

Developing High Performance Teams: Long-Standing Principles That Work

Fred C. Lunenburg
Sam Houston State University

Melody R. Lunenburg
Education Consultants, Inc.

Abstract

Few trends have influenced jobs more than the movement to introduce teams in the workplace. Building effective teams requires long-standing principles regarding stages of team development, member roles, norms, status, size, and cohesiveness. Teams develop through the stages of forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. Members may assume task-oriented, relationship-oriented, or self-oriented roles. Teams develop norms to regulate and guide member behavior. Status inequities can create frustration and adversely affect productivity. The size of the team depends on the task performed. Cohesiveness can influence a team's productivity or not, depending on the team's performance-related norms. Team members and leaders need to be mindful of the potential team dysfunctions including social loafing and groupthink.

The next time you use an Apple computer or see an ad for one of its new products, the iPhone for example, it is important to recall the history of the original Macintosh. A team created it. The Macintosh team, led by Steve Jobs, co-founder of Apple, was composed of high-achieving members who embarked on an exciting, highly challenging goal. In a separate building removed from corporate bureaucracy flying the Jolly Roger, the team worked 90-hour work-weeks at astonishingly low pay. After three years of labor, the result was the birth of the Mac in 1983. It represented the collective expression of a cohesive, hard-working team. The Mac sold faster than any PC that preceded it and marked a turning point in the history of the PC (Linzmeyer & Linzmeyer, 2004). Product innovation continues to be a hallmark of Apple Computer, Inc. (Cruikshank, 2005). And that is what teams in schools should be all about.

Schools likewise place great value on innovation and adaptation. Schools are continually seeking new ways of delivering subject matter to all its students. Among the many current trends and developments in education, none is more important than the various attempts to close the achievement gap among underachieving students. To meet the demands to educate all students, the best schools mobilize teams in their quest to reach their full potential as high-performing schools (Bulach & Lunenburg, 2011). Teams in this sense are an important component of the human resources and intellectual capital of schools (Klein, 2014).

Groups and Teams

A group is two or more people who have common interests, goals, and continuing interaction (Homans, 1959). Most people belong to groups, which can be classified in many different ways. For example, groups can be classified as friendship groups or task groups. A *friendship group* develops informally to satisfy members' needs for security, esteem, and belongingness. A friendship group may evolve over time among coworkers. Moreover, friendship groups are now being enhanced electronically. MySpace, Facebook, Twitter, Blogger, YouTube, and instant messaging are all electronic means that are used to form and nurture friendship groups. A *task group* is created by leaders to accomplish certain organizational goals. A single group in a school organization may serve both friendship and task purposes.

The primary purpose of this article is on types of task groups, commonly known today as teams, such as the Macintosh team that launched the Apple computer in 1983. Apple computer continues to revolutionize technology with its product innovation, including the iPhone launched in 2007 now in its sixth iteration. A team is a group of people with complementary skills who work actively together to achieve a common purpose for which they hold themselves collectively accountable (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993a, 1993b). All work teams are groups, but not all groups are work teams. Groups emphasize individual leadership, individual accountability, and individual outcomes. Teams emphasize shared leadership, mutual accountability, and collective results. Table 1 highlights differences between groups and teams.

Table 1

Differences between Groups and Teams

Key Dimension	Groups	Teams
Goals	Share information	Collective performance
Synergy	Neutral (sometimes negative)	Positive
Accountability	Accountable to leader	Accountable to members
Skill levels	Random and varied	Complementary

Groups interact primarily to share information and make decisions to help each member perform his or her task. Teams interact with a degree of interdependence and motivation which result in performance that is greater than the sum of the individual inputs. Groups do not develop positive synergy that would result in an overall level of performance greater than the sum of the inputs. On the other hand, teams over time develop synergy by combining the actions and behaviors of team members. For example, the work and performance of Steve Jobs's teams that launched the Macintosh computer in 1983 and the iPhone in 2007 were synergistic (Isaacson,

2011). Groups are accountable to a leader and often are randomly formed (e.g., hiring different people over time), resulting in a varied mix of skills. Teams are internally accountable to one another and each member's skills complement those of the other team members.

Stages of Team Development

The performance of a team depends both on individual learning and on how well the members learn to work together as a unit. One widely cited model of team development assumes that teams pass through as many as five stages of development: (a) forming, (b) storming, (c) norming, (d) performing, and (f) adjourning (Tuckman, 1965; Tuckman & Jensen, 1977). Identifying the stage a team is in at a specific time can be difficult; nevertheless, it is important to understand the development process. At each stage, team behaviors differ and, as a result, each stage can influence the team's end results. These stages are depicted in Figure 1.

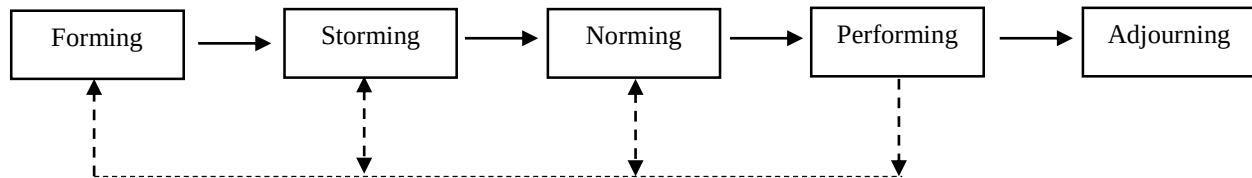


Figure 1. Stages of team development.

Forming

The first stage of team development is *forming*. It is characterized by uncertainty and confusion about the purpose, structure, and leadership of the team. Team members tend to focus on efforts to understand and define their objectives, roles, and duties within the team. Members share personal information and start to get to know and accept one another. Interaction, among team members, is courteous and cautious. Generally, this stage is complete when individuals begin to view themselves as members of a team.

Storming

The *storming* stage is characterized by conflicts over tasks, relative priorities of goals, roles of team members, and leadership of the team. Coalitions may form to influence the team's goals, means of attainment, and team leadership. Conflict needs to be managed during this stage, not suppressed. The team cannot move into the third stage if team members do not handle conflict effectively. This stage is complete when there is mutual agreement about who will lead the team.

Norming

While the storming stage is characterized by conflict, the *norming* stage is marked by cooperation and collaboration. Roles and responsibilities become clear and accepted. The team develops a sense of cohesion. Members have developed common expectations about how the team's goals should be accomplished. They have developed a feeling of team spirit. The storming stage is complete when team members agree on standards to guide behavior in the team.

Performing

The *performing* stage of team development marks the emergence of a mature, organized, and well-functioning unit. The structure is stable. Team members are ready to focus on accomplishing its key tasks. To accomplish tasks, diversity of viewpoints rather than consensus is supported and encouraged. Teams that encourage diversity on the team tend to be more able to adapt. Teams that are more adaptive tend to be more successful.

Adjourning

The final stage of team development is the *adjourning* stage. Some teams, of course, are permanent and never reach the adjourning stage. For temporary teams, however, such as ad hoc committees, project teams, task forces, and similar teams, this stage involves preparation for disbanding. For example, a team created to examine and report on a specific issue, such as the development of a new faculty evaluation system within six months, has a well-defined point of adjournment. The job is completed; it is now time to move on to other tasks. Many team members may feel a compelling sense of loss after working so hard to get along with one another and accomplishing something. Adjournment can be eased by rituals celebrating termination and new beginnings. Parties, award ceremonies, mock funerals, and graduation can provide recognition for participation and achievement. Leaders can take this opportunity to emphasize valuable lessons learned in group dynamics to prepare everyone for future team endeavors (Lunenburg & Ornstein, 2012).

The five-stage model (forming-norming-storming-performing-adjourning) is intuitively appealing. However, research indicates that not all teams proceed through each of the stages (Mannix, Neal, & Blount-Lyon, 2004). Nor do teams always proceed sequentially from one stage to the next. In fact, some teams may engage in more than one stage at a time, as when teams are storming and performing simultaneously (Peterson & Behfar, 2003; Romanelli & Tushman, 1994). Teams occasionally regress to previous stages. Further research indicates that teams with deadlines for goal accomplishment did not go through a series of developmental stages. Instead, they alternated between periods of inertia in which very little was accomplished and periods of frenzied activity in which the team proceeded rapidly toward its goal (Gersick, 1988, 1989). Research has indicated that teams that proceed through the developmental stages successfully seem to outperform and sustain higher levels of performance when compared to teams that do not (Bushe & Coetzer, 2007).

In sum, the five-stage model should be used as a general framework but not as a perfectly accurate depiction of how teams develop. To accelerate their own development, team members may find it useful to know what characteristics help create successful teams.

Characteristics of Effective Teams

Well-functioning, effective teams have characteristics that shape members' behavior and help explain and predict individual behavior within the team as well as the performance of the team itself. Some of these characteristics are roles, norms, status, size, and cohesiveness.

Team Roles

There is no universally agreed-upon framework of team roles (Aritzeta, Swailes, & Senior, 2007; Manning, Parker, & Pogson, 2006). However, whenever members of a team come together to work on a common task, role differentiation occurs; that is, patterns of behavior for each member develop that tend to become repeated as team activities ensue (Shani, Chandler, Coget, & Lau, 2014). Various roles are necessary to coordinate the team's task and maintain the team's functioning. Some roles can be classified as those that are focused on achieving the tasks of the team (task-oriented roles); other roles build and maintain favorable relationships among team members (relationship-oriented roles); and still others serve individual needs, sometimes at the expense of the team (self-oriented roles). Each team member has the potential of performing each of these roles (Bales, 1950; Klein, Lim, Saltz, & Mayer, 2004). This classification forms the foundation of most other models of team member roles (Humphrey, Manor, & Morgeson, 2009; Postrel, 2009).

Task-oriented role. The task-oriented role of a team member involves facilitating and coordinating work-related behaviors and decision making. This role may include:

- *initiating* new ideas or different ways of considering team problems or goals and suggesting solutions to difficulties, including modification of team procedures;
- *seeking information* to clarify suggestions and obtain key facts;
- *giving information* that is relevant to the team's problem, issue, or task;
- *coordinating* and clarifying relationships among ideas and suggestions, pulling ideas and suggestions together, and coordinating members' activities; and
- *evaluating* the team's effectiveness, including questioning the logic, facts, or practicality of other members' suggestions. (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2013, p. 367)

Relationship-oriented role. The relationship-oriented role of a team member involves fostering team-centered attitudes, behaviors, emotions, and social interactions. This role may include:

- *encouraging* members through praise and acceptance of their ideas as well as indicating warmth and solidarity;
- *harmonizing* and mediating intra-team conflicts and tension;

- encouraging participation of others by saying, “Let’s hear from Susan” or “Why not limit the length of contributions so all can react to the problem?” or “Juan, do you agree?”;
- *expressing* standards for the team to achieve or apply in evaluating the quality of team processes, raising questions about team goals, and assessing team progress in light of these goals; and
- *following* by going along passively or constructively and serving as a friendly member. (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2013, p. 367)

Self-oriented role. The self-oriented role of a team member involves the person’s self-centered attitudes, behaviors, and decisions that are at the expense of the team or group. This role may include:

- *blocking progress* by being negative, stubborn, and unreasoningly resistant—for example the person may repeatedly try to bring back an issue that the team had considered carefully and rejected;
- *seeking recognition* by calling attention to oneself, including boasting, reporting on personal achievements, and in various ways avoiding being placed in a presumed inferior position;
- *dominating* by asserting authority, manipulating the team or “certain individuals” using flattery or proclaiming superiority to gain attention, and interrupting the contributions of others; and
- *avoiding* involvement by maintaining distance from others and remaining insulated from interactions. (Hellriegel & Slocum, 2013, pp. 367-368)

A *role* may be defined as the behavior a person is expected to display in a given context. Effective teams are composed of members who display both task-oriented and relationship-oriented roles. An adept person who manifests behaviors valued by the team likely will have high *status*—rank of a member in a team. A team dominated by individuals who exhibit self-oriented behaviors probably will be ineffective, because they fail to address team goals and the need to collaborate.

Team Norms

Did you ever notice that teachers in one school practically race the students to the exit door the instant the dismissal bell rings, whereas their counterparts in another school seem to be competing to see who can work the latest? These differences are due partly to norms. *Norms* may be defined as the informal rules and shared expectations that teams develop to regulate the behavior of their members (Ehrhart & Naumann, 2004; Hackman, 1992). Some norms become written rules, such as a student attendance policy in a public school or a code of ethics for school administrators. Other norms remain informal, but somehow are known by team members. Furthermore, norms exist only for behaviors that are important to the team (Fehr & Fischbacher, 2004; Feldman, 1984).

A key norm in any team is the performance norm that conveys productivity expectations of team members. For example, a high-performing school sets productivity standards above organizational expectations. A culture evolves concerning performance (Bulach & Lunenburg, 2011). Average schools set productivity standards based on, and consistent with, organizational expectations. Low productivity schools may set productivity standards below organizational expectations. Other norms are important, also. In order for a department, grade-level team, committee, or task force to function effectively, norms are required. Teams commonly have loyalty norms (e.g. work late, assist other members), appearance norms (e.g. dress codes), resource allocation norms (e.g. how status symbols, pay, and promotions should be allocated). Teams also commonly have norms concerning how to deal with colleagues, parents, and students, as well as norms establishing guidelines for ethical behaviors expected of school administrators (Irby & Lunenburg, 2014).

Norms are frequently evident in the everyday conversations of people in the workplace. The following examples indicate the types of norms that operate with positive and negative implications for teams and organizations (Allen & Pilnick, 1973; Feldman, 1984; Lawler, 2001; Zander, 1984).

- *Ethics norms*—“We try to make ethical decisions and we expect others to do the same” (positive); “Don’t worry about padding your expense account; everyone does it here” (negative).
- *Organization and person pride norms*—“It’s a tradition around here for people to defend the school when others criticize it unfairly” (positive); “In our school, they are always trying to take advantage of us” (negative).
- *High-achievement norms*—“On our team, members always try to work hard” (positive); “There is no point in trying harder on our team; nobody else does” (negative).
- *Support and assistance norms*—“People on this committee are good listeners and actively seek out the ideas and opinions of others” (positive); “On this committee it’s dog-eat-dog and save your own skin” (negative).
- *Improvement and change norms*—“In our department, people are always looking for better ways of doing things” (positive); “Around here, people hang on to the old ways even after they have outlived their usefulness” (negative).
- *Supervisory norms*—“Around here, administrators and supervisors really care about people they supervise” (positive); “In our school, it’s best to hide your problems and avoid your supervisor” (negative). (Schermerhorn, Hunt, & Osborn, 2014, pp. 200-201)

Team Status

Status is the relative social position or rank given to an individual, team, or organization by others (Greenberg, 2014). Status functions in team settings, and team members acquire common perceptions for respecting other members on several dimensions, including ability to judge the capabilities of others, professional knowledge, experience, interpersonal skills, and any other attribute valued by the team such as personal appearance, money, or a friendly personality.

An overall status that includes a combination of these dimensions is accorded to team members (Shani et al. 2014). Another way of thinking about status is that of credibility (What is my credibility in this team?). Another dimension is acceptability (How acceptable am I in this team?)

Within most organizations, status is conferred upon members through the use of status symbols—objects reflecting the position one holds in the hierarchy. Common examples of symbols include job titles (e.g., dean); perquisites (e.g., reserved parking space); the opportunity to do significant work (e.g., serving on prestigious committees); and luxurious physical space (e.g., large, private office that is lavishly furnished). The aforementioned are examples of formal status symbols. Informal status symbols also exist within teams and organizations. These include symbols accorded to persons with certain characteristics not formally recognized by organizations. Examples include employees who are older and have more seniority in the team or organization may be perceived as having higher status by coworkers. Members who have special skills (such as advanced technology skills) also may be regarded as having higher status than other members.

According Robert Feldman (as cited in Robbins & Judge, 2014, pp. 290-291), status tends to derive from one of three sources:

1. *The power a person has over others.* Because they likely control team resources, people who control the team's outcomes tend to be perceived as high status. Many believe that LeBron James has more say concerning player acquisitions than the coach, general manager, or team owner.
2. *A person's ability to contribute to a team's goals.* The more important the task performed by a team or a team's function is, the higher the team's status in the organization. The status of a top management team is likely to be very high, because it sets the organization's goals and determines how the goals will be achieved.
3. *An individual's personal characteristics.* One whose personal characteristics are positively valued by the team (physical attractiveness, intelligence, content knowledge, experience, money, or a friendly personality) typically has higher status than someone with fewer valued attributes.

Team Size

The effective size of a team can range from 3 members to more than 20 (Thompson, 2000). Does the size of a team affect the way team members behave? The answer is: It depends on what dependent variables you examine. According to the results of one meta-analysis, if a team's primary task is fact-finding, larger groups should be more effective but smaller groups are more effective at doing something productive with that input (Stewart, 2006). Larger groups have a greater number of resources to accomplish their goals. These resources include the skills, abilities, and knowledge of their members (Kozlowski & Bell, 2003). In addition, larger teams have the benefits of *division of labor*—dividing up assignments to individual team members. When individuals focus on particular tasks, they generally become skilled at performing these tasks. One of the primary reasons teams (as well as total organizations) exist is the benefit of division of labor (George & Jones, 2014).

However, when additional members are added to a team beyond what is necessary to accomplish the task, coordination and communication problems may result. Team members may become less productive because of wasted time and their feeling less accountable for the team's outcomes (Gooding & Wagner, 1985; Markham, Dansereau, & Alutto, 1982). The guidelines regarding team size that Amazon.com's co-founder and CEO Jeff Bezos developed for his firm's product development teams is that no team should be larger than two pizzas can feed (Yank, 2006).

Team size and social loafing. One of the most important findings concerning the size of a team is the risk of productivity loss due to *social loafing*. Social loafing occurs when team members exert less effort, and usually perform at a lower level, when working collectively than working alone (Comer, 1995; Karau & Williams, 1993; Liden, Wayne, Jaworski, & Bennett, 2004; Murphy, Wayne, Liden, & Erdogan, 2003). Social loafing is most likely to occur in large teams where individual output is difficult to identify (Beyer, & Trice, 1979; Latane, 1986; Latane, Williams, & Harkins, 1979).

The social loafing effect was first noted by German psychologist Maximilien Ringleman, who measured individual and team effort on a rope-pulling task (Moede, 1927; Kravitz & Martin, 1986). He hypothesized that three people pulling together should exert three times as much pull on the rope as one person, and eight people pulling together on the rope should exert eight times as much as one person. Ringleman's findings, however, did not confirm his hypothesis. Specifically, he found that one person pulling on the rope alone exerted an average of 63 kilograms of force. In groups of three, the per-person force dropped to 53 kilograms. And in groups of eight, it fell to merely 31 kilograms per person.

Replications of Ringleman's research generally have supported his findings (Jassawalla, Sashittal, & Malshe, 2009; Karau & Williams, 1993; Latane et al., 1979; Sheppard, 1993). Team performance increases with team size; however, the addition of new team members results in diminishing returns on productivity. That is, more members in a team may be better, but the individual productivity of each member declines.

Social science researchers have used *social impact theory* (Kerr & Bruum, 1981; Latane & Nida, 1980) to explain the social loafing effect. According to the theory, the impact of any social force acting on a team is dispersed among its members. The larger the size of the group, the lower the impact of its force on any one member. As a result, the more individuals who contribute to a group's output, the less pressure each individual feels to perform well—that is, the responsibility for doing the task is divided among more people. As a result, each team member feels less responsible for producing maximum effort, and social loafing occurs. Another way of understanding the social loafing phenomenon is by recognizing that social loafing occurs because people are more interested in themselves than their fellow team members.

Social loafing is less common when the task is interesting, because people have a higher motivation to perform the task. Moreover, social loafing is less likely to occur when the team's goal is important, because team members feel more pressure from other members to perform well. Finally, social loafing occurs less often among members with strong collectivist values, because they value team membership and believe in working toward team goals (Earley, 1993; Erez & Somech, 1996).

How to reduce social loafing. By understanding the causes of social loafing, leaders can identify ways to reduce the problem. Leaders can attempt to reduce or eliminate social loafing (a) by making each team member's individual contribution to team performance identifiable (Gammage, Carron, & Estabrooke, 2002; Jones, 1984; Nordstrom, Lorenzi, & Hall, 1990; Price, 1987; Williams, Harkins, & Latane, 1981), (b) by holding each member personally accountable for results (Karakowsky & McBey, 2001; Liden, Wayne, Jaworski, & Bennett, 2004; Mulvey & Klein, 1998; Mulvey, Bowes-Sperry, & Klein, 1998), (c) by emphasizing the importance of the task (Bricker, Harkins, & Ostrom, 1986; George, 1992), (d) by rewarding individuals for contributing to their team's performance (Albanese & Van Fleet, 1985), (e) by controlling the size of teams (Latané, 1986; Latané et al., 1979; Steiner, 1972), (f) by selecting members who have high motivation and prefer to work in teams (Stark, Shaw, & Duffy, 2007), and (g) by encouraging the development of norms that encourage all members to contribute optimal effort to team goals (Gammage, Carron, & Estabrooke, 2001; Gunnthorsdottir & Rapoport, 2006; Hoigaard, Safvenbom, & Tonnessen, 2006).

Team Cohesiveness

Teams differ in their cohesiveness. The *cohesiveness* of a team is the degree to which members are attracted to the team and motivated to remain part of it. Team members feel cohesiveness when they believe their team will help them achieve not only their need for affiliation or status but also to accomplish a common goal. Accordingly, sociologists have identified two types of team cohesiveness: socio-emotional cohesiveness and instrumental cohesiveness (Tziner, 1982).

Socio-emotional cohesiveness is a feeling of togetherness that evolves when individuals derive emotional satisfaction from team participation. Instrumental cohesiveness is a feeling of togetherness that evolves when team members are mutually dependent on one another because they believe they could not achieve the team's goals by acting independently.

Several factors influence team cohesiveness: member interaction, team size, rigorous entry requirements, team success, and external competition and challenges (McShane & Von Glinow, 2014). Cohesiveness tends to be greater the more time team members have spent together. Team cohesiveness is greatest when teams are kept as small as possible, but large enough to accomplish the tasks. Teams tend to be more cohesive when entry to the team is rigorous. Cohesiveness increases with the team's level of success. Team cohesiveness tends to increase when members face external competition or a valued goal that is challenging.

Thus far, we have implied that cohesiveness is a positive attribute. It can be. Members of highly cohesive teams tend to participate more fully in their team's activities; are absent less often; have low turnover; satisfy a broad range of individual needs including emotional and social identity needs; and are sometimes exceptionally productive than members of less cohesive teams (Ellemers, Spears, & Doosie, 2002; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Sheldon & Bettencourt, 2002).

Whereas, cohesive teams are good for their members, they may or may not be good for the organization. Team cohesiveness tends to foster high levels of motivation and commitment to the team, and as a result, cohesiveness tends to promote higher levels of team performance (Beal, Cohen, Burke, & McLendon, 2003; Mullen & Copper, 1994; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Ahearne,

1997). But when it comes to organizational performance, team cohesiveness is a double-edged sword: Its effects can be both helpful and harmful to the organization (Langfred, 1998).

Members who have a strong desire to remain in a team and personally conform to the team's norms form a highly cohesive team (West, Patera, & Carsten, 2009). With more conformity to norms, high-cohesive teams perform better than low-cohesive teams. However, the relationship between team norms and performance is a little more complex; as mentioned previously, team cohesiveness tends to foster high levels of motivation and commitment to the team. The effect of cohesiveness on team performance depends on the extent to which team norms are congruent with organizational goals. Cohesive teams will likely have lower performance when team norms are incongruent with organizational goals, because cohesiveness motivates members to perform at a level more consistent with team norms (Gammage et al., 2001).

What causes the incongruence between team norms and organizational goals? In highly cohesive teams, members may try to maintain harmony by striving toward consensus on issues without considering alternative viewpoints. This striving for conformity at the expense of other team perspectives is called *groupthink* and is thought to afflict highly cohesive teams with strong leadership and feelings of overconfidence about the team's capabilities (Janis, 1982).

Groupthink. Irving Janis (1982) coined the term *groupthink*, which happens when in-group pressures lead to deterioration in mental efficiency, poor testing of reality, and lax moral judgment. It tends to occur in highly cohesive groups in which the group members' desire for consensus becomes more important than evaluating problems and solutions realistically.

Janis observed that sometimes groups of highly qualified and experienced people make poor decisions (1982). The decision made by President John F. Kennedy and his advisers to launch the Bay of Pigs invasion of Cuba in 1960; the decision by President Lyndon B. Johnson and his advisers between 1964 and 1967 to escalate the war in Vietnam; the decision made by President Richard M. Nixon and his advisers to cover up the Watergate break-in in 1972; the decision made by NASA in 1986 to launch the *Challenger* space shuttle (which exploded after takeoff, killing all seven crew members); the decision made by NASA in 2003 to launch the space shuttle *Columbia* (which exploded over Texas upon reentering the earth's atmosphere, killing all seven crew members); – all these decisions were influenced by groupthink.

Janis's (1982) analyses of groupthink focused primarily on political and military decisions, but the potential for groupthink in school organizations is likely as well. For example, when a group of teachers collectively decides to go on strike, the decision may be a product of groupthink.

The likelihood that groupthink will emerge is greatest when: (1) the group is cohesive, (2) the group becomes insulated from qualified outsiders, and (3) the leader promotes his own favored solution (Janis, 1982). In suggesting ways of avoiding groupthink, Janis hopes to reduce cohesiveness and open up decision activity in various ways. One way is to select ad hoc groups to solve problems; in this way, the members do not already belong to a cohesive group. Another approach is to have higher-level administrators set up the parameters of the decision. Still another method is to assign different groups to work on the same problem (Isaksen, 2011; Jonassen, 2011). And, finally, different group decision-making techniques can be used to limit the effects of groupthink and other problems inherent in shared decision making. Nine suggestions for avoiding groupthink follow:

1. The leader of a policy-forming group should assign the role of critical evaluator to each member, encouraging the group to give high priority to airing objections and doubts.
2. The leaders in an organization's hierarchy, when assigning a policy-planning mission to a group, should be impartial instead of stating their preferences and expectations at the outset.
3. The organization should routinely follow the administrative practice of setting up several independent policy-planning and evaluation groups to work on the same policy question, each carrying out its deliberations under a different leader.
4. Through the period when the feasibility and effectiveness of policy alternatives are being surveyed, the policy-making group should from time to time divide into two or more subgroups to meet separately, under different chairpersons, and then come together to reconcile their differences.
5. Each member of the policy-making group should periodically discuss the group's deliberations with trusted associates in her own unit of the organization and report their transaction back to the group.
6. One or more outside experts or qualified colleagues within the organization who are not core members of the policy-making group should be invited to each meeting on a staggered basis and should be encouraged to challenge the views of the core members.
7. At each meeting devoted to evaluating policy alternatives, at least one member should be assigned the role of devil's advocate, expressing as many objections to each policy alternative as possible.
8. Whenever the policy issue involves relations with a rival organization, a sizable block of time should be spent surveying all warning signals from the rivals and constructing alternative scenarios of the rivals' intentions.
9. After reaching a preliminary consensus about what seems to be the best policy alternative, the policy-making group should hold a second-chance meeting at which the members are expected to express as vividly as they can all their residual doubts and to rethink the entire issue before making a definitive choice. (Janis, 1982, pp. 22-23)

Conclusion

Few trends have influenced jobs more than the movement to introduce teams in the workplace. Building effective teams requires long-standing principles regarding stages of team development, member roles, norms, status, size, and cohesiveness. Teams develop through the stages of forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. Research indicates that teams that proceed through developmental stages successfully seem to outperform and sustain a higher level of performance when compared to others. Members may assume task-oriented, relationship-oriented, or self-oriented roles. Member diversity often enhances the effectiveness of teams by bringing more perspectives into the causes and solutions of problems. Teams develop norms to regulate and guide member behavior. Status inequities can create frustration and adversely affect productivity. The size of the team depends on the task performed. Cohesiveness can influence a team's productivity or not, depending on the team's performance-

related norms. Team members and leaders need to be mindful of the potential team dysfunctions including social loafing and groupthink.

References

- Allen, R. F., & Pilnick, S. (1973). Confronting the shadow organization: How to select and defeat negative norms. *Organizational Dynamics*, 1(4), 3-18.
- Aritzeta, A., Swailes, S., & Senior, B. (2007). Belbin's team role model: Development, validity and applications for team building. *Journal of Management Studies*, 44(1), 96-118.
- Bales, R. F. (1950). *Interaction process analysis*. Cambridge, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Beal, D. J., Cohen, R. R., Burke, M. J., & McLendon, C. L. (2003). Cohesion and performance in groups: A meta-analytic clarification of construct relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(6), 989-1004.
- Beyer, J. M., & Trice, H. M. (1979). A reexamination of the relations between size and various components of organizational complexity. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24(1), 48-64.
- Bricker, M. A., Harkins, S. G., & Ostrom, T. M. (1986). Effects of personal involvement: thought-provoking implications for social loafing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(4), 763-769.
- Bulach, C., & Lunenburg, F. C. (2011). *Creating a culture for high-performing schools: A comprehensive approach to school reform*. Lanham, MD: Roman & Littlefield.
- Bushe, G., & Coetzer, G. (2007). Group development and team effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43(1), 184-212.
- Comer, D. R. (1995). A model of social loafing in real work groups. *Human Relations*, 48(6), 647-667.
- Cruikshank, J. L. (2005). *The apple way*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Earley, P. C. (1993). East meets West meets Mideast: Further explanations of collectivistic and individualistic work groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(1), 319-348.
- Ehrhart, M. G., & Nauman, S. E. (2004). Organizational citizenship behavior in work groups: A group norms approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(6), 960-974.
- Ellemers, N., Spears, R., & Doosie, B. (2002). Self and social identity. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 53(1), 161-186.
- Erez, M., & Somech (1996). Is group productivity less the rule or the exception? Effects of culture and group-based motivation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(6), 1513-1537.
- Fehr, E., & Fischbacher, U. (2004). Social norms and human cooperation. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, 8(4), 185-190.
- Feldman, D. C. (1984). The development and enforcement of group norms. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(1), 47-53.
- Gammage, K. L., Carron, A. V., & Estabrooke, P. A. (2001). Team cohesion and individual productivity: The influence of the norm for productivity and identifiability of individual effort. *Small Group Research*, 32(1), 3-18.
- George, J. M. (1992). Extrinsic and intrinsic origins of perceived social loafing in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35(1), 191-202.

- George, J. M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(6), 698-709.
- George, J. M., & Jones, G. R. (2014). *Understanding organizational behavior* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Gersick, C. J. G. (1988). Time and transition in work teams: Toward a new model of group development. *Academy of Management Journal*, 31(1), 9-41.
- Gersick, C. J. G. (1989). Marking time: Predictable transitions in task groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 32(2), 274-309.
- Gooding, R. Z., & Wagner, J. A. (1985). A meta-analytic review of the relationship between size and performance: The productivity and efficiency of organizations and their subunits. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 30(4), 462-481.
- Greenberg, J. (2014). *Organizational behavior* (11th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Gunnthorsdottir, A., & Rapaport, A. (2006). Embedding social dilemmas in intergroup competition reduces free-riding. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 101(1), 184-199.
- Hackman, J. R. (1992). Group influences on individuals. In M. D. Dunnette & I. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial & organizational psychology* (2nd ed., vol. 3; pp. 235-250). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Hellriegel, D., & Slocum, J. W. (2013). *Organizational behavior* (14th ed.). Mason, OH: South-Western/Cengage Learning.
- Hoigaard, R., Safvenbom, R., & Tonnessen, F. E. (2006). The relationship between group cohesion, group norms, and perceived social loafing in soccer teams. *Small Group Research*, 37(2), 217-232.
- Homans, G. C. (1959). *The human group*. New York, NY: Harcourt, Brace and World.
- Humphrey, S. E., Manor, M. J., & Morgeson, F. P. (2009). Developing a theory of the strategic core of teams: A role composition model of team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(1), 48-61.
- Irby, B. J., & Lunenburg, F. C. (2014). Promoting ethical behavior for school administrators. *Journal of Ethical Educational Leadership*, 1(4), 1-28. Retrieved from: <http://www.cojeel.com>
- Isaacson, W. (2011). *Steve Jobs*. New York, NY: Simon & Schuster.
- Isaksen, S. G. (2011). *Creative approaches to problem solving: A framework for innovation and change*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Janis, I. (1982). *Victims of groupthink: A psychological study of foreign policy decisions and Fiascoes* (2nd ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Jassawalla, A., Sashittal, H., & Malshe, A. (2009). Students' perception of social loafing: Its antecedents and consequences in undergraduate business classroom teams. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 8(1), 42-54.
- Jonassen, D. (2011). *Learning to solve problems: A handbook*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Jones, G. R. (1984). Task visibility, free riding, and shirking: Explaining the effect of structure and technology on employee behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(4), 684-695.
- Karakowsky, L., & McBey, K. (2001). Do my contributions matter? The influence of imputed expertise on member involvement and self-evaluations in the work group. *Group & Organization Management*, 26(1), 70-92.

- Karau, S. J., & Williams, K. D. (1993). Social loafing: A meta-analytic review and theoretical integration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 65(4), 681-706.
- Katzenbach, J. R., & Smith, D. K. (1993a). The discipline of teams. *Harvard Business Review*, 71(2), 111-120.
- Katzenbach, J. R., & Smith, D. K. (1993b). *The wisdom of teams: Creating the high-performance organization*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.
- Kerr, N. L., & Bruun, S. E. (1981). Ringlemann revisited: Alternative explanations for the social loafing effect. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 7(2), 224-231.
- Klein, D. A. (2014). *The strategic management of intellectual capital*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Klein, K. J., Lim, B., Saltz, J. L., & Mayer, D. M. (2004). How do they get there? An examination of the antecedents of centrality in team networks. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(6), 952-963.
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Bell, B. S. (2003). Work groups and teams in organization. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Comprehensive handbook of psychology* (vol. 12; pp. 333-375). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Kravitz, D. A., & Martin, B. (1986). Ringelmann rediscovered: The original article. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50(5), 936-941.
- Langfred, C. (1998). Is group cohesiveness a double-edged sword? An investigation of the effects of cohesiveness on performance. *Small Group Research*, 29(1), 124-143.
- Latane, B. (1986). Responsibility and effort in organizations. In P. S. Goodman (Ed.), *Designing effective work groups* (pp. 227-245). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Latane, B., & Nida, S. (1980). Social impact theory and group influence: A social engineering perspective. In P. B. Paulus (Ed.), *Psychology of group influence* (pp. 3-34). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Latane, B., Williams, K., & Harkins, S. (1979). Many hands make light the work: The causes and consequences of social loafing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37(6), 822-832.
- Lawler, E. E. (2001). *Organizing for high performance*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, R. A., Jaworski, R. A., & Bennett, N. (2004). Social loafing: A field investigation. *Journal of Management*, 30(2), 285-304.
- Linzmeier, O., & Linzmeier, O. W. (2004). *Apple confidential 2.0: The history of the world's most colorful company*. San Francisco, CA: No Starch Press.
- Lunenburg, F. C., & Ornstein, A. O. (2012). *Educational administration: Concepts and practices* (6th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Wadsworth/Cengage Learning.
- Manning, T., Parker, R., & Pogson, G. (2006). A revised model of team roles and some research findings. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 38(6), 287-296.
- Mannix, E., Neale, M. A., & Blount-Lyon, S. (2004). *Time in groups*. St. Louis, MO: Elsevier.
- Markham, S. E., Dansereau, F., & Alutto, J. A. (1982). Group size and absenteeism rates: A longitudinal analysis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 25(4), 921-927.
- McShane, S. L., & Von Glinow, M. A. (2014). *Organizational behavior* (6th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Moede, W. (1927). Die Richtlinien der leistungs-psychologie. *Industrielle Psychotechnik*, 4, 193-207.

- Mullen, B., & Copper, C. (1994). The relation between group cohesiveness and performance: An integration. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115(2), 210-227.
- Mulvey, P. W., Bowes-Sperry, L., & Klein, H. J. (1998). The effect of perceived loafing and defensive impression management on group effectiveness. *Small Group Research*, 29(3), 394-415.
- Mulvey, P. W., & Klein, H. J. (1998). The impact of perceived loafing and collective efficacy on group goal processes and group performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 74(1), 62-87.
- Murphy, S. M., Wayne, S. J., Liden, R. C., & Erdogan, B. (2003). Understanding social loafing: The role of justice perceptions and exchange relationships. *Human Relations*, 56(1), 61-84.
- Nordstrom, R., Lorenzi, P., & Hall, R. V. (1990). A review of public posting of performance feedback in work settings. *Journal of Organizational Behavior Management*, 11(2), 101-123.
- Peterson, R. S., & Behfar, J. (2003). The dynamic relationship between performance feedback, trust, and conflict in groups: A longitudinal study. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 92(1-2), 102-112.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Ahearne, M. (1997). Moderating effects of goal acceptance on the relationship between group cohesiveness and productivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(6), 974-983.
- Postrel, S. (2009). Multitasking teams with variable complementarity: Challenges for capability management. *Academy of Management Review*, 34(2), 273-296.
- Price, K. H. (1987). Decision responsibility, task responsibility, identifiability, and social loafing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Development Processes*, 40(1), 330-345.
- Robbins, S. P., & Judge, T. A. (2014). *Organizational behavior* (15th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Romanelli, E., & Tushman, M. L. (1994). Organizational transformation as punctuated equilibrium: An empirical test. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(5), 1141-1166.
- Schermerhorn, J. R., Hunt, J. G., & Osborn, R. N. (2014). *Organizational behavior* (12th ed.). New York, NY: Wiley.
- Shani, A. B., Chandler, D., Coget, J. F., Lau, J. B. (2014). *Behavior in organizations: An experiential approach* (10th ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.
- Sheldon, K. M., & Bettencourt, B. A. (2002). Psychological need satisfaction and subjective well-being within social groups. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 41(1), 25-38.
- Sheppard, J. A. (1993). Productivity loss in performance groups: A motivational analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113(1), 67-81.
- Stark, E. M., Shaw, J. D., & Duffy, M. K. (2007). Preference for group work, winning orientation, and social loafing behavior in groups. *Group and Organization Management*, 32(6), 699-723.
- Stewart, G. L. (2006). A meta-analytic review of relationships between team design features and team performance. *Journal of Management*, 32(1), 29-54.
- Thompson, L. L. (2000). *Making the team*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Tuckman, B. W. (1965). Development sequence in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, 63(6), 384-399.

-
- Tuckman, B. W., & Jensen, M. A. (1977). Stages of small group development revisited. *Group & Organization Studies*, 2(3), 419-427.
- Tziner, A. (1982). Differential effects of group cohesiveness types: A clarifying overview. *Social Behavior and Personality*, 10(2), 227-239.
- West, B. J., Patera, J. L., & Carsten, M. K. (2009). Team level positivity: Investigating positive psychological capacities and team level outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(2), 249-267.
- Williams, K., Harkins, S., & Latane, B. (1981). Identifiability as a deterrent to social loafing: Two cheering experiments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 40(2), 303-311.
- Yank, J. L. (2006). The power of number 4.6. *Fortune*, 153(11), 122.
- Zander, A. (1982). *Making groups effective*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.