is a lot of conflict of interest between managers and non-managers	-.14**	-.13**	-.03	-.03	-.15**	-.10*	-.17**	-.23**	-.18**	-.19**	-.19**	-.33**	-.20**	-.13**	-.23**
34. conflict of interest between functions	-.06	-.16**	-.10*	-.12**	-.12**	-.08	-.15**	-.17**	-.17**	-.20**	-.24**	-.22**	-.03*	-.01**	-.08**
35. members of organisation share goals	.02	.14**	.13**	.14**	.13**	.01	.12**	.21**	.17**	.24**	.21**	-.22**	-.17	-.12**	-.22**
36. People talk about EI more than do it	-.04	-.10*	-.12*	-.12**	-.13**	-.11*	-.09*	-.25**	-.25**	-.29**	-.31**	.19**	.15**	.21**	.26**
37. EI makes little difference to where the control really lies	-.16**	-.19**	-.17**	-.14**	-.08	-.15**	-.12**	-.23**	-.23**	-.18**	-.17**	-.17**	-.09**	-.15**	-.17**
38. good opportunities for career development	.10*	.07	.08	.10*	.10*	.05	.04	.17**	.08	.12**	.13**	.19**	.10*	.20	.13**
39. influence - resource allocation	.24**	.16**	.07	.16**	.14**	.25**	.21**	.14**	.07	.02	.05	.14**	.15**	.21*	.27**
40. influence.. organisational restructuring	.24**	.14**	.05	.15**	.10*	.26**	.23**	.14**	.08	.00	.05	-.04	-.10**	-.17	-.10**
41. influence..entering or exiting major markets	.20**	.19**	.14**	.13**	.14**	.23**	.21**	.18**	.18**	.16**	.14**	.21**	.18**	.28**	.21**

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
42. Likelihood of Promotion in next five years	.00	-.01	-.02	.03	.08	.08	.02	.07	.00	.02	.04	.24	.15	.19	.16
43. Days training in people skills	.00	.12**	.16**	.21**	.08	.07	.12*	.09	.09*	.10*	.14**	.17	.13	.13**	.12**
44. Tenure	.00	.08	.11*	.03	.02	-.07	.02	.04	.04	.06	.05	.18	.12	.19*	.11
45. Age	.01	.07	-.02	.05	.01	.00	.02	.01	.02	-.02	.02	.14	.12	.18	.12
46. Levels below HD	-.06	-.04	-.01	-.04	-.07	-.15**	-.18**	.04	.03	.05	.04	-.08	.01	.03	-.03**
47. SIZE (EMPLOYEES) - S1	-.01	.01	-.08	.01	.00	.08	.00	-.08	-.07	-.09*	-.09*	-.15	-.03	.02	-.06
48. % SIZE CHANGE (EMPLOYEES) - S1	-.19**	-.15**	.09	-.11*	-.13**	-.04	-.13**	-.14**	-.18**	-.08	-.11*	-.14**	-.13	-.03**	-.03*
49. CHANGE IN INKBIT LAYERS - S1	-.05	-.03	-.04	-.09*	.03	-.11*	-.15**	-.02	.01	-.02	-.02	-.06	-.16	-.10*	-.12
50. SUGGESTION SCHEME - S1	.04	-.01	-.19*	-.05	-.04	.09	.02	-.05	-.10*	-.15**	-.09*	.02	.14	.13	.14
51. ATTITUDE SURVEYS - S1	.06	.12**	.02	.11*	.13**	.05	.08	.10*	.08	.05	.12**	-.04**	-.10	-.12	-.12
52. TEAM PRIERING - S1	-.04	-.05	-.02	-.07	-.08	-.04	-.06	.00	-.02	.01	.02	-.16	-.19	-.17	-.11
53. JOB REDESIGN - S1	.06	.03	-.05	-.01	.00	.02	.03	.02	.01	-.10*	-.01	.10	.07	.08	.10
54. QUALITY CIRCLES - S1	-.05	.02	.13**	.06	-.07	.00	.08	.06	.10*	.16**	.15**	.24	.16	.07**	.16
55. CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES - S1	-.01	-.07	-.01	-.04	-.09*	-.07	-.01	-.04	-.04	-.04	-.03	.24*	.14	.05	.15
56. TASK FORCES - S1	.12*	.13**	.09	.09*	.11*	.20**	.17**	.20**	.15**	.14**	.14**	.20**	.19**	.14**	.13
57. SELF-MANAGING TEAMS - S1	.10*	.18**	.09*	.14**	.13**	.14**	.17**	.23**	.20**	.18**	.20**	.09**	-.01**	-.02**	.03*
58. SMALL BUSINESS UNITS - S1	.09*	.18**	.09*	.13**	.14**	.08	.14**	.23**	.20**	.20**	.21**	.09**	.12**	.16**	.21**
59. productivity improvement - S1	-.04	.04	.11*	.08	.00	.07	.10*	.09*	.11*	.12**	.12**	.00	.08	.10**	.03
60. attitude improvements - S1	-.06	.01	.13**	.07	-.02	.03	.10*	.06	.07	.12**	.13**	.01	.07	-.02**	.05
61. M1 resistance - S1	-.11*	.03	-.12**	-.13**	.00	-.12**	-.08	-.10*	-.10*	-.15**	-.13**	-.06	-.04	-.01*	-.04
62. sen.mgmt suppt - S1	.13**	.08	.10*	.10*	-.04	.11*	.07	.05	.07	.13**	.11*	-.01	.01	-.08	.00

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
1. The way work is done(desired EI)	.20**	.17**	-.33**	-.22**	-.22**	.19**	-.17**	.19**	.14**	-.04	.21**	.24**	.17**	.18**	.14**	-.08
2. Speed of work(desired EI)	.18**	.14**	-.20**	-.03	-.17**	.15**	-.09*	.10*	.15**	-.10*	.18**	.15**	.13**	.12**	.12**	.01
3. Determining quality standards(desired EI)	.24**	.19**	-.13**	-.01	-.12*	.21**	-.15**	.20**	.21**	-.17**	.28**	.13**	.13**	.19**	.18**	.03
4. ... how quality standards will be achieved(desired EI)	.19**	.17**	-.23**	-.06*	-.22**	.26**	-.17**	.13**	.22**	-.10*	.24**	.18**	.12**	.11*	.12**	-.03
5. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	.13**	.16**	-.22**	-.13**	-.28**	.27**	-.18**	.13**	.21**	-.04	.27**	.13**	.11*	.15**	.10*	-.01
6. Hiring new recruits(desired EI)	.13**	.05	-.23**	-.11*	-.18**	.07	-.05	.09	.08	-.02	.14**	.13**	.16**	.12*	.10*	-.08
7. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities(desired EI)	.12*	.14**	-.24**	-.11*	-.26**	.18**	-.11*	.12**	.20**	-.10*	.19**	.16**	.16**	.12**	.12**	-.11*
8. The way work is done (actual EI)	.13**	.13**	-.12**	-.09*	-.12**	.15**	-.08	.11*	.38**	-.23**	.24**	.11*	.27**	.25**	.26**	-.05
9. Speed of work (actual EI)	.09*	.19**	-.07	.01	-.06	.09	-.02	-.01	.31**	-.19**	.29**	.05	.17**	.17**	.19**	.07
10. Determining quality standards (actual EI)	.12**	.18**	.00	.03	-.04	.13**	.00	.09*	.38**	-.26**	.22**	.08	.13**	.18**	.18**	.01
11. ... how quality standards will be achieved (actual EI)	.11*	.14**	-.04	.06	-.09	.14**	-.04	.11*	.35**	-.25**	.20**	.09	.17**	.20**	.18**	-.08
12. Planning and scheduling of work (actual EI)	.09	.11*	-.09*	-.06	-.15**	.11*	-.03	.09	.30**	-.16**	.21**	.09	.16**	.22**	.20**	-.06
13. Hiring new recruits (actual EI)	.14**	.04	-.07	-.04	-.06	.05	-.04	.09*	.19**	-.07	.12**	.07	.13**	.12**	.13**	.04
14. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities (actual EI)	.06	.07	-.07	-.09*	-.12**	.14**	-.06	.12**	.28**	-.17**	.20**	.12*	.17**	.20**	.22**	-.03
15. experience of EI	.24**	.23**	-.20**	-.06	-.08	.37**	-.25**	.30**	.35**	-.13**	.38**	.38**	.22**	.16**	.18**	-.01
16. many problems disappear when everyone can participate in decisions	.43	.37**	.40**	.44*	.26**	.15**	.20**	.24**	.21**	.27*	.25**	.20**	.17	-.33**	-.22*	-.22
17. PM results in effective decisions	.41**	.29	.29**	.40**	.49*	.33**	.29**	.30**	.22**	.24**	.24**	.18**	.14	-.20	-.03	-.17
18. EI gives too much power to subordinates	.32**	.29**	.25	.34**	.32**	.53**	.43**	.24**	.18**	.22**	.26**	.24**	.19*	-.13*	-.01	-.17*
19. PM often requires divulging too much confidential information	.44*	.36**	.38**	.31	.28**	.30**	.46**	.25**	.15	.20	.29**	.19*	.17	-.23	-.09	-.17*
20. Subordinates often cannot be trusted	1.00**	.42*	.47**	.34**	.33	.29**	.33**	.54**	.24	.32*	.25**	.13**	.16*	-.22	-.13	-.14
21. confident in own ability to manage EI	.42**	1.00**	.47**	.21**	.16**	.18	.22**	.25**	.54**	.22*	.20**	.13**	.05**	-.23**	-.11*	-.17*
22. hard to manage in participative style	.47**	.47**	1.00**	.28**	.24**	.22**	.28	.34**	.25**	.49**	.23**	.12**	.14	-.24*	-.11	-.17*

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
23. Participative management comes naturally to me	.34**	.21**	.28**	1.00**	.61**	.55**	.53**	.50	.35**	.50**	.37**	.13**	.13	-.12**	-.09	-.12
24. Top management sees EI as vital to our success	.33**	.16**	.21**	.61	1.00	.51**	.47**	.49**	.28	.37**	.32**	.09**	.19**	-.07**	.01**	-.06
25. Top managers disagree about the value of EI	.29*	.19**	.22**	.55	.51*	1.00**	.70**	.48**	.34**	.42	.29**	.12**	.18**	.00**	.03**	-.04**
26. I give high priority to increasing EI	.33**	.22**	.28**	.53**	.47**	.70**	1.00**	.50**	.27**	.37**	.32	.11**	.14	-.04*	.06	-.08
27. I encourage other managers to support EI	.54**	.25**	.34**	.50*	.49**	.48**	.50**	1.00**	.40**	.57**	.27**	.09	.11**	-.08**	-.06	-.15
28. I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	.24	.54	.25*	.35	.28*	.34**	.27	.40	1.00**	.43**	.23	.14**	.04	-.07**	-.04**	-.06**
29. I have enough authority to do my job most effectively	.32**	.22	.49*	.50	.37	.42**	.37*	.57**	.43**	1.00**	.29*	.06**	.07**	-.07	-.00**	-.12**
30. My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own authority	.25*	.20	.23	.37	.32	.29*	.32	.27	.23**	.29**	1.00	.24	.23**	-.20**	-.06	-.08**
31. I could perform my job better with better information	.13	.13	.12*	.13	.09	.12	.11	.09	.14	.06**	.24	1.00	.51**	-.25**	-.10**	-.12
32. could do a better job with better resource access	.16	.05	.14**	.13**	.19**	.18	.14	.11	.04**	.07**	.23	.51	1.00**	-.21**	-.13**	-.10**
33. there is a lot of conflict of interest between managers and non-managers	-.22	-.23	-.24**	-.12	-.07**	.00	-.04	-.09	-.07**	-.07**	-.20**	-.25	-.21**	1.00**	.38**	.44**
34. conflict of interest between functions	-.13	-.11	-.11*	-.09	.01*	.03	.06	-.06	-.04**	-.09**	-.06	-.10	-.13**	.38**	1.00**	.44**
35. members of organisation share goals	-.28	-.18*	-.26	-.12	-.06	-.04	-.08	-.15	-.06**	-.12**	-.08*	-.12	-.10**	.44**	.44**	1.00**
36. people talk about EI more than do it	.27	.07	.18	.15	.09	.13	.14	.11	.05**	.14**	.37**	.32	.36**	-.26**	-.20**	-.28*
37. EI makes little difference to where the control really lies	-.18**	-.05**	-.11**	-.08	-.02**	.00*	-.04**	-.03**	-.04**	-.06**	-.25**	-.32**	-.30**	.28**	.25**	.28
38. good opportunities for career development	.13	.09	.12	.11	-.01	.09	.11	.09	.09**	.12**	.30*	.23	.28**	-.18**	-.14**	-.21*
39. influence - resource allocation	.21	.08	.20	.38	.31**	.38	.35	.30	.19*	.28	.35	.13**	.18**	-.13**	-.03**	-.06**
40. influence.. organisational restructuring	-.04	-.02	-.10*	-.23	-.19**	-.26*	-.25	-.16	-.07*	-.17	-.13	-.10**	-.16**	.15**	.09**	.10**
41. influence..entering or exiting major markets	.27	.14	.19	.24	.20**	.22	.20	.21	.12**	.20	.38*	.35**	.36**	-.27**	-.14**	-.10*

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
42. Likelihood of promotion in next five years	.13	.13	.16	.11	.05	.08	.09	.09	.07	.12	.38	.23*	.26**	-.25**	-.11**	-.17
43. Days training in people skills	.11	.16	.16**	.27	.17*	.13**	.17	.16**	.13**	.17*	.22**	.06**	.00**	-.11**	.01	-.09
44. Tenure	.15	.12	.12	.25	.17	.18	.20	.22	.12*	.20	.16	.12	.06	-.11	-.02	-.07*
45. Age	.19	.13	.12*	.26	.19*	.18	.18	.20	.13	.22	.19	.10	.07	-.06	-.02	-.02*
46. Levels below MD	-.01	-.08	-.11**	-.05	.02*	.01	-.08	-.06	.04	-.03	-.01	.07*	.09**	.10**	.02**	.04*
47. SIZE (EMPLOYEES) - S1	-.05	-.11**	-.14	-.16	-.08*	-.01	-.12**	-.12**	-.04**	-.14**	-.08**	.02	.07**	.17	.13	.18
48. % SIZE CHANGE (EMPLOYEES) - S1	-.15	-.10	-.17	-.23	-.18**	-.19	-.19	-.25	-.13**	-.20	-.18	-.07	.02	.16	.04	.18
49. CHANGE IN MGMT LAYERS - S1	-.12	-.08*	-.15	-.17	-.17*	-.20	-.24	-.19	-.10	-.14	-.16	-.09	-.02**	.10	.05*	.09
50. SUGGESTION SCHEME - S1	.13	.01**	.12	.21	.17	.24	.21	.19	.05**	.14	.17	.09	.11	-.01	.02	-.07
51. ATTITUDE SURVEYS - S1	-.13	-.11**	-.09	-.25	-.25**	-.29	-.31	-.28	-.21*	-.22	-.21*	-.06	-.05**	.07**	.03*	.09*
52. TEAM BRIEFING - S1	-.08	-.15**	-.12	-.23	-.23	-.18	-.17*	-.14	-.12	-.15**	-.23	-.15	-.16**	.25*	.05	.14
53. JOB REDESIGN - S1	.10	.05	.04	.17	.08	.12	.13*	.12	.11	.09*	.13	.06	.07*	-.02	.07	.00
54. QUALITY CIRCLES - S1	.14	.25	.21*	.14	.07	.02	.05	.14	.15*	.11**	.18	.04	-.08*	-.07*	.06**	-.12
55. CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES - S1	.10*	.28**	.23	.14	.08	.00	.05*	.07*	.12	.08	.19**	.03*	-.05**	-.11	-.01	-.13
56. TASK FORCES - S1	.14	.23	.21	.18**	.18**	.16	.14	.20	.22	.14	.22	.07	-.03**	-.03*	.01*	-.13
57. SELF-MANAGING TEAMS - S1	.09	.08	.02	.07*	.00**	.02	.04*	.03	.08*	-.01	.06	.00	.05**	.03**	.02**	-.01
58. SMALL BUSINESS UNITS - S1	.08	.07	.12	.09**	.09**	.10	.14	.03	.03**	.13	.25	.06	.09**	-.15**	-.07**	-.11
59. Productivity Improvement - S1	.02	-.07	.02	.04	.04	.06	.05	.07	-.04*	.09	.01	.07	.05**	-.06	.01**	-.03
60. attitude improvements - S1	.01	.00*	.02	.01	.02	-.02	.02	-.01	-.04**	-.03**	.04	.02	-.03*	-.10*	-.06**	-.09*
61. Mgt resistance - S1	-.07	-.15**	-.18	.04	.03**	.05*	.04*	-.03*	-.04**	-.02**	-.12**	.09	.09*	.16	.01	.11**
62. sen.mgmt suppt - S1	.00	.08**	.00	-.08	-.07**	-.09*	-.09	-.01	.02**	-.06**	-.02**	-.08	-.17*	-.02	-.08	-.10*

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47
1. The way work is done(desired EI)	-.15**	-.14**	-.06	.02	-.04	-.16**	.10*	.24**	.24**	.20**	.09*	.09*	.00	.01	-.06	-.01
2. Speed of work(desired EI)	-.03	-.13**	-.16**	.11**	-.10*	-.10**	.07	.16**	.14**	.19**	-.01	.12**	.08	.07	-.04	.01
3. Determining quality standards(desired EI)	.02	-.02	-.11*	.13**	-.12*	-.17**	.08	.07	.05	.14**	-.02	.16**	.10*	-.02	-.01	-.08
4. ... how quality standards will be achieved(desired EI)	-.06	-.03	-.12**	.14**	-.12**	-.11**	.10*	.16**	.15**	.13**	.03	.21**	.03	.05	-.04	.00
5. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	-.05	-.15**	-.12**	.13**	-.13**	-.08	.10*	.14**	.10*	.14**	.08	.08	.02	.01	-.07	.00
6. Hiring new recruits(desired EI)	-.10*	-.10*	-.08	.01	-.11*	-.15**	.05	.25**	.26**	.23**	.08	.07	-.07	.00	-.15**	.08
7. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities(desired EI)	-.14**	-.17**	-.15**	.12**	-.09*	-.12**	.04	.21**	.23**	.21**	.02	.12**	.02	.02	-.18**	.00
8. The way work is done (actual EI)	-.16**	-.23**	-.17**	.21**	-.25**	-.23**	.17**	.14**	.14**	.18**	.07	.09	.04	.01	.04	-.08
9. Speed of work (actual EI)	-.08	-.19**	-.17**	.17**	-.25**	-.23**	.08	.07	.08	.18**	.00	.09*	.04	.02	.03	-.07
10. Determining quality standards (actual EI)	-.01	-.19**	-.20**	.24**	-.29**	-.18**	.12**	.02	.00	.16**	.02	.10*	.06	-.02	.05	-.09*
11. ... how quality standards will be achieved (actual EI)	-.12**	-.19**	-.24**	.21**	-.31**	-.17**	.13**	.05	.05	.14**	.04	.14**	.05	.02	.04	-.09*
12. Planning and scheduling of work (actual EI)	-.12**	-.25**	-.19**	.18**	-.28**	-.14**	.12**	.14**	.07	.20**	.03	.03	.07	-.01	-.03	-.01
13. Hiring new recruits (actual EI)	-.04	-.13**	-.10*	.05	-.21**	-.12**	.11*	.15**	.12**	.22**	.08	.03	-.04	-.04	-.04	.02
14. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities (actual EI)	-.14**	-.20**	-.14**	.14**	-.22**	-.15**	.09	.11*	.08	.14**	-.01	.13**	.09*	-.03	-.02	-.06
15. experience of EI	-.08	-.18**	-.16**	.17**	-.21**	-.23**	.13**	.18**	.19**	.22**	.06	.25**	.01	.04	-.12**	-.02
16. many problems disappear when everyone can participate in decisions	.19	-.17	.19	.14	-.04	.21**	.24	.17	.18	.14	-.08	-.15	-.14	-.06	.02	-.04
17. PM results in effective decisions	.15	-.09	.10	.15*	-.10	.18**	.15	.13	.12	.12	.01	-.03	-.13	-.16	.14	-.10**
18. EI gives too much power to subordinates	.21**	-.15**	.20*	.21	-.17	.28**	.19	.13	.19*	.18	.03	.02**	-.03	-.10*	.13**	-.12
19. PM often requires divulging too much confidential information cannot be trusted	.26**	-.17	.13	.22	-.10	.24	.19	.12	.11	.12	-.03	-.06	-.03	-.12	.14	-.12
20. Subordinates often able to manage in own style	.27**	-.18**	.13*	.21	-.04	.27**	.13	.11**	.15**	.10**	-.01	-.05*	-.15	-.12*	.13*	-.13*
21. confident in own ability to manage EI	.07	-.05	.09	.08	-.02	.14*	.13	.16	.12*	.10	-.08	-.10**	-.10	-.08	.01	-.11
22. hard to manage in participative style	.18	-.11	.12	.20	-.10	.19**	.16	.16	.12	.12	-.11	-.14	-.11	-.15	.12	-.11

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47
23. Participative management comes naturally to me	.15	-.08	.11	.38	-.03	.24**	.11	.27	.25	.26	-.05	-.16**	-.23	-.17	.21	-.25**
24. Top management see EI as vital to our success	.09**	-.02**	-.01**	.31**	-.19**	.26**	.05**	.17*	.17*	.19**	.02*	-.08**	-.18*	-.17	.17	-.25**
25. Top managers disagree about the value of EI	.13**	.00**	.09**	.38**	-.26**	.22**	.08**	.13	.18	.18	.01	-.01*	-.19	-.20	.24	-.29**
26. I give high priority to increasing EI	.14	-.04**	.11	.35*	-.25**	.20**	.09*	.17	.20	.18*	-.08	-.12**	-.19	-.24	.21	-.31**
27. I encourage other managers to support EI	.11	-.03	.09	.30	-.16	.21**	.09	.16**	.22**	.20**	-.06*	-.12**	-.25	-.19	.18*	-.28
28. I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	.05**	-.04**	.09**	.19**	-.07**	.12**	.07**	.13**	.12**	.13**	.04**	-.04**	-.13	-.10	.05**	-.21**
29. I have enough authority to do my job most effectively	.14**	-.06**	.12**	.28**	-.17**	.20**	.12**	.17**	.20**	.22**	-.03**	-.14**	-.20	-.14	.14**	-.22
30. My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own authority	.37**	-.25**	.30**	.35**	-.13**	.38**	.38**	.22**	.16**	.19**	-.01**	-.08	-.18	-.16	.17**	-.21
31. I could perform my job better with better information	.32**	-.32**	.23**	.13**	-.10*	.35	.23*	.06**	.12**	.10*	.07	.02	-.07*	-.09*	.09*	-.06
32. could do a better job with better resource access	.36	-.30**	.28**	.19*	-.16**	.36**	.26*	.00**	.06**	.07**	.09	.07	.02	-.02*	.11**	-.05**
33. there is a lot of conflict of interest between managers and non-managers	-.26**	.28	-.18**	-.13**	.15**	-.27**	-.25**	-.11**	-.11**	-.06**	.10	.17	.16	.10	-.01	.07
34. conflict of interest between functions	-.20**	.25**	-.14	-.03**	.08**	-.14**	-.11**	.01*	-.02**	-.02*	.02	.13	.04	.05**	.02	.03
35. members of organisation share goals	-.28*	.28**	-.21**	-.06	.10**	-.19**	-.17**	-.09	-.07*	-.02	.04	.18	.18	.09*	-.07	.08**
36. People talk about EI more than do it	1.00**	-.56**	.46**	.21**	-.10	.42**	.38**	.17	.16*	.12**	.03	.02	-.02	-.05	.05	-.01
37. EI makes little difference to where the control really lies	-.56**	1.00**	-.41**	-.13**	.13**	-.36	-.28**	-.02**	-.10*	-.03**	.00	.05**	.06	.04	-.01	.02
38. good opportunities for career development	.46*	-.41**	1.00**	.15**	-.17**	.44**	.39	.08**	.13**	.02**	.04**	.05**	-.05*	-.03*	-.05	-.07
39. influence - resource allocation	.21**	-.13**	.15*	1.00	-.51	.26**	.17**	.25	.34**	.27**	-.08**	-.13**	-.26**	-.27	.31**	-.29**
40. influence... organisational restructuring	-.10**	.13**	-.17**	-.51*	1.00*	-.23*	-.13**	-.16**	-.19	-.16**	.14**	.17**	.37**	.32	-.29**	.30**
41. influence...entering or exiting major markets	.42**	-.36**	.44*	.26	-.23**	1.00**	.54**	.06**	.10**	.05	.09**	.02**	-.13	-.07	.11**	-.17**

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47
42. Likelihood of promotion in next five years	.36	-.29	.39	.17	-.13	.54	1.20**	.15**	.12**	.07**	.03	-.03**	-.05**	-.05**	.04**	-.07**
43. Days training in people skills	.11	-.02	.08	.25	-.16	.06**	.15**	1.00**	.61**	.63**	-.16**	-.25	-.13*	-.15	.12	-.13
44. Tenure	.16	-.10	.13	.34	-.19	.10	.12*	.61**	1.00**	.66	-.23**	-.30*	-.19	-.21**	.16	-.20**
45. Age	.12**	-.03	.02**	.27*	-.16	.05	.07*	.63	.66	1.00	-.14**	-.25	-.14**	-.17	.19**	-.14
46. Levels below MD	.13**	.00	.04	-.08	.14	.08	.03	-.16**	-.23**	-.14**	1.00**	.56	.22	.25**	-.13	.19
47. SIZE (EMPLOYEES) - S1	.12**	.05	.05	-.13**	.17	.02	-.03	-.25**	-.30**	-.25**	.56**	1.00	.25**	.21	-.11	.15
48. % SIZE CHANGE (EMPLOYEES) - S1	-.02	.06*	-.05	-.26	.37	-.13	-.05	-.13*	-.19	-.14	.22	.25	1.00	.48	-.27	.16
49. CHANGE IN HIGHT LAYERS - S1	-.05	.04	-.03	-.27*	.32	-.07	-.05	-.15**	-.21**	-.17**	.25	.21	.48**	1.00	-.11**	.15**
50. SUGGESTION SCHEME - S1	.05**	-.01	-.05	.31**	-.29	.11	.04	.12**	.16**	.19**	-.13*	-.11	-.27	-.41*	1.00	-.27**
51. ATTITUDE SURVEYS - S1	-.01**	.02**	-.07*	-.29	.29*	-.16	-.07**	-.13**	-.20**	-.14**	.10**	.15	.36	.35	-.27*	1.00**
52. TEAM BRIEFING - S1	-.10**	.17	-.15	-.25	.26	-.23	-.21*	-.16**	-.23**	-.18**	.03**	.14	.12**	.16*	-.12	.15**
53. JOB REDSIGN - S1	.07	-.05	.08	.30	-.19	.10	.09	.25	.29	.21**	-.10**	-.11	-.12**	-.12**	.16	-.17**
54. QUALITY CIRCLES - S1	.06	.00	.01*	.09	-.03	.01	.21	.40	.26	.28	-.21*	-.28	-.20	-.09	.01*	-.06**
55. CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES - S1	.11**	-.01	.06	.11	-.04	.02	.19*	.40**	.24**	.28**	-.25**	-.33	-.19**	-.14	.10	-.11**
56. TASK FORCES - S1	.08**	-.03	.04	.13	-.04	.10	.20	.32**	.20**	.22**	-.11*	-.16**	-.16*	-.11	.08**	-.15**
57. SELF-MANAGING TEAMS - S1	.07**	-.02*	.04*	.10	-.07	.02	.11	.17**	.18**	.14**	.01**	-.04	-.09*	-.03	.01**	-.08**
58. SMALL BUSINESS UNITS - S1	.20**	-.06**	.14**	.19	-.12	.16	.25	.17**	.14**	.09**	-.01**	-.06	.03	-.01	.04**	-.08**
59. Productivity Improvement - S1	.08	.02	.03	.09	.02	.02	.02	.00	.04	.06	-.11	-.06**	.03	-.05	.06	-.02
60. Attitude Improvements - S1	.09*	-.05	.01	.07	-.04	-.03	-.01	.08	.04**	-.01	-.10**	-.12*	-.07**	-.13	.12	.01**
61. MM resistance - S1	-.08**	.09	.00	.01**	-.03	.00	-.10	-.30**	-.17**	-.21**	.11**	.19	.06**	.02	.00**	-.02**
62. sen.mgmt suppt - S1	-.09**	.15	-.12	-.12*	.16	-.17	.02	.13**	.02**	.03**	-.08**	-.15	.04**	.03	-.12**	.09**

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62
1. The way work is done(desired EI)	-.19**	-.05	.04	-.04	.06	-.05	-.01	.12*	.10*	.09*	-.04	-.06	-.11*	.13*
2. Speed of work(desired EI)	-.15**	-.03	.01	-.05	.00	.02	-.07	.13**	.18**	.18**	.04	.01	.03	.08
3. Determining quality standards(desired EI)	.00	-.04	-.10*	-.02	-.05	.13**	-.01	.00	.09*	.09*	.11*	.13**	-.12**	.10*
4. ... how quality standards will be achieved(desired EI)	-.11*	-.02*	-.05	-.07	-.01	.06	-.04	.09*	.14**	.13**	.08	.07	-.13**	.10*
5. Planning and scheduling of work(desired EI)	-.13**	.03	-.04	-.08	.00	-.07	-.09*	.11*	.13**	.14**	.00	-.02	.00	-.04
6. Hiring new recruits(desired EI)	-.04	-.11*	.09	-.04	.02	.00	-.07	.20**	.14**	.08	.07	.03	-.12**	.11*
7. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities(desired EI)	-.13**	-.15**	.02	-.06	.03	.08	-.01	.17**	.17**	.14**	.10*	.10*	-.08	.07
8. The way work is done (actual EI)	-.14**	-.02	-.05	.00	.02	.06	-.04	.20**	.23**	.23**	.09*	.06	-.10*	.05
9. Speed of work (actual EI)	-.18**	.01	-.10*	-.02	.01	.10*	-.04	.15**	.20**	.20**	.11*	.07	-.10*	.07
10. Determining quality standards (actual EI)	-.09	-.02	-.15**	.01	-.10*	.16**	-.04	.14**	.18**	.20**	.12**	.12**	-.15**	.13**
11. ... how quality standards will be achieved (actual EI)	-.11*	-.02	-.09*	.02	-.01	.15**	-.03	.14**	.20**	.21**	.12**	.13**	-.13**	.11*
12. Planning and scheduling of work (actual EI)	-.13**	-.01	-.06	-.08	-.05	.03	-.11*	.14**	.21**	.23**	.03	-.02	-.03	-.01
13. Hiring new recruits (actual EI)	-.09	-.07	-.01	-.07	-.09	.07	-.08	.16**	.15**	.14**	.09	.05	.02	-.01
14. Allocation of tasks and responsibilities (actual EI)	-.14**	-.02*	-.07	-.02	-.02	.15**	-.02	.16**	.21**	.21**	.14**	.14**	-.09*	.08
15. experience of EI	-.11*	-.07	-.05	-.07	-.04	.08	-.01	.08	.11*	.13**	.06	.03	-.04	.01
16. many problems disappear when everyone can participate in decisions	-.16	.10	.24	.20	.09	.09	.00*	.01	-.06	-.01	-.19	-.05	.04	.06
17. PDH results in effective decisions	-.19	.07*	.16**	.19**	-.01	.12	.08**	.07	-.04	.01	-.15	-.03*	-.01**	.12**
18. EI gives too much power to subordinates	-.17	.08	.07	.14	-.02	.16*	.10	-.02	-.01	-.08	.00	-.04	-.10	.02
19. PDH often requires divulging too much confidential information	-.14	.10	.16	.13	.03	.21	.03	.05**	-.04*	.00**	-.11	-.09	-.05	.11
20. Subordinates often cannot be trusted	-.09**	.10*	.14	.14	.08	.08	.02	.01**	-.07**	.00**	-.13	.03	-.04**	.13**
21. confident in own ability to manage EI	-.15	.05	.25	.23	.08	.07	-.07	.00	-.15	.08	-.04	-.11	.09*	.05*
22. hard to manage in participative style	-.12	.04	.21	.21*	.02*	.12	.02*	.02	-.18*	.00	-.13	-.15	.02*	.08

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62
23. Participative management comes naturally to me	-.23	.17	.14	.14	.18	.07	.09	.04	.01	.04	-.08	-.14	-.02	-.05	.10
24. Top management sees EI as vital to our success	-.23**	.08	.07**	.08*	.18	.00	.09*	.04	.02	.03*	-.07**	-.18*	.01**	-.10**	.08**
25. Top managers disagree about the value of EI	-.19	.12	.02	.00	.16**	.02*	.10**	.06	-.02	.05	-.09	-.08	-.02**	-.15**	.05**
26. I give high priority to increasing EI	-.17	.13	.05	.05*	.14	.04	.14	.05**	.02	.04	-.09	-.11	-.02	-.09**	.12**
27. I encourage other managers to support EI	-.14	.12	.14	.07	.20	.03	.03	.07*	-.01	-.03	-.01	-.13	-.01	-.06	.15
28. I have a lot of say over what happens in my work	-.12	.11**	.15	.12**	.22**	.08*	.03*	-.04**	-.04**	-.04**	.02**	-.09**	-.07*	-.01*	.06*
29. I have enough authority to do my job most effectively	-.15	.05	.11	.08**	.14*	-.01	.13*	.09	-.03*	-.02**	-.06**	-.14	-.09*	-.07	.09
30. My job allows me to make a lot of decisions on my own authority	-.23	.13*	.18	.19*	.22	.06	.25**	.01	.04*	-.12**	-.02**	-.11**	-.07**	-.05	.06
31. I could perform my job better with better information	-.15	.06	.04	.03*	.07	.00	.06	.07	.02	.09	-.08	-.05	.01*	.00**	-.04*
32. could do a better job with better resource access	-.16	.07	-.08**	-.05**	-.03**	.05	.09	.05**	-.03**	.09**	-.17**	-.01	.11*	-.14**	-.14**
33. there is a lot of conflict of interest between managers and non-managers	.25*	-.02	-.07	-.11**	-.03	.03	-.15	-.06	-.10	.16*	-.02**	.09	-.02*	-.02	-.03
34. conflict of interest between functions	.05	.07	.00	-.01*	.01	.02	-.07*	.01	-.06	.01*	-.08**	.08	-.07	.05	-.03
35. members of organisation share goals	.14	.00*	-.12**	-.13	-.13	-.01	-.11	-.03	-.09	.11	-.10	.18	.10	-.06**	-.15*
36. people talk about EI more than do it	-.10	.07	.06	.11*	.08	.07	.20	.08	.09	-.08	-.09	-.03	.00	-.05	-.02
37. EI makes little difference to where the control really lies	.17	-.05	.00	-.01	-.03	-.02	-.06	.02	-.05	.09	.15	.05	-.03	-.02	.05
38. good opportunities for career development	-.15	.08	.01	.06**	.04*	.04	.14	.03*	.01	.00	-.12	-.01	-.04	.02	-.03
39. influence - resource allocation	-.25*	.30**	.09**	.11**	.13**	.10	.19	.09**	.07**	.01**	-.12**	-.12	.06	-.13**	.09**
40. influence..	.26	-.19**	-.03**	-.04**	-.04**	-.07	-.12	.02**	-.04**	-.03**	.16**	.04	-.06**	.05**	-.02**
41. influence..entering or exiting major markets	-.23	.10**	.01**	.02**	.10**	.02**	.16	.02**	-.03**	.00**	-.17**	-.04	-.01	-.03**	-.17**

Study 3: Zero Order Correlations (Including study 1 group level variables)

	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62
42. Likelihood of promotion in next five years	-.21	.09	.21*	.19**	.20**	.11**	.25*	.02**	-.01*	-.10**	.02**	.03	-.08**	.04**	-.08**
43. Days training in people skills	-.16	.25	.40	.40	.32	.17	.17	.00	.08**	-.30	.13	-.02**	-.17*	.04	.22
44. Tenure	-.23	.29**	.26	.24	.20**	.18**	.14	.04**	.04*	-.17*	.02	-.09	-.08**	.02**	.21**
45. Age	-.18	.21	.28*	.28	.22*	.14**	.09	.06	-.01	-.21	.03	.01	-.10	-.04	.11
46. Levels below HD	.03	-.10**	-.21	-.25*	-.11	.01	-.01*	-.11	-.10**	.11**	-.08**	-.01	-.03	-.08**	-.10**
47. SIZE (EMPLOYEES) - S1	.14	-.11**	-.29**	-.33**	-.16**	-.04**	-.06**	-.06**	-.12**	.19**	-.15**	.06	.04**	-.13**	-.20**
48. % SIZE CHANGE (EMPLOYEES) - S1	.12	-.12**	-.20**	-.19**	-.16**	-.09**	.03	.03	-.07**	.06**	.04**	.10**	.01**	-.06**	-.16**
49. CHANGE IN UNIT LAYERS - S1	.16**	-.12	-.09	-.14	-.11**	-.03**	-.01**	-.05*	-.13**	.02**	.03**	-.01**	-.07**	.01**	-.11**
50. SUGGESTION SCHEME - S1	-.12**	.16	.01	.10**	.08	.01	.04**	.06	.12	.00*	-.12*	.00**	.12**	-.13**	.02**
51. ATTITUDE SURVEYS - S1	.15**	-.17	-.06**	-.11	-.15**	-.08**	-.08	-.02**	.01**	-.02**	.09**	.06**	-.05**	-.03**	-.10**
52. TEAM BRIEFING - S1	1.00**	-.16**	-.14	-.11**	-.13	-.08**	-.15	-.02**	.04**	.06**	.07**	.08	.00**	.02**	-.03**
53. JOB REDESIGN - S1	-.16**	1.00**	.22	.26**	.26**	.56	.14	-.09**	-.12**	.07**	.08**	.01	.03**	.02**	.16**
54. QUALITY CIRCLES - S1	-.14	.22**	1.00**	.71	.63	.25	.12	-.14*	.05**	-.23**	.27**	-.11**	-.27**	.25**	.33**
55. CONSULTATIVE COMMITTEES - S1	-.11	.26*	.71	1.00**	.62**	.24**	.16*	-.14	.07	-.34**	.28**	.00**	-.19**	.26**	.30**
56. TASK FORCES - S1	-.13**	.26**	.63	.62**	1.00**	.27**	.16**	-.08	.04	-.29**	.24**	-.06**	-.25*	.19**	.29**
57. SELF-MANAGING TEAMS - S1	-.08**	.56**	.25*	.24**	.27**	1.00**	.13**	-.31**	-.41**	.15	.23**	.02**	-.02*	.10**	.20**
58. SMALL BUSINESS UNITS - S1	-.15**	.14**	.12*	.16**	.16**	.13**	1.00**	.10**	.07**	.04**	.06	-.09**	-.02	-.01**	.06**
59. productivity improvement - S1	-.02**	-.09**	-.14**	-.14**	-.08	-.31	.10**	1.00**	.30**	.03**	-.14**	.01	.12**	.03**	-.07**
60. attitude improvements - S1	.04**	-.12**	.05**	.07**	.04**	-.41**	.07**	.30**	1.00**	-.18*	-.07	-.06**	.07	.11**	.08**
61. HI resistance - S1	.06**	.07**	-.29**	-.34**	-.29**	.15**	.04**	.03**	-.18**	1.00**	-.05**	.00**	.22**	-.03	-.09**
62. sen.mgmt suppt - S1	.07**	.08**	.27**	.28**	.24**	.23**	.06**	-.14**	-.07**	-.05**	1.00**	-.08**	-.24**	.24**	.52

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

