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THESIS

**BRIDGING THE MOTIVATION GAP:
EMPOWERMENT IN TOTAL QUALITY SETTINGS**

by

Jay L. Hatton

December 1993

Principal Advisor:

Kenneth W. Thomas

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by

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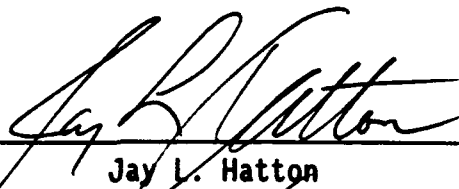
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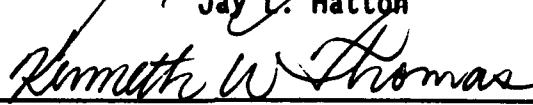
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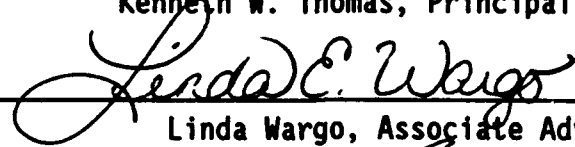


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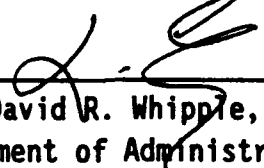
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ABSTRACT

This thesis proposes that a "motivation gap" exists in current Total Quality Leadership (TQL) theory and training between knowing intrinsic motivation is important and knowing how to achieve it in the work place.

The thesis discusses the importance of TQL in the Department of the Navy (DON) and outlines the role of empowerment in a total quality setting. The works of prominent total quality writers are reviewed, as well as alternative models of empowerment available in current literature. The idea that empowerment plays an important role in the long-term success of a total quality effort is illustrated with a case study conducted at the Naval Medical Center, San Diego.

Based upon this analysis, the thesis concludes that the Thomas/Tymon model of empowerment (1993) is currently the best tool available for bridging the "motivation gap" and recommends its inclusion in future DON total quality training.

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I. INTRODUCTION

A. BACKGROUND

The concept of *total quality* has become one of the most popular topics in the field of management today. This popularity is driven, in part, by the need for continuous improvement in the face of scarce resources and global competition. The concept of *continuous process improvement* is at the heart of the total quality movement, with emphasis on harnessing and directing all the resources of an organization, including its employees, toward that goal. There are a number of experts whose works provide the foundations for the movement. Anyone interested in the field will quickly become familiar with names such as W. Edwards Deming, Joseph M. Juran, Karou Ishikawa, and Philip B. Crosby. These men and others have penned literally millions of words on the subject; developing and building upon everything from the broad conceptual notions of quality to the nuances of statistical process control.

These experts frequently speak to the importance of employee motivation and involvement in a total quality effort, but they do not address specifically how to achieve/nurture it in the work place. Consequently, a "gap" exists in current total quality theory and training between knowing motivation is important and knowing how to achieve it.

B. PURPOSE

This thesis will bridge the "motivation gap" by providing managers with a "nuts & bolts" approach to motivating their workers through empowerment, thus enabling the organization to move toward total quality

via continuous improvement. The foundation for this approach is a new model of empowerment and intrinsic motivation developed by Thomas and Tymon (1993). Using this model, the thesis will focus on how the concepts of employee motivation and empowerment can be used to enhance current Total Quality Leadership (TQL) theory and training in the Department of the Navy (DON).

C. IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

Today's environment of scarce resources and global competition is forcing U.S. companies to reevaluate many of the traditional paradigms of American business. The old philosophy that "quality is too expensive" is being replaced by the notion that "quality is free" and is defined by the customer (Crosby, 1979). Organizations that fail to make the move from a quantity focus to a quality focus simply do not survive; those that do, flourish. This is equally true in the public sector. The abrupt shift in worldwide political and military structures has left the Department of Defense groping for missions and, more importantly, for money. Nowhere is this more true than in the Department of the Navy. Faced with massive budget and manpower cuts, the DON has taken a leading role in the establishment of quality initiatives. These initiatives were "undertaken to meet the challenge of becoming a leaner, but more efficient and effective organization...." (Suarez, 1992, p. iii).

Dan Howard, then Undersecretary of the Navy, describes the challenges facing the DON in the 1990s:

We have a sense of urgency. If any private-sector company was faced with a drop in their bottom line of the sort that we are anticipating over the next five years, they would declare bankruptcy and walk away. What we are looking at in the most rosy of scenarios would

amount to catastrophic failure in the private sector (Walton, 1990, p. 150).

Howard, one of the first key proponents of the Navy's quality initiatives, continues:

If we're going to maintain a viable maritime force over the next decade, we have to find a way out of the crisis, and one of those ways is through quality-focused management and streamlining every efficiency we can get from everywhere, because we're not going to get any more money. We're going to get a hell of a lot less.... Ten years from today there's no way we can predict where our budget's going to be, except we can be absolutely sure we're going to be a smaller organization than we are now, with an undiminished mission, and that is to protect the national interest of this country (Walton, 1990, p. 151).

The Navy's early successes in finding "a way out of the crisis" are well documented and the DON is a recognized leader in the public sector push for quality management. What began as a localized quality effort in the aviation depots and naval shipyards has now become a DON-wide program headed by the Department's top civilian and military leaders, with significant progress made in other branches, including the Bureau of Medicine or BUMED (refer to Chapter III). These efforts have not gone unrecognized. In 1989, the Naval Air Systems Command became "the first recipient of the President's Award for Quality, testimony to its long-term efforts to improve organizational performance" (Suarez, 1992, p. 23). Acknowledgement of the Navy's leadership role in the public sector's push for quality has come from other sources as well. In 1990, the Governor's Office of Employee Relations (GOER) for New York State conducted an informal survey of several other states and the Federal government "seeking ideas and relevant models" upon which to base their own quality initiatives (Cuomo, 1992, p. 1). One of the findings of this study was that "some parts of the Federal government, *such as the IRS and the U.S.*

Navy, have shown leadership in the use of quality concepts and techniques for several years" (Cuomo, 1992, p. 2). By the date of this survey, the Navy's quality efforts were well underway. Appropriately enough, their initiatives were being shaped under the auspices of a program called Total Quality Leadership. Again, Dan Howard addresses the importance of TQL in meeting the challenges outlined above:

In this downsizing environment, the choice is clear. We either cling to the old way of doing things until we're driven out of business, or we *harness the enormous talent of all of our people* to create a lean, powerful maritime force for this country's future--through total quality leadership, the only way ahead (Howard, 1992, p. 86).

As a program, TQL addresses the organizational and cultural changes necessary to modernize the DON's approach to quality. It does not, however, specifically address the techniques available for generating in the work force the kind of "energy" necessary to fuel a long-term continuous process improvement effort. Nor does it provide the Navy leader with a vehicle for managing the motivational aspects of an empowered Sailor or Marine. It is this motivational aspect of total quality, and its importance to the long-term success of TQL, that this thesis will examine.

D. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The primary research question addresses the possibility of a motivation gap in current Total Quality Leadership theory and training. That is, do the quality experts give leaders the motivational tools necessary to generate in their employees desired motivational states such as *Pride of Workmanship* (Deming, 1992, p. 76)? Subsidiary research questions cover topics such as defining and discussing the concepts of total quality, empowerment, and intrinsic motivation. Additionally,

research will be conducted into the type and scope of motivational models used by the quality experts, as well as alternative models of motivation/empowerment available in current literature. Particular attention will be given to the Thomas and Tymon model. The final subsidiary question examines the ways these models can be used to bridge the motivation gap in the Department of the Navy's TQL theory and training.

E. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology includes an extensive literature review covering the primary subjects: quality, empowerment, and intrinsic motivation, as well as the related topics of employee participation, worker involvement, and general motivation. Additionally, field interviews were conducted at the Naval Hospital, San Diego to determine the role of empowerment in the successful implementation of TQL at that facility. Chapter III contains the results of this study.

F. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

Chapter II of this thesis examines the conceptual components of the study, including Total Quality Leadership, empowerment, and intrinsic motivation, defining and outlining the role that each plays in a Total Quality setting.

Chapter III outlines the role of empowerment in the successful implementation of TQL at the Naval Hospital, San Diego.

Chapter IV discusses the motivation theories used by the quality experts. It also examines alternative models of empowerment, including the works of Edward Lawler and Peter Block.

Chapter V presents the primary model, that of Thomas and Tymon, and discusses in detail the four feelings of empowerment and the building blocks/actions that managers can use to foster employee motivation in the work place.

Chapter VI discusses recommendations for current TQL training in the DON and possible areas for future research.

II. THE CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATIONS OF THE STUDY

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter establishes the conceptual foundation for the remainder of the thesis. It provides a brief description of total quality in the Department of the Navy and a comprehensive definition of the term empowerment, including an overview of its major components such as intrinsic motivation. It ends with a description of the relationship between empowerment and total quality. The chapter is organized around a number of key conclusions in order to highlight the logical thread of the argument involving the motivation gap in current TQL theory and training.

B. TOTAL QUALITY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY

The DON's approach to total quality has been evolving since the early 1980s and has its foundations in the work of W. Edwards Deming. Deming defines quality in terms of both the current and future needs of the customer. His philosophy centers on the concept of *continuous process improvement*, that is, management's obligation to constantly seek ways to improve the "systems" or "processes" of the organization. A process is defined as "any set of conditions, or set of causes, that work together to produce a given result...usually a blending of machines, methods, materials, and people" (Suarez, 1992, p. 9). Deming (1986, p. 48) emphasizes the importance of the last ingredient, people, in the process, adding that they are an organization's "principal competitive resource." He contends that American management "requires a whole new structure, from foundation upward" if the problems of low quality, resource waste, and

unemployment are to be resolved (Deming, 1986, p. 1x). For Deming, this structure is based primarily on his "14 Points," "7 Deadly Diseases," and a "System of Profound Knowledge." Chapter IV of this thesis will discuss in detail many of Deming's precepts, particularly those relating to motivation in the work place. Total Quality Leadership (TQL) is the Navy's unique derivation of Deming's teachings. Gerald Suarez, a consultant for the Department of the Navy Total Quality Leadership Office, summarizes:

TQL was developed by the Department of the Navy for the Department of the Navy. DON leaders examined various approaches and concluded from their studies that Deming's philosophy and methods best suited the unique requirements of the organization. Deming emphasizes leadership responsibility and offers a systems approach to managing work and leading people. In the view of the Department, his approach is the most comprehensive--driven from the top, focused on the user, with decisions based on hard data (Suarez, 1992, p. 22).

He continues:

The Deming philosophy emphasizes teamwork and cooperation, important to the Department's Sailors and Marines and to those who support them in their mission. Deming also places great value on people and the knowledge they possess. Finally, Deming stresses that leaders have the prime responsibility for making system changes, an essential component of military operational commands. (Suarez, 1992, p. 22)

In adopting Deming's conceptual framework, the DON emphasized management's responsibility for instituting a systems approach to continuous process improvement and acknowledged that the involvement of its "employees" must be an integral part of this effort. Thus, it is argued that:

Conclusion 1: The central feature of Total Quality is *continuous process improvement*: a systems approach to quality management that features the inputs of the line-workers.

Central to the concepts of "people value" and involvement is the notion of employee empowerment.

C. EMPOWERMENT DEFINED

The term *empowerment* is used freely in current management literature, often without clarification of the concepts involved. Literally, the word means "to give official authority or legal power to" (Webster's, 1984, p. 408). Thus, in its most basic form, empowerment refers to *the giving of power*. William Byham uses an entertaining fable to communicate the power of *ZAPP!* (empowerment) and defines it as "the giving of power." (Byham, 1988, p. 52) Similarly, Kenneth Thomas and Betty Velthouse (1990, p. 666) postulate that "to empower means to give power to." But what does it really mean to empower an individual or an organization? Despite the proliferation of the word in the organizational sciences, this question has yet to be answered definitively. Thomas and Velthouse speak to this issue:

Empowerment has become a widely used word within the organizational sciences. At this early stage of its usage, however, empowerment has no agreed upon definition. Rather, the term has been used, often loosely, to capture a family of somewhat related meanings. For example, the word has been used to describe a variety of specific interventions, as well as the presumed effects of those interventions on workers.

In effect, empowerment has come to reflect two interrelated, yet distinctly different, concepts. The first concept addresses its organizational interventions and the other, less concrete, notion deals with empowerment as a "state of mind" or a "feeling" on the part of those who are empowered. Peter Block (1987, p. 68) touches on this distinction: "What this means is that empowerment is a state of mind as well as a result of position, policies, and practices."

For the purposes of this thesis, a combination of these two views will be used. On the one hand, empowerment is viewed as the changes made in an

organization to move power, knowledge, information, and rewards to the lowest levels (Lawler, 1986, p. 3). These actions include specific organizational changes that management makes to delegate or share power. Empowerment is also seen as the *psychological effects* these changes have on the work force, i.e., the "feelings" associated with being empowered.

Conclusion 2: Empowerment involves those interventions taken in the organization to increase employee participation and power. The term also encompasses the motivational effects these actions have on the work force.

For clarity, I will elaborate on both aspects.

1. Mechanistic Interventions of Empowerment

The first meaning of the term is by far the most common and generally refers to the distribution or delegation of authority to subordinate personnel--*empowerment as delegation*. Proponents of this definition believe that employees are empowered through tangible changes in the organization's power structure; these changes are often forwarded under the auspices of an "employee participation program." They contend: "...there is no better way than delegation to promote meaningful participation by employees in the company's operation" (Jenks, 1985, p. 37). Gretchen Spreitzer refers to this view of empowerment as the "relational perspective" and states:

In this perspective, empowerment can be achieved through delegation or sharing of power...this perspective has received considerable attention in the literature largely through research on participative management and decision making, employee involvement, delegation, and power distribution. (Spreitzer, 1992, p. 6)

Thomas and Velthouse (1990, p. 676) define these actions as *environmental changes* which impact the "...'objective' variables in the individual's environment." They provide examples such as leadership style, delegation and job design, and state that "the conventional

approach to empowerment has involved interventions that target such variables." These tangible changes in the organization are referred to as the *mechanistic interventions* of empowerment since they involve specific organizational changes designed to push power, knowledge, etc. down to the line workers. Examples might include delegating authority, establishing autonomous work groups (Process Action Teams, etc.), and providing resources/information to line-workers.

Conclusion 3: The mechanistic view of empowerment is most frequently discussed in management literature, including total quality literature, and includes specific actions to increase employee participation/power in an organization such as the formation of autonomous work teams (e.g., Quality Control Circles) or delegation of authority.

2. Motivational Effects of Empowerment

The other aspect of empowerment addresses the psychological impacts or "feelings" of being empowered, that is, *empowerment as motivation*. Spreitzer (1992, p. 7) refers to this as the "psychological perspective" of empowerment and states:

The second [psychological] perspective of empowerment has received considerably less attention in the literature. It is more psychological in nature and is viewed as a subjective phenomenon... relational [mechanistic] and psychological empowerment are believed to be related because psychological empowerment may be an outcome of relational empowerment.

Members of the "empowerment as motivation" school often speak of the "energy" involved in the process or the "energizing" effects it has on the work force. Byham (1988, p. 34) refers to ZAPPI as "a force that energizes people." Thomas and Velthouse elaborate upon their earlier definition by explaining that "power" can have several meanings:

In a legal sense, power means *authority*, so that empowerment can mean authorization. Power also may be used to describe *capacity*, as in the self-efficacy definition of Conger and Kanungo. However, power also means *energy*. Thus, to empower also can mean to energize. This

latter meaning best captures the present motivational usage of the term (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 667).

Margot Robinson (1993, p. 44) specifically addresses this concept of empowerment as motivation or energy:

How exactly do you give power to someone? Think about your personal experiences. Maybe you've worked in a situation in which you felt you had a vote; people listened to you and gave you credit for being an intelligent, thinking human being. How did you feel in that situation? *You probably felt energized*, as if you could make a difference through your work. If so, you have some idea of what it is to be empowered.

It follows that a manager's ability to generate this sort of energy in his/her employees and subsequently tap it for the company's good can, and does, have a remarkable effect on the organization's success.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) identified this aspect of empowerment as *intrinsic task motivation*, that is, motivation that results from rewards obtained directly from the work itself. *Extrinsic motivation*, on the other hand, is that motivation stemming from rewards/punishments handed out by others. Lawler (1986, p. 29) elaborates on this distinction:

Intrinsic rewards have to be given to the individual by himself or herself; all the organization can do is set up conditions where this is possible. Extrinsic rewards, such as money and promotion, can be formally allocated by an organization.

Some authors stress the importance of both types of incentives. Lawler (1986, p. 26) states:

Rewards are important determinates of behavior in organizations... Both intrinsic (internal) and extrinsic (external) rewards can be affected by participative programs. Such intrinsic rewards as feelings of accomplishment and self-worth can be increased as a result of individuals being involved in important work decisions.

He continues, "...participation [in goal setting] has the effect of stimulating or creating a connection between a particular level of performance and the reception of intrinsic rewards" (Lawler, 1986, p. 30).

Others believe the reliance on extrinsic rewards to be the bane of Western management, maintaining that intrinsic rewards are potentially much more powerful because they encourage feelings of "ownership" in the worker. An individual will be committed to the task if they place intrinsic value (i.e., feelings of self-esteem, competence) on the quality of the product. Manz (1991, p. 18) argues that the goal of empowerment is "self-leadership" and states:

The label "self-leadership" has been adopted to connote a process that involves intrinsic motivation and commitment to accomplishing something that is personally relevant, meaningful, and that the individual helped to select...and feels some ownership of....

On the other hand, an individual driven by extrinsic rewards will only comply with regulations to avoid losing pay, promotion, job security, etc. Senge (1992, p. 32) denounces the reliance on extrinsic incentives, stating:

From an extrinsic perspective, the only way to get continuous improvement is to find ways to continually motivate people to improve, because people only modify their behavior when there is some external motivation to do so. Otherwise, they will just sit there--or worse, slide backwards. This leads to what workers perceive as management continually raising the bar to manipulate more effort from them.

Covey (1989, p. 59) agrees, stating, "That focus on golden eggs [extrinsic rewards]--that attitude, that paradigm--is totally inadequate to tap into the powerful energies of the mind and heart of another person." He continues by stressing the importance of intrinsic rewards:

Psychic or psychological consequences include recognition, approval, respect, credibility, or the loss of them. Unless people are in the

survival mode, psychic compensation is often more motivating than financial compensation (Covey, 1989, p. 228).

Based on this research, it is argued:

Conclusion 4: The motivational heart of empowerment is *intrinsic task motivation* which is defined as "positively valued experiences that individuals derive directly from a task" (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 668).

The Thomas and Tymon model of empowerment identifies a number of actions designed to increase this aspect of empowerment, providing managers with the "building blocks" and "team actions" necessary to foster what they identify as the four elements of intrinsic task motivation--choice, competence, meaningfulness, and progress. (Thomas & Tymon, 1993, p. 5) Chapter V will outline in detail this model of empowerment and explore its usefulness in bridging the motivation gap.

D. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPOWERMENT AND TOTAL QUALITY

The topics discussed in this chapter are certainly not new to the field of management science. In fact, a considerable amount of resource data is available on empowerment, total quality and intrinsic motivation; only a few, however, address how they are related. A prominent quality expert, Karou Ishikawa (1985), advocated the necessity of an empowered work force in a total quality setting when he emphasized involvement of the entire organization in the quest for total quality. He postulated that there was not enough reliance on inputs to quality from nonspecialists (line-workers) in the United States. Ishikawa credited the relative successes of the Japanese quality effort compared to those of Western industry to the total commitment to quality of all employees, not just a few staff specialists or consultants. He called this concept *companywide quality control* (CWQC).

Current research indicates that the concepts of employee empowerment or involvement and total quality exist simultaneously to one degree or another in many U.S. companies today. One such study, conducted by Dr. Edward Lawler, specifically addresses this issue.

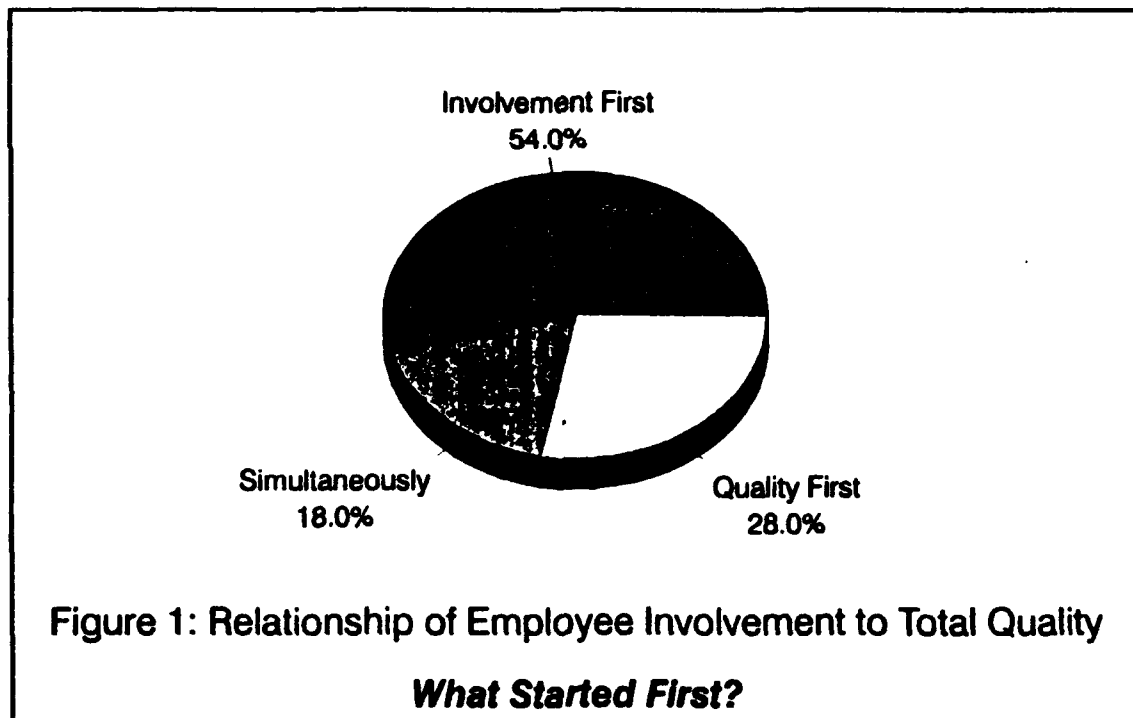
1. Lawler's Survey

Edward Lawler studied the relationship between these two ideas through a series of surveys using inputs from many of the current Fortune 1000 businesses. He concluded that "there is a close relationship between Total Quality Management programs and employee involvement programs." (Lawler, 1992, p. xvi) It should be noted that Lawler's notion of employee *involvement* is very similar to the concept of employee *empowerment* as defined in this study. While some conceptual differences do exist, particularly in relation to the latter's emphasis on intrinsic motivation, the results of his survey nevertheless are informative. His findings illustrate the emphasis placed on both concepts by today's leading businesses, as well as the way that the top managers of those organizations view the relationship between the two in the context of the company as a whole.

The results reported below are adapted from Lawler's 1990 follow-up survey of 313 Fortune 1000 companies; approximately 50% were from the service sector and 50% from the manufacturing sector. Their median size was between 9000 and 10,000 employees and, in just over half the cases (55%), responses to the survey were given by managers responsible for personnel and human resources. The remainder of the questionnaires were completed by other senior executives in the organization (Lawler, 1992, p. 4).

The purpose of Lawler's study was to determine how employee involvement and Total Quality Management are related in companies that have used them both. He specifically asked the participants three questions on the subject: (1) Which of the two programs started first? (2) How are the programs managed? and (3) How are these concepts viewed by management?

The first question addressed the issue of chronological order. Results are contained in Figure 1. The preponderance of responses indicating that employee involvement started first can be credited to the fact that it was popularized earlier in the United States.

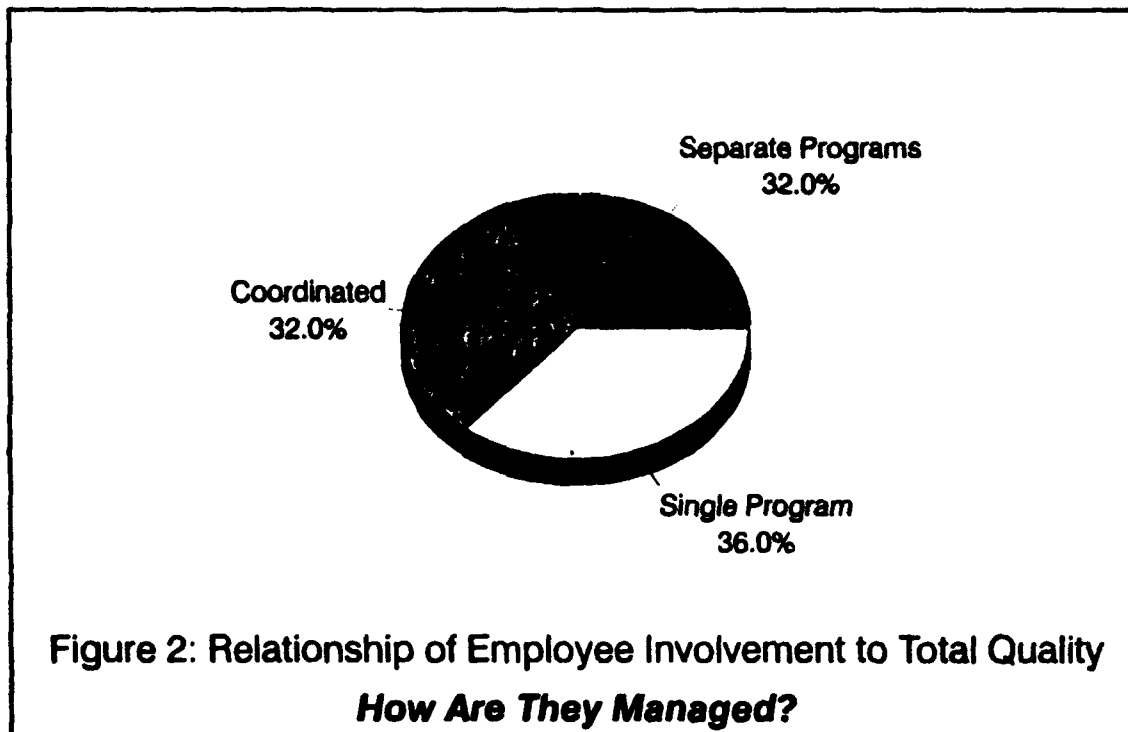


In contrast, Total Quality is a relatively recent phenomena in American business circles. Lawler (1992, p. 103) states:

Early employee involvement, often entailing the establishment of quality circles and other participation groups [mechanistic interventions], can set the stage for the systematization of these efforts through a total quality program.

The second question addressed the way that America's leading companies managed their involvement and quality programs. Results were much less definitive in this case (see Figure 2).

Lawler notes that this is a critical issue in the success of the respective programs. He contends that "having two approaches with different names may set the stage for competing programs in an organization." (Lawler, 1992, p. 103)

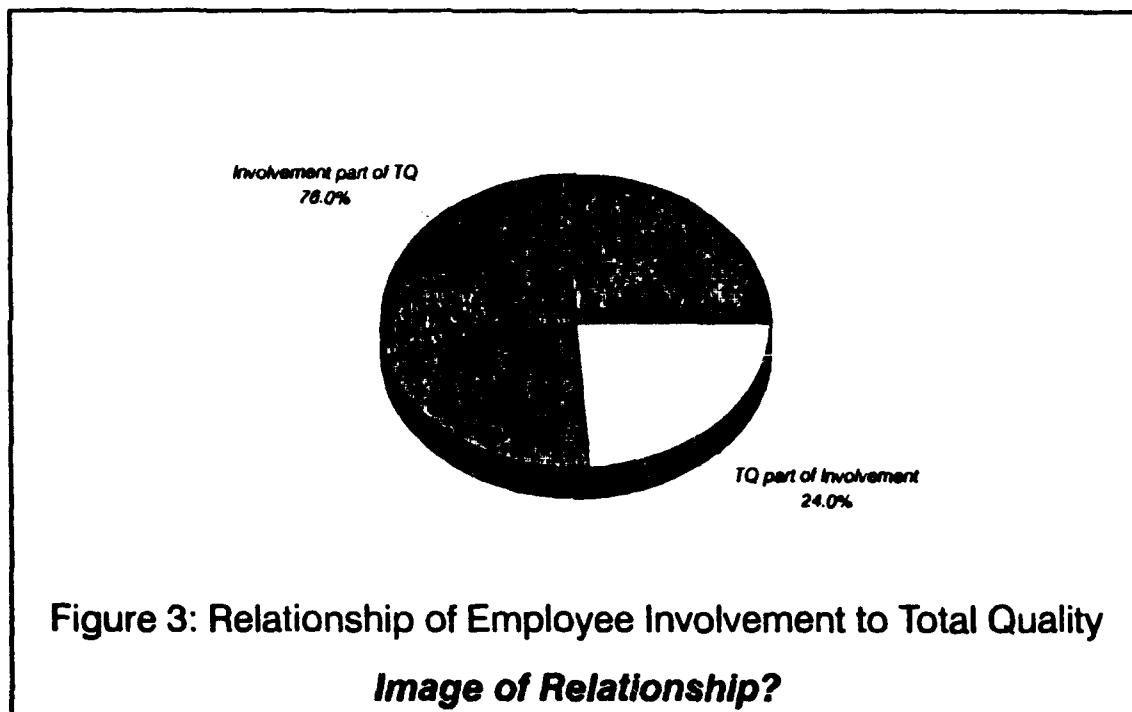


Finally, Lawler asked managers how they viewed the relationship between employee involvement and total quality; essentially, which effort

predominates? The results indicated that a clear majority of managers believe that *total quality encompasses involvement* (see Figure 3).

It is here that Lawler's study has the most relevance for this thesis. The results obtained in response to this question imply that American managers assume that the organizational changes induced by a total quality program will result in an "involved" work force. Lawler (1992, p. 105) voices this assumption:

Total Quality Management programs often establish quality circles and other participative groups, sometimes called quality-improvement teams, that are clearly a way of creating involvement and sharing power.



This supposition, which ignores the motivational aspects of an "empowered" vice an "involved" work force, plants the seeds for the

eventual failure of most quality programs. Again, managers seem more comfortable dealing with the *actions* of their employees rather than their *feelings*. Lawler (1992, p. 105) identifies this possibility:

It [TQM] may also be an easier concept to rally managers around, since on the surface it emphasizes work processes rather than issues of power and management style.

Deming (1986, p. 85) addresses this topic at length, stating:

In my experience, people can face almost any problem except the problems of people. They can work long hours, face declining business, face loss of jobs, but not the problems of people.

In fact, Deming refers to the establishment of Quality Control Circles and so-called "employee involvement" programs as "instant pudding" and "a lazy way out" (Deming, 1986, p. 137). He continues:

Faced with the problems of people, management, in my experience, go into a state of paralysis, taking refuge in formation of QC-circles and groups for EI, EP, and QWL (Employee Involvement, Employee Participation, and Quality of Work Life). These groups predictably disintegrate within a few months from frustration, finding themselves parties to a cruel hoax, unable to accomplish anything, for the simple reason that no one in management will take action on suggestions for improvement (Deming, 1986, p. 85).

Lawler (1992, p. 105) summarizes the findings of his study by stating: "Employee involvement...may be viewed as creating the organizational context needed to support quality improvement processes." Here, he clearly delineates between his notion of *involvement* and the motivational effects associated with the term *empowerment*. He emphasizes the fact that *involvement* primarily affects the organizational context or structure, a result this paper attributes to the mechanistic focus of current empowerment interventions. Equally important, however, are the psychological effects these interventions have on the work force, a distinction often overlooked by management. Peter Block (1987) discusses the reservations that American managers have regarding the concept of

managing "feelings." He refers to this as the "denial of self-expression." (Block, 1987, p. 27)

2. Denial of Self-Expression

The notion of empowerment as motivation, specifically intrinsic motivation, is much more difficult for managers to grasp than a simple change to an organizational chart or policy letter. Consequently, it is more likely to be excluded from any formal attempts to empower the work force. This exclusion is often due to management's lack of training in the behavioral sciences, coupled with a reliance on the scientific management techniques conceived during the early part of this century. Another possible reason that American managers tend to shy away from this aspect of empowerment is our cultural norm that insists that work is no place to discuss "feelings." Block (1987, p. 27) states:

There is a strong belief in organizations that we need to exercise self-control as well as to submit to the authority of those above us. When we are asked how we *feel* about something, the answer is 'Who cares? We're here to get the job done; we're here to be rational and logical and to get on with the business at hand. This is no place to talk about feelings.'

He goes on to identify a phrase that many of us have undoubtedly heard before: "In fact, one of the strongest terms of contempt is to say to somebody, 'Let's not get into that *touchy/feely stuff*'" (Block, 1987, p. 28). He further discusses the ramifications of denying the "feelings" aspect of empowerment:

We pay a high price when we deny self-expression. All managers are constantly looking for ways to motivate and energize the people working for them. The source of all energy, passion, motivation, and an internally generated desire to do good work is our own feeling about what we are doing. To deny self-expression and ask people to exercise self-control and to behave themselves is to put a damper on their level of motivation and energy.

Among the many changes brought about by today's dynamic, competitive business environment, however, is the shifting of this cultural norm to one that says that it is acceptable, and often imperative, to manage employee *feelings* as well as *actions*. The Thomas and Tymon empowerment model (1993) facilitates this change, providing managers with practical guidance on translating complicated theories of human motivation (e.g., Deci, Maslow) into pragmatic, hands-on applications that have relevance on the shop floor. More specifically, the Thomas and Tymon model provides the tools necessary to manage the feelings of an empowered work force and emphasizes the role of intrinsic task motivation in the process. Deming (1986, p. 85) also emphasizes intrinsic motivation, stating:

The possibility of pride of workmanship [intrinsic motivation] means more to the production worker than gymnasiums, tennis courts, and recreation areas.

Lawler (1986, p. 31) argues that effective involvement/empowerment interventions foster high levels of intrinsic motivation in the work force and result in better quality. He states:

It [intrinsic motivation] is high because people feel responsible for how well the work is performed. As a result, they become intrinsically motivated to perform it well...quality is the key here; people become motivated to do high quality work. They want to be associated with a high-quality product because it satisfies their needs for competence and self-esteem.

Senge (1992, p. 32) also ties together the concepts of intrinsic motivation and quality, stating, "Intrinsic motivation lies at the heart of Deming's management philosophy...a corporate commitment to quality that is not based on intrinsic motivation is a house built on sand." He further postulates:

...from an intrinsic perspective, there is nothing mysterious at all about continuous improvement. If left to their own devices people will naturally look for ways to do things better...what they need is adequate information and appropriate tools (Senge, 1992, p. 32).

Thus, it is argued:

Conclusion 5: Empowerment as intrinsic motivation provides the energy necessary for success in a quality effort, while TQL provides a way of harnessing this energy for continuous improvement.

It is the motivational aspect of empowerment and its ability to energize the work force that enables managers to harness and direct an otherwise untapped energy source, employee power, toward the goal of continuous improvement. The model discussed in Chapter V will assist managers in tapping this energy source.

E. EMPOWERMENT AS MOTIVATION IN TOTAL QUALITY SETTINGS

The role of empowerment, specifically empowerment as motivation, in a total quality setting is to generate the energy necessary to fuel the continuous improvement process central to total quality. Byham (1988, p. viii) identifies this relationship:

More and more in years to come, the successful organizations will be the ones best able to apply the creative energy of individuals toward constant improvement. Yet, constant improvement is a value that cannot be imposed upon people. It has to come from the individual. The only way to get people to adopt constant improvement as a way of life in doing daily business is by *empowering* them.

Dveirin and Adams (1993, p. 222) discuss in detail this aspect of empowerment in health care settings, stating:

The shift from compliance to continuous improvement requires a bridge--empowerment--by which all employees can contribute their intelligence, knowledge, and experience in the service of full-circle thinking.

Total Quality Leadership provides for many of the mechanistic interventions of empowerment, including the formation of Quality

Management Boards and Process Action Teams. It does not, however, provide a vehicle for managing the "feelings" of an empowered work force or for generating the kind of energy required for long-term success of the program; hence, the "motivation gap." The bridge from compliance to continuous improvement will only be completed when managers employ the interventions associated with empowerment as motivation, that is, actions designed to enhance a worker's intrinsic desire to produce a quality product or service. Examples of this wider category of interventions would include the use of visionary leadership (e.g., Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Block, 1987; Nanus, 1992), and the nurturing of trust and self-esteem (e.g., Bennis, 1989; Covey, 1989; Deming, 1986; Lawler, 1986; Byham, 1988). Based on the information contained in this chapter, it is concluded:

Conclusion 6: To be successful in the long-run, the philosophy of total quality, specifically Total Quality Leadership, requires managers employ more than just the mechanistic interventions of empowerment; they must also employ other types of actions to effectively manage the intrinsic motivation (energy) of the work force.

It is the concept of *empowerment as intrinsic motivation*, as embodied by the Thomas/Tymon model of empowerment (1993), that will be used to manage the "feelings" of an empowered work force and thus bridge the gap in TQL theory and training.

III. CASE STUDY: NAVAL MEDICAL CENTER, SAN DIEGO

A. PURPOSE & METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to provide the reader with a real-world example of how empowerment as a management strategy facilitates the implementation of Total Quality Leadership. The study will "ground" the theoretical ideas discussed in previous chapters (i.e., empowerment, total quality, etc.) in a concrete case and provide anecdotes throughout the remainder of the thesis to illustrate the concepts being discussed.

The case is not meant to be a definitive scientific study. The information was obtained through a series of personal interviews conducted at the subject facility over a two-day period. Respondents included four senior Naval officers, two senior Naval enlisted, and two civilians. No junior enlisted personnel were interviewed. Consequently, the sample is not representative from a statistical standpoint. Those readers interested in a more comprehensive treatment of empowerment in case study form are referred to LCDR Mary Beth Newton's Master's Thesis on the role of empowerment at the Naval Hospital Camp Pendleton (NPS, 1993). The results obtained in San Diego, while not definitive, do provide insight into the viewpoints and experiences of some of the facility's most knowledgeable people on the subject of TQL and their perspectives on the role of empowerment in the process.

B. SETTING & HISTORY

The case focuses on the implementation of TQL at the Naval Medical Center in San Diego, California. This facility was chosen for several

reasons. First, it is acknowledged as one of the leading medical treatment facilities in the Department of Defense, serving as both a treatment center and a teaching facility for the newest members of the Navy Medical/Nurse Corps. At the time of the study, the Medical Center employed over 4500 people, including 1200 civilians and 3300 active duty personnel. Of these, over 700 were doctors.

More importantly, this facility was chosen as the study site because of its reputation as the Navy Bureau of Medicine's (BUMED) leader in the TQL arena. As we have seen, the Navy is a recognized pacesetter for total quality initiatives in the public sector (Cuomo, 1992, p. 2). Within the Navy, the Bureau of Medicine is among the leaders in the implementation process. Within BUMED, Naval Medical Center, San Diego is reputed to be "the best of the best." This reputation is based on a number of achievements in the field of TQL since its inception in October 1989 by then Commanding Officer RADM Robert Halder, MC, USN. These achievements include:

- * Initiating the first, comprehensive transformation to Total Quality Management in the Navy Medical Department.
- * Training thousands of military and civilian health care professionals in the principles and methods of quality improvement (4000 from October 1989 to March 1991 alone).
- * Hosting three major West Coast Military Medical Region (WCMMR) meetings on the topic of TQL implementation. Attendees included hospital commanders from all the services and the Veteran's Administration.
- * Hosting a site visit with representatives from the Bureau of Medicine & Surgery to discuss the facility's TQL initiatives and how their experience might assist other hospitals in making the transformation.
- * Hosting a site visit with senior Pentagon representatives (OP-08) regarding innovations in health care planning and quality improvement.

- * Hosting a Total Quality Leadership site visit by the Undersecretary of Defense for Health Affairs (Mount, 1991, p. 1).

These achievements clearly indicate that Naval Medical Center, San Diego is looked to for TQL guidance by all levels and services of the DOD medical department, thus lending credibility to its slogan that it is the "starship" of Navy medicine.

C. THE TRANSFORMATION

Has Naval Medical Center, San Diego always enjoyed "starship" status? Information received during the interview process indicates that the answer to that question is an emphatic "No!" One Commander (Nurse Corps) indicated that while serving as a Nursing detailer from 1979-1982, she received "hate-mail" from officers she assigned to the facility. She described the hospital as a "hell-hole" and recounts her own experiences while serving at the facility from 1985-1989:

No support! Quality was not an issue...churning out the numbers, putting the bodies through. No sense of personal value for the people. My nurses had ulcers at that time...one had a bleeding ulcer...she could have died...nobody said 'take a couple of weeks off for your well being.'

She continues, "I remember everyone holding their breath at Christmas because no one had leave...the morale was horrible."

After a two year absence, this officer returned to San Diego in July, 1991 to find the place "transformed." Based on her experiences, she firmly believes this transformation was a result of TQL and RADM Halder's emphasis on "people value" and quality. Others, as we shall see, share this view.

D. EMPOWERMENT AS A MANAGEMENT PHILOSOPHY

The widespread use of the word *empowerment* at the Naval Medical Center, San Diego indicates that the term is very much a part of the vocabulary at the facility. The genesis of the word's proliferation can be traced back to the late 1980s when the role of an empowered work force in a total quality setting was introduced to the facility during its initial TQL training sessions. In October 1989, RADM Halder announced the commencement of the command's TQL "journey." In February 1990, the facility hosted its first total quality training course. During this two-day session, an outside (civilian) management consultant addressed the key issues that would eventually lay the groundwork for the facility's fledgling quality efforts. His topics included the philosophy of TQL, methods for driving fear out of the work place, and *the role of empowerment in a quality setting*. Consequently, the facility's leadership immediately recognized the importance of an empowered work force in an environment of total quality. One Captain who has been on the staff since the start of the TQL implementation process said, "We started talking about empowerment from the very beginning of TQL...."

Another more important explanation for the widespread use of the term at the facility in San Diego is the emphasis placed on the concept of empowerment by the facility's long-time TQL coordinator, a Navy Commander. This individual orchestrates an extensive TQL training program at the hospital and frequently discusses the importance of empowerment during his personal training sessions, linking the two concepts together into a single, integrated management philosophy. In fact, the Director of Branch

Medical Clinics stated, "CDR _____ talks about empowerment at all his presentations." The Commander, in turn, states:

I use it [the term empowerment] a great deal in the training...I want every employee to feel empowered...empowerment means that, as things appear that need to be improved, we feel empowered to make those changes at our specific work level...[employees] should have the ability to make those changes, especially when dealing with the front-line customer.

This comprehensive training program, coupled with the initial emphasis given to empowering management styles, has resulted in frequent usage of the term empowerment. However, these influences have yet to result in a common definition of the concept. While variations of the TQL coordinator's definition are the most prevalent, others have adapted their own ideas on the subject into similar, but unique definitions. For example, one Navy Captain says empowerment is manifested by "...people in a work capacity having the ability to make decisions which will be accepted if made for the right reasons." Another Commander believes that empowerment is made up of a "sense of autonomy and an attitude of individuality." A senior civilian on the staff argues that empowerment is "the ability to make a change or decision based on the proper knowledge and information." In fact, the facility's Executive Steering Council (ESC) was in the process of hammering out a precise definition of the term during the time that the interviews were being conducted. While a final, definitive definition had yet to be reached, they had compiled a diverse list of potential candidates. The following list of definitions, adapted from the minutes of the ESC meeting of 8 September 1993, includes some of the more prominent finalists:

- * Mutual trust and respect; continually striving to do the right thing.

- * Having the power and authority to pilot new ideas, change old ways of doing business, constantly trying to improve and to implement these ideas, changes and improvements within the boundaries of resource limitation.
- * Enabling the staff of NAVMEDCEN, San Diego to achieve their own sense of power and success through participation in the decision making and problem solving processes. Conditions required for empowerment include:
 - A clear written outline of responsibilities
 - Authority commensurate with responsibilities
 - Training, knowledge, and information
 - Feedback on performance
 - Recognize achievements
 - Permit failure/Atmosphere of mutual trust and respect
- * Ability of any member of the command to conduct daily business...and make recommendations for change/improvement without fear of retribution (ESC minutes, 9/8/93).

Although a comprehensive definition had yet to be agreed upon by the members of the ESC, the positive results of the widespread attention given to the concept of employee empowerment were evident throughout the organization. One respondent, the Assistant Director of Surgical Services, summarized his view of the benefits of empowerment at the facility:

The benefits of empowerment are...the supervisor has time and energy to do other things like communicate with [his] neighbor, which we never had energy for before...with empowerment, communication comes to the forefront...from the supervisor's standpoint you gain much more knowledge and control of your area. For the subordinate...he says, 'Somebody trusts me, I am worth something....' They feel more commitment.

The evidence gathered during the interview process makes it clear that empowerment and total quality are seen as related, mutually supporting management concepts in this facility. Managers also clearly believe that the effectiveness of either concept without the other would be severely

diminished. Consequently, empowerment is more than a simple "buzzword" in San Diego.

In terms of concrete managerial actions, empowerment shows up in the form of two distinct, yet complementing sets of interventions designed to harness the creative energy of a very intelligent work force. Both sets of interventions, one structural (mechanistic) and the other non-structural (psychological), play a role in this process. However, it appears to be the effective use of the non-structural empowerment interventions that enables this facility to maintain "starship" status.

E. NON-STRUCTURAL EMPOWERMENT INTERVENTIONS

The purpose of this section is to illustrate the role that the non-structural interventions of empowerment played at the Naval Medical Center, San Diego in its transformation from "hell hole" to "starship." As stated earlier, the *mechanistic interventions* of empowerment instituted by management when implementing TQL, such as the formation of Process Action Teams, etc., are asserted to account for only a fraction of the interventions necessary to ensure the long-term success of a quality program. The marked successes enjoyed at the subject facility under the overall heading of "total quality initiatives" can be attributed to a significant degree to an implementation strategy that involved empowering the work force *beyond* the structural changes inherent in TQL.

The evidence gathered during the interview process in San Diego indicates that the non-structural empowerment interventions employed by management to increase the intrinsic motivation (energy) of the work force have taken three main forms: (1) use of visionary leadership, (2)

creation of an environment of trust and respect, and (3) encouraging risk-taking and innovation.

1. Visionary Leadership

Block (1987, p. 105) claims that creating a vision is the "first step toward empowerment." Lawler (1986, p. 210) includes "provide a vision" as one of the four critical leadership skills necessary in high-involvement organizations. He states, "Studies of effective leaders suggest that perhaps the most powerful impact they can have on high-involvement organizations is through their vision of the organization."

Nanus (1992, pp. 16-18) also associates visionary leadership with empowerment, stating:

The right vision attracts *commitment* and *energizes people*...[it] creates meaning in worker's lives...[it] establishes a standard of excellence...[it] bridges the present and future...all of these forces unleashed by the right vision can be summarized in one word that has become the theme for leadership in the 1990s: *empowerment*.

Thomas and Tymon (1993, p. 13) include the creation of "an exciting vision" as one of the building blocks needed to enhance feelings of *meaningfulness* in the work force. They state that this is done by "developing an exciting vision of the future that the team wants to create...." Recall that their work identifies meaningfulness as one of the four elements or feelings of intrinsic task motivation, the others being choice, competence, and progress (Thomas & Tymon, 1993, p. 5).

RADM Halder's early successes in the TQL "journey" in San Diego were largely a result of his ability to both create and communicate his vision of total quality. Others have emulated his example. The current Director of Surgical Services, a Navy Captain, emphasizes the importance of a vision in empowering the work force. His vision of *improving the*

quality of patient care in his clinic is brought to life by an empowered work force. He tells his corpsmen:

All I want to know is what is happening. I will not tell you how to make it happen...whatever you do within the context of the mission [improving patient care] to make it happen better--try it! You don't have to ask me permission to try it.

CAPT Rowley, former Commanding Officer of the Naval Hospital at Camp Pendleton, California, also stresses the importance of a vision:

It really makes a difference if the guy at the top has a vision that we're going somewhere...that vision of the future is so incredibly important...if people trust you they will do almost anything, but if they don't think the organization is going anywhere they don't want to take the risk (Newton, 1993, p. 19).

Rowley touches briefly on the notion of trust. Information received from the respondents in San Diego indicates that this is considered to be an essential aspect in empowering the work force for total quality.

2. Environment of Trust and Respect

The concepts of trust and respect appear to be directly proportional to the amount of risk the work force is willing to take to ensure continuous improvement. Bennis (1989, p. 45) makes the distinction between *managers* and *leaders* by stating "the manager relies on control; the leader inspires trust...." Covey (1989, p. 178) believes that "...trust is the highest form of human motivation."

Deming (1986, p. 148) puts the responsibility for building trust squarely in the lap of management, stating:

As long as management is quick to take credit for a firm's successes but equally swift to blame its workers for its failures, no surefire remedy for low productivity [or quality] can be expected in American manufacturing or service industries.

In Deming's view, trust is only possible once the "...superficial, adversarial relationship between manager and worker is eliminated...."

Lawler (1986, p. 212) also includes "build trust and openness" in his list of necessary leadership skills in high-involvement organizations. He states:

Trust is desirable in all organizations, but it is essential in high-involvement organizations. Openness and sticking to a vision are the best ways to build trust. Thus, the leader who has a vision, communicates it clearly, and then lives up to it establishes trust.

Trust, however, is a two-way street. It is imperative that managers trust their employees if they truly are to empower them within the organization. Thomas and Tymon (1993, p. 11) include "trust" as a building block that fosters feelings of *choice* in the work force. They specify that this includes "trusting members' judgment; giving them space to exercise it."

It is apparent from the interviews that the notion of trust is an essential aspect of the success that TQL has enjoyed at the facility in San Diego. One Captain (Medical Corps) strongly forwarded this belief by stating that, in his view, the central feature of TQL at the facility is trust. Empowerment, he believes, is a natural byproduct of that trust. He states:

The crux of the issue is trust. I've got to be able to trust the person next to me. If we indeed have a culture where we can trust people to share knowledge and information...empowerment comes naturally. Trust and empowerment are the cornerstones of TQL. All the other things about TQL are tools and methodologies to achieve success.

The Commander assigned as the TQL Coordinator for the facility stated that he feels that "trust is the foundation for everything...." He continues:

Trust is the foundation of what we are talking about. If we don't address the issue of trust, either in a group exercise or classroom, it never really gets out into the open. I address the issue of trust in these [TQL] courses.... I believe it's [trust] the foundation for everything...in my day-to-day work, if everything has to be absolutely perfect or you hammer me, then there is no trust.

Additionally, the HMC in charge of the medical repair section believes that the keys to empowerment and TQL are trust and respect. She states, "If you treat people with respect and they know what they're supposed to do...then they do the work and you don't have to worry about it...there's a lot of trust."

Apparently, this environment of trust and respect is an essential ingredient in the success of TQL at the Naval Medical Center, San Diego. Due to this foundation of mutual trust, managers allow workers the freedom to utilize their creative energies for the good of the organization; workers, in turn, feel free to do so because they trust their leaders not to punish them for taking measured risks or venturing outside the "rules" to improve customer service.

3. Encouraging Risk-Taking and Innovation

In order to foster an environment of innovation, managers must allow workers to utilize their creative energy, or curiosity, to come up with innovative ways to improve the process. Senge (1992, p. 32) postulates that the drive to innovate comes from within the individual and management must implement a system that can "nurture and harness this drive." He continues:

From the intrinsic perspective people's innate curiosity and desire to experiment, if unleashed, creates an engine for improvement that can never be matched by external rewards.

Senge argues that the biggest challenge facing American manager's today is the need to shift from a management system based on extrinsic motivation to one that emphasizes intrinsic rewards. He quotes Deming, "The prevailing system of management has destroyed our people...people are born with intrinsic motivation, self-esteem, dignity, curiosity to learn, joy in learning" (Senge, 1992, p. 31).

Deming addresses this challenge when he argues that management must drive fear out of the work place. He states, "no one can put in his best performance unless he feels secure...." (Deming, 1986, p. 59)

Covey (1989, p. 58) also discusses this issue, stating:

You can buy a person's hand, but you can't buy his heart. His heart is where his enthusiasm, his loyalty is. You can buy his back, but you can't buy his brain. That's where his creativity is, his ingenuity, his resourcefulness.

The notions of giving employees room to be creative and driving out fear are alive and well at the facility in San Diego. The Director of Branch Medical Clinics, a Navy Captain, said it was important to "drive out fear by not stepping on the ideas of people...permitting them to explore the 'off-the-wall' within the boundaries of the mission." The Executive Assistant for Nursing Services stressed the importance of letting people develop "half-baked ideas so that they can learn." She continued by stating that, in doing so, she had been continually impressed by the brain power of the workers in her department.

Another critical ingredient for successful innovation centers on the freedom to take measured risks that the work force feels when experimenting for innovative ways to improve the process. This freedom is

founded on the trust they have in their leaders not to punish them for failures encountered in the pursuit of continuous improvement.

Deming (1986, p. 61) states, "Another loss from fear is inability to serve the best interests of the company through necessity to satisfy specified rules...." This is particularly true in more bureaucratic organizations (like the U.S. Navy) where there is a rule or regulation for just about everything. During the Newton study, CAPT Rowley stated that the fear of reprisal will prevent junior personnel from taking risks unless it is removed from the work place and replaced by a culture that encourages innovation. He states, "If somebody gets hammered a couple of times, the reaching out, the innovation, the risk is gone. They don't want to face the wrath again." (Newton, 1993, p. 13) He continues:

A new employee tries to accommodate the special needs of patients a couple of times and gets shot down by clinic staff who don't want to listen or make exceptions. There are too many rigid policies for the convenience of our staff to the detriment of our patients.

There is comfort in the status quo. There is risk in innovation. Newton (1993, p. 62) concludes, "Rowley's encouragement of people to 'do the right thing' even if at times it is contrary to regulations or procedures is another attempt to combat the status quo."

Bennis (1989, p. 45) summarizes, "The manager does things right; the leader does the right thing." Block (1987, p. 12) states:

The bureaucratic belief in policies and procedures is the source of our security. Holding onto what we have causes us to stay away from the frontier and to surround ourselves with corporate insulation of structure and predictability.... The bureaucratic belief is that we will move ahead in the organization by not making any mistakes.

Thomas and Tymon (1993, p. 11) include "security" as a building block for building feelings of choice in the work force. They state that

managers do this by "...supporting members' experimentation," passing out "no blame/punishment for honest mistakes."

The forces protecting the status quo in a bureaucratic organization are strong. Innovation and risk taking will occur only when management gains the trust of the workers and encourages innovative thinking and action beyond the letter of the regulations. Several examples of this management style were cited during the interview process in San Diego. The Commander in charge of the TQL office gave an example:

A patient has a 1000 appointment but can't find a parking place... they arrive late, at 1015, expecting a negative response. The rule is once a patient is 15 minutes late they are marked off the books and the next patient is served. That was the old approach...the new approach is to adjust the schedule to fit the patient in...make it happen.

The Assistant Director of Surgical Services spoke of the need to take measured risks and the reluctance many managers have in doing so:

TQL is a philosophy that requires individuals to take risks... measured risks. Unfortunately the vast majority of officers I know are not risk-takers. They let someone else take the risk, someone else build a bridge...then they will walk on it.

He continues:

Driving out fear is a big problem...not so much the fear of the subordinates coming to you but rather [our] fear of failing as the leader. We certainly don't accept failure...that is something that the Navy has to do as a culture...we have to accept the fact that people are going to take risks, measured risks...they want to succeed and in their mind the risk they are taking has success at the end...but if somebody fails that is his problem and he's axed.

Finally, the Chairman of Pediatrics emphasized risk taking, stating that the workers should not feel they must always follow the rules "to the letter." He states:

My idea of empowerment is having a receptionist at the desk who has a young sailor with a short haircut, in uniform, walk up to the [desk] with his sick child but no I.D. card...to me, that person would be empowered to say, 'You don't have your I.D. card but that's

O.K., you're obviously in the Navy, let's check your kid in and get this show on the road....

He continues:

...the person that is not empowered to do that is not going to check the patient in because this guy in uniform does not have an I.D. card...it's O.K. to make a decision, do what's best for the patient, this institution, our image...just make a decision and go with it and I'll support you. Lot's of people [still] like to follow the rules.

Management must create an environment that encourages workers to take risks and, when necessary, to break the rules to improve the process.

F. CONCLUSION

The information presented in this chapter supports Naval Medical Center, San Diego's claim that it is the "starship" of Navy medicine. This is particularly true with regard to their successful transformation to a culture that fosters Total Quality Leadership. Additionally, the case study provides compelling evidence that empowerment played an important role in achieving this success. The study also illustrates the importance of the non-structural (psychological) empowerment interventions and their contribution to the total quality effort at the subject facility.

As stated earlier, anecdotes from the case will be used throughout the remainder of the thesis to illustrate with practical examples the concepts being discussed.

IV. ALTERNATIVE MODELS OF MOTIVATION AND EMPOWERMENT

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter examines the views on employee motivation held by the quality experts and discusses four of the alternative models of empowerment available in current literature. The models of empowerment are categorized as either "general" or "specific", depending upon the author's approach to the subject. The first category includes the models of Edward Lawler and Peter Block; their works are labeled as "general" models of empowerment since they speak in broad, general terms without providing a list of specific action sequences. The second category includes two of the more "specific" models of empowerment; these works do provide the reader with a list of empowering actions, but are less definitive on the conceptual foundation of the term than their cousins in the general category. Like Chapter II, this chapter is organized for clarity around a number of key conclusions.

B. QUALITY EXPERTS ON MOTIVATION

As stated earlier, the quality experts frequently speak to the importance of employee motivation and involvement in a total quality effort. None, however, address specifically how to achieve it in the work place. Generally, they content themselves with the assumption that employees are self-motivating and management need only remove various "barriers" to see that motivation realized. This section will discuss the findings of the literature review on this subject, examining the work of

three of the most prominent writers in the quality field: Phillip Crosby, Joseph Juran, and W. Edwards Deming.

1. Crosby on Motivation

Of the three quality experts being discussed, Crosby spends the least amount of time on the subject of motivation. He does, however, speak of *demotivation*, that is, the notion that all workers are originally motivated but eventually become disenchanted due to failures in the organization. He states:

...we must ask ourselves, 'Why do we need a special program to motivate our people? Didn't we hire motivated employees?'...they were well motivated when they came to work. That first day, when they reported in, there was nothing but smiles.... Everything was positive (Crosby, 1984, p. 14).

He continues:

However, a few months or years later things are different. The employee is not at all thrilled with the company and the job.... Employees are turned off to the company through the normal operating practices of the organization. The thoughtless, irritating, unconcerned way they are dealt with is what does it. They feel they are pawns in the hands of uncaring functional operations (Crosby, 1984, pp. 14-15).

Crosby identifies several examples of this treatment, focusing on one-way performance reviews, unfair expense account practices, and a "meeting culture" dominated by senior members. He concludes, "Being an employee in a hassling company is a lot like living at home after you grow up and having your parents decide all kinds of things for you." (Crosby, 1984, p. 19)

2. Juran on Motivation

Juran devotes a considerable amount of time to the topic of motivation. Most of this time, however, is spent simply outlining the prominent theories of motivation conceived by clinical psychologists and

behavioral scientists. He discusses at length the theories of several of these motivation experts, including Maslow (1954), Herzberg (1959), McGregor (1960), and Hackman and Oldham (1980). His discussion of Frederick Herzberg's work is particularly relevant to this thesis.

Herzberg (1959) draws the distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, calling the extrinsic category of incentives *hygiene factors* (or dissatisfiers). He contends that, after a certain point, providing more of these factors will only prevent worker dissatisfaction rather than motivate the work force. In order to truly motivate employees, Herzberg believes that management must use incentives that are intrinsic to the job itself, or *motivators*. These motivators, such as achievement, recognition, and responsibility, will result in organizational "wellness."

By identifying the merits of Herzberg's work, Juran demonstrates his belief in the power of intrinsic motivation. He fails, however, to provide further guidance on his views regarding the nurturing of this type of motivation in the work force. Fittingly, he closes his discussion on the theories of motivation by stating, "Unfortunately, the behavioral scientists have not translated their findings fully into the manager's dialect" (Juran, 1964, p. 142).

Like Deming, Juran speaks of the "Pride of Workmanship" inside each employee to do quality work. He implies that workers are self-motivating with respect to quality; the problem lies not with the worker but with management. American management, he believes, relies too heavily on the standardized, inflexible principles of management espoused by

Frederick Taylor in his work *The Principles of Scientific Management* (1911). Juran (1980, p. 153) states:

...Taylor's major premise--lack of worker education--has been made obsolete by the remarkable rise in education levels. As a consequence, the major *underemployed* asset in the United States is the education, experience, and creativity of the work force.

Juran (1970, p. 110) sums up his thoughts on motivation by stating, "Managers are unified in their belief that motivation is vital, but they are divided on how to achieve [it]."

3. Deming on Motivation

Deming emphasizes the importance of a worker's intrinsic motivation in the total quality process, often referring to it in general terms as "Pride of Workmanship" (Deming, 1986, p. 76) or "Joy in Work" (Aguayo, 1990, p. 181). Christy (1992, p. 17) states, "It would seem clear that his [Deming's] phrase "Pride of Workmanship" relates to a worker's intrinsic motivation to produce quality work." Aguayo (1990, p. 103) adds, "In the Deming view, intrinsic motivation is the *engine for improvement*." Like the other quality experts, Deming contends that workers are inherently motivated to do quality work. He states, "Talk about motivation. People are motivated. All people are motivated...." (Walton, 1990, p. 83).

In conjunction with his emphasis on intrinsic motivation, Deming strongly discourages the use of extrinsic motivators on the work force. He credits the use of external (extrinsic) rewards, such as ranked performance appraisals, as the main source of "fear" in the work place. (Deming, 1986, p. 62) He adds, "Management that denies to their employees dignity and self-esteem will smother intrinsic motivation" (Deming, 1990, p. 13). This circumstance, he believes, results from management's

reliance on external rewards. He continues, "...some extrinsic motivators rob employees of dignity and self-esteem" (Deming, 1990, p. 14). Deming's Point 12 urges managers to remove the "barriers" to intrinsic motivation and end this reliance on extrinsic motivation. Christy (1992, p. 22) elaborates:

Foremost is Deming's admonition to remove the barriers that rob people of Pride of Workmanship, his Point 12. These "barriers" that Deming mentions involve external (extrinsic) rewards and punishments. Deming asserts that these external rewards and punishments stifle or kill a worker's intrinsic motivation by causing him to focus on the external incentives--piece rate pay, incentive pay, quotas, punishment--instead of experiencing the intrinsic rewards of the task, or Pride in Workmanship.

Deming's beliefs on motivation, as discussed above, are clear:

(1) All workers are inherently motivated to do quality work, (i.e., "Pride (Joy) of Workmanship"), (2) Management's job is to remove the "barriers" to this intrinsic motivation, thus fueling the *engine for improvement*, and (3) The reliance on external (extrinsic) rewards is the main "barrier" to worker motivation.

4. Conclusion

A common theme in the quality experts' theories on motivation is the belief that all workers are inherently motivated to do quality work. Additionally, this inherent (intrinsic) motivation is universally identified as the key to total quality. Two of the three experts discussed here, Juran and Deming, explicitly refer to this intrinsic motivation as "Pride of Workmanship" or "Joy in Work." They assert that management need only remove the "barriers" to intrinsic motivation in the work place and good things (quality, productivity, etc.) will follow. These "barriers" include the use of performance ratings, quotas, piece-work pay, and other external rewards.

Despite the unanimity as to the importance of intrinsic motivation in a total quality setting, none of the experts provide guidance on how to enhance or manage it in the work place. Nor do they suggest how to tap into it as a source of continuous improvement. Thus, it is concluded:

Conclusion 7: The quality experts unanimously agree on the importance of intrinsic motivation and involvement in a total quality effort, but they do not address specifically how to achieve/nurture it in the work place.

C. GENERAL MODELS OF EMPOWERMENT

For the purposes of this thesis, the "general" models of empowerment include works that are conceptually very strong but somewhat less practical from the line manager's standpoint. To use Juran's phrase, these models are not "translated fully into the manager's dialect" (Juran, 1964, p. 142). Examples of this type of empowerment model are provided by Edward Lawler (1986) and Peter Block (1987).

1. Lawler on Empowerment

Edward E. Lawler III is a research professor and professor of management at the Graduate School of Business Administration at the University of Southern California. His educational background is in psychology (Ph.D., Berkeley, 1964) and his practical experience involves work as a management consultant on the topics of employee involvement, organizational change, and compensation. He has published extensively on these subjects, authoring many popular books and papers including his most prominent book, *High-Involvement Management* (1986).

In that work, Lawler introduces the concept of employee involvement as a management strategy. As stated earlier, his notion of employee

involvement is very similar to the concept of employee *empowerment* as defined in this study, although he is conceptually less focused on intrinsic motivation. Lawler argues that today's business environment requires a shift from the traditional bureaucratic style of management to one that encourages employee participation and involvement. He states:

The societal, business, product, and work force changes that have occurred argue strongly for a change in management style. Clearly, American organizations need to be more effective simply to be competitive--and not just somewhat more effective, but dramatically better. (Lawler, 1986, p. 19)

He continues:

It is unlikely that dramatic improvements can come about through the use of traditional management approaches...participative management makes the most sense because it fits well with the major changes. Participative management suits the current work force, technologies, and societal conditions better than any other alternative (Lawler, 1986, p. 20).

Lawler believes that there are many techniques or "programs" that can be used to implement to one degree or another this new management style, labeled participative management. His book includes separate chapters on many of the *structural* approaches to employee involvement including quality circles, employee surveys, job enrichment programs, work teams, and gainsharing. He states, "Participation is not something that organizations either have or do not have--it comes in many forms and can be brought about in many ways." (Lawler, 1986, p. 22) He does not, however, address specific techniques for improving worker intrinsic motivation other than to acknowledge that it exists and is important.

Central to Lawler's model is the belief that the effectiveness of these disparate programs can be measured by the degree to which they push downward in the organization the four *keys to participation*--information, knowledge, rewards, and power. He states:

These different programs all move one or more of the following further down in the organization: information, knowledge, rewards, and power. This has the effect of allowing more people to participate in important decisions and activities, and because of this, these programs are often collectively referred to as participative approaches to management (Lawler, 1986, p. 3).

Lawler quantifies this concept by providing a mathematical model designed to measure the effectiveness of the participative program(s) in place in an organization. He stresses the need for congruence when effecting the four keys to participation, stating that a program must "...move all of them [down] in a similar way in order to be effective" (Lawler, 1986, p. 42). His model is expressed by the following equation:

$$\text{Effectiveness of Program} = \text{Rewards} \times \text{Knowledge} \times \text{Power} \times \text{Information}$$

He explains:

The degree to which an attribute is present at lower levels can be expressed on a 0-to-1 scale, with 0 meaning none of it is present and 1 a great deal is present. Rather than adding the amounts together, it is more appropriate to multiply the scores for each attribute, since we have argued that if one attribute is missing, the presence of the others is of limited value (Lawler, 1986, p. 43).

Unfortunately, Lawler is not specific on how the individual line manager can accomplish this downward movement of the four keys to participation, focusing instead on the organizational changes necessary to effect the change. He limits himself to broad statements on methods of effective leadership, emphasizing the need for a vision, the use of "symbols and phrases," and stating that, "...the leader is responsible for managing the organization's culture...." (Lawler, 1986, p. 211).

He summarizes by providing managers with a list of the leadership skills necessary to effectively manage a participative work force, stating "Overall, managers in high-involvement organizations need a particular set

of leadership skills that will allow them to do four critical things for the organization." These leadership skills, he contends, include: (1) building trust and openness, (2) providing a vision and communicating it, (3) moving decisions to the proper location, and (4) empowering others (Lawler, 1986, p. 211).

2. Block on Empowerment

Peter Block's expertise lies in his vast experience (25+ years) as an organizational development consultant. His educational background is in organizational behavior (M.A., Yale). Block's work, *The Empowered Manager* (1987), is the culmination of his efforts since the mid-sixties to foster the concept of employee empowerment in his client organizations.

Block uses the term empowerment to represent the use of positive politics in the organizational environment. He states, "Politics is the exchange of power and so goes hand in hand with empowerment." (Block, 1987, p. xvii) He argues that bureaucratic organizations foster *negative politics* which he defines as "...actions that are in the service of our own self-interest. To be political is to be self-serving on behalf of our own career...." (Block, 1987, p. xviii) *Positive politics*, on the other hand, represents the notion that people can have self-interests that factor in the well-being of the entire organization and pursue those interests without manipulation or deceit.

He concedes that, in today's bureaucratic work place, managers who believe in this notion of empowerment and work to foster it on the job will likely be going against the "organizational grain." Pushing for this degree of change "...makes us somewhat radical in the midst of a bureaucratic sea where the predominant concerns are safety, advancement,

control, and the desire to hold someone else responsible for what is happening" (Block, 1987, p. xx). He continues:

The promise of empowerment is that it will dramatically increase the sense of responsibility and ownership at every level of the organization, especially at the bottom where products and services are delivered and customers are served. The problem with empowerment is that it demands a radical realignment of our beliefs about control systems and the levels at which decisions are made.... The payoff is greater levels of quality and customer response (Block, 1987, p. xiv).

The central theme of the book is the shift from the traditional, manipulative organizational culture--the *bureaucratic cycle*--to a culture that promotes positive politics and the entrepreneurial spirit--the *entrepreneurial cycle*.

The bureaucratic cycle is characterized by a top-down, high-control approach where "people define self-interest in terms of personal rewards rather than in terms of service and contribution to others" (Block, 1987, p. 22). In this type of organization, management uses manipulative tactics for personal gain and workers feel that their organizational survival depends on someone else's whim rather than their own skills or efforts.

The antidote to the bureaucratic cycle is the entrepreneurial cycle. In this environment, people use their creativity and talents in positive, non-manipulative ways to further personal goals which are congruent with the goals of the organization. He states, "Positive political skills involve acting in service of a vision, which is very aligned with the entrepreneurial spirit" (Block, 1987, p. 23). He continues, "Our goal is to have all members believe and act like this is their organization and to take personal responsibility for how it operates" (Block, 1987, p. 24).

Block contends that empowerment is the only way for an organization to break out of the bureaucratic cycle. He states, "The way through this dilemma is to act in a way that serves our empowerment." (Block, 1987, p. 69) He continues:

Empowerment stems from two sources: (1) the structure, practices, and policies we support as managers who have control over others, and (2) the personal choices we make that are expressed by our own actions.

Management's role in the process is to "empower ourselves and to create conditions under which others can do the same" (Block, 1987, p. 70). Like Lawler, Block designs the majority of his action sequences to affect the organization as a whole rather than the individual employee. His suggestions include: (1) "flattening out" the organizational hierarchy, (2) changing company supervisory policies, (3) reversing the performance appraisal process, and (4) introducing self-managing teams. None of these actions appear to be practical for the individual line manager who wants to empower his workers, nor do they address the heart of the empowerment process--intrinsic motivation.

Block (1987, p. 21) indirectly addresses the importance of intrinsic motivation when he defines the concept of "enlightened self-interest." A person with enlightened self-interest does not pursue the traditional goals of pay and advancement ("myopic self-interest"); instead they internalize the value of their job by pursuing "...mastery, meaning, contribution, integrity, and service...." (Block, 1987, p. 93) He states:

If I define self-interest only as those things that win the approval or are under the control of other people, I am dictating a dependent life-style for myself. Contribution, service, meaning, integrity, and touching other people in a positive way are all things I can do on my own.

Additionally, Block touches on intrinsic motivation when he discusses the need for employees to make a *commitment* to the organization. In an empowering environment, workers are encouraged to take risks and commit themselves to their jobs rather than simply doing the minimum because they have to. Block (1987, p. 81) states:

An internally generated act of choice and commitment results in people's [*sic*] feeling much more responsible for outcomes. There is no pressure more powerful than that which comes from within. Our task as managers is to encourage people to make demands on themselves.

The link to intrinsic motivation is even more explicit in Block's statement:

The only justification for taking a risk and creating an organization of your own choosing is to do it out of a commitment to something you believe in. In a sense, something that you have to do. *The "have to do" comes from the inside, not outside* (Block, 1987, p. 82).

Management's role in this process is to create an organizational environment that values autonomy, encouraging workers to choose their own course and commit themselves to its success. Block suggests that, as managers, we can encourage this behavior by "...acting in ways that give others ownership" and "...creating a vision of greatness for ourselves and asking our subordinates to do the same" (Block, 1987, p. 83).

Block's work, though conceptually powerful, stops short of providing the manager on the line with an explicit set of actions that he/she can use to foster individual empowerment in the work force.

3. Conclusion

Based upon the information contained in this section regarding the "general" models of empowerment, it is concluded:

Conclusion 8: Though conceptually strong, the "general" models of empowerment do not provide the typical line manager with the practical tools or direction necessary to empower their employees.

D. SPECIFIC MODELS OF EMPOWERMENT

At the other end of the spectrum from the "general" models of empowerment are a number of works which provide line managers with a detailed list of actions necessary to empower the work force. Their authors usually have a great deal of experience in their particular line of work but little formal education in organizational dynamics or psychology. Consequently, these "specific" models of empowerment tend to be conceptually vague, particularly on the notion of empowerment as motivation. Essentially, these works provide detailed directions on "how to get there from here" but fail to explain exactly what or where "there" is. While many examples of this type of model exist, this thesis will focus on the works of Christopher Altizer (1993) and Gordon Dveirin with Kenneth Adams (1993).

1. Altizer's Model of Empowerment

Christopher C. Altizer is a Training Development Manager for the Allstate Insurance Company. In his article, *Four Steps to Empowerment* (1993), he describes the four "tactics of empowerment" used in his company. (Altizer, 1993, p. 21) He begins his article by describing the importance of empowerment in a total quality setting, stating:

Empowerment and total quality management, two business crazes of the early 90s, are proving to be strategies that can improve customer satisfaction, reduce process costs and improve employee development

and retention. The trick seems to be linking the two, and understanding employee empowerment as more than a "nice to do" (Altizer, 1993, p. 21).

Altizer goes on to state that "Empowering employees involves much more than telling them they are" and outlines what he believes to be the four steps to empowerment. These are: (1) reviewing employee authority levels, (2) delegating authority, (3) encouraging innovation, and (4) recognizing and rewarding empowered behavior. These steps are summarized below.

In the first step, *Review Employee Authority Levels*, Altizer contends that the tight procedural controls present in most organizations are only necessary when employees are inexperienced or undereducated. However, as organizations, "flatten" to meet today's business challenges, limiting the authority and creativity of the work force is a grave mistake. He states, "...in the flattened 90s, employees tend to be longer tenured, therefore more experienced. The empowering manager makes the most of that experience" (Altizer, 1993, p. 21). He continues:

Authority limits serve a useful purpose, but when the circumstances that precipitated their use have changed, the empowering manager removes them for three reasons: (1) to allow employees the freedom to meet customer requirements, (2) to fully develop employee skills, and (3) to demonstrate the deepening trust in employee abilities.

The second step to empowerment is *Delegate, Delegate, Delegate*. Here, Altizer stresses management's responsibility in allowing employees to provide solutions to the process problems they identify during the course of continuous improvement. He states, "The empowering manager provides parameters and solution resources, but requires employees to solve the problems" (Altizer, 1993, p. 22).

Altizer's third step to empowerment is *Encourage Innovation*. He states, "Employee initiative and innovation are essential to quality improvement" (Altizer, 1993, p. 22), and argues that managing "by the rules" or "by the book" only serves to inhibit this initiative to the detriment of process improvement. He states:

The empowering manager allows employees to build on past lessons to make process changes, and redefines "risk-taking" as a virtue rather than a vice...empowerment sometimes involves encouraging innovation and initiative for its own sake.

This is similar to the notion of allowing employees to "develop half-baked ideas" encountered during the case study in San Diego (see Chapter III). It also mirrors Deming's admonition to drive fear out of the work place. Accordingly, the belief in San Diego is that "TQL is a philosophy that requires individuals to take risks...." In this environment, managers should encourage risk-taking in their employees by rewarding them when they succeed and *not* punishing them when they fail.

The final step to empowerment is *Recognize and Reward Empowered Actions*. Altizer contends that the ultimate goal of an empowering rewards system is to encourage empowered actions by demonstrating "...this is (now) how it's done around here." (Altizer, 1993, p. 22) He states, "Once empowered actions are understood to be 'how it's done around here,' managers can begin the shift from *rewarding* to *expecting* those actions." To effect this change, management must reward actions that are demonstrative of an empowered work force. He continues, "The empowered manager recognizes and rewards desired actions with public praise, letters, or just by getting out of the way."

An excellent example of the effectiveness of this type of rewards system was recounted during one of the interviews conducted for the case

study at the Naval Medical Center, San Diego. The Chief in charge of the medical repair unit described the positive impact of recognizing empowered actions. She states:

...people in the shop get letters of appreciation from nurses, doctors, and corpsmen. They send them to Captain ____...when he has his quarterly departmental meetings he calls them up in front of everybody and reads the letter...*that kind of recognition is very important.*

In summary, Altizer provides line managers with a number of deliberate steps designed to foster employee empowerment in the work place. He concludes his article by restating the importance of his notion of empowerment: "...continuous improvement requires knowledgeable, capable employees who have the power to examine the status quo and make changes" (Altizer, 1993, p. 23). He does not, however, delve into the conceptual foundations of the term as defined in current literature. In effect, this omission leaves the reader with a precise set of directions but little concept of the ultimate destination.

2. The Change Navigators' Model of Empowerment

Gordon F. Dveirin and Kenneth L. Adams are both high ranking members of the organizational effectiveness consulting company known as Change Navigators, Inc. Their article, *Empowering Health Care Improvement: An Operational Model* (1993), provides the second "specific" model of empowerment. In it they contend that the shift from traditional, bureaucratic styles of management to a style that fosters continuous improvement is fueled by the creative energy of an empowered work force. "A key role of leadership," they argue, "...is to help create this empowering environment" (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 224).

Dveirin and Adams further distinguish between the traditional management style which is characterized by *compliance*, and the new style characterized by *empowerment*. They state:

The distinction between compliance and empowerment lies in the locus of control. *Compliance* suggests standards and levels of authority that lie outside and above those who must act. The idea of 'empowerment' suggests that the standards, and the authority to reach and exceed them, are owned by those who act.

To effect this change from compliance to empowerment, Dveirin and Adams present a model for empowerment that "...can serve as a template for leadership actions that promote empowerment." They call their work the *Nine Aspects of Empowerment* and briefly capsulize each aspect in the article.

Their first aspect of empowerment centers on the establishment of an organizational *mission and vision*. The authors assert that top management cannot simply dictate this vision and expect commitment. Instead, the vision must be established with input from the entire organization; it is "...not handed down from above; rather, it arises out of the alignment created by repeated dialogue among all stakeholders involved" (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 230). They continue, "With a mission and vision, people can make real-time decisions that are aligned with both the organization's and their own needs" (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 226). This is similar to the importance of goal congruence expressed by Block (1987); employees with "enlightened self-interests" set goals that champion both personal and organizational causes. Additionally, the Assistant Director of Surgical Services in San Diego recounted his ability to enact his vision of *improved patient care* by allowing his subordinates to make real-time decisions regarding that care without prior approval.

The second aspect of empowerment gives workers *authority and permission to use it*. Here, management demonstrates its respect for the intelligence of the work force by allowing them "...a scope of authority and responsibility that is ample and sufficient for what is expected of them" (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 226). In doing so, the organization benefits from the resourcefulness and ingenuity of their human resources. The authors state:

In today's work force the typical employee is intelligent and capable. In order for the organization to benefit from all the knowledge, skill, and capacity for intelligent action that employees have to offer, their employees' judgment and capabilities must be respected.

Next, employees in empowered organizations are given *control over resources*. Dveirin and Adams state, "When every expenditure on a project must be scrutinized, people are not empowered." Instead, they argue, "...each individual or group needs a clearly established level of resource control commensurate with their authority and scope of responsibility" (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 226).

The fourth aspect of empowerment identified in this model centers on the need for direct feedback to employees from customers, suppliers, etc. This *access to information* is crucial if the work force is to make intelligent, informed decisions within their scope of authority. The authors contend:

Empowered employees receive meaningful feedback from all their stakeholders--the people or groups with whom they must build a relationship if they are to accomplish their mission successfully (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 226).

The fifth aspect of empowerment is *access to education and training*. Just as employees require timely feedback from stakeholders to make intelligent decisions, they also need proper education and training

in the myriad of technical and interpersonal skills required of an empowered work force. According to this model, management's responsibility is to provide that training. Dveirin and Adams (1993, p. 227) state:

An empowering environment provides easy access to continuous learning opportunities through which people can get whatever kinds of development they need when they need it and in a form they can use.

Another aspect of empowerment revolves around management's ability to create an *environment of trust and respect*. This is a very important aspect of empowered organizations, as evidenced by its recurrence during the interviews in San Diego where "...trust is the crux of the issue." The authors state:

An empowering atmosphere recognizes the inherent maturity of most adults and their ability to manage their affairs appropriately. Given skills, resources, training, a clear mission, vision, and leadership's respect, they will do a good job (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 227).

The next aspect of empowerment, according to Dveirin and Adams, is the creation in the organization of appropriate *avenues of influence*. These avenues reflect any organizational mechanisms that enhance the employee's ability to "communicate their particular expertise into the larger system..." and subsequently to "...view evidence that the system benefits from changes and makes use of their input" (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 227).

The eighth aspect of empowerment deals with the use of *meaningful incentives* to encourage empowered behavior. The authors argue, "If rate of pay, bonuses, and recognition are virtually independent of their accomplishments or level of effort, people do not feel empowered."

The ninth and final aspect of empowerment listed by the authors provides for the establishment of *clear boundaries* within which employees are free to exercise autonomy. The authors state:

Within these jointly established boundaries, employees must feel free to manage resources, manage their time, make decisions, and have jurisdiction over a clear area of responsibility and accountability (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 227).

In summary, the operational model of empowerment proposed by Dveirin and Adams provides line managers with a detailed list of what are, in their opinion, the critical aspects of an empowered work place. These aspects, they explain, must all be present if an organization is to realize the full benefits of empowered employees. They state:

Given the multifaced nature of the empowerment model, some may wonder where to begin to focus leadership efforts. It is important to emphasize that the constellation of empowerment aspects composes an integral system; the full potential for empowerment arises from synergy among all nine aspects (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 230).

In this fashion they argue, like Lawler (1986), that "To exclude even one aspect could result in only a fraction of the potential for empowerment being realized."

Like the other "specific" models of empowerment, this work provides managers with detailed instructions on how to empower employees, but little guidance on exactly what empowerment is. The authors are action specific but conceptually vague, stating only that, "The term *empowerment* emerged only after we identified a constellation of behaviors resulting from a recognizable form of organizational environment" (Dveirin & Adams, 1993, p. 224).

3. Conclusion

Based upon the information continued in this section regarding the "specific" models of empowerment, it is concluded:

Conclusion 9: Unlike the "general" models of empowerment, the "specific" models provide line managers with a detailed list of actions necessary to empower their employees. However, these models tend to be vague in their attempts to define the concepts behind the term empowerment and its motivational implications in the work place.

E. CHAPTER CONCLUSION

This chapter examines the quality experts' views on motivation, revealing that they all stress the importance of intrinsic motivation to some degree. Deming places particular emphasis on the link between quality and intrinsic motivation; he contends that management need only remove the barriers to "Pride of Workmanship" or "Joy in Work," his equivalent to intrinsic motivation, and total quality will follow. Unfortunately, none of the quality experts provide specific guidance on how to foster intrinsic motivation in the work force--hence the "motivation gap."

Also included in this chapter is an examination of several of the alternative models of empowerment available in current literature. These models are categorized as either "general" or "specific" depending upon the author's approach to the subject. The "general" models of empowerment, though conceptually strong, do not provide the typical line manager with the practical tools or direction necessary to empower his/her employees. In Juran's terms, "...the behavioral scientists have not translated their findings fully into the manager's dialect" (Juran, 1964, p. 142). On the other hand, the "specific" models of empowerment do provide the individual manager with a detailed list of actions to "achieve" empowerment. However, they fail to explain exactly what the term means or how it relates to desired worker behaviors.

These "specific" works can be likened to providing a traveller with several unique lists of detailed instructions but not providing him with a clear description of his destination or, more importantly, with a map with which to integrate the different lists. The "general" models of empowerment describe in great detail the traveller's destination but do not provide him with practical directions on how to get there.

What the traveler (line manager) needs is a tool that combines the conceptual foundations of a "general" model with the detailed directions of a "specific" model. In effect, this tool would provide our travellers with the "map" necessary to guide them from their unique points of origin to a common destination--an empowered work force. This "map" would also provide a means of reconciling and integrating the different sets of directions that the "specific" models invariably produce. Thus it is concluded:

Conclusion 10: The individual line manager needs a tool that combines the strong conceptual foundation of a "general" empowerment model with the detailed actions of a "specific" model.

Based upon the research conducted in conjunction with the drafting of this thesis, the Thomas and Tymon model of empowerment (1993), outlined in the following chapter, does the best job of reconciling this difference between the two disparate categories of empowerment models. It provides the line manager with a set of tools that are both conceptually strong and detailed enough to be practical. Additionally, the Thomas and Tymon model bridges the motivation gap in TQL theory and training by providing managers with a means of fostering intrinsic motivation in the work force.

V. THE THOMAS AND TYMON MODEL OF EMPOWERMENT (1993)

A. INTRODUCTION

From the individual manager's perspective, the Thomas and Tymon model of empowerment (1993) appears to be the most effective tool currently available for fostering an empowered work force. It combines a strong theoretical foundation--empowerment as intrinsic motivation--with a set of specific action recommendations, thus giving the line manager a practical, conceptually focused tool for creating empowerment.

B. BACKGROUND: THE THOMAS/VELTHOUSE COGNITIVE MODEL

The Thomas/Tymon model (1993) builds upon the earlier work of Thomas and Velthouse (1990) who define empowerment in terms of intrinsic motivation. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) argue that the intrinsic rewards derived from a task result not only from the successful performance of task activities, but also from a meaningful task purpose. Here, the authors distinguish their model from previous works on the subject (Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 1985) by defining "task" in terms of activities *and* the rationale for those activities. They state, "...task refers to a set of activities directed toward a purpose. Thus, a task includes both activities and a purpose." (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 668)

Central to the Thomas and Velthouse model is the identification of task assessments. Essentially, task assessments are the individual's cognitions (judgments) regarding the task they are performing. The authors state:

...intrinsic task motivation involves those generic cognitions by an individual, pertaining directly to the task, that produce motivation and satisfaction.... Task assessments are presumed to be the proximal cause of intrinsic task motivation and satisfaction. (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 668)

They continue:

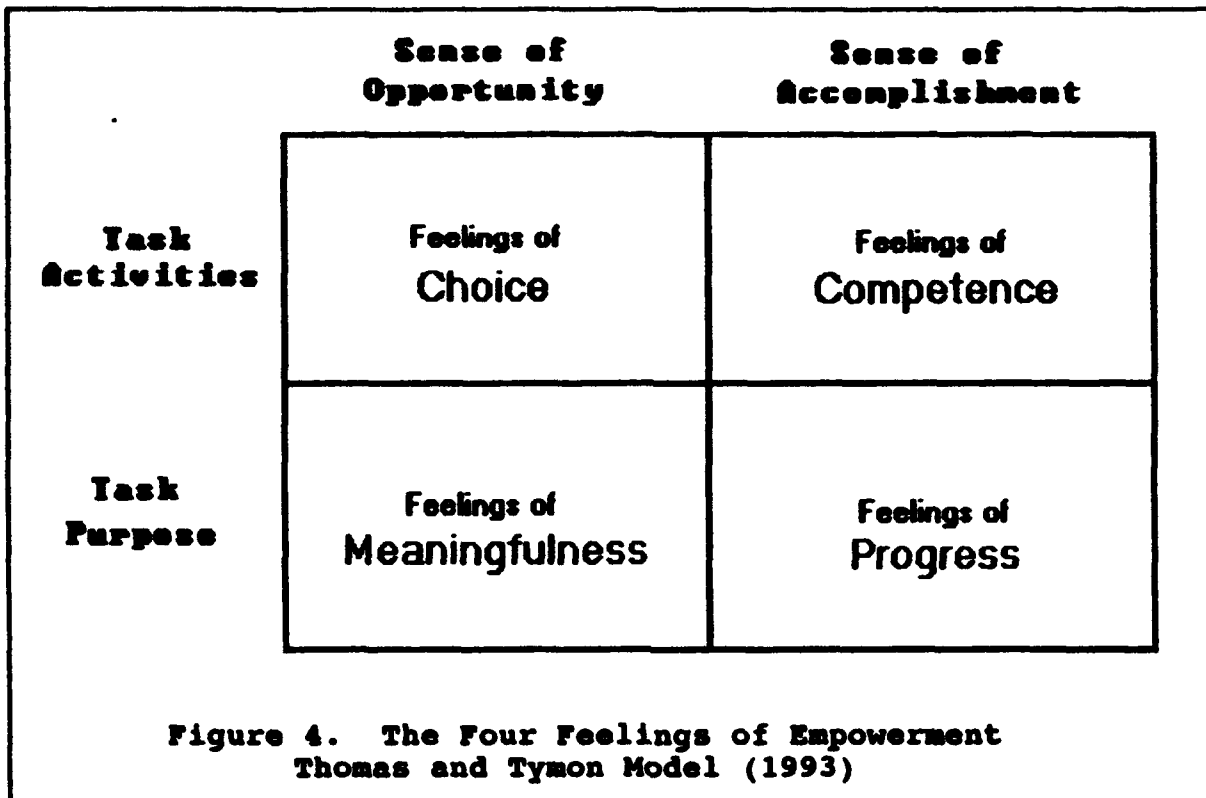
...the task assessments are viewed as interpretations or constructions of reality, rather than simple recordings of objective facts. Thus, intrinsic task motivation (and subsequent behavior) is asserted to be influenced not solely by external events, but also by the way these events are construed (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 669).

In their model, Thomas and Velthouse identify the cognitive components of intrinsic motivation, or task assessments, to be: impact, competence, meaningfulness, and choice.

C. THE THOMAS/TYMON MODEL: GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

Like Thomas and Velthouse (1990), Thomas and Tymon (1993) use the concept of task assessments as the foundation for their model. However, based upon the results of their empirical work, the task assessment *impact* was reinterpreted as *progress*. Consequently, the Thomas and Tymon model identifies the four task assessments of empowerment as: choice, competence, progress, and meaningfulness (Figure 4). In addition, Thomas and Tymon are more explicit about the positive *emotions* which accompany these assessments and serve as intrinsic rewards. Thus, the task assessments are called the four "feelings" of empowerment. The four feelings of empowerment are defined as follows:

CHOICE is the opportunity you feel to select task activities that make sense to you and to perform them in ways that seem appropriate. The feeling of choice is the feeling of being free to choose--of being able to use your own judgement and act out of your own understanding of the task.



COMPETENCE is the accomplishment you feel in skillfully performing task activities you have chosen. The feeling of competence involves the sense that you are doing good, quality work on a task.

MEANINGFULNESS is the opportunity you feel to pursue a worthy task purpose. The feeling of meaningfulness is the feeling that you are on a path that is worth your time and energy--that you are on a valuable mission, that your purpose matters in the larger scheme of things.

PROGRESS is the accomplishment you feel in achieving the task purpose. The feeling of progress involves the sense that the task is moving forward, that your activities are really accomplishing something (Thomas and Tymon, 1993, p. 9).

These feelings, the authors explain, stem from "...both the task activities (behaviors) you perform and the task purpose (goal or mission) you are trying to achieve" (Thomas & Tymon, 1993, p. 8).

D. THE THOMAS/TYMON MODEL: SPECIFIC ACTIONS

Unlike the "general" models of empowerment described earlier, the Thomas/Tymon model does not stop with the establishment of a sound conceptual foundation. In fact, their model provides the reader with a much more definitive list of actions than the "specific" models of empowerment. The authors identify the key elements that increase each of the four feelings of empowerment. These elements are called *building blocks*. For each building block, the model identifies two distinct types of actions. First, it lists specific actions a manager can take to empower his/her employees; these are labeled *team actions*. Second, the authors provide a set of actions that the individual can take to empower himself; these are called *personal actions*.

To illustrate the practicality of the Thomas/Tymon model, a few of the more prominent *building blocks* and corresponding *team actions* for each of the four feelings of empowerment are outlined below.

1. Building Feelings of Choice

Thomas and Tymon (1993, p. 11) contend that feelings of *choice* are enhanced by establishing the building blocks of *trust* and *security* in the work place.

Trust, they say, can be fostered by "Trusting member's judgment and giving them space to exercise it." The importance of this building block is illustrated in the San Diego case study. The interviews at that facility revealed the establishment of trust both up and down the chain of command as the "crux" of empowerment and the "cornerstone" of Total Quality Leadership.

Similarly, *security* plays an important role in building feelings of *choice* in the work force. Thomas and Tymon (1993, p. 11) identify the team action for this crucial building block to be "Supporting members' experimentation; no blame/punishment for honest mistakes." Again, the importance of this aspect of choice is borne out by the evidence gathered at the Naval Medical Center, San Diego. At that facility, much of the credit for innovative ideas is given to the younger, more junior employees. Instead of suppressing creativity with a "by the rules" approach, managers there give employees the freedom to take measured risks when experimenting to find ways to improve the process, in essence allowing them to "...explore the 'off-the-wall' within the boundaries of the mission." In turn, the freedom employees feel to act on their creativity stems directly from the belief they have that their leaders will not punish them for honest failures encountered in the pursuit of continuous improvement.

2. Building Feelings of Competence

Once the employee chooses a task and begins work, the proactive manager takes every opportunity to reinforce this behavior, fostering in that individual the feeling that they are doing a good job. Thomas and Tymon (1993) provide several building blocks to assist in that effort, including *positive feedback* and *growth opportunities*.

The authors contend that *positive feedback* is a key ingredient for enhancing feelings of *competence* in the work force. Managers can tap into this positive energy source by:

Giving members feedback that is more 'appreciative' (positive) than 'deficiency-focused' (negative)--helping them build on what they do well rather than highlighting mistakes and shortcomings (Thomas & Tymon, 1993, p. 12).

By reputation, American managers tend to focus on failure rather than success; this "put out the fires" approach, often called *management by exception*, is a sure recipe for micromanagement and low employee morale.

Also, by "Allowing members to 'stretch' by gradually taking on more demanding or challenging tasks" (Thomas & Tymon, 1993, p. 12), managers provide their employees with the kind of *growth opportunities* necessary to build feelings of *competence* in the work force. Hackman and Oldham (1975) also speak to the importance of allowing employees room to grow:

Research has shown the psychological needs of people are very important in determining who can (and who cannot) become internally motivated to work...people have strong needs for personal accomplishment, for learning and developing themselves beyond where they are now, for being stimulated and challenged, and so on. *These people are high in 'growth-need strength'* (Kolb, 1991, p. 633).

By focusing growth opportunities on employees who demonstrate this high growth-need strength, managers can maximize their section's contribution to the organization's efforts to ensure continuous improvement.

3. Building Feelings of Meaningfulness

Thomas and Tymon (1993) place equal emphasis on the two distinct facets of a "task", stressing the importance of both *task activities* and *task purpose*. Central to the notion of purpose is the feeling of *meaningfulness*, the sense that one is on a valuable mission in the pursuit of a higher cause. Many authors (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Peters, 1987) assert that the most important difference that good leadership makes in an organization is the fostering of this sense of mission through the creation and communication of *an exciting vision*.

According to the Thomas and Tymon model, "Developing an exciting vision of the future that the team wants to create, and [showing] how it

would add value to the world" are powerful tools for managers to use when increasing feelings of *meaningfulness* in their employees. (Thomas & Tymon, 1993, p. 13) The strength of this action is illustrated in the impact that strong visionary leadership had on the total quality efforts at both Naval Medical Center, San Diego and Naval Hospital, Camp Pendleton.

Tom Peters (1987, p. 482) elaborates on the way that *vision* impacts *meaningfulness* and guides employees in their quest for quality and improvement:

In a time of turbulence and uncertainty, we must be able to take instant action on the front line. But to support such action-taking at the front, everyone must have a clear understanding about what the organization is trying to achieve.

His advice to managers is to:

Develop and live an enabling and empowering vision. Effective leadership--at all levels--is marked by a core philosophy (values) and a vision of how the enterprise (or department) wishes to make its mark. Look inward, work with colleagues, work with customers, work with everyone to develop and instill such a philosophy and vision.

4. Building Feelings of Progress

Once managers establish the importance of the task purpose or mission, it is imperative that they continue to provide feedback to the work force concerning their progress in achieving that purpose. According to the model, one way of enhancing this sense of *progress* is by promoting a feeling of *continuous improvement*. The authors state, "On recurring tasks, [use] customer feedback and other information to help members continuously improve their task performance" (Thomas & Tymon, 1993, p. 14). By including *continuous improvement* as a building block for enhancing feelings of *progress* in the organization, the authors touch on one powerful aspect of the role of empowerment in a total quality setting.

As stated earlier, the central feature of TQL is *continuous process improvement*. However, if TQL is to be effective as a management philosophy, continuous improvement must be more than just a "buzzword." In fact, the notion of continuous improvement impacts on two facets of the organization--the physical and the psychological. From a total quality standpoint, continuous improvement is a physical entity, representing the actions taken by the work force to increase the efficiency, responsiveness, flexibility, etc., of the processes or systems of which they are a part. On the other hand, from an empowering (psychological) perspective, it is the *feeling* of continuous improvement that serves as a powerful employee motivator, rewarding workers for the successes of past efforts and encouraging them to continue to use their creative energies to improve the system.

E. CONCLUSION

The typical line manager in today's total quality organization faces a dilemma. Being familiar with Deming, he understands the importance of intrinsic motivation in the work place. Unfortunately, he is given no guidance on how to nurture this in his employees. He knows, too, that the notion of "empowerment" is somehow related to the solution to his quandary, but the deluge of disparate "models" on the subject are either overly complicated or too narrowly focused to do him any good. In fact, he probably has access to the works of a dozen different specialists, each of whom has his own set of actions or steps that will "guarantee" empowerment. Sometimes these lists are similar, often they are not.

What this manager needs is a tool that will bridge the aforementioned motivation gap in TQL theory, providing him with a practical model of

empowerment that relates specific management actions to employee intrinsic motivation and reconciles the different lists forwarded by his contemporaries in other organizations. The Thomas/Tymon model of empowerment (1993) is just such a tool, specifically identifying the four feelings of empowerment that constitute Deming's "Pride of Workmanship" and assisting in the recognition of those elements that may be missing if the desired degree of intrinsic motivation is not present in the work place. Finally, the model provides a way of understanding how different managerial actions contribute to an empowered/motivated work force.

VI. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. SUMMARY OF CONCLUSIONS

This thesis has examined the possibility of a "motivation gap" in current Total Quality Leadership theory and training; it concludes that the total quality experts unanimously agree on the importance of intrinsic motivation in a total quality effort, but do not specifically address how a manager can foster it in his employees. The works of three prominent quality experts, Crosby, Juran, and Deming, were analyzed in order to validate this hypothesis.

Having established the existence of a motivation gap, this thesis studied the role of employee empowerment in a total quality setting, specifically empowerment as intrinsic motivation. Analysis included a case study involving the role of empowerment in the successful implementation of TQL at the Naval Medical Center, San Diego. Various empowerment models were studied to determine their usefulness, from a line manager's standpoint, in bridging the gap between knowing intrinsic motivation is important and knowing how to achieve it in the work force.

Finally, the Thomas/Tymon model of empowerment (1993) was discussed in detail, illustrating its ability to provide managers with a practical tool for motivating employees through empowerment, thus enabling the organization to move toward total quality via continuous improvement.

A number of key conclusions are inserted throughout the study for emphasis and clarity. These conclusions are summarized as follows:

1. Total Quality Leadership

This thesis established the importance of the Department of the Navy's total quality initiatives in the face of declining budgets and increasing missions. These initiatives are based largely on the writings of W. Edwards Deming and are incorporated in the Navy under the auspices of a new management philosophy called Total Quality Leadership (TQL). It was concluded that the central feature of TQL is *continuous process improvement*: a systems approach to quality management that features the inputs of those employees that actually do the work (Conclusion 1).

2. Empowerment

The establishment of an empowered work force is an essential step in harnessing the creative energy of the line-workers for continuous improvement. This thesis defined empowerment in terms of two inter-related, yet distinctly different, sets of interventions. In essence, empowerment involves those interventions taken in the organization to increase employee participation and power. However, the term also encompasses the motivational effects these actions have on the work force (Conclusion 2).

Emphasis is often placed on the structural changes made in an organization to move decision making authority down to the employees. Examples of this type of empowering interventions include delegation of authority, job design characteristics, and work teams. These tangible changes in the organization's power structure are labeled the *mechanistic interventions of empowerment*. The thesis concluded that the mechanistic view of empowerment is most frequently discussed in management literature, including total quality literature, and includes specific actions to

increase employee participation and power in an organization (Conclusion 3).

The other aspect of empowerment involves the psychological or energizing effects these structural changes have on the work force; these psychological interventions deal with empowerment in terms of intrinsic motivation. It was concluded (Conclusion 4) that the motivational heart of empowerment is *intrinsic task motivation* which was defined as "positively valued experiences that individuals derive directly from a task" (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990, p. 668).

3. Role of Empowerment in a Total Quality Setting

This thesis concluded that the mechanistic interventions of empowerment are largely addressed within the philosophy of TQL through the establishment of Quality Management Boards, Process Action Teams, etc. However, TQL does not provide managers with a vehicle for managing the "feelings" of an empowered work force or for generating the kind of energy necessary to fuel the continuous improvement effort. Consequently, it was concluded that empowerment as intrinsic motivation provides the energy necessary for success in a quality effort, while TQL provides a way of harnessing this energy for continuous improvement (Conclusion 5).

Additionally, the thesis addressed the role that the non-structural empowerment interventions play in ensuring the long-term success of a total quality effort, concluding that, to be successful in the long run, managers in a total quality environment must employ more than just the mechanistic interventions of empowerment; they must also employ other types of actions to effectively manage the intrinsic motivation (energy) of the work force (Conclusion 6). Examples of these

types of interventions were provided in the case study conducted at the Naval Medical Center, San Diego (Chapter III).

4. Quality Experts on Motivation

The importance of intrinsic motivation in a total quality effort is confirmed in the writings of the quality experts. Deming, in particular, emphasizes the role of intrinsic motivation, referring to it as a worker's "Pride of Workmanship" or "Joy in Work." Deming believes that all workers are inherently motivated to do quality work; management need only remove the "barriers" to intrinsic motivation, such as performance reviews and production quotas, and good things will happen in the work place. Despite this unanimity as to the importance of intrinsic motivation in a total quality setting, none of the experts provide the typical line-manager with practical guidance on how to enhance or manage it in his/her employees. This omission constitutes the "motivation gap" in TQL theory and training. Consequently, it was concluded that while the quality experts agree on the importance of intrinsic motivation and involvement in a total quality effort, they do not address specifically how to achieve or nurture it in the work place (Conclusion 7).

5. Alternative Models of Empowerment

Once the thesis established the crucial role that empowerment as intrinsic motivation plays in a total quality effort and revealed the lack of guidance from the quality experts on how to achieve it in the work force, the next step was to examine the alternative models of empowerment available in current literature to determine their usefulness in bridging the motivation gap in TQL theory. This thesis divides these empowerment models into two distinct categories: general and specific.

Based on the research, it was concluded that, although conceptually strong, the "general" models of empowerment do not provide the typical line manager with the practical tools or direction necessary to empower their employees (Conclusion 8). Furthermore, it was concluded that, unlike the "general" models of empowerment, the "specific" models provide line managers with a detailed list of actions necessary to empower their employees. However, these models tend to be vague in their attempts to define the concepts behind the term empowerment and its motivational implications in the work place (Conclusion 9).

Finally, it was determined that what the line manager needs is a tool that combines the conceptual foundations of a "general" empowerment model with the detailed, practical directions of a "specific" model (Conclusion 10).

6. The Thomas/Tymon Model of Empowerment (1993)

Based upon the research conducted in conjunction with the drafting of this thesis, it was concluded that the Thomas and Tymon model of empowerment (1993) is currently the best tool available to line managers for integrating a strong conceptual foundation with a practical set of action sequences. By grounding empowerment in terms of intrinsic motivation, this model also serves as a means for bridging the motivational gap in TQL theory and training by instructing managers on actions that can be taken to foster intrinsic motivation in the work force.

B. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Total Quality Theory and Training in the DON

This thesis has established the importance of intrinsic motivation in a total quality effort and revealed the lack of guidance

provided by the quality experts on the subject. Based on the research, it is concluded that the motivation gap in TQL theory and training can be bridged by including the Thomas and Tymon model of empowerment (1993) in future DON instructional packages regarding total quality. This addition should be in the format of a distinct program or module on the subject of employee empowerment and motivation.

2. Future Research

Two areas for future research are identified. First, the Thomas and Tymon model should be validated using field research to better determine the link between the four task assessments and high levels of motivation or quality in the work force. One recommendation would be to administer the model's questionnaire to personnel at the Naval Medical Center, San Diego and compare the results from that facility against those gathered at locations that have been less successful in their efforts to implement TQL.

An additional recommendation for future research is the analysis of the culture or paradigm shifts that are necessary to successfully implement TQL in traditionally bureaucratic organizations such as the DON. Emphasis should be placed on the role of the leader in this difficult process.

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