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THE MANAGEMENT-EMPLOYEE CLIMATE AND ITS IMPACT UPON THE EMPLOYEE'S ORGANIZATIONAL SELF-ESTEEM

Study Report
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Abstract

This study focused on the determinants and consequences of employee organizational self-esteem (i.e., the degree to which employees see themselves as a competent, capable, worthwhile members of the organizational community.) It is hypothesized that the climate of the organization, as produced by managerial attitudes and behaviors, management-employee interactions, and managerial created work systems will be significantly related to the level of employee organizational self-esteem. It is also hypothesized that employee citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, and satisfaction will vary as a function of employee self-esteem. The data from this investigation provide support for these research hypotheses. Implications for human resource management are presented.

THE MANAGEMENT-EMPLOYEE CLIMATE

Organizational climate is a concept that has found a place in the organization and management literature. During the 1960's and early 1970's the issue of climate as an organizational and personal psychological phenomenon received a great deal of conceptual and empirical attention. Given the diversity of conceptual and operational definitions of climate, the ambiguity surrounding the centrality of the construct to the study of organizations, and the cyclical nature of researchers' interests in organizational topics the concept of climate per se has not received much attention since the mid 1970's. In its place we witness the emergence of the concept of organizational culture (cf. Deal & Kennedy, 1982; Knudsen, 1982; Smircich, 1983). Whether or not the two constructs, climate and culture, share (in part or in total) the same domain remains at this time somewhat uncertain. We assume that organizational culture as seen by Schein (1984) is a subset of the organization's climate. The shared beliefs and values of organizational members can have an impact upon the climate of the organization.

A review of the climate literature quickly leads to the conclusion that there are a myriad of conceptualizations as to the meaning of climate. Among some of the more visable definitions we have the following:

> set of characteristics that describe an organization and that (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations, (b) are relatively enduring over time, and (c) influence the behavior of people in the organization [Forehand & Gilmer, 1964, p. 362]
>
> a set of attributes specific to a particular organization they may be induced from the way the organization deals with its members and its environment. For the individual member within an organization, climate takes the form of a set of attitudes and expectancies which describe the organization in terms of both static characteristics (such as degree of autonomy) and behavior-outcome and outcome-outcome contingencies [Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970, p.390]
>
> Organizational climate is a relatively enduring quality of an organization's internal environment distinguishing it from other organizations; (a) which results from the behavior and policies of

> members of organizations, especially top management; (b) which is perceived by members of the organization; (c) which serves as a basis for interpreting the situation; and (d) acts as a source of pressure for directing activity [Pritchard & Karasick, 1973, p.126]
>
> The concept of climate can be described as personalistic; climate is an individual perception ... . As stated elsewhere [Schneider & Bartlette, 1970], "what is psychologically important to the individual must be how he perceives his work environment, not how others might choose to describe it [p.4510][Schneider, 1973, p.254]
>
> Organizational climate refers to a set of attributes that can be perceived about an organization and/or its units and may be described by the practices, processes, and ways of dealing with members of the unit and its environment [Hellreigal & Slocum, 1976, p.351]

These and other definitions of climate can be found in the organization and management literature. Connors (1980) notes that three principal ways of thinking about organizational climate have emerged. The first treats climate as a set of organizational characteristics that can be described with reasonable objectivity (e.g., size). A second view of climate casts it as a phenomenon that is real insofar as it can be perceived by organizational members. This view suggests that there is a shared perception of certain organizational phenomenon. The third approach views climate in terms of individual rather than shared perceptions.

The diverstiy of views and therefore the inability of organization scholars to arrive at a single definition for "what is organizational climate" gives rise to the observation that there seems to be an endless list of attributes that define properties of an organization's climate.

Two Cornell University researchers, DeCotis and Koys (1980), recently concerned themselves with the identification and measurement of the dimensions of climate. Upon completion of their review of the climate literature they noted that there is little agreement on the the number, nature, nor centrality of climate dimensions. Their review uncovered 54 dimensions (e.g., autonomy, trust, support, cohesiveness) that have been employed to characterize climate of different social systems.

In sum, we are dealing with a literature for which there is not a single universally accepted conceptual definition. The dimensionality of climate seems to vary from one conceptualization to another. Finally, it is noted that ways to operationalize the construct are many, varied, and all subject to controversy.

Determinants of Climate Variation

Several investigations have been conducted in order to identify factors in the work environment which seem to influence organizational climate. Litwin and Stringer (1968), Schneider and Bartlett (1968), and Friedlander and Margulies (1969) consider climate to be significantly affected by the leadership style used in the organization. Litwin and Stringer go so far as to suggest that leadership is the primary deteterminant. Lawler, Hall and Oldham (1974) found a significant relationship between organizational process and climate. One interpretation of this literature leads to the suggestion that managerial philosophy, values, and attitudes serves as a determinant of climate. Leadership style, organizational policy, process, and practice are manifestations of managerial philosophy, values, beliefs and attitudes.

DeCotis and Koys (1980) state that "organizational climate is a multidimensional phenomenon descriptive of the nature of an individual's experiences within an organization ..." (p.171). As they discuss the "experiences" that people have within organizations DeCotis and Koys mention employee experiences with work, management and management processes, communications, and the way authority is exercised as key aspects of organizational climte. It is from the totality of these experiences that employees derive meaning about their organization as well as meaning about themselves within the organizational context.

Other organization scholars (Connors, 1980; Hellriegal & Slocum, 1976; Katz & Kahn, 1978, p.50) have suggested that employee interactions with management are part of the process by/through which organizational climate comes to be created and communicated. For example, Hellriegal and Slocum (1976) note that management's "ways of dealing" with members of the organization give rise to organizational climate.

In sum, three forces have been mentioned as significant determinants of organizational climate. As depicted in Figure 1 managerial philosophy,

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Insert Figure 1 about here

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attitudes and values is a major force giving rise to an organization's climate. As employees carry out their organizational roles a variety of experiences will be created. These experiences reflect actual organizational characteristics and events which define in part the climate of the organization. The final climate determinant derives from the nature and character of the interactions that unfold between management and their employees.

Theories of Managerial Attitudes and Behaviors Toward Employees

It is being suggested that managerial philosophy, attitudes, and behaviors directed toward the organization's employees (human resources) are major factors producing one of the organization's climates. Management philosophy, attitudes, and behaviors set the context (i.e., psychological context, job/role experiences) in which employees execute their organizational roles.

In 1975, Raymond Miles, Professor of Business Administration at the University of California, Berkeley, questioned whether or not managers have a "theory of

management." He argued that few managers were like Lyndall Urwick, Chester Barnard, and Alfred Sloan who prepared detailed statements pertaining to their own theories of management. Yet, Miles suggests that the typical manager has a set of views and concepts which influence his/her decisions, behaviors, and verbal expressions.

An examination of the management literature uncovers three highly visible theoretical frameworks that describe a relationship between managerial attitudes about people and the nature/character of their style of management. McGregor's (1957, 1960, 1967) Theory X and Theory Y, Likert's (1960) System I-IV, and Miles (1975) traditional, human relations and human resources models focus on managerial human resource philosophy and the practice of management.

Douglas McGregor (1957, 1960, 1967), an advocate of humanism in the work place, wrote two major statements dealing with his observations on management philosophy regarding the management of the organizations human resources. Theory X and Theory Y reflect a summary of dichotomous management beliefs that guide the formation of organizational structures, policies, practices, and programs.

In 1960 McGregor elaborated on the theme of management philosophy in his book The Nature of the Human Enterprise. In his works McGregor suggested that a dominant management philosophy is build on a set of assumptions about "man, work, and organizations." Theory X is based upon the assumptions of a dislike of work, a preference for direction, a desire to avoid responsibility, limited ambition, and a strong need for security. These assumptions are coupled with the belief that the managerial role is to coerce and control people in order to get them to devote their efforts to organizational objectives. Theory Y, a philosophy that is not as frequently practiced is built on an entirely different

set of assumptions. The central principle of Theory Y is one of integrating the individual into the mainstream of the organization. Theory Y is a participative form of management that is built upon the notion that employees are capable of exercising self-direction and self-control toward goals toward which they are committed. Commitment is a function of the satisfaction that stems from the process of participating in the decisions that define work processes.

Rensis Likert (1967) shared perspectives with McGregor. He conducted research on effective group performance and in the process came to identify four organizational systems. System 4 represents Likert's view of how the ideal organization is designed and managed. System 4 organizations have a management that accepts the "principle of supportive relationships, makes use of group decision making, and sets high performance goals." The principle of supportive relationships suggests that managers and work activities should enhance individual members' personal sense of worth and importance. Managers can help build employees' feelings of self-confidence and self-respect through group decision making and the setting of high performance goals. In this way group members feel responsible for decisons which affect them and develop a sense of pride and accomplishment when they attain those goals. By way of the most extreme contrast is the System I model. System I is the traditional bureaucratic-hierarchical managerial system.

Miles (1975) presents the traditional, human relations, and human resources theories of management. The traditional model of management, according to Miles, derives heavily from classical economics. The concept of the American business hero and the notion that certain men possessed the ability to lead and to be entrepreneurs led to the belief that those relatively few persons who because of their superior capabilities, achieve high positions, must, in the interest of progress and efficiency, use their talents to guide firmly, but fairly, those of lesser ability.

Classical economists, borrowing from our Judeo-Christian heritage, defined leisure as man's desired state and work as his required state. Man is drawn out of leisure and into work by the payment of money which he requires in order to meet his needs. Thus, the die is cast - man is seen as having an inherent dislike for work. Belief systems such as these resulted in a strict division of labor, autocratic coordination and control systems, and efforts directed toward the standardization of work.

Advocates of the traditional model see order and stability flowing from a rigid hierarchy of authority, well defined rules for the performance of work, a rigid division of labor, and a concentration of authority.

The human relations model merely incorporates and extends the traditional model, although it has one or two basic differences. Advocates of the human relations model began to point out the harmful effects of trying to standardize people as well as jobs. They did not challenge the basic tenets of task specialization, orderliness, stability, and control that were central to the traditonal model. They criticized sharply those who were treating employees as mere appendages to machines. Management must deal with the "whole person" rather than just his skills and aptitudes, for people want to be treated as human beings.

Human relations advocates argued that management must help people to satisfy the employee's natural desires to belong, to feel an important part of the unit and organization. Management must respond with greater warmth and consideration to employees' feelings and needs than the behavioral approach taken by traditional management. Without a more humanistic approach, human relations advocates argued there would be resistance to authority accompanied by lagging, and poorly motivated performance.

The third and final model discussed by Miles (1975) was the human resources model. The human resources model accepted and extended the assumptions about people made in the human relations model. It recognized that people have needs for acceptance, status, and recognition. It went beyond this, however, and argued that many people want opportunities to develop and apply their full range of abilities and to gain satisfaction from achieving demanding and worthwhile objectives.

The human resources model draws its assumptions about people from the work of Abraham Maslow. The logic of Maslow's need theory suggests that the purpose of allowing organization members to participate in decisions related to their work and concomitantly to exercise self-direction and self-control in carrying out their tasks is to achieve direct improvements in organizational performance. It is expected that members will derive satisfaction from creative task accomplishments, but this is treated as the by-product, not the purpose, of allowing them broader participation in the affairs of their unit.

The human resources model, on the other hand, advocates involvement not only on matters pertaining to the context of the job, but on important issues concerning how and by whom department tasks will be done. In fact, the human resources model implies that the more important the issue is to departmental performance, the greater should be the manager's effort to tap the full range of resources of her/his subordinates.

Are there differing consequences associated with the practice of management that unfolds under the three models of management. Miles argues that as a function of the "quality and quantity of participation" differences under the three models we will witness a differential impact upon the subordinate. He predicts that satisfaction will be lowest under the traditional model since both

the quantity and quality of participation are lowest under this managerial philosophy. Satisfaction will be highest under the human resources model.

In sum, the basic argument that flows from the old-line management literature is that fundamentally different climates are created as a function of differing managerial theories. Managers do in fact hold different concepts/values/views about the organization's human resource component. These philosophical differences translate into behavioral and attitudinal messages that get transmitted from management to the employee.

Organizational Self-esteem

Korman's (1977, 1971, 1970) self-consistency motivational theory positions self-esteem as a construct central to the explanation of employee motivation, attitudes, and behavior. Self-esteem is defined as "the extent to which one sees oneself as a competent, need-satisfying individual (Korman, 1976, p.51), and "the evaluation which the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to the self" (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 4-5).

In his discussion of self-esteem, Korman (1970) suggests that the construct can be seen operating at different levels and across different contexts. Level differences may be seen in terms of a differentiation between chronic (or global) self-esteem (i.e., the relatively persistent assessment that one has of themselves across multiple situations), and task-specific self-esteem (i.e., one's perceived competence within a given situation). The idea that people can have a situation specific self-esteem suggests that across situations there is the possibility for variation in one's assessment of one's own competence.

Regarding the origins of esteem Korman's (1971) review of the literature suggests that the expectations of others and situational conditions play a major

role shaping the self-image that people form (see Figure 2). Korman referred to the former as socially-induced self-esteem and the later as task-based esteem. If significant others think that we are competent and able, and their behaviors reflect this belief structure, enhanced self-esteem is likely to be a consequence. If environmental conditions to which people are exposed suggest that we are capable of self-direction and self-control, and that we are competent and trusted a similar belief system will develop.

Insert Figure 2 about here

Building upon the work of Korman, Pierce, Knudsen and Hawley (1985) introduced the construct organizational self-esteem and defined it as the degree to which the individual employee experiences him/herself as important, meaningful, making a difference, and worthwhile within the context of the organization and its functioning.

While the work of Pierce et al., was directed toward the validation of the measure of organizational self-esteem there are a number of observations from their work that provides us with some insight into the formation of the employee's perception of their organizational-based competence. Managerial attitudes and situational conditions that suggest to the employee that they are competent and capable individuals was significantly related to organizational self-esteem. Employees who had managers who did not trust them, and employees whose work experiences were controlling in nature had low levels of perceived self worth and competence. These observations support the basic relationships depicted in Korman's model (see Figure 2). The antecedents of organizational self-esteem may lie in managerial attitudes and behaviors, and in the work situation designed by management for its employees.

Summary: Climatic determinants of organizational self-esteem

Up to this point we have attempted to argue that (1) managerial attitudes, value, and philosophy; (2) job/work conditions; and (3) the nature and character of the management-employee interactive process give rise to an organizational climate.

During the 1920's and 1930's the human relations ideology found its way into the philosophy and practice of management. Miles, Porter, and Craft (1966) suggest that a major goal of the human relations theory of management was to "increase morale and satisfaction by making organization members 'feel a useful and important part of the over-all effort'" (p.1997). Human relations scholars and practitioners recognized that all organizational members, supervisors and subordinates alike, desire recognition and more importantly "to feel that they are a useful part of their organization" (Miles, et al., 1966).

Consistent with the human resource model of Miles, McGregor's (Theory Y), and Likert's (System 4) we will come to hypothesize that managerial attitudes, values, philosophy; job/role conditions; and the nature and character of management-employee interactions will have a significant impact upon the employee and the image that they form of themselves within the context of the organization and its functioning as depicted in Figure 3.

Insert Figure 3 about here

A human resources (Theory Y, Systems 4) climate will produce within employees an image of themselves as valuable organizational members. A traditional, systems 1, and/or Theory X climate will produce a belief structure

that suggests that "I do not make a difference" within the context of the organization.

Specifically, we have argued that a number of forces (e.g., managerial attitudes and behaviors; interactions that transpire between management and the employee; and various job/work conditions) give rise to variations in the climates of organizations. It has also been suggested that variations in climate is associated with the image that employee form of themselves as a part of that work enviornment. Organizational self-esteem was introduced as an employee belief system regarding worth/competence within the context of the organization and its functioning. It has been suggested by Korman (1976), and Pierce, Knudsen and Hawley (1985) that self-esteem can be affected by the attitudes of others as well as by situational conditions. Pierce et al., argued that organizational conditions (e.g., mechanistic organization design, routine job design, and a routine technology) which place an emphasis on a concern for procedures, control, formality, and hierarchy are likely to emphasize a mistrust in the ability of people to complete their tasks on their own and without direction and control form others. These situational conditions will be associated with a lower level of organizational self-esteem than that found under more organic organization designs, people controlled technologies, and complex job/work conditions.

The following hypotheses will be tested as organizational factors affecting the level of employee organizational self-esteem (OSE):

I. a. Leader behaviors (i.e., consideration and supportive behaviors) will have a positive association with OSE.

b. Leader initiating structure behavior will have a negative association with OSE.

II. a. Leader attitudes (e.g., trust in employees, satisfaction with employees, and belief in the centrality of human resources to organizational success) will have a positive association with OSE.

b. Machiavellianism (i.e., a belief that other people are to be manipulated/used) will have a negative association with OSE.

III. Jobs with complex design characteristics (i.e., skills variety, autonomy, significance, use of valued skills and abilities) will be positively associated with OSE.

IV. Employees who experience a sense of responsibility for work out comes, and a sense of meaningfulness of work will have a higher level of OSE than employees who experience a low amount of work responsibility and meaningfulness.

V. OSE will be positively associated with job centrality and participation in work unit decision making.

VI. Employee organizational self-esteem will be positively associated with trust of supervision, trust of management, experiencing management as dependable, and experiencing a cohesive relationship between the management and employee groups.

Consequences of Climate Variation

Empirically a number of studies published in the late 1960's and early 1970's focused on managerial attitudes/values and the practice of management. In 1966 Haire, Ghiselli and Porter conducted a study involving 3600 managers from 14 different countries. The study was focused on the degree to which people in general were believed to be capable of leadership and individual initiative. Haire et al., found that there is a consistent pattern across all countries. Managers tend to hold assumptions about human nature that are embodied in McGregor's Theory X. Managers tend to show little faith in the capacity of their subordinates for initiative and leadership.

Clark and McCabe (1970) conducted a similar investigation among Australian managers. Their study tended to confirm the observations of Haire et al (1966), as did the findings from Cummings and Schmidt's (1976) study of Greek managerial attitudes.

Research conducted by Likert suggests that managers may increase production in the short run by using a system 1 management style, since motivation by fear,

threat and punishment is generally effective in the short run. Over the long run, however, this style is associated with production declines. A study by Butterfield and Farris (1974) examined performance and employee satisfaction in 13 Brazilian banks. The results reveal that the system IV methods of management were not associated with better organizational performance. Employees were, however, more satisfied with the bank as a place to work when exposed to system IV management styles. Tannenbaum, Mozina, Jerovsek and Likert (1970) found that the greater the level of participation, as reflected by the system IV management style, was associated with better employee performance in a study of Yugoslavian organizations.

Miles (1975) reports on research data that indicates that most managers accept and endorse a participative strategy even though they also express attitudes suggesting that they doubt that their subordinates have the capacity for self-direction, self-control, and creative contributions. His research shows that managers tend to rate their subordinates particularly low on responsibility, judgement, and initiative. Miles interprets his findings as reflecting a predominant human relations orientation and therefore for all practical purposes they reflect theory X with a "soft" stragegy.

In sum, the data reported above tends to be focused almost exclusively upon the character of managerial attitudes toward the employees in general. Very little empirical work has been uncovered in which the nature of the linkage between managerial attitudes toward employees and employee attitudes and behaviors has been explored.

With regard to the relationship between managerial behavior and employee reactions (attitudinal and behavioral) there is a large and well established body of literature that focuses upon the relationship between managerial

behaviors and employee attitudes and behaviors. The leadership literature has a long and rich history. Numerous reviews of this literature have been provided (cf. Fiedler, 1967; House, 1971; Kerr, Schreisheim, Murphy & Stogdill 1974; House & Baetz, 1979; Schriesheim, Housse, & Kerr, 1976). This literature is too extensive to review here. In sum, let it suffice to note that there is evidence of strong relationships between numerous dimensions of leader behavior and employee attiudes and behaviors. The majority of this literature is focused on two particular leader behaviors: leader initiating structure and consideration behavior.

Much of the literature has placed climate as the independent variable in association with employee attitudes (satisfaction) and behavior (performance). It has generally been found that satisfaction is significantly related to a warm, open, and supportive climate (Friedlander & Margulies, 1969; Prichard & Karasiak, 1973; Lawler, Hall, & Oldham, 1974), and performance (Schneider, 1971; Pritchard & Karasiak, 1973).

It is clear from this literature that climate producing factors have an impact upon employee attitudes and behaviors.

Outcomes of Organizational Self-Esteem

It is being proposed that there are a number of organizationally relevant outcomes that are the product of an employee's sense of self-esteem. Employees experiencing a work environment in which they experience that their managers believe that they are a central part of the organization's mission will come to internalize the goals and values of the organization (i.e., become organizationally committed), they will engage in behaviors that can be characterized as good organizational citizenship, and they will become job satisfied and satisfied with their identity with the organization.

Figure 4 presents a pictorial representation of the model that will be examined in the conduct of this investigation.

Insert Figure 4 Here

Specifically four hypotheses will be tested as a part of the outcomes of organizatonal self-esteem:

I. There will be a positive relationship between OSE and the employees engagement in acts of good organizational citizenship.

II. There will be a positive relationship between OSE and the employee's level of organizational commitment.

III. There will be a positive relationship between OSE and the employee's organizaitonal identification satisfaction.

IV. There will be a positive relationship between OSE and the level of employee job satisfaction.

Method

Sample and data collection

An article entitled "Climate Survey Undertaken by ASPA and CCH" appeared in the July, 1985 issue of ASPA's monthly news paper Resources. The article provided a brief description of the climate survey that was being conducted by ASPA/CCH. The article asked ASPA members that if they were interested in having their organization participate in the study to contact the individual who was conducting the survey.

In the article the nature of their involvement, should they want to participate in the study was outlined. Specifically, a number of factors describe the conditions of participants in the survey.

a) Each ASPA member was asked to think about leadership (in terms of decision making, communication, interaction, and motivation processes) and to identify two managers in their organization who had very different leadership styles. Upon the identification of two managers with leadership styles perceived by the ASPA member to be radically different from one another we wanted the ASPA member to solicit the participation of these two managers in our study.

b) Each study participant was assured that they would not be identified as having participated in the study.

c) The ASPA member was also asked to identify two-to-four employees working for each of these two managers and request that they also complete an anonymous questionnaire.

d) Finally the ASPA member was asked to complete a short questionnaire describing the leadership style of each of the two targeted managers.

e) Each study participant was given a questionnaire and an stamped, self-addressed envelope so that they could mail their completed questionnaire to a researcher at a mid-west University.

Thirty seven ASPA members responded to the Resource article, expressing a willingness to assist in the conduct of this study. A package of research materials was sent to each of these individuals for distribution in their organization.

Of the 37 ASPA members who indicated that they would participate in the study 26 (70 percent) were successful in getting some of the targeted members in their organization to participate in the study. Employees from 26 organizations from 15 different states spread from the east cost throughout the mid-west to the west coast, from Alaska to Texas eventually participated in the study. Thirteen different kinds of organizations were represented in the study (e.g., manufacturing, paper, rubber, food stores, electronics, girl scouts, printing, hospi-tal, hotels, banks, savings and loans, and health services).

The average size of the organizations involved in the study was 608 employees with a range of 35 to 3000. These organizations were located in communities that ranged from rural areas to an area where the greater metropolitan population exceeds 500,000 people. The average community size was

in the 50,000 to 100,000 range. The majority of the participating organizations had less than 20 percent of their workforce unionized.

The average age of the employees participating in the study was in the 30-40 year range. The sample was evenly distributed between males and females. The average education level was 14 years, with four to eight years of organizational tenure.

Twenty-four of the 37 ASPA members (65 percent) completed their questionnaires. Sixty percent (45) of the total number of managers potentially asked to participate in the study returned their completed questionnaires, and 135 of a maximum potential 296 employees (46 percent) completed and returned their questionnaires.

In this study the individual employee will be the unit of analysis. All of the study major dependent variables revolve around attitudes of employees as they are exposed to different work environment climates as shaped by management-employee interactions.

Variables and their Measurement

All data was collected through the administration of a self-report paper and pencil questionnaire. In all possible cases standardized research scales were employed for the measurement of the variables included in this investigation.

Three questionnaires were prepared -- the employee questionnaire, the managers questionnaire, and the ASPA member questionnaire. All of the variables deriving from the managerial questionnaire and the key informant's questionnaire will be positioned as variables giving rise to climate and therefore will be treated as the causal factors giving rise to employee responses. Some of the variables measured by the employee questionnaire will be treated as determinants

(independent variables), some are consequences (dependent variables), and organizational self-esteem is the intervening variable in the antecedent-consequence relationship.

The Managers' Questionnaire is directed toward the measurement of a set of attitudes, values, opinions, and philosophies that have been hypothesized to influence the nature and character of the interactive process that unfolds between the manager and his/her employees. These human resource climate influencing factors are: machiavellianism (Christie, 1968); capacity for leadership and initiative, (Haire, Porter, & Gheiselli, 1966); human resource centrality (developed specifically for this investigation); satisfaction with subordinates (a modification of the co-worker satisfaction scale taken from Smith's, 1976, Index of Organizational Reactions); tolerance for employee decision participation [a modification of Pierce's (1979) decision participation scale]; and trust in employees.

The Employees' Questionnaire measured the following variables: organizational commitment (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1979); organizational citizenship (O'Reilly & Chatman 1984); general job satisfaction (University of Michigan Organizational Assessment Package, 1975); company identification satisfaction (Smith, 1976); organizational self-esteem (Pierce, Hawley, & Knudsen, 1985); autonomy (Sims, Szaligyi, & Keller, 1976); significance (Hackman & Oldham, 1975); use of valued skills and abilities (developed for this investigation); experienced responsibility and experienced meaningfulness (Hackman & Oldham, 1975); unit decision participation (Pierce, 1979); cohesiveness in the management-employee group (a modification of the cohesiveness/fragmentation scales in the University of Michigan Organizational Assessment Package); trust in management; organizational dependability and personal importance (Buckanan, 1976); leader consideration and initiating

structure behavior (Stogdill, 1976); and leader supporting behavior (University of Michigan Organizational Assessment Package).

The third questionnaire employed in this study is to be completed by the ASPA member acting as an outside observer of each manager. Acting as a key informant the ASPA member/participant will provide an assessment of the two participating manager's approach to human resource management. The variables measured by this instrument were taken from the Managerial Assessment Package developed by Likert and members of the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan. The following variables were measured: leadership processes used; motivational processes used; character of communication processes used; character of interaction influence processes; character of decision making processes; approaches to goal setting; and character of control processes employed.

Analyses

The first stage in data analysis involved an examination of the reliability for each of the multiple-item scales. Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha was employed for these purposes. Following an examination of the internal consistency for each research scale the descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) for each scale was generated. The descriptive statistics and reliability coefficients for the study's variables are presented in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 about here

All of the study's research questions and hypotheses were examined through a series of pearson product-moment correlations and multiple regression coefficients. The results of these analyses will be reported in the next

section.

Results

Organizational climate determinants of employee self-esteem

The first research question asks "What gives rise to an organizational climate/environment in which employees sense that they make a difference and therefore come to develop a healthy image of themselves as organizational members?" In an attempt to answer this question it was hypothesized that four sets of work environment factors would influence the level of the employee's self-esteem. We will inspect the results (see Tables 2 & 3) of this study by

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Insert Table 2 & 3 about here

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organizing our observations around each of these four factors: leader attitudes, leader behaviors, job/work conditions, and general climate/work environment factors.

Leader behaviors. Three leader behaviors were examined and each was significantly ($p<.01$) related to the level of the employees' organizational self-esteem. Leader consideration behavior reflects a regard for the comfort, well being, status, and contributions of one's subordinates. The data shows that leaders who exhibit consideration behavior have a favorable impact upon the employee's self-image. The correlation between leader consideration behavior and organizational self-esteem was .55.

Closely related to the leader consideration behavior variable is the leader supportive behavior (leader consideration and leader supportive behavior have a correlation of .76, $p < .01$). Leader supportive behavior reflects an

assessment of the degree to which the supervisor is concerned about you as an individual. She/he is therefore concerned about your personal problems, your development, and the degree of your fit and comfort within the context of your job and the organization. There was a positive correlation ($r = .62$) between leader supportive behavior and the employee's level of organizational self-esteem. Employees who experience their supervisors as personally supportive are likely to have a healthy self-image of themselves as organizational members. They are likely to experience that they count and make a difference within the experience that they count and make a difference within the organizational context.

Leader initiating structure behavior reflects a behavioral set where the supervisor clearly defines his/her own role, and lets his/her subordinates know what is expected of them. The data from this study does not support the hypothesized relationship. Our theoretical model proposes that leaders who create highly structured work settings for their employees will have a negative impact upon the employees' perceptions of their own ability to meaningfully direct their own behaviors and experience an image of their own work related competence. The results from this investigation shows that there is a positive correlation between leader initiating structure behavior and organizational self-esteem ($r = .43$). Supervisors who delineate individual responsibilities, reduce role ambiguity, and define work related activities and procedures were found to be the supervisors of employees with a strong self-esteem. (It should also be noted that leader initiating structure was positively correleted with both leader consideration behavior and leader supportive behavior, $r = .50$ and $r = .54$ respectively.)

Organizational self-esteem was regressed on the three leader behavior variables. A significant multiple correlation ($R = .64$, $p < .01$) was found,

with the three leader behavior variables accounting for 41 percent of the variance in the organizational self-esteem variable. Leader supportive behavior entered the regression equation first accounting for 38 percent of the criterion variance, followed by leader consideration behavior adding two percent, and leader initiating structure behavior accounting for an additional one percent of the unexplained variance in the self-esteem variable.

Job/work conditions. Eight different variables reflecting a number of different aspects of the employee's job and work environment were examined. Four of the variables (job variety, autonomy, significance, and use of valued skills and abilities) assess characteristics of the job that the employee performs. Two of these variables (experienced responsibility for work outcomes, and experienced meaningfulness of work) represent two psychological conditions that get produced as a result of job/work conditions. Finally, two of these eight variables (participation in work unit decision making, and the centrality of the employee and his/her job in relation to other jobs in the department) are concerned with the position of the employee and his/her job within the context of the department in which they work.

Each of the four job design variables had a significant ($p < .01$) and positive relationship with organizational self-esteem. Employees who held jobs that could be characterized by having to perform a number of different activities requiring the use of a number of different skills and abilities (job variety) had higher levels of self-esteem than employees who held jobs that were low in skill variety (i.e., jobs that demanded the performance of a limited number of different activities demanding a limited number of different skills and abilities). The correlation between job variety and organizational self-esteem was .22. Similar relationships were found between autonomy and task significance. Autonomy had a correlation of .51 with self-esteem and

significance had a correlation of .28. The direction of these relations suggested that jobs characterized by high levels of autonomy and significance (i.e., a job that has a major impact upon others) was associated with high levels of organizational self-esteem. Employees who found that their jobs demanded that they use the skills and abilities that they most value had high levels of organizational self-esteem ($r = .50$, $p<.01$), whereas those employees who did not experience a job that demanded that they employ their valued skills and abilities experienced significantly lower levels of organizational worth.

The multiple correlation between the four job design variables and organizational self-esteem was $R = .60$. Thus, these four job design variables are capable of accounting for 36 percent of the variance in the level of employee organization--based self-esteem. The three primary job design variables were autonomy, use of valued skills and abilities, and skill variety.

The correlation between experienced meaningfulness of work and organizational self-esteem was a significant $r = .53$ ($p < .01$), and the correlation between experienced responsibility for work outcomes had a positive correlation of .33 ($p < .01$) with the esteem variable. Both relationships suggest that as the employee psychologically comes to experience his/her job as meaningful and a sense of responsibility for what transpires the employee's sense of organizational worth should be enhanced.

The autonomy variable measured the level of discretion, freedom, and independence that the employee has in the performance of his/her job. In addition to having a job-based role to perform, all organizational employees are also functioning members of a department within the employing organization. In addition to there being job-based decisions that have to be made for each job in the department, there are also department-based decisions (e.g., manpower

planning, hiring, performance appraisal, work scheduling) that have to be made. These decisions could be made in a very centralized fashion (e.g., by the department supervisor or outside of the unit by individuals higher-up in the organization hierarchy), or in a more decentralized/participative fashion. The results show a statistically significant and positive association ($r = .17$, $p < .05$) between organizational self-esteem and the level of the employee's participation in departmental decision making.

Job centrality reflects the degree to which the employee's job serves as a critical hub to other jobs in the department in which it is housed. Jobs that have a high degree of departmental centrality are jobs where the overall success of the organizational unit is highly dependent upon the successful performance of the job. The data show a significant and positive ($r = .24$) correlation between job centrality and the employee's organizational self-esteem. The more the employee's job (organizational role) is central to the success of his/her department the more the employee will experience themselves as organizationally meaningful.

In the aggregrate the eight job/work conditions variables had a strong multiple correlation with organizational self--esteem. A multiple correlation of $R = .67$ suggests that these job and work condition variables account for 45 percent of the variance in the employee's self-esteem. Of the eight job/work condition variables experienced meaningfulness had the strongest association ($R = .53$ accounting for 28 percent of the criterion variance), followed by autonomy (adding an additional 11 percent of the variance), use of valued skills and abilities (adding another three percent), with the following variables entering the regression equation by adding one percent or less of the remaining variance in the esteem variables (job centrality, experienced responsibility, variety, participation in unit decision making, and significance.

General climate/work environment conditions. Four variables were grouped into this category. Management-employee cohesiveness, employee trust in their supervisor, employee trust in management, and organization-management dependability were significantly ($p < .01$) related ($r = .48, .58, .71$, and $.60$ respectively) to organizational self-esteem. The direction of the relationship supported the research hypotheses. Employees who found that they could trust both their immediate supervisor and management of their organization in general had higher levels of self-esteem than those employees who found themselves working with supervisors and/or management that could not be trusted. Dependability in relationships was found to be critical in the establishement of trust (organization/management dependability had a correlation of .48 with supervision trust and .68 with management trust).

Employees who were apart of a work environment that was characterized by a cohesive team had higher levels of perceived self meaningfulness than employees who were member of a non--cohesive work environment. The type of cohesiveness that we were examining was an environment in which there was strong cohesiveness between the employee group and the management group.

Fifty-six percent of the variance in organizational self-esteem can be accounted for by the four variables representing the general management-employee climate. The significant multiple correlation of $R= .75$ clearly suggests that a management-employee climate characterized by trust, dependability, and a cohesive work team makes a major contribution to the level of meaningfulness an employees develops regarding his/her self within that organization. Managerial trust had the strongest relationship with organizational self-esteem ($R = .71$, accounting for 50 percent of the criterion variance), followed by supervisory trust, organization-management dependability, and cohesiveness of the management-employee group.

Leader attitudes. Only two of the leader attitudes had a significant association with the organizational self-esteem of the leader's subordinates. Leaders who believed that their subordinates need to be directed and controlled, seek to avoid responsibility, and do not have the capacity to exercise leadership appear to have a negative impact upon the self-image of their subordinates. This relationship is evidenced by the negative association ($r = -.24$, $p < .01$) between organizational self-esteem and the capacity for self-direction and self-control.

There was a positive and significant relationship between the level of supervisor satisfaction with their employees and the level of the employees self-esteem. The correlation of .18 ($p < .05$) indicates that there is a weak though signficant relationship between these two variables.

Four leader attitudes hypothesized to be significantly related to the level of employee self-esteem were: trust of employees, tolerance for employee decision participation (i.e., a belief that employees should be permitted to be actively involved in departmental decision making), human resource centrality (i.e., a belief that the employees of an organizational unit are the most important resource in the determination of the success of that unit), and Machiavellianism (i.e., a belief that other people are manipulable in interpersonal situations). It was hypothesized that tolerance for employee decision participation and human resource centrality would be positively associated with the employee's self-image. It was further hypothesized that Machiavellianism would have a negative association. The results show a correlation -.00 -.05, -.01, and .03 for each of the four predictor variables respectively.

Organizational consequences of employee self-esteem

The second research question is "What are the consequences of employees who come to experience that they make a difference within the context of the organization and its functioning?" Three variables (organizational commitment, organizational citizenship, and satisfaction) were positioned as outcomes of a healthy sense of self-esteem. Specifically, it was hypothesized that employees who experience themselves as organizationally meaningful will be committed to their organization, they will be motivated to engage in acts of good organizational citizenship, and they will be more job satisfied than the employee with low self-esteem.

The results support these hypotheses (see Table 4). There was a

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Insert Table 4 about here

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significant and positive relationship between organizational self-esteem and organizational commitment ($r = .57$, $p < .01$). While the correlation between self-esteem and organizational citizenship was weaker ($r = .37$, $p < .01$) there was still a strong and significant relationship between the two variables.

Three dimensions of satisfaction were examined. Organizational identification satisfaction had a strong relationship with the esteem variables. The correlation of .62 ($p < .01$) suggests that 38 percent of the variance in organizational identification satisfaction could be predicted by the esteem variable. There was also a positive and significant relationship ($r = .42$, $p < .01$) between organizational self-esteem and the level of satisfaction that the employee had with his/her job. Finally, general job satisfaction (i.e., the employee taking his/her job in total) had a correlation of .61 with the employee's self image.

In sum, we conclude that employees who experience a high level of organizational self-esteem are likely to be committed and satisfied with the organization that they work for. These individuals are also job satisfied and likely to engage in acts of good organizational citizenship.

Discussion

Our discussion of the results from this investigation will focus on two themes. First, an attempt will be made to summarize the observations from the study, and second we will comment on the implications that these observations have for human resource management.

Figure 4 depicts the model that was examined in this investigation. Four climate producing forces were identified from the climate literature. It was hypothesized that each of these climate producing factors [i.e., leader attitudes, values, and philosophy (e.g., trust in employees); leader behaviors (e.g., supportive behavior); job and work conditions (e.g., job autonomy); and the nature and character of the management-employee interaction (e.g., a cohesive management-employee team relationship)] would have a significant impact upon the degree to which employees would come to experience themselves as competent, capable and worthwhile members of the organizational community (i.e., possessing a healthy self-image, or having a high level of organizational-based self-esteem). Based upon the self-esteem literature we hypothesized that employees who experience themselves as competent and worthwhile members of the organizational community will be more job satisfied, experience satisfaction with their organizational affiliation, be highly committed to their organization, and engage in acts of good organizational citizenship.

The issues that we are dealing with in this investigation are quite simple and straightforward. First, we are asking under what kinds of work

(organizational) conditions do employees come to experience (believe) that they "make a difference" within the context of their organizational membership? When and under what kinds of work, leadership, and management conditions do employees come to believe that they have some value, that there is a contribution that they can make to the organization that is meaningful to the organization? Thus, when do we as employees have a belief structure that sincerely leads us to believe that -- BY GOD I COUNT AROUND HERE! Secondly, does it make any difference to the organization whether or not its employees feel as though they are competent, meaningful, and worthwhile members of the organizational community. This investigation was directed toward answering these two questions: what are the antecedents to an employee's organizational self-esteem, and what are the organizational consequences associated with an employee's organizational self-esteem?

Job and work unit conditions. During the past three decades there has accumulated a large literature focused upon the design of employee jobs. Many writers conceptualize a job as being routine-to-complex in nature. Routine job designs are characterized as low in variety, low in autonomy, possessing relatively short beginning-to-completion time cycles, insignificant in nature (i.e., not having a major impact upon others), and demanding that the employee use a limited and shallow set of their skills and abilities. Complex job designs, on the other hand, have been described with the opposite design characteristics (i.e., high in variety, autonomy, significance, and demanding the use of the employee's valued skills and abilities). The observations from this investigation support observations from a study by Pierce, Knudsen and Hawley (1985). There is a positive relationship between job complexity and employee organizational self-esteem.

Employees who experienced their work as meaningful held a similar belief structure about themselves. Employees who experienced their work as lacking

meaning did not have an image of themselves as "making a difference" (counting) within the context of the organizational community. Similarly, those employees who experienced a sense of personal responsibility for work outcomes had an image of themselves as worthwhile and important members of the organization. Their counterparts whose work experiences failed to create a sense of experienced responsibility for work outcomes did not have a healthy image of themselves as a part of their employing organization.

In a related study (c.f., Pierce, Knudsen, & Hawley, 1985) a group of lower, middle, and upper level managers took part in a three-day management development laboratory. The primary focus of this developmental program consisted of their participation in two simulated organizations, one with a mechanistic/bureaucratic design, and the second with a more open, flexible, organic structure. The mechanistic social system could be characterized as authoritarian, formal, inflexible, and impersonal in nature. It was a system where there was a high concern for control and procedures. By way of contrast the second simulated organization had a design characterized as non-authoritarian in its leadership style, informal, highly personal, not driven by a concern for control and adherence to formalistic procedures. The structure of this organization was flexible and democratic in nature.

Consistent with Korman's work, it was predicted that employees experiencing a mechanistic/bureaucratic social system would experience a significantly lower level of organizational self-esteem than their counterparts in a more organic social system. Results from this laboratory-based organizational simulation strongly confirmed this prediction.

In this study, consistent with the observations of Pierce et al., we found that employees who found that they had the opportunity to involve

themselves in the management of their departments through the decision making process had a stonger self-esteem than their colleagues who were denied the opportunity to participate in departmental decision making.

While Pierce, Knudsen and Hawley hypothesized that a routine and system-controlled technology would lead to lower levels of self-esteem than would a technology that was under the control of people, neither investigation provided a direct test of this hypothesis. This investigation did, however, look at the relationship between job centrality and organizational self-esteem. The centrality variable attempts to capture the nature of the interdependence between the employee's job and other jobs in his/her organizational unit. Jobs that have a high centrality to them are jobs that strongly influence the overall level of success of other people in the department and therefore the overall level of performance success for the department as a whole. Employees whose jobs were highly central to the other jobs in their department experienced a higher level of organizational self-esteem than employees who found that their jobs were peripheral to the other jobs in their department and to the performance success of their department.

It is clear that the results from this phase of the investigation create strong suggestions for human resource management. Job redesign efforts directed toward job enlargement and job enrichment should lead to a heightened level of employee organizational self-esteem. Job redesign efforts that increase the level of variety, use of valued skills and abilities, job centrality, time cycle, and significance will enhance the level of experienced meaningfulness of work which is also positively related to organizational self-esteem. Efforts to increase the level of job autonomy and the level of employee participation in organizational decision making will influence the psychological state of experienced responsibility for work outcomes. As we have just seen, experienced

responsibility for work outcomes is also positively related to the employee's sense of personal worth.

Results from the Pierce et al. investigation has further managerial implications. The level of employee organization-based self-esteem could be enhanced by a redesign of the organizational unit. A deemphasis on a concern for formality, procedures and control will open up the system and have a favorable impact upon the employee's self image.

Korman (1970) has argued that organization control systems (e.g., bureaucratic structures) imply a mistrust of people's ability to exercise self-direction and self-control. As suggested by Pierce et al., any form of system imposed control (i.e., an external control system) is likely to carry with it the implicit assumption of the incapability of the individual to exercise self-direction and self-control. One consequence of this type of control system is likely to be the suggestion to the employee that he/she is not competent within the organizational context. By way of contrast, sources of environmental structure (i.e., social system design, job design, technology) that permit the exercise of self-direction and self-control should be positively associated with the perception of one's organizational competence. It was observed that managers who possessed an attitude structure that expresses a belief in the employee's capacity for self-direction and self-control was positively related to the employee's organizational self-esteem.

General climate and work environment conditions. Trust -- the degree to which the employee trusts his/her supervisor and the degree to which the employee trusts management -- has a very powerful and positive influence upon the degree to which the employee senses their own self-worth. Employees who, through their organizational experiences have discovered that the organization

and its representatives (i.e., supervision and management) are dependable feel as though their own membership in the organizational community is of significance.

A work environment in which the employee group and the management group represent a unified and cohesive team was found to favorably influence the psychological state of the employee. Employees who find themselves in a work environment where there is a split between the employee group and the management group (i.e., where the two groups do not appear to be apart of the same team) have a lower level of experienced self-worth.

Leader attitudes and behaviors. Supervisors cast into the position of leaders of their departments have a variety of behavioral styles that can be adopted. There is a long history of categorizing leader behaviors in terms of autocratic-vs-democratic, and task/production-vs-people oriented. We looked at the perceived level of leader consideration behavior, supportive behavior, and a task oriented initiating structure behavior. Surprisingly we found that each of these three behavior styles was positively related to the level of the employee's self-esteem.

Consistent with our hypotheses the considerate and supportive leader had a behavioral style that produced a healthy self-image. It was the leader who engaged in providing structure to the employee's work roles that had the surprising positive relationship with organizational self-esteem.

In our investigation there was a positive relationship between the consideration and supportive behaviors, and leader initiating structure behavior. Based upon this relationship we reason that those leaders who are people oriented and at the same time engage in behaviors that facilitate the employee's task accomplishment (e.g., by providing role clarity, by removing

obstacles along the production path) contribute to the employee's self-image because these structure oriented behaviors may help the employee actually experience work related success. The self-esteem development literature quite clearly suggests to us that successful experiences should enhance one's self-image, while failures tend to tear the self-image down.

The implications for management action are quite evident. The development of good human relations and human resource skills are important. The human relations skills are clearly people and people-need oriented. The human resource philosophy sees the employee as a valuable organizational resource. The coupling of the considerate/supportive behaviors with constructive initiating structure behavior may be interpreted as a work accomplishment faciliatative leadership style.

The most disappointing observations from this investigation relate to the relationship between leader attitudes and employee organizational self-esteem. It was hypothesized by Korman and others that the attitudes that others hold toward us will have an impact upon our self image. These results from this investigation do not necessary refute this hypothesis, yet the strength of these observations are not tremendously strong.

While we did observe a relationship between managerial satisfaction with the employees, trust in employees, and a belief in the employee's capacity for self-direction and self-control having a significant relationship, the relationships were not strong.

Further reflection on these observations leads us to the following conclusion. Managerial attitudes, values, and human resource philosophy are related to the employee's self-esteem. The relationship is a complex relationship and not a simple "A causes B" relationship. Attitudes, values, and

philosophy possibly influence the types of organizational systems that management designs, thereby shaping the types of organizational experiences that the employee will eventually have. These organizational systems (e.g., mechanistic-organic social system design, simple-complex job designs, participative decision making opportunities) and experiences will subsequently impact and shape the level of the employee's organizational self-esteem. As we have seen from the results of this investigation, these variables play a major role within this context.

It was predicted that employees with a strong sense of their own worth and competence within the context of the organizational community would be job satisfied, organizationally committed, satisfied with their organizational identification, and would engage in acts of good organizational citizenship. Each of these four variables had a strong relationship with organizational self-esteem and each was in the predicted direction.

There are a number of limitations to this investigation that we should be sensitive to. The data from this study is not longitudinal in nature. We have not tested true "cause and effect" relationships. This can only be done with longitudinal data and fairly sophisticated attempts to manipulate our causal variables (i.e., the independent variables), control for the influence of extraneous variables, and observe the influence that the independent variables have upon the dependent variables. It is clear that this study is based entirely upon the measurement of hypothesized independent and dependent variables at a single point in time and a statistical inspection of the relationship between these variables. Future research should be directed toward the observation of the development and changes in organizational self-esteem as work environment factors are changes (something more like the work of Pierce et al., 1985).

A second cautionary note revolves around the nature of the data that we were working with. Most of the major statistical observations that were reported derive from the measurement of both the independent variable and the dependent variable from employee self-reports. Some of the observed variance is likely to be a function of that fact that the same method was employed for both sets of data.

Finally, future research should attempt to ascertain whether or not organizational self-esteem has any significant relationship with a number of different employee behavioral variables. This investigation treated employee attitudes as the primary dependent variable correlate of self-esteem. It would be interesting to know whether or not employee performance, work attendance, citizenship behaviors, strike behavior, and whistle blowing have a meaningful relationship to the employee's state of organization-based self-image.

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Table 1

ASPA/CCH STUDY DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	# ITEMS	ALPHA	MEAN	STDEV	n
Organizational commitment	9	92	4.93	1.31	131
Organizational citizenship	8	71	5.10	.74	133
Variety	5	85	3.37	.84	130
Autonomy	6	76	3.85	.67	131
Use of valued skills & abil	3	82	3.65	.95	130
Significance	3	75	3.91	.78	132
Co. identification satisf	5	89	3.18	.78	133
Experienced meaningfulness	4	72	5.39	1.12	133
Experienced responsibility	6	75	5.81	.94	133
Participation in unit decs	6	94	2.82	1.31	132
Employee-mgmt cohesions	7	85	4.59	1.30	131
Supervisory trust	9	81	4.98	1.00	130
Management trust	6	88	4.66	1.31	135
General job satisfaction	3	91	4.36	.63	135
Leader initiating structure	10	83	3.31	.57	132
Leader consideration	10	79	3.68	.61	131
Organiz-mgmt dependability	5	84	4.39	1.27	134
Leader supportive behavior	7	91	4.77	1.28	132
Org self-esteem	10	97	5.33	1.29	130
Job centrality	4	N.A.	7.32	5.05	133
Mach	20	.43	2.57	.39	45
Capacity for lship	2	r=.36	2.86	.70	45
Human resource centrality	1	N.A.	4.87	1.40	45
Satisfaction with employees	5	68	4.05	.47	45
Trust in employees	10	85	2.51	.40	45
Tolerance of empl dec partic	12	91	3.36	.71	45

Table 2

ANTECEDENT OF ORGANIZATIONAL SELF-ESTEEM - CORRECTIONS

Proposed Antecedents	OSE
Leader behaviors:	
leader consideration behavior	.55**
leader supportive behaviors	.62**
leader initiating structures	.43**
Job/work conditions	
skill variety	.22**
autonomy	.51**
significance	.28**
value of skills and abilities	.50**
experienced meaningfulness	.53**
experienced responsibility	.33**
participation in unit decisions	.17*
job centrality	.24**
General climate conditions	
mgmt-empl cohesiveness	.48**
trust in supervision	.58**
trust in management	.71**
org/mgmt dependability	.60**
Leader attitudes	
satisfaction with employees	.18*
capacity for self	-.24**
direction/control empl dec participation	-.05
human resource centrality	-.01
machiavellianism	.03
trust of employees	.00

* $P < .05$

** $P < .01$

Table 3

MULTIPLE REGRESSIONS: ANTECEDENT VARIABLES

Antecedent Sets

	R	R2	F	SIG
Leader behavior	64	41	28.15	.000
Job/work conditions	67	45	11.67	.000
Job characteristics	60	36	22.81	.000
General climate conditions	75	56	39.08	.000
Leader attitudes	45	21	1.25	.238

Table 4

OUTCOME OF ORGANIZATIONAL SELF-ESTEEM - CORRECTIONS

Proposed Outcomes	OSE
Organizational commitment	
Organizational citizenship	.37**
Organizational identification satisfaction	.62**
Satisfaction	
general	.42**
job	.61**

Figure 1

Determinants of Organization Climate

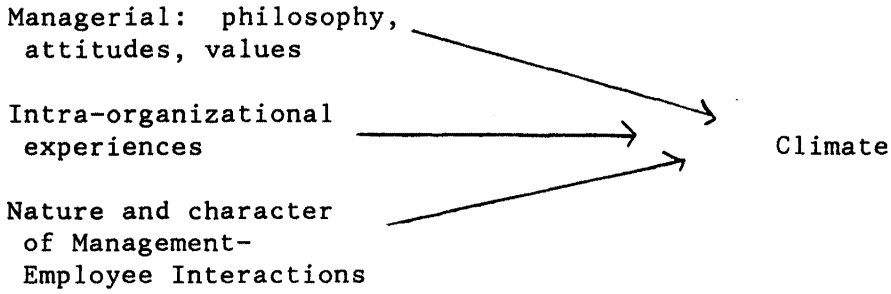

Figure 2

Determinants of self-esteem

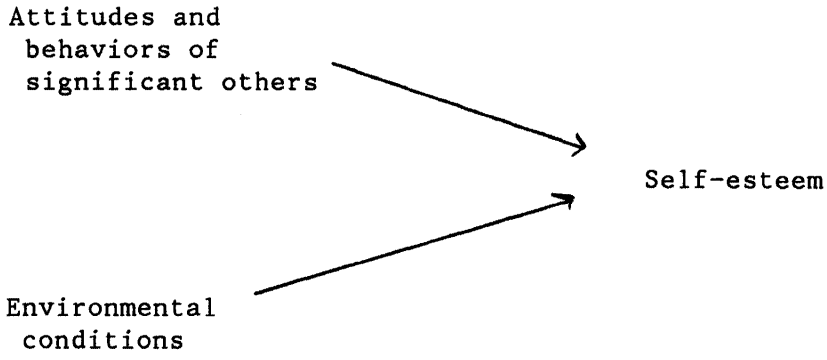

Figure 3

Determinants of Climate and Employee Self-image

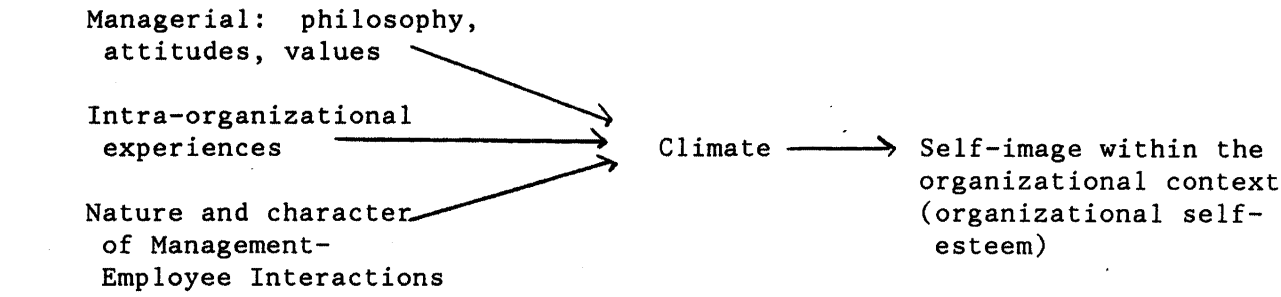

Figure 4

Outcomes of Organizational Self-Esteem