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Communication Collaboration, Cohesion, and Decision Making: Perceived Differences Between Top Management Teams and Regular Work Teams

Elijah L. Murphy

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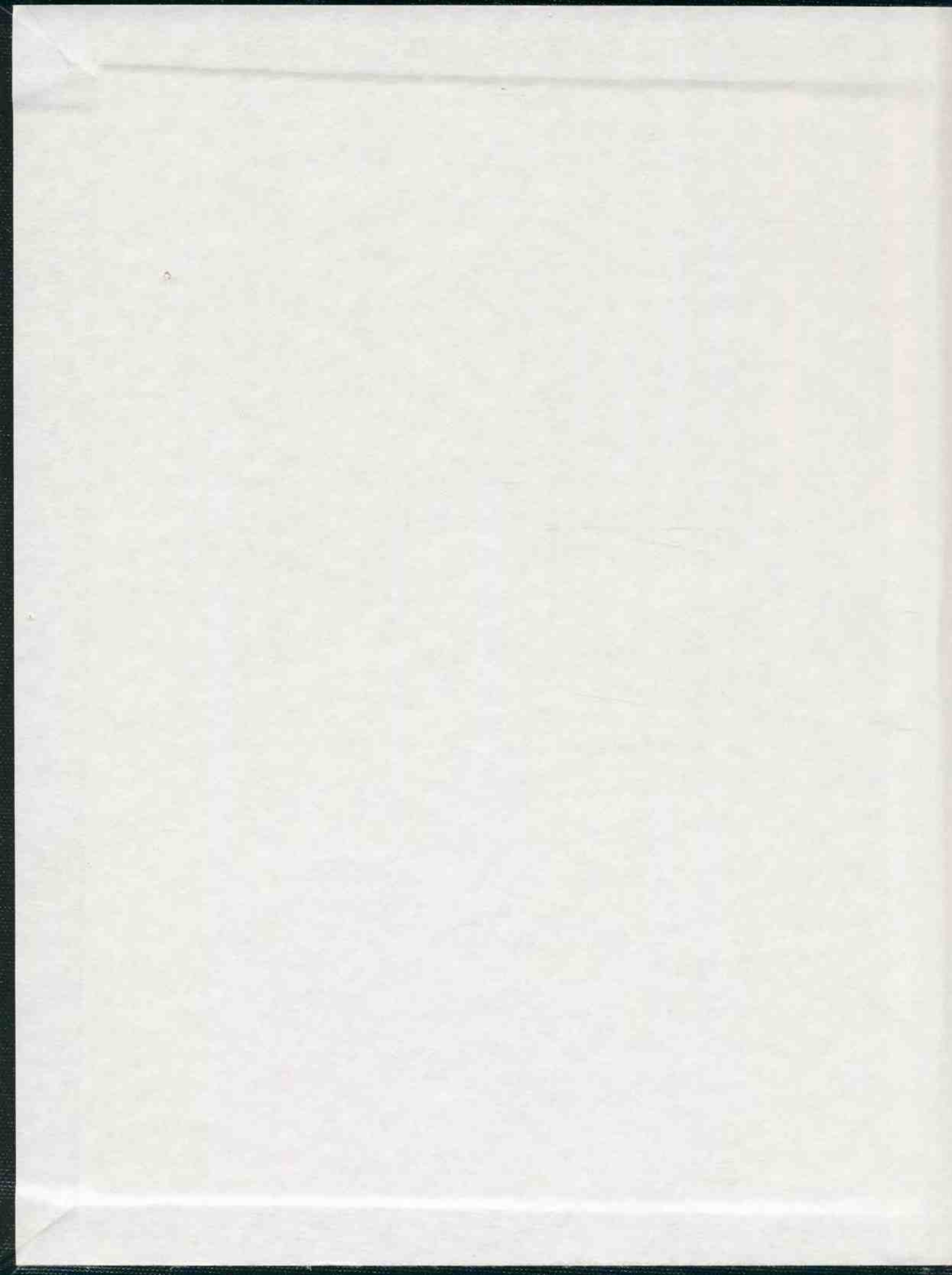
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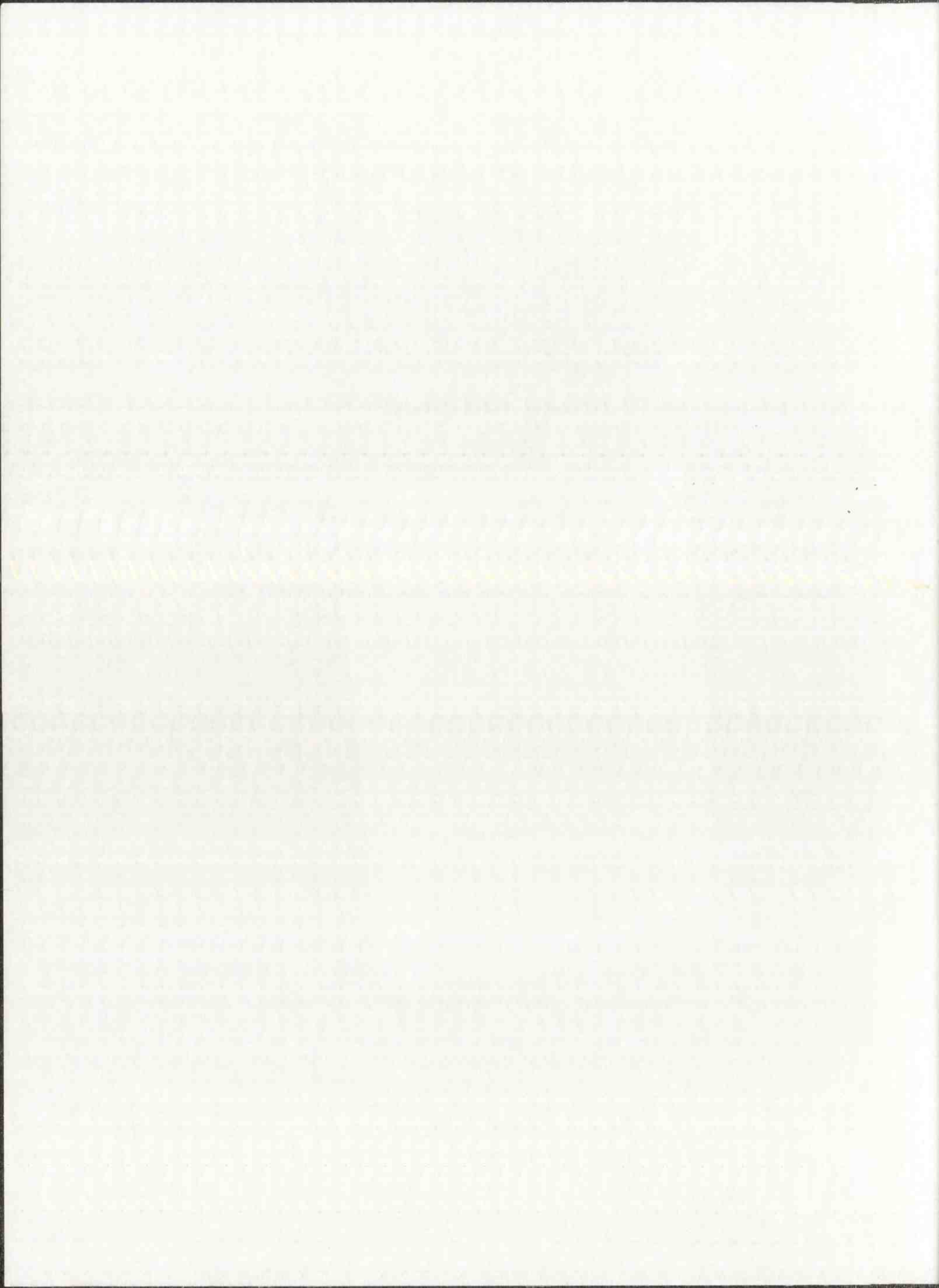
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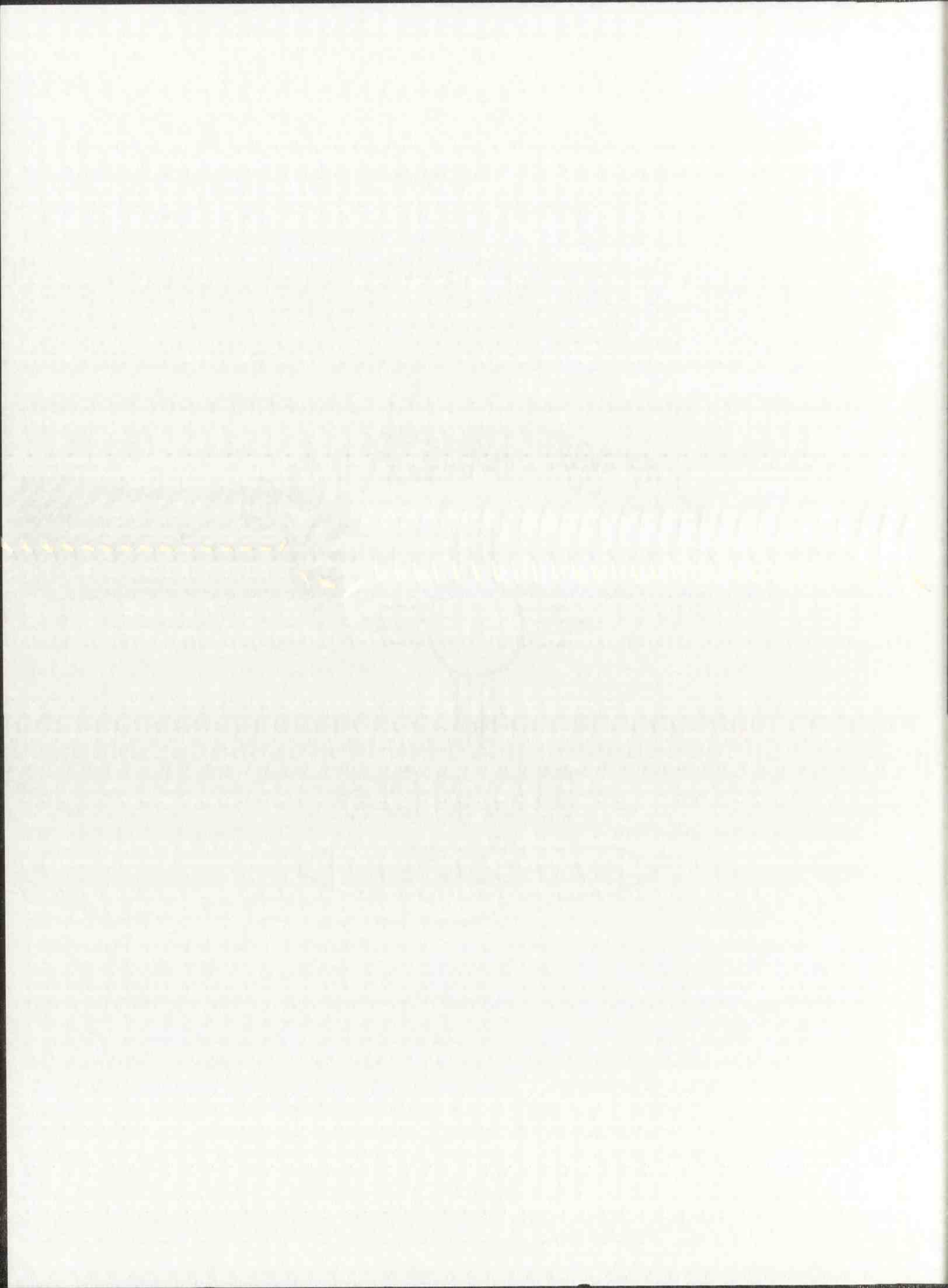
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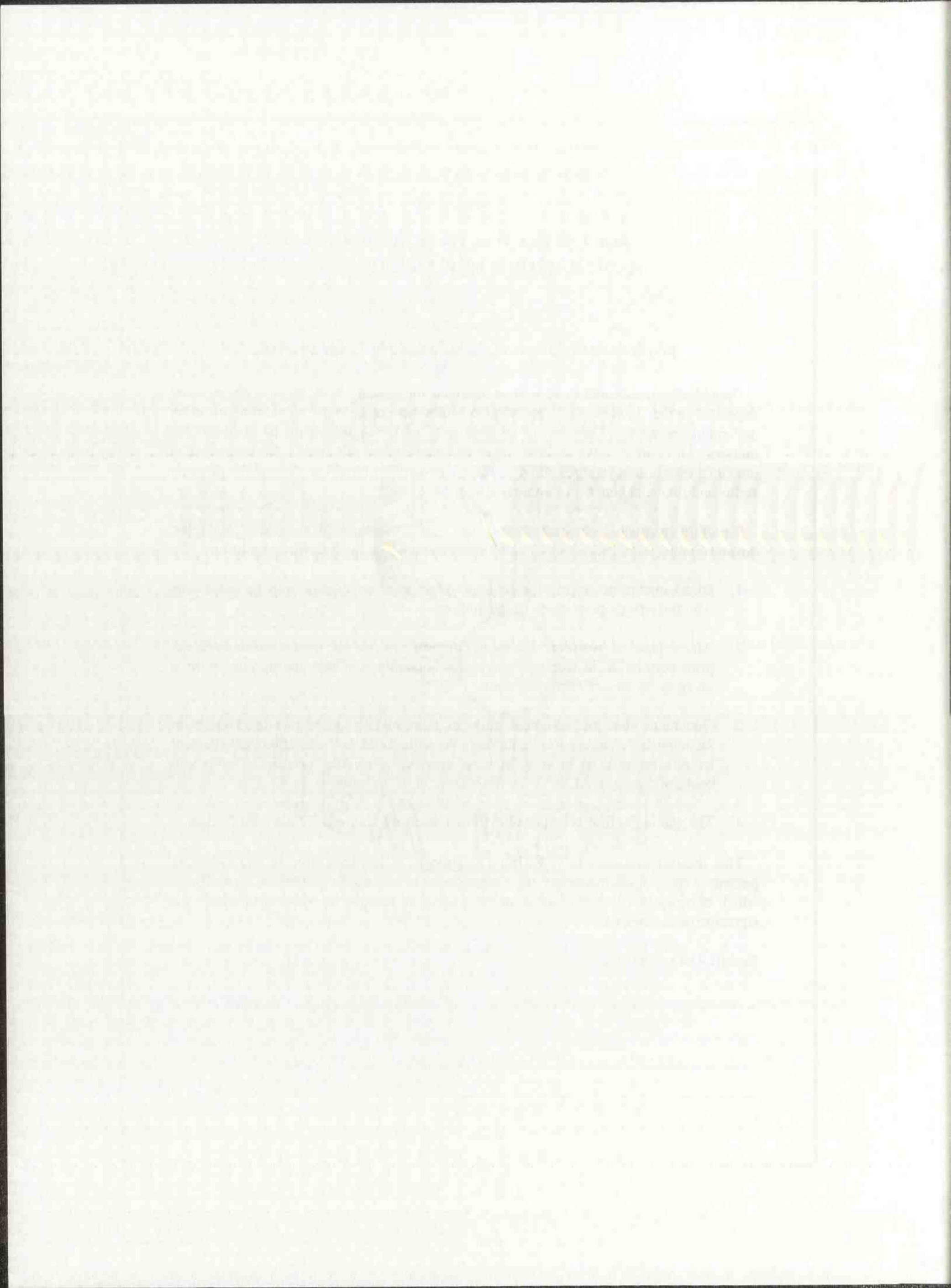
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Elijah L Murphy

Candidate

Communication and Journalism

Department

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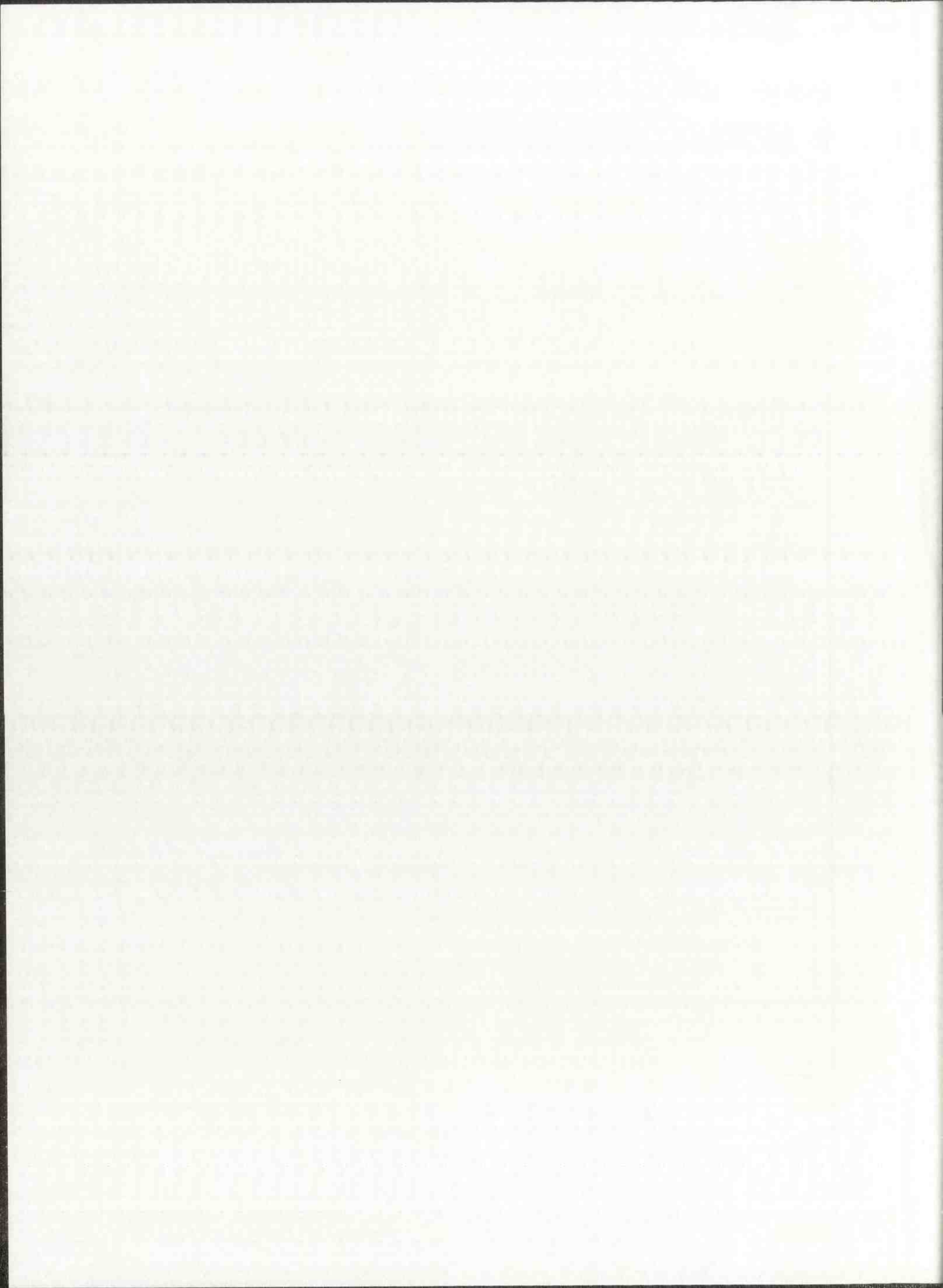
Approved by the Thesis Committee:

Pamela Lister

, Chairperson

Virginia McDermott

Cory Amos



**Communication Collaboration, Cohesion, and Decision Making: Perceived
Differences Between Top Management Teams and Regular Work Teams**

BY

Elijah L. Murphy

B.A., Communication, University of New Mexico, 2007

THESIS

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

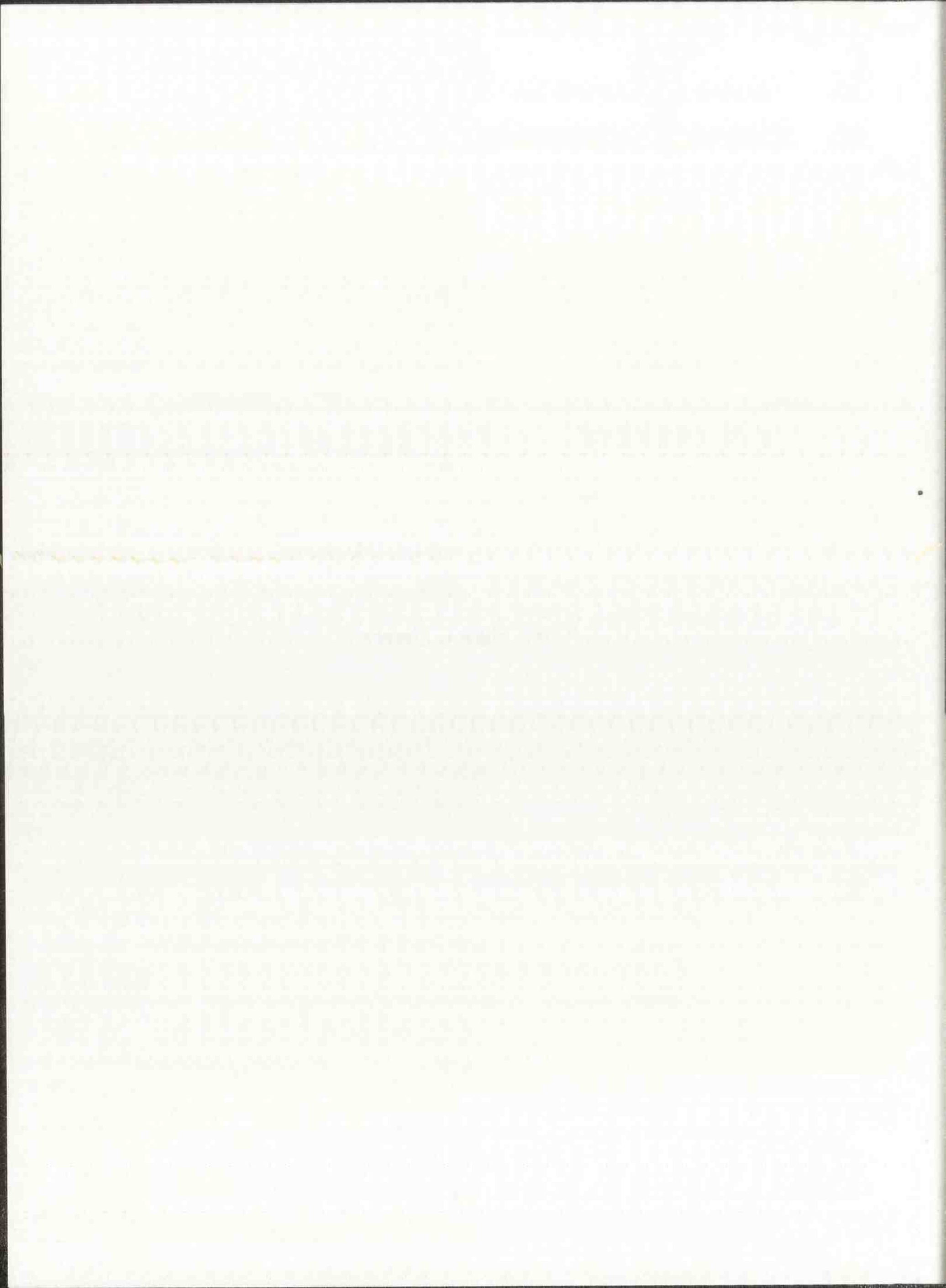
Communication

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Albuquerque, New Mexico

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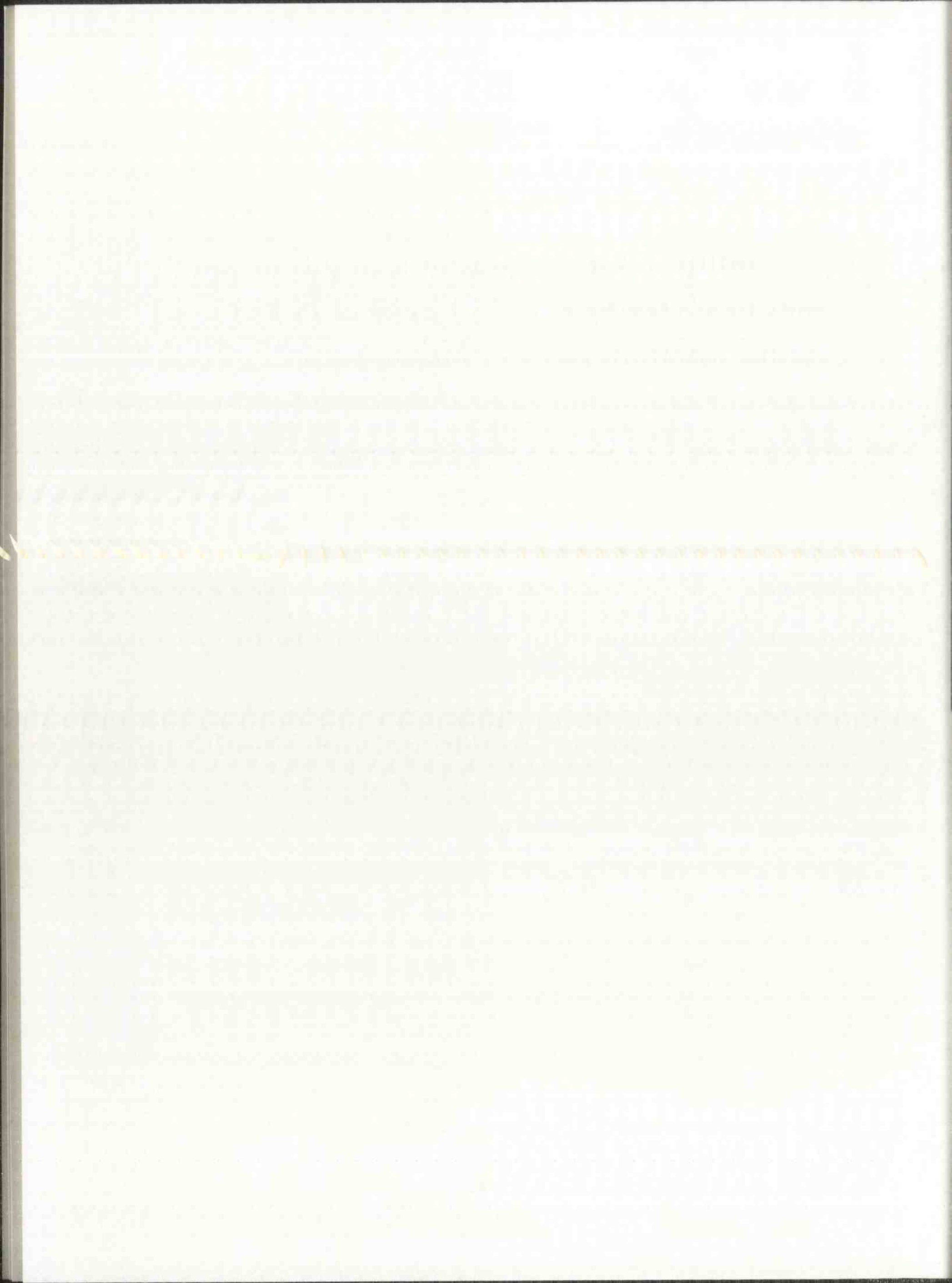


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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this manuscript to my parents, Daniel and Carleen Murphy. Thank you for teaching me the value of hard work and dedication. I cannot express how thankful I am for your influence and presence in my life.

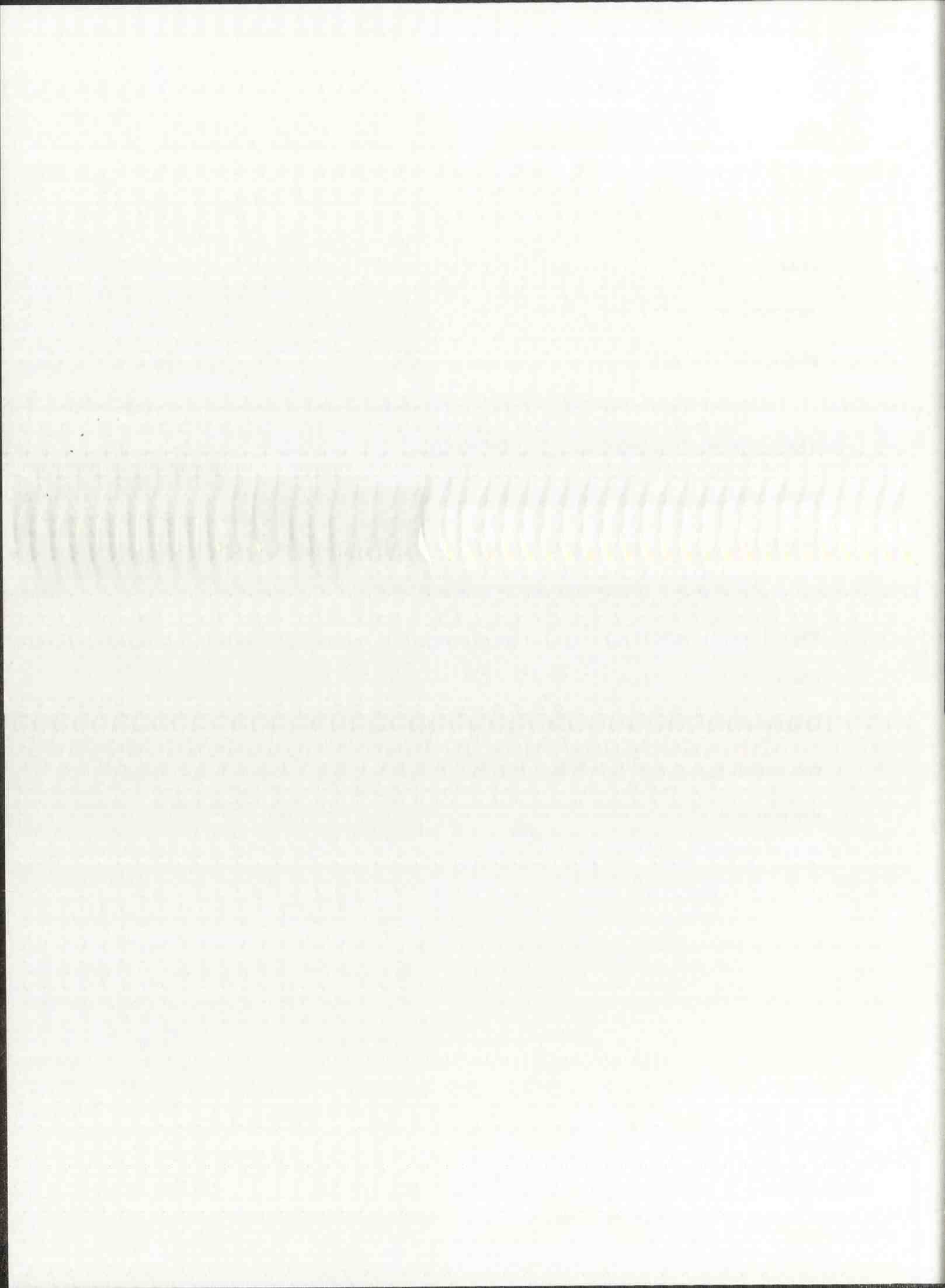


ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I heartily acknowledge Dr. Pamela Lutgen-Sandvik, my advisor and dissertation chair, for continuing to encourage me through the years of classroom teachings and the long number of months writing and rewriting these chapters. Her guidance and professional style will remain with me as I continue my career.

I also thank my committee members, Dr. Virginia McDermott and Dr. Douglas Thomas, for their valuable recommendations pertaining to this study and assistance in my professional development. You both were incredibly helpful in the development of my personal life and my academic studies. I cannot thank you enough.

To my best friend and beautiful wife, Lyndsey, thank you for the many years of support, encouragement and love. You make me want to be better and do better than I could have ever imagined. To my friends and colleagues in the Department of Communication, who gave me immeasurable support over the years. Your encouragement is greatly appreciated. To Holly Packard, for all of the help and assistance you provided.



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ABSTRACT OF THESIS

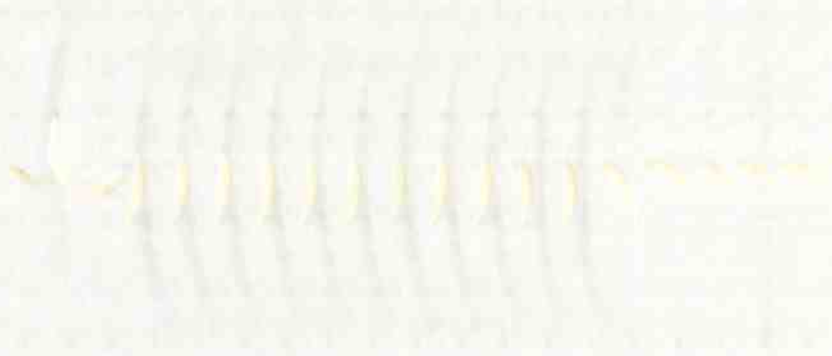
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ABSTRACT

Differences in communication collaboration, cohesion and decision making between top teams and regular teams was investigated. An analysis of 253 members of top teams and regular teams was used to determine where these differences exist. To identify differences between these two groups a one way ANOVA was conducted. Additionally, a decision making scale was designed and evaluated using a confirmatory factor analysis. Collaboration was evaluated using measures of knowledge sharing, workgroup support and employee attitude. Cohesion was evaluated using measures of sense of belonging and morale. Decision making was evaluated using measures of authority rule, majority rule, consensus, and satisficing.

Results show that there are significant differences in levels of collaboration and cohesion between members of top teams and regular teams. However, with the exception of majority rule, decision making styles yielded no significant differences.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the effectiveness of a self-management program for the treatment of chronic pain in a community sample of patients.

Introduction

Chronic pain is a common and often disabling condition. The prevalence of chronic pain in the general population is estimated to be between 10% and 20%. The most common sites of pain are the neck, back, and joints. The etiology of chronic pain is complex and often involves both physical and psychological factors.

Traditional medical approaches to the treatment of chronic pain have focused primarily on the use of analgesics and other pharmacological agents. However, these approaches have often been associated with significant side effects and limited long-term effectiveness.

Behavioral approaches to the treatment of chronic pain have gained increasing attention in recent years. These approaches are based on the principles of operant conditioning and self-management.

The present study was designed to evaluate the effectiveness of a self-management program for the treatment of chronic pain in a community sample of patients.

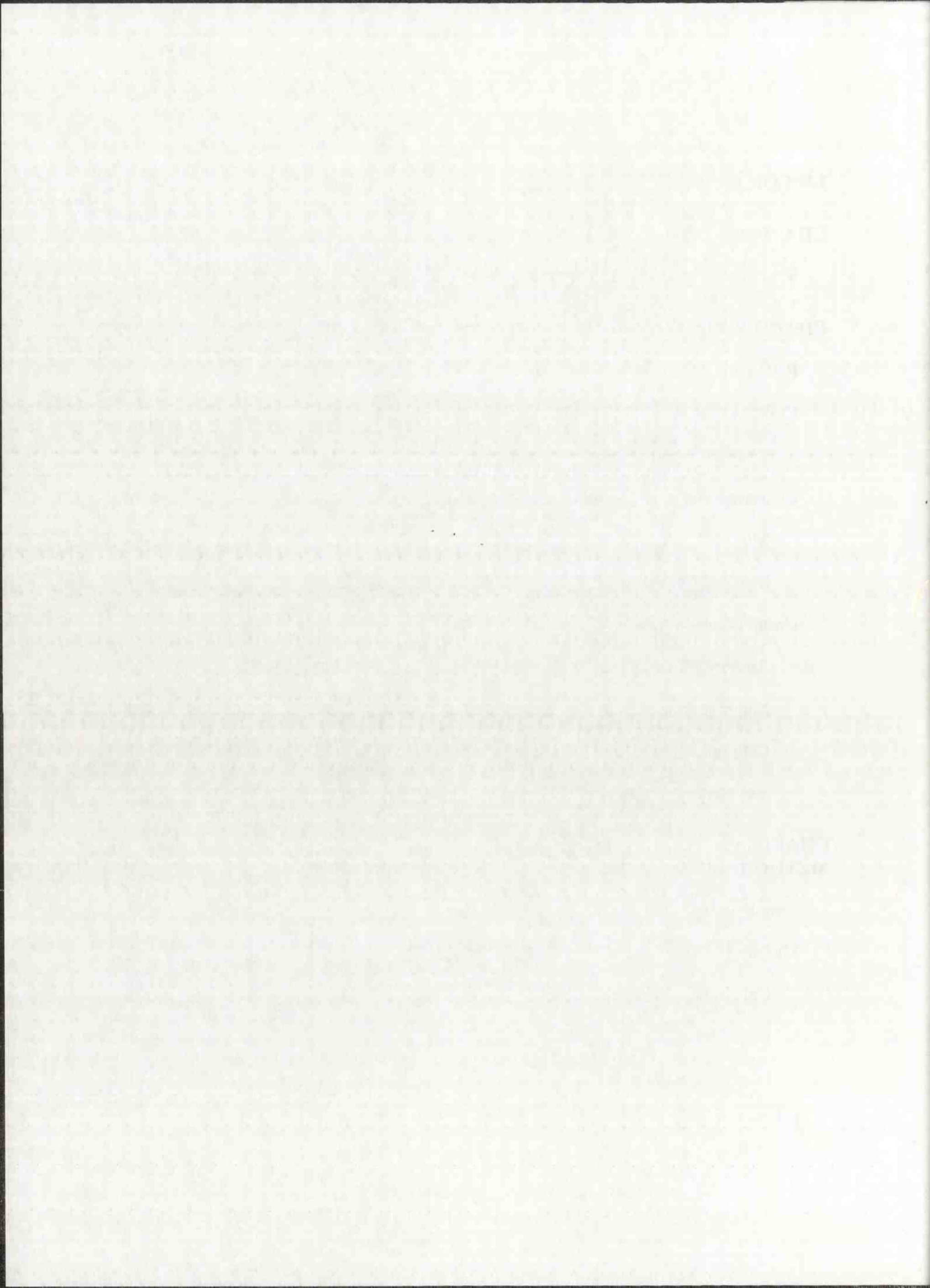
The program consisted of a series of self-management techniques designed to help patients identify and control their pain. These techniques included self-monitoring, self-reinforcement, and self-distraction.

The results of the study indicated that the self-management program was effective in reducing the intensity and frequency of pain in the community sample of patients.

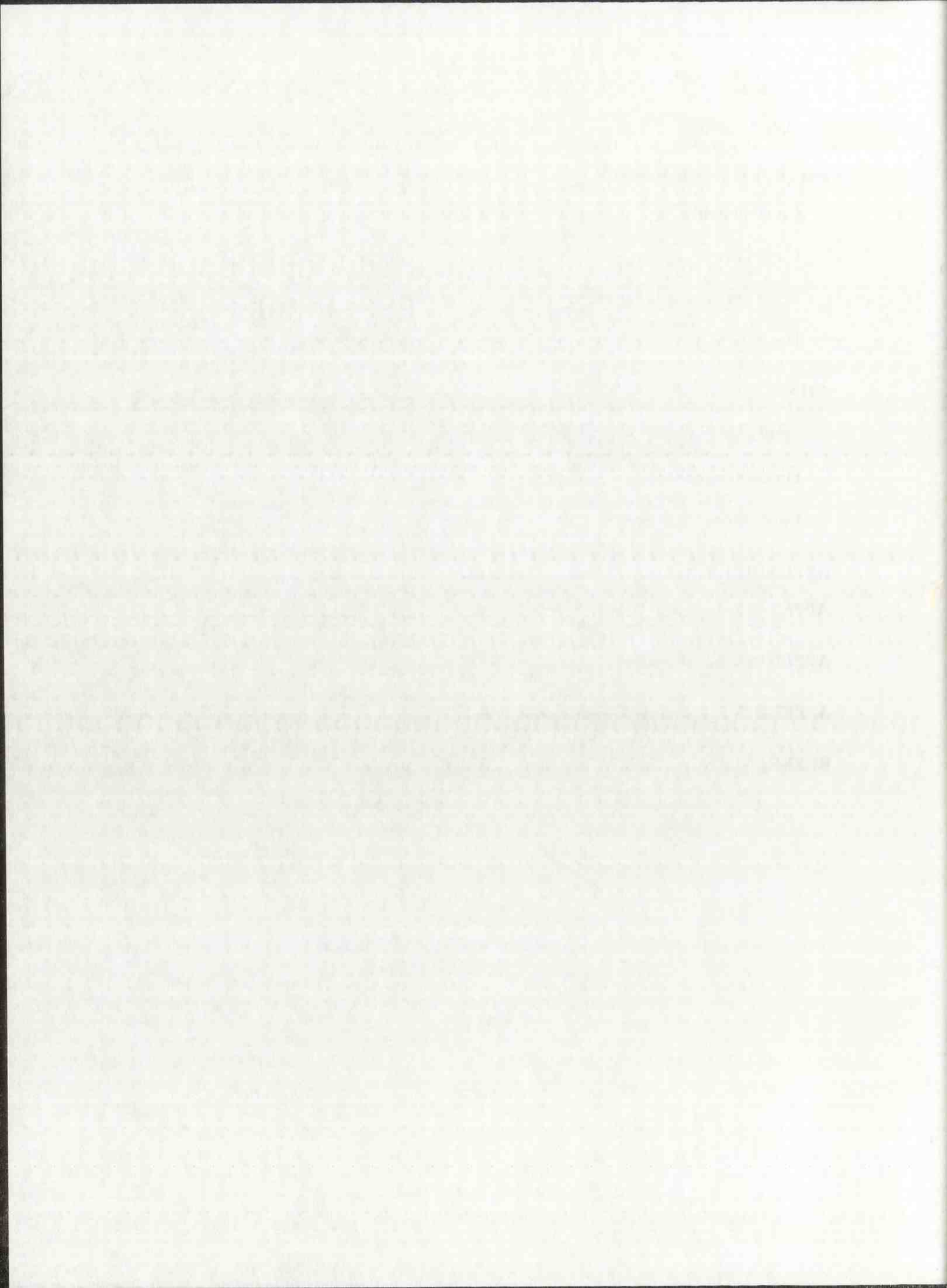
The findings of this study suggest that self-management programs may be an effective and safe approach to the treatment of chronic pain in a community sample of patients.

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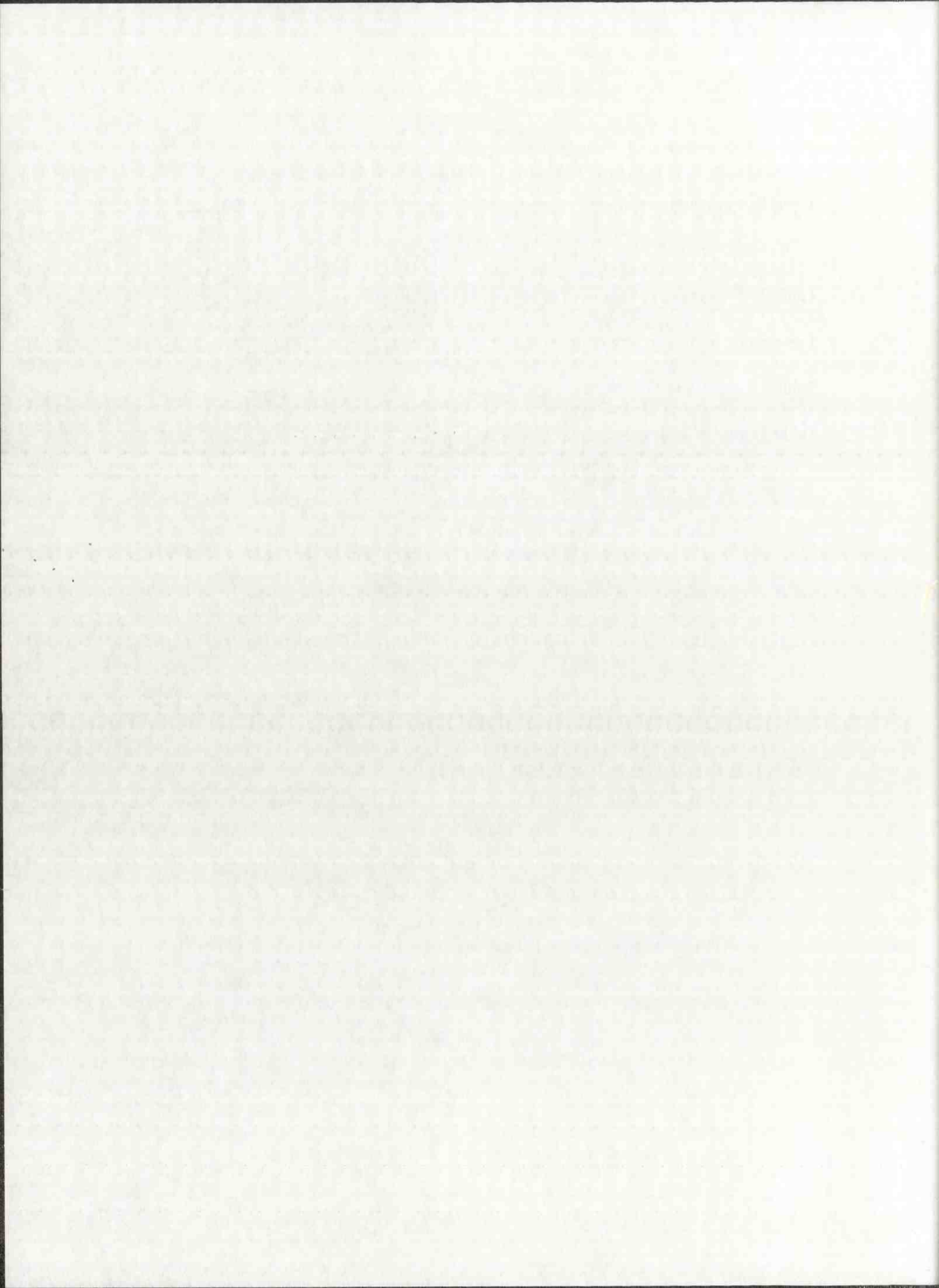


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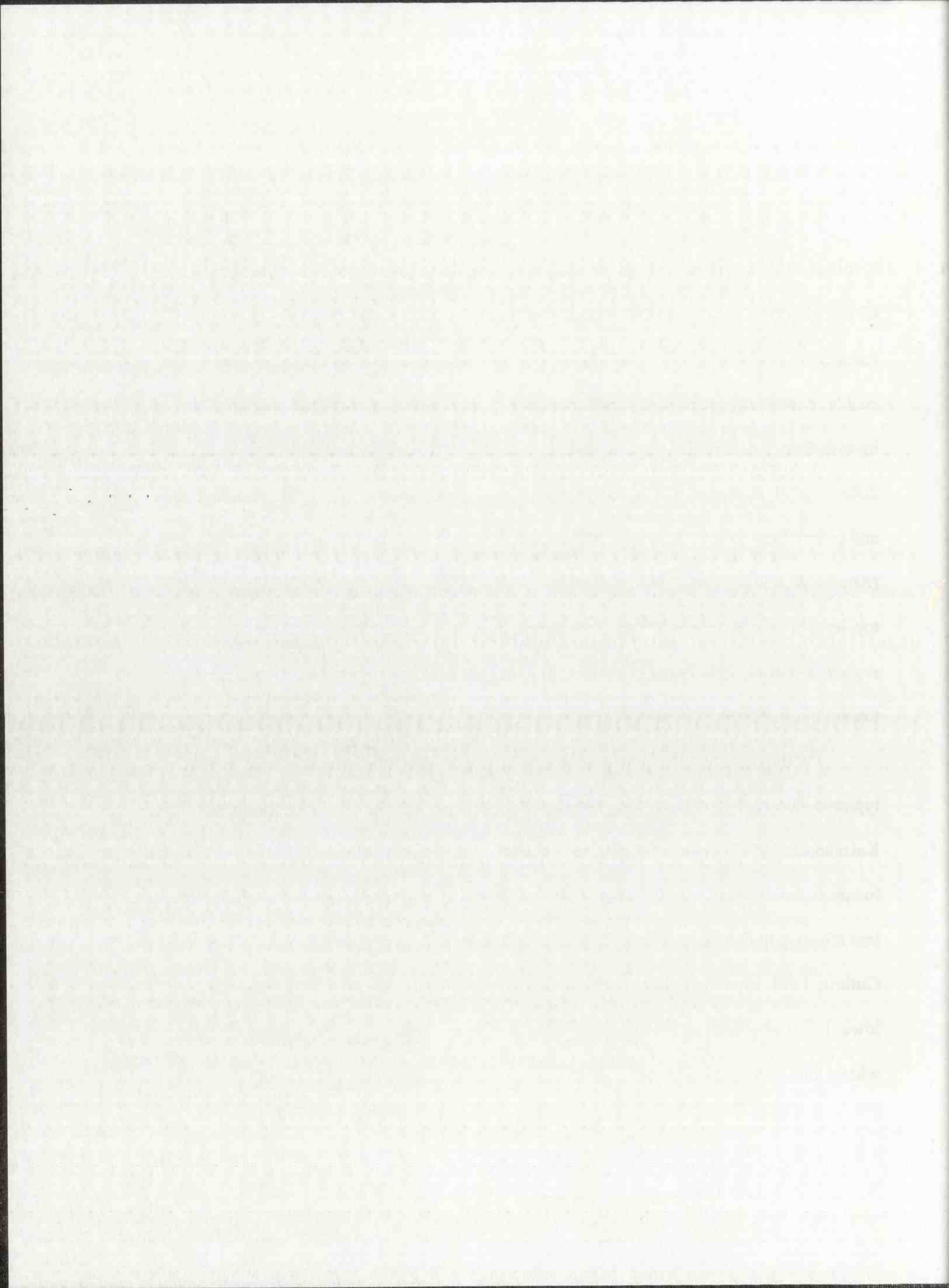


CHAPTER ONE

Introduction and Theoretical Framework

Since the 1980s, interest in top-management teams (TMTs) has burgeoned, likely due to these team's key roles in decision making and guiding organizational direction (Raes, Glunk, Heijltjes, & Roe, 2007). Organizational development practitioners as well as researchers posit that top-level teamwork generates "creative ideas and multiple alternatives, enables executives to utilize diverse experience to solve difficult problems, and increases involvement and commitment of key senior executives" (Edmondson, Roberto, & Watkins, 2003, p. 297). In theory, TMTs provides a collective environment for handling both internal and external instability and complexity, issues that often confound organizational management (Ancona & Nadler, 1989; Hambrick, 1998). Ostensibly, working in collaboration with other top-level persons provides a setting in which CEOs and other organizational authorities can engage in participative group processes, find help working through difficult issues, and move toward more effective decisions. Milieu

On the other hand, extensive research as well as anecdotal evidence point to TMTs typically falling short of achieving this hoped for promise (Hackman, 1990; Hambrick, 1994; Katzenbach, 1998). Despite the general tendency of organizational members to place their faith in upper-management's ability to make sound decisions, evidence suggests that these teams are less effective at collaborative decision making than regular work teams (RWTs) (Data & Guthrie, 1994; Hambrick, 1994, LaFasto & Larson, 2001; Senge, 2006) and generally have lower levels of perceived cohesiveness (Wooldridge & Floyd, 1990). Peter Senge (2006), widely known for his theory on organizational learning, argues,

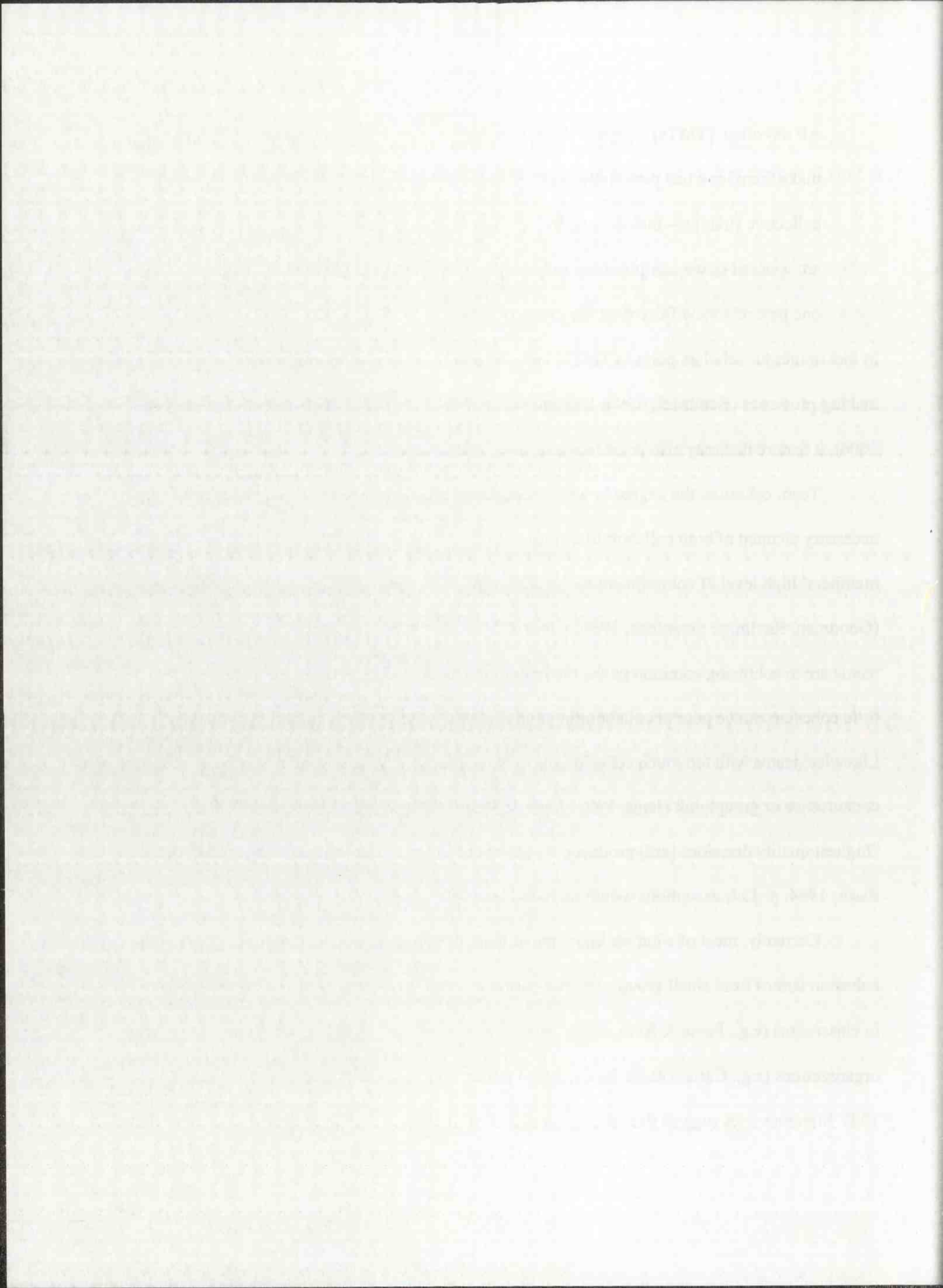


All too often, [TMTs] ... spend their time fighting for turf, avoiding anything that will make them look bad personally, and pretending that everyone is behind the team's collective strategy—maintaining the appearance of a cohesive team..... [J]oint decisions are watered-down compromises reflecting what everyone can live with or else reflecting one person's view foisted on the group (p. 24).

In fact numerous scholars point to TMTs' lack of collaborative communication in their decision making processes (Hambrick, 1994; LaFasto & Larson, 2001; Lubatkin, Simsek, Ling, & Veiga, 2006), a feature that may also point to a lack of cohesiveness.

Team cohesion, the degree to which teams pull together, is a feature considered to be a necessary element of both collaborative communication and effective decision making. Team members' high level of commitment to the achievement of common goals increases cohesion (Goodman, Ravlin, & Schminke, 1986; Klein & Mulvey, 1995). Typically, the more committed teams are to achieving common goals, the better they are at collaborating, and teams with too little cohesion can be poor at collaborating and decision making (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Likewise, teams with too much cohesion may also make poor decisions and be prone to norms of concurrence or groupthink (Janis, 1972; Janis & Mann, 1977). Research suggests that the "highest quality decisions [are] produced by groups of intermediate cohesiveness" (Callway & Esser, 1984, p. 157; exceptions would be found in sports teams).

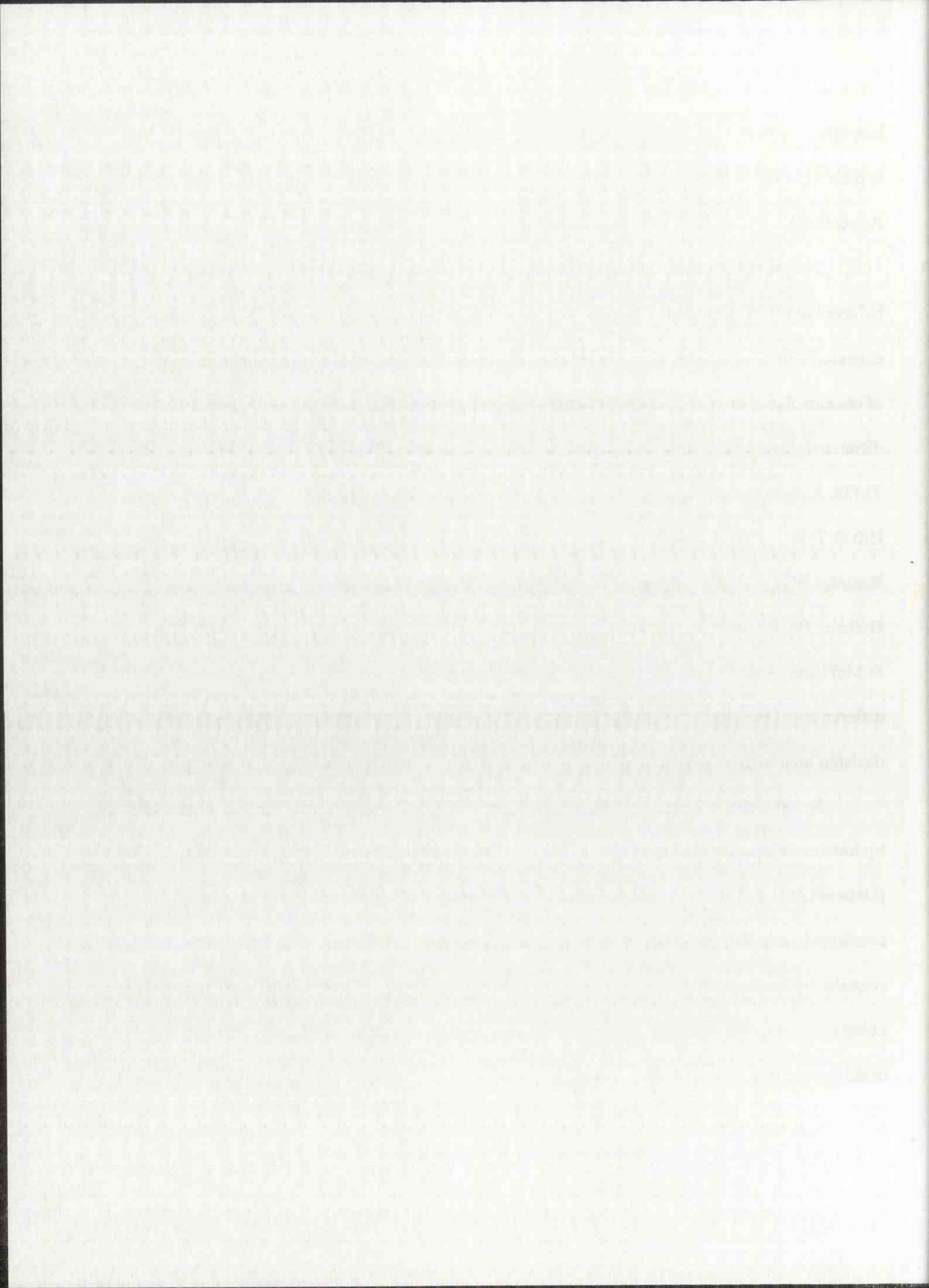
Currently, most of what we know about team decision making, collaboration, and cohesion comes from small group communication research examining short-term student teams in classrooms (e.g., Poole & Roth, 1989; Seibold & Meyers, 2007) or non-management teams in organizations (e.g., Carless & De Paola, 2000) rather than TMTs. Furthermore, although the TMT literature does suggest that teams comprised of high-ranking organizational members are



less effective than other teams in the areas of decision making, collaboration, and cohesion, there is little, if any, empirical research looking at what might be different about these teams. (See Appendix A for an overview of associated top management team studies.)

The current study addresses this gap in the literature by comparing three variables believed to effect the quality of decision making—collaboration, decision making style, and cohesion—in TMTs and RWTs. Understanding if these variables differ is important for a number of reasons. First, there is a lack of research examining these differences, and knowing about such differences could help in the transfer of effective aspects from TMTs to RWTs or RWTs to TMTs. Rather, researchers have examined TMTs' member traits (Haleblian & Finklestein, 1993; Hitt & Tyler, 1991; Wiersema & Bantel, 1992), member demographics (Bantel & Jackson, 1989; Bantel, 1993), and group diversity (Boekker, 1997; Buccholtz & Ribbens, 1994; Datta & Guthrie, 1994; Hambrick, Geletkanyz, & Fredrickson, 1993; Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Hogan & McPheters, 1980). Although valuable works in their own right, these do not point to differences, if present, between TMTs and RWTs on issues of collaboration, cohesion, and decision making.

Second, although several researchers argue that TMTs are poor at collaboration, marked by low levels of cohesion, and prone to decisions based on weak consensus or authority rule (Data & Guthrie, 1994; LaFasto & Larson, 2001; Senge, 2006), little empirical work has confirmed such claims. Also, we know little about whether TMTs and RWTs differ in these regards. By understanding the differences in how different types of teams collaborate, experience cohesion, and make decisions, upper-management may be able to pinpoint areas for team building and improvement.

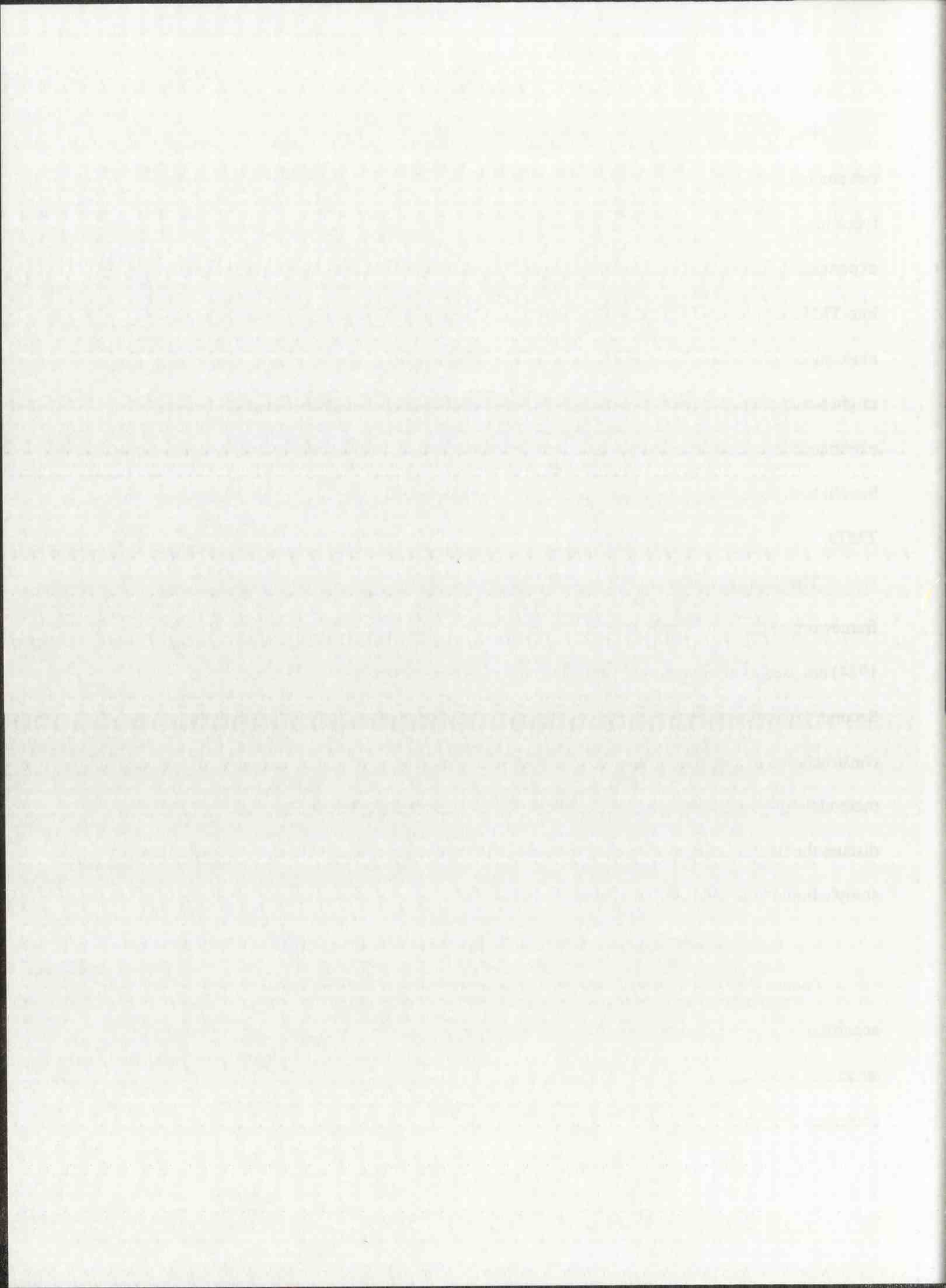


Finally, the current study provides an understanding of different team dynamics and thus can smooth transitions from RWTs to TMTs. Pinpointing differences between these two group types in collaboration, cohesion, and decision making approaches can prepare persons experiencing transitions to different teams with some idea of what to expect. If workers moving into TMTs are prepared to deal with the different decision-making environments, they might be more successful in handling new responsibilities. Additionally, TMTs can identify areas that might weaken their decision-making quality, and these organizational members may then experience increased perceptions of security in their new team settings. As such, this study can benefit both the executives who comprise TMTs and the employees who may later transition into TMTs.

The thesis is structured in the following manner: First, I present the theoretical framework of the study comparing TMTs and RWTs; elements structuration theory (Giddens, 1984) are used as a framework for understanding key features of the study's concepts and aims. Second, I overview the key constructs in this study, review the current literature regarding these constructs and teams, and outline the study's research questions. Third, I detail the study's methodology—participants, measures, and analyses—and then present the key findings. Fourth, I discuss the findings and how they extend aspects of structuration theory. In closing I outline the study's limitations and suggest areas for future research.

Structuration Theory and Top Management Teams

Giddens' (1984) theory of structuration is a useful framework for this study since, according to this perspective, decision making, communicative collaboration, and cohesion are structures or structuring practices instantiated by human communication. That is, through communication members of RWTs and TMTs constitute their collaborative environment,

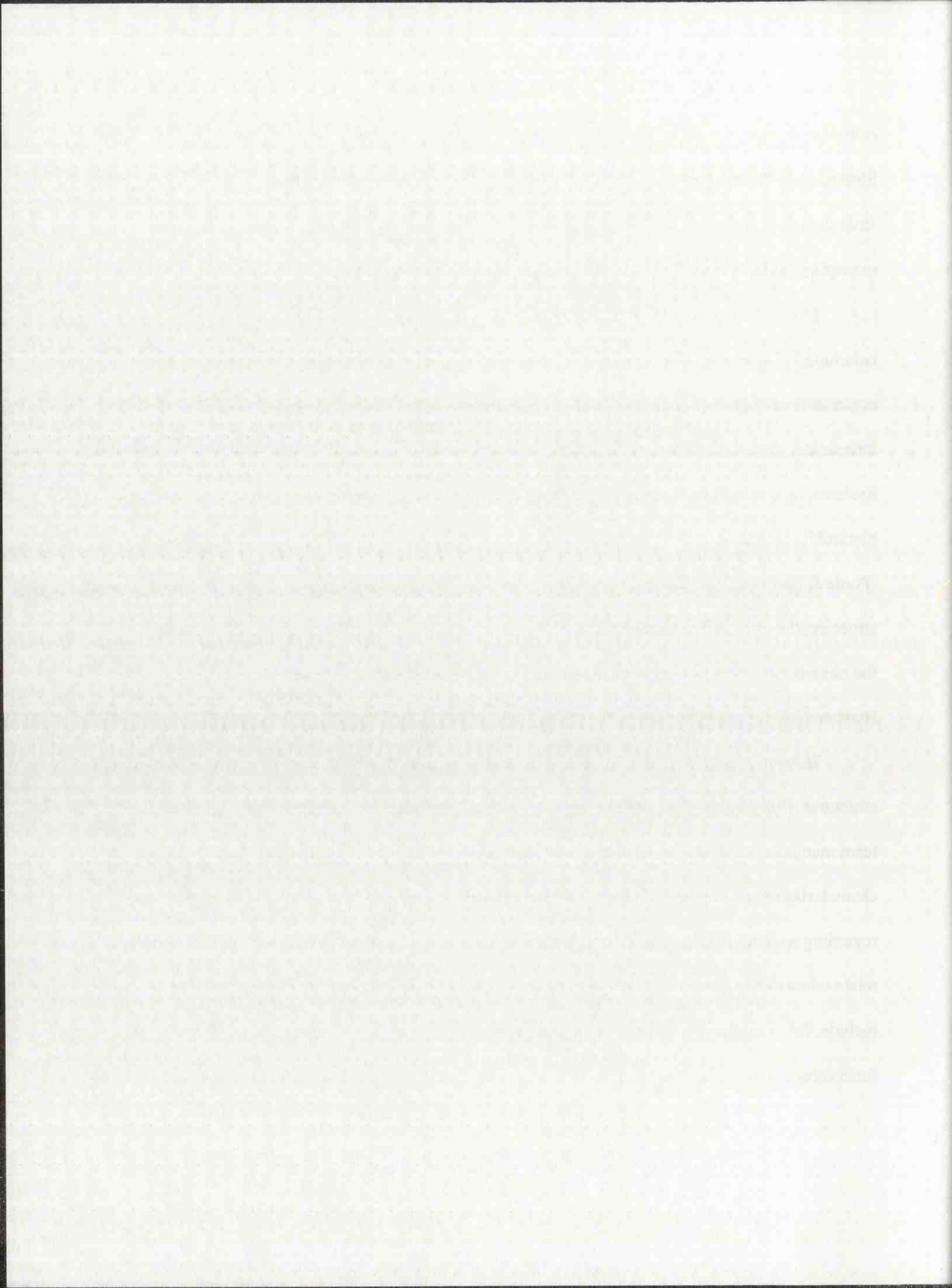


continuously recreate group cohesion, and negotiate decision making processes over time.

Structuration theory proposes, among other things, that human interaction is both the result of structure (rules and resources) and is resource for what Giddens calls structuring (i.e., creating, recreating, and transforming structure through day to day communicative practices).

From a structural perspective *structure*, or the structuring properties of communication, and *system* have distinct meanings. Structure refers to the rules and resources organizational members access and use to create, recreate, and transform ways of acting and interacting. These form observable patterns of relationship in practice (Poole & McPhee, 2005). Systems, on the other hand, are the outcomes of humans using structures. For example, the hierarchical status of TMTs and their members in organizations would be considered a system (Poole & McPhee, 1985), one that implicates power. Group decision making then is “both structure, the rules and resources individuals draw upon to produce [decisions] ..., and system, the observable interactive practice in which structure is implicated” (Meyers, Seibold, & Brashers, 1991, p. 48).

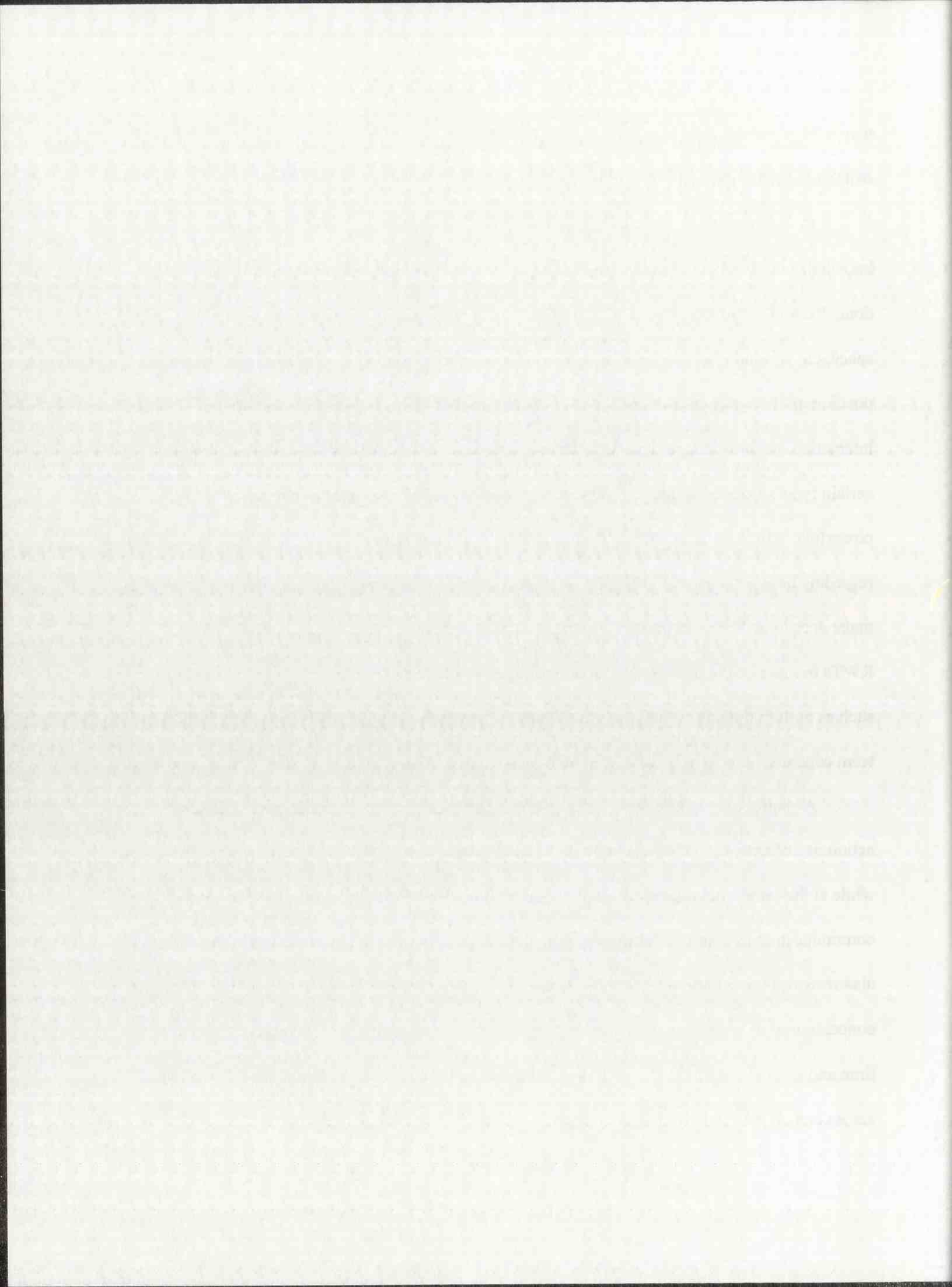
Humans instantiate rules and resources in their microinteractions, which in turn constitute structures. Rules, in the case of team decision making, are the norms, routines, and habits of team members, teams in the organizational context, and the organization as a whole. Rules that characterize organizational practices such as decision making can be both formal (e.g., policies regarding who has decision making power) or informal (e.g., interactional rules regarding how to relate while moving toward decisions). Rules may be agreed upon or they may be unstated and include, for example, deferring to the highest ranking person in the team (i.e., authority rule). Such rules are likely determined by past interactions, norms for dealing with power, and cultural



ways of interacting. Over time, they shape the favored types of group decision making, levels of collaborative communication, and perceptions of team cohesiveness.

Resources, on the other hand, are the beliefs, attitudes, knowledge, experience, and self-knowledge of members—the factors upon which group members draw in order to get things done. Resources can be either allocative (e.g., material objects such as money, equipment, office space, etc.) or authoritative (non-material resources such as technical expertise, organizational position, policies, etc.) (Giddens, 1984). Resources both affect and create standards for interaction, including team decision making processes, and might, for example, encourage certain types of decision making like weak consensus or authority rule in teams comprised of powerful organizational members (Senge, 2006). Resources can also include ideas and practices regarding how persons with differing positions, technical expertise, and experience interact and make decisions. For example, TMTs might defer to expert decision making more often than RWTs because of the presence of technical experts in the team. As such, rules and resources such as preferred decision making type, levels of communication collaboration, and feelings of team coherence potentially differ between TMTs and RWTs.

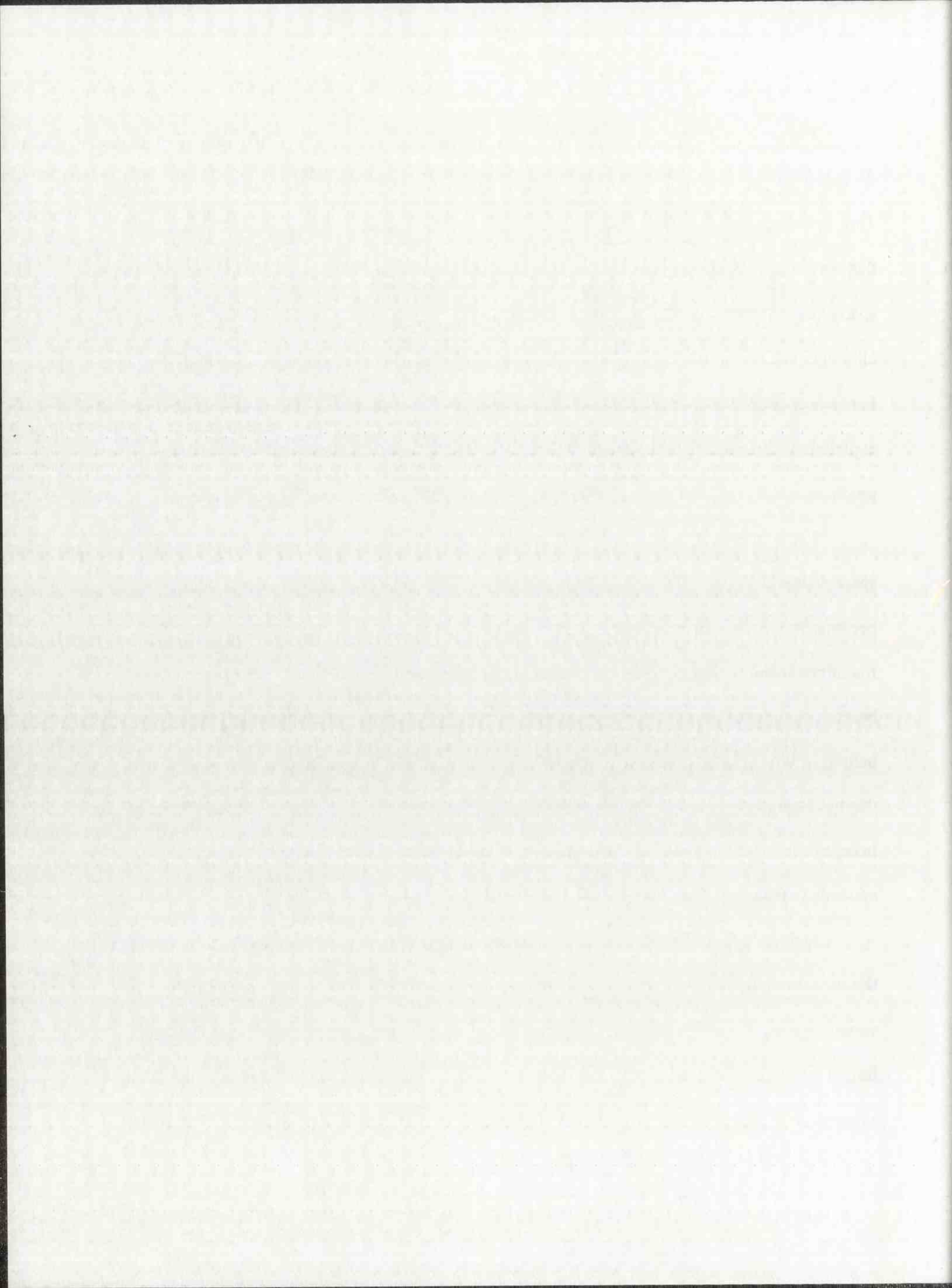
A central idea to Giddens' work is the duality of structure. Every instance of human action or interaction both draws upon patterns of practices (i.e., systems and their structures), while at the same time reproduces and can, over time, transform those practices. As such, communication in teams at different organizational levels draws upon patterns of practice but also recreates these patterns. Thus if, for example, TMTs are less likely to collaborate due to the concentration of hierarchical position among members, this pattern will potentially persist across time and space—we might expect to see this same pattern in different organizations and even across certain national boundaries given the global character of societies.



The concept of time-space distancing is also useful for recognizing that differences in decision making, collaboration, and cohesion are likely when examining TMTs and RWTs. Time-space distancing is the idea that social relations and practices are “stretched” in ways that make them enduring (expanding across time) and transferring (reoccurring in different spaces/places), especially the modality of power in relations and practices. Power is a feature of all social interactions but the way it is instantiated depends upon the system within which the interactions are located. McPhee (1988, 2001), in particular, utilized the notion distancing to explain how three levels of organizational hierarchy—executive, managerial, and technical-produced and reproduced vertical communication, the chain of command, very differently.

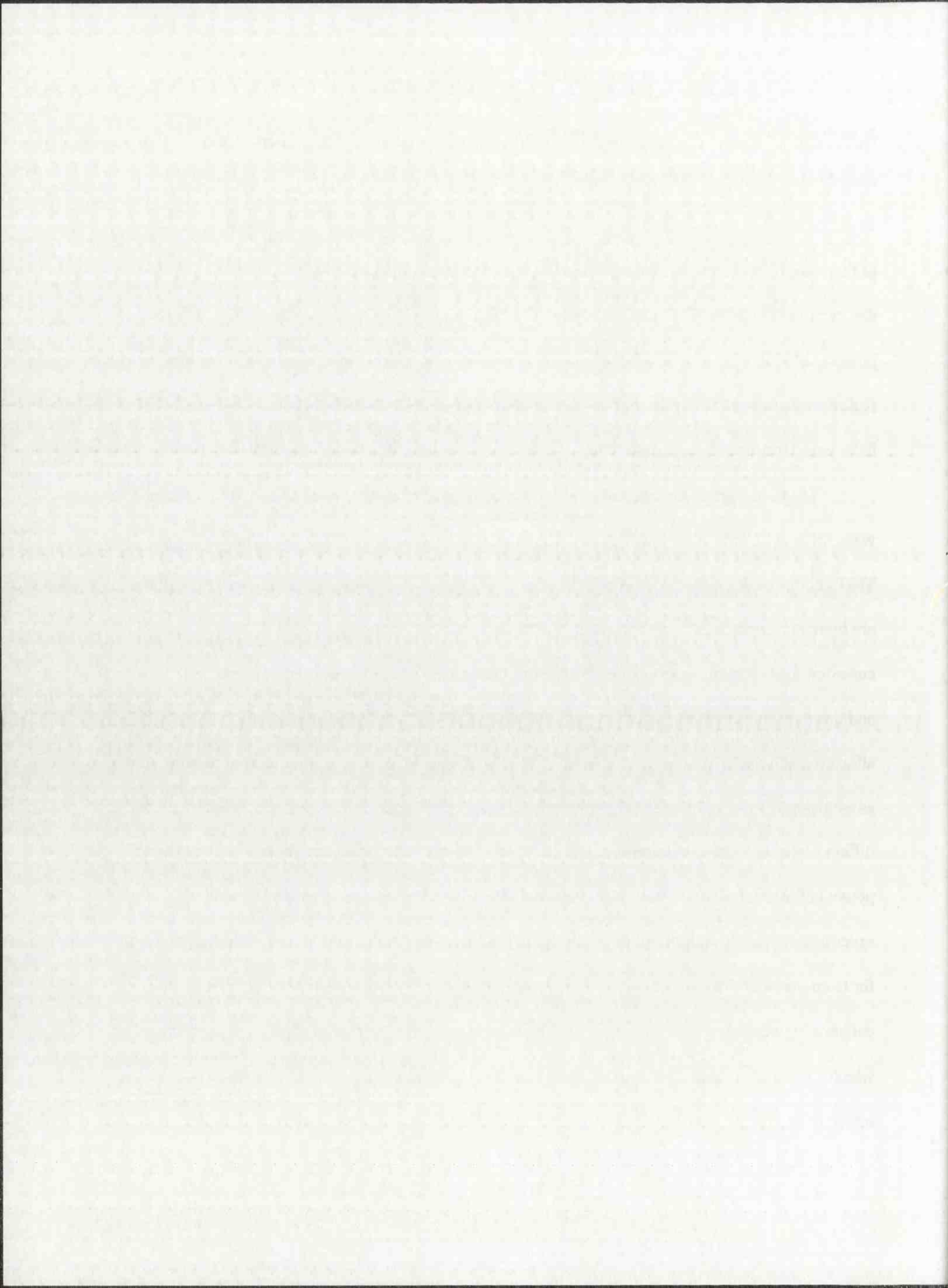
The concepts of routinization and system integration are concepts closely related to time-space distancing. Routinization occurs when a social practice (such as decision making) becomes stable over time and space (Giddens, 1984). System integration is when these routinized social practices become stable throughout time and space. That is, these practices become reproduced on a wider scale and can be found across distances and over extended periods of time. The increase use of teamwork in organizations is a perfect example of a process that has been routinized and integrated throughout many systems. The structure of teams exists in organizations throughout time and space, have been routinely used, and have become a systemic practice.

McPhee’s (1988) work underscores the importance of power in structuration theory, in this case the different ways power is instantiated or practiced in vertical communication at various organizational levels. “Sites of power in the organization are separated by the fact that formal structure is wielded as a *tool* in powerful sites, is simply the *focus* on work in others (such as human resource departments), and is a *contextual constraint* in the least powerful sites” (Poole



& McPhee, 2005, p. 186, emphasis added). So, for example, TMT members, all with considerable positional power and status, might “wield as a tool” their hierarchical position—an aspect of formal structure. In RWTs, hierarchical position may only be a “contextual constraint,” as there are likely to be few (if any) highly-positioned team members. It follows that distancing suggests TMTs and RWTs will differ in how they interact around the issues of power vested in position, which is likely to affect decision making style, collaboration, and feelings of cohesion. Despite theoretical conjectures that these differences are likely, researchers have yet to test this in empirical work.

TMTs as part of the executive level of organizations will necessarily instantiate power in ways different from RWTs, potentially ways that decrease sensed cohesion and collaboration. In TMTs comprised mainly of top-level members, we might expect less collaboration as members are typically experts and perform positional power, issues that members of RWTs might not consider. Furthermore, approaches to decision making are resources team members draw upon and these resources likely differ between TMTs and RWTs due to the concentration of both allocative and authoritative resources in TMTs. Likewise, levels of communicative collaboration as a cluster of rules upon which team members draw during decision-making interactions likely differs between these two team types. Executive-level organizational members routinely exercise power and expect others’ deference. Such deference is less likely to be expected in non-executive organizational member interactions. Finally, team cohesion is both a rule and resource for team members’ future interactions, one that is affected by and affects team’s level of collaboration and decision making type. I address these issues further in the following section in which I provide an overview the central constructs in this study that include teams, top-management teams, communication collaboration, cohesion, and decision making types.



CHAPTER TWO

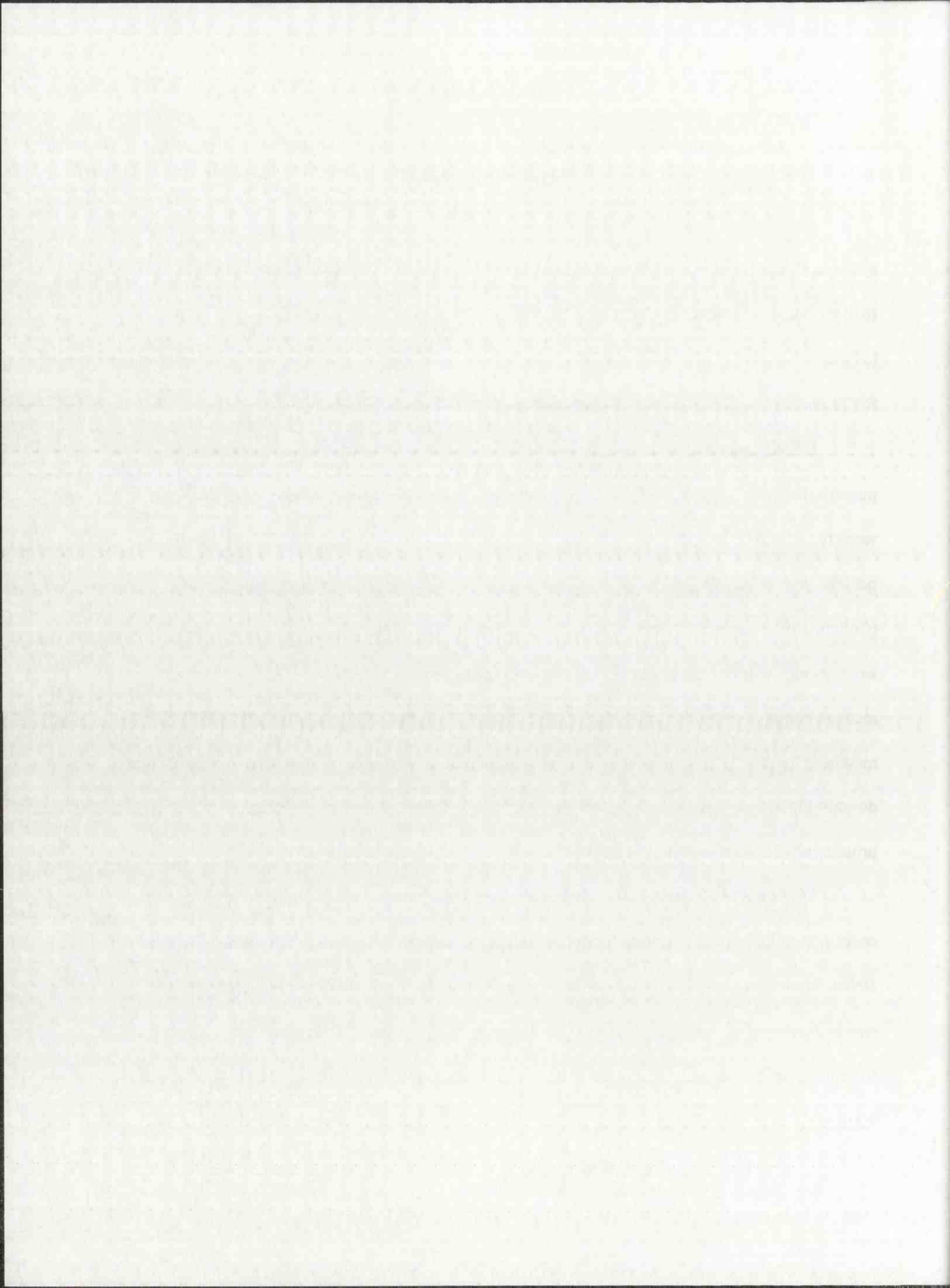
Review of Literature

The following outlines the key constructs in this study, defining each in turn. This section also examines current research regarding teams and the study's variables of interest (collaboration, cohesion, decision making). See also Appendix A as a summary of TMT research to date.

RWTs and TMTs: Definitions and Comparisons

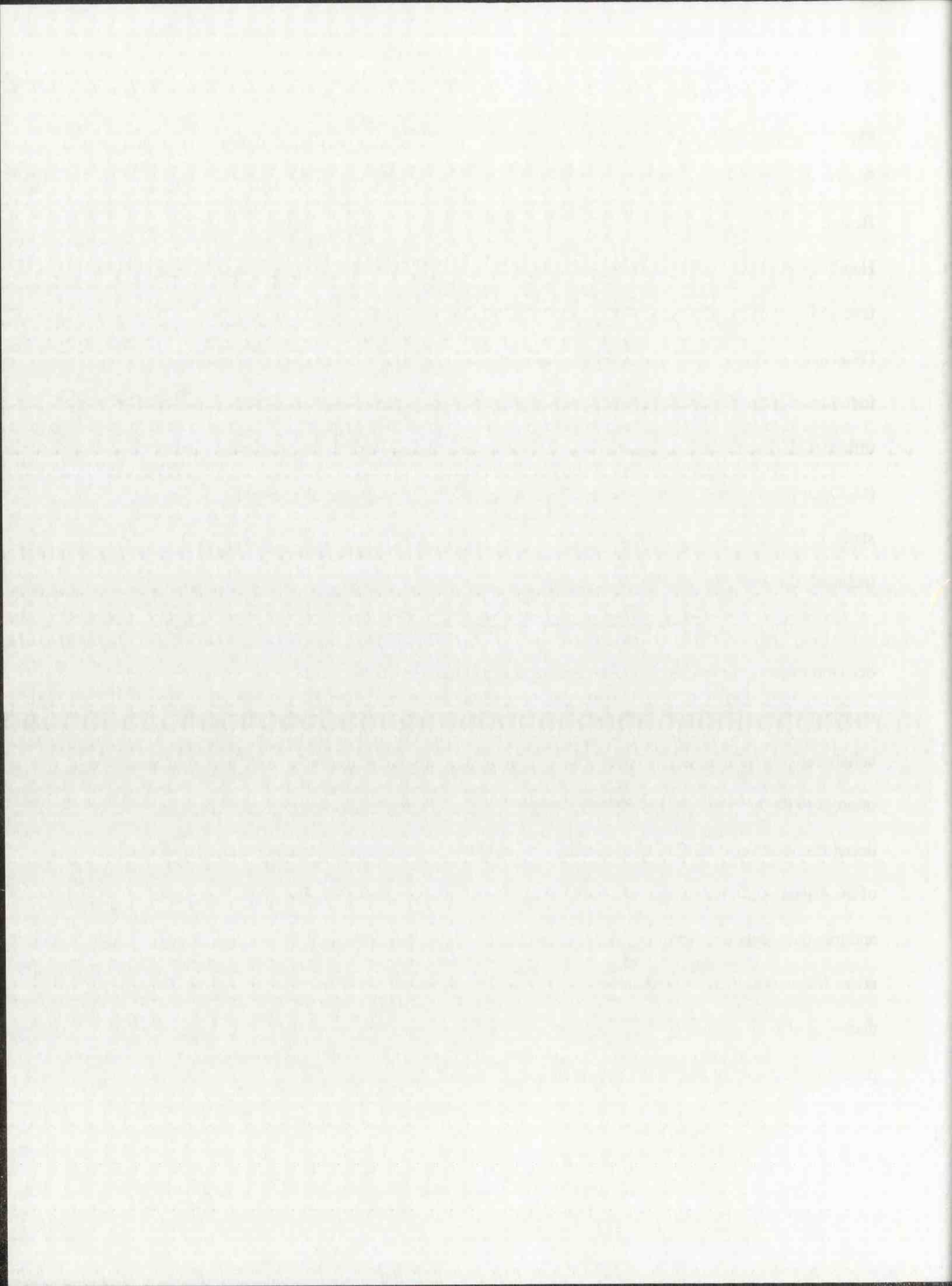
A RWT is typically defined as two or more people who must interact cooperatively in pursuit of shared goals and outcomes (Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Converse, 1993). Although work teams can be temporary and ad hoc, just as often they have a fairly stable membership of persons employed full-time who are responsible for producing goods or providing services (Cohen, 1991). Indeed, "a vast majority of organizational decisions are made in the context of a small group" (Miller, 2006, p. 173). Organizations use groups and teams to deal with and manage complex decisions and environments. Because of the collective nature of teamwork, the members frequently take more issues into consideration and make more informed decisions than do individuals working alone, often saving a company time and money and increasing productivity (Cohen & Bailey, 1997).

TMTs are another type of organizational team but are specialized in that they are coalitions of individuals responsible for setting organizational direction (Wiersema & Bantel, 1992). More specifically, a TMT is "the aggregate informational and decisional entity through which the organization operates and which forms the inner circle of executives who collectively formulate, articulate, and execute the strategic and tactical moves of the organization" (Klenke, 2003, p. 1024). Top management teams are purportedly comprised of knowledgeable,



experienced managers from differing functional and technical areas of expertise (Senge, 2006). Such teams are typically comprised of persons responsible for setting direction (Wiersema & Bantel, 1992) and can include officers or board members (Haleblian & Finkelstein, 1993; Hambrick & D'Aveni, 1992; Lant, Milliken, & Batre, 1992), persons above the vice-president level (Michel & Hambrick, 1992; Schwenk, 1993), and the highest ranking executives (Wiersema & Bantel, 1992). For the purposes of this study, I define TMTs as groups of individuals at the highest level of an organization that report directly to the chief executive officer (CEO) or the individual that reports to the CEO, usually the chief operating officer (COO) or functional executives (e.g., VPs of financial, technology, marketing, etc.). In this study, only executive managers at or above the vice-president level comprising teams are included; this excludes boards of directors.

To date there is little research that compares RWTs and TMTs on key issues related to decision making. Certainly, the two types of teams have some commonalities. For example, each is tasked with making certain decisions, reaching specific goals and outcomes, working collaboratively to achieve the best ends, and (hopefully) developing some level of team cohesion in order to do these things. On the other hand, the nature, range, and impact of the tasks and decisions necessarily differs between such groups. TMTs grapple more often with the pressures of the organization's external environment (e.g., shareholders, stakeholders, global competitors) and translate responses to those pressures to actions and action plans for different functional areas. Moreover, there is evidence to suggest that the processes through which these teams make decisions also differ in ways that can negatively affect decision quality (Senge, 2006). These processes include collaboration, cohesion, and decision making type.

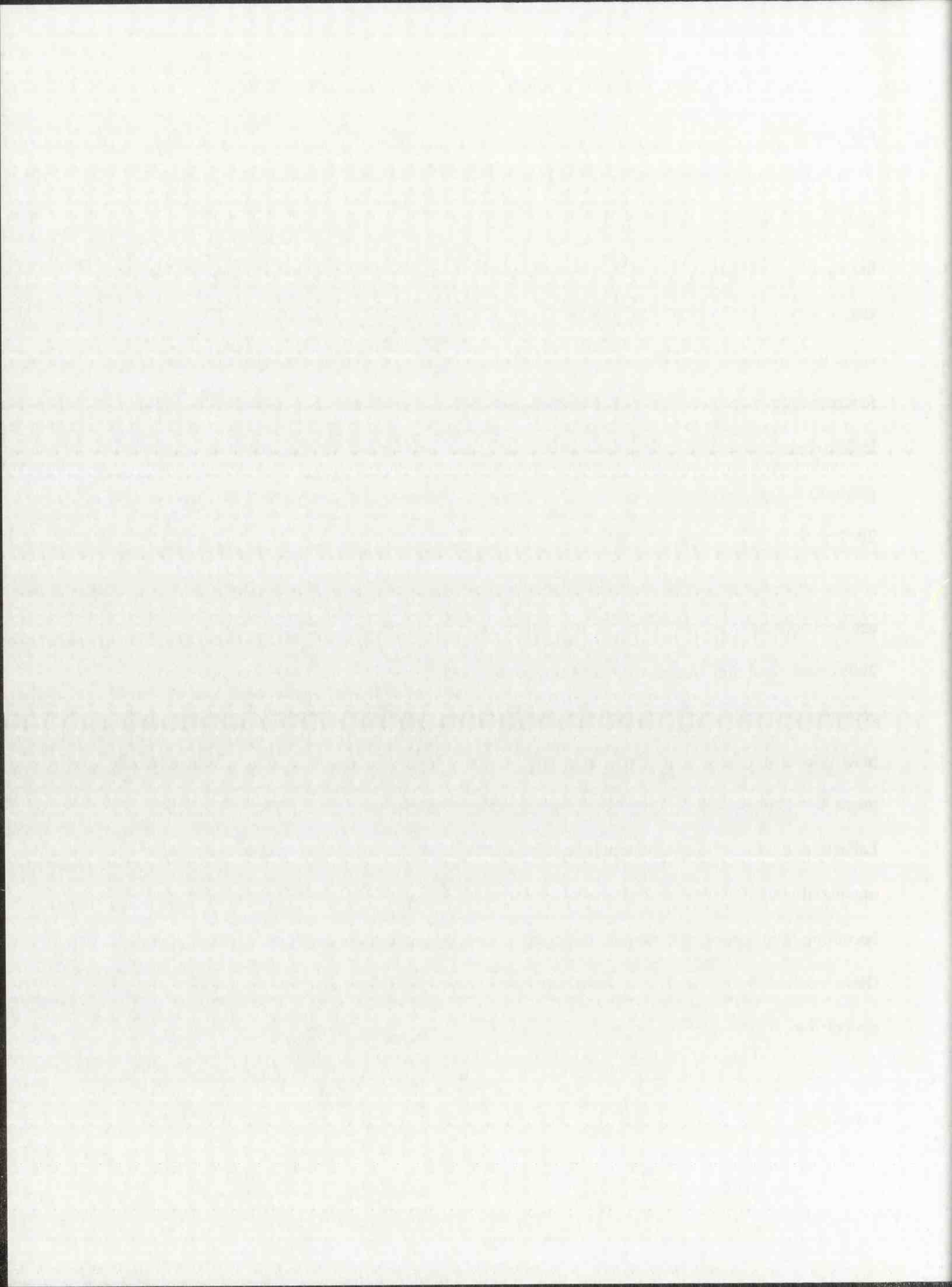


Collaboration

Collaboration for any team is a social process by which team members exchange information and perspectives, create knowledge, and discuss and integrate the implications of these processes (Hess, Freeman, & Coovert, 2008; Rawlings, 2000). It typically occurs in three stages: knowledge base construction, collaborative problem solving (or decision making), and consensus (Warner & Wroblewski, 2004). Collaborative problem solving and decision making focuses on developing solutions and taking action (Warner & Wroblewski, 2004) and generally leads to team consensus. Consensus is “the process of moving from a diverse set of individual positions or preferences to agreement on a consensus choice for the group” (Kerr & Tindale, 2004, p. 632).

There has also been an increased emphasis on collaboration of work teams as problems and decisions have become more intricate and complicated (LaFasto & Larson, 2001; Hess et al, 2008). More and more teams are becoming accustomed to working collaboratively in order to complete their tasks and accomplish their goals (Hess et al, 2008). Additionally, organizational practitioners and researchers have increasingly emphasized communicative collaboration in work teams as organizational problems have become more complex and difficult (Hess et al, 2008; LaFasto & Larson, 2001). Collaboration is crucial to improving knowledge sharing and organizational effectiveness. Because of the increased demand for teamwork, team members are becoming accustomed to working with others to complete their tasks and accomplish their goals (Hess, et al, 2008). Collaborative teamwork has extended over space and time to become a key structuring rule in organizations and a vital resource for effectively working teams (Poole, 1992).

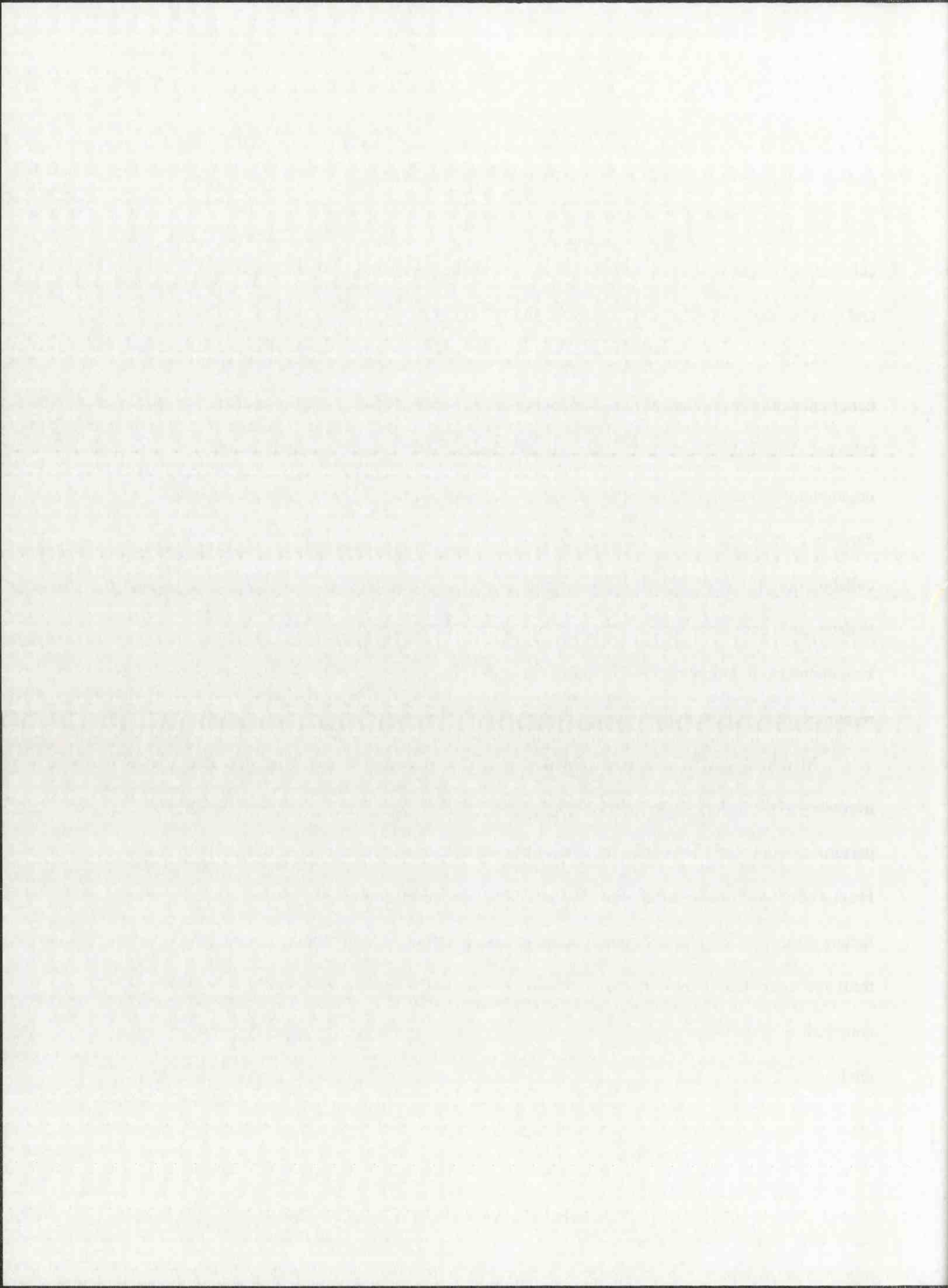
Importantly to the current study, the level of communicative collaboration a team experiences is likely associated with its decision making style (Jajad & Haynes, 1998). Groups



with closed or uncooperative communication are less likely to employ consensus decision making and more likely to move toward pseudo-consensus, authoritative, or majority rule strategies (Hastie & Kameda, 2005). The lack of communicative collaboration can also have substantially negative effects on group decision making by silencing voices, emphasizing biases, and questioning team members' commitment (Webb, 1995).

Whether teams collaborate typically depends on the organizational culture, supervisory communication, employee attitudes, and work group support (Sveiby & Simons, 2002). These rules are historically-based and contextually-embedded and are instantiated through organizational members microinteractions in a way that creates, recreates, and transforms decision making structures (Giddens, 1987). All play an equally important role in moderating collaboration. If one of these is left out or is performed poorly, the level of collaboration is likely to decrease. Team member trust, organizational identification, and team-level efficacy are three vital elements of collaboration (Urch-Druskat & Wolff, 2001) and make up some of the rules and resources team members use to structure their decision making.

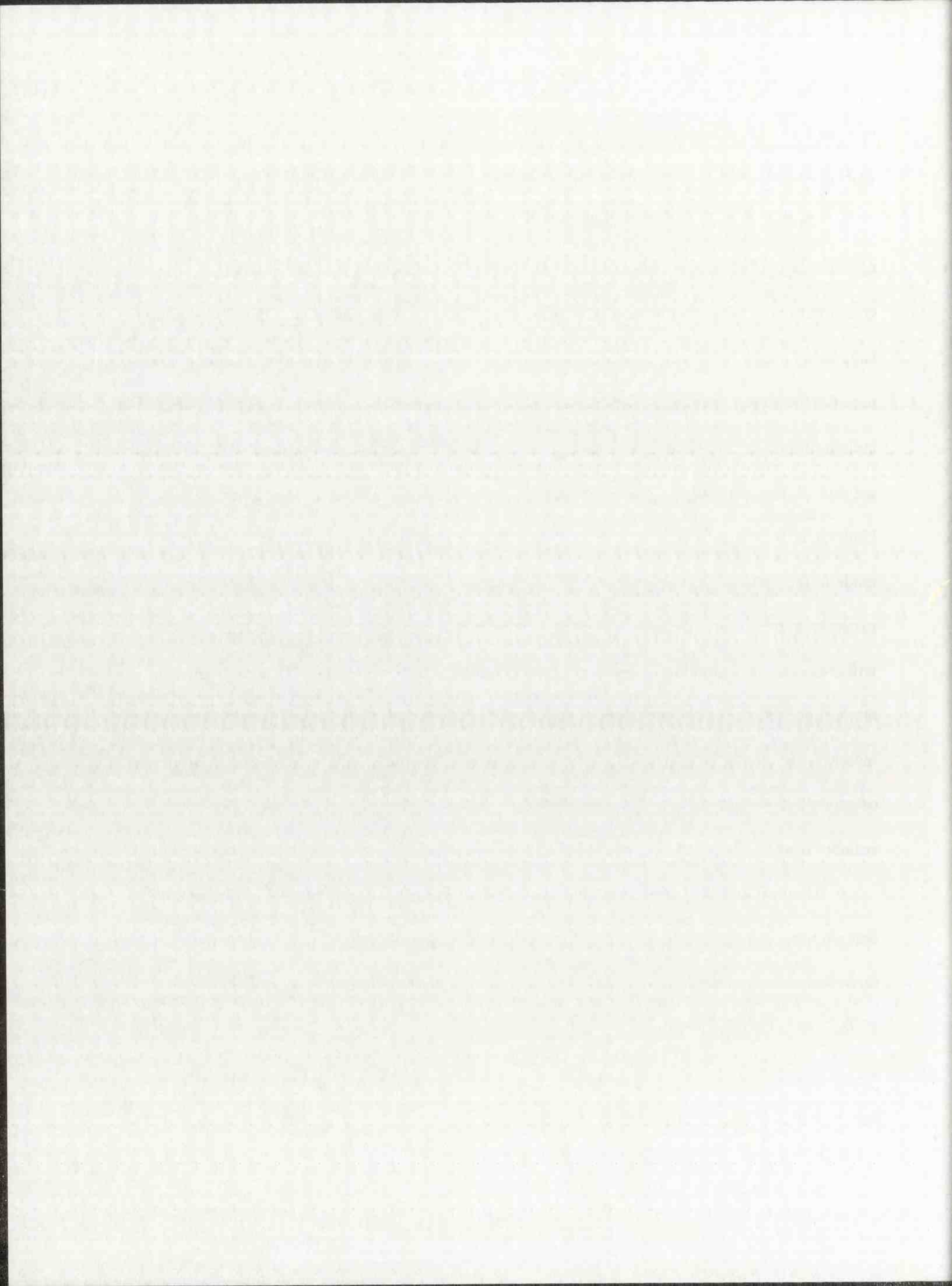
Members of a group must be able to trust each other and know that they are unique and necessary to the group. Trust then becomes a rule or norm for interaction that team members perform through communicative interactions and team argument (Seibold & Meyers, 2007). From a structural point of view, the creation, recreation, and transformation of these three factors through team member communication constitute the teams' level of collaboration. The most successful teams are ones that continually strive toward open and supportive communication environments (LaFasto & Larson, 2001). Without an open and supportive environment, the collaborative process can break down, and groups may fail to perform at their



optimal level. Groups that are collaborative are ones that share resources with each other. It is the sharing of these resources can increase the communication collaboration of the group.

TMT Collaboration. Unfortunately, there is not a great deal of literature concerning the collaboration of top teams. Although LaFasto and Larson (2001) anecdotally mention collaboration problems with executive teams, they fail to provide methodological information supporting the claim. When explaining the importance of collaboration in a team setting they note the following: “Nearly all of the executive management teams fell into the lowest quartile of collaboration” (p. 71). They go on to suggest two reasons for poor collaboration: Executives are experts who are difficult to challenge, and executives strongly hold to their own judgments. Understandably, most executives reach their organizational positions by the choices they have made in the past and, to some extent, their interactions in past teams. It is quite likely that executives’ previous experience in teams usually does not prepare them for the dynamics they will encounter as executives in executive teams (Ancona & Nadler, 1989). Research suggests that as age, education, and managerial responsibility and tenure increase, collaborative climate increases (Sveiby & Simons, 2002). Why, when executives are higher in age, have higher levels of education, and have the ultimate managerial role, would they fail when it comes to collaborating?

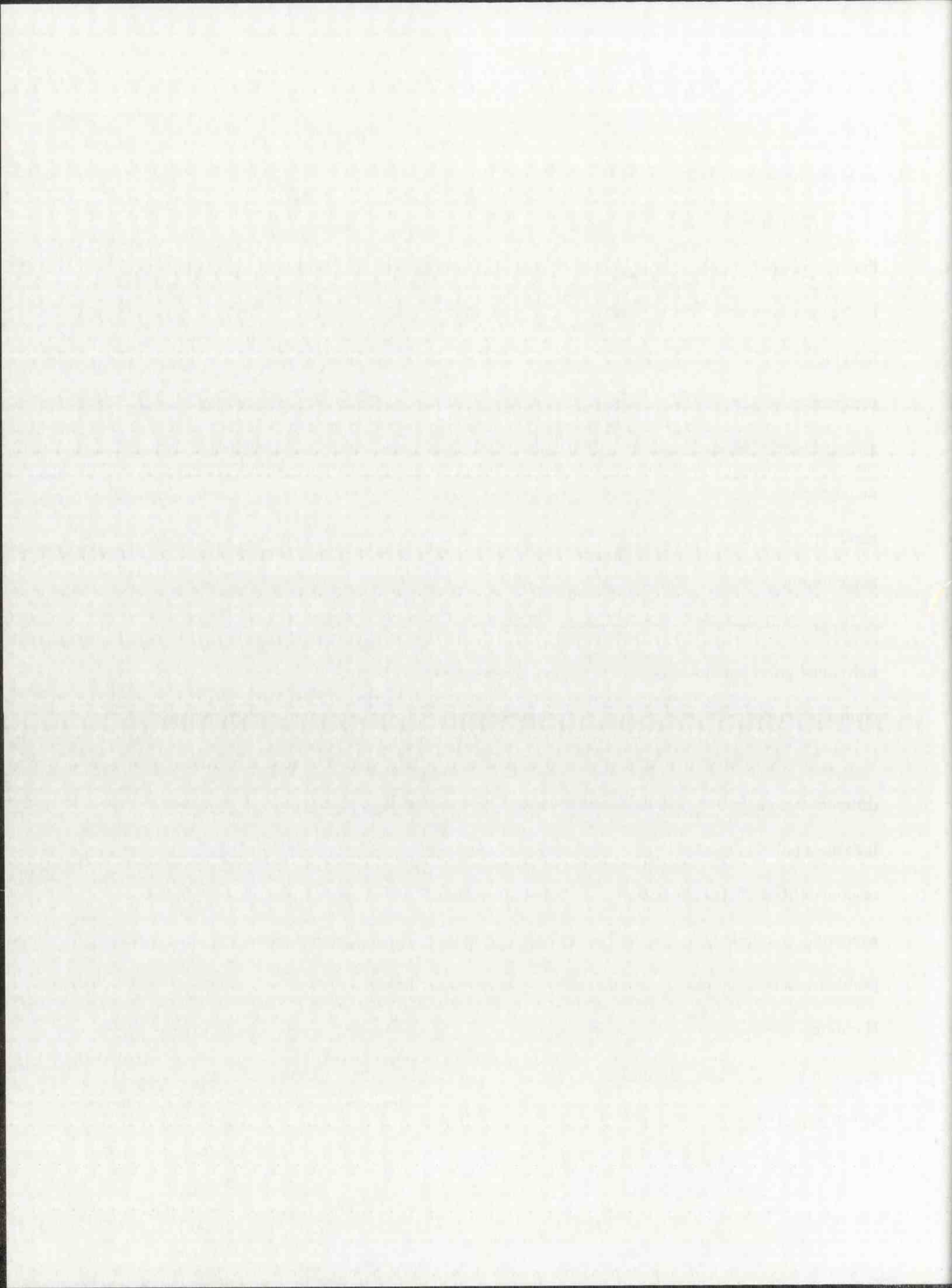
Hambrick (1994) argues that top management teams have difficulty with the elements that comprise effective teamwork—information sharing, collaboration, and decision making. All three factors can be determinants and predictors of company performance (Hambrick, 1994, 1998, 2007). Information sharing, collaboration, and decision making are measured as discrete variables in this study; however, they are closely associated. Increased information sharing can lead to more collaboration and better collaboration can lead to better decision making processes



(LaFasto & Larson, 2001). Collaboration is an essential dynamic for making effective use of team resources.

Although some researchers (e.g., Paul, Samarah, Seetharaman, & Mykytyn, 2004) claim that heterogeneity among group members is likely to increase collaboration, this may not always be the case. Certainly, top-level organizational members are far more likely to be white males than they are to be persons of color or women (Kanter, 1993). As such, white males are likely to comprise most TMTs, and although diversity of members is typically encouraged, it may not always be feasible. When Hambrick (1994) introduced his idea of behavioral integration, demographic characteristics were not a central theme of his argument. If top teams, regardless of tenure, functional background, educational level, and so forth, can effectively share information and communicatively collaborate, they will likely make better decisions. However, collaboration does not result simply because the team is diverse, but rather results from skills learned by individual group members and used in microinteractions. If collaboration is a predictor of company performance, it is in any TMTs' best interest to become more skilled collaborators.

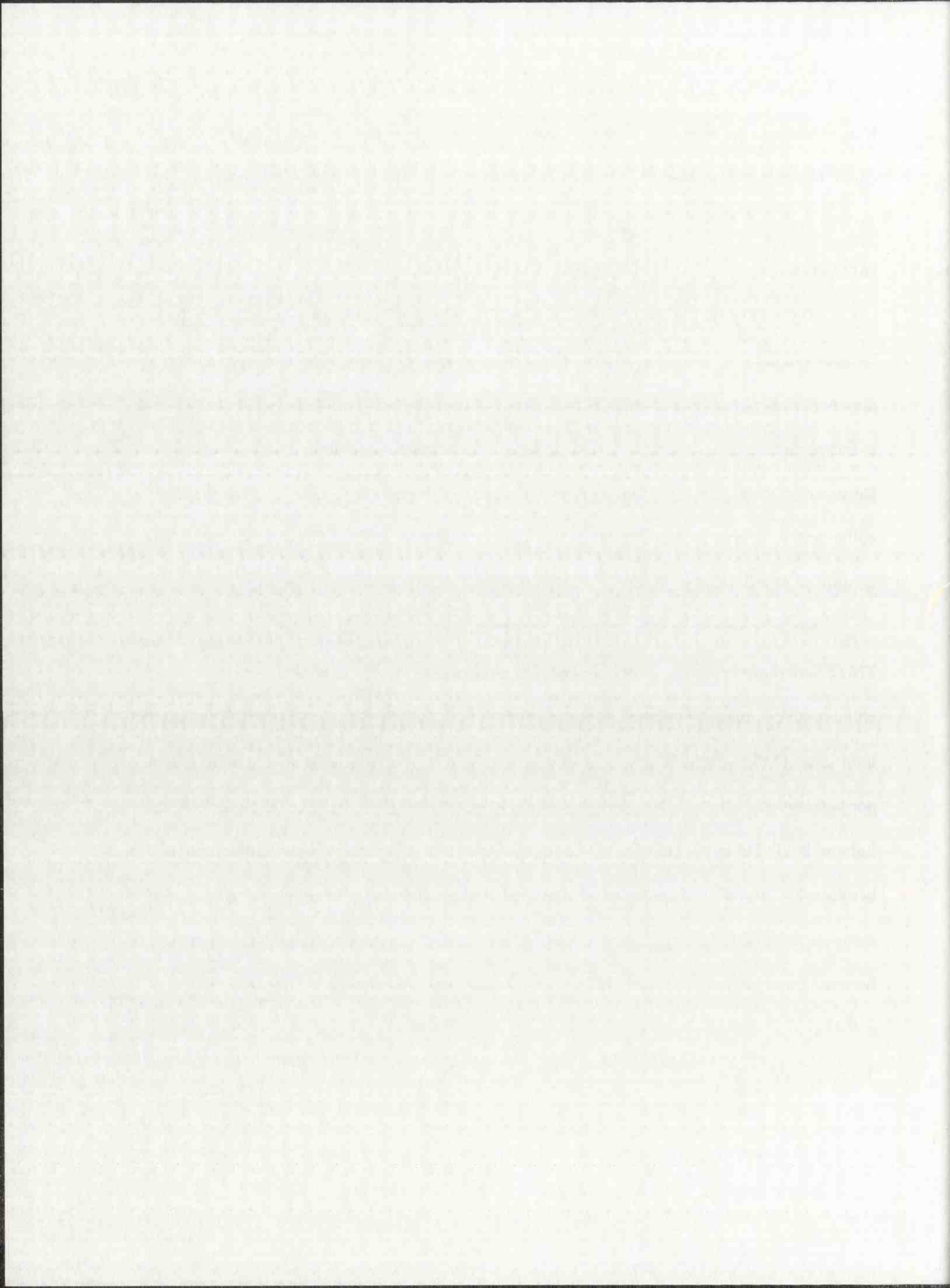
The new dynamics executives face when they reach the upper echelons are completely different from anything they have ever seen before. Some of these new dynamics, such as increased politics, responsibilities of both internal and external environments, long distance responsibilities, increased visibility, and the focus of the CEO, make it extremely difficult for executives to interact (Ancona & Nadler, 1989). If executive teams cannot collaborate, difficult problems and challenges create even greater dilemmas for the organization. Additionally, Hambrick (1998) suggests that executives in large part focus primarily on their division of an organization and are not mindful of other sectors. The problem is that the efficiency and effectiveness of an organization depends on how well all units are running and working together.



If these units do not function interdependently, the entire organization does not run as well as it could. Clearly it is important for executives to collaborate with one another frequently in order to see and understand how working together can benefit their piece of the organization and the entire organization.

These most recent studies have shed light on behavioral integration of top teams but still do not examine how communicative collaboration plays a role in top team decision making. Nor do we know how executive teams compare to work teams regarding collaboration. The research at this point cannot answer why TMTs have lower levels of collaboration than do work teams. Research indicates that older and more experienced individuals are favorable of and desire collaboration when working as a group. However, other research says that TMTs—typically comprised of older and more experienced individuals—are poor at collaboration.

Recent research has shown that older persons (i.e., persons more likely to comprise TMTs) are more experienced in knowledge sharing and are more favorable toward a collaborative climate than their younger counterparts (Sveiby & Simons, 2002). Even though the traditional TMT is primarily made up of older individuals, studies show they are not favorable to nor perform well when collaborating (Data & Guthrie, 1994; Hambrick, 1994; LaFasto & Larson, 2001; Lubatkin, et al, 2006). Given these findings, the perceptions of collaboration between TMTs and RWTs need to be identified and explained. We do not know how TMTs compare to RWTs when it comes to collaboration, but the literature points to differences between these groups. If there are differences in the level of perceived team member collaboration, this may point to one of the reasons TMTs seem to make less effective decisions. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

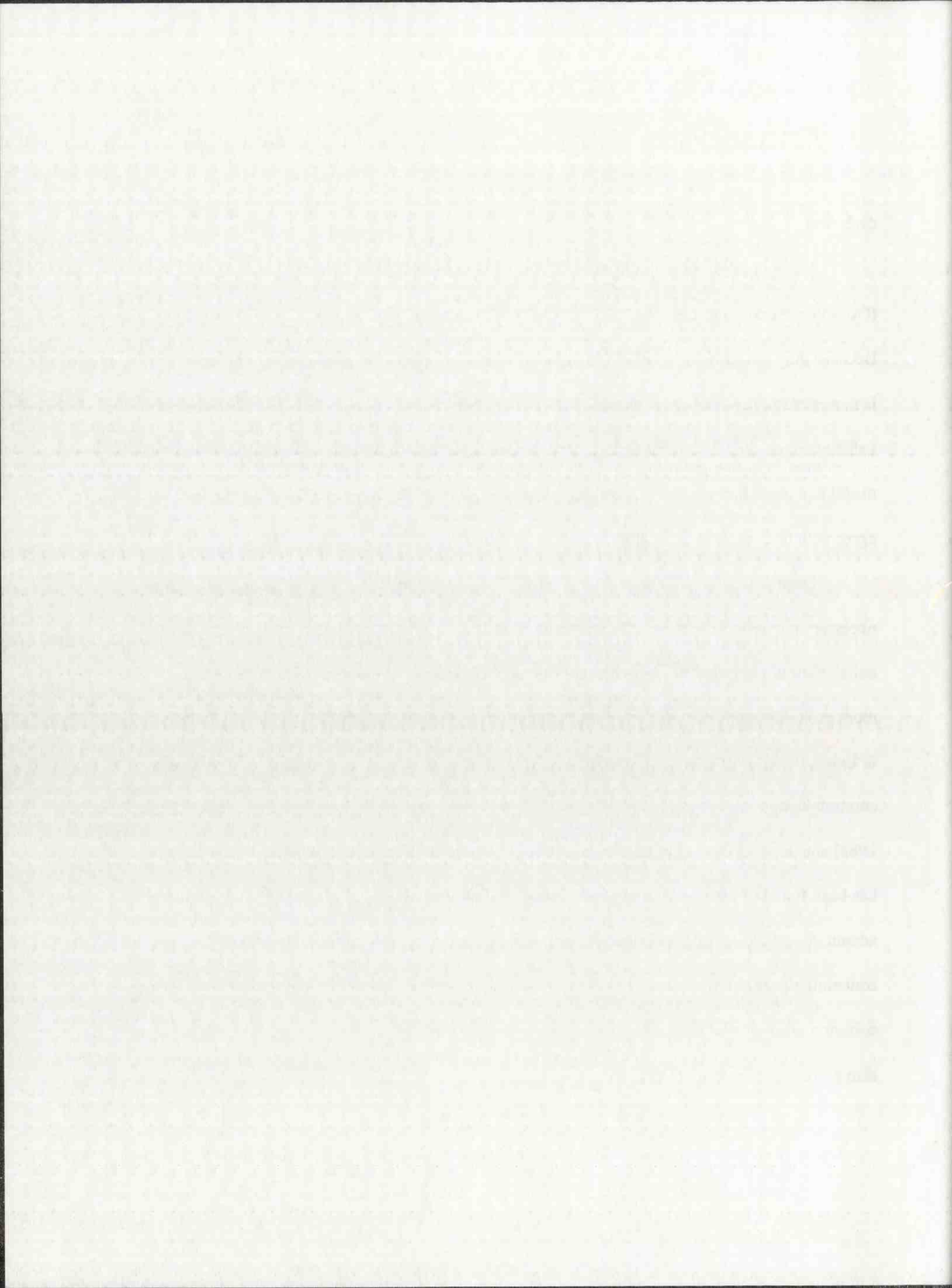


H1: Perceived communicative collaboration will differ between individuals in TMTs and RWTs.

Cohesion

A large part of the collaborative climate depends on the level of group cohesion (Gonzalez, Burke, Santuzzi, & Bradley, 2003). More cohesive groups will be more collaborative. Because they have higher levels of trust, open communication, and supportive communication, it is more natural for a cohesive team to effectively collaborate (LaFasto & Larson, 2001). The value of cohesiveness to team functioning, however, is curvilinear. That is, cohesiveness is useful to a point but beyond that can lead teams to groupthink (Janis, 1972) in which members agree with one another rather than critically examine issues and decisions.

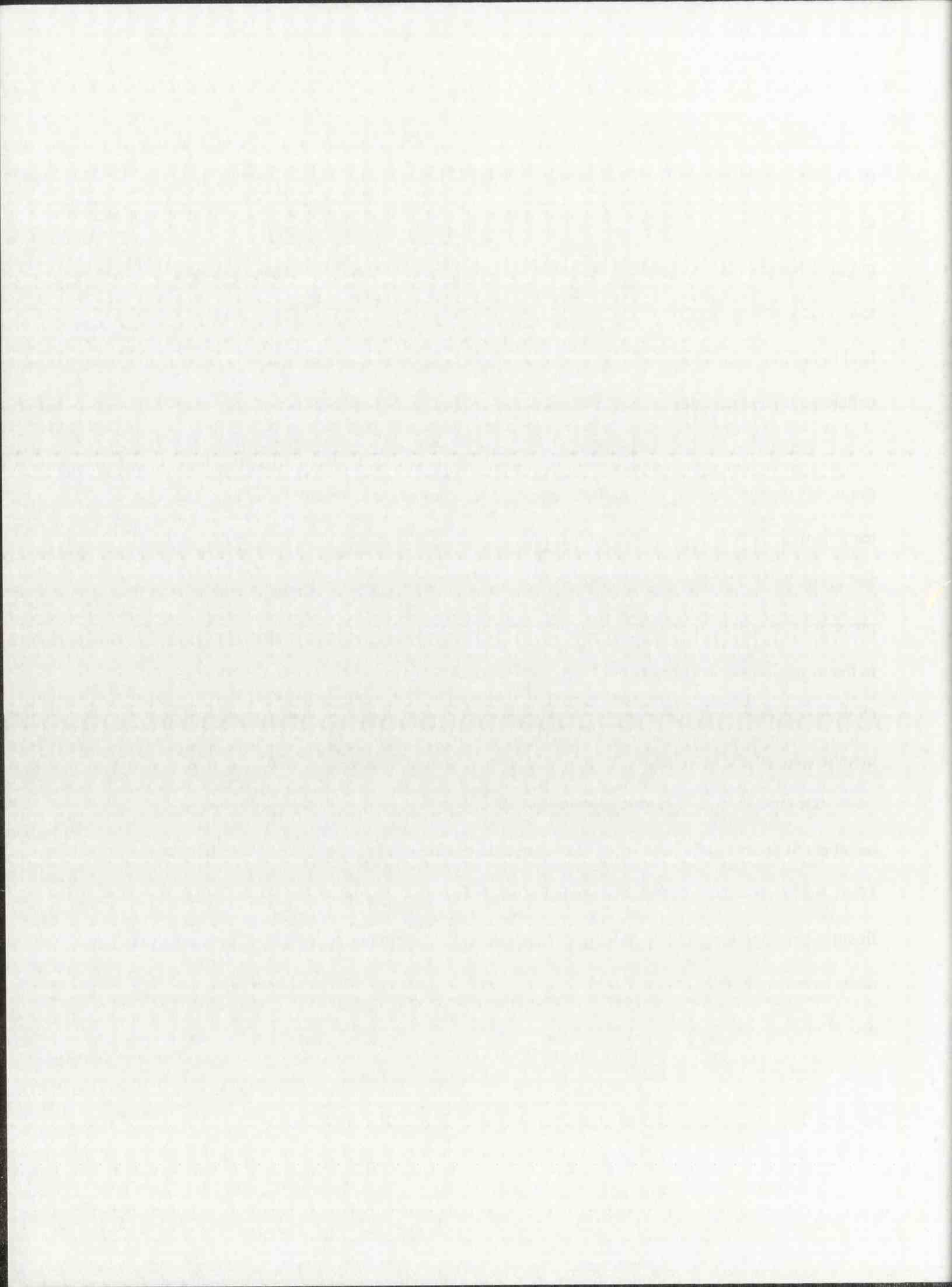
Team cohesion is another crucial part of collaboration and decision making and is a necessary resource for groups. Teams with too little cohesion have been found to be poor at collaborating. Likewise, teams with too much cohesion are also poor at collaborating and may be more prone to norms of concurrence or groupthink (Janis, 1972; Janis & Mann, 1977; Callaway & Esser, 1984). Early research has shown that cohesive group members exhibit more positive communication interaction (Lott & Lott, 1965; Piper, Marrache, LaCroix, Richardsen, & Jones, 1983) and superior-subordinate and peer-to-peer relations (Narayanan & Nath, 1984). Cohesion has been found to be a very strong predictor of collaboration (Klein & Mulvey, 1995). Given the advantages of cohesion, TMTs should be the most committed groups in an organization concerning goal achievement. However, if TMTs are poor at collaboration their perceptions of cohesion must also be examined. At the same time, if RWTs are better at collaborating are they also more cohesive than TMTs?



Group cohesion focuses on the closeness and commitment of the group as a whole (Carless & De Paola, 2000). Cohesion has been defined as, “an individual’s sense of belonging to a particular group and his or her feelings of morale associated with the membership of the group” (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990, p. 342). Several studies have found that cohesion is linked to team performance (Bettenhuasen, 1991; Mullen & Copper, 1994). This increased cohesion will lead to increased social presence and task participation which will in turn lead to increased collaboration and decision making (Yoo & Alavi, 2001).

While cohesiveness is an important factor for any group, it is not an attribute that is easily or quickly obtained. From a structural process, cohesion results from the interactions of team members over time. They must learn what does and does not work both on the individual and group level. Through the trial and error process groups are constantly adopting and refining processes that will be more beneficial. Failure to make these adjustments will most likely result in the team’s failure will create a difficult environment for group work (Reinig & Shin, 2002). Creating closeness and commitment among members is not a simple process and requires that members adjust and readjust to interactions and processes of the group.

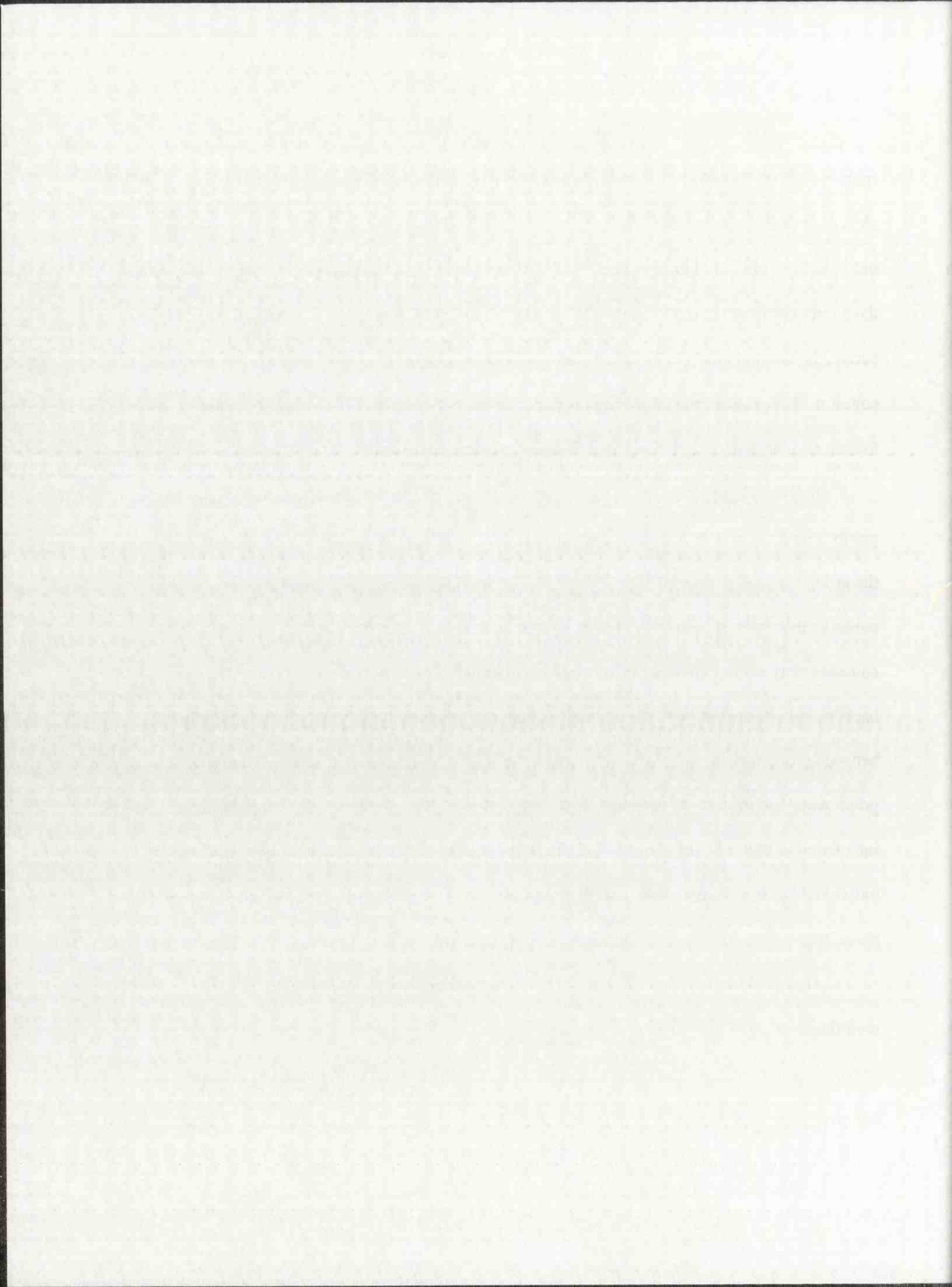
Group cohesion will also increase the social presence and task participation among members of groups and is one of the most important dynamics in a work team (Cohen & Bailey, 1997; Hackman, 1987). Teams that are cohesive, “work well together, react faster, are more flexible, use superior problem solving techniques, and are more productive and efficient than less integrative teams” (Smith et al, 1994, p. 432). Work groups have a very difficult time accomplishing their task(s) if there is not some level of cohesion. They must not only be able to work together but also be able to work well together. If they cannot do so, tensions are likely to rise and frustrations between members are likely to increase (Chang & Bordia, 2001).



Cohesiveness between members is not the only part of cohesion. Groups also need to be cohesive toward the task. They need to have the motivation and desire to complete the goals or objectives of the organization (Widmeyer et al, 1985). There are two dimensions to cohesion: individual cohesion and group cohesion (Widmeyer, et al, 1985). Individual cohesion focuses on the degree of which an individual seeks acceptance of group members and the desire to remain a part of the group. Cohesive groups should possess high levels of both individual and group cohesion. To achieve this, groups and group members must exhibit two factors: belonging and morale (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990; Chin, Salisbury, Pearson & Stollak, 1999).

Individual members of a group must have a sense of belonging and connectedness to the group. The stronger the bond to the group, the more cohesive the group will be. The morale of the group is equally important. Groups with high levels of morale have been found to be more cohesive than groups with lower levels of morale (LaFasto & Larson, 2001). In order to achieve cohesion, member's expectations of morale and sense of belonging must be met. An individual's background and attitude will shape their perception of belonging and morale and may differ between group members. Prior work experiences with groups or a preconceived notion of how group work should take place shapes these expectations. The producing and reproducing of interaction within a group is most likely to shape members' perceptions of cohesion. Once an individual has their expectation's met, morale and sense of belonging are more likely to take place, thus increasing cohesion (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990).

Morale. Morale refers to "a collective mental condition of satisfaction, fulfillment, or confidence of a group" (Gresov, Drazin, & Van de Ven, 1989, p. 46) Groups with higher levels of morale will be more cohesive whereas groups with lower levels of morale will be less cohesive (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990). However, it is the individual's perception of morale that

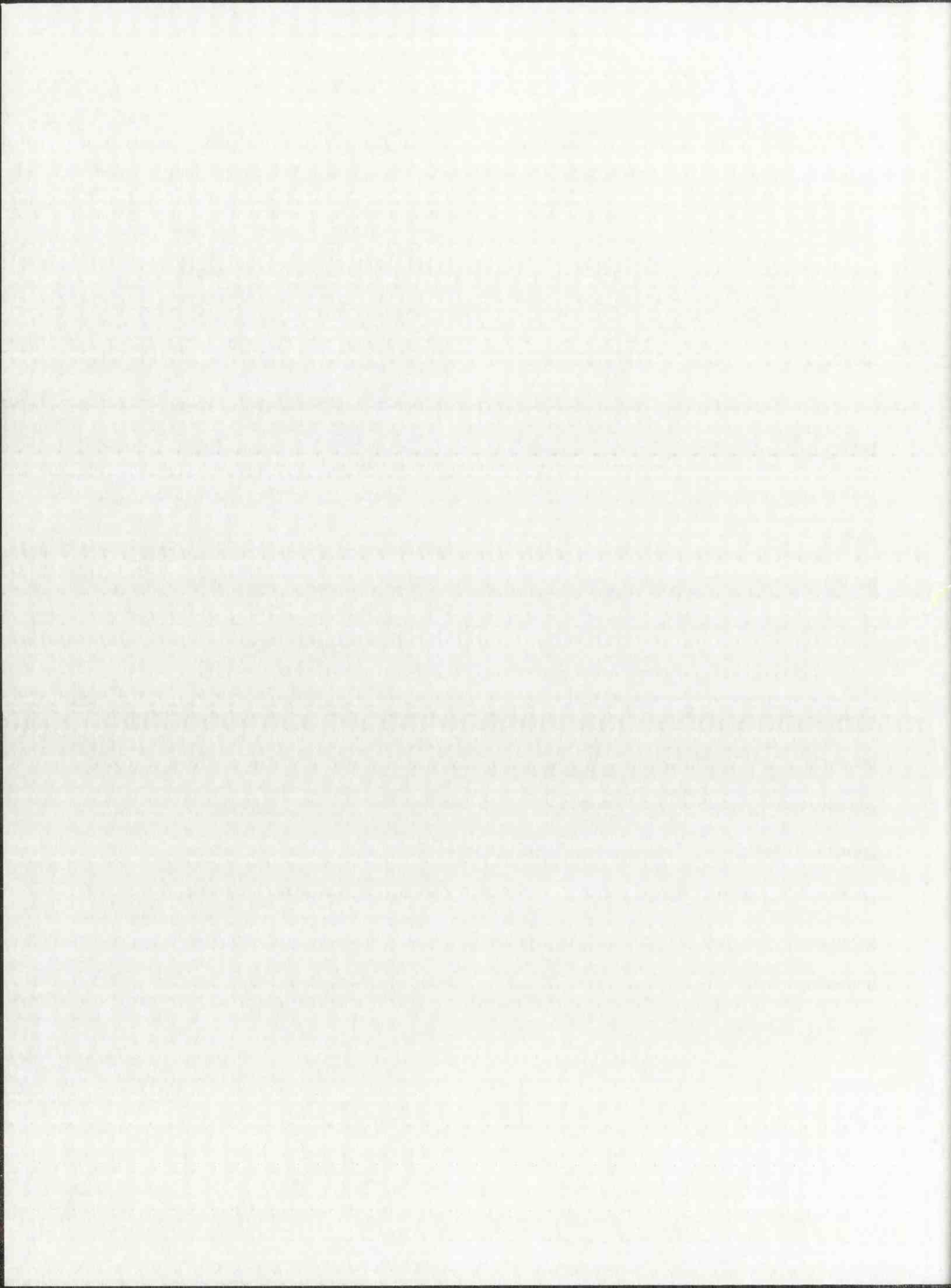


impacts the overall morale of the group. Individual feelings of morale can motivate group relationships, allow one to have a sense of belonging, and encourage one to engage in the group activities (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990). Conversely, morale is likely to fluctuate in work groups that have been together for a period of time. It is doubtful that feelings of morale will always be high, or even constant, in groups that work together for months at a time. Regardless of the level of morale, a strong team will still be cohesive.

Sense of belonging. The second ingredient to cohesion is group member's sense of belonging. Sense of belonging is essential for any group member (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990). Individuals must know they belong to a group in order to understand the group characteristics such as norms and values. It is also difficult to have any morale if one does not feel that they belong to the group. Thus, sense of belonging and morale are interrelated. If one is absent, the other is also likely to be absent (Bollen & Hoyle, 1990).

Finally, a group not only needs interpersonal cohesion but also task cohesion (Zaccaro & Lowe, 1988). They need to have the motivation and desire to complete the goals or objectives of the organization (Widmeyer et al, 1985) rather than just be able to get along. Groups that are cohesive on an interpersonal level are less likely to complete their task – possibly due to groupthink (Janis, 1972, Janis & Mann, 1977) - whereas groups that possess task cohesiveness are more likely to succeed (Zacarro & Lowe, 1988). Task cohesion can often be overlooked if a group is only focusing on “getting along.” Rather, groups need to see and believe in the importance of their objective. A unified commitment to the completion of the task will encourage the cohesiveness of the group (LaFasto & Larson, 2001).

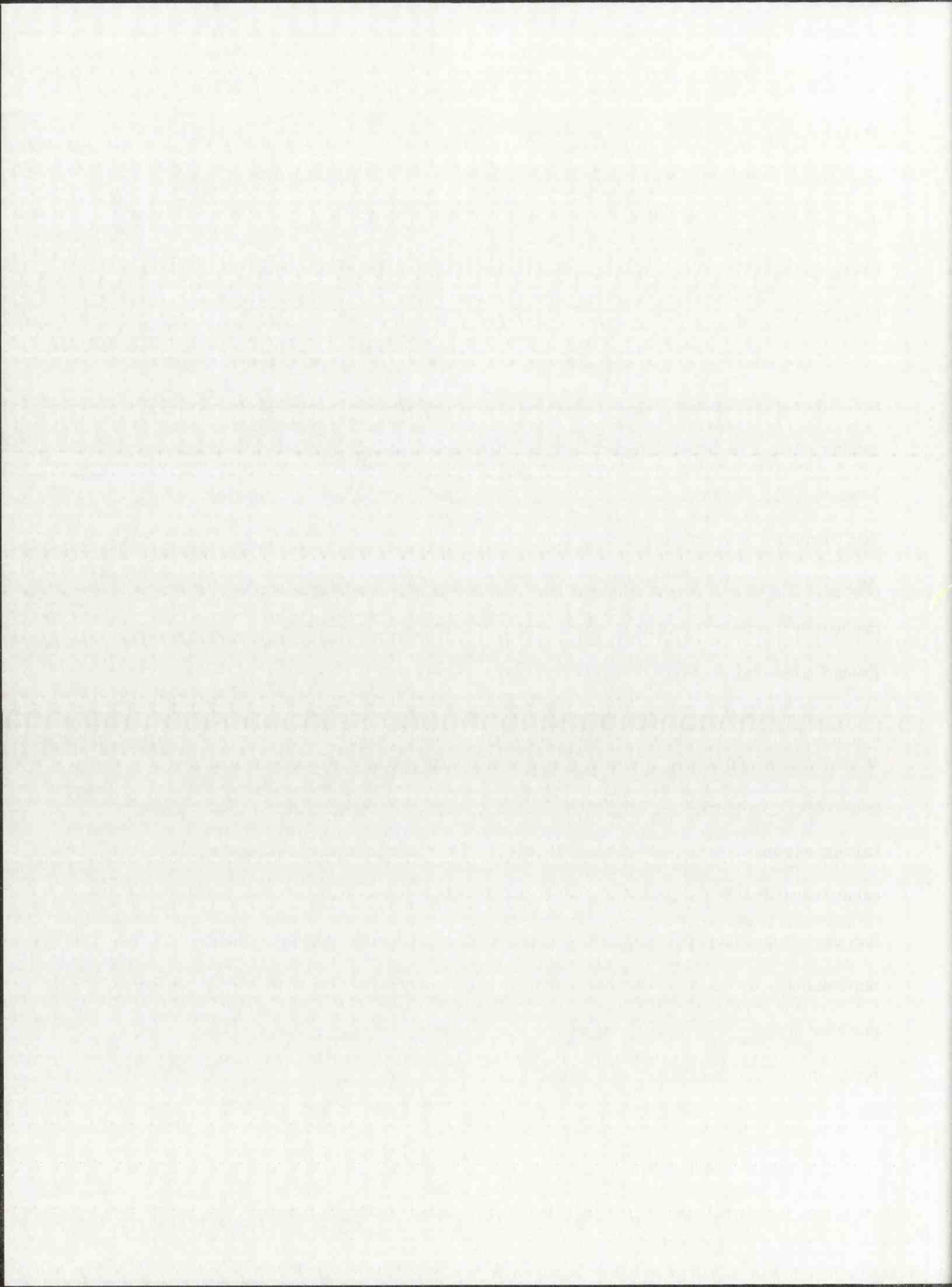
As it is with work teams, cohesion is crucial to the success of TMTs. Cohesive groups are better at adjusting, reacting, planning, and responding to different factors. At the very least,



TMTs have the authoritative resources (position, policy, and expertise) to get things done. They may also have more allocative resources available in order to see that a task is completed. Given that most organizations deal with business on a regional, national, and/or global level, their upper most group should be cohesive in order to effectively respond to the demands of today's business environment.

There are very few studies that have been done on the cohesion of TMTs. One recent study showed that familial TMTs in which parents were at the upper most level and their children reported to them had higher levels of cohesion than did non familial TMTs (Ensely & Pearson, 2005). The same study also found that familial TMTs in which family members other than parents make up the top group have lower levels of cohesion than regular TMTs. An earlier study found that the cohesion of a TMT is positively related to profitability in firms that have higher levels of interdependence but not in firms with lower levels of interdependence (Michel & Hambrick, 1992).

From a structuration process, teams need to carefully consider the rules and norm that create inclusion and cohesion. In a study of self-managing teams, which are traditionally believed to be more cohesive, Barker (1993) noticed that the rules and systems developed in self-managing teams were more powerful and controlling than in the traditional managerial controlled system. While concertive controls of self-managing work teams are not as noticeable, they can be much more powerful and influential (Barker, 1993). These controls have implications in the group's cohesion as well. Rules and peer pressure are likely to be much more prevalent in self-managing teams which can lead to members being marginalized exorcized and biases growing much stronger between members.

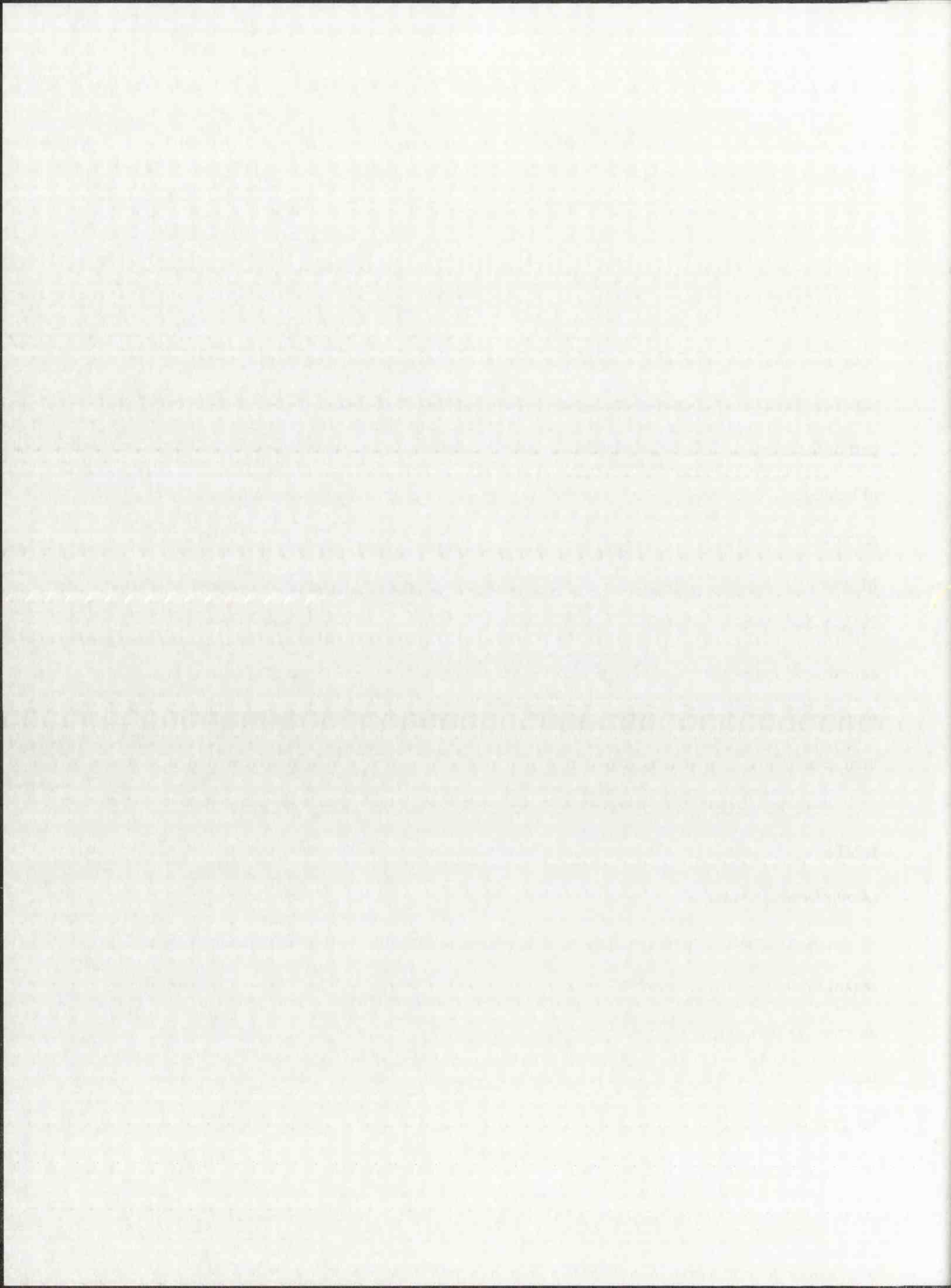


Given the previous research, cohesion is made up of morale and sense of belonging. Both group cohesion, individual cohesion, and task cohesion are all important factors when considering overall cohesion. The lack of research concerning TMTs and cohesion is reason enough to conduct this section of the study. However, understanding the differences in cohesion between TMTs and work groups is of importance. Since TMTs have more resources than RWT does this also mean that they are more cohesive? Given that top managers have invested a significant amount of time in their organization, will see their efforts succeed and/or fail, and are part of the most exclusive group in the company, what are their perceptions of morale and sense of belonging? Because TMTs are more likely to be self managing, have more power and resources, and have greater responsibilities they should also be more cohesive than RWTs. Measuring cohesion of top teams and comparing them to work teams may help bridge a gap that exists between TMTs and RWTs. Understanding how TMTs and RWTs differ in perceived cohesion will also help explain differences in perceived collaboration. Since TMTs have been found to have low levels of collaboration, we can only assume they will differ from RWTs in their level. Thus, I propose the following:

H2: Perceived levels of team cohesion will differ between individuals in TMTs and RWTs.

Group Decision Making

A group decision rule is “a rule that specifies, for any given set of individual preferences regarding some set of alternatives, what the group preference or decision is regarding some set of alternatives” (Miller, 1989, p. 327). A key goal of team collaboration is decision making, and teams can use many different methods in order to come to decisions. Teams interacting over a long period of time tend to use the same decision making processes (Yoo & Alavi, 2001).

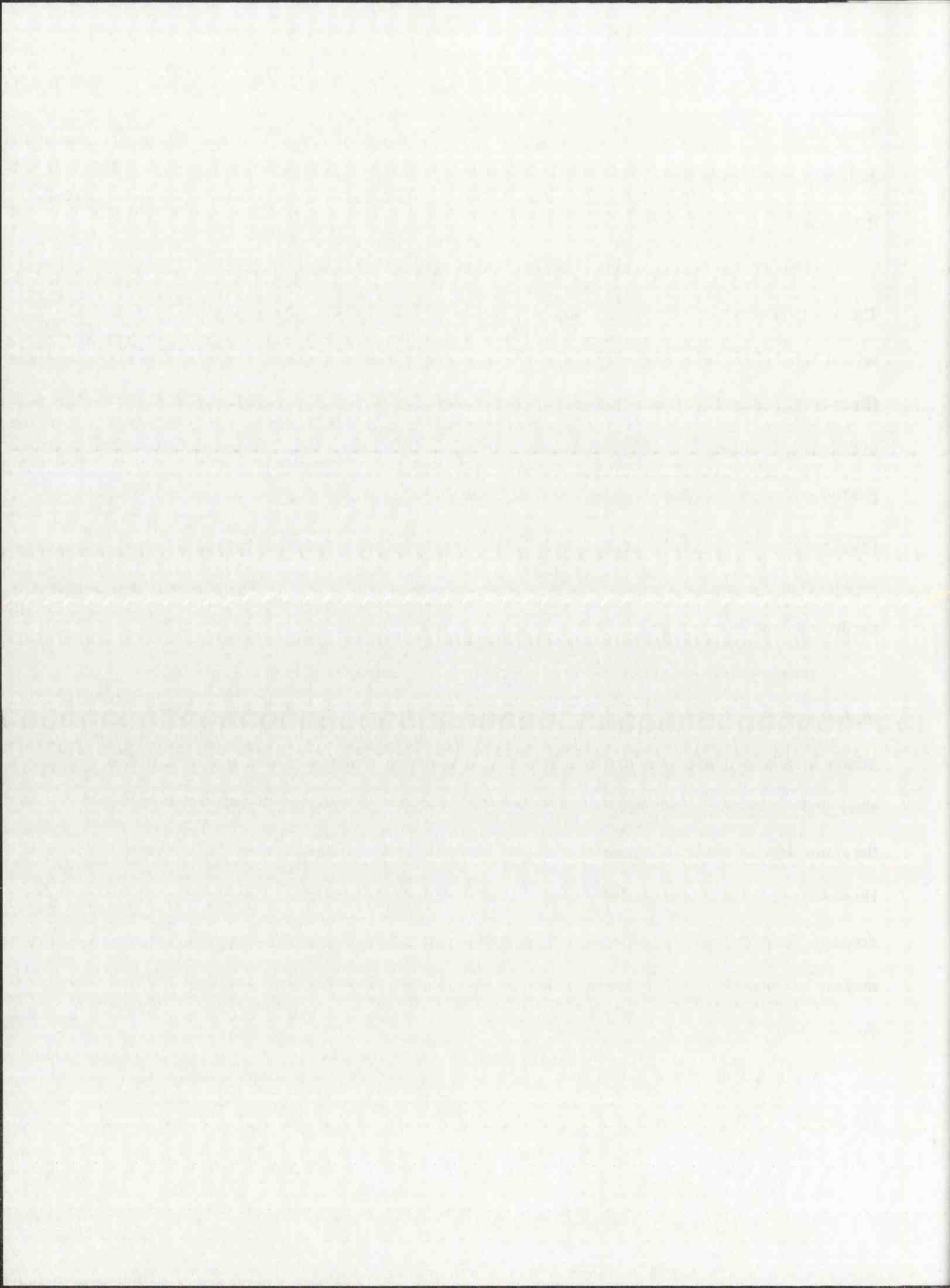


Traditionally, TMTs interact much longer than RWTs and may be more inclined to use one decision making process more often than RWTs. The decision making process of TMTs and RWTs must be examined to better understand their levels of collaboration.

There are several conventional ways that most groups use as a decision making process. These include authority rule, majority rule, and consensus. Most groups will probably use several, if not all, of these methods from time to time depending on the context of the decision (Dean & Sharfman, 1996). However, the decision making process of a group may be indicative of that group's collaborative behavior. Each method has its own purpose and use and can have positive and negative factors associated with it. Depending on a group's prerogative, each method may be appropriate for the decision making process. Regardless of which method a group uses, each method is a rule for the decision making process. Group members know and understand that the decision making process is crucial in order to work toward the goal.

Authority rule. Also known as single decision maker, authority rule may be the oldest method used in group decision making. In this scenario, the group structure is set up so that one person, usually the leader, will make the decision. Although the group as a whole may discuss, share, and propose ideas and information, the final decision comes down to authority figure of the group. The benefit to an authoritative decision is that it does not require a great deal of time. However, one person making a decision for the entire group may defeat the purpose of a group decision. The decision might be made as a result of a bias, and the inputs from group members may not be considered and the deciding member may be overconfident (Campbell, Goodie, & Foster, 2004).

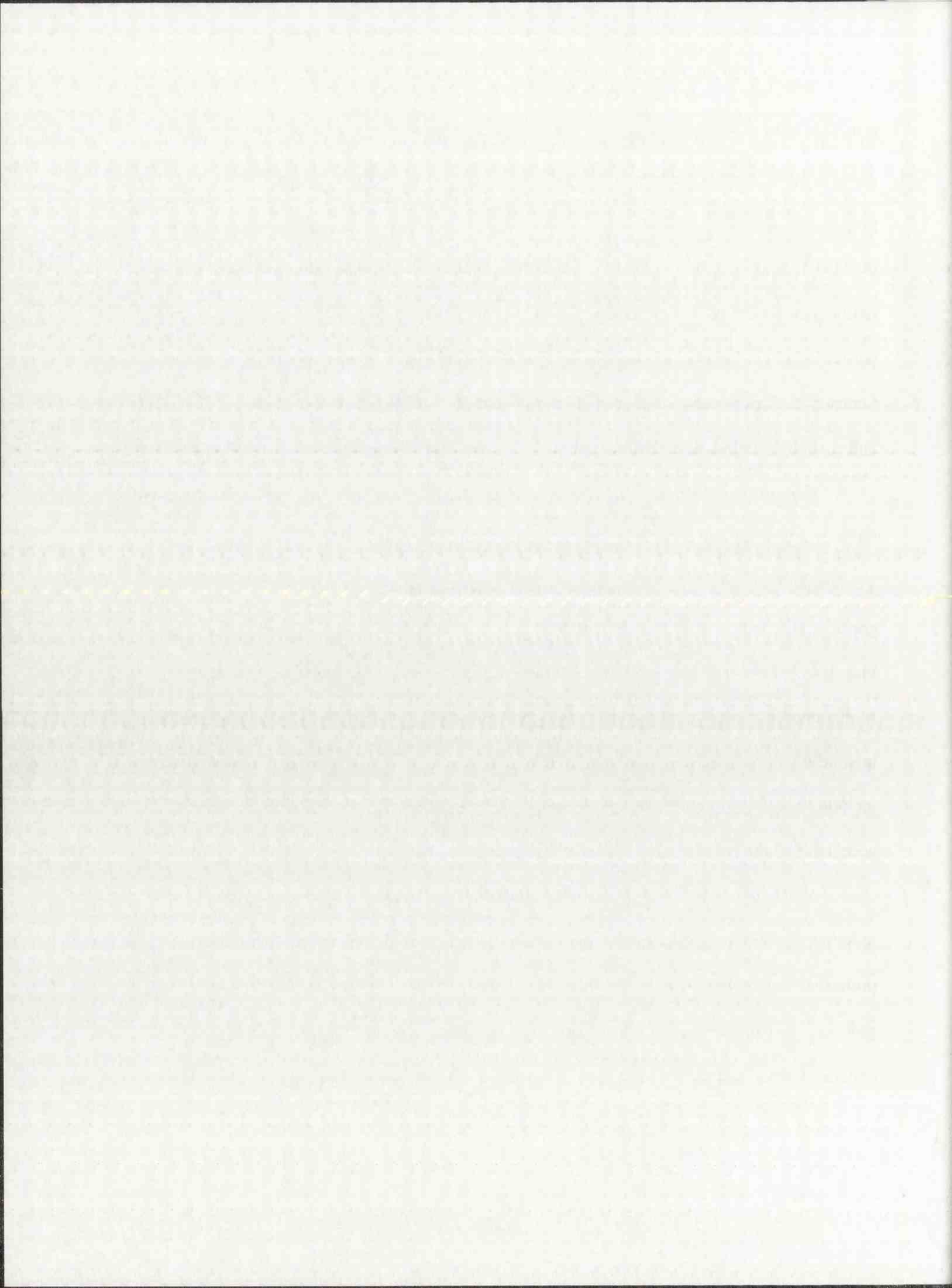
Majority Rule. Majority rule is one of the most common decision making strategies used (Miller, 1989). While the process may not be as fast as an authoritative decision, it is a more



efficient method and use of time (Kerr, Atkin, Stasser, Meek, Holt, & Davis, 1976). Once a group is ready to make a decision they take a vote. If a majority of the group is in favor of the proposal the decision will be to adopt it. If a majority of the group is opposed to the proposal then the decision will be to reject it at the current time. A majority decision process is beneficial in that members of the group are equally allowed to express their thoughts and views toward a particular subject or topic. However, if strong biases are involved, this decision process can intensify the bias which could harm the group (Kerr & Tindale, 2004). Thus, putting aside biases and considering other arguments when making a decision is important, yet difficult to do.

Consensus. Group consensus is defined as, “the process of moving from a diverse set of individual positions or preferences to agreement on a consensus choice for the group” (Kerr & Tindale, 2004, p. 632). For this to happen, groups must openly discuss the issue at hand and consider all points of view. Even though all parties involved may not completely agree with the idea, they believe it is acceptable and are more likely to support the decision (Schein, 1969; Muhammed & Ringseis, 2001). Although a consensus decision may be the most appropriate method for all perspectives to be considered, it is also the most time consuming. It also may include seriously compromising or choosing the second-best course of action only because it is acceptably to the entire team (Conrad & Poole, 2002).

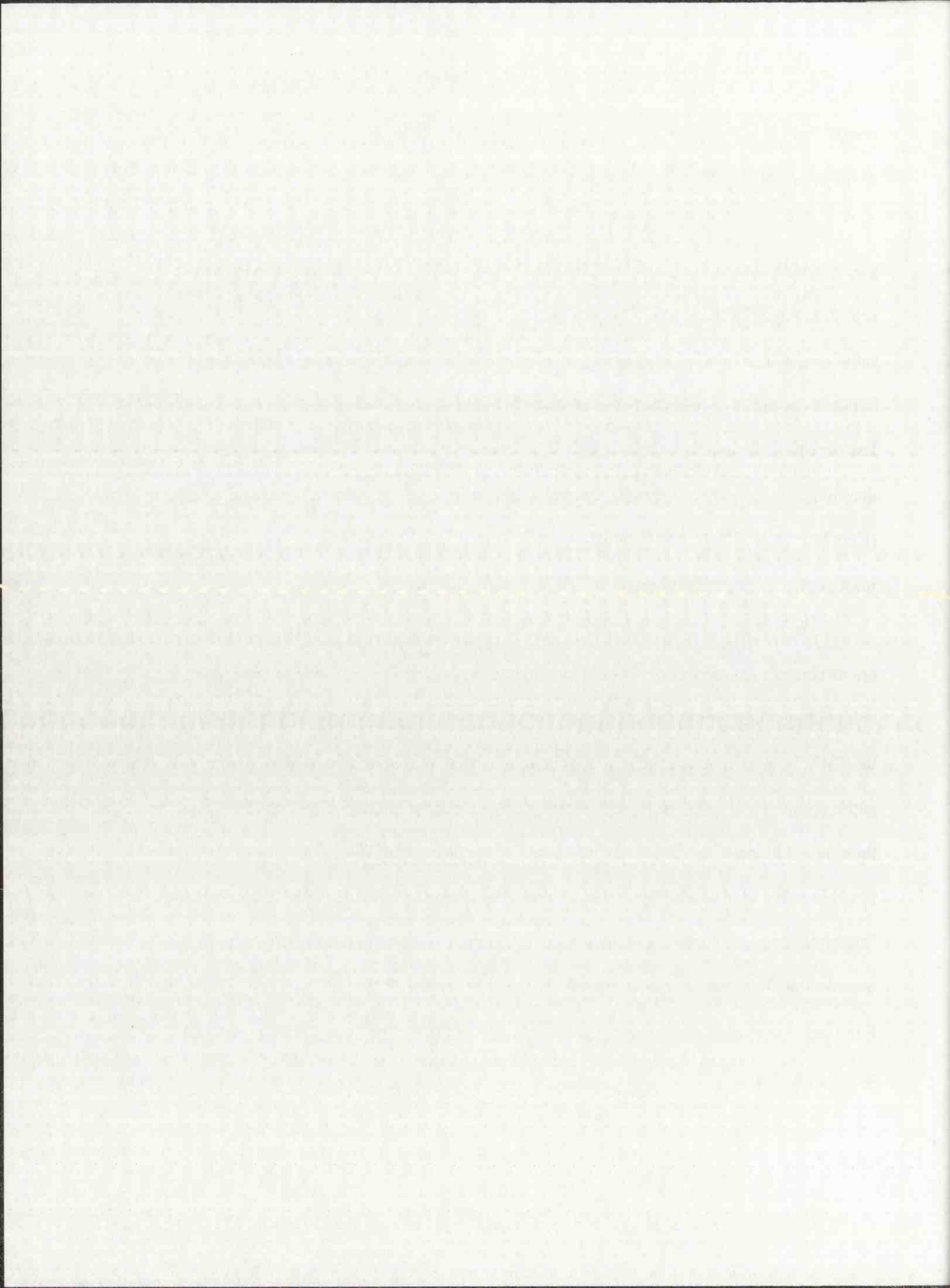
Satisficing. Satisficing, much like compromising, focuses on assessing alternative processes rather than optimal processes (Simon, 1955). Even though optimal processes are preferred, they may not always be practical. When optimal processes are ruled out, satisficing processes take precedence in the decision making process (Hastie & Kameda, 2005). Simon explains the contrast as “looking for the sharpest needle in the haystack” versus “looking for a



needle sharp enough to sew with” (Simon, 1987, p. 244). Thus, satisficing focuses on utilizing the most practical ways to get a job done.

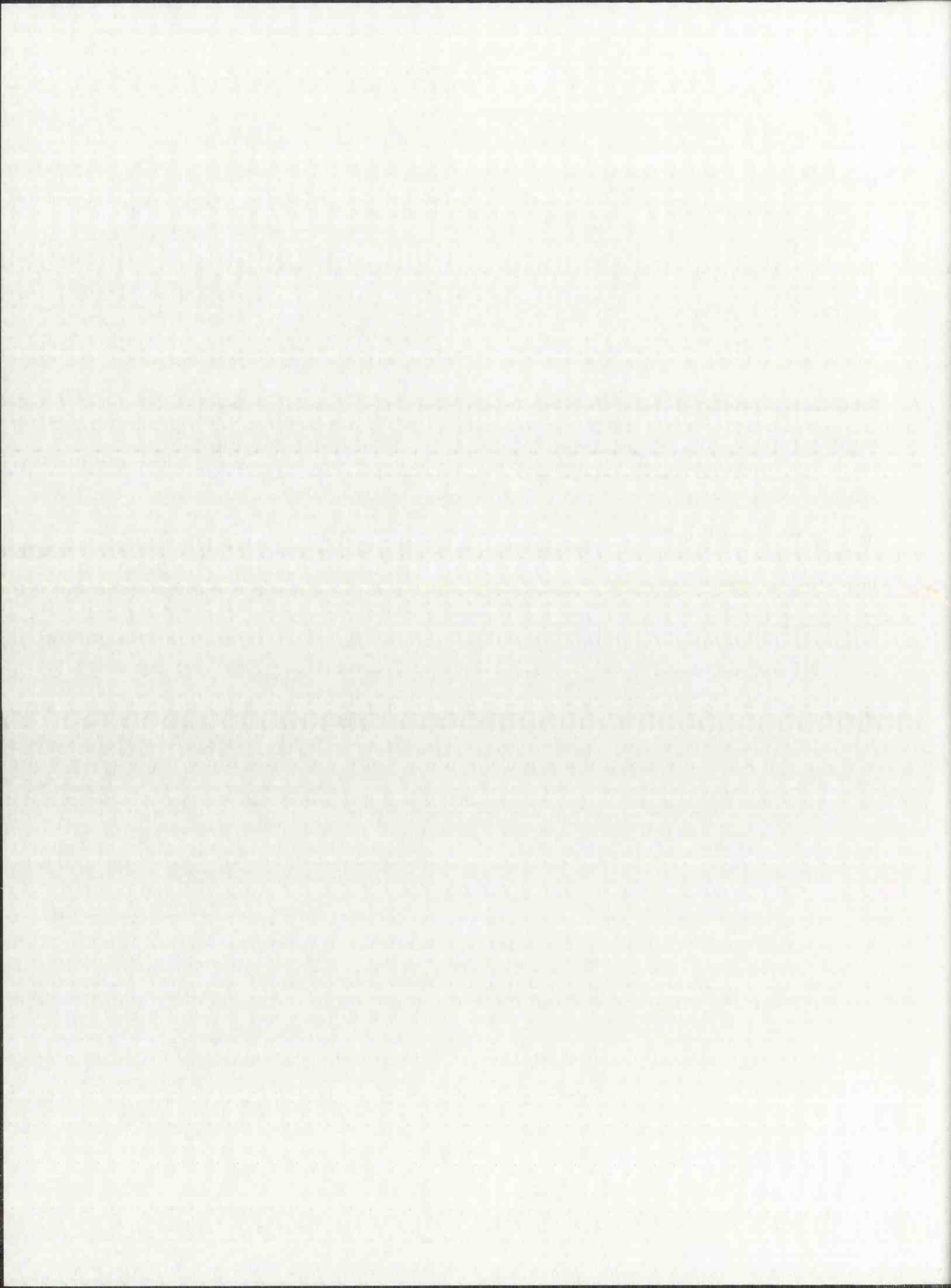
In a review of decision making processes, Kerr and Tindale (2004) argue that most groups are likely to engage in satisficing. They state, “often it’s not that groups cannot perform near their upper limits, it’s that they simply don’t need to” (p. 642). In regard to decision making, satisficing is likely to happen if there is a dominance in shared information (Tindale & Kameda, 2000). After group norms have become common and familiar to members, the group may spend less time processing information. Rather than identifying the most accurate outcome in a decision making process, the most practical outcome may be more widely used and accepted (Kerr & Tindale, 2004). Using satisficing as a decision making tool may be more common than most groups members believe and should be investigated further.

The role power plays in TMT interaction and decision making is also important. TMTs are responsible for the wellbeing of the organization, which makes their group interactions unique. Regardless of the culture, size of the business, location, or how many managers make up the TMT, power is present and must be taken into consideration with decision making style. An entire group of authoritative figures may make decisions much differently than RWTs and how they choose to make decisions may be a result of the power they hold. This role of power can be found in every TMT, both implicitly and explicitly (Tompson, 1997). Other researchers have “attempted to explain how participation in decision making, and hence, involvement in organizational communication networks, influences outcomes” (Seibold & Shea, 2001, p. 686). From a structural process motivation, attitude, and power will play a role in the decision making process.



Understanding the most common decision making strategies for both TMTs and work teams is important in explaining collaboration. Although we do know that consensus is the “best” model for decision making, we don’t know if most groups use this method. Because TMTs have greater levels of power and motivation than RWTs their decision making strategies should differ. Since TMTs are all experts in their respective positions are they more likely to default to the authoritative decision making process? Given that power is an important factor in the decision making process and it is more salient in TMTs, decision making process between TMTs and RWTs is likely to be different. Because TMTs are more likely to deal with issues that can impact the entire organization, we also need to know what strategy they use to make the decision. We need to know what decision making method more collaborative groups defer to. In understanding which method each group is more likely to use, other research can then identify why. Thus the third hypothesis is proposed:

H3: Perceived decision making strategies will differ between individuals in TMTs and RWTs.



CHAPTER THREE

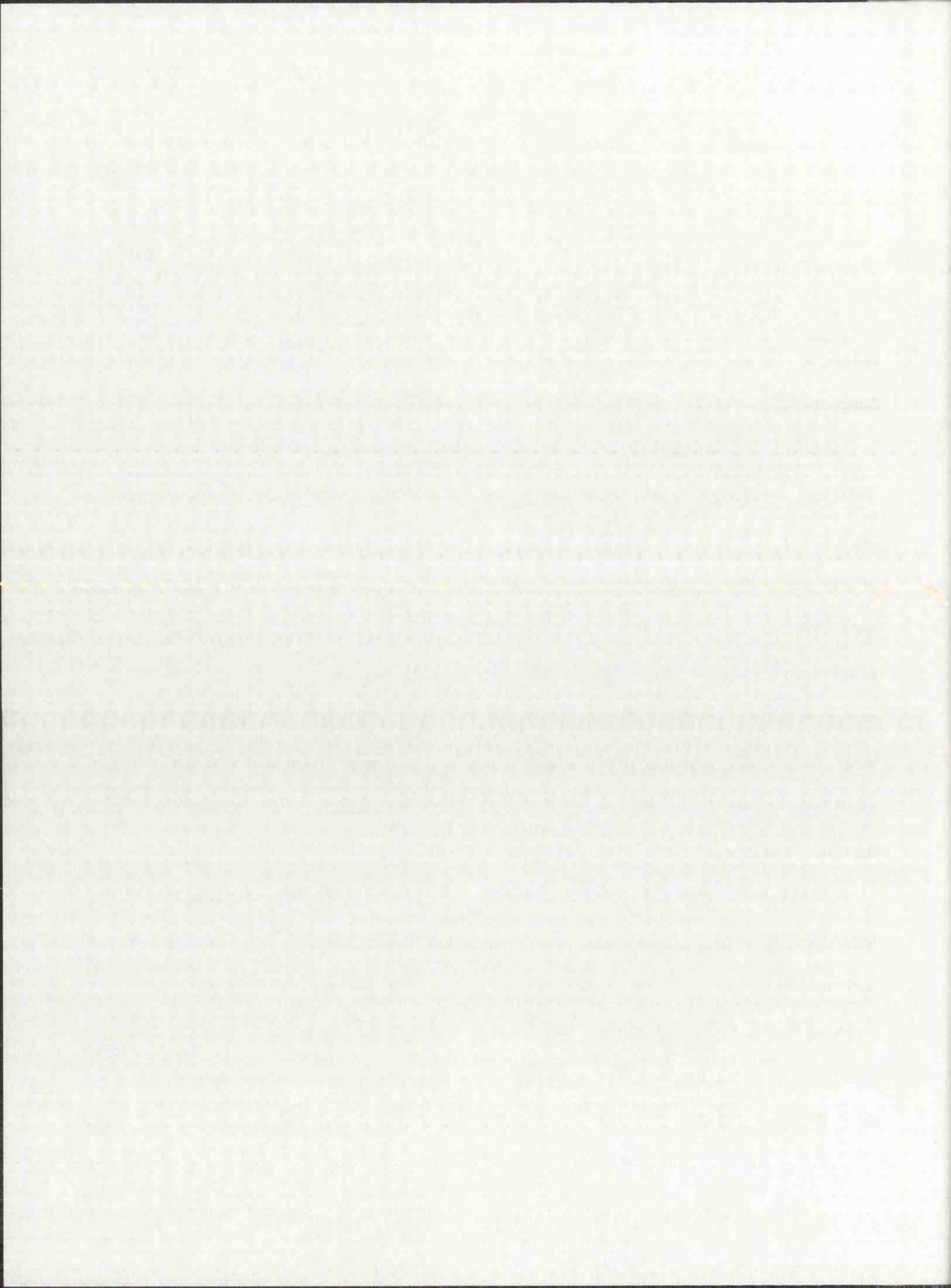
Methods

This study used online survey methods to determine whether differences existed between TMTs and RWTs regarding collaboration, cohesion, and decision making. In order to access members of top management and regular work teams, I used a purposive, network sampling technique.

Sampling

Since TMTs are typically exclusive and difficult to access (Hambrick, 1998), several TMTs and work teams to which the researcher had access were sampled. By using a purposive network sample both TMTs and RWTs were identified and recruited for the study. Using a group of companies with which the researcher had done business in the past, TMTs and work teams were contacted and asked to participate. I contacted the owner, president, or CEO of these companies via telephone or email and asked if their top team, including themselves, would participate in the study. I also asked if they would allow their work teams to participate in the study. Work teams with which the researcher had contact in the past were also contacted and asked to participate. Teams only participated in the study if the researcher had permission from the team's manager.

TMTs were composed of executive-level decision makers. RWTs were comprised of lower-level organizational members, that is, those who did not hold executive positions. Teams surveyed had no less than three and no more than eight members to assure some heterogeneity regarding team size. As such, teams with fewer than three members were omitted as were those with more than eight members. I surveyed individuals currently active in a working group on their jobs. In all, 253 (N = 253) individuals from 61 teams were surveyed. Individuals from



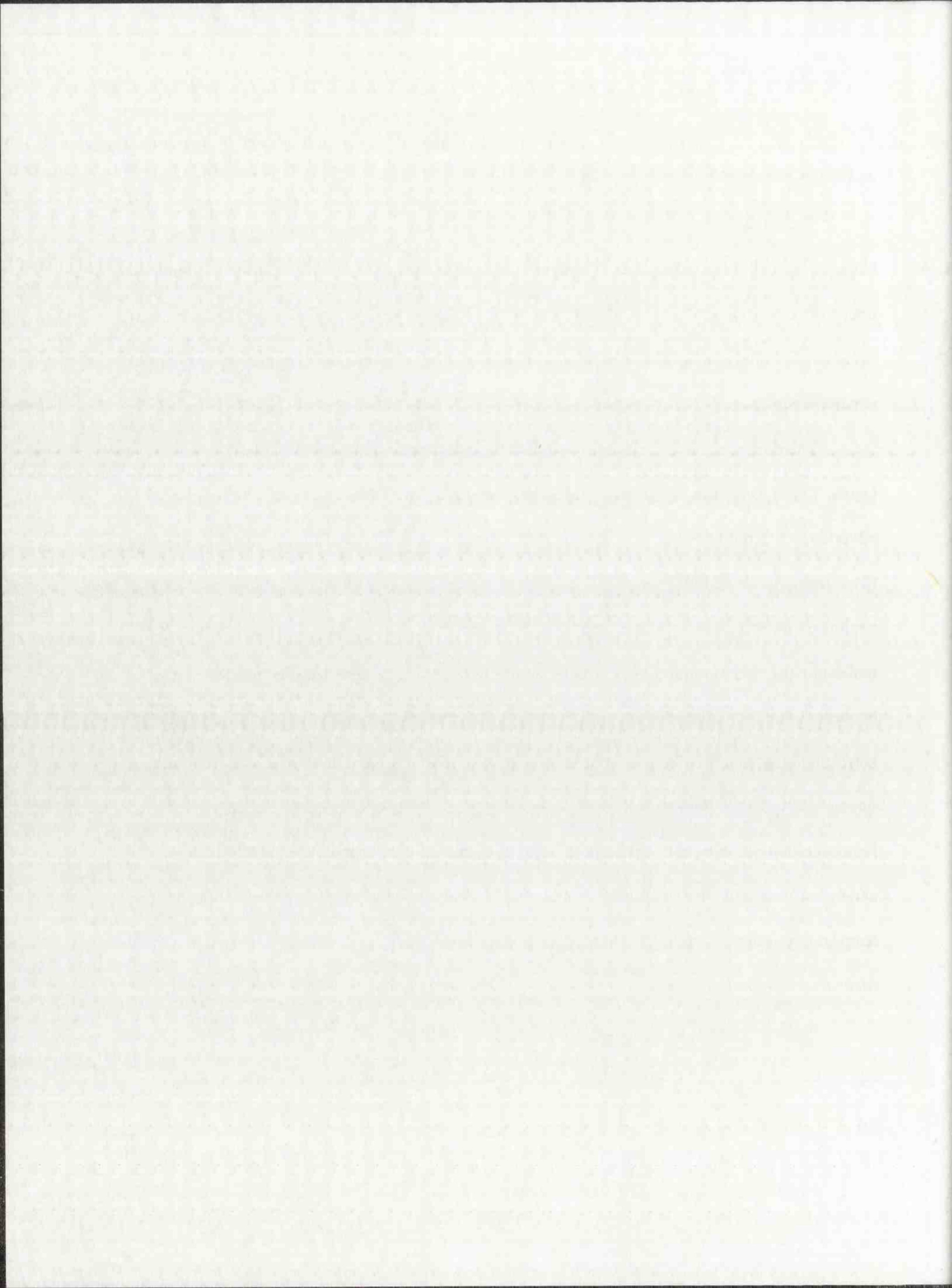
TMTs accounted for 50.2% (n = 127) of the sample; individuals from RWTs accounted for the remaining 49.8% (n = 126).

The sample represented 61 (N=61) work teams from various industries including telecommunications, retail, fitness, construction, hotel management, public relations, consulting, nonprofit, advertising, law firms, healthcare, manufacturing, real estate, financial, food, and sales dealerships. Some teams were from large multimillion dollar companies while others were from smaller businesses.

There were a total of 31 (n=31) top management teams and 30 (n=30) regular work teams. TMTs were from the law (2), sales dealerships (2), non profits (2), real estate (3), advertising (2), public relations (1), hotel management (1), manufacturing (3), financial (1), food (2), telecommunications (2), consulting (4), construction (3), manufacturing (1), retail (1), and healthcare industries (1). RWTs were from the telecommunications (11), retail (8), fitness (6), real estate (2), construction (2), and manufacturing industries (1). Both TMTs and RWTs had between 3 and 5 members on a team. Two surveys from top managers were excluded since corresponding team members did not fill out surveys. Teams were made up of both male and female and varied in demographical features such as age, race, education, and experience. However, demographic information was initially excluded in the survey to protect the privacy and out of respect for the groups. As such the sample was a fair cross-representations of teams comprised of working adults rather than students.

Measures

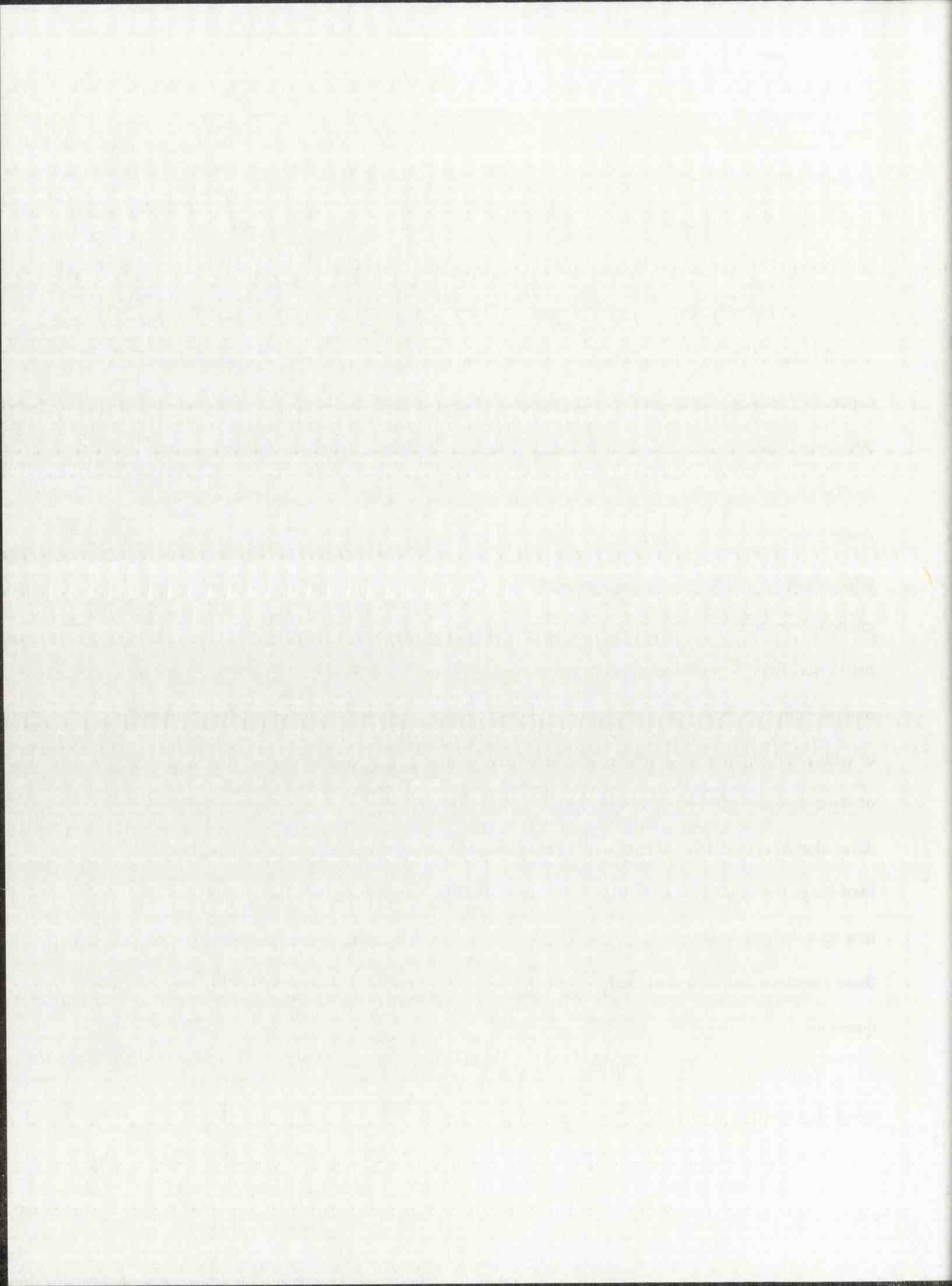
In what follows, I outline each of the variable measures used in this study. See Appendices A and B for detailed survey items and the administered survey. These include measures for collaboration and cohesion. I also developed a preliminary measure of group



decision making. The collaborative climate measure (Sveiby & Simons, 2002) used aspects of organizational culture, employee attitudes, and work group support as key measures. Cohesion (Chin et al, 1999) was developed as a refinement to Bollen and Hoyle's (1990) study. Morale and sense of belonging were the constructs used to measure cohesion.

Collaboration. Perceived collaborative climate was measured using three scales each with five items. The five items are organizational culture, employee attitude, and work group support. Cronbach's alpha for the three scales is .89, .88, and .81 respectively, and .87 for the aggregated scales (Sveiby & Simons, 2002), indicating acceptable reliability for the measure. Each scale uses a 5-point Likert (5, strongly agree; 4, agree; 3, neutral; 2, disagree; 1 strongly disagree) in order to average total scores (Sveiby & Simmons, 2002). Immediate supervisor was also a measure of the collaborative climate scale but was not be used for this study. Since TMTs are being measured and the leader of this team may not have an immediate supervisor it would not be beneficial to measure and compare scores of groups if this dimension is missing from multiple surveys. Likewise, comparisons cannot be made between TMTs and RWTs one member of each TMT cannot respond to this section. Finally, for the purposes of this study, the category of organizational culture was changed to knowledge sharing. The 5 items that were used for the dimension of organizational culture did not measure culture but were more reflective of knowledge sharing. Some examples of the items are "We are continuously encouraged to bring new knowledge into the group", and "The people I report to keep me informed." Thus, because these questions deal with knowledge sharing, the category itself was changed to reflect the questions.

Cohesion. Cohesion was measured using the adapted Perceived Cohesion Scale (PCS) developed by Chin et al. (1999). Past studies have found the scale reliable, with Cronbach's

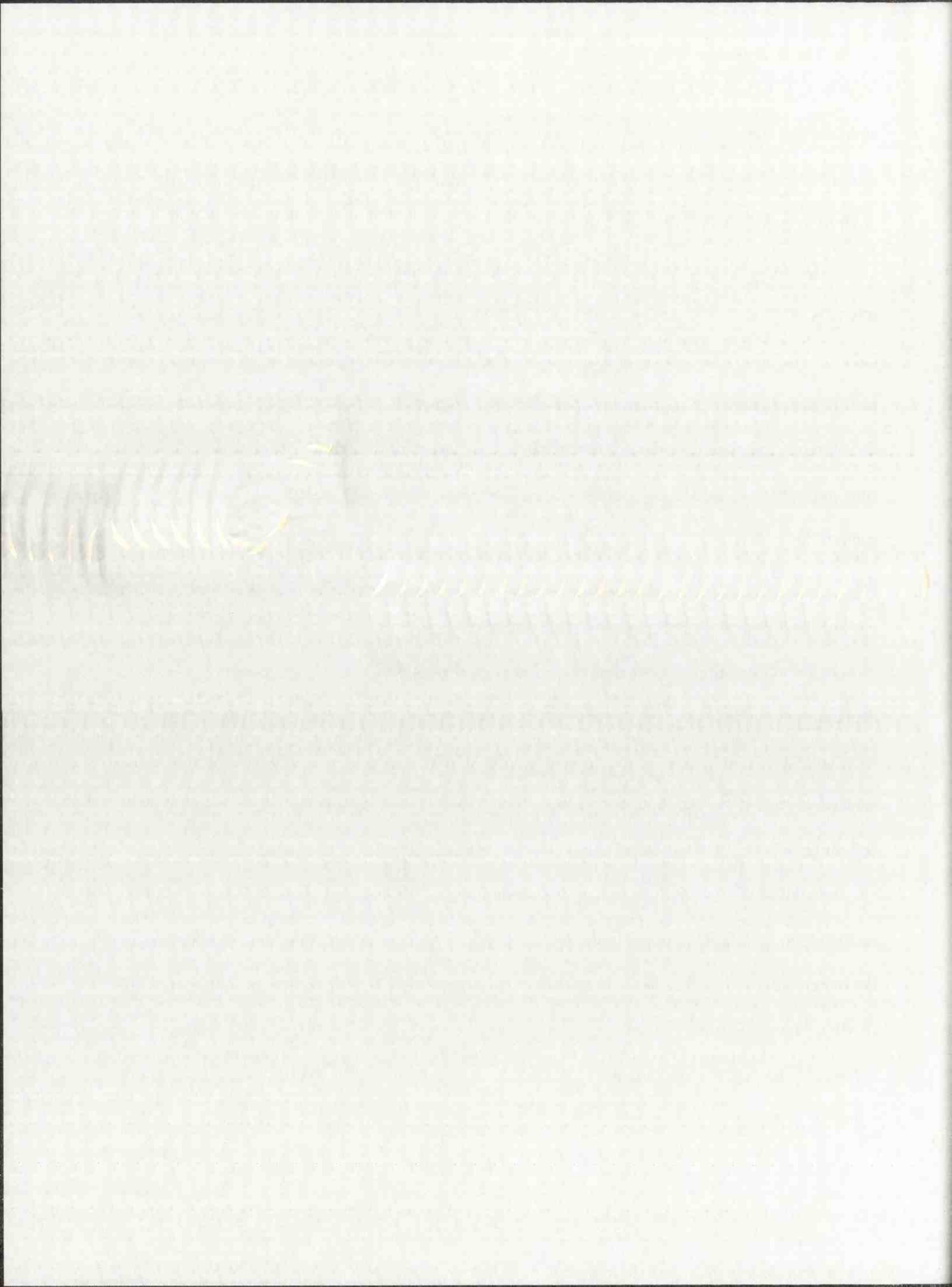


alpha for belonging .95 and morale .87. The correlation of each scale is high, $r = .92$. Each scale uses a 5-point Likert (5, strongly agree; 4, agree; 3, neutral; 2, disagree; 1 strongly disagree) in order to average and compare total scores.

Decision Making. In order to determine which decision-making style(s) the groups most often use, a group of experts generated questions for each of the four decision making styles—authority, majority, consensus, and satisficing. From previous literature and textbooks, the group identified and categorized different aspects of decision making. Of the different themes of decision making available, the group identified four categories of decision making: Authority rule, majority rule, consensus, and satisficing. Since the theoretical framework already exists for each of these categories, no new categories needed to be identified. Using the past literature dedicated to each of these categories, the panel of experts created items they felt best represented each of the 4 dimensions of group decision making.

Six to 10 items were generated per category, resulting in 36 questions measuring group decision-making style. The survey was distributed to an adequate sample size. Once the surveys were collected, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was used to determine factor loadings for each item. Only items that load with a value of .4 or above were used in the final survey (Mertler & Vannatta, 2005). The details of the process are addressed in the results section.

Additionally, several fit indices were examined to evaluate the overall model fit, including chi square, chi-square to degrees-of-freedom (χ^2/df), the comparative fit index (CFI), the incremental fit index (IFI), the goodness of fit index (GFI), and the root mean square residual (RMR). The χ^2/df ratio less than 3 suggests a good model fit. The CFI, IFI, and GFI values range between 0 and 1, and values greater than .90 indicate adequate fit, and the recommended cutoff value for RMR is less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Once the measure was determined to be



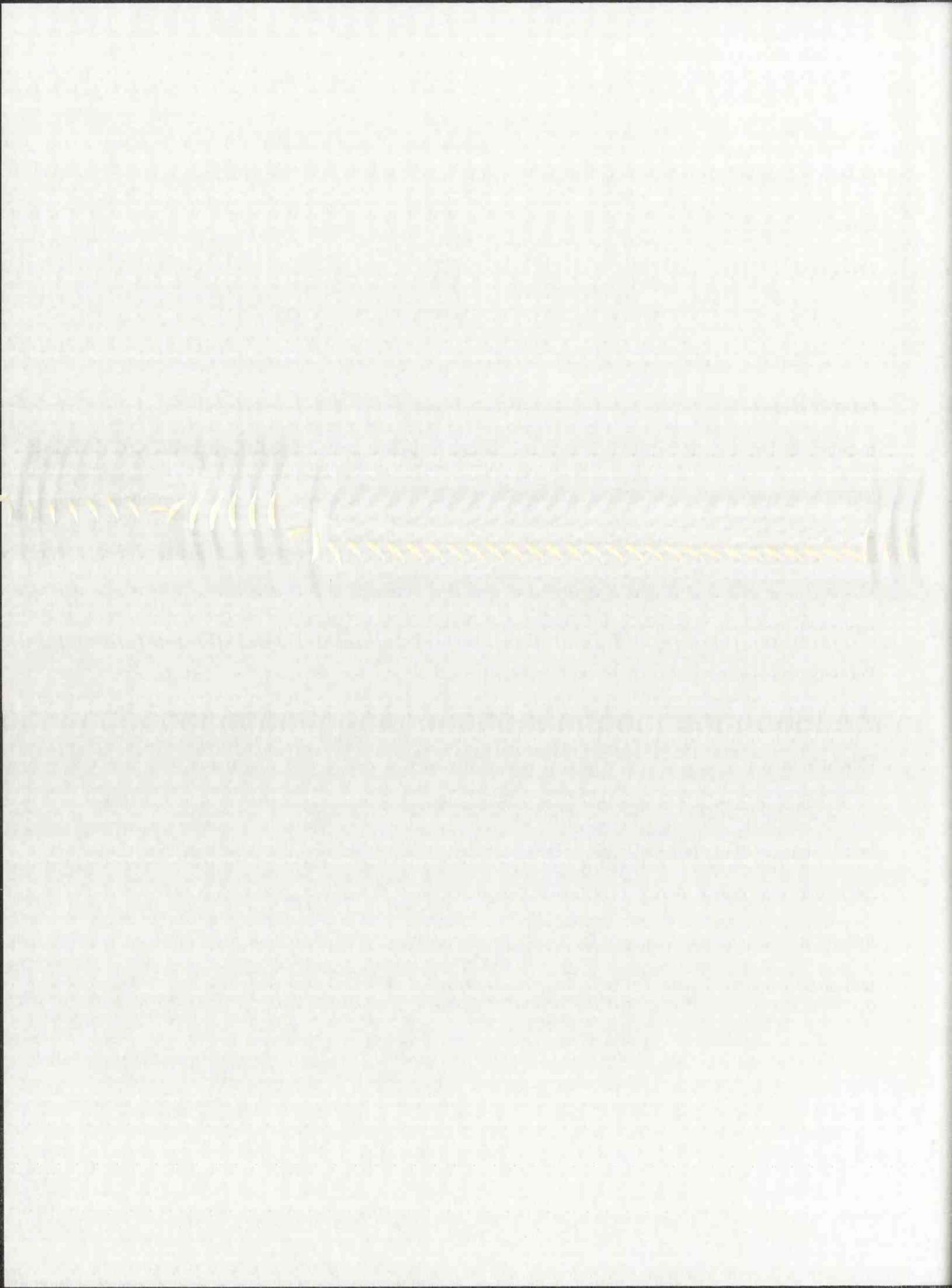
valid and reliable, it was used to measure decision making style. Team members reported their level of agreement with a list of statements on a five point Likert-type scale (5, strongly agree; 4, agree; 3, neutral; 2, disagree; 1 strongly disagree).

Procedures

Using a network sample, surveys were collected from members of both TMTs and RWTs. Respondents filled out either hard copies of the survey or electronic copies via surveymonkey.com. Participants were contacted via email or telephone. Only managers and members of TMTs were contacted. They were asked if they and their team could participate in a survey that would take approximately 10 minutes to complete. They were also asked if they had regular work teams that could participate in the survey. Only team members who had been given permission by their organization to complete the survey participated. Permission was granted in writing by the teams' supervising manager or one of the organizations top decision makers. Participation was voluntary; no one was required by their supervisors to participate. All members of the TMTs filled out the survey online and all members of the RWTs filled out paper surveys.

Data analysis

The central hypotheses in this study are that differences exist between TMTs and RWTs in cohesion, collaboration, and decision making style. As such, a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test group differences of cohesiveness, collaboration, and decision making style. Appendix B outlines the three measures and their associated dimensions and indicators. Appendix C presents the survey as administered.



CHAPTER FOUR

Results

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for all continuous independent variables are summarized in Table 1. As presented in Table 1, the decision making measures of majority rule and consensus are significantly related to measures of collaboration and cohesion. Authoritative decision making is only significantly related to workgroup support. Most measures of collaboration and cohesion are also significantly related.

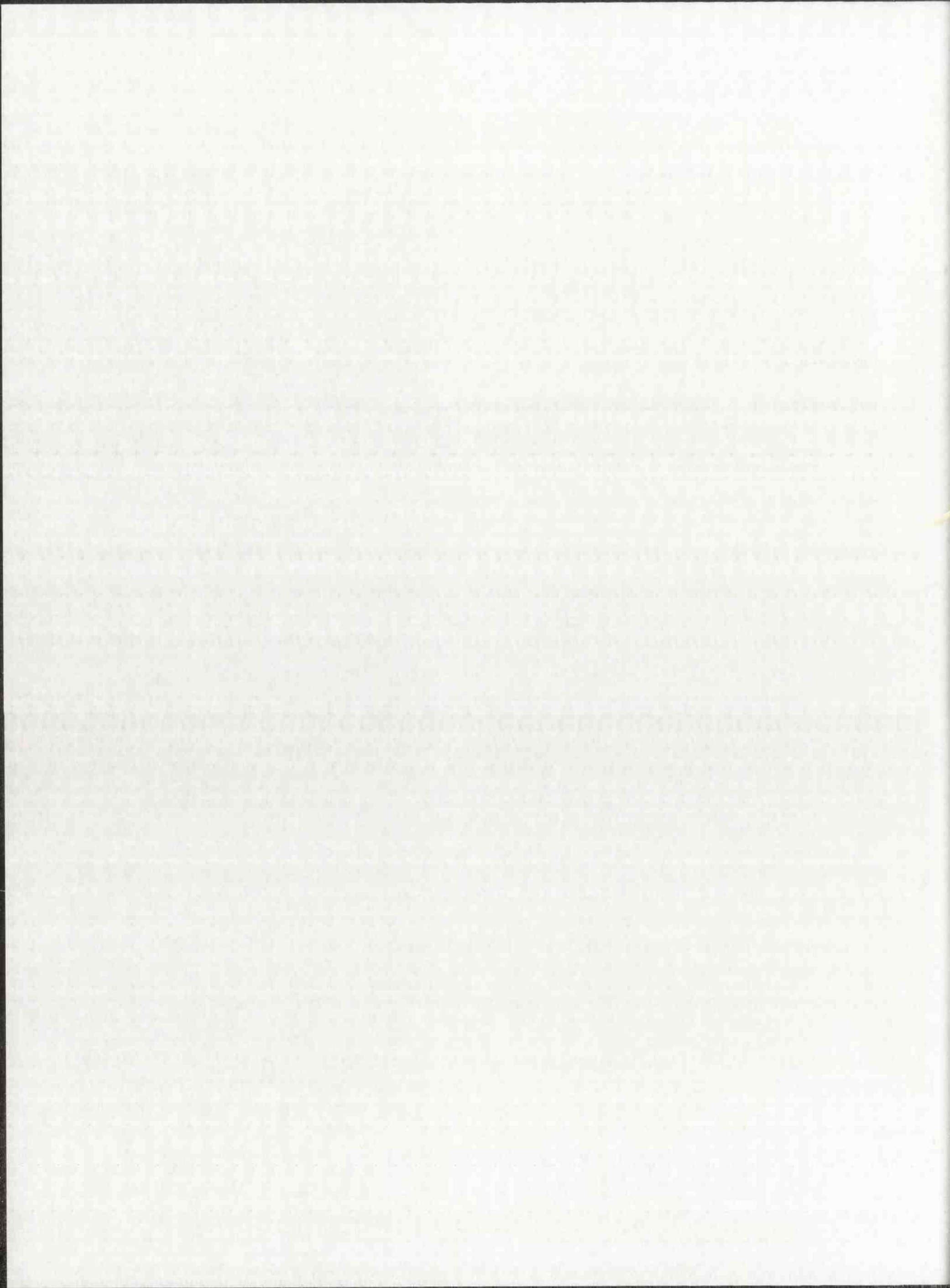
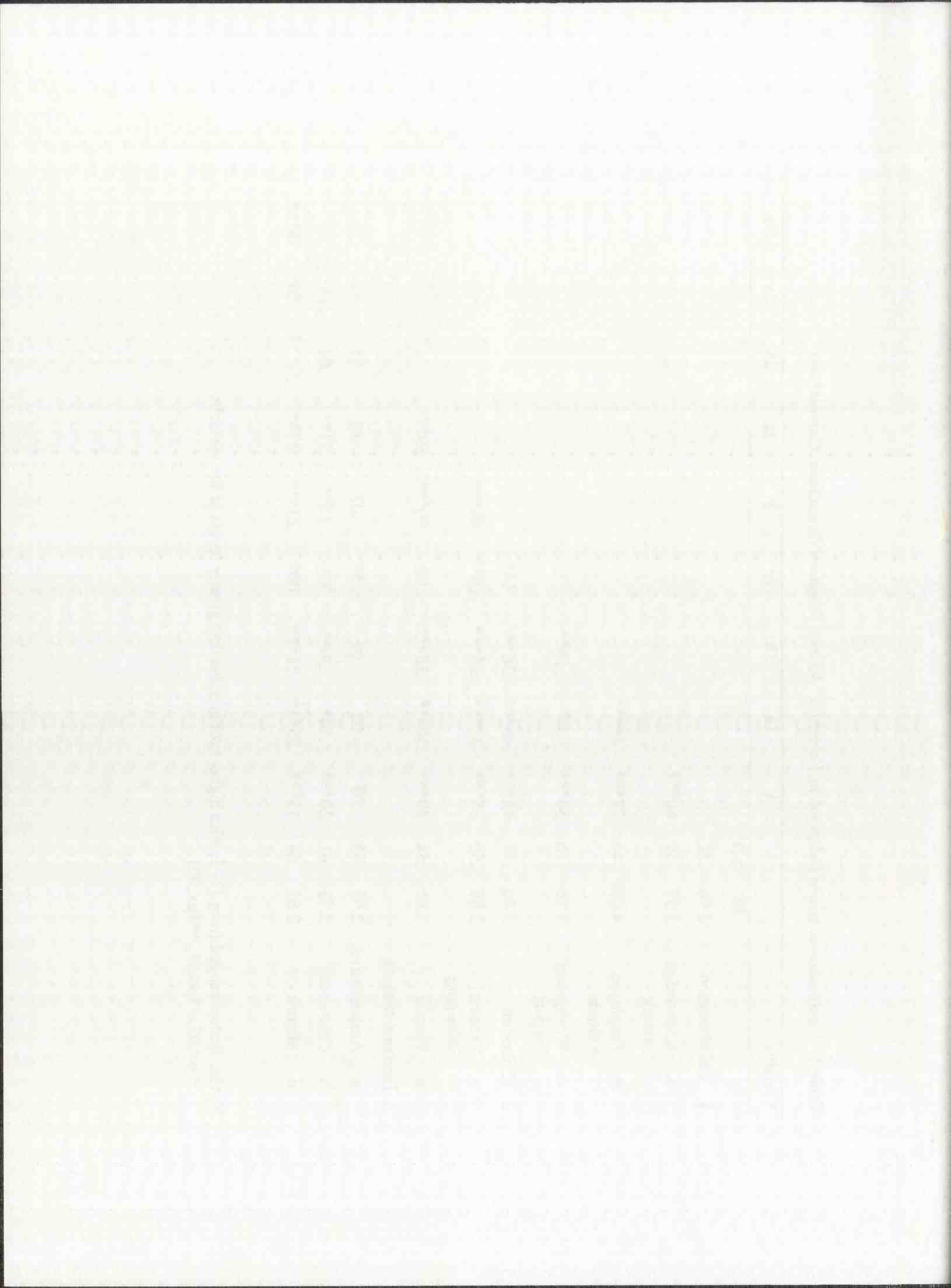


Table 1. Continuous-measure Independent Variables, Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations

Variable	M	SD	1	1a	1b	1c	2	2a	2b	3a	3b
1. Collaboration	3.98	.32									
a. Knowledge Sharing	3.97	.56	.80***								
b. Employee Attitude	4.06	.44	.78***	.45***							
c. Workgroup Support	3.86	.36	.50***	.07	.19**						
2. Cohesion	3.80	.47	.48***	.46***	.36***	.14*					
a. Sense of Belonging	3.80	.50	.35***	.32***	.25***	.16**	.88***				
b. Morale	3.81	.54	.49***	.50***	.38***	.09	.90***	.59***			
3. Decision Making											
a. Authoritative	2.98	.63	.08	.02	.02	.15*	.07	.10	.03		
b. Consensus	2.72	.61	.20***	.14*	.20**	.07	.16**	.21**	.08	.14*	
c. Majority	2.83	.64	.33***	.33***	.31***	.009	.27***	.17**	.31***	.09	.38***

Notes. Scores ranged from 1 – 5, with higher scores indicating greater levels of the variable.

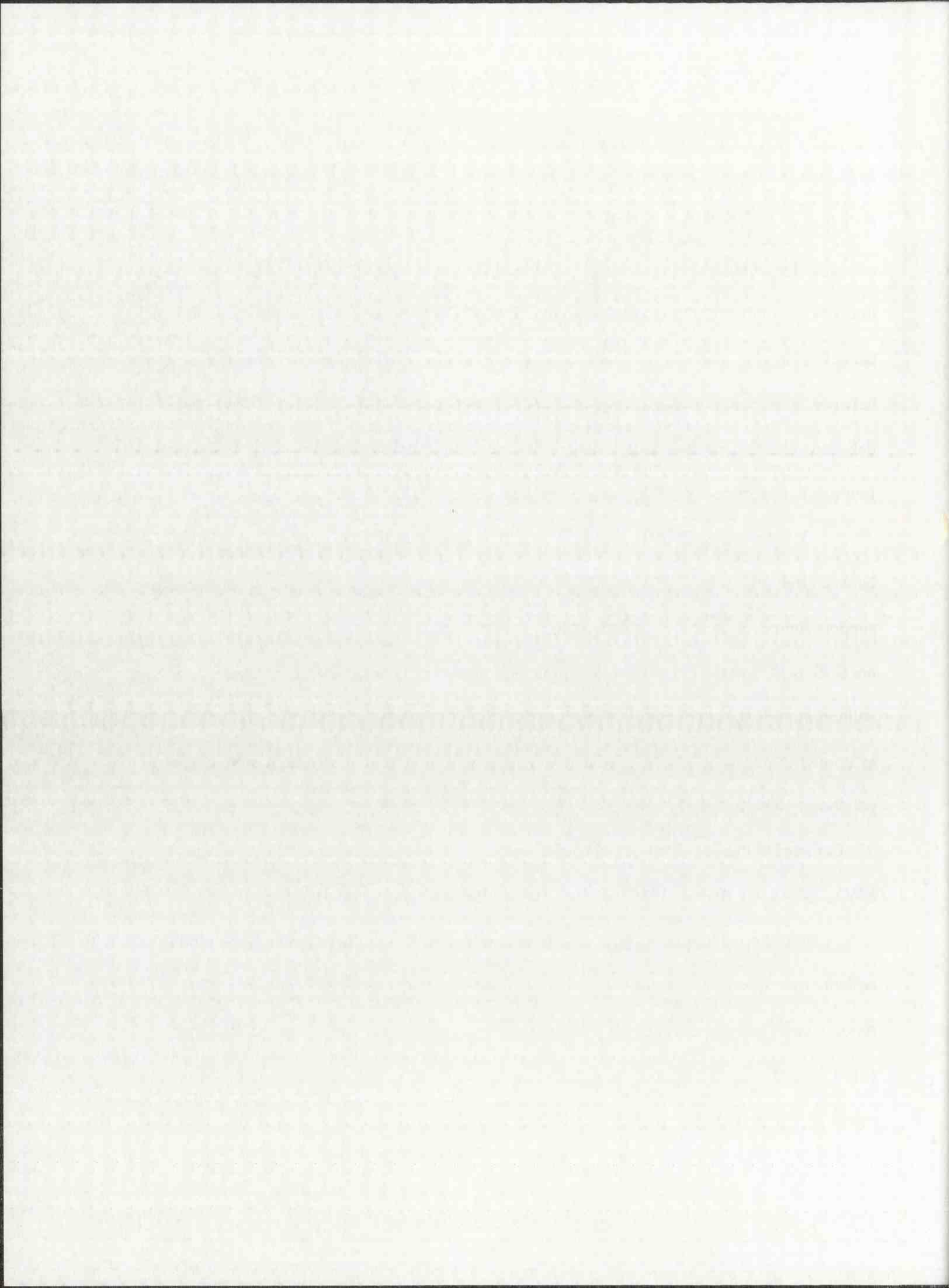
* p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001



In order to test Hypothesis 1, Hypothesis 2, and Hypothesis 3 a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out. The independent variable is group type (TMT, RWT) and the dependent variables are collaboration, cohesion, and decision making. Analyses also include subscales for collaboration, cohesion, and decision making. The data meets all assumptions for linearity, normality, and homoscedasticity. The following presents the study's results in four parts. Section one compares collaboration between TMTs and RWTs and section two, cohesion between TMTs and RWTs. Section three and four deal with decision making. Section three delineates the confirmatory factor analysis for the study's decision making scale, and section four presents decision making comparisons between TMTs and RWTs.

Collaboration. Hypothesis 1 proposes that communicative collaboration will differ between individuals in TMTs and RWTs. Knowledge sharing, employee attitude, and workgroup support comprise the study's collaboration measure. Cronbach's alphas for the subscales scales are 0.79, 0.70, and 0.77 respectively. Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale measuring collaboration is 0.92. The relationships between the three measures of collaboration were examined. A one-way ANOVA indicates significant differences in perceived communication collaboration across all three levels of collaboration ($F_{(1, 251)} = 26.56, p < 0.001$). Members of TMTs report higher levels of overall collaboration ($M = 4.07, SD = 0.20$) than members of RWTs ($M = 3.86, SD = 0.39$). The effect size for the two groups was very large ($d = .68$).

Since knowledge sharing, employee attitude, and work group support comprised the collaboration measure, these subscales are also compared (see Table 2). Members of TMTs report significantly greater ($F_{(1, 251)} = 59.10, p < 0.001$) levels of knowledge sharing ($d = .98$), ($M = 4.22, SD = 0.46$) than members of RWTs ($M = 3.72, SD = 0.55$). Members of TMTs also report significantly higher ($F_{(1, 151)} = 18.31, p < 0.001$) levels of employee attitude ($d = .54$), ($M =$



4.17, SD = 0.31) than members of RWTs (M = 3.94, SD = 0.51). Finally, members of TMTs report significantly lower ($F_{(1, 251)} = 6.38, p < 0.05$) levels of work group support ($d = .33$), (M = 3.80, SD = 0.21) than members of RWTs (M = 3.92, SD = 0.46). These provide support for Hypothesis 1; there are significant differences in overall collaboration between the two groups.

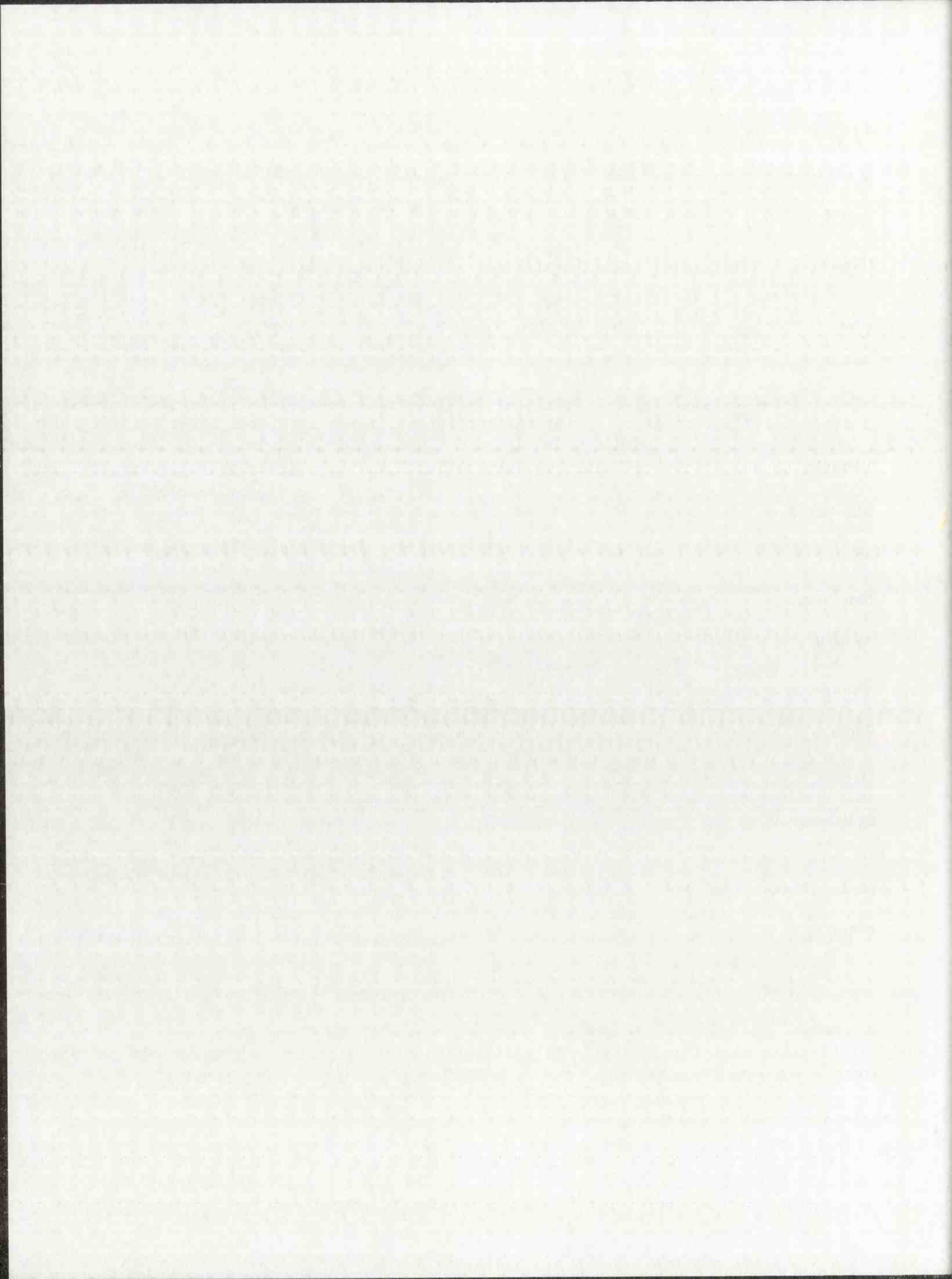
Table 2. *Collaboration Comparisons of TMTs and RWTs*

Variable	Team Type				df	d	F
	TMT		RWT				
	M	SD	M	SD			
Knowledge	4.22	.46	3.72	.55	251	.98	59.10***
Sharing							
Employee	4.17	.31	3.94	.51	251	.54	18.31***
Attitude							
Workgroup	3.80	.21	3.92	.46	251	.33	6.38***
Support							
Overall	4.07	.20	3.86	.39	251	.68	26.56***
Collaboration							

Notes. Scores ranged from 1 – 5, with higher scores indicating greater levels of the variable.

*** $p < .001$

Cohesion. Hypothesis 2 proposes that perceived levels of team cohesion will differ between individuals in TMTs and RWTs. Overall, two subscales, sense of belonging and morale, comprise cohesion. Cronbach's alphas are 0.72 and 0.71 respectively and 0.80 for overall cohesion. Analyses compared the two subscales for cohesion and overall cohesion between the



two types of working groups. A one-way ANOVA indicates significant differences in perceived cohesion for all measures. There are significant differences ($F_{(1, 251)} = 40.37, p < 0.001$) in perceived cohesion ($d = .81$) between TMTs and RWTs members. Members of TMTs report higher levels of overall cohesion ($M = 3.98, SD = 0.22$) than members of RWTs ($M = 3.63, SD = 0.57$).

Sense of belonging and morale (cohesion subscales) were also analyzed. Significant differences emerge ($F_{(1, 251)} = 8.4, p < 0.005$) in the perceived sense of belonging ($d = .36$) between members of TMTs ($M = 3.89, SD = 0.24$) and RWTs ($M = 3.71, SD = 0.66$). Differences in morale ($d = 1.08$) are also significant ($F_{(1, 251)} = 73.67, p < 0.001$) between TMTs ($M = 4.06, SD = 0.31$) and RWTs ($M = 3.55, SD = 0.59$). TMTs report higher levels of overall cohesion, sense of belonging, and morale. As such, Hypothesis 2 is supported (see Table 3).

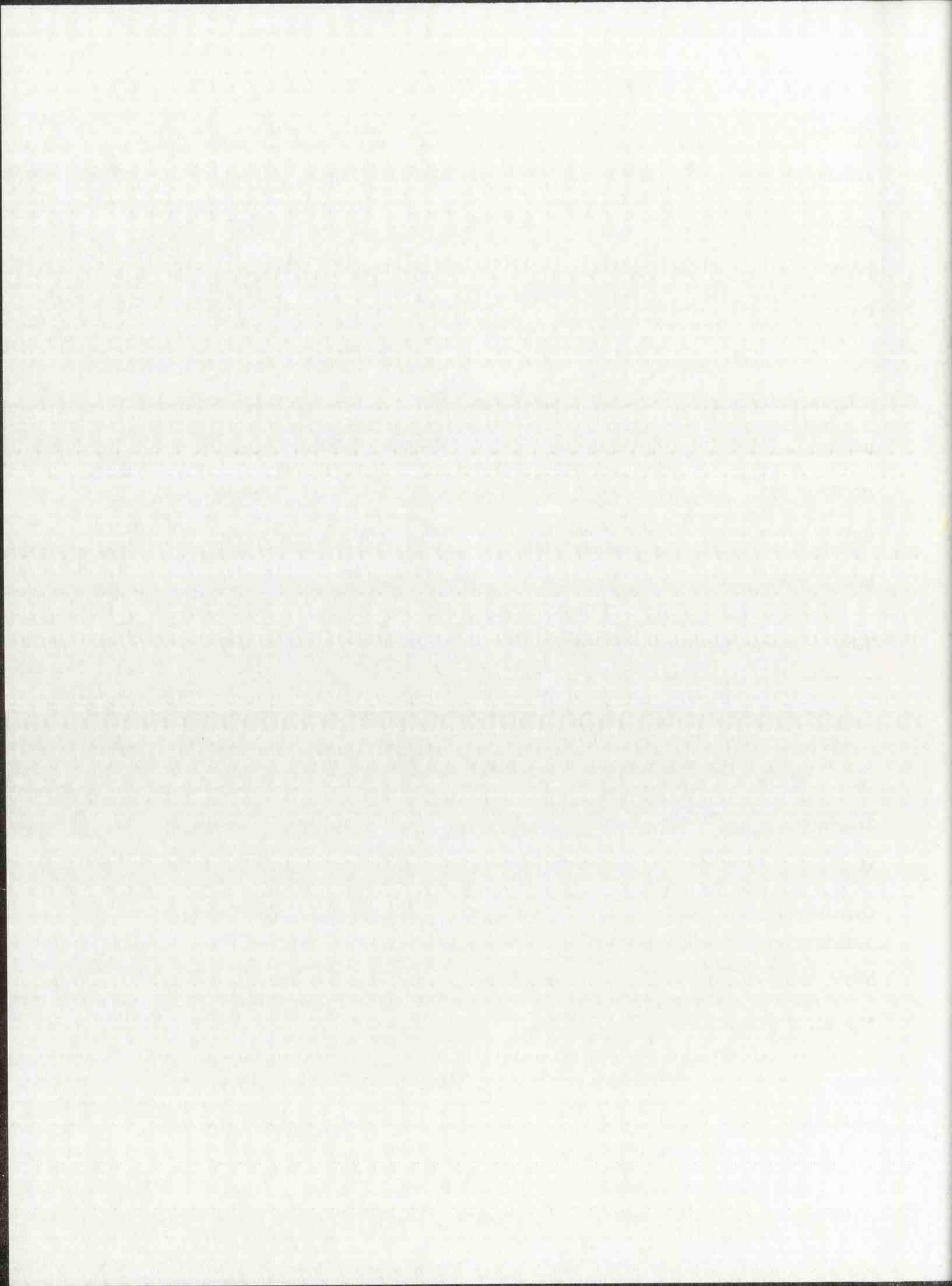
Table 3. *Cohesion Comparisons of TMTs and RWTs*

Variable	Team Type				df	d	F
	TMT		RWT				
	M	SD	M	SD			
Sense of Belonging	3.89	.24	3.71	.66	251	.36	8.42**
Morale	4.06	.31	3.55	.59	251	1.08	73.67***
Overall Cohesion	3.98	.24	3.63	.57	251	.81	40.37***

Notes. Scores ranged from 1 – 5, with higher scores indicating greater levels of the variable.

** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

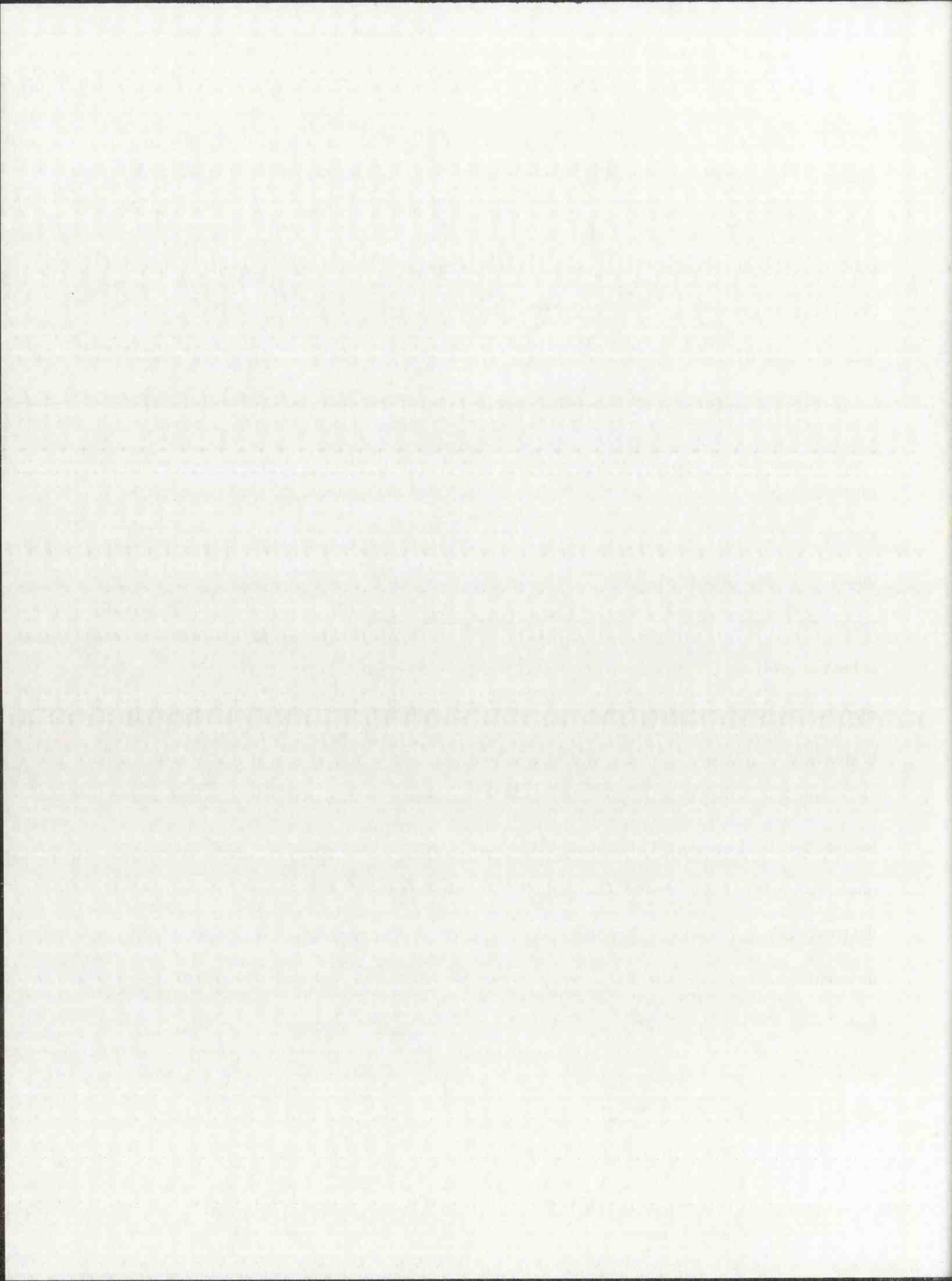
Team Decision-making Scale. Before comparing differences in decision making, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to test for factorial validity (see Table 4).



Several fit indices are examined to evaluate the overall model fit, chi-square to degrees-of-freedom (χ^2/df), the comparative fit index (CFI), the incremental fit index (IFI), the goodness of fit index (GFI), and the root mean square residual (RMR). The χ^2/df ratio less than 3 suggests a good model fit. The RMR, CFI, IFI, and GFI values range between 0 and 1. Values greater than .90 indicate adequate fit for CFI, IFI, and GFI. The recommended cutoff value for RMR is less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

The final model indicates a good fit for team decision making types. The survey included 36 decision-making questions (10 authoritarian, 10 consensus, 6 majority rule, and 10 satisficing). After testing for factorial validity, 11 items remain (4 authority, 3 consensus, and 4 majority rule). Satisficing items are not a part of the final survey as they are not part of the good model fit. Fit indices are better than their recommended minimum threshold values for the remaining 11 items. The χ^2/df value was 2.471, RMR value was .034, GFI value was .967, IFI value was .944, and CFI value was .944; all of which are acceptable values of model fit. Standardized regression values range between .404 and .883 (see table 4), indicating a moderate to strong fit.

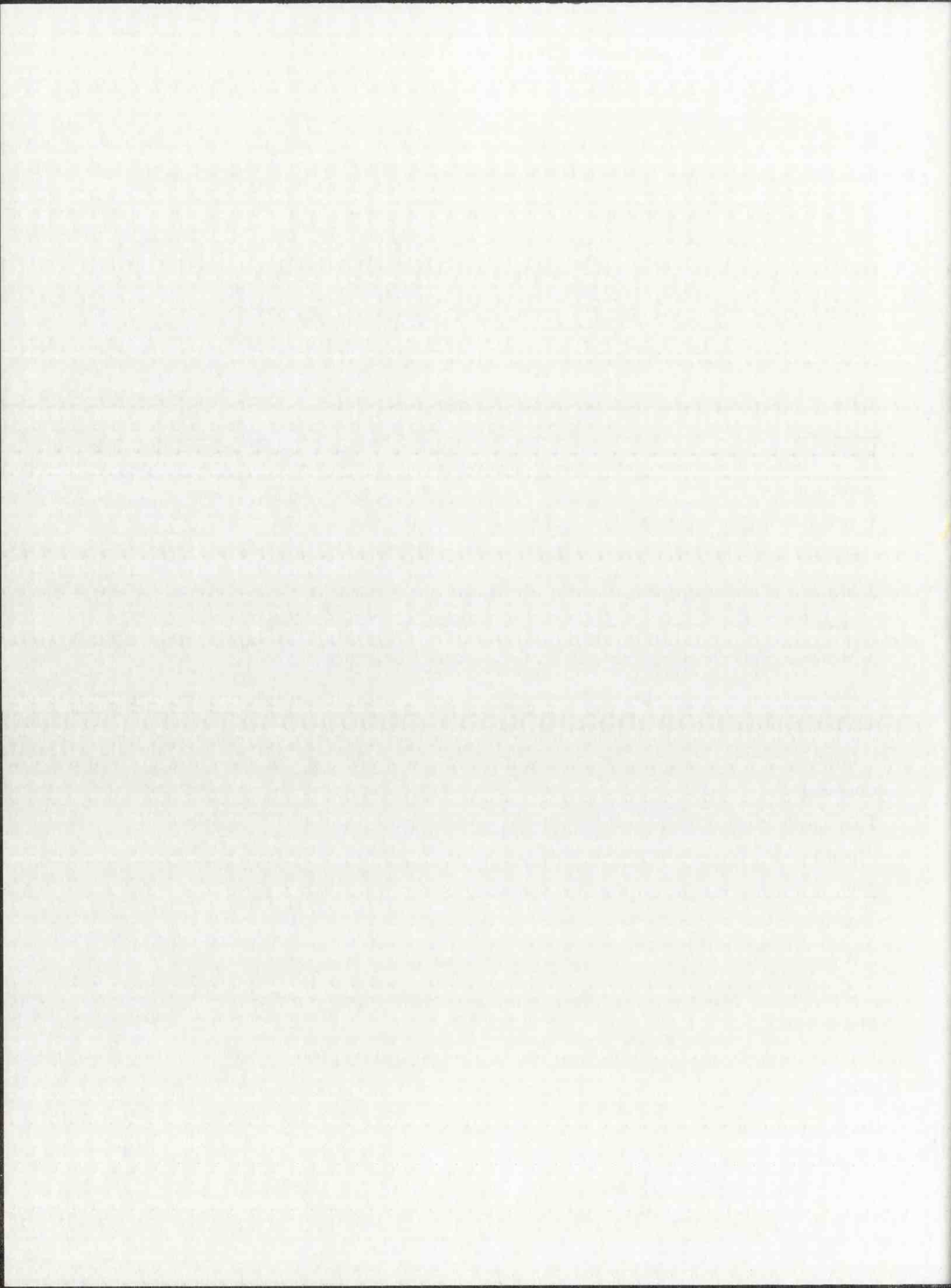
Items are removed from the original 26 item scale due to either a high factor loadings or because they do not meet the minimum standardized regression value of .4. For example, item one from the consensus measure (Our group spends time for everyone to discuss...) is a part of the good model fit. However, the standardized regression weight for this item is .306, which is unacceptable. Other items are also removed as their MI (Modification Indexes) values are too high. Items with a high MI value negatively affect the χ^2/df value. For example, item 10 (My group ends up doing what the leader wants) from the authoritative category covaries with item number 6 (Our group usually avoids open discussion of differences with the group leader) which



creates an MI value of 26.02. In this case, the χ^2/df value is 3.74, which is above the acceptable threshold of 3.0. If items 6 and 10 are covaried, item 10 has a standardized regression weight of 0.26 which does not meet the minimum threshold of 0.4. Thus item 10 is removed from the scale. In doing so, the reduction in chi-square has a positive affect on the χ^2/df value and the overall fit of the model. The 11 item scale is used to determine support for hypotheses 3 – perceived decision making strategies will differ between TMTs and RWTs.

Table 4. *Items and Primary Factor Loadings – Decision Making Scale*

Item	Factor Loading
Authoritative	
1. Our group usually decides to take action when a more powerful member pushes his or her desires or ideas.	.421
2. Members of my group use their authority to make a decision in their favor.	.627
3. Members of my group use their expertise to make a decision in their favor.	.883
4. Members of my group use their power to make a decision in their favor.	.795
Consensus	
1. Group members will drop their personal positions when these are found to be unfavorable to the rest of the group	.445
2. We make decisions after everyone has come to a consensus about the decision.	.526
3. A decision is made only when everybody in the group will accept the decision.	.595
Majority Rule	
1. When a majority of group members believe we should make a decision, this decision is imposed on the entire group.	.506
2. Our group usually decides on issues based on the highest number of votes.	.677



4. We often decide by a show of hands or saying “yeah” and “nay.”	.515
6. Our group votes when it is time to make a decision.	.404

Decision Making. Hypothesis 3 proposes that perceived decision making strategies will differ between individuals in TMTs and RWTs. Three scales—authoritative, consensus, and majority rule—generally comprise decision making. Cronbach’s alphas for the scales are 0.76, 0.66, and 0.60 respectively and 0.68 for overall decision making. The differences between TMTs and RWTs for the three measures of decision making are examined along with overall decision making. A one-way ANOVA indicates (see table 5) there are no significant differences ($F_{(1, 251)} = 2.66, p > 0.05$) in perceived decision making between TMTs ($M = 2.90, SD = 0.29$) and RWTs ($M = 2.81, SD = 0.53$).

A one-way ANOVA is also used to determine if differences exist between individuals in TMTs and RWTs in each of the three decision making types. Analyses reveal significant differences for only one decision-making type. Individuals in TMTs report lower levels of authoritative ($d = -.11$) decision making ($M = 2.94, SD = 0.53$) than members of RWTs ($M = 3.01, SD = 0.72$) $F_{(1, 251)} = 0.87, p > 0.05$; lower levels of consensus ($d = -.22$) decision making ($M = 2.65, SD = 0.45$) than RWTs ($M = 2.78, SD = 0.7$), $F_{(1, 251)} = 2.94, p > 0.05$; and higher levels of majority rule ($d = .69$) decision making ($M = 3.04, SD = 0.48$) than RWTs ($M = 2.62, SD = 0.71$) $F_{(1, 251)} = 29.77, p < 0.001$. Although individuals in TMTs and RWTs differ significantly in the majority rule category, data provides only limited support for Hypothesis 3.

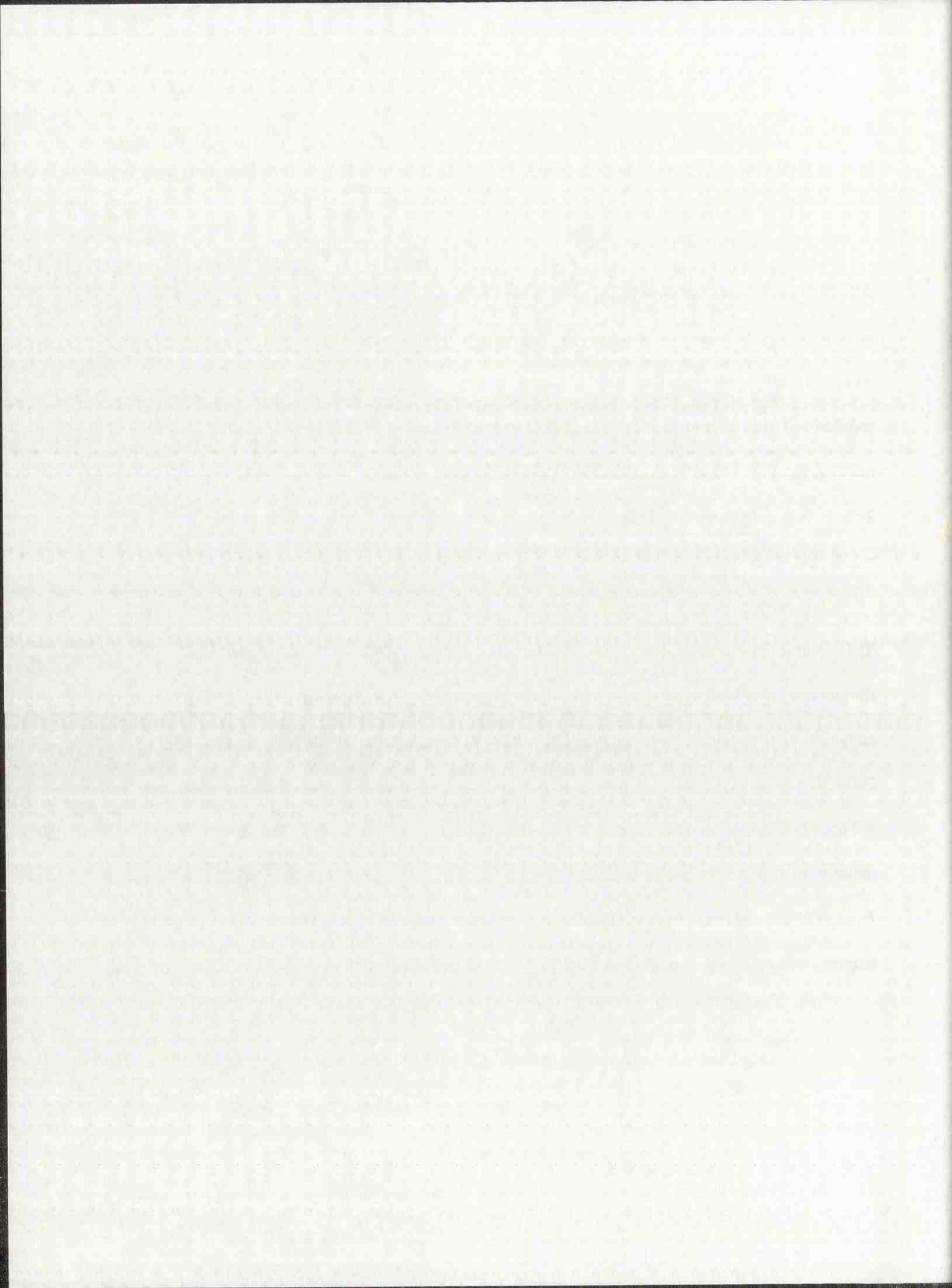
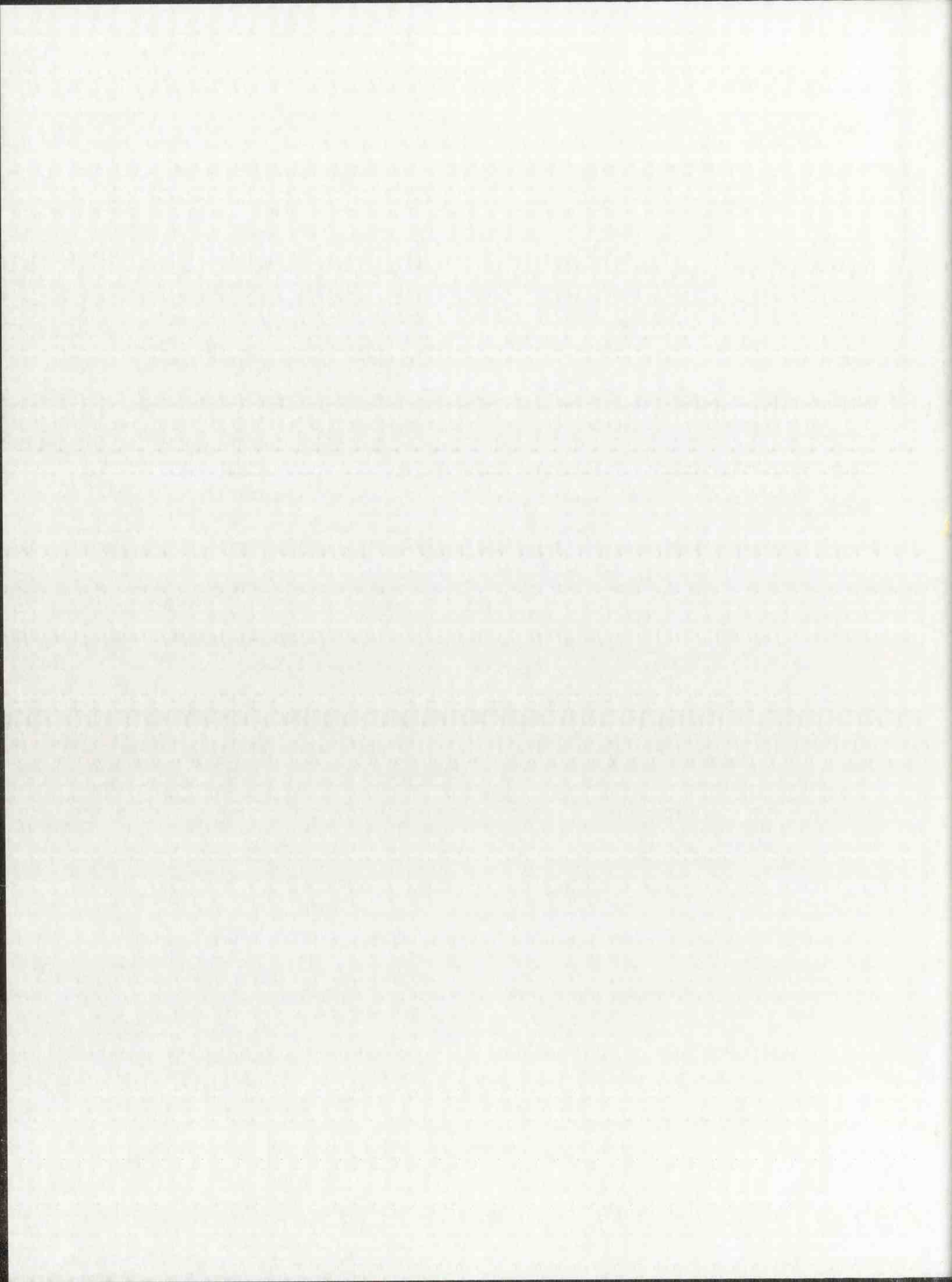


Table 5. *Decision Making Comparisons of TMTs and RWTs*

Variable	Team Type				df	d	F
	TMT		RWT				
	M	SD	M	SD			
Authoritative	2.94	.53	3.01	.72	251	-.11	.87
Consensus	2.65	.45	2.78	.73	251	-.22	2.94
Majority Rule	3.04	.48	2.62	.71	251	.69	29.77***

Notes. Scores ranged from 1 – 5, with higher scores indicating greater levels of the variable.

*** $p < .001$



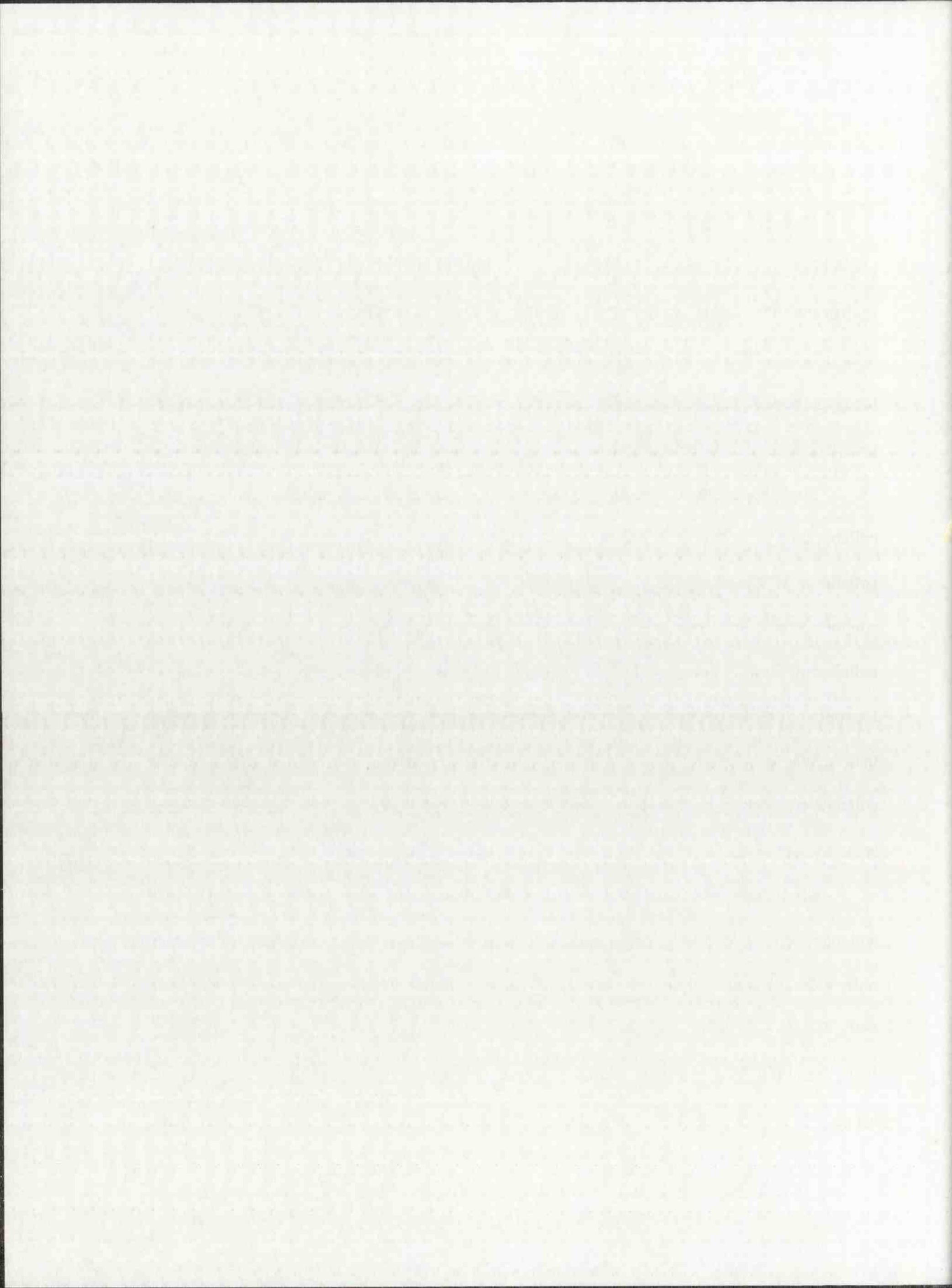
CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion

This study identified whether there were differences in perceived collaboration, cohesion, and decision making between individuals in TMTs and RWTs. Results suggest there are significant differences between the two groups, specifically in collaborative communication and team cohesion. These findings support Hypotheses 1 and 2. There is limited support, however, for Hypothesis 3. Data suggest only one difference in decision making between the two study groups. I detail these findings below.

There appear to be substantive differences in team members' perceptions of collaboration, in both collaboration overall and in the subscales that comprise overall collaboration (knowledge sharing, work group support, employee attitudes). As such, this study supports Sveiby and Simons' (2002) claims that top management teams display higher levels of collaborative communication than do regular work teams. Results differ from LaFasto and Larson's (2001) work that suggests top management teams have lower levels of collaboration than regular teams. Hambrick (1994) also argues that executives are less likely to work collaboratively than other organizational members but rather tend to focus on their own technical areas and divisions.

Sveiby & Simons' (2002) work found that collaboration increased with age, education and managerial role. Studies of the upper echelons report that TMTs are primarily made up of older individuals with higher educational levels and additional managerial responsibility (Bantel, 1993; Bantel & Jackson, 1989; Boekker, 1997; Buccholtz & Ribbens, 1994; Datta & Guthrie, 1994; Hambrick, et al, 1993; Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Hogan & McPheters, 1980). Thus, because TMTs are made up of individuals with increased age, education, and managerial role,

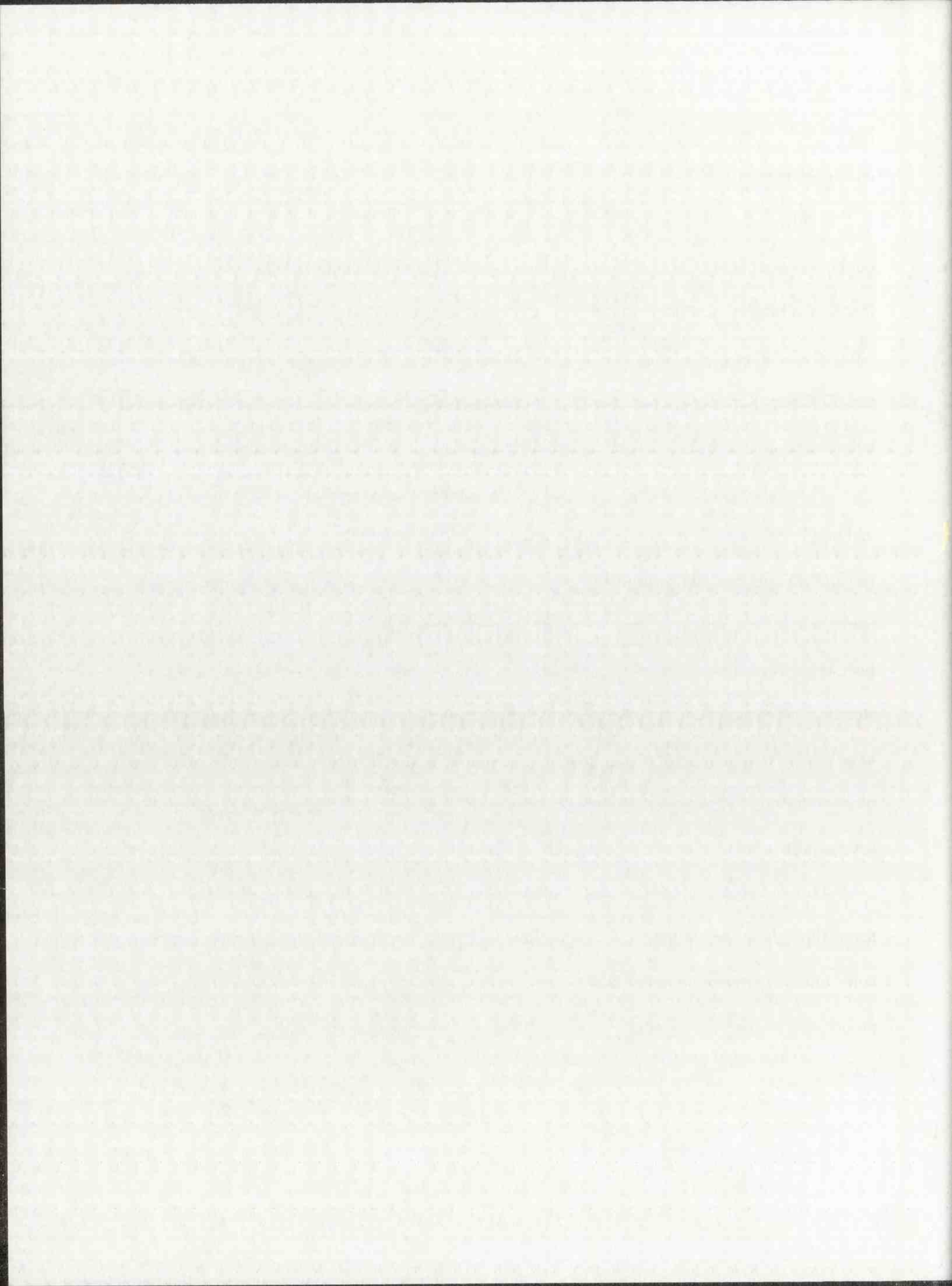


Svieby and Simon's (2002) measure of collaboration may reflect these demographic characteristics.

Differences between studies may be due to a number of issues. First, this study focuses on the perceived levels of collaboration, cohesion, and decision making style between TMTs and RWTs. Collaboration was measured using three measures: knowledge sharing, employee attitude, and work group support. This study analyzes a total of 253 responses from 31 TMTs and 30 RWTs working in a variety of industries across the United States. Responses were collected using a snowball network sampling technique.

Conversely, LaFasto and Larson (2001) developed their dimension of collaboration using and building on data from earlier work (Larson & LaFasto, 1989). Using grounded theory, the researchers interviewed one to three members of several executive management teams, project teams, and other teams they believed were high performing. Using their theoretical sampling plan, eight themes emerged for teams to be successful: A clear and elevating goal, results driven structure, competent team members, unified commitment, a collaborative climate, standards of excellence, external support recognition, and principled leadership. They then created a scale to measure the eight dimensions. Collaboration is made up of a 4 item scale measuring openness and supportiveness.

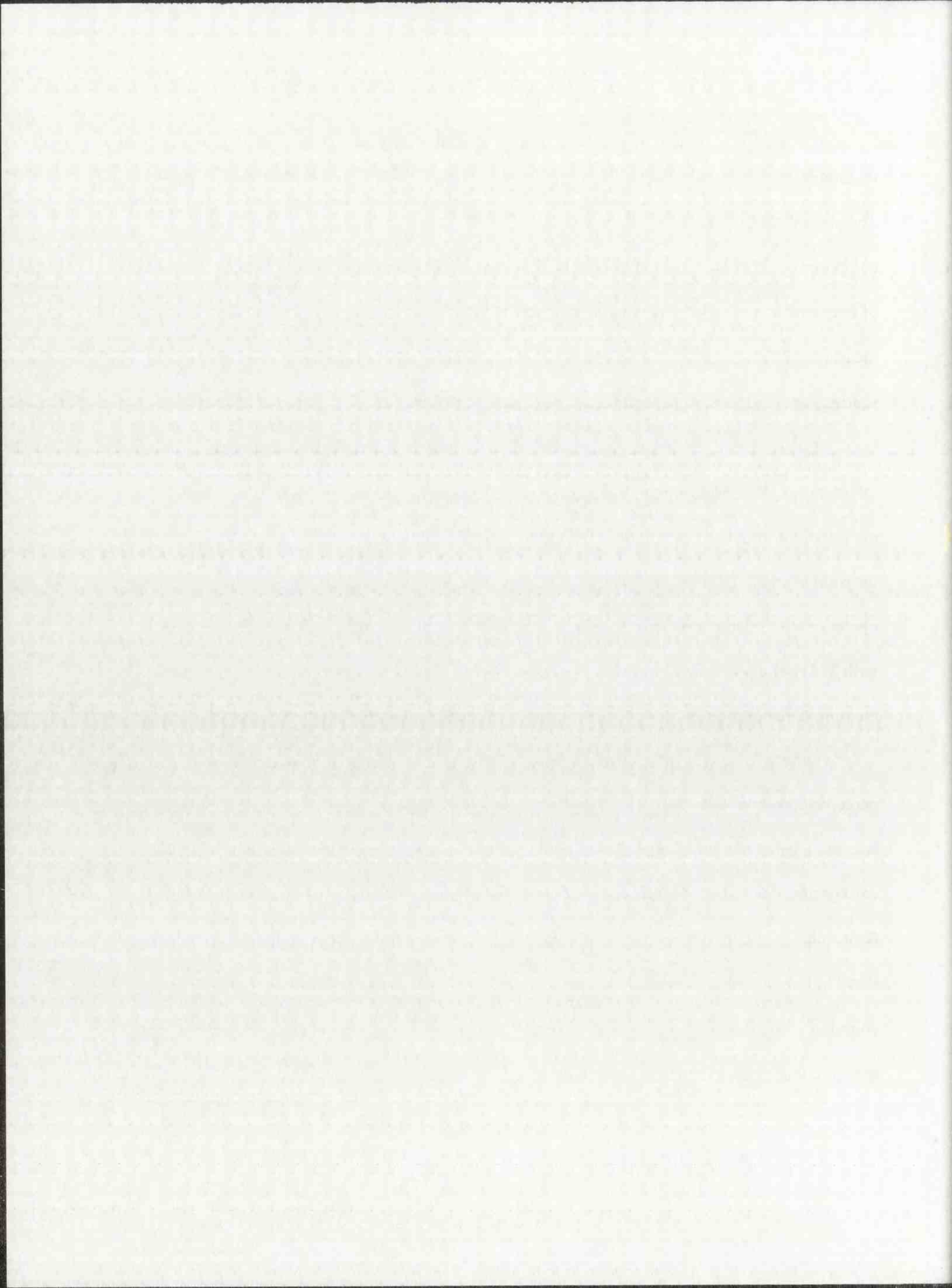
Building on their earlier work, LaFasto and Larson (2001) collected data from over 6000 teams throughout the United States. To see how senior level management teams performed in collaboration compared to other work teams, the researchers compared scores between the two groups. They found that regular teams report higher levels of collaboration than do senior level teams.



Thus, discrepancies between the two findings may be due to the difference in industries measured, elapsed time between the two studies, or the differences in collaborative measures. The present study focuses on information sharing, employee attitude, and work group support composed of 15 items. The LaFasto and Larson study determines collaboration using measures of openness and supportiveness using 4 items. Although openness and supportiveness are measures of collaboration, the present study assesses more collaborative features: information sharing, workgroup support, and employee attitude.

Likewise, the Hambrick (1994) study focused on a concept he calls “behavioral integration.” Behavioral Integration is based on “three major elements: (1) the quantity and quality of information exchange among executives; (2) collaborative behavior; and (3) joint decision making” (Hambrick, 1998 p. 127). However, behavioral integration was not operationalized using a scale in the Hambrick (1994) study. This claim was based on interaction with TMTs and a review of prior studies done on TMTs. Only recently was a scale used to measure collaboration in behavioral integration (Simsek, Lubatkin, Veiga, & Dino, 2005).

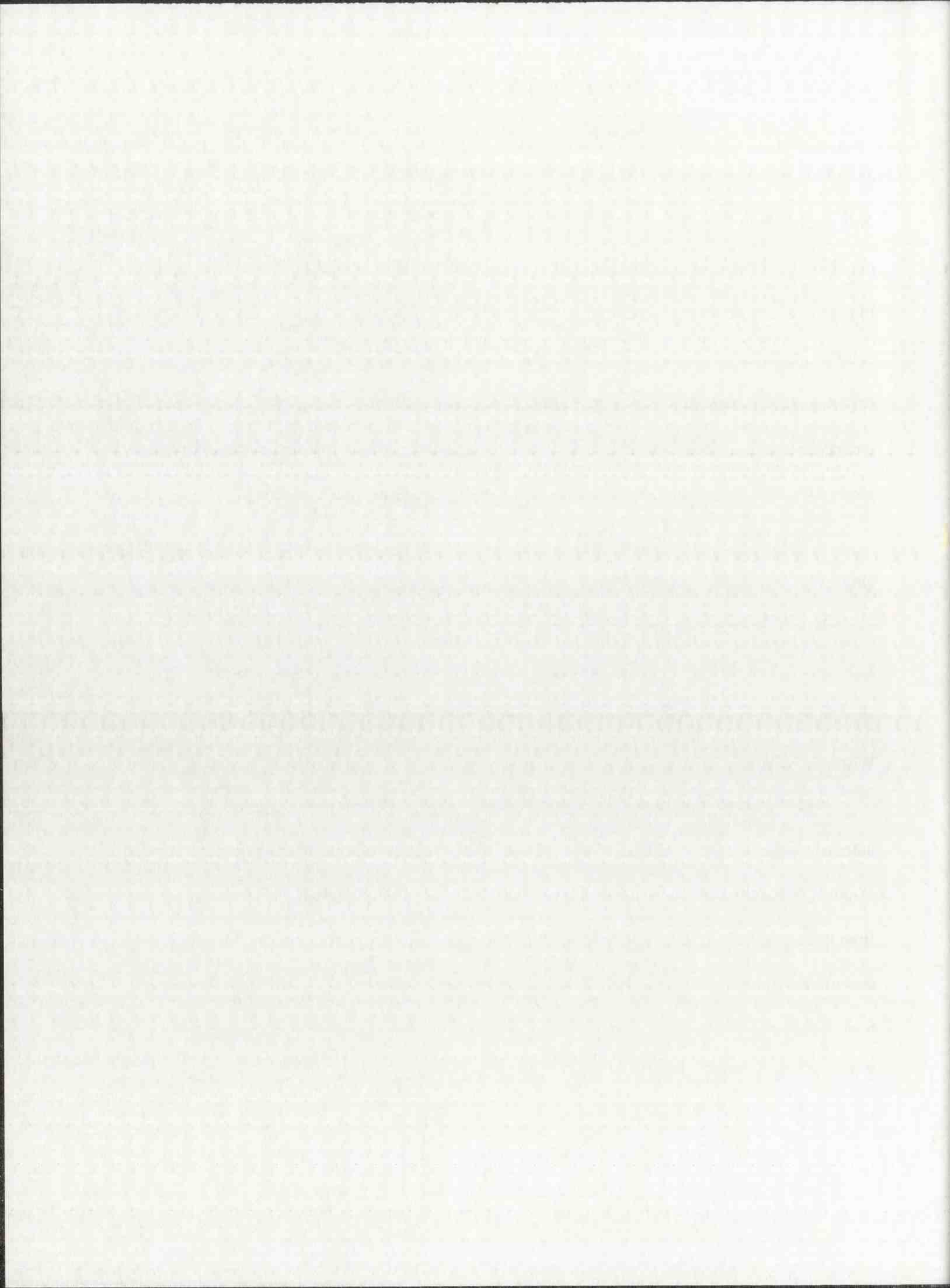
Other reasons for differences in this study’s findings and past work may be rooted in perceived levels of cohesion. There appears to be a link between cohesion and collaboration. Recent research has found a positive relationship between trust and knowledge sharing in TMT workgroups (Renzl, 2008). Moreover, researchers argue that cohesion aids collaboration (Gonzalez, et al, 2003; Roberts & O’Reilly, 1979; Wagner, Pfeffer, & O’Reilly, 1984). Given that TMTs reported higher levels of cohesion than RWTs, it is likely that higher levels of cohesion account, at least in part, for increased knowledge sharing, employee attitude, and overall collaborative climate—key indicators of collaboration.



Members of regular work teams did, however, report higher levels of workgroup support, one of the key elements of collaboration. For this aspect of collaborative communication, intragroup support appears to be more prominent in RWTs. One possible reason for this is RWTs may have a greater desire to function as a single entity than TMTs. Additionally, TMTs are likely to have more access to resources, both allocative (e.g., material objects such as money, equipment, office space, etc.) and authoritative (non-material resources such as technical expertise, organizational position, policies, etc.) (Giddens, 1984). These might limit the level of perceived workgroup support, since members of TMTs may simply need less and thus give and receive less workgroup support than what regular workgroup member's exchange.

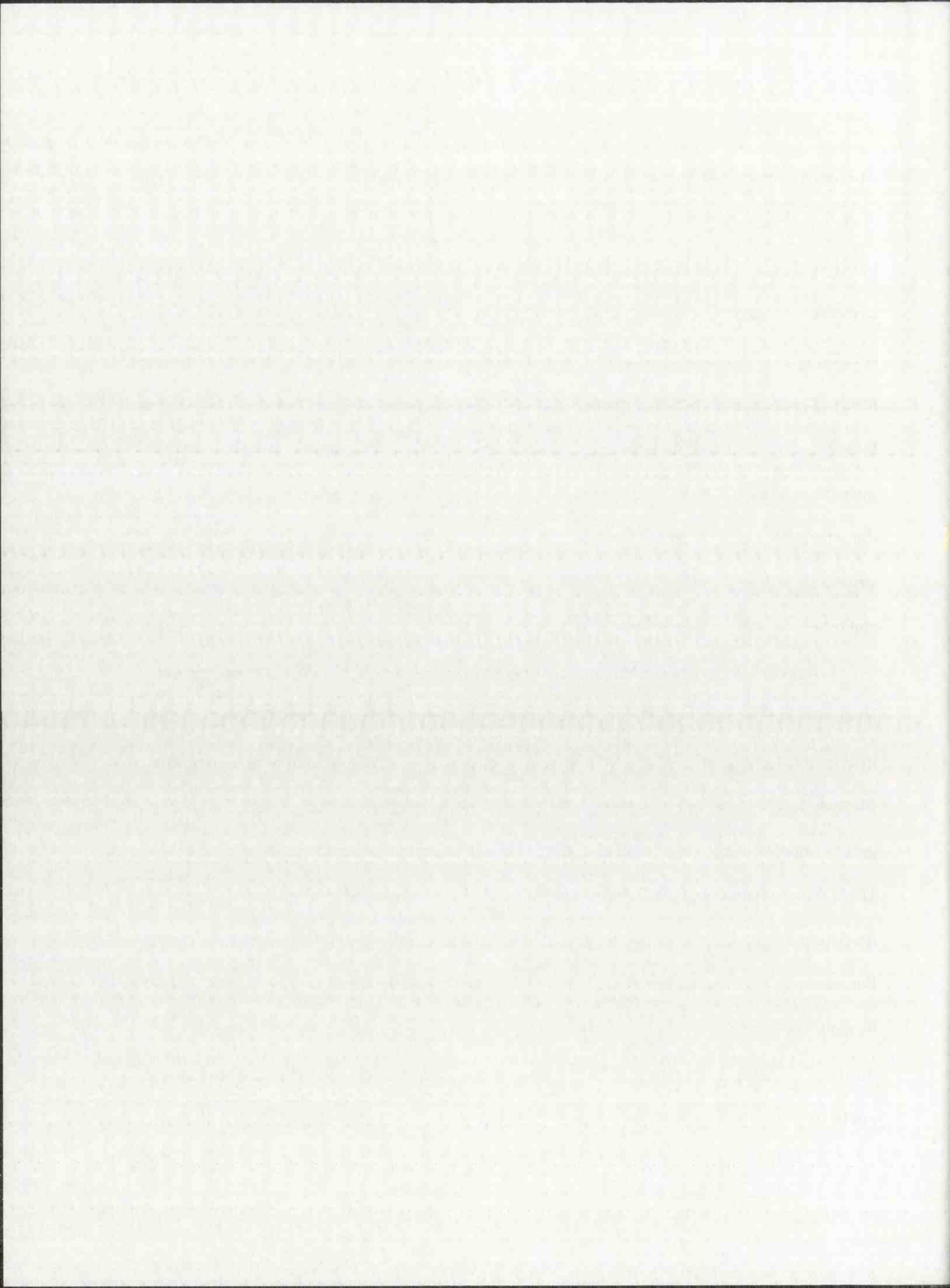
What is more, members of RWTs are responsible for completing a task as a team or one single unit. Although team members typically retain responsibility for individual tasks, the team as a whole must come together and collaborate in order to complete the task. If one member fails, this failure will reflect negatively on the rest of the group. To prevent this failure, RWTs may be more prone to giving and receiving support within their group (Bishop, Scott, & Burroughs, 2000).

TMTs, on the other hand, have the benefit of increased autonomy and authority—key authoritative resources (Giddens, 1984). Although they are part of a team, they are also primarily responsible for their division. For example, there is little evidence that chief financial officers are fired because chief technical officers fail to do their jobs. Though part of a team, a top executive's first priority is for the wellbeing and proper functioning of *their* division not other team members. Additionally, executives may not be as likely to give the levels of support seen in RWTs due to their peers' position, expertise, and ability to handle past experiences without the help of their peers (Ancona & Nadler, 1989).



From a structurational point of view, knowledge sharing, employee attitude and workgroup support are important rules and resources in collaborative practices. The differences in the practices, rules, and norms between TMTs and RWTs seem to be enduring and transferring, and, more importantly, routinized and stable thus instantiating the teams' different structures or structuring properties (Giddens, 1984). Although knowledge sharing, employee attitude, and workgroup support are present in both TMTs and RWTs, TMTs reported higher levels of sharing and overall attitudes. Not only do TMTs appear to rely more on these practices, these practices are becoming enduring, transferable authoritative resources for top executive interaction. Finally, these collaborative processes may be more integrated in TMT systems. As these practices have become replicated and necessary for the everyday interaction of TMTs, structuration theory suggests that they will also becoming systemic (i.e. structure) across space and time.

Hypothesis 2 proposed that these two types of teams would also differ in their perceived levels of team cohesion, which proved to be the case. Results demonstrate significant differences in overall cohesion and in both of the subscales (sense of belonging and morale) of cohesion. Elevated levels of cohesion may not always have a negative effect on the group. Highly cohesive groups often have a stronger commitment to the task and goals of the group (Klein & Mulvey, 1995). Since members of TMTs are responsible for the wellbeing of their organizations and they are determining the directions and goals of their organizations, they should be more cohesive. For example, Vyakarnam and Handelberg (2005) acknowledge "There is clearly a strong case to be made for TMTs to have a clear belief and commitment in the vision and values of the business" (p. 244). Even though RWTs reported a moderately high level of cohesion, they may not be as committed as TMTs to the goals and visions of the organizations for which they work.

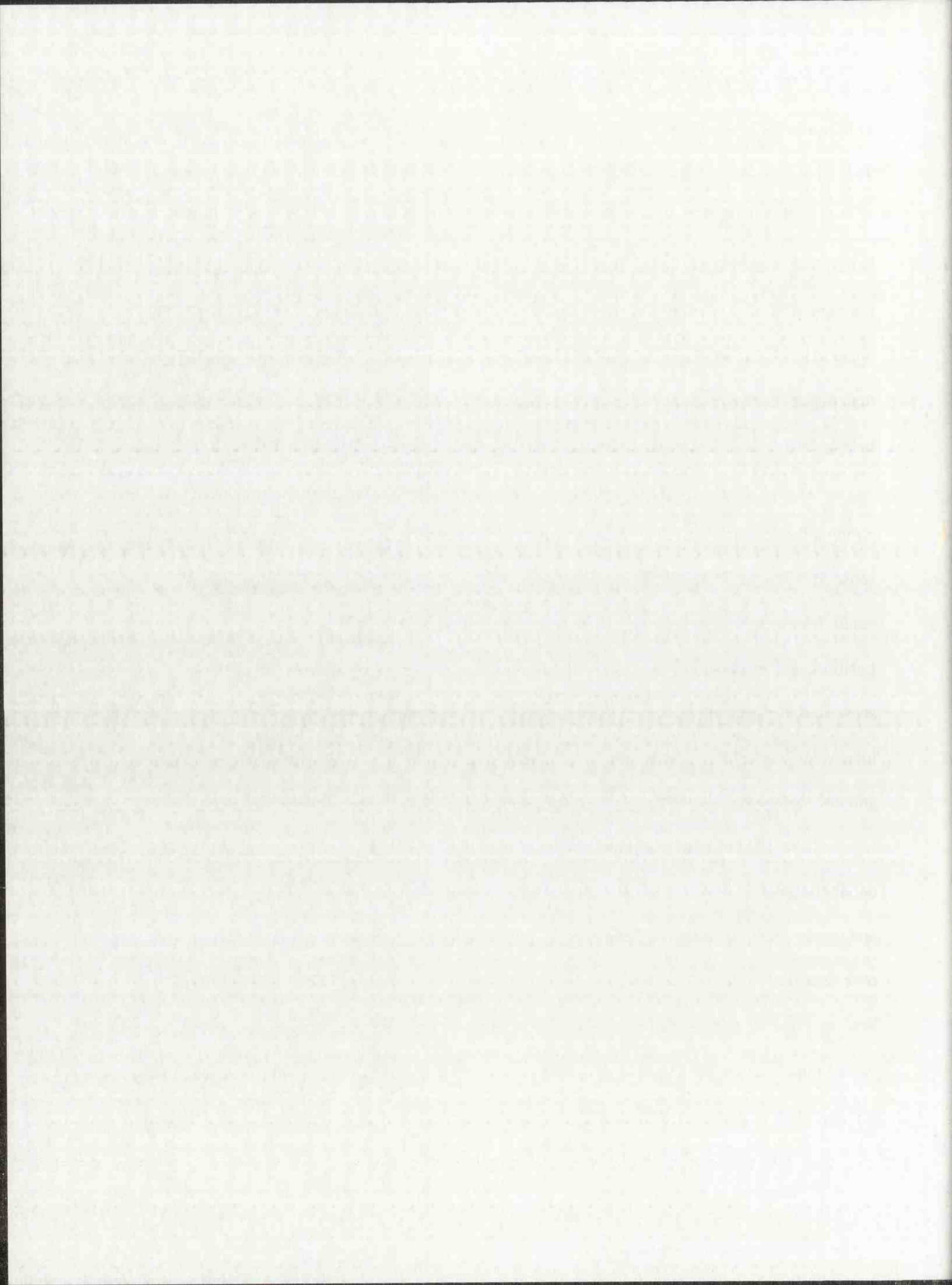


This commitment to the task, vision, values and goal for the organization may account for the TMTs reporting higher levels of cohesion.

It should also be noted that sense of belonging and morale are what Giddens (1984) would label authoritative resources. That is, both are non-material resources which are used in the organization. Both may be reflexive of a position of power. If an executive finally reaches the upper echelons of an organization they may be much more likely to have a sense of belonging than members of work teams. Though members of work teams may belong to their team, they may not experience sense of belonging as strongly as executives.

This sense of belonging may also increase morale in TMTs whereas it may not be as strong a factor in RWTs. TMTs may report higher levels of morale as a result of higher levels of sense of belonging. Executives are part of an elite club and are most likely more confident as a result. Members of regular work teams may not experience this increased confidence given their position, and as a result, lower levels of morale. Since TMTs report higher levels of morale and sense of belonging, structuration theory argues TMTs have more authoritative resources. This increase in authoritative resources affects and creates standards of interaction (Giddens, 1984) and may be one reason for higher reported levels of cohesion.

Given that cohesion is important for the success of any group and that cohesion leads to collaboration, Giddens' (1984) structuration theory suggests this process will become routinized and persist due to time-space distancing. That is, even as members of the team shift in and out over time these rules will likely persist. The need for a team to function cohesively should become somewhat stable and universal in organizations, especially as cohesion appears linked to valued outcomes. A team lacking cohesion may have a more difficult time functioning properly, if it can function at all. In the current study, teams that reported higher levels of cohesion also

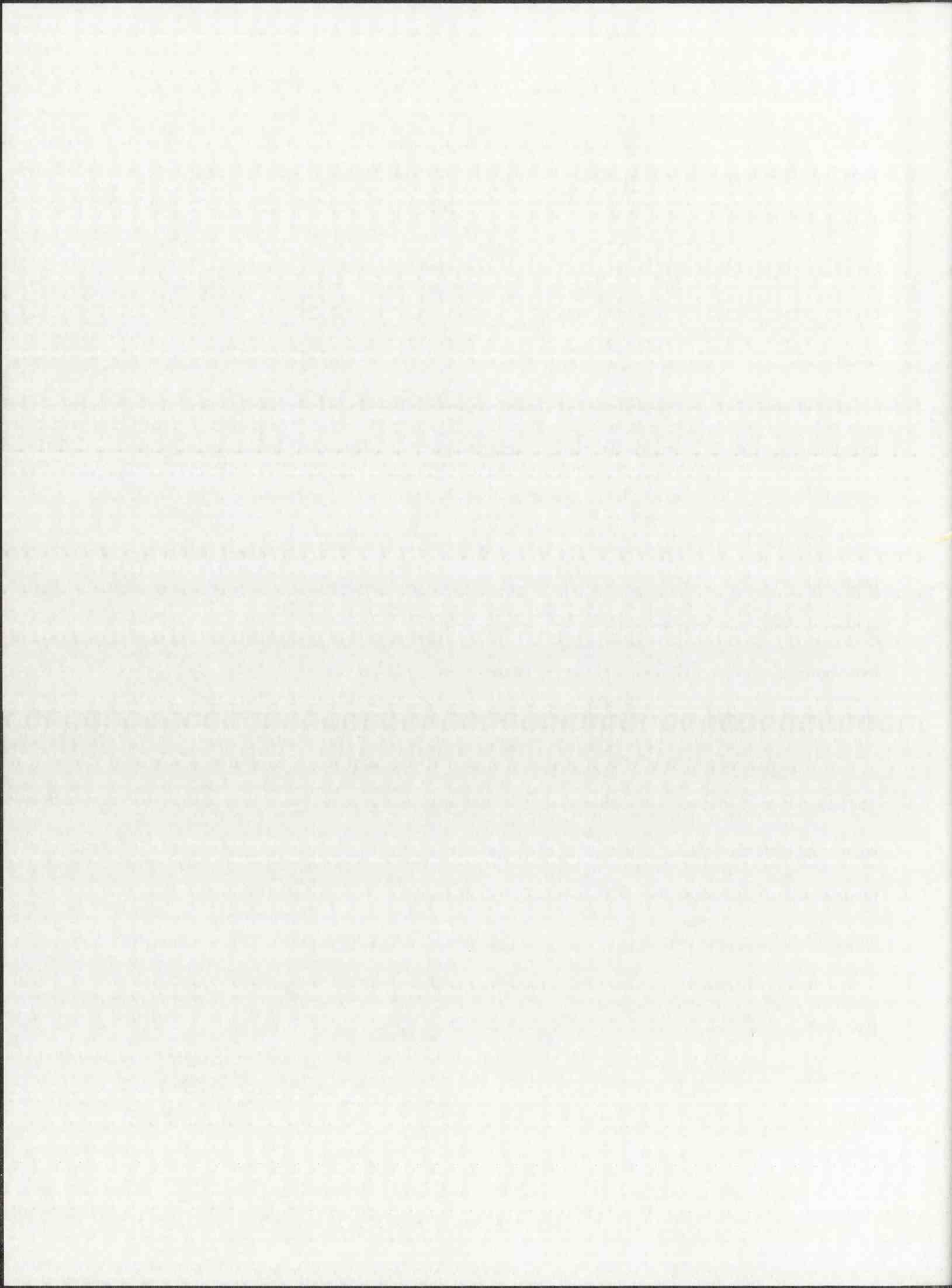


reported higher levels of collaboration. This coincides with past studies (Roberts & O'Reilly, 1979; Wagner, et al 1984; Gonzalez, et al, 2003) that have found cohesion to be positively related to collaboration. Giddens' (1984) work suggests then that cohesion could become or has become systemic across time and space. Cohesion in team interaction is important in that it has become stable, it exists throughout space and time, and it meets the conditions of system integration.

Although there are significant differences in levels of cohesion between the two groups, too much cohesion may lead to groupthink (Janis, 1972). In Janis' foundational work cohesion benefited a team only to a certain extent, that is, the relationship between cohesion and optimal functioning was curvilinear. Too little cohesion or too much cohesion is less than optimal. A team with very high levels of cohesion is less likely to function optimally and can become subject to groupthink. At this point, a group runs the risk of everybody "going along" with everybody else rather than thinking and expressing viewpoints individually. In this case, TMTs should be more cautious about their levels of cohesion.

Hypothesis 3 proposed that perceived decision making strategies would differ between TMTs and RWTs, and the study found only limited support for this hypothesis. The only significant difference in decision making style was the majority rule method, which TMTs reported using more often than RWTs. Both TMTs and RWTs believed they used consensus and authority rule at similar levels.

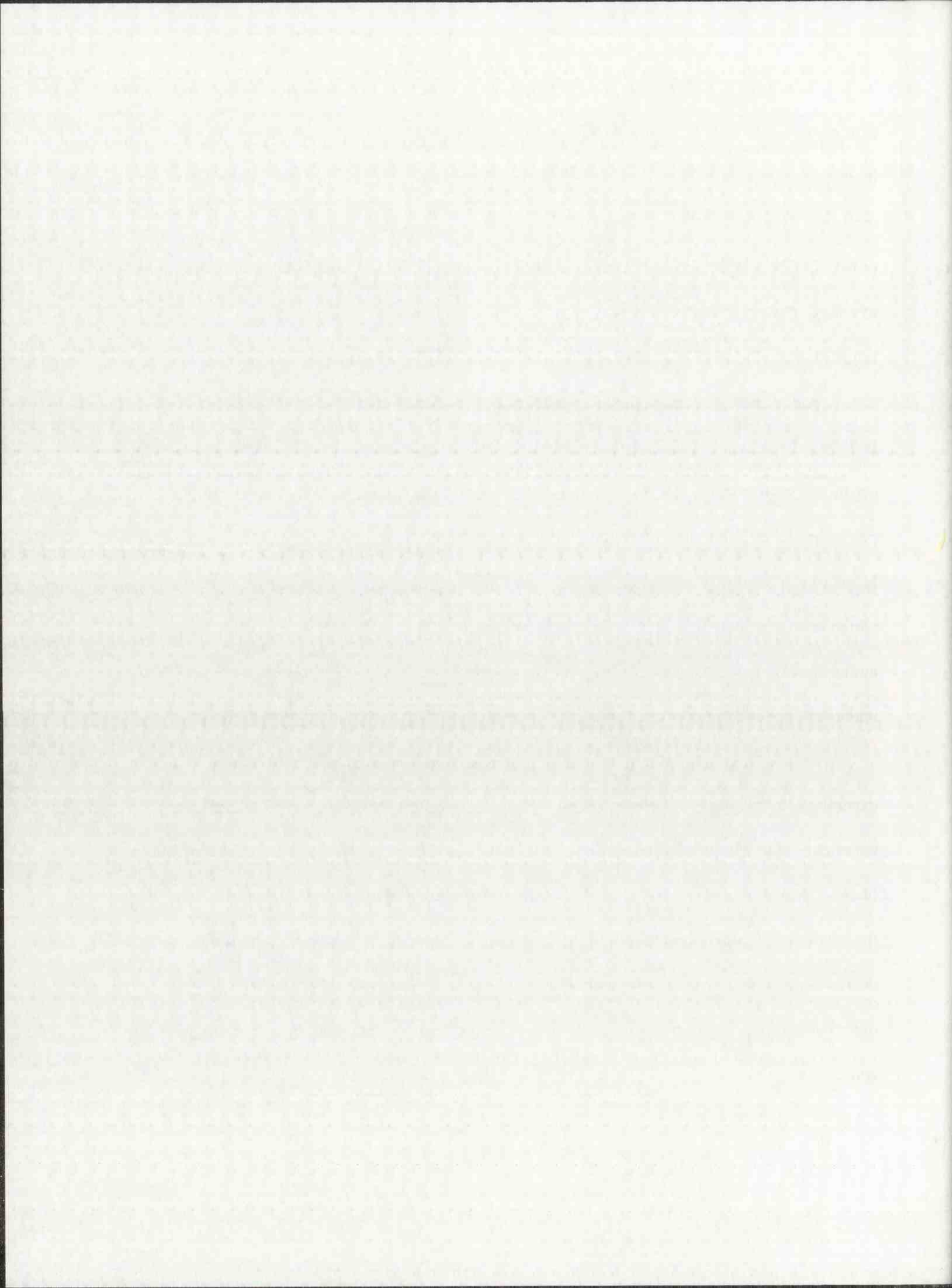
Past research provides qualified support for the idea that TMTs are more likely than RWTs to use majority rule in their decision making processes, potentially due to the time constraints TMTs likely face in their deliberations. Ancona and Nadler (1989), for example, found that top executives must deal with increased politics, the pressures from both internal and



external environments affecting the organization and its long-term responsibilities. These increased responsibilities and political demands likely take available time from executive team meetings. This decrease in available time may limit the amount of consensus decision making processes. The more pervasive use of majority rule in TMTs may also be associated with notions of cohesion coupled with time constraints. When teams perceive substantive agreement, they might be more likely to "call for a vote" to end unnecessary discussions.

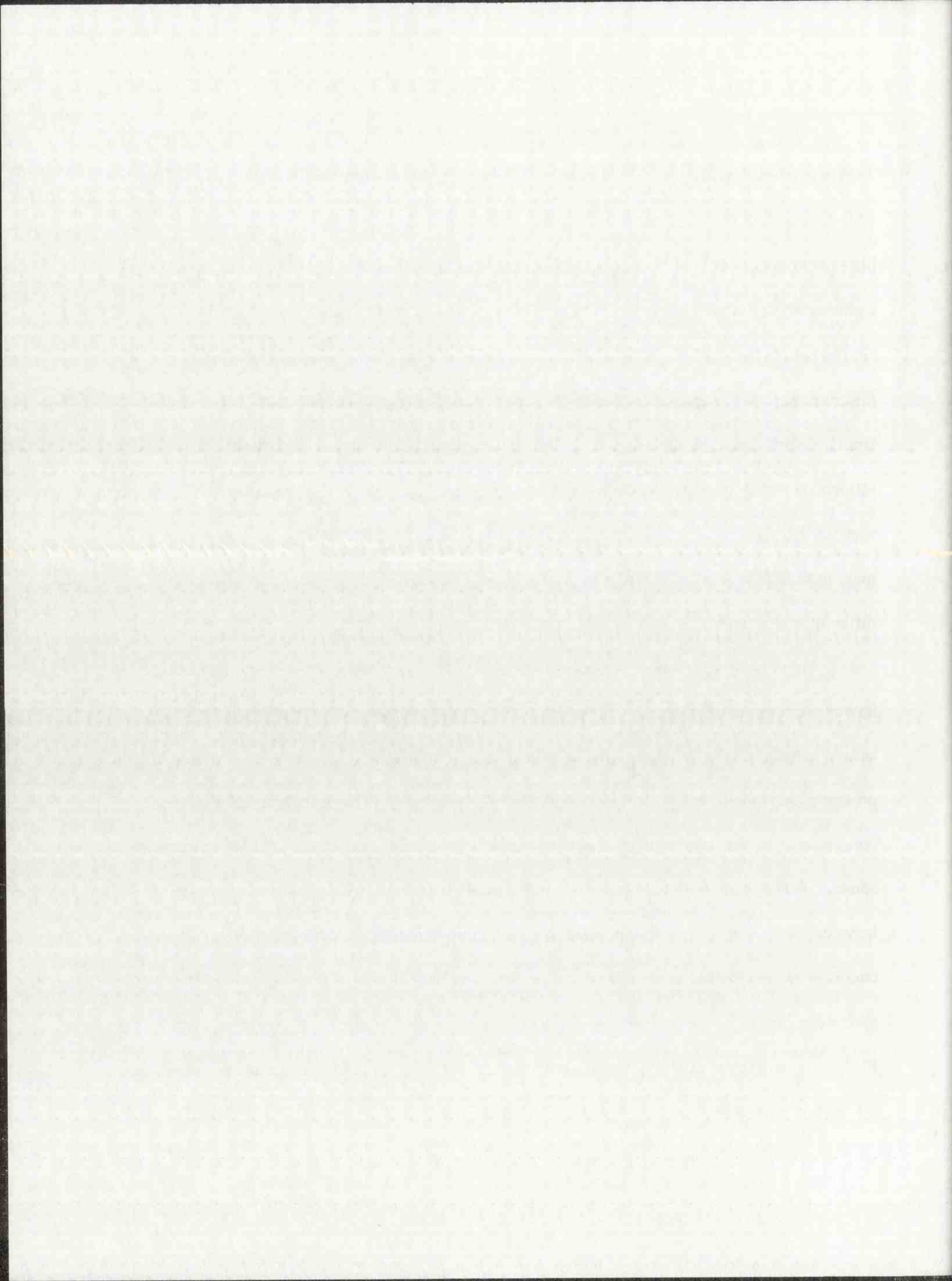
Authoritative decision making may also be less likely due to the level of expertise present in TMTs. Top executives are primarily responsible for and interested in their sector of the organization (Hambrick, 1998). Typically, TMT members are experts in their respective positions, which can make those positions more autonomous than positions in RWTs. These high levels of responsibility and increased autonomy may be less likely to structure an environment in which team members use authoritative decision making. That is, a CEO might be less likely to authoritatively make decisions if he or she knows the rest of TMT members have a firm understanding and are confident in what is happening in their areas of the organization.

On the other hand, members of RWTs may not have as much autonomy as top executives, may not have as much voice, may have more time, and may be more likely to experience authoritative decisions from team leaders as a result of other top-down organizational factors (Beer & Eisenstat, 2000). In this case, participating in a majority rule decision may not be the best or most convenient process for RWTs. RWTs reported engaging in authoritative decision making more than consensus and consensus more than majority rule. TMTs, on the other hand, reported using majority rule more than authoritative and authoritative more than consensus.



Although there was only limited support for the claim that there are differences between TMT and RWT decision making processes, Giddens' (1984) ideas of structuration may explain why there are not more differences between these groups. Regarding the notion of time-space distanciation, Giddens argues that social practices are "stretched" in ways that make them enduring and transferring across settings and contexts and through time. As such, we might see similar patterns across TMTs and RWTs that are placed in different locales and working at different times. Although group decision making process might be enduring and transferring—similar decision making processes are routinized in organizations throughout the Western-influenced world—when to use decision making processes may not yet be enduring and transferring. Some leaders and organizations may prefer an authoritative or consensus decision making strategy; others may prefer majority rule. As the current study did not compare teams' different organizations decision making processes, this remains a fruitful area for future research.

More than likely the seriousness of the outcome(s) concerning the decision will affect how teams approach the decision making process. Higher risk should carry a greater situational assessment and discussion during the decision making process. In low-risk decision making processes and emergency situations, authoritative dictates may be the most suitable and consensus could be counterproductive or impossible. Giddens' ideas about structuration provide some explanation for why there were few significant differences in decision making processes between TMTs and RWTs. The process for when to use a decision making strategy is not as enduring or transferable as are patterns of cohesion and collaboration. Rather, decision making approaches are far more contextually and situationally contingent. Thus, team members are less likely to routinize the decision making process. However, one could argue that human actors, in this case organizational members, replicate a certain cluster of decision making approaches

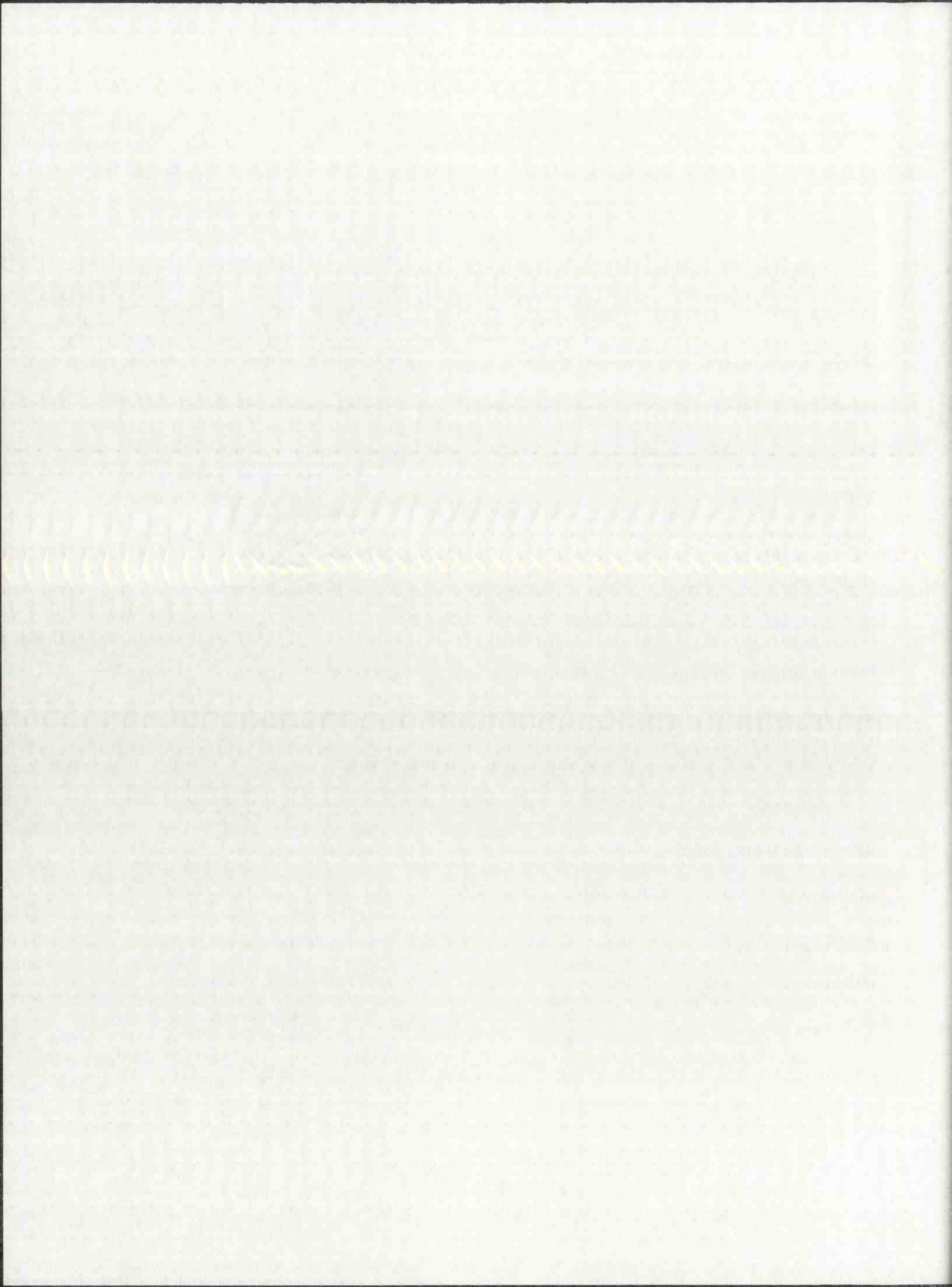


across space and time, a cluster that marks nearly all human interactions in which choices must be made. These patterns structure decision making to a considerable degree.

Limitations

The limitations of this study suggest a number of potential avenues for future research. One limitation is that the current study only examined individual members of TMTs and RWTs that made up complete teams. Because this study focuses on individual team members' perceptions rather than the entire team's perceptions, using Hierarchical Linear Modeling (HLM) rather than an ANOVA would have provided a more nuanced analysis. HLM allows individual responses to be "nested" into groups. In doing so, perceptions of entire TMTs could be compared to entire RWTs rather than simply comparing individual perceptions based on the team type with which they identified. Comparisons between group types and group perceptions could have provided a group-level rather than individual-level breakdown. Group-level data might also result in different findings and support or lack thereof regarding the study's hypotheses. Group-level data also has the potential to extend structuration theory in different ways than what I have discussed thus far, specifically the concept of time-space distanciation.

Secondly, although the intention of this study was to serve as a primary investigation in determining if differences exist between the two groups, the lack of predicting variables—such as demographic characteristics and effectiveness measures - was limiting. As demonstrated by research regarding the Upper Echelons Theory (Hambrick & Mason, 1984) and behavioral integration (Hambrick, 1994; Simsek et al, 2005) demographical information is important in TMTs and organizational effectiveness. Likewise, LaFasto and Larson (2001) measure the effectiveness of team performance. Measuring demographic factors and effectiveness may have better served in accounting for differences between this study and past studies done on team



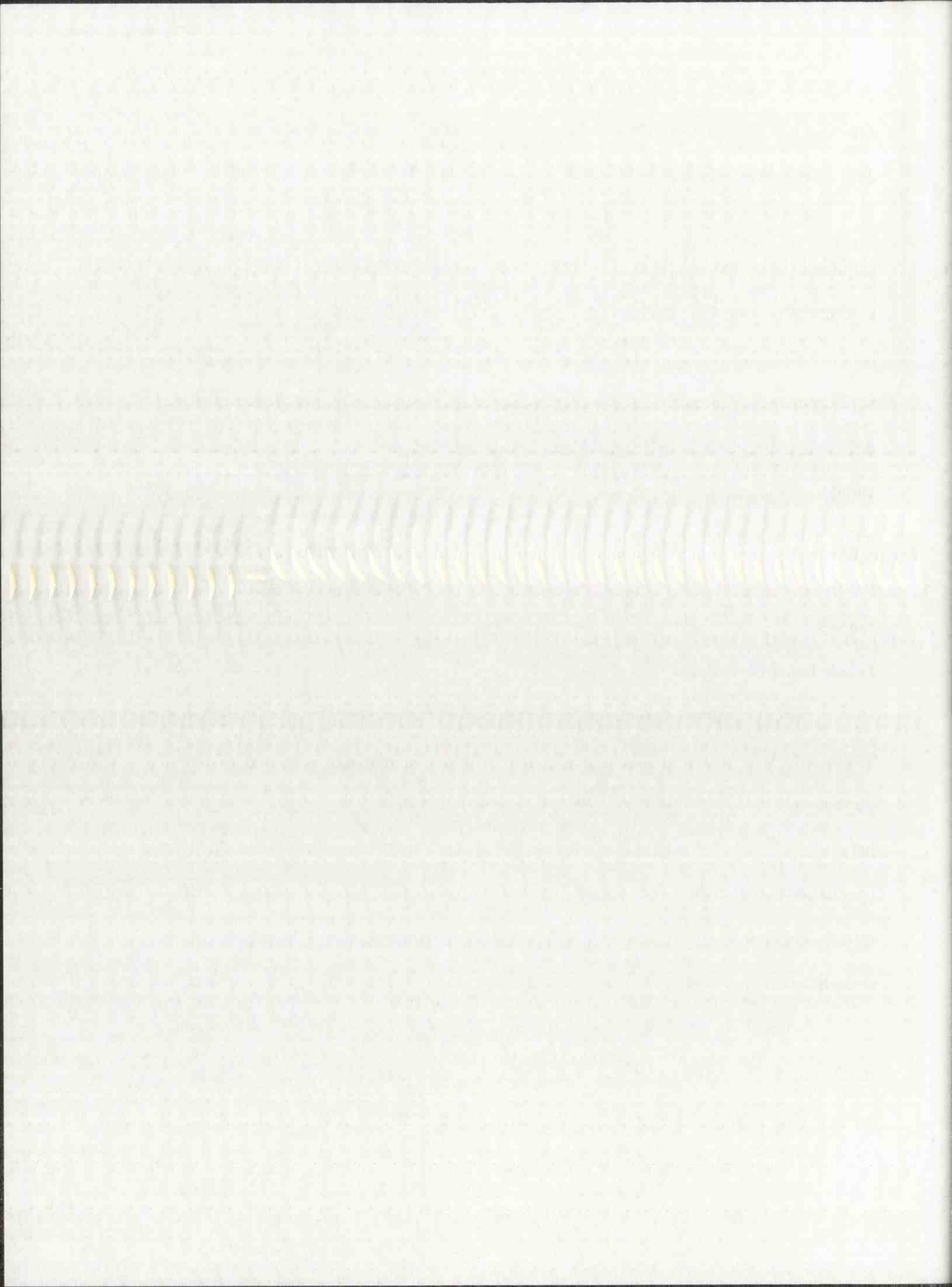
collaboration, communication, and decision making. The elimination of these variables may have done more harm than good.

Finally, this study only measures individual perceptions of team processes. Although administering a survey to teams, especially TMTs, is more accommodating for these groups, perceptions are not always accurate indicators of what is actually going on. Rather than administering a survey (or possibly in addition to), video taping TMT and RWT interactions while in meetings and decision making processes would have more accurately depicted differences in collaboration, cohesion, and decision making. Because the study examines variables associated with processes, observation would allow for watching processes as they unfold rather than measuring processes through retrospective reports of perceptions. Certainly this is an area for future research. I explore other potential for extending this study in what follows.

Future Research

The examination of collaboration, cohesion, and decision making differences between TMTs and RWTs adds to the recent resurgence in TMT research and Structuration Theory. Furthermore, this study is a starting point for research in different communication processes between TMTs and RWTs. Future studies on differences in TMT and RWT processes would benefit greatly by taking into consideration and addressing demographical and team effectiveness information. Additionally, future research could benefit by addressing team strength.

As this study found, TMTs have higher levels of cohesion than RWTs. However, too much cohesion may be a bad thing (Janis, 1972; Janis and Mann, 1977). Using scales that measure team strength (Wageman, Hackman, & Lehman, 2005) in addition to effectiveness,

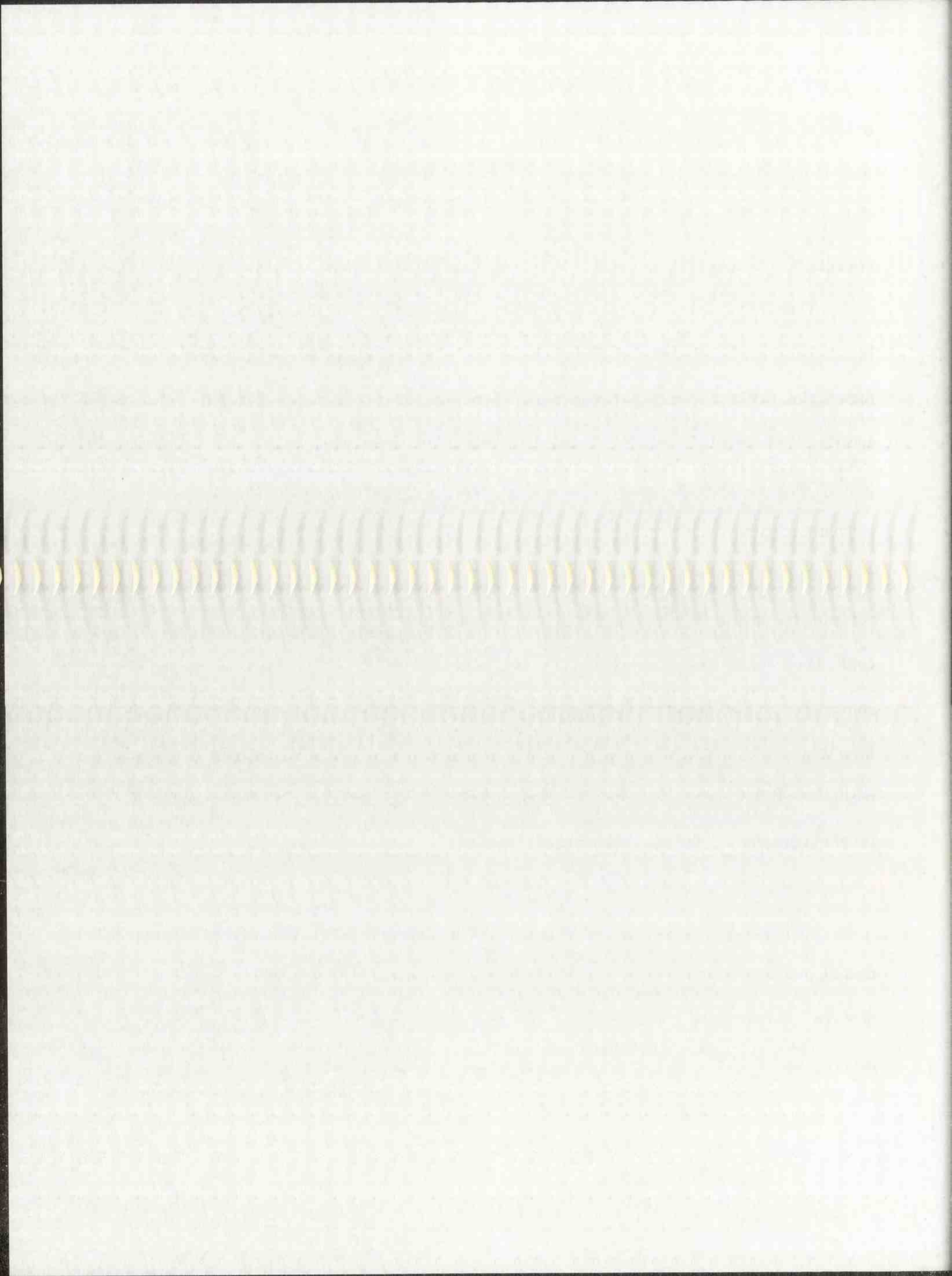


collaboration, cohesion, and decision making could prove useful. In this case researchers can see if too much cohesion negatively affects teams, where additional strengths and weaknesses exist between TMTs and RWTs, and if stronger teams are truly more effective, regardless of organizational hierarchy.

This study also broke ground by developing a decision making scale. Even though ample literature is dedicated to decision making styles, very few scales exist (if at all) to determine these styles. Future research needs to refine the decision making scale used in this study, specifically in satisficing. Not only is satisficing becoming a recognized decision making method (Briley, Morris, & Simonson, 2000) but the elimination of the subscale, although justified, leaves a gap in evaluating decision making processes. Although the elimination of the scale may be a result of a relatively smaller sample, the quantification of the scale may be more at fault. Adapting the measure of satisficing from a comparable scale, possibly from communication conflict or a similar discipline, would allow for a confirmatory factor analysis and an analysis of convergent validity. Additionally, since satisficing parallels compromising the scale may benefit from using more positive wording (since compromising may have a negative connotation in the business world). Refining the decision making scale to include satisficing may give clearer insight in determining team decision making processes.

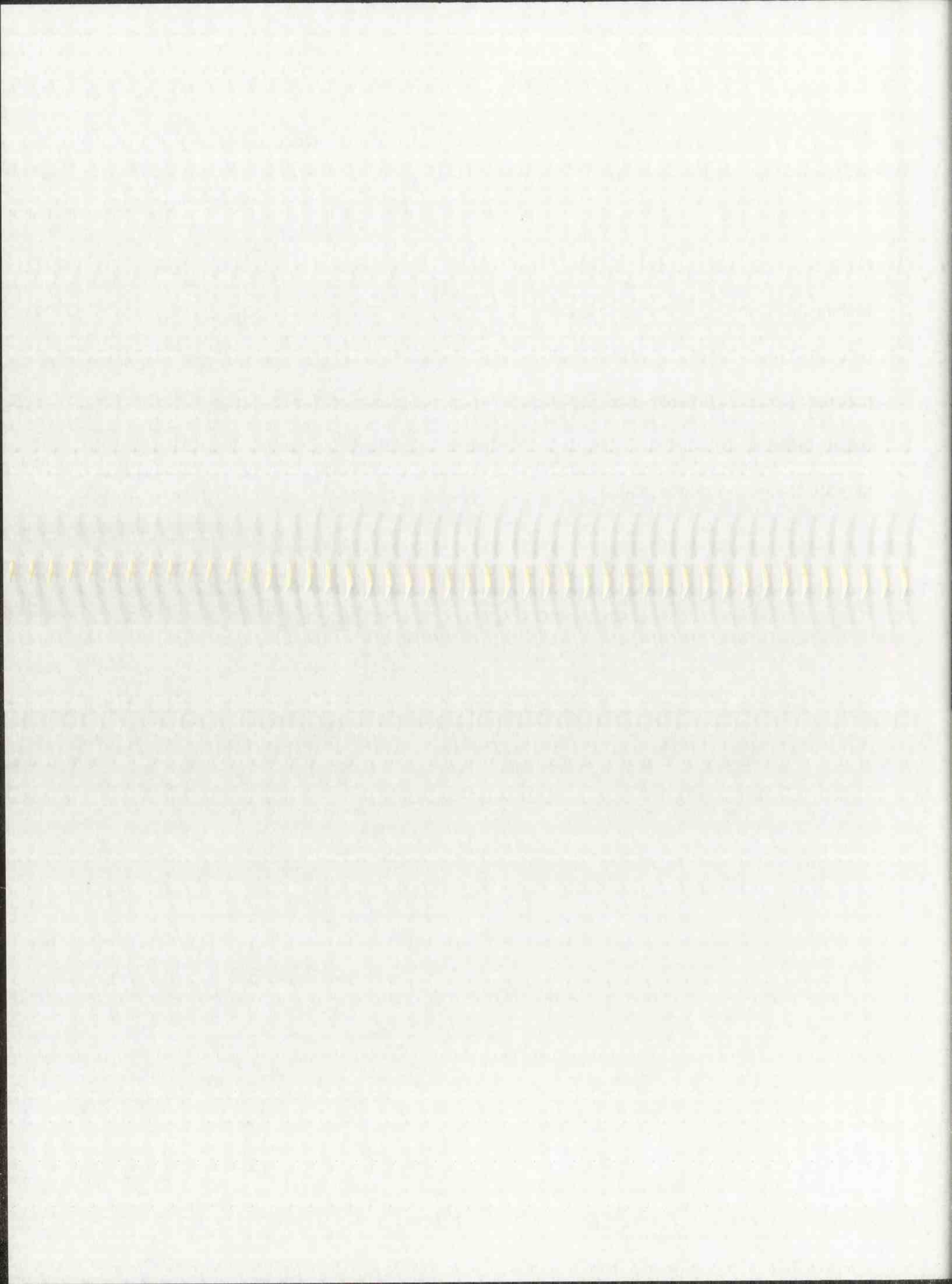
Conclusion

Understanding differences between TMT and RWT collaboration, cohesion, and decision making processes is important. This study seeks to explain and identify differences that exist between these two groups. While there are not any major differences in how TMTs and RWTs make decisions, TMTs did report higher levels of collaboration and cohesion than did RWTs.



These differences begin to explain how power (or the lack thereof) can play a role in perceptions of cohesion and collaboration.

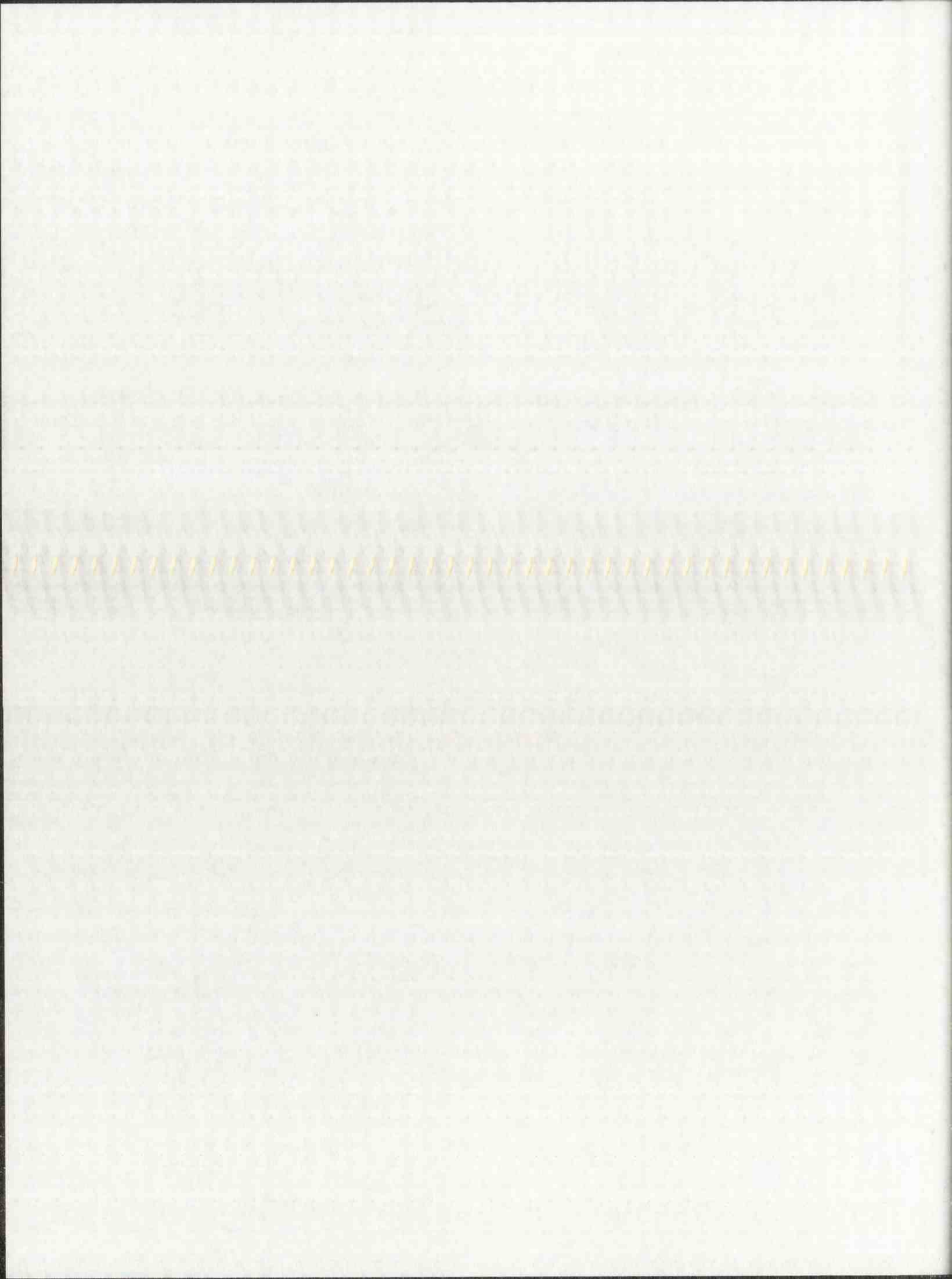
Additionally, the lack of perceived difference in decision making processes between the two groups adds an important component that structuration theory had not previously addressed. Making decisions as a group is a process that exists throughout space and time. However, the processes groups use to make decisions do not exist throughout space and time. Different groups may use completely different methods. The level of importance impending on the decision may require different decision making methods. Thus the level of importance to a decision, or risk, may affect time space distanciation.



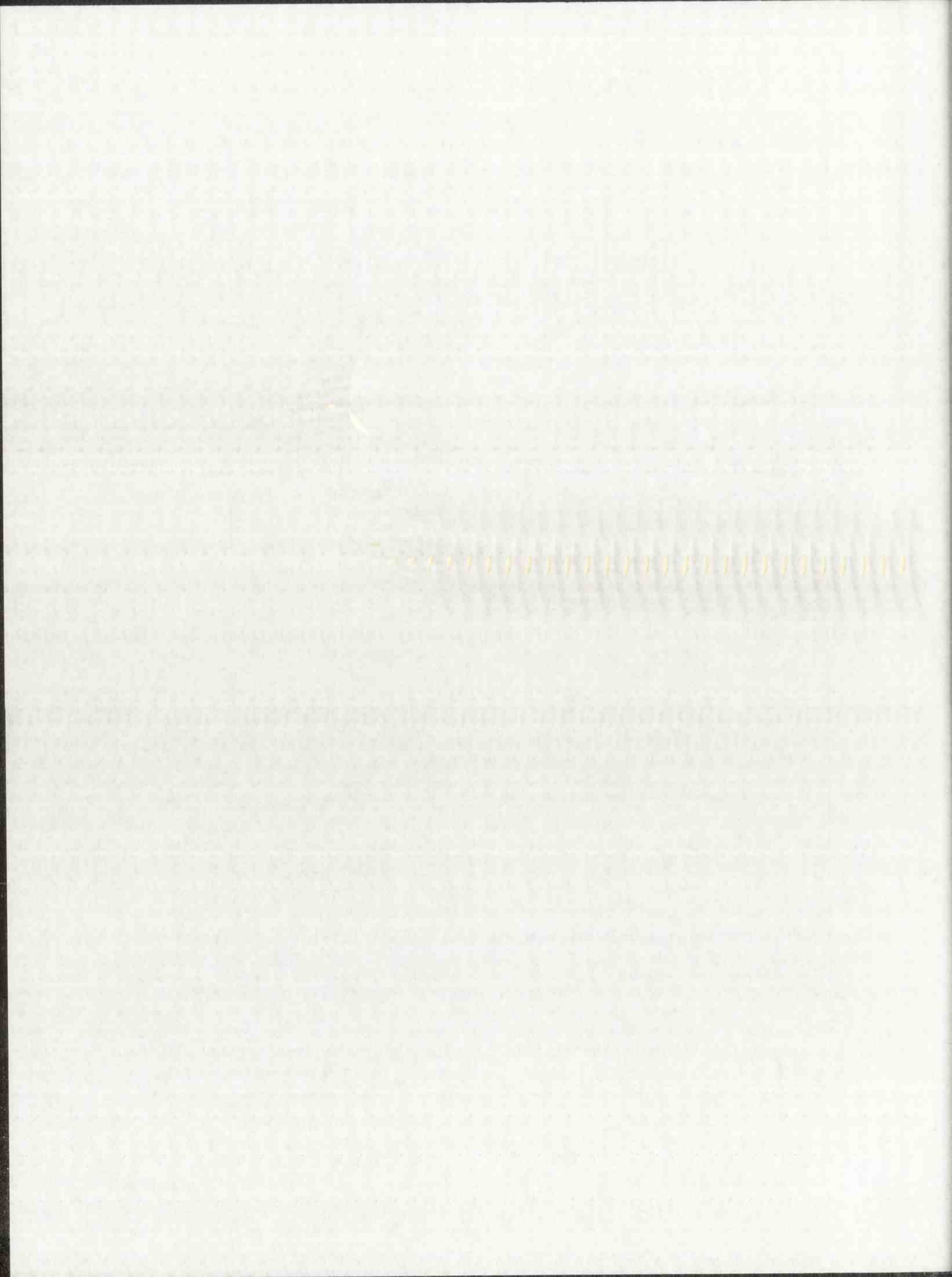
APPENDIX A

TMT Research Reviewed

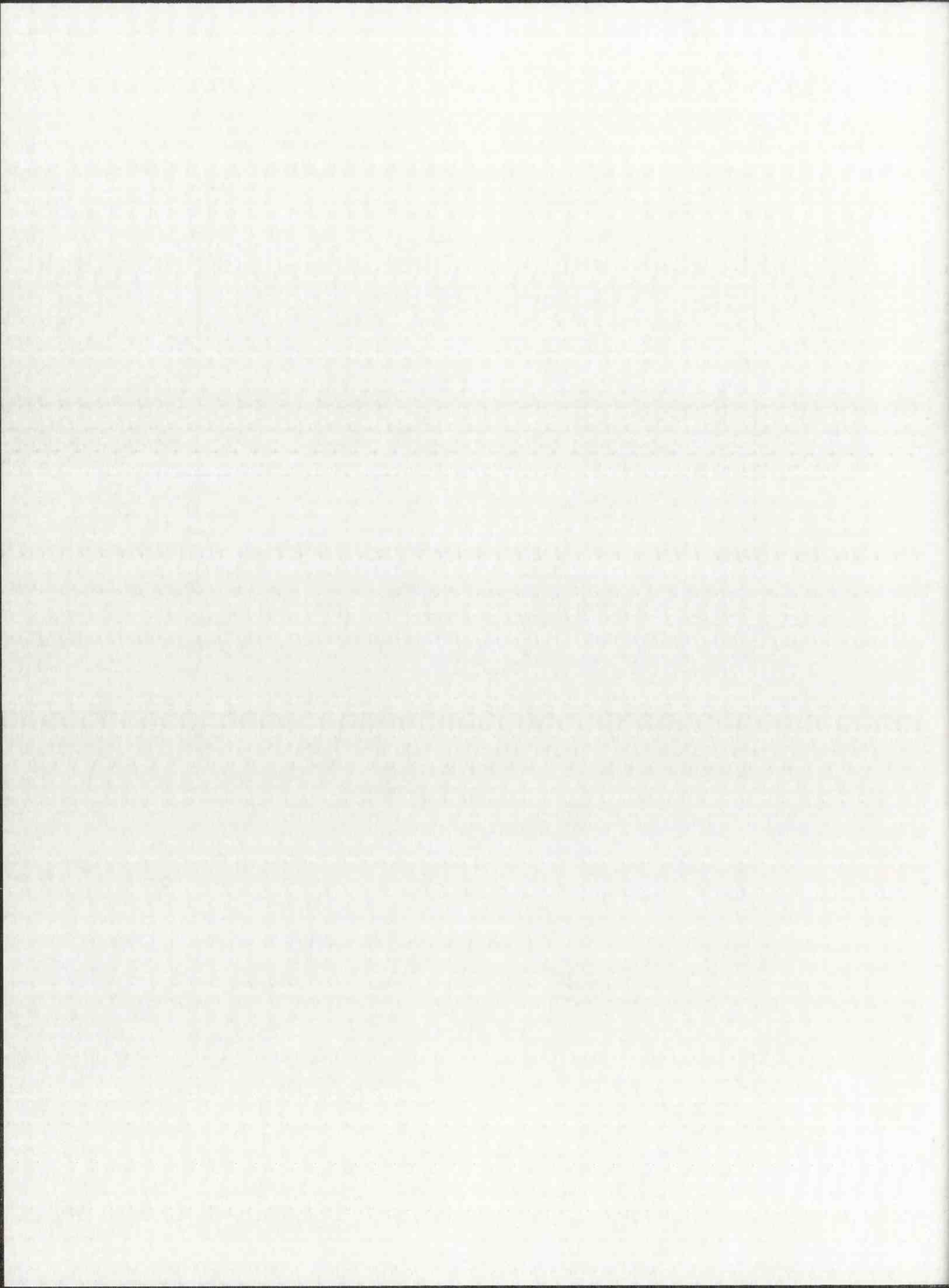
Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Hogan & McPheters (1980)	Individual Characteristics: Age Tenure with firm & in position Education	45 of the highest paid executives of industrial corporations	Compensation	Profit Sales revenue
Hambrick & Mason (1984)	Individual Characteristics: Age Past experience Education SES background Group characteristics Functional tracks Financial position		Profit Growth Survival	Product innovation Diversification Plant and equipment Integration Response time Administrative complexity
Ancona & Nadler (1989)	Team Design Composition Structure Succession		Production of results Effectiveness	Work Management Relationship Management External Management
Bantle & Jackson (1989)	TMT Characteristics Education level Working background Average team member age & tenure Educational background Heterogeneity of all characteristics	Executives of 199 banks	Level of innovation	Size of firm Size of Organization Business environment
Wooldridge & Floyd (1990)	Consensus Commitment Understanding	Surveys of managers in 20 organizations	Organizational performance	Involvement in strategic processes



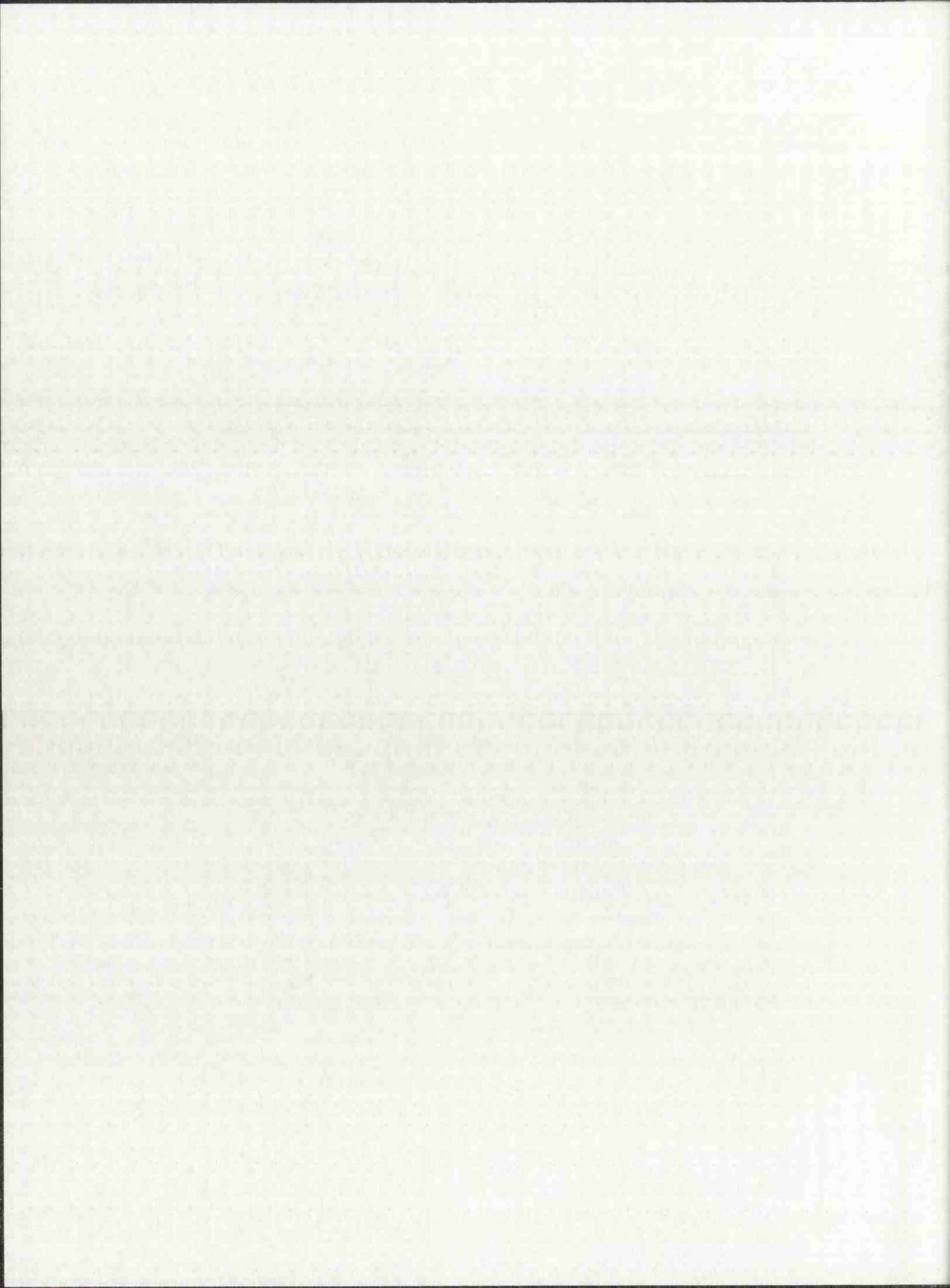
Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Hitt & Tyler (1991)	TMT Characteristics Member age Education/background Work experience Executive & educational level Orientation of risk Cognitive complexity	Survey of 65 CEOs Evaluation of other firms done by 65 CEOs	Strategic decision making Methods used for: Evaluating Potential Acquisition	Industry
Wiersema & Bantel (1992)	TMT Characteristics Member age Tenure with org. & current group Education level Heterogeneity of education Specialization	Survey of 87 TMTs from fortune 500 companies	Strategic change	Size of organization Size of TMT Structure of industry Prior firm performance
Hambrick & D'Aveni (1992)	TMT characteristics TMT size Size of external board members Functional experience Tenure with firm Heterogeneity of tenure Dominance of CEO Team compensation	Survey of 57 large bankrupt firms and 57 firms surviving bankruptcy	Bankruptcy	
Lant, Milliken, & Batra (1992)	CEO & TMT attrition TMT heterogeneity Managerial interpretation of environment	Content analysis of 80 firms	Strategic reorientation	



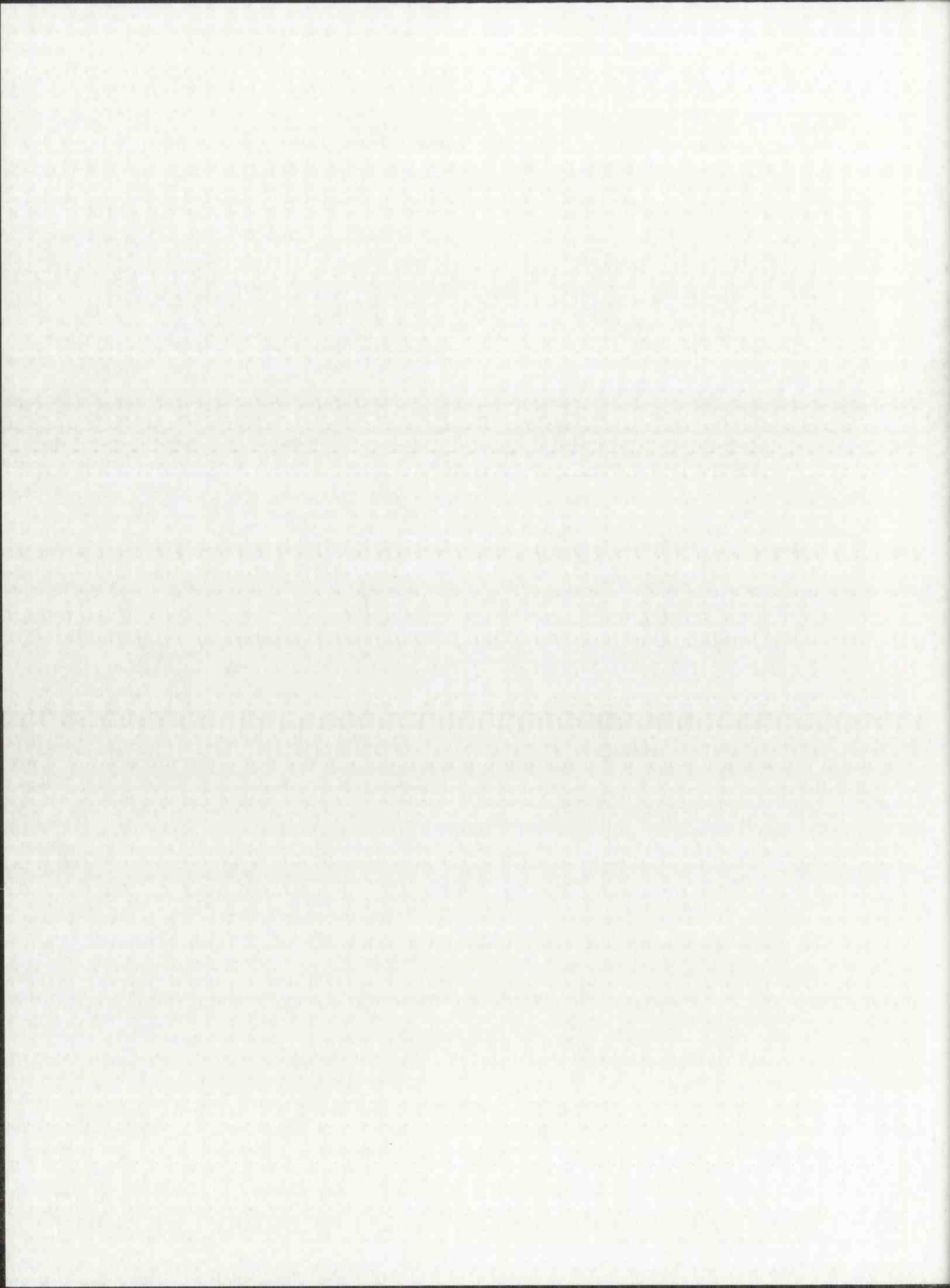
Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Haleblian & Finkelstein (1993)	CEO Dominance	Survey and analysis of 47 TMTs	Firm Performance	Environmental turbulence TMT size Firm size Unrelated strategy Efficiency Borrowing capacity Tenure Functional heterogeneity
Bantel (1993)	TMT characteristics Education major Homogeneity of age and tenure Heterogeneity of functional background Heterogeneity of educational major	Survey of 80 CEOs in the banking industry	Strategic clarity	Organizational size Firm performance
Hambrick, Geletkanyz, & Fredrickson (1993)	Organizational performance Organizational and industry tenure Expected environmental change	Survey of 690 executives of U.S. firms	Commitment to the status quo	CEO respondent Industry discretion
Datta & Guthrie (1994)	Firm profitability Firm growth R&D Intensity Firm Size Firm Age	Analysis of 195 succession events of CEOs	CEO Succession	CEO tenure Functional background Education level



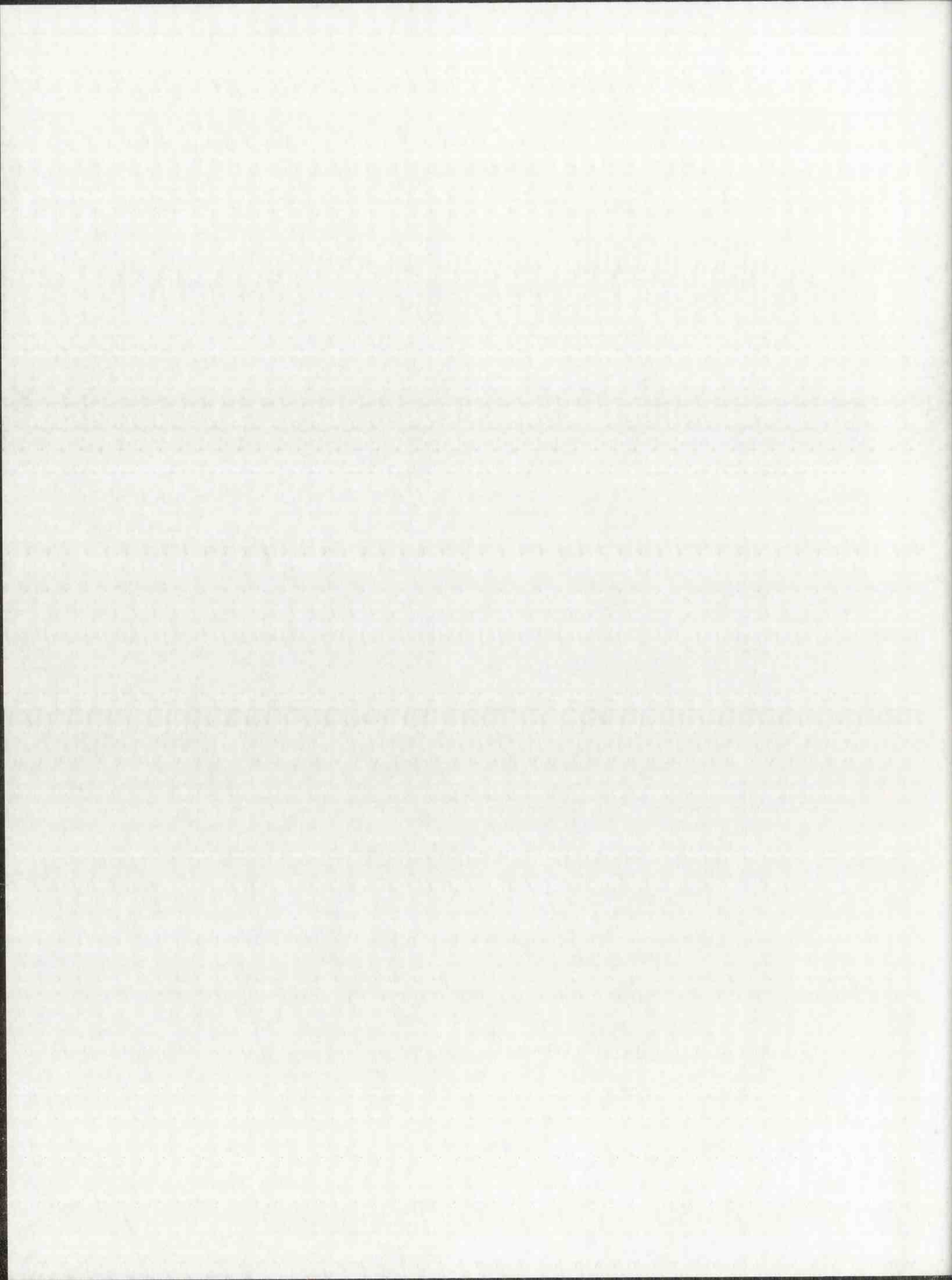
Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Hambrick (1994)	Organizational Size Domain breadth Business strategy Organizational slack Environment TMT composition TMT incentives TMT Collaboration TMT information sharing TMT joint decision making		Organizational performance	Organizational strategy
Boekker (1997)	TMT tenure TMT tenure diversity CEO tenure CEO succession Organizational performance	Analysis of TMTs of 67 semiconductor producers	Strategic change	Environment Firm size Firm age Time Public/Private ownership
Hambrick (1998)	Behavioral Integration	Anecdotal evidence of TMTs	Organizational performance	
LaFasto & Larson (2001)	Clear and elevating goal Results driven structure Competent team members Unified commitment Collaborative climate Standards of excellence External support recognition Principled leadership	Survey and analysis of 6000 regular teams and top teams	Organizational Effectiveness	



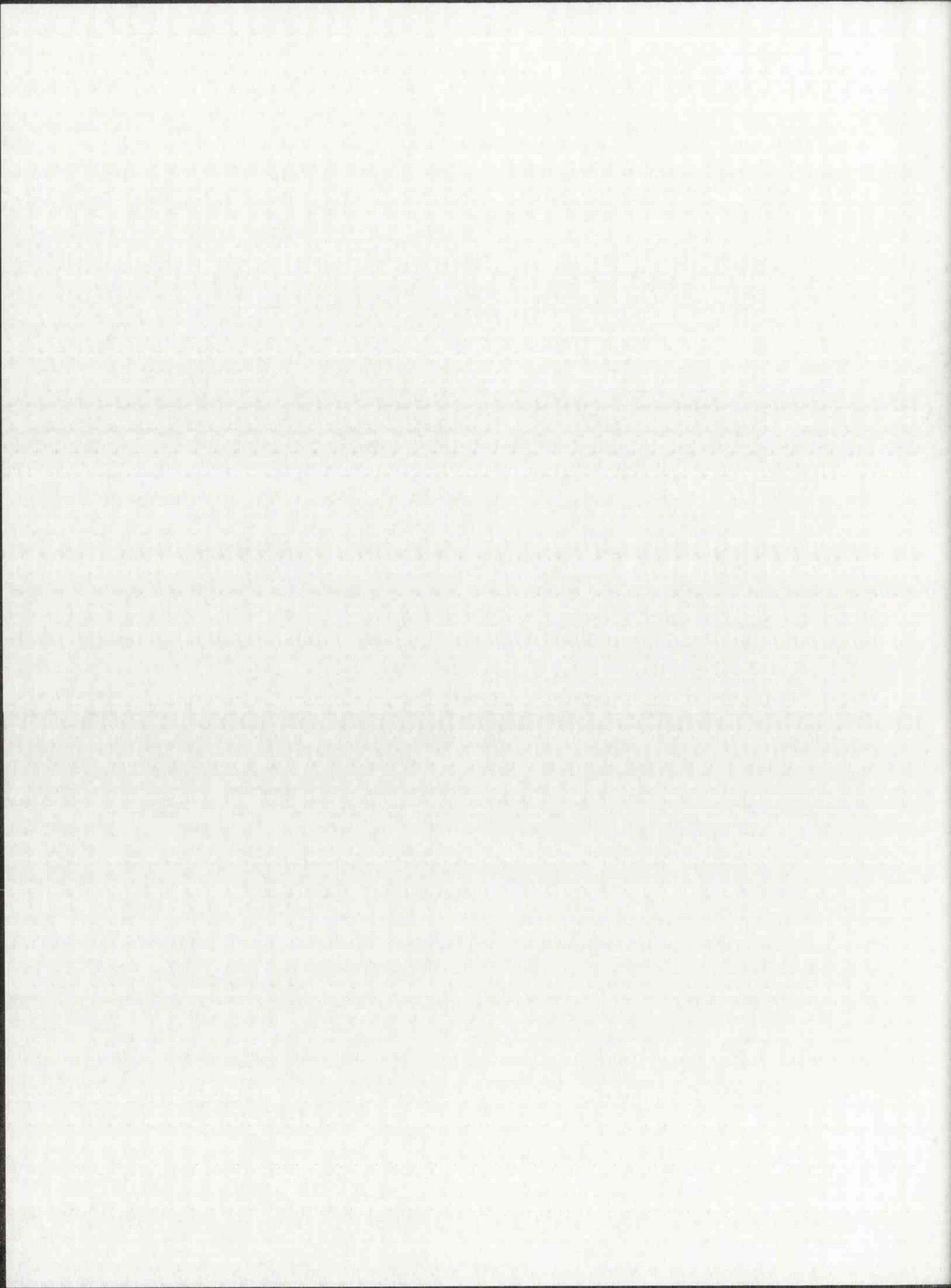
Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Svieby & Simons (2002)	Age Year experience Firm Size Educational level	Survey of 8277 employees in the public/private sectors	Collaborative climate	
Paul et al. (2004)	Collaborative conflict management style Individualism-Collectivism	Survey of 22 virtual groups	Satisfaction Decision quality Participation Agreement	Group Type Homogenous Heterogeneous
Lubatkin et al (2006)	Behavioral Integration Collaborative behavior Information exchange Joint decision making	Survey of 139 TMTs	Firm performance	Team tenure Team size Firm size Firm age Unabsorbed slack Past performance Family ownership Industry and environmental uncertainty
Hess, Freeman, & Coovert (2008)	Collaborative critical thinking	Experimental scenarios with 160 college students	Team performance	



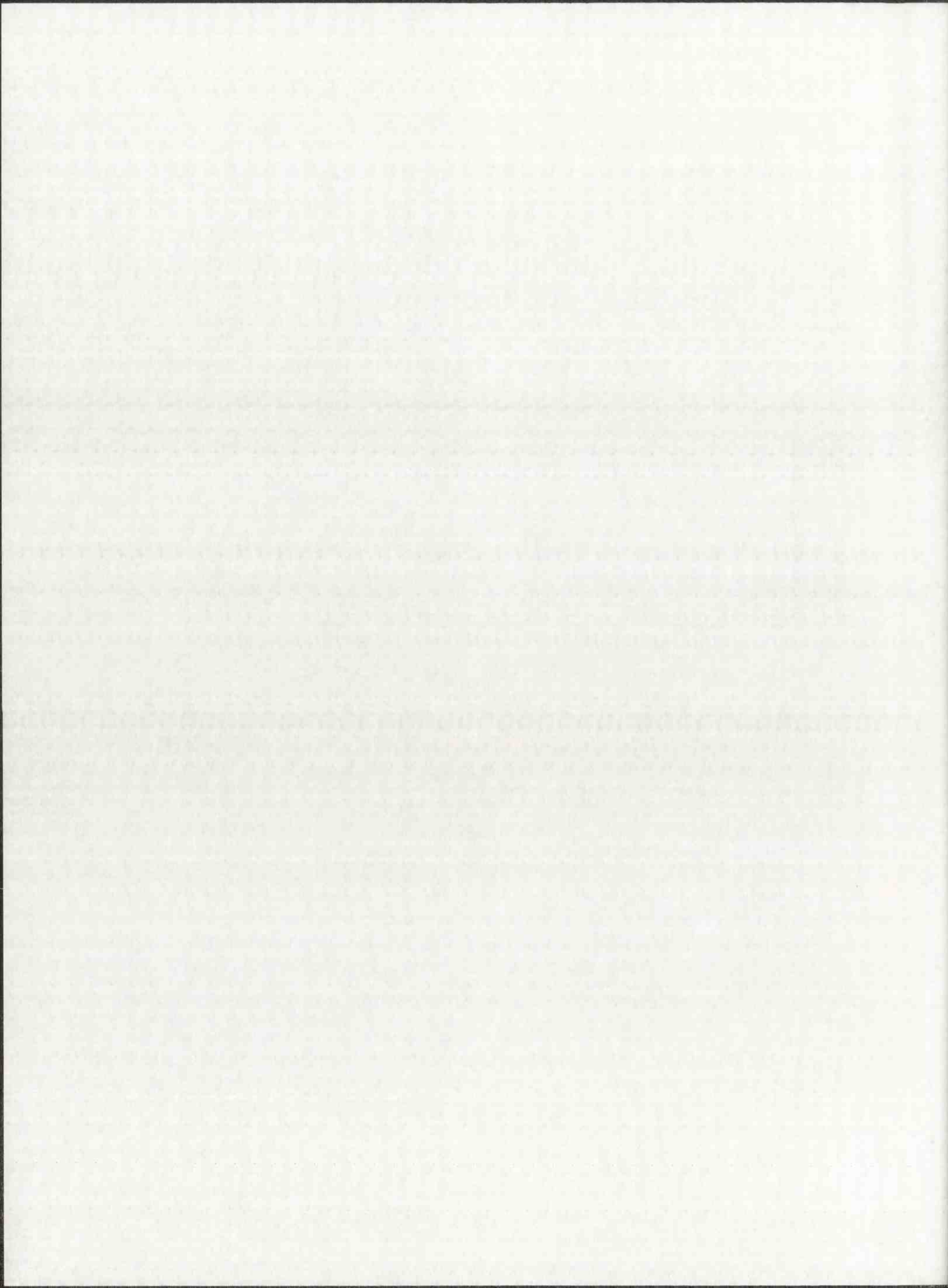
Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Piper et al (1983)	Commitment to the group Remaining in the group Physical distance Perceptions of learning	45 participants from 9 groups	Cohesion	Perceptions of The leader Other participants The group as a whole
Callaway & Esser (1984)	High cohesion groups Low cohesion groups Presence of decision making procedures Absence of decision making procedures	128 college students making up 32 groups	Cohesion	Attractiveness of group Differences of opinion Group competence Formation of effective groups Willingness to participate in future research with same group
Zaccaro & Lowe (1988)	Manipulation Effectiveness Member-liking Task-commitment Productivity Interaction Frequency	Survey of 158 college students	High interpersonal cohesion Low interpersonal cohesion	Interpersonal attraction Task commitment
Bollen & Hoyle (1990)	Sense of belonging Morale	Survey of 102 college students Survey of 110 individuals using a public opinion poll	Perceived cohesion	High cohesion groups Low cohesion groups



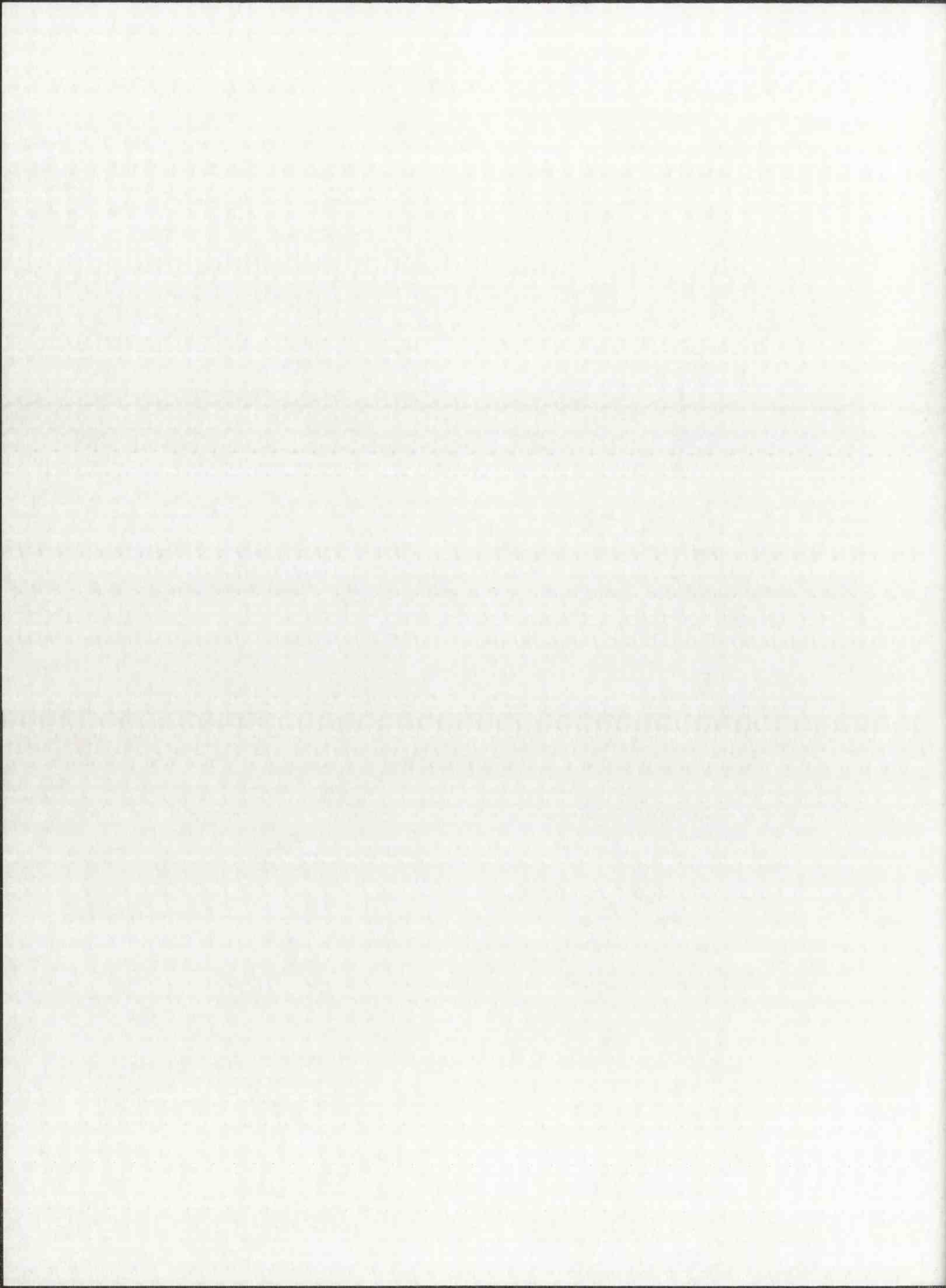
Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Bollen & Hoyle (1990)	Sense of belonging Morale	Survey of 102 college students Survey of 110 individuals using a public opinion poll	Perceived cohesion	High cohesion groups Low cohesion groups
Michel & Hambrick (1992)	TMT characteristics Tenure Tenure homogeneity Functional homogeneity Interunit moves Core function expertise Profitability ROA ROE Weighted industry profitability	Analysis of archival data of TMTs in 134 firms	Diversification strategy	Firm size Firm age
Barker (1993)	Bureaucratic control	Ethnography of self-managing teams	Value consensus Consolidation Normative rules Formalization of rules Performance	
Mullen & Cooper (1994)	Task cohesion Social cohesion	Meta-analysis of past studies done of group cohesion		



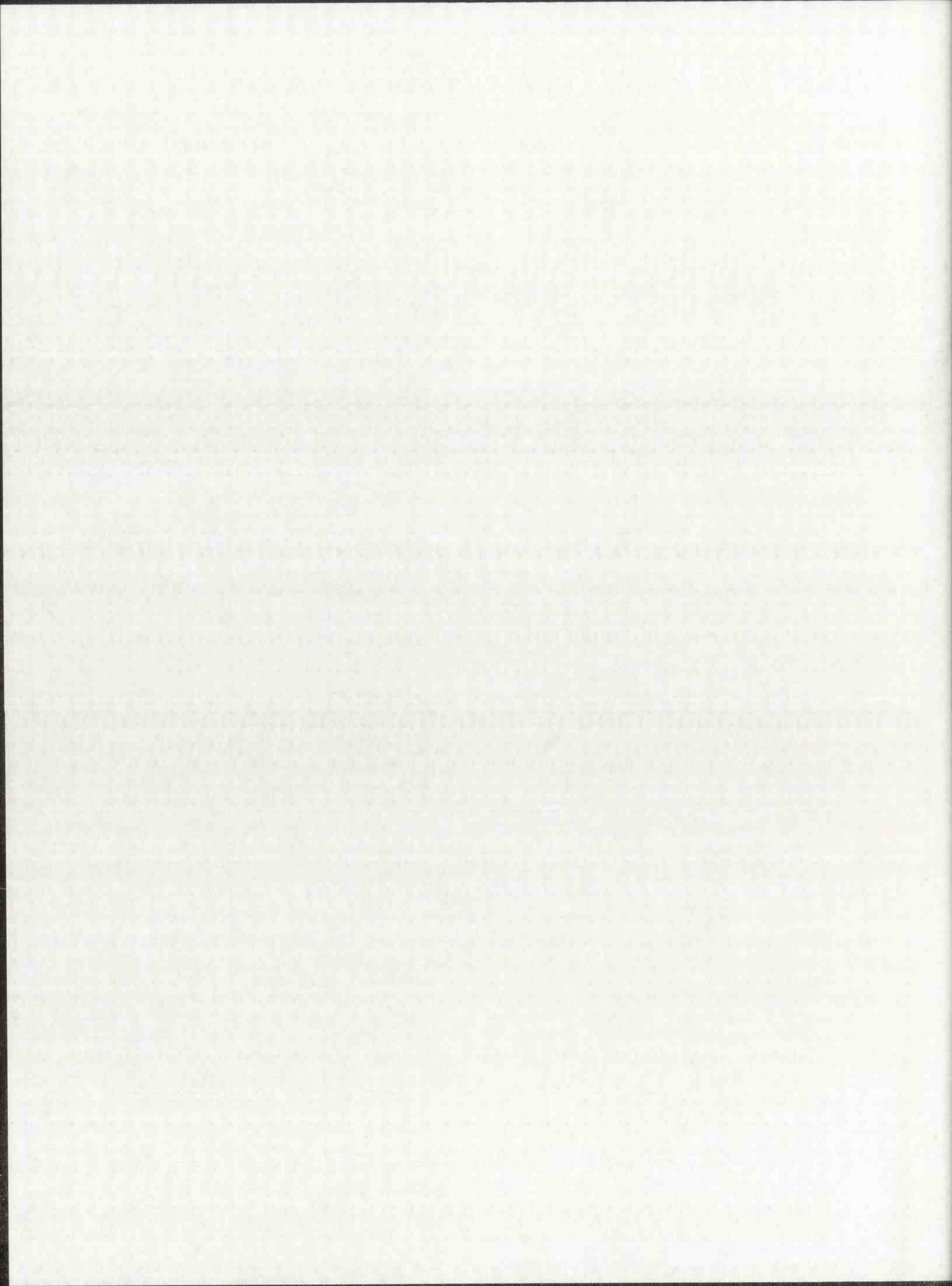
Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Klein & Mulvey (1995)	Group goals Group goal commitment Group Cohesion	222 college students making up 52 groups	Group performance	
Chin et al (1999)	Sense of belonging Morale	Task performance of 330 college students making up 70 groups	Cohesion	
Carless & De Paola (2000)	Team cohesion Work-group characteristics Team effectiveness Job satisfaction Work-group performance	Survey of 120 Australian employees	Task cohesion Social cohesion Individual attraction to the group	
Yoo & Alavi (2001)	Group cohesion Media conditions Audio conferencing Desktop video conferencing Effectiveness	Task completed by 135 college students making up 45 groups	Consensus	Social presence Task participation
Chang & Brodia (2001)	Group grade Subjective measure of group performance System viability Professional growth	Task completed by 80 college students making up groups of 3-4	Task cohesion Social cohesion	



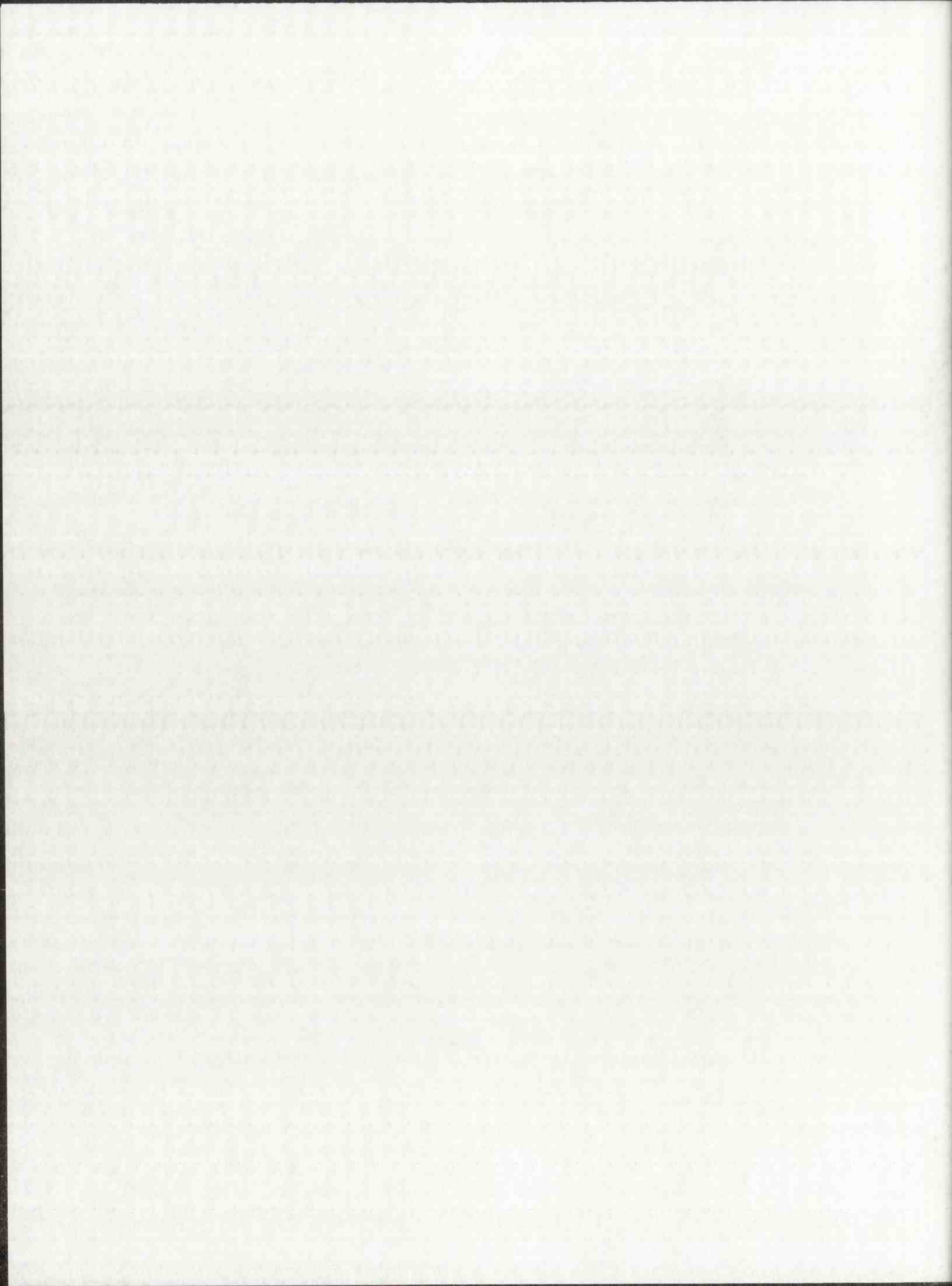
Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Reinig & Shin (2002)	Production blocking Free riding Sucker effect Group cohesion Self-reported learning Affective award Time period	Longitudinal experiment of 43 college students	Effects of Group support systems	
Gonzales et al (2003)	Task cohesion Collective efficacy Group behavioral performance	Survey of 200 college students	Group effectiveness	
Ensley & Pearson (2005)	TMT Composition Education Functional expertise Industry experience Skill Dynamics Shared strategic cognition Potency Cohesion Conflict	Comparison of 102 firms and 154 firms	Performance Net cash flow Revenue growth	



Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Kerr et al (1976)	Reasonable doubt Stringent criterion Lax criterion Undefined	Survey of 645 individual college students Survey of 606 college students making up 6 member juries Analysis of 52 decisions in 24 companies	Unanimous decision Majority rule	Personal perspective Jury perspective
Dean & Sharfman (1996)	Procedural rationality Political behavior		Decision effectiveness/success	Favorability of environment Decision implementation
Tindale & Kameda (2000)	Shared Preferences Shared information Cognitive centrality of group members Shared task representations and mental models Shared identity Shared metacognitions	Thematic review of past research	Information processing in groups	
Muhammed & Ringseis (2001)	Cooperativeness Cognitive processes New Issues Implementation Satisfaction with decision outcomes	Task experiment with 148 college students	Cognitive consensus	



Authors	Inputs	Measurement	Outcomes	Moderators
Klenke (2003)	Gender Power Political savvy Conflict management Trust	Development of a model using 4 postulates	Decision making processes in TMTs	TMT composition
Campbell, Goodie, & Foster (2004)	Self esteem Self efficacy Self control Risk taking Overconfidence	Task experiment with 104, 97, & 607 college students	Narcissism	Self-beliefs
Hastie & Kameda (2005)	Average winner Median winner Social judgment scheme Rank winner Majority rule Majority/plurality rule Best member rule Random member rule Group satisficing rule	Evaluation of 9 group decision rules based on simulated tests	Individual cognitive effort Social effort	



APPENDIX B: Measures

Collaboration

Knowledge Sharing

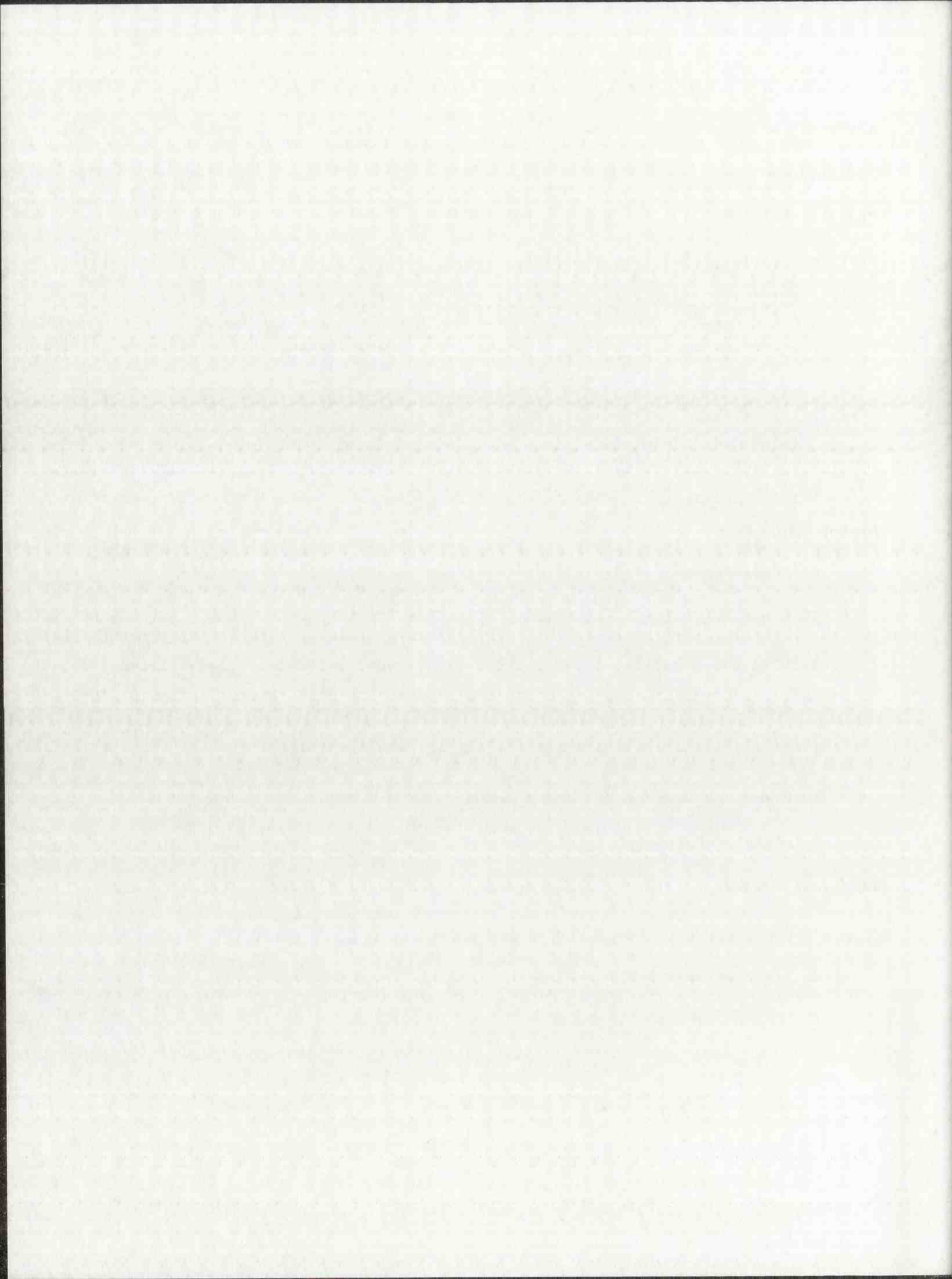
1. The people I report to keep me informed.
2. Sharing of knowledge is encouraged by the group in action.
3. We are continuously encouraged to bring new knowledge into the group.
4. We are encouraged to say what we think even though if it means disagreeing with people we report to.
5. Open communication is characteristic of the group as a whole.

Employee Attitude

1. I learn a lot from other members in this group.
2. In the group, information sharing has increased my knowledge.
3. Most of my expertise has developed as a result of working together with colleagues in this group.
4. Sharing information translates to deeper knowledge in this group.
5. Combining the knowledge amongst members has resulted in many new ideas and solutions for the group.

Workgroup Support

1. There is much I can learn from my colleagues.
2. There are people here who prefer to work on their own (reverse coded)
3. We often share work experiences informally in our group
4. We help each other to learn the skills we need.
5. We keep all team members up to date with current events and work trends.



Cohesion

Belonging

1. I feel that I belong to this group
2. I see myself as a part of this group
3. I feel that I am a member of this group

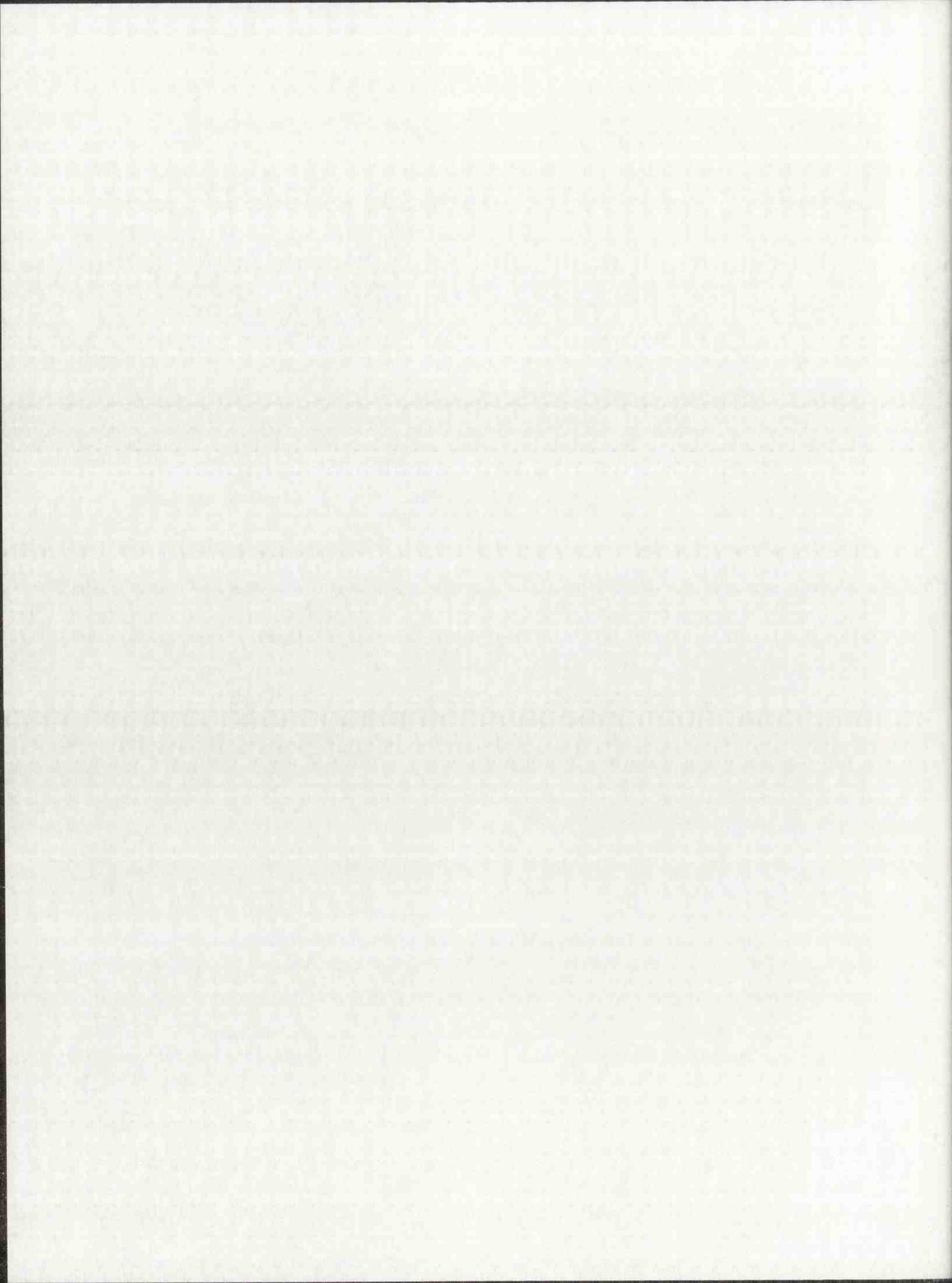
Morale

1. I am happy to be a part of this group
2. This group is one of the best anywhere
3. I am content to be a part of this group

Decision Making

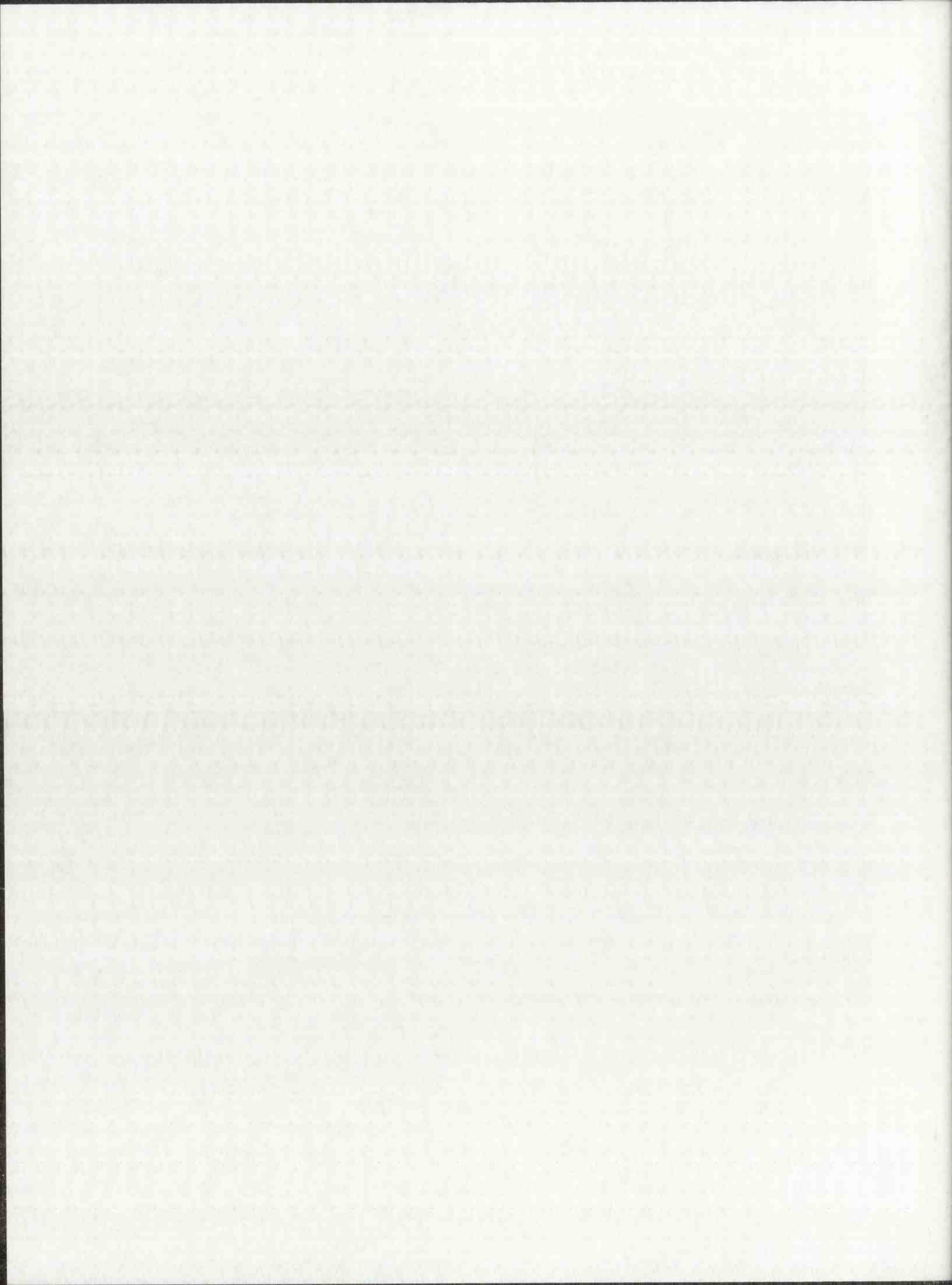
Authority Rule

1. The highest ranking person in our group usually hands down the decision to our group.
2. Usually the person in the highest organizational position has the final say regarding our group decisions.
3. We generally defer to the person with the most experience or knowledge when making a decision.
4. Decisions in our group are made based on one or two people who seem to have the most influence on the group as a whole.
5. Our group usually decides to take action when a more powerful member pushes his or her desires or ideas.
6. Our group usually avoids open discussion of differences with the group leader.
7. Members of my group use their authority to make a decision in their favor.

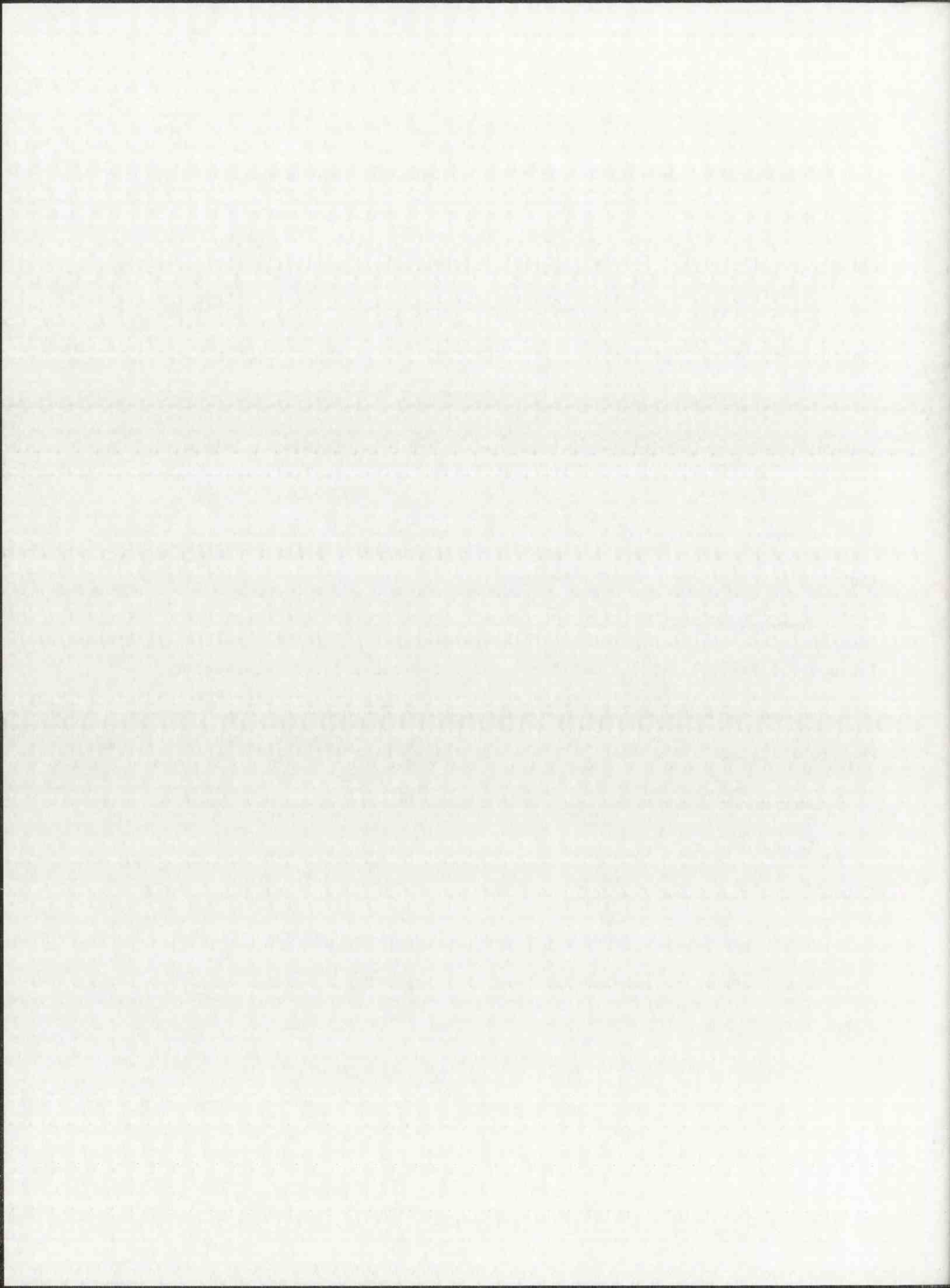


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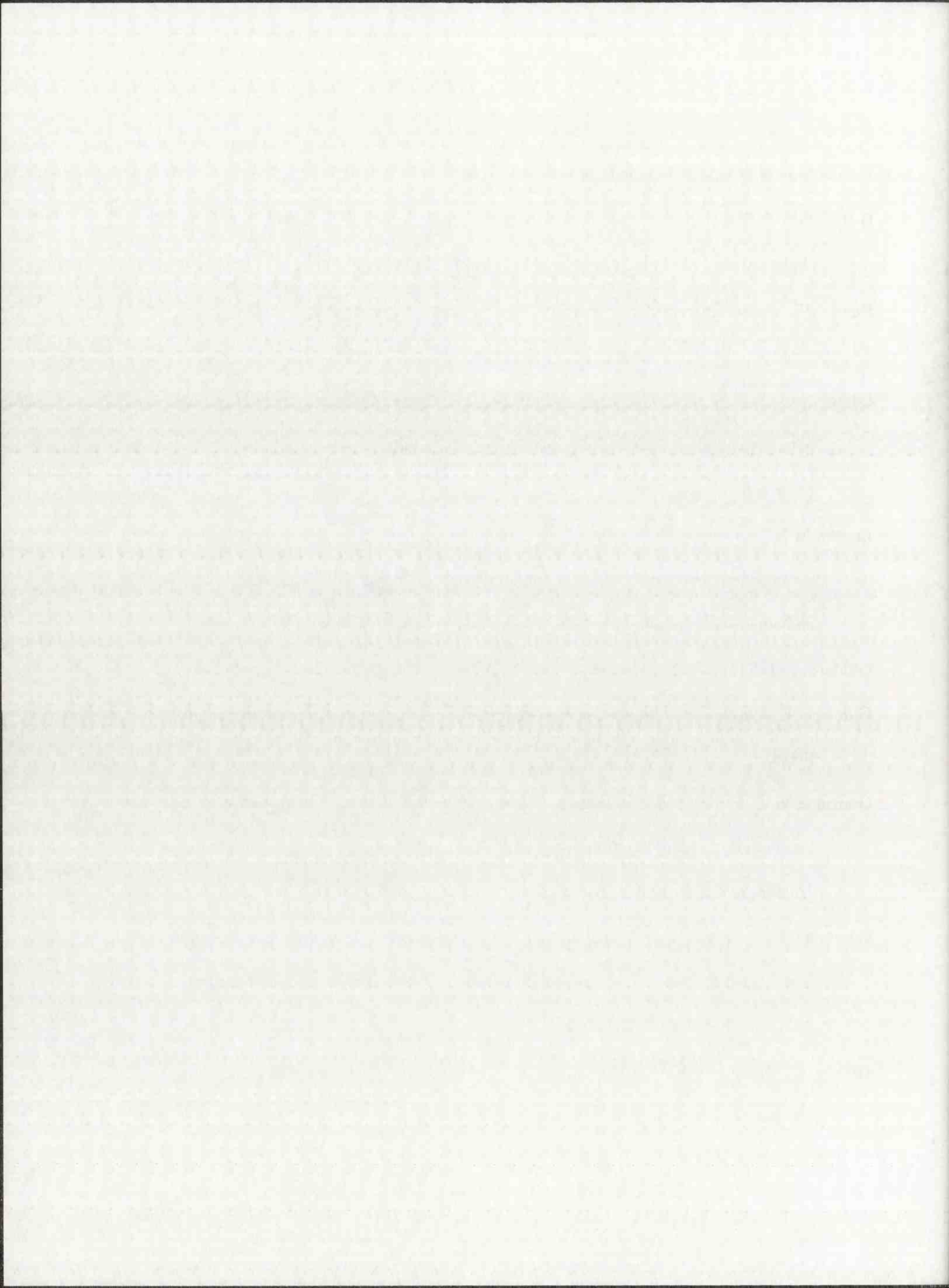
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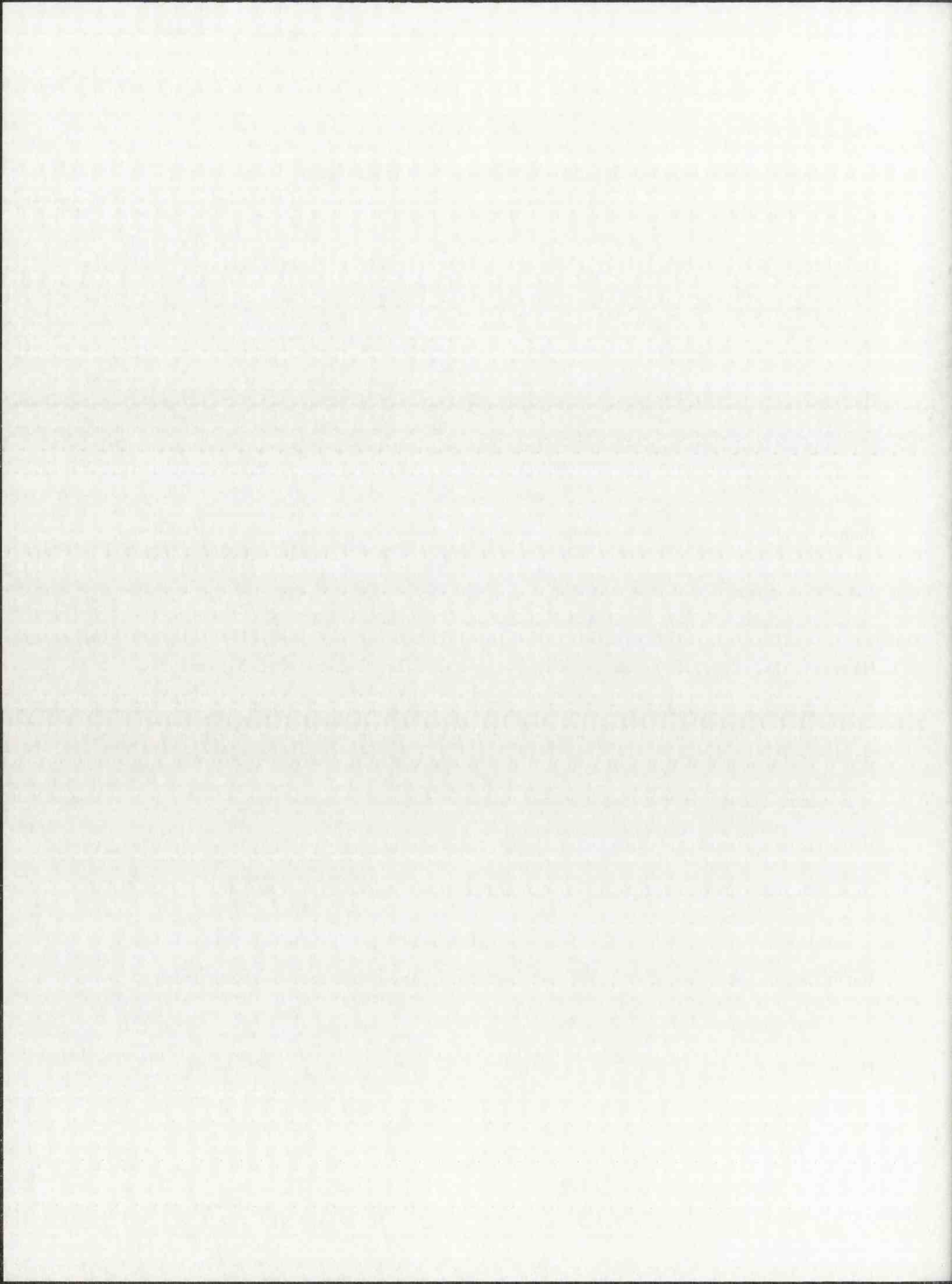
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