

# The Power Gap: Is Sharing or Accumulating Power the Answer?

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## Abstract

*As organizations become more complex, executives and managers are often faced with a gap between the amount of power necessary to complete tasks or make decisions and that granted by their positions. Combined with a sense of powerlessness among subordinates in many large organizations, executives are confronted with a dilemma of effectively responding to the power gap. This paper examines antecedents and consequences of two possible responses to this growing gap in organizational power and offers guidance on making the appropriate response.*

## Introduction

The responsible development and use of power has been posited to be a central task of executives (Kotter, 1985; Yukl, 1989). However, as organizations continue to increase in complexity, the amount of attention that executives and managers must devote to this task is increasing. At the same time, employees in many organizations are feeling a greater sense of powerlessness as every aspect of their work becomes more specialized and formalized. In many large organizations, this has resulted in a widening gap between the amount of power granted by the position and that actually required to get the job done. Thus, executives are faced with a dilemma of how to deal with this gap in order to effectively perform their jobs.

One possible response is for the manager to become adept at amassing power from sources other than those that stem from the job. This would include cultivating personal power bases (French & Raven, 1959; Yukl, 1989), as well as generating power through information acquisition, network formation, and visionary agenda setting (Kanter, 1989; Kotter, 1982). Since the use of personal power bases has long been associated with the managing and leading of others, this option is one that executives and managers are relatively familiar with. However, it should be noted that while this strategy may be effective in narrowing the power gap in certain situations, the use of personal power is not the only option available to executives.

Another response is for the manager to empower organizational members so that there is a necessary sharing of responsibility to achieve long-term organizational goals (Conger, 1989b; Kanter, 1989). This would include the delegation of authority and various motivational techniques aimed at enhancing feelings of self-

determination, efficacy, and competency. Over the past few years, the concept of empowerment has been gaining increasing attention in corporate America and has been linked to both personal and organizational effectiveness (Conger, 1989b; Stewart, 1989). Much of this is likely due to its compatibility with popular participatory and democratic styles of management. Despite the increased attention in empowerment, the process is still not widely understood. Conflicting meanings have been attached to the construct in both the academic and practitioner literature. In addition, it is a process that comes less naturally to managers and requires a shift in how many approach leadership.

Choosing the correct response to narrow the power-gap in today's organizations can be a difficult process. While the authors recognize that the empowerment option probably is the best fit with today's trend towards more democratic styles of management, some managers may feel that an increase in one's own power is necessary. To aid executives and managers in determining the most appropriate response, this paper presents a conceptual model that incorporates both of these responses as viable ways of dealing with the power-gap. Included in the model are managerial responses to the power-gap necessitated by the manager's choice of power strategies and resulting organizational consequences. Before presenting the model, the power and empowerment theories will be discussed in order to provide both definitions and theoretical support.

## Power and Empowerment Theories

According to the *Handbook of Leadership*, researchers define power both as a force and as a social exchange (Stogdill, 1974; Bass, 1990). More specifically, this

collection of studies has culminated in the following definitions of power: "production of intended effects", "ability to employ force", "intended, successful control of others", "asymmetrical influence relation between the behavior of two persons", "the ability to get another person to do something he or she would not otherwise do", "net dependence of one actor on another actor and/or interdependency among actors" (Bass, 1990, pp. 225).

Each of these definitions infers that possession of power enables a person to better achieve his goals and/or desirable outcomes. A proliferation of research has even categorized the sources or bases of power and has expounded on the merits and conditions of applying each power base (Benne, 1943; Cartwright, 1965; French & Raven, 1959; Gardner, 1989; Greiner & Schein, 1988; Kelman, 1958). There seems to be general agreement that executives possess, to varying degrees, the following types or sources of power--reward, coercive, expert, legitimate, and referent (French & Raven, 1959; Burke, 1986). Three of these --reward, coercive, and legitimate--are referred to as organizational sources of power since they are directly linked to the individual's position in the organization. The other two types--expert and referent--are referred to as personal forms of power and depend largely on the personal attributes of the individual, such as expertise or charisma (Griffin, 1984; Bass, 1990). Absent from this line of research is the possible thesis that in order to bring about the intended behavior of others, a process of sharing power, rather than accumulating it, might be a viable alternative.

Empowerment, or the sharing of power, has been viewed as both a relational and a motivational construct. Much of the literature, however, tends to emphasize the relational perspective, involving the delegation of authority (Burke, 1986) and the increased involvement of lower-level employees in the control and distribution of organizational resources. Consistent with this view, empowerment practices, such as Management by Objectives (MBO) and quality circles, have been used in many American companies. Although researchers agree that delegation and participative management practices are central to the empowerment process (Burke, 1986; Kanter, 1983), most of the focus of such research is on the behavioral changes that take place with subordinates, with little or no attention devoted to changes which ensue in the leader's behavior.

Empowerment has also been viewed as a motivational force (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Conger, 1989a; Conger, 1989b). This perspective goes beyond the delegation of authority and proposes that an individual gains intrinsic motivation from the empowerment process. Assuming that individuals have a need for power, as suggested by McClelland (1975), their coping mechanisms are either enhanced when they perceive that

they have power or thwarted when they feel powerless. Likewise, by increasing an employee's self-determination (Deci, 1975) or feelings of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), the employee feels more powerful. Therefore, the empowerment process can be viewed as an "enabling" process (Conger & Kanungo, 1988).

### **The Power-Gap Model**

As previously indicated, the model in this paper is a conceptual framework that examines personal and organizational consequences of the executives' choice of power strategies. This model (see Figure 1) is presented below and will be discussed in greater detail in the following section.

#### *Contextual Factors*

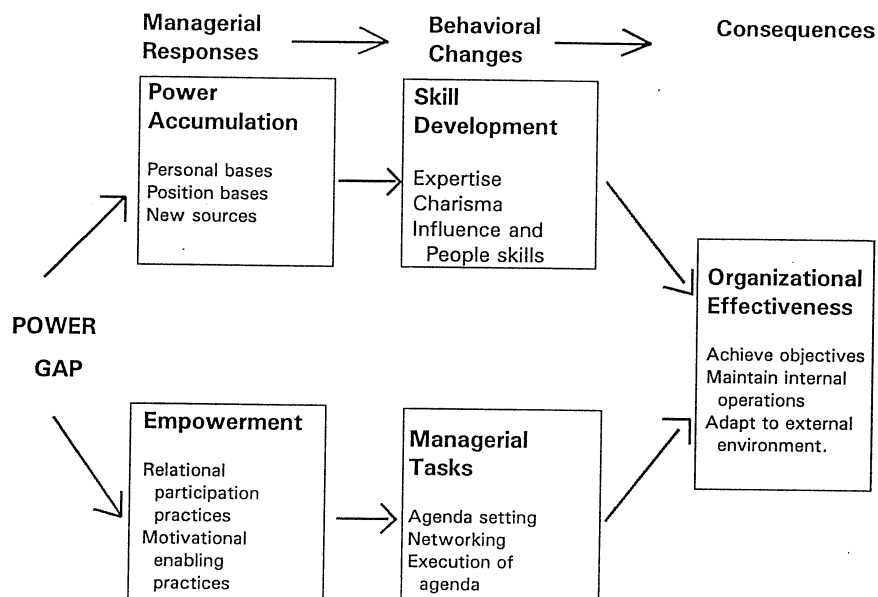
As organizations become increasingly complex, various contextual factors contribute to a sense of powerlessness among subordinates (Conger, 1989a, 1989b; Conger & Kanungo, 1988). For example, as a work unit increases in size, decreased participation rates often lead to depersonalization and a lack of commitment among subordinates. Increased task specialization causes boredom and monotony among employees, while job interdependence leads to interposition stress and tension. Likewise, a proliferation of policies, rules, and procedures greatly restrict the level of discretion at lower levels in the organization, which contribute to depersonalization and feelings of incompetency. As higher standards are imposed, increased stress and erratic behavior may also ensue. In sum, these factors contribute to feelings of low self-esteem and powerlessness among subordinates in today's organizations.

In addition to affecting subordinate behavior, such factors can also impact managerial behavior. As organizations become more complex, there are more relationships, efforts, and roles for the manager to coordinate (Kotter, 1982). In addition, increased diversity among organizational constituencies, with respect to goals, values, perceptions, and the interdependency of relationships, has increased conflict within organizations. Managers are, therefore, placed in the difficult position of having to respond to increasing numbers of constituencies with conflicting beliefs and priorities (Kotter, 1986). In such situations, individuals often need more power than that which stems from their positions and thus, face the power-gap.

#### *Managerial Responses*

To narrow the power-gap, the authors propose that two possible options face today's managers. One is for the manager to accumulate greater amounts of power. The other possible response is for the manager to empower subordinates so that they share in the respon-

Figure 1: The Power-Gap Model



sibility of managing the organization. Since there may be organizational and personal reasons as to why either of these may be appropriate choices, it is important that both of these options be discussed in greater detail.

#### Power Accumulation

For many executives and managers, the process of aggressively competing for power and control over greater amounts of organizational resources has traditionally been a part of organizational life (Kanter, 1989). While climbing the corporate ladder, aspiring executives have been groomed with the notion that the accumulation of power leads to both personal and organizational success (Powell, 1988). Thus, when confronted with the power-gap, it is not surprising that many would feel more comfortable in opting for a greater accumulation of power.

The successful use of such an option depends, to a large extent, on the structure of one's organization. For those operating in organizations with traditionally hierarchical or bureaucratic structures, organizational forms of power provide the greatest source for power and authority, enabling the executive or manager to draw power primarily from his hierarchical position and functionally specialized roles (Bass, 1990). For many organizations, however, the complexity of operating in today's business environment has led to increased decentralization and less formal structures. Executives and managers are finding that organizational sources of power lack the necessary strength for them to perform effectively (Kanter, 1989). To compensate for this, leaders are likely to turn to their personal power sources

and/or develop new sources of power (Kanter, 1989; Kotter, 1986).

#### Personal Power Sources

The strengthening of personal power has been found to be a very effective means of accumulating power. One avenue for achieving this would be for the manager to enhance his area of expertise. Bass (1990), for example, indicates that followers tend to consider the personal power of the highly esteemed expert as more important than the legitimate, coercive, and reward power derived from the appointment to a position of leadership. Similarly, Keys and Case (1990) state that managers can have greater power by establishing a reputation as being knowledgeable or an expert. By strengthening his area of expertise, the manager builds credibility and thus, accumulates greater power.

Charisma, or referent power, can also be a means of enhancing one's personal power. According to Bass (1990), the charismatic leader is "the ultimate in personal power" and is endowed by followers with such qualities as omniscience, virtue, infallibility, and wisdom. Followers identify and develop strong emotional bonds of affection with the leader which results in fierce personal loyalty. Given this emotional attachment, leaders are able to exercise a significant amount of influence and power over subordinates. Since charismatic leadership tends to place followers in a rather weak and dependent role (Yukl, 1989), the executive accumulates a greater scope of power. However, such a power strategy can have a debilitating effect on subordinates when not used properly. It should also be

noted that the use of charismatic leadership is linked to various personal traits and may, therefore, not be an option for all executives.

### New Sources of Power

As indicated, new sources of power can be gained by accessing information, cultivating relationships, and developing one's skills. Information, in this context, refers to knowledge about the complex workings of the organization (Kotter, 1986). It includes being aware of the various organizational perspectives, recognizing priorities and conflicts among perspectives, and identifying power coalitions inside and outside the organization. The manager also needs the power that can stem from credible relationships with subordinates, superiors, peers, customers, suppliers, and political figures. Such relationships facilitate the manager's job by giving him access to important information bases and aiding him in executing his agenda. Kanter (1989), for example, indicates that external relationships are increasingly important as sources of internal power and influence.

Finally, power can also accrue to executives and managers who possess good conceptual and communication skills, as well as good people skills. This includes the ability to communicate one's vision in order to gain the support of multiple constituencies (Bennis, 1982). Taken together, the manager's personal power and use of skills, information bases, and relationships may allow him or her to narrow the gap between the power granted from the position and that which is necessary to move the organization forward.

Although power accumulation is a viable response, there are circumstances in today's organizations where it may be inappropriate. In recent years, organizations are using a more participatory approach to management that utilizes teamwork. In addition, employees in the work-force are now better educated and have more of a career orientation towards their work (Leach & Chakiris, 1988). It is, therefore, understandable that these employees want to be more involved in decisions that impact their work life. Given this trend, a manager who strives for greater power accumulation may face alienation from subordinates. For this reason, managers may opt for another response--to empower subordinates and provide them with greater responsibility for change and growth in the organization.

### Empowerment

As mentioned earlier, the process of sharing power, or "empowerment", is aimed at enhancing another's ability to bring about desired results. This concept has become increasingly popular in corporations across America. A recent Fortune 500 poll, for example, indicates that chief executives share more power than they did five years

ago (Stewart, 1989). Furthermore, executives have found that in moving decision making as close as possible to where action can be taken, the resulting decisions are more timely and relevant. When empowerment works well, the total power available to the CEO may vastly increase since the CEO is, in a manner of speaking, cloning himself.

While all of this may sound easy, it is often difficult for executives and managers to diffuse their power, after years of hard work focused on the accumulation of power. This process often gives executives a sense of insecurity and feelings of losing control (Kanter, 1989; Conger, 1989b). However, empirical research indicates that executives have both the personal characteristics and capabilities necessary to empower subordinates effectively (McClelland & Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland & Burnham, 1976).

Although much of the empowerment literature tends to equate participation with empowerment (Likert, 1967; McGregor, 1960), it has been suggested that participation may only create the conditions necessary for empowerment to take place and that an individual must be "enabled" for empowerment to actually occur (Burke, 1986). Even so, it is important to discuss both the participation and motivation dimensions of empowerment.

### Participation as an Empowering Strategy

Executives, such as Jack Welch of General Electric and John Bryan of Sarah Lee, agree that today's organizations depend more on participative, as opposed to autocratic, styles of management (Stewart, 1989). Organizations use participative management in several forms--goal setting, decision making, problem solving, and even organizational change (Burke, 1986). The widespread use of such forms is largely due to the positive impact such styles have been found to have on productivity. For example, Sashkin (1984), in a review of participative management literature, reveals that use of participative management is strongly linked to both high productivity and quality of work life. Yukl (1981) has indicated other benefits that participative management offers the organization, such as greater understanding and acceptance of decisions, greater commitment to decision implementation, greater understanding of organizational objectives and courses of action, increased task motivation and job satisfaction, and more cooperative efforts among constituencies.

Although the use of participation as an empowering strategy can offer significant benefits to the manager, there are circumstances which may limit its use. Not all managers, for example, are skilled or have confidence in using such techniques (Conger, 1989b). Similarly, subordinates may lack the willingness, expertise, and/or

experience to participate in activities or decisions. There may be situational factors, such as time, which do not allow for participation or significantly constrain it. The manager may also find that he is perceived by subordinates as lacking in management skills, and that there is difficulty in assigning responsibility (Yukl, 1981). Given these limitations, managers may wish to emphasize the motivational empowerment practices.

### Motivation as an Empowering Strategy

From a motivational viewpoint, managers can empower their subordinates by engaging in practices to enhance the subordinate's feelings of personal mastery (self-efficacy) and self-determination (Conger, 1989a, 1989b; Conger & Kanungo, 1988). In doing so, the manager has available several different empowerment practices or tools, although some have been found to be more effective than others.

Creating Success Experiences. Perhaps the most credible source of building personal efficacy is derived from one's own performance accomplishments, whereby mastery is enhanced as individuals develop competencies (Bandura, 1982; Brief & Aldag, 1981, Gist, 1987; Maddux & Stanley, 1986). By structuring goals and tasks in such a manner that success is possible, managers can provide opportunities for the development of greater self-confidence and feelings of personal mastery, as well as higher levels of commitment. It is critical, however, that the individual feel directly responsible for the success in order for empowerment to occur. Feedback and rewards should, therefore, be used to enhance the chances that success is attributed to individual effort.

It should be noted that while personal successes can have a very positive impact on competency feelings, personal failures can have an equally strong negative effect. For this reason, it is important that managers choose appropriate success-building experiences. Another danger with this type of empowerment strategy is that a false sense of confidence may be developed in subordinates (Conger, 1989a). This may lead to detrimental personal, as well as organizational, consequences as subordinates tackle unrealistic tasks or goals.

Creating Modeling Experiences. A second source used to generate self-efficacy is for the individual to model or imitate the successful performance of others. By doing so, the individual can develop feelings of competency and confidence, which lead to enhanced performance. The reliability of this source of empowerment depends on such factors as the similarity between the observer and model, as well as the availability, power, and credibility of the model. Modeling has been shown to be an important source of self-efficacy development in the literature (Bandura, 1982; Schunk, 1984, 1985, 1986; Manz & Sims, 1981). This is particularly true for new

employees who, in lacking personal experience, depend on others as a source for performance expectations. Training and mentoring programs are often designed with this goal in mind--to expose employees to appropriate role models.

One danger, however, in using modeling as an empowering strategy is that subordinates may place an undue emphasis on the model's behavior, leading to exaggerated subordinate behavior. Kaplan and his colleagues (1987), for example, note that even casual comments by leaders can sometimes lead to exaggerated subordinate behavior patterns. In turn, this encourages the leader to distance himself from subordinates, thereby discouraging further modeling activities. Another danger exists when subordinates begin to model inappropriate, rather than appropriate, managerial or executive behavior. Such modeling behavior can have detrimental results when it becomes the "rule", rather than the "exception", within the organization.

Verbal Persuasion. Since verbal persuasion is a readily available source of efficacy development, it is often used by leaders. When subordinates are verbally persuaded of their ability to perform particular tasks, greater sustained effort can occur (Conger, 1989a). However, as with modeling, the credibility and competency of the source is quite important with this empowering strategy. Some researchers dispute the merit of this technique because it may not be based on either the past accomplishments of the individual or the successful performance of others (Bandura, 1982; Brief & Aldag, 1981; Gist, 1987; Maddux & Stanley, 1986). Nevertheless, verbal persuasion is a readily available tool that can be used by leaders to encourage feelings of self-importance, power, and personal mastery.

As with the other empowerment strategies, however, verbal persuasion can lead to unfavorable personal and organizational consequences if not used appropriately. When, for example, subordinates feel pressured to perform tasks for which they lack the necessary knowledge or skills, their self-confidence is likely to be lowered. In addition, if praise is not perceived as genuine or if the amount of praise does not fit the type of task accomplished, confusion and resentment often occur (Conger, 1989a). For these reasons, leaders should strive to use this technique only in situations where the performance of subordinates warrants encouragement.

Creating Positive Emotional Experiences. This strategy is based on the premise that individuals associate adverse emotional states with poor performance and positive emotional states with performance enhancement. For instance, unpleasant and stressful situations can result in a loss of confidence in the ability to perform and thus, have a detrimental effect on both self-

efficacy and performance. Positive emotional experiences, on the other hand, can boost confidence levels and feelings of personal mastery, which can lead heightened performance levels. Many companies use retreats, seminars, and conventions with charismatic speakers and "upbeat" activities to foster a sense of self-determination among subordinates.

As with the other motivational empowerment strategies, there are limitations in the use of creating positive emotional experiences. Any type of special retreat or event that is intended to emotionally charge subordinates must be carefully designed, with respect to both the types of activities and the leaders of such activities. Otherwise, an ineffective speaker or one that is perceived as phony may prove to be a disaster. Similarly, any activity that is incorporated into the daily functioning of the organization must also be carefully thought through. These are extremely risky and could result in serious repercussions if not used appropriately.

### **Behavioral Changes**

In considering either the power accumulation or empowerment response to the power-gap, it is important for the manager to realize that changes may be required in his/her behavior to support the selected response. Unfortunately, the literature provides managers with little guidance in appropriate behavioral changes, since much of the research attention has been devoted to subordinate behavioral changes. The following section will discuss behavioral changes necessitated by the manager's choice of power strategies.

#### *Power Accumulation*

In attempting to accumulate greater amounts of power, it is expected that changes would occur in the behavior of the manager. For the most part, however, changes involve the development of skills necessary to implement this power strategy and achieve organizational goals. For example, in building expert power, the managers must focus on cultivating a reputation as an expert. This not only requires a strong knowledge base in a particular field, but a commitment to continually build on that base and the ability to demonstrate that knowledge (Keys & Case, 1990). Given the rate of change in the environment of today's organizations, this serves as constant challenge to the manager.

Various behavioral changes are also necessary if the manager chooses to strengthen his referent power. Primarily, these changes involve enhancing the manager's charismatic behaviors. House (1977), for example, indicates that the articulation of an appealing vision, the use of impression management, the communication of high expectations, and the expression of confidence in followers' abilities are typical behaviors of

charismatic leaders. Making self-sacrifices, risking personal loss, and acting in unconventional ways are additional charismatic behaviors proposed by Conger and Kanungo (1988). It should be noted, however, that the successful use of such behaviors is also linked to facilitating conditions and/or contextual factors, such as an impending crisis or dissatisfaction with the status quo (Yukl, 1989).

In order to enhance one's reward power, it is necessary for the manager to have influence with his superiors, so that he is able to deliver on promises made to subordinates. Good people skills and communication skills are also necessary in order for the manager to develop new sources of power such as information access and credible relationships. Without development or enhancement of the skills listed above, it is not likely that managers will be able to effectively accumulate the power necessary to narrow the power-gap.

#### *Empowerment*

As with the accumulation of power, managerial behavior can also be expected to change as the empowerment process takes place. It is, however, more likely that these behavioral changes will focus on an expansion of managerial tasks brought about by sharing responsibilities with subordinates rather than mere skill development. Kotter's (1982) research focuses on three managerial tasks--agenda setting, networking, and execution. A manager's agenda involves his or her goals and plans for the organization, including organizational, financial, and environmental issues. These may be both specific and non-specific matters, as well as both short-term and long-term issues. The empowering process provides the manager with a mechanism for "selling" his agenda to subordinates and gaining their commitment. In addition, empowerment allows the manager to focus on long-term, strategic issues rather than short-term, routine issues.

Another behavioral change is in the building of networks, which often include a diverse set of constituencies such as peers, subordinates, bosses, suppliers, customers, and political figures (Kanter, 1989). In one way or another, each of these is able to help the manager accomplish his agenda. For example, empowerment provides the manager with a means of establishing a strong subordinate coalition to aid in executing his agenda. It also permits the manager to spend more of his time aligning external networks so that organizational goals are achieved. In addition, empowerment benefits the manager by giving him indirect access to numerous networks established by subordinates. At the same time, alliances and collaborative efforts are developed with and between subordinates so that there is a greater sense of empowerment.

Lastly, the task of execution can change when empowerment takes place. When a manager combines his network with financial resources, information, and interpersonal skills to implement his agenda, he is involved in execution (Kotter, 1982). At one time or another, managers call on almost everyone in their networks to aid in the execution of their agenda. Since empowering practices provide a way of mobilizing additional resources, expanding one's networks, and building employee commitment to goals, the execution of the manager's agenda is enhanced. As execution takes place, the manager is then able to focus his energies on other objectives. The impact on the organization of the manager's choice of power strategies is discussed below.

### **Organizational Consequences**

Organizational effectiveness or ineffectiveness can occur, depending on the appropriateness of the manager's response to the power-gap. This paper has explored two such responses to this gap-accumulation of personal and organizational power sources and sharing power with subordinates. According to Argyris (1962), organizations increase in effectiveness as (1) objectives are achieved, (2) the organization is internally maintained, and (3) the organization adapts to its external environment. As this paper has indicated, depending on the particular organizational situation, effectiveness can be achieved by either of these two responses.

In bureaucratic organizational structures, power generally accrues to those individuals in key positions who have control over resources such as information, money, and rewards. In these organizations, power accumulation is often necessary to move the organization toward goal achievement. Managers in highly powerful positions are not only able to accomplish more than their less powerful counterparts, they are often better able to motivate subordinates since employees admire bosses who have clout and influence. By modeling the behavior of powerful managers, subordinates may aid in closing the power-gap present in many organizations as well as increasing organizational effectiveness.

In less formal organizations, power is often dispersed or shared with subordinates who are closer to where the actual decisions have to be made. Through empowerment practices, the manager strives to harness additional energy toward achieving organizational goals and objectives. By engaging in motivational empowerment practices, the manager contributes to the internal functioning of the organization by delegating key responsibilities and building a team that can respond to organizational challenges. Empowerment also allows executives to focus on external networks which enhances the organizations' chances of responding to its external

environment and long term survival. By sharing organizational power, managers and executives have found another means of reducing the organizational power-gap and moving the organization toward higher levels of efficiency and effectiveness.

It is, however, possible that in some situations, organizational ineffectiveness may ensue as a result of either response to the power gap. For example, when power holders are viewed as dominating, manipulative, or coercive, they may want to de-emphasize accumulating personal and organizational sources of power and consider sharing power with subordinates. Likewise, when sharing power leads to overconfidence, misjudgments on the part of subordinates may occur. In such cases, organizations might persist in efforts that are in effect, erroneous. By misusing either of these power strategies, organizational ineffectiveness occurs. Management should monitor the consequences of their responses to the power-gap to protect against this possibility.

### **Conclusion**

The model presented in this paper has been based on a sense of increased powerlessness among subordinates and a widening power-gap among managers in many of today's large organizations. One avenue of response for managers is to amass greater power by strengthening personal power bases or cultivating new sources of power. Another response for managers is to empower those at lower levels of the organization. Behavioral changes involving skill development or expansion of managerial tasks are necessary to facilitate the use of either response. Depending upon the appropriateness of the response, organizational effectiveness will be enhanced. It is hoped that, through the presentation and discussion of this model, managers are better equipped to evaluate the circumstances in their particular situations and determine the most appropriate response to closing the power-gap and increasing effectiveness in their organizations.

### **Suggestions For Future Research**

Although the focus of this paper has been on the development of a conceptual framework that examines the dilemma facing today's executives and managers in appropriately responding to the power-gap, it is important to note that this model has not been empirically tested. In order to better understand how organizations are dealing with this issue, field research is highly recommended. Such an investigation would not only confirm/disconfirm various aspects of the model, it may also provide clues as to other factors which influence the appropriate response to the power-gap. For example, do situational or contextual factors play a larger role in the choice of one response versus the other? Such

findings would serve to strengthen the model.

It is also possible that this framework could be applied to examining how organizations respond to various "powerless" groups, such as women, minorities, and older workers. This is an increasingly important issue as today's organizations strive for both cultural and gender diversity. By responding appropriately to these traditionally "powerless" groups, managers may be better able to capitalize on the contributions that these groups offer organizations.

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