



Peer-Reviewed Article

Agile Anarchism: Implications for Software Development Teams in Academic Libraries

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ABSTRACT

In the evolving landscape of academic libraries, the convergence of Agile methodologies and anarchistic principles offers a novel framework for software development teams. This paper explores how the ethos of anarchism, characterized by the absence of centralized authority and hierarchical structures, aligns with the flexibility, autonomy, and collaborative nature of Agile practices. By examining the application of these principles in North American academic libraries, this study highlights the potential for enhanced job satisfaction, innovative leadership practices, and a more participatory work environment. This research invites a rethinking of conventional assumptions about authority and cooperation, suggesting that the integration of Agile and anarchistic principles can foster more resilient, adaptive, and empowered teams in the context of academic libraries.

KEYWORDS

Agile, Anarchism, Software Development

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Introduction

In the dynamic landscape of academic libraries, the intersection of Agile methodologies and anarchistic principles presents a compelling avenue for reimagining software development practices. Embracing the ethos of anarchism, software development teams are poised to navigate the complexities of academic library environments with flexibility, autonomy, and adaptability.

Athletes who are physically nimble, quick, coordinated, and capable of making movements in response to changing situations on the field or court are referred to as being agile. A person who is quick-witted and able to think on their feet is also often called mentally agile. Agile is also a software development approach that emphasizes flexibility, collaboration, nimbleness, and centering the user.

Anarchism is variably described as chaotic or disorderly, a challenge to the achievement of stability. The absence of centralized authority and hierarchical structures while promoting voluntary cooperation and consensus-based decision making also characterizes anarchism. The Oxford English Dictionary defines anarchism as “a political philosophy based on the belief that society is best organized according to voluntary cooperation, without any form of governing authority or hierarchy” (anarchism, n., sense 2, 2023).

Libraries are centers of learning, community engagement, and cultural enrichment. They are known for their organized and structured environments, where books and other materials are typically classified by standard vocabulary and arranged systematically, making it easy for users to discover, locate, and use specific resources.

Connecting Agile, anarchism, and libraries may seem like an unusual project. This paper aims to draw connections across these variegated domains by considering the principles and values that underlie each of them. The connections will be further explored through empirical evidence from a survey of software development teams based at North American academic libraries. Insights into team-based software development and implications for leadership practices related to job satisfaction will be examined. This paper stipulates agile anarchism as an approach that rejects rigid hierarchies and managerial control in favor of self-organizing teams that use iterative, adaptive methods to build software collaboratively. It contributes to the conversation about the future of work and invites readers to reconsider conventional assumptions about participatory and sustainable forms of organization.

Literature Review

Libraries have proved adept at meeting changing user behavior and attendant demands for content access by adopting and/or developing a wide range of technologies. By the 1970s, card catalogs began to be supplanted by computer-based automated systems, known as the integrated library system (ILS). Libraries began using the internet and the World Wide Web in

the 1990s for organizing access to remotely accessible databases. Networked access enabled libraries to serve as central points of discovery and access for remote users. Agile methodologies have been variously applied and have shown to be successful in many library contexts from website design (Harden & Ajamie, 2020) to broader organizational project management (Stoddard et al., 2019). We also see agile project management specifically applied in the library digital collections. Drawing on workflows implemented at the University of Maryland, Dohe and Pike (2018) and Dulock and Long (2015) explore practical project management techniques and strategies that can be incorporated into library digital initiatives. Capturing the ideological sentiment of Agile for software development in the early 21st century, Beck et al (2001) published the Manifesto for Agile Software Development declaring:

We are uncovering better ways of developing software by doing it and helping others do it. Through this work we have come to value:

- Individuals and interactions over processes and tools
- Working software over comprehensive documentation
- Customer collaboration over contract negotiation
- Responding to change over following a plan (para. 1).

In short, Agile development practices aimed to be highly cooperative, flexibly planned, elevating a promise for transparency while centering on personal interactions.

In the context of software development methodologies, Agile is frequently operationalized through the Scrum framework. The Scrum Team commits to achieving its goals and to supporting each other through the work of what is called a Sprint. Sprints are timebound and work products are prioritized by the team based on a set of mutually identified user-focused features and tasks. The Scrum team typically holds daily stand-up meetings to discuss progress and challenges. Importantly, as outlined in *The Scrum Primer*, “at the beginning of each Sprint, a cross-functional team selects items...[and] commits to complete the items by the end of the Sprint” (Deemer, 2013. pg. 3). Accountability and diversity are part and parcel of the approach.

Embedded in these Agile and Scrum methodological approaches is the idea of autonomy. Hackman and Oldham explain job autonomy as “the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling the work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out” (Hackman & Oldham, 1975, p. 162). Morgeson and Humphrey (2006) emphasize that work method autonomy means choosing the ways of working and exercising control over work sequencing and scheduling. A closely allied term, strategic autonomy, enables “a team to not only solve problems, but to actually define the problem and the goals that will be met in order to solve that problem” (Lumpkin, 2009, p. 50).

Empowering Autonomy

The concept of employee autonomy has been extensively explored in organizational research. Autonomy refers to the degree to which employees can independently structure and control how and when they perform their work tasks. Spector (1996) argued that jobs with high levels of autonomy significantly contribute to both job performance and satisfaction, a relationship further supported by subsequent studies. For instance, Alegre et al. (2016) identify autonomy and flexibility as key antecedents of job satisfaction. Similarly, Rowold and Borgmann (2014) emphasize the critical role of leadership style, suggesting that supervisors who provide encouragement and support foster greater organizational commitment and job satisfaction among employees. The role of supervisor support is well-documented in shaping employee attitudes and perceptions. Kirkman and Rosen (1999) highlight the necessity of a supportive work environment, demonstrating that adequate supervisor encouragement positively influences employees' work-related attitudes, importantly flagging that more empowered teams proved more productive. Recent studies further extend the discussion on empowering autonomy to human resource management practices. For instance, Coun et al. (2021) examine how empowering leadership and practices—such as workplace flexibility, professional autonomy, and access to knowledge through technology—drive work engagement and job performance. Similarly, Chompukum and Vanichbuncha (2025) investigate the impact of psychological empowerment on employee engagement and turnover intentions. They found that employees who perceive high levels of psychological empowerment experience greater work engagement and are less likely to intend to leave their jobs. Their study highlights the significance of non-monetary rewards like supportive work environments and organizational practices that enhance employees' sense of autonomy and competence, fostering positive outcomes.

Teamwork

Building on the importance of autonomy, another critical factor in organizational success is teamwork. Teamwork is variously defined as the process through which team members collaborate to achieve task goals (Driskell, 2018). Research underscores the synergistic potential of teamwork, with studies such as Parker and Wall (1998) and Ilgen et al. (2005) showing that teams often achieve greater performance outcomes than individuals working alone. McEwan et al. (2017) conducted a systematic review and meta-analysis to evaluate the effectiveness of teamwork training on teamwork behaviors and team performance. The study analyzed 51 articles and found that teamwork training significantly enhances both teamwork behaviors and team performance, with medium-sized positive effects. This body of literature highlights the interplay between autonomy, non-monetary rewards, supervisor support, and teamwork in shaping employee attitudes, engagement, and organizational outcomes. To further explore the concept of autonomy within organizational structures, it is valuable to examine the principles of anarchism and autonomous leadership. These perspectives offer insights into how

leaderless groups operate and maintain effectiveness through voluntary cooperation and mutual aid.

Anarchism and Autonomous Leadership

The anarchist perspective on organizational structure offers a substantive alternative to conventional leadership paradigms. As articulated by 19th-century anarchist philosopher Mikhail Bakunin, anarchism conceptualizes leadership as fluid and reciprocal: "I receive, and I give—such is human life. Each directs and is directed in his turn. Therefore, there is no fixed and constant authority, but a continual exchange of mutual, temporary, and, above all, voluntary authority, and subordination" (Bakunin, 2011, section 33). This conception fundamentally challenges hierarchical organizational structures and reimagines leadership as a dynamic exchange rather than a static power arrangement.

Building on these anarchist principles, Western (2014) developed the concept of autonomist leadership, wherein "anybody and everybody can take up leadership, there is no ranking or hierarchy, and there is a heightened awareness and commitment to the autonomy of all, guarding against coercion and the manipulation of power" (p. 681). In this framework, autonomist leadership applies to all organizational actors, emphasizing self-direction, self-regulation, and empowerment. While leaders may establish strategic direction, employees retain significant freedom in determining implementation methods. According to Western (2014), this approach facilitates various work modalities, including both individual and collaborative efforts, while encouraging employee participation in problem identification, solution development, and policy formation—ultimately fostering transparent decision-making processes.

Sutherland et al. (2014) further explored leadership dynamics in anarchist social movement organizations (SMOs), examining "the understanding and performance of leadership in 'leaderless' SMOs that are structured around anarchistic principles of horizontal, radical, participative democracy and the destruction of hierarchy" (p. 765). Their research revealed that these organizations implement specific practices to prevent the emergence of permanent leadership roles, distribute leadership skills broadly, and encourage wide participation. Their findings suggest that ostensibly leaderless organizations can still demonstrate effective leadership through distributed and participatory practices.

More recent ethnographic research by Keshtiban et al. (2023) examined the dynamics of leaderless social movements, highlighting how the Occupy London movement utilized space, symbols, and spectacles to coordinate actions and influence public discourse. Their study explored horizontal organizational approaches and demonstrated that these leadership modes effectively supplant traditional hierarchical structures, enabling decentralized movements to achieve significant impact.

Empirical support for distributed leadership approaches appears in D'Innocenzo et al's (2016) meta-analysis investigating the relationship between shared leadership and team performance. Their study revealed a significant positive correlation, particularly pronounced in teams engaged in highly interdependent work and complex tasks. The researchers emphasized the importance of developing employees who both accept leadership from multiple peers and willingly assume leadership roles themselves.

Within the specific context of software development, Gutiérrez et al. (2022) examined the empirical relationship between leadership styles and self-management in agile teams. Using leadership classification alongside self-management models, their study analyzed how different leadership approaches impact team autonomy and alignment. Their findings indicate that while authoritarian leadership styles can compensate for low autonomy through high alignment, leadership styles significantly influence overall perceptions of self-management within agile teams. Additionally, Strode, Dingsøyr, and Lindsjorn (2022) developed the Agile Teamwork Effectiveness Model (ATEM), incorporating components such as shared leadership, team orientation, redundancy, adaptability, and peer feedback to enhance teamwork in collocated agile development teams.

Despite its apparent advantages, autonomous leadership faces substantive critiques. Jo Freeman's influential *Tyranny of structurelessness* (1972) presents a compelling argument that ostensibly flat, leaderless organizations often develop informal power structures operating without accountability or transparency. Drawing from feminist movement experiences, Freeman warns that "structurelessness becomes a way of masking power" (p. 4), potentially creating environments where influence is exercised through informal channels inaccessible to many members. Contemporary research by Davenport (2015) and Kalleberg (2018) suggests that autonomous arrangements without proper institutional safeguards may intensify work demands, blur work-life boundaries, and exacerbate workplace inequities. Furthermore, Cheney et al. (2014) documented cases where autonomous teams reproduced existing power disparities along gender, racial, and socioeconomic lines, sometimes exacerbating rather than ameliorating workplace inequalities.

It is within this rich theoretical and empirical context that the present study investigates how library-based software development teams express group-level autonomy and evaluates their participatory dynamics against core anarchist principles of voluntary cooperation, mutual aid, and shared decision-making.

Methodology

Making use of a convenience sample, five large academic libraries possessing software development teams were approached seeking confirmation of their willingness to become part of the research project. A convenience sample of five large academic libraries with software development teams is appropriate for this study as it allows for the targeted examination of

institutions with sufficient resources and specialized expertise (Daniel, 2012). The sample included public and private large, research-intensive institutions geographically distributed across the United States. Both types of institutions maintain extensive academic libraries; however, private institutions often possess more specialized collections and resources due to their distinct funding structures. Furthermore, staffing levels in large academic libraries at both public and private institutions are generally higher than those at baccalaureate institutions, featuring a mix of professional librarians, support staff, and student workers with advanced technological skills. No demographic or other personal characteristics of the respondents were collected, as the primary focus was on group dynamics rather than individual attributes.

Lumpkin, Coglisier, and Schneider (2009) carried out an in-depth analysis of the autonomy literature to identify existing instruments used to assess autonomy. This study employs the Group Participation Index (GPI), which, despite its limited use in academic literature, provides a robust and validated instrument specifically designed to illuminate group dynamics independent of individual demographic factors (Little, 1988; Lumpkin, et al, 2009). Drawing on socio-technical systems theory, Little (1988) developed the GPI as a reliable tool for measuring employee participation, decision making, satisfaction, and group autonomy. The survey instrument was slightly modified by incorporating an additional item asking participants to self-report their group size. The GPI surveys were administered online using Qualtrics, with each question (see Appendix 1) rated on a scale from 1 to 7. Group autonomy scores were calculated by averaging individual responses across the group, while satisfaction measures remained at the individual level. Notably, nineteen of the twenty-six items within the scale assess group-level autonomy—the primary focus of this research. Higher group scores indicate stronger collective perceptions of participation in decisions affecting the group. The GPI's strength lies in its ability to capture complex group interactions and collective decision-making processes, making individual demographic variations less critical to the analysis and interpretation of results.

Results

Libraries employ developers to build software applications that enable the description and organization of library resources in a consistent and interoperable way. They design and implement platforms such as a single search interface to empower users to discover and make use of multiple library resources. The survey data collected from the Group Participation Index (GPI) comprise individual responses from five teams at five large academic libraries in North America. The respondents self-reported team group sizes, ranging from five to ten members; no other verification was undertaken to explore group makeup. Key topics and questions explored include:

- Planning of the work tasks in the team

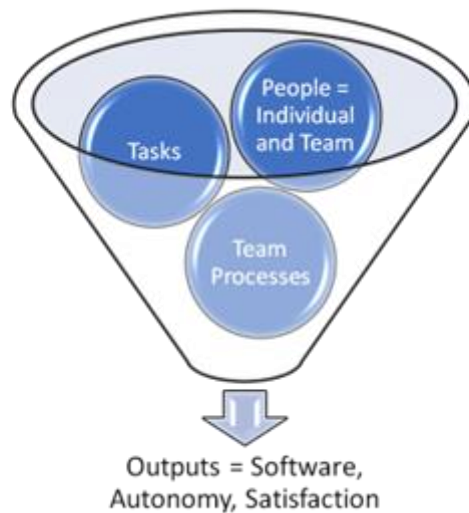
- The distribution of work tasks among the team members

- How working time is organized and scheduled
- Setting of the performance goals for the team
- Who should be members of the team
- How leadership is handled in the team
- The development of work tasks and functions in the team
- Job autonomy and satisfaction

Figure 1, an original conceptual visualization created by the author, illustrates how software developers function not merely as individuals but as integral members of teams or groups. The funnel diagram depicts various elements swirling through and converging toward a refined endpoint, symbolizing how developers' responsibilities are structured through a blend of institutional and team/group processes. This visual framework, developed specifically for this study, provides a conceptual lens to better understand the complex dynamics at play, highlighting how autonomy, independence, and interdependence interact to shape the outcomes observed in this research.

Figure 1

Team Processes and Outputs



The primary goal of a software development team is to deliver high-quality software that meets the needs and requirements of its users and clients. This involves creating software solutions that are functional, reliable, scalable, and user-friendly (Strode et al., 2022). Additionally, software development teams aim to deliver projects within the specified timeline and budget constraints while adhering to best practices and industry standards. Collaboration, communication, and continuous improvement are key aspects of achieving this goal, as teams

work together to plan, design, develop, test, deploy, and maintain software throughout its lifecycle. Ultimately, the goal is to provide value to stakeholders and contribute to the success of the organization or project.

To understand how effectively software development teams achieve these goals, it is essential to examine both individual satisfaction and group autonomy as interconnected factors affecting team performance. These elements represent distinct yet complementary aspects of the work environment that influence overall productivity and quality outcomes.

Group Autonomy and Individual Satisfaction

Individual job satisfaction and group autonomy are both crucial factors in organizational behavior (Langfred, 2000), yet they represent distinct aspects of the work environment. Individual job satisfaction refers to an employee's subjective evaluation of their job experience, encompassing factors such as fulfillment, contentment, and happiness derived from their work. It is influenced by numerous factors including job design, work-life balance, recognition, and opportunities for growth. Individual job satisfaction is inherently personal, reflecting an individual's perception of their role within the organization and the alignment of that organizational role with personal values and goals.

The Group Participation Index (GPI) instrument is recognized for delivering reliable and valid measures of job satisfaction (Little, 1988). Although Little suggests that more detailed instruments may yield more robust insights into job satisfaction, the GPI allows for the reporting of aggregated average satisfaction scores across responding institutions. This metric offers a snapshot of individual satisfaction, measured on a scale ranging from 7 to 49. Questions 7, 10, 16, 19, 21, 25, 28 (see Appendix 1) are used for this measure. As shown in Table 1, satisfaction scores vary considerably across the five participating institutions, with scores ranging from a low of 25.25 at Institution III to a high of 41.00 at Institution I.

Table 1

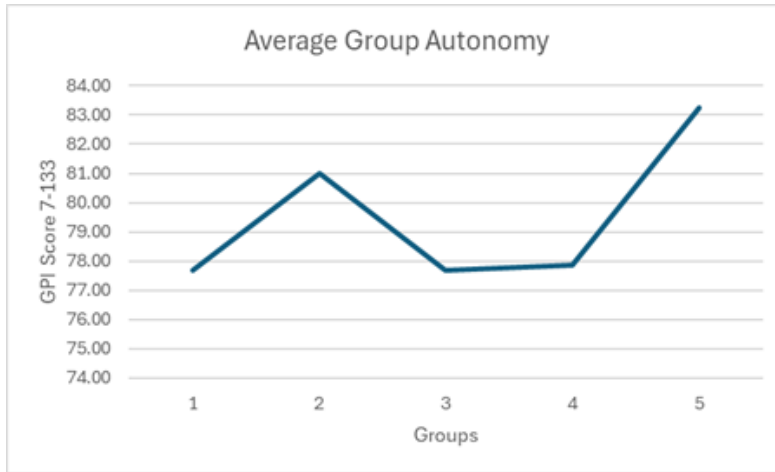
Average Individual Satisfaction by Institution

Institution	Average Satisfaction	N
I	41.00	3
II	39.33	4
III	25.25	6
IV	37.00	7
V	33.75	4
Mean	35.27	24

The data presented in Table 1 provides a comparative overview of the average satisfaction levels among individuals at the participating institutions, with a mean satisfaction score of 35.27 across the sample.

The primary objective of this study is to examine the concept of group autonomy. Group autonomy is a complex construct that involves multiple dimensions, each of which plays a significant role in determining the level of independence, decision-making authority, and self-governance within a group (Langfred, 2000; Li et al, 2022). A thorough understanding of these dimensions is essential for analyzing how groups function, innovate, and accomplish their goals with limited external influence. Derived from the Group Participation Index (GPI) and extant literature, this study explores and analyzes four key dimensions of group autonomy. The first, decision making and task allocation, concerns the group's capacity to assign roles and responsibilities based on members' skills and preferences. Resource control refers to the group's authority over the allocation and management of resources such as budgets, equipment, and materials. Goal setting and planning encompasses the group's ability to establish its own objectives and design strategies, workflows, and processes to achieve them. Finally, normative autonomy involves the group's independence in shaping its cultural norms, values, and identity, enabling it to adapt, innovate, and foster continuous improvement. These dimensions collectively contribute to the overall level of autonomy enjoyed by a group, with higher levels of autonomy indicating greater self-governance and independence in various aspects of group functioning. Conversely, a group that lacks autonomy and independence would need frequent oversight, approval, or input from these external entities before taking any substantial action and likely have its goals, processes, and standards imposed on them.

The average group autonomy across the different teams was examined using responses from the GPI, as illustrated in Figure 2. Analyzing the distribution of these responses offers valuable insights into the perceived intensity and prevalence of the measured attributes, behaviors, or experiences, as well as the variability in responses among the participants.

Figure 2*Average Group Autonomy*

When treating the variables as continuous, it is helpful to report not only the means but also the minimum and maximum values for each group (see Table 2).

Table 2*Response Minimums and Maximums for Group Autonomy Score*

Group	Minimum	Maximum	N
I	75	82	3
II	73	90	4
III	72	83	6
IV	72	84	7
V	81	91	4

Summarizing responses to a Likert scale involves interpreting the frequency or intensity of responses across the provided options. Here is a general summary based on the Likert scale:

1= "None at all": Indicates an absence or complete lack of the attribute, behavior, or experience being measured.

2= "Very little": Suggests a minimal amount or degree of the attribute, behavior, or experience.

3= "A small amount": Implies a modest quantity or extent of the attribute, behavior, or experience.

4= "A fair amount": Indicates a moderate level or quantity of the attribute, behavior, or experience.

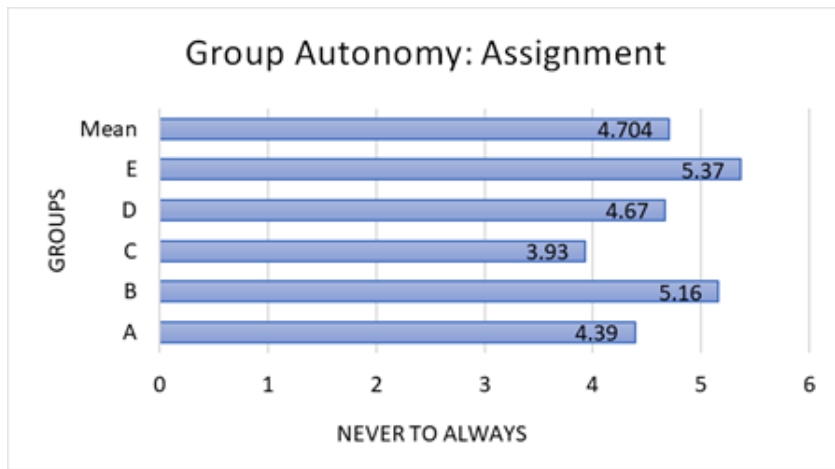
5= "Quite a bit": Suggests a substantial or significant amount or degree of the attribute, behavior, or experience.

6= "A lot": Implies a considerable quantity or extent of the attribute, behavior, or experience.

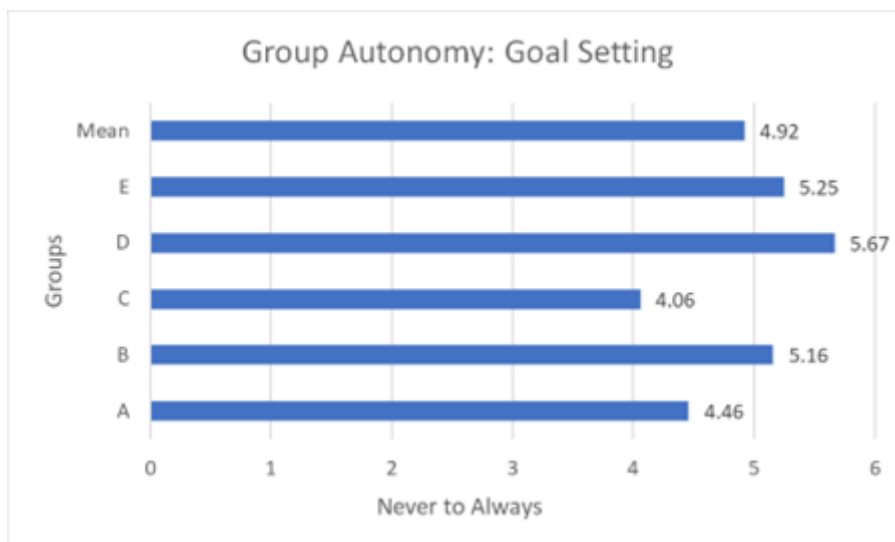
7= "A great deal": Indicates a large or extensive amount or degree of the attribute, behavior, or experience.

It is important to approach Likert scale data with caution, acknowledging that it is generally regarded as ordinal rather than interval data. This classification stems from the recognition that the intervals between response options may not be equal in magnitude. For instance, the difference between "A small amount" and "Very little" might not be comparable to the difference between "Quite a bit" and "A lot." Despite this, the ordinal nature of Likert scale data allows for responses to be meaningfully ordered along a continuum, indicating an underlying progression of perceptions. Consequently, while we can rank the responses, we avoid treating them as interval data due to the potential inconsistency in interval sizes.

To pursue the assignment and goals facets, this study identified individual variables measuring the same underlying dimension. Then, the study calculated item scores for each respondent before aggregating them to obtain a group score. Finally, the scores of the individual items were summed or averaged to create a total score for the subscale. There are two dimensions of job autonomy explored: work assignment (Figure 3) and work goals (Figure 4). Work assignment refers to the discretion the team has in deciding who is to do various parts of the group's work and when to perform associated tasks. The work goals dimension considers the extent the group members themselves participate in making decisions about setting goals, methods, and outcome targets. It is crucial to differentiate group autonomy from the aggregation of individual autonomy, as it solely pertains to the collective capacity of the group and holds no significance at the individual level.

Figure 3*Work Assignment*

The five groups rated their level of autonomy in work assignments between "sometimes" and "often," with scores ranging from 4.25 to 5.37 on a scale of 1 to 7. The variance was low: $\text{Variance} \approx (0.334224 + 0.036984 + 0.519024 + 0.088324 + 0.161184) / 5 \approx 0.227748$. This indicates a generally favorable perception of control over their tasks, suggesting a moderate to high degree of autonomy within the group.

Figure 4*Work Goals*

The discussion now turns to goal setting. Allowing groups to establish their own goals may enhance their sense of autonomy. Such an approach has the potential to contribute to organizational cultures characterized by trust and empowerment—factors commonly linked to

greater engagement, creativity, and overall effectiveness. The groups rated their level of autonomy in goal setting between "sometimes" and "often," with scores ranging from 4 to 5.67 on a scale of 1 to 7. The variance of the given data is approximately 0.359076. This indicates a generally favorable perception of control over setting goals, suggesting a moderate to high degree of autonomy within the group.

Measuring group autonomy and satisfaction is inherently complex, as it requires evaluating multiple dimensions such as decision making, goal setting, task assignment, and the degree of independence from external influence as perceived by individuals within the group. The descriptive statistics derived from this study provide valuable insights into the operational dynamics of five software development teams based in leading, well-resourced academic libraries across North America. While the generalizability of these findings to a broader context is limited, the data suggest that the groups surveyed exhibit a high level of autonomy. In line with the work of Boss et al. (2021), autonomy is associated with increased creativity, collaboration, and a strong sense of ownership, all of which contribute to the production of higher-quality outputs and greater job satisfaction. Although the findings point to moderate to high levels of autonomy across the groups, they do not allow for definitive conclusions regarding the relative quality of the tools developed by these teams.

Conclusion

Libraries, long recognized for their structured and methodical environments, are currently navigating significant technological transformations. This study explored the intersection of Agile methodologies and anarchistic principles within academic libraries, revealing innovative perspectives on software development practices. While Agile methodologies emphasize flexibility, collaboration, and user-centered approaches, anarchism is fundamentally rooted in voluntary cooperation, consensus-based decision making, and the rejection of hierarchical structures. Both frameworks prioritize individual autonomy and self-organization, enabling rapid adaptation without rigid top-down control. The distinction lies in Agile's operation within structures that maintain leadership roles such as Product Owners and Scrum Masters (Deemer, 2013), which are absent in pure anarchist systems.

Academic libraries have increasingly integrated Agile practices across domains ranging from website design to organizational project management and digital collections. This integration represents a strategic shift toward more adaptive, responsive, and user-focused service models. To evaluate how these theoretical principles play out in practice this study employed the Group Participation Index (GPI) to assess team dynamics through key variables of work assignment, decision making, and goal setting autonomy. The broader exploration of workplace autonomy highlighted its positive impact on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Autonomist leadership, which emphasizes decentralized decision making and team empowerment, emerged as particularly effective for fostering autonomy within

organizations. While acknowledging challenges posed by informal, leaderless structures—including potential role ambiguity—the findings emphasize the importance of transparent decision-making processes and careful management of power dynamics to ensure equitable participation.

Furthermore, these findings suggest that autonomy may significantly influence both performance and satisfaction within academic library software development teams. Exploring ways to blend Agile methodologies with anarchistic principles could help academic libraries foster environments that are innovative, adaptable, and collaborative. Such an approach might provide a useful model for institutions responding to technological change while balancing cooperation and self-governance, opening new possibilities for the future of knowledge work in the digital age. Despite these insights, this study is limited by its reliance on self-reported data, which may introduce subjectivity. Additionally, the scope was confined to a small number of academic libraries in North America, which constrains the generalizability of the findings. Future study might include an in-depth case study to provide richer insights into how anarchist-Agile dynamics unfold in practice. Additionally, the relatively short observation period could be extended with a focus on concrete outcomes across a broad range of projects.

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Appendix

Survey Questions adapted from Group Participation Index (Little 1988)

Q1 The purpose of this questionnaire is to measure the degree of participation experienced by a work group within a library software development context. The questionnaire contains twenty-seven items and is estimated to take <15 minutes to complete.

Q2 How many people make up your work group?

Q3 If I want to, I can increase the variety in my job by changing or swapping tasks with other group members.

Not at all

Very Little

A small amount

A fair amount

Quite a bit

A lot

A great deal

Q4 Consider how much freedom is allowed to change work methods.

Not at all

Very Little

A small amount

A fair amount

Quite a bit

A lot

A great deal

Q5 Do the members of your work group themselves make decisions about who is to do the various parts of the job?

Never

Rarely

Occasionally

Half the time

More often than not

Usually

Always

Q6 To what extent can you vary the pressure in your job by sharing work with other group members?

Not at all

Very Little

A small amount

A fair amount

Quite a bit

A lot

A great deal

Q7 Overall, how do you feel about your present job?

Love it

Enthusiastic about it

Like it very much

On the whole I like it

Doesn't 'get me' one way or the other

Don't like it

Hate it

Q8 To what extent is your work group free to make decisions about the job?

Not at all

Very Little

A small amount

A fair amount

Quite a bit

A lot

A great deal

Q9 Consider if individuals are asked for their views when decisions are being made about the job.

Always

Usually

More often than not

Half the time

Occasionally

Rarely

Never

Q10 How often do you find your job dull and boring because of lack of variety (doing different things)?

Never

Rarely

Occasionally

Half the time

More often than not

Usually

Always

Q11 Does the work system allow group members to decide on the amount of work to be done at any given time?

Never

Rarely

Occasionally

Half the time

More often than not

Usually

Always

Q12 Group members can, if they wish, make changes to the physical layout of the workplace, if it will help in getting the work done.

Always

Usually

More often than not

Half the time

Occasionally

Rarely

Never

Q13 The way the various jobs are divided up among group members is a decision made by the members themselves.

Always

Usually

More often than not

Half the time

Occasionally

Rarely

Never

Q14 Group members decide among themselves how to solve any problems to do with their work.

Never

Rarely

Occasionally

Half the time

More often than not

Usually

Always

Q15 When vacancies exist in the work group the members themselves decide on the right person to be hired.

Always

Usually

More often than not

Half the time

Occasionally

Rarely

Never

Q16 Consider your own level of satisfaction in working at your job.

Very satisfied

Quite satisfied

Fairly satisfied

Just O.K.

Fairly dissatisfied

Quite dissatisfied

Very dissatisfied

Q17 Decisions about setting standards of quality are made by the group members themselves without reference to the supervisor.

Never

Rarely

Occasionally

Half the time

More often than not

Usually

Always

Q18 The group members are free to sort out amongst themselves any difference in opinion or disagreements about the work itself, without reference to the supervisor.

Always

Usually

More often than not

Half the time

Occasionally

Rarely

Never

Q19 To what extent do you feel good about working for this organization?

A great deal

A lot

Quite a bit

A fair amount

A small amount

Very Little

Not at all

Q20 To what extent are the group members themselves involved in making decisions about setting goals and targets for work performance?

Not at all

Very Little

A small amount

A fair amount

Quite a bit

A lot

A great deal

Q21 How much persuasion would you need to leave this organization for another job at the same pay?

A great deal

A lot

Quite a bit

A fair amount

A small amount

Very Little

Not at all

Q22 Do the group members themselves decide on who is to do the various parts of the group's work?

Always

Usually

More often than not

Half the time

Occasionally

Rarely

Never

Q23 With new workers, the group can recommend to the supervisor if they should be appointed or rejected.

Never

Rarely

Occasionally

Half the time

More often than not

Usually

Always

Q24 Does the system of work allow your work group to decide on the quantity of output it will produce?

Always

Usually

More often than not

Half the time

Occasionally

Rarely

Never

Q25 Consider how satisfied you feel with the actual work you are performing (tasks and activities).

Very dissatisfied
Quite dissatisfied
Fairly dissatisfied
Just O.K.
Fairly satisfied
Quite satisfied
Very satisfied

Q26 Do you have a say in who does what jobs in your work group?

Never
Rarely
Occasionally
Half the time
More often than not
Usually
Always

Q27 To what extent do group members themselves have access to production records, output figures, and similar information?

Not at all
Very Little
A small amount
A fair amount
Quite a bit
A lot
A great deal

Q28 Would you recommend a job in this organization to a suitably qualified friend?

Always
Usually
More often than not
Half the time

Occasionally

Rarely

Never