Empowerment and Coworker Response to Leader Tactic and Organizational Hope

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Socio-cognitive approaches to leadership study remain the front-runner in research; this study presents a model, which shows the quality of coworker exchange and organizational hope significantly influence workplace empowerment. The mode clearly presents the power of reciprocal behavior from leader influence tactic and statistical significance of coworker exchange quality, which responds as an influence multiplier for organizational hope. The follower’s perception of a leader is shown to affect the characterization image held by the follower and the conclusions drawn of the leader and by the leader. The nature of leadership is analyzed to reveal an environment type that is conducive to workplace empowerment so that work is optimized and goals exceeded. Coworker social exchange is poised through the studied model as a cognitive constructed influence emerging through the follower’s implicit image. The nature of the memory-held image emerged unnoticed by the member from an information processing perspective based on past situational trait patterns. The reciprocal nature of the leader-follower relationship and coworker exchange is shown to mediate and moderate organizational relationships such that emancipation of control occurs through an empowered work force.

As work in teams, permanent and temporary, continue to evolve Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, and Gibson (2004) acknowledge that the role of leader behavior developed through what Lewin (1943) argued as tendencies of leader domination and submission and to large extent shaped through social changes within the organization hold importance as truisms for the follower as well as the leader. Lewin, (1944) first wrote of the contradictions of leadership referring to criticism and watch over leader power such that behavior is defined here as discretionary with an intention to benefit the organization or the individual. Perhaps owing to habits of action and of thinking Lewin advanced that the inclinations of the person are closely related to ideology and expectation. Beyond leader tendencies, Stogdill’s (1950) castigating argument concerning obstinacy of adequate definition of leadership as a conscionable application endures in vague obscurity removed from connectedness of theory and practice. To this end, this paper takes Stogdill’s classic definition of leadership, considered as a process of influence, and undertakes to develop a model of convergence between theory and application.

As an individual’s self-identity is based on how they perceive their identity by (or through?) the social identities of others or what others think of them, which contrasts with social identity, argued by Lord, Brown, and Freiberg (1999) as an individual’s determination of their relationships with others that is the reciprocal feelings experienced
by the person about their social relationships. Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996) acknowledging general research (e.g. Diensch & Liden, 1986: Hutchison, Sowa, Eisenberger, & Huntington 1986; Lau & Liden, 2008) suggest that positive actions by an organization toward employees contribute to the quality of individual exchanges. Recent research by Blanchard, Welbourne, Gilmore, and Bullock (2009) showed attachment, coworker trust, optimism, and resilience result in individual social identity and others (e.g. Ferres, Connell, & Travaglione, 2004; Youssef & Luthans, 2007), advanced identity through reciprocity in relationships. Shondrick & Lord (2010) take a divergent view asserting that the leader-follower interactional dynamic process is too ambiguous and complex to preclude ability to determine the causal effects of leader or follower behavior consequently thwarting social identity theory development. Ludema, Wilmot, and Srivastava (1997) upheld the critical nature of research requires methodology that delves beyond existing epistemological rhetoric and toward extending construct development. The argument presented here suggests leadership exists for the hope and purpose that work activities achieve organizational goals. This paper further develops the construct of organizational hope, through the context of workplace empowerment resulting from coworker exchange response to the leader’s influence tactic behavior.

Conceptual Background and Hypotheses

This paper considers the influence of leader behavior on coworker exchange (CWX) and CWX as a moderator on the relationship between organizational milieu and follower perceived empowerment depicted by the model in Figure 1. Through a methodology design to determine the relationship between hypothesized causal leader behavior variables and moderating criteria as proposed by Howell, Dorfman, and Kerr (1986). Additionally, a lack of taxonomy acknowledged by Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) borne out of the ambiguity between leadership constructs and behavior (Yukl 2006) hinders theory development. Thus an overarching purpose for this work is to show convergence of theory and application—a lack of which Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) laments that for its importance, the narrow focus through the tomes of extant research confines readership predominantly to psychologists.

The thesis here maintains that the leader’s selected core influence behavior (CIB) tactic (see Yukl, Falbe, & Youn, 1993) bears an influence on the pattern and quality of worker relationships within the organization as depicted in Figure 1, where coworker exchange (CWX) mediates organizational hope and moderates the relationship between organizational hope and workplace empowerment. Similar to Graen and Uhl-Bien’s (1994) supposition of leadership model, whose focus includes the follower’s domain (workplace empowerment) or models of behavioral approach of the leader and relationship (member exchange), and the adaptive nature of the organization’s processes, which may emerge as the adaptive and connective phenomenon of the leader-follower relationship to organizational response (Offermann, Kennedy & Wirtz, 1994). Offermann et al. point to the importance of reaching beyond the theory of mere existence and looking

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toward understanding the content and structure of the way leaders are viewed and the way change occurs within the organization’s environment as a result.

The social cognitive theory suggests that personal determinants central to the causal role include vicarious, self-regulating, and self-reflective processes (Wood and Bandura, 1991). The individual reflective process, consequently facilitates reciprocal behavior through mastery in modeling, which Wood and Bandura argue nurture individual beliefs and capabilities. Reciprocity in relationship with the organization, Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2003) reason, creates mutual-interest reported by followers and their managers as a positive influence in their relationship quality and these higher quality relationships supported higher perceptions of organizational support. Lord, Brown, and Freiberg (1999) compares with Choi and Mai-Dalton (1999) regarding the dynamic and reciprocal follower behavior and favorable subordinate perceptions that improve performance. Brown, Travino, and Harrison (2005) advance the social learning perspective of leadership modeling legitimizes the capture of follower attention so that attentiveness between coworkers is influenced. The primary objective of this work was to link the leader’s core influence behavior and coworker exchange as the member’s reciprocal response to the organization’s culture, which influences workplace empowerment. It is hypothesized that the intuitions or perception of shared values in work foster shared effort and collaboration indicative of empowered organizations.

Core Leader Influence Behavior and Coworker Exchange

Yukl (2006) cautions that the leader tactic of using coercive power to invoke compliance in the face of consequence may not work or may even arouse anger in the unintimidated follower who believes a way around compliance is possible. Leader behavior carries an element of implicit inspiration with a contagious nature. Whiteley, Sy, and Johnson (2012) suggests a naturally occurring Pygmalion effect between leaders’ high performance expectation and the implicit expectation of followers and the reciprocal behavior of those followers (Offermann, Kennedy & Wirtz, 1994). Current research (e.g. Sy, 2010; Whiteley, Sy, & Johnson, 2012) acknowledges that the cognitive implicit view of followers by leaders and likewise the follower’s implicit ideas of leader behavior is influenced by leader choice in behavior tactic (Cable & Judge, 2003; Yukl & Tracey, 1992; Yukl, Fable, & Youn, 1993).

H1: Higher employee reported leader core influence behavior scores will have a positive effect on employee exchange quality with their coworker
Studies of follower education level as a predictor of leader influence tactics is nearly absent from the literature. In an investigation of transformational and transactional behavior and influence tactics Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin, and Marx (2007) advance that followers with higher levels of education preferred a less structured form of leadership style. Barbuto et al. studied education separate from other demographic variables (e.g. gender; age) finding the leader’s level of education produced a significant effect on the follower’s perception of transformational behavior, which contrasts with Barbuto et al. finding that the leader’s level of education had no significant effect on follower perception of leader influence tactics. Judge, Ilies, Bono, and Gerhardt (2002) suggested caution in addressing the issue of demographic correlation in research arguing that past research shows a prominence in leadership influence of effectiveness as assessed by subordinates. Thus, Judge et al. argues the concept that the leader traits of previous research may contrast with follower perceptions concerning leader behavior influence in outcome causation. Yukl, Seifert, and Chavez (2008) suggest that the education of followers should have no effect on the Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ) responses used to measure follower perception of leader tactics. It is argued here that follower commitment to carry out the leader’s request is fundamental to organizational performance. Yukl et al. suggests the Core Influence Behavior (CIB) tactics of the IBQ including rational persuasion, consultation, inspirational appeals, and collaboration are most likely to elicit follower obligation. Barbuto, Fritz, and Marx (2002) argue higher levels of education across a sample limit generalizability of the study. Similarly, Fu and

Figure 1. Pathway of Leader Core Influence Behavior on workplace empowerment. The mediation effect of CIB (as suggested in Yukl & Tracey, 1992) on coworker exchange (CWX) and the moderating effect of CWX on the relationship between organizational hope and workplace empowerment as studied.
Yukl (2000) note that higher levels of education within an American sample had essentially no effect on leader influence tactics as other researchers (e.g. Deem, Hillyard, & Reed, 2007) suggests knowledge worker education levels influence leader behavior, thus it is expected that:

\[ H2: \text{The follower’s education level will have an inverse effect on the follower reported CIB rating for inspiration such that as the follower’s education level increases reported use of the CIB inspirational tactics will decrease.} \]

The complexity of leadership influence behavior and distinctness of power and influence behavior constructs remain not very well understood (Yukl, 2006). Yukl argues the leader’s power exists with the capacity to influence others without the leader’s intent to do so. This is important knowledge for the organizational leader. Douglas, Martin, and Krapels (2006) suggest that a follower’s perception of the leader’s influence tactic affects the success of organizational tactic occurrences, such as change. Previous research of such narrow focus as the effectiveness of a single tactic and most often, according to Yukl and Tracey (1992) is limited to a tactic’s influence upward, hence when the influence has the least effect (e.g. upward influence) it falters in adequately measuring the construct of coworker exchange. Development of leader influence behavior, until very recently, remained fixated on direction of influence, type of influence tactic combined toward particular outcome goals, or leader effectiveness. The influence tactics used by the leader transcends the organizational structure-reaching superiors, peers, and subordinates thus the consequence for how people relate, even to the character of the workforce (Cable & Judge, 2003). It is argued that leader influence, which has a positive effect on the quality of coworker relations, transcends the organizations through an empowered workplace, such that:

\[ H3: \text{Higher coworker exchange quality has a positive influence on employee ratings of empowerment.} \]

Organizational Hope

Peterson (2000) advances hope on Snyder’s (1994) supposition that hope exposes through expectation and agency then is revealed as optimism. Peterson acknowledges that hope emerges through an individual’s expectation that goals are achievable through agency as a person’s determination and through a person’s beliefs in plans generated to achieve the goal, which operates as a pathway. Snyder (2002) found that people could readily identify daily goals and held “enduring, self-referential thought as to pathway and capacity to find requisite motivation for these goal pursuits” (p. 250). Snyder derives a trilogy of concepts—goals, pathways, and agency—in defining hope. Shaped by these connective relationships, which from a macro perspective develops from the structures and practices of individual intrinsic motivation, that Conger and Kanugo (1988) suggests play a crucial role in group development and maintenance. Keller (2000) advanced the leader trait or

Helland and Winston (2005) acknowledge the role of hope in member satisfaction and as an emerging concept and key variable for leadership. Hope as a factor in human capital when present, which Ludema, Wilmot, and Srivastva (1997) presuppose amongst an array of description and understanding consists of the following four enduring qualities:

1. Born in a relationship
2. Inspired by the conviction that the future is open and can be influenced
3. Sustained by dialogue about human ideals, and
4. Generative of positive effect and action (p. 1030).

Ludema, Wilmot, and Srivastva (1997) proposed hope operative with a multiplicative nature capable of achieving mutuality in relationship, and thus important in organizational research. The mutuality of hope Ludema et al. recognize as a binding force, which allows the merging of self-interests with the interests of others such that relationships develop as participatory forces. When hope prevails through an organization, member effectiveness is influenced.

H4: High level of organizational hope perceived by followers will have a positive influence on CWX quality coworker exchange.

Workplace Empowerment

Recent popular press (e.g. Marquet, 2012) argues strongly that empowerment is an act of control when granted to followers as permission to proceed. Marquet argues that it is through the leader’s release of control that emancipation results and facilitates true follower empowerment and the ensuing extra effort. Similarly, Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, and Avolio (2010) suggest that leaders matter as they create the organizational culture and the practices that determine the level of involvement by followers in the decision making process. Walumbwa et al. argue the degree of shared values and ideas with leaders positively influence feeling of authentic hope and thus empowerment. Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) acknowledged when empowered employees drew together extra effort increased overall unit synergy and Hartline and Ferrell (1996) advance research that the effort exuded by empowered employees promulgated a quality-laden vision.

H5: Higher ratings of hope will positively influence workplace empowerment.
H6: Coworker exchange moderates the relationship between organizational hope and workplace empowerment, such that the effect of organizational hope on workplace empowerment is higher when CWX is greater.

H6a: There is an interaction between Coworker exchange and organizational hope in predicting workplace empowerment such that hope will be more predictive of workplace empowerment when CWX quality is higher.

The social construction of followership emerges when a leader infers a group to be his or her followers or when in accord with other individuals view themselves as followers and as led by a leader (Shondrick & Lord, 2010). The relationship between leader performance and leader expectations for follower performance in a reciprocation of social exchanges as shown by others (e.g. Uhl Bein & Maslyn, 2002; Whitely, Sy, & Johnson, 2012) and influenced by self-regulation and self-reflection (Brown, Trevino, & Harrison, 2005) and empowerment is high (Bandura, 1991). Leaders do many things to promote the organization’s practices (Yukl, 2006). Included in Yukl’s protocol of practices are acts of leader service to followers that include vision development consistency between espoused values and behavior, transparency in actions, and coaching or mentoring to develop followers. Through this array of practices, follower centricity is clear.

Method

Within health systems accessibility across functions through interorganizational exchanges are essential to goal attainment. Within the health organization, Levine and White (1961) advance the existing varying types of relations offer an opportunity to examine interorganizational relationship patterns. Influencing the employee and developing commitment according to Yukl (2006) are important determinants to leader effectiveness in achieving success. Leader-member exchanges are well studied as a model grounded in role theory (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen, Novak, & Sommerekamp, 1982), interpersonal attributes (Phillips & Bedeian, 1994), and citizenship behavior, networks, and partnership (see Graen & Uhl-Bein, 1995). The social construction of followership emerges when a leader infers a group to be his or her followers or when in accord with other individuals view themselves as followers and as led by a leader (Shondrick & Lord, 2010). Within the social construct LMX, Phillips and Bedeian suggests leader relationships with followers are individualistic depending on the implicit and explicit ideas of the follower on the part of the leader concerning the follower, however, interest is emerging (Sherony & Green, 2002; Wikaningrum, 2007) regarding coworker exchange.

Sample

The study focused on the interorganizational relationships of a healthcare delivery system, a mid-sized hospital involved with multiple acuity levels of inpatient and outpatient care. The participants volunteered to complete self-report surveys.
administered through FluidSurveys version 4.0 with order of items maintained and developed as a single instrument to reduce likeliness of participant exiting between surveys. For organizational units, which did not provide access to email, the survey was replicated in paper format and handed out with a short instruction sheet.

For this study of four categorical variables a minimum of 80 participant responses (Pallant, 2010) were sought. The responding participant was asked to reply that they were over 18 and currently employed at the facility as a full-time (greater than 20 hours per week) associate, supervisor/manager, or director. Seven general demographic questions captured information for position, education, years of service with the organization, years in the profession, gender, age, and job licensure.

A total 194 surveys were returned from volunteer participants of patient care units including the emergency department, intensive care unit, general medical unit, and cardiac care unit. As well, volunteer participants of support ancillary departments including endoscopy, medical laboratory, radiology, and the catheterization lab. Of the 194 returned surveys, 127 were mostly complete with only a spotted occasional missing reply. Two completed surveys from support individuals not involved with patient care within the same structure as the other participants were removed from the sample. A total working sample of 125 was found an acceptable response with this 4-variable model (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatam, 2006) and sufficient to proceed with the study.

**Measures**

The target version (see Seifert & Yukl, 2010) of the Influence Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ) (Yukl & Fable, 1990) was used similar to the procedure used by Yukl, Siefert, and Chavez (2008) taking 16 items from the 4-core subscale (IBQ-Core), which Yukl et al. argued as mutually compatible subscales when used in same influence attempt. The four subscales make up rational (e.g. explains why a proposed project or change would be practical and cost effective); inspirational (e.g. talks about ideals and values when proposing a new activity or change); collaboration (e.g. offers to help with a task that he/she wants you to carry out); consultation (e.g. asks you to suggest things you could do to help him/her achieve a task objective or resolve a problem. Previous research (Cable & Judge, 2003; Chong, 2014; Yukl & Tracey, 1992) report consistent alpha coefficients ranging between .68 (Yukl & Tracey, 1992) and .91 (Chong, 2004). Correlation reliability of the whole scale as used through several tests showed high Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .85.

Correlation coefficients taken among the studies variables will be tested for inter-item reliability referred to by Girden (2001) as precision of measurement through analysis of consistency in yielding a true response. With negligible previous use of the IBQ-Core scale suitability of data was performed through factor analysis prior to proceeding with the principle component analysis (PCA). Evaluation of the correlation matrix revealed
the presence of many coefficients greater than .3 and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin of .827 exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Pallant 2010) and reached statistical significance thus supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The PCA revealed the presence of three components exceeding an eigenvalue > 1, oblimin rotation (Kaiser 1960) explaining 62.5%, 10.47%, and 6.95% of the variance respectively. The scree plot revealed a clear break after the second component using the results of a Parallel Analysis, which confirmed only two components with eigenvalues exceeding the corresponding criterion values for randomly generated data of the same.

The two-component oblimin rotation solution explained 72.4% of the variance with the component 1 contributing 57.8% and component 2 contributing 14.6%. To help with interpretation a oblimin rotation (see table 1 for complete pattern and structure coefficients) was performed to reveal both components with strong loadings and all variables loading between the two factors with a weak correlation (r = -.06) these results support the use of the core Influence Behavior Questionnaire items as suggested by the scale authors (Yukl & Tracey, 1992).

Coworker exchange quality was measured with the LMX-7 developed similar to how others (e.g. Hays & Lau, 2012; Sherony & Green, 2002) have with rephrasing the 7-item scale to reflect the coworker relationship (CWX) with an additional question similar to Sherony and Green to provide a 1-item rating of the member’s perceived relationship with their immediate supervisor. Use of the LMX-7 reworded for CWX has gained interest in use (e.g. Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Sherony & Green, 2002) and the alpha for the total LMX-7 has been reported at .91 with Sherony and Green recording a .92 with the reworded CWX instrument.

With insignificant previous use of the CWX version of the LMX-7 and only one instance (Seifert & Yukl) found supporting the use of the LMX with the IBQ a factor analysis was performed. Proceeding with the PCA with a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin of .803 exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Pallant 2010) and reached statistical significance, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. The PCA revealed the presence of three components exceeding an eigenvalue > 1, oblimin rotation (Kaiser 1960) explaining 49.65%, 11.31%, and 9.29% of the variance respectively. The two-component Oblimin Rotation solution explained 68.58% of the variance with component 1 contributing 51.5% and component 2 contributing 17.08%. To help with interpretation an oblimin rotation (see table 2 for complete pattern and structure coefficients) was performed to reveal both components with strong loadings and all variables loading between the two factors with a weak correlation (r = .28) the results support the use of the Coworker Exchange (CWX) items as suggested by the scale authors (Sherony and Green, 2002).
however, in epidemiologic theory and perhaps better suited for the study of patterns and effects of health in defined populations and untested within the context of work organizations. The model developed here operationalizes hope through the Snyder et al. (1991) 12-item scale. This scale is well-tested and empirically shown with Cronbach’s alphas ranging from .74 to .84 (whole scale), .71 to .76 (agency subscale), and .63 to .80 (pathways subscale), thus with no adjustments to the scale and as advanced by Snyder et al. (1991) scales with internal reliabilities of .70 to .80 are acceptable for research purposes. Previous research has shown team types with different performance types linking performance to permanent as well as temporary teams (Cohen and Bailey, 1997). Team empowerment was assessed using the Kirkman and Rosen (1999) shortened to 12 items similar to Kirkman, Rosen, Tesluk, and Gibson (2004). Kirkman et al. examined validity of the scale through principal component analysis using one-factor confirmatory factor analysis combining to a single factor scale. Additionally, Kirkman et al. through one-way analysis of variance ensured variance within teams were greater than between teams. With empirical support of across team inter-rater agreement ranging between .84 and .99 the scale was used without further factor analysis. Prior to data analysis, the measures of this study were tested for reliability within the population. Table 3 shows Pearson r correlation results with significant relationship between many of the variables with significant correlation between core leader influence and the co-worker exchange variables, as well as between empowerment and hope but negatively correlated with rational persuasion. Demographic variable education level is significantly negatively related to core leader influence and to the department variable.

Table 1:
Pattern and Structure Matrix for PCA with Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization Two Factor Solution of Core LIB Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Pattern Matrix</th>
<th>Structure Matrix</th>
<th>Communalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Component 1</td>
<td>Component 2</td>
<td>Component 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Insp propose</td>
<td>0.139</td>
<td>-0.667</td>
<td>0.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Collab offer help</td>
<td>0.829</td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>0.826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3 Collab offer to show</td>
<td>0.892</td>
<td>0.041</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1 Conslt get ideas</td>
<td>0.908</td>
<td>-0.027</td>
<td>0.909</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2 Conslt encourage</td>
<td>0.928</td>
<td>-0.007</td>
<td>0.928</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2:
Coworker Exchange Pattern and Structure Matrix for PCA with Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization Two Factor Solution of Core LIB Items

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Pattern Matrix</th>
<th>Structure Matrix</th>
<th>Communalities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Component 1</td>
<td>Component 2</td>
<td>Component 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWX_2 stand with r</td>
<td>0.895</td>
<td>0.024</td>
<td>0.901</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWX_2.1 support coworker</td>
<td>0.905</td>
<td>-0.102</td>
<td>0.879</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWX_1 coworker potential</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td>-0.002</td>
<td>0.856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWX_3 job problems</td>
<td>0.774</td>
<td>0.107</td>
<td>0.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWX_4 coworker relationship</td>
<td>-0.102</td>
<td>0.866</td>
<td>0.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWX_7 confidence</td>
<td>0.117</td>
<td>0.614</td>
<td>0.277</td>
</tr>
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Table 3
Correlations between variables

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CWX</td>
<td>- .941**</td>
<td>.889**</td>
<td>.577**</td>
<td>0.141</td>
<td>.510**</td>
<td>.535**</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>-0.152</td>
<td>0.008</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWX MYUNIT</td>
<td>- .743**</td>
<td>.516**</td>
<td>0.116</td>
<td>.456**</td>
<td>.489**</td>
<td>0.085</td>
<td>-0.144</td>
<td>0.037</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Results

The analysis of this data is inference testing focused on the predictor variables: core leader influence behavior, coworker exchange, and organizational hope for influence on the workplace. Descriptive and inferential statistical analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22. The associates and managers in this study are part of a well-established healthcare facility. The demographics of the sample while a small percentage of the organization’s total workforce, do account for about 50 percent of the daily workforce providing direct patient care each day. It was necessary to first cross-tabulate gender and department (ancillary or registered nurse) demographics of participants to determine associates that work nursing within the hospital’s patient care units and those that provide patient care as ancillary (i.e. radiology; clinical laboratory; respiratory), which influence response bias. Table 4 shows a good balance of 69 ancillary participants and 55 registered nurses response bias through work differences therefore was considered minimal. For the present study, with significant difference in male (16) and female (108) sample gender exists. An examination for goodness of fit through chi-square was accomplished to establish goodness of fit of department level participants, which indicates no significant difference in the proportion of survey variable for character of supervisor relationship, $\chi^2 (1, n = 124) = 1.96, p = .16$. Finding no significant difference in mean for responses it was decided to focus group response difference between registered nurse employees and ancillary support employees for all group level analyses. To examine the effect of response bias Table 5 shows the results of paired t-test with a relatively high level of agreement between peers and leaders. Similar to the technique used by Seifert and Yukl (2010) agreement of scores is justification for aggregating scores for group-level analysis.
Hypothesis 1 states that when employees rate the core influence behavior of their supervisor higher CWX will be higher as well. Hypothesis 1 was tested through hierarchical regression, which Hill and Lewicki (2006) advance an appropriate test to examine the change predicted in the Y variable for changes in X when other independent variables are held constant. Specific regression analysis is determined for structure analysis according to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatam (2006) and identifies how the latent variables within a model relate to each other. Azen and Budescu (2003) discuss that multiple regressions predict response values from selected predictors. To explore the relationship between the dependent variable coworker exchange and leader influence behavior hierarchical regression was accomplished. At step 1, controls for education, age, and department (Chong, 2014) were entered and assessed at 13.3% of the variance in core influence behavior. After entry of CWX in unit and support unit was added at step 2 and with the 3 controls accounted 37.6% of the whole model variance, $F (5, 53) = 6.4, \ p < .0005$ in influence behavior explaining an additional 24% of model variance in leader core influence behavior. At step, 3 the total CWX was added accounting for a total model variance of 51%. The final model after controlling for age, education, and department $F$ change $(1, 52) = 14.24, \ p < .0005$. Table 6 shows the final model beta contribution and significance supporting H1.

Table 5
Influence tactic score
and type target

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Peer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rational Persuasion</td>
<td>14.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational Appeal</td>
<td>13.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>13.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>13.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composite core tactics</td>
<td>50.92</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Leader

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rational Persuasion</th>
<th>15</th>
<th>4.71</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational Appeal</td>
<td>12.6</td>
<td>3.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>13.13</td>
<td>4.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>14.13</td>
<td>2.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Composite core tactics</td>
<td>51.8</td>
<td>13.29</td>
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Table 6

Predictors of Leader Core Influence Behavior

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>β</td>
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<tr>
<td>CWX_TOT</td>
<td>1.994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>CWX_SUPPORT</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Department</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.029</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.001</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.003</td>
</tr>
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Hypothesis 2 states education level of follower will have an inverse effect on the on reported leader influence behavior such that the inspiration rating decreases as rater education level increases. Recent work by Chong (2014) examined soft influence tactics on follower influence with beta significance with a slightly different influencer (inspirational, apprising, and exchange) tactics finding significance in the use of soft tactics when the phenomenon of coworker exchange is not considered. H2 only marginally supported with figure 2 showing the small mean decrease between participants with associate degrees and those with graduate degrees with the leader’s use of inspirational tactic, which contrasts with mean increase as the respondent’s education level advances from the undergraduate to graduate level of education when leader influence behavior includes relational, consulted, and collaboration. Conversely, to the decreasing effect of education on the inspirational appeal Figure 3 depicts the core leadership behavior mean with the results for relational, consulted, and collaborative influence tactics increase between the bachelors and graduate education levels following a slight decrease between associates and bachelors level education. Inspection of mean scores indicated that employees with graduate degrees reported slightly higher core leader behavior scores (M = 28.86, SD = 3.18) than bachelor degree employees (M = 22.5, SD = 4.20). Multivariate testing performed using Bonferroni adjusted alpha considered with a 3 dependent variable adjusted alpha of .017 with core influence behavior, F (1, 53) = 7.31, p = .009, with partial eta squared = .12 did not reflect significant statistical support for Hypothesis 2. There is, however, importance in this finding in increased

Figure 2 Participant responses mean comparison for level of education and leader inspirational response. As respondent education increases effect of the leader’s use of inspirational behavior decreases.
understanding how the education level affects tests of relationship between leader influence tactics on the outcome. In other words, the participant’s job context may act as a moderator to the relationship between participant education level and influence tactic, such that when congruency occurs between the level of education, job expectation, and intrinsic motivation then leader influence diminishes.

Hypothesis 3 states when coworker exchange quality across all groups of the organization is higher employee ratings of empowerment will be higher. Hypothesis 3 was tested through hierarchical regression. At step 1 controls for education, gender, and department were assessed and found to account for 13.6% of the variance in workplace empowerment. After entry of CWX unit and CWX support were added at step 2 and with the 3 controls accounted for 50.2% of the whole model variance, \( F(5, 104) = 6.99, p < .0005 \) in influence behavior explained a quality of exchange with their coworker, \( R^2 = .25 \) change (2, 104) = 16.2 \( p < .0005 \). At step 3 the total CWX was added with \( R^2 = .28 \) change (1, 103) = 4.65 \( p < .05 \). The final model supports the hypothesis with only CWX total significant (\( \text{beta} = .98, p < .05 \)). Consistent with Hays and Lau (2013) hypotheses of relationship between common jobs (e.g. healthcare) of coworkers when extending the operability to leader behavior tactic defined differently than the leader-member exchange. In other words, when coworkers perform similar tasks across functions members tend to not be influenced by leader tactics.

Hypothesis 4 states high level of organizational hope perceived by followers positively influence CWX coworker exchange. Hierarchical regression was developed and inspected at step 1 for controls for education, gender, and department were assessed at 10% of the variance in organizational hope. After entry of CWX unit and CWX support was added at step 2 and with the 3 controls accounted for 17.8% of the whole model variance, \( F(5, 104) = 6.68, p > .05 \) and insignificant in influence. \( R^2 = .03 \) change (1, 103) = .03 \( p < .05 \). At step 3 the total CWX was added with no increase in variance. Thus the final model does not support the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5 states that when hope is rated high workplace empowerment will be perceived as higher by the organization’s employees. Hierarchical regression was developed and inspected at step 1 for controls for education, gender, and department were assessed at 13.6% of the variance in workplace empowerment. The pathway hope variable was added at step 2 and with the 3 controls accounted for 31.7% of the whole model variance, \( F(5, 107) = 50.54, p < .05 \). \( R^2 = .08 \) change (2, 107) = 4.87 \( p < .0005 \). At step 3 total Hope was added with \( R^2 = .17 \) change (1, 106) = 8.6 \( p < .05 \). The final model accounts for 41% of total variance, thus supporting H5 with Hope Total recording the highest beta value (\( \text{beta} = .57, p < .01 \)) and Hope Pathway the only other significant control measure (\( \text{Beta} = -.31, p < .05 \)), such that when hope increases employee feelings of workplace empowerment increases.

Hypothesis 6 states that the effect of hope is greater on empowerment when CWX is higher. To model the moderating effect of CWX a product variable with organizational hope was created. Investigating through hierarchical regression at step one CWX Total and Hope Total is entered accounting for 58% of total variance for workplace environment of empowerment. At step 2 product variable CWX_HOPE was added to the model without any increase of model variance. Final model variance, \( F(3, 108) = 18.12, p < .0005 \) thus supporting the hypothesis that coworker exchange moderates the relationship between organizational hope and empowerment with the
variable CWX Total variable recording a higher beta value ($\beta = .53$) than Hope Total ($\beta = .32$).

Next, H6a was tested through the bootstrap approach (Preacher & Hayes, 2003; Hayes, Preacher, & Meyers, 2011) to investigate the influence effect of coworker exchange between hope and empowerment. Hayes (2009) argues bootstrapping as a modern approach to testing the inference of an intervening variable’s effects. Hayes suggests the resampling of $n$ to construct path coefficients for both $a$ and $b$, a process repeated at least 1000 times results in a bootstrap confidence interval. Figure 4 shows the direct effect of organizational hope on coworker exchange results through Hayes’ Process model as positive ($a_1 = .48$). Conversely, coworker exchange has a positive ($b_1 = .29$) and significant effect on workplace empowerment.

H6a supposes that coworker exchange mediates the relationship between organizational hope and workplace empowerment such that organizational hope has a positive influence on CWX. Figure 4A shows the total effect indicating that the greater the organization hope, the greater the workplace empowerment ($R^2 = .13$), with coworker exchange as mediator in Figure 4B shows the drop in the direct effect as organizational hope decreases.

Table 7 shows the lower and upper confidence interval for organizational hope via the mediation of coworker exchange. As the effect of organizational hope decreases via the coworker exchange it may result in partial mediation, however, the insignificant influence of organizational hope on coworker exchange as shown in Figure 4B does not support hypothesis H6a. Healthcare associates (i.e. nurses; cardiovascular technicians; respiratory technicians) often respond as a team during emergency events, however, these associates act independently through the processes of routine tasks. Thus, there is minimal daily activity, through which these employees have an opportunity to form deep meaningful coworker relationships.

Table 7

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total effect of ORGHOPE on EMPOWER</th>
<th>Direct effect of ORGHOPE on EMPOWER</th>
<th>Indirect effect of ORGHOPE on EMPOWER</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coefficient</td>
<td>t value (bootstrap)</td>
<td>Coefficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coefficient</td>
<td>t value (bootstrap)</td>
<td>95% confidence interval</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coefficient</td>
<td>t value (bootstrap)</td>
<td>Lower</td>
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<tr>
<td>Coefficient</td>
<td>t value (bootstrap)</td>
<td>Upper</td>
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<tr>
<td>0.76**</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.62**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.76**</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>-0.052</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total $a_1b_1 + a_2b_2$
Conclusion and Discussion

Recent popular press (e.g., Marquet, 2012) argues strongly that empowerment is an act of control when granted to followers as permission to proceed. Marquet provisions through the leader’s release of control emancipation results and facilitates true follower empowerment and the ensuing extra effort. Similarly, Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, and Avolio (2010) suggest that leaders matter as they create the organizational culture and the practices that determine the level of involvement by followers in the decision-making process.

As a psychological state, empowerment is seen by Spreitzer (1995) as the competence and individual belief in self-capabilities, which influence the degree to which an individual impacts operating outcomes and others (e.g., Kanungo, 1992) presuppose that followers who feel hope exists in their ability to cope with the outcomes feel more empowered. Kanugo goes on to argue that empowered followers (members) have a reciprocal property, which develops as workplace empowerment when the environment is developed. Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) acknowledged when empowered employees drew together extra effort ensued and overall unit synergy increased. Hartline and Ferrell (1996) advance research that the effort exuded by empowered employees promulgated a quality-laden vision. As has been shown through this important research, leader behavior influences follower hope and manifests as an empowered workplace.

Emerging interest in leader behavior concerns the effect of this behavior on the follower. Until recently, organizational goals focused on the process of leadership in pursuit of increased productivity, efficiency, or competitive strategy. Now we swing to narrow the interest and examine causal paths of coworker response to the leader’s influence behavior pattern. Specifically, the interest is in the opening of paths of opportunity within the organization’s environment.

Socio-cognitive approaches to leadership study remain the front-runner in current practical studies. The model’s approach here concerned the character of the leader’s behavior and the result of leadership’s nature on coworker relations and the workplace environment. This is to assert that this study emerged from the information-processing perspective of the followers’ feelings about the influence behavior of their leadership and their coworkers. The implicit phenomena of tendency and action maybe unknown to the individual—rather it is shown here that change occurs effortlessly through the Pygmalion effect of leader/coworker behavior when the organizational environment extends a standard of follower-focused leadership.

H6a = a1b1
(via CWX)

1000 bootstrap samples. ** p < .0005
A desire to show the power of leader behavior, hope in the organization, and coworker exchange to influence workplace empowerment motivated this study. To extend the central work started here future studies working from a framework of positive organizational psychology is needed to develop theory of pathways of hope within organizations. While this study extends extant literature for implicit leadership, the reciprocal nature of leadership, and investigation of the emergence of the leadership process, future work should test hope in a variety of contexts. A scale for causal paths of hope and tests of agency is needed to conjoin behaviors of individuals of an organization such that true transcendence of culture might be evaluated. Previous study consists of high volumes of work analyzing traits, paths, situations, or motivation, or submerged within certain theory (e.g. authentic leadership), from which this analysis diverges and delves into an investigation of the environment. Organization change and follower expectations of leaders deserve a deeper look in highly innovative and knowledge organizations. The emergence of leaderless teams and the relationship between coworker exchange and differing contexts of leader influence behavior provide a framework for this important need in the study of the leadership process.

About the Author

Larry Phillips is a Ph.D. student at Regent University, where he is studying organizational leadership with interest in discovering how power structures influence knowledge development across organizational cultures. He also has more than 20 years of leadership experience in military, manufacturing, and healthcare operations.

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