CHAPTER 9

Foundations of Group Behavior

(Click on the title when connected to the Internet for online video teaching notes)

LEARNING OBJECTIVES (ppt9-1)

After studying this chapter, students should be able to:

1. Define *group* and differentiate between different types of groups.
2. Identify the five stages of group development.
3. Show how role requirements change in different situations.
4. Demonstrate how norms and status exert influence on an individual's behavior.
5. Show how group size affects group performance.
6. Contrast the benefits and disadvantages of cohesive groups.
7. Contrast the strengths and weaknesses of group decision making.
8. Compare the effectiveness of interacting, brainstorming, nominal, and electronic meeting groups.
9. Evaluate evidence for cultural differences in group status and social loafing, as well as the effects of diversity in groups.

INSTRUCTOR RESOURCES

Instructors may wish to use the following resources when presenting this chapter:

Text Exercises
- International OB: Group Cohesiveness Across Cultures
- Myth or Science? "Are Two Heads Better Than One?"
- An Ethical Choice: How Groups Infect Your Deviant Behavior–and How to Immunize Yourself
- Point/CounterPoint: All Jobs Should Be Designed Around Groups
- Questions For Review
- Experiential Exercise: Wilderness Survival
- Ethical Dilemma: Dealing With Shirkers

Text Cases
- Case Incident 1: "If Two Heads Are Better Than One, Are Four Even Better?"
- Case Incident 2: Herd Behavior and the Housing Bubble (and Collapse)

Instructor's Choice
> This section presents an exercise that is NOT found in the student's textbook. Instructor's Choice reinforces the text's emphasis through various activities. Some Instructor's Choice activities are centered on debates, group exercises, Internet research, and student experiences. Some can be used in-class in their

entirety, while others require some additional work on the student's part. The course instructor may choose to use these at anytime throughout the class—some may be more effective as icebreakers, while some may be used to pull together various concepts covered in the chapter.

WEB
EXERCISES

At the end of each chapter of this Instructor's Manual, you will find suggested exercises and ideas for researching the WWW on OB topics. The exercises "Exploring OB Topics on the Web" are set up so that you can simply photocopy the pages, distribute them to your class, and make assignments accordingly. You may want to assign the exercises as an out-of-class activity or as lab activities with your class.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGERS

Performance Among the most prominent properties related to group performance are role perception, norms, status differences, size of the group, and cohesiveness.

Role perception and an employee's performance evaluation are positively related. The degree of congruence between the employee's and the boss's perception of the employee's job influences the degree to which the boss will judge that employee effective. An employee whose role perception fulfills the boss's role expectations will receive a higher performance evaluation.

Norms control behavior by establishing standards of right and wrong. The norms of a given group can help explain members' behaviors for managers. When norms support high output, managers can expect markedly higher individual performance than when they aim to restrict output. Norms that support antisocial behavior increase the likelihood that individuals will engage in deviant workplace activities.

Status inequities create frustration and can adversely influence productivity and willingness to remain with an organization. Incongruence is likely to reduce motivation and motivate a search for ways to bring about fairness (say, by taking another job). Because lower-status people tend to participate less in group discussions, groups with high status differences are likely to inhibit input from lower-status members and reduce their potential.

The impact of size on a group's performance depends on the type of task. Larger groups are more effective at fact-finding activities, smaller groups at action-taking tasks. Our knowledge of social loafing suggests that managers using larger groups should also provide measures of individual performance.

Cohesiveness can influence a group's level of productivity or not, depending on the group's performance-related norms.

Satisfaction High congruence between a boss's and an employee's perception of the employee's job correlates strongly with high employee satisfaction. Role conflict is associated with job-induced tension and job dissatisfaction.

Most people prefer to communicate with others at their own status level or a higher one rather than with those below them. As a result, we should expect satisfaction to be greater among employees whose job minimizes interaction with individuals lower in status than themselves.

The group size–satisfaction relationship is what we would intuitively expect: Larger groups are associated with lower satisfaction. As size increases, opportunities for participation and social interaction decrease, as does the ability of members to identify with the group's accomplishments. At the same time, having more members also prompts dissension, conflict, and the formation of subgroups, which all act to make the group a less pleasant entity of which to be a part.

The chapter opens with a discussion on brainstorming. This idea generation technique usually involves a small group of people who meet with the purpose of producing a number of creative ideas for a specific project or problem. These sessions allow for a variety of expression and are designed to elicit everyone's input. Some of the problems of brainstorming mirror the problems of groups without parameters.

BRIEF CHAPTER OUTLINE

I.   Defining and Classifying Groups (ppt9-2)
     A. Definition
         1. A group is defined as two or more individuals, interacting and
             interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives.
         2. Groups can be either formal or informal. (ppt9-3)
             a. It is possible to sub-classify groups as command, task, interest, or
                 friendship groups.
             b. An interest group. People who affiliate to attain a specific objective with
                 which each is concerned.
     B. Why do people form groups? (ppt9-4)
         1. Our tendency to take personal pride or offense for the accomplishments of a
             group is the territory of social identity theory.
         2. There is no single reason why individuals join groups.
         3. Social identity theory proposes that people have emotional reactions to the
             failure or success of their group because their self-esteem gets tied into the
             performance of the group.
     C. Exhibit 9–1 summarizes the most popular reasons people have for joining
         groups.

II. Stages of Group Development (ppt9-5) (ppt9-6)
     A. The Five-Stage Model (Exhibit 9-1)
         1. Forming:
             a. Characterized by a great deal of uncertainty about the group's purpose,
                 structure, and leadership.
         2. Storming:
             a. One of intragroup conflict. Members accept the existence of the group,
                 but there is resistance to constraints on individuality.
         3. Norming:
             a. One in which close relationships develop and the group demonstrates
                 cohesiveness.
         4. Performing:
             a. The structure at this point is fully functional and accepted.
         5. Adjourning:
             a. For temporary committees, teams, task forces, and similar groups that
                 have a limited task to perform, there is an adjourning stage.
         6. Responses of group members vary in this stage. Some are upbeat, basking in
             the group's accomplishments. Others may be depressed over the loss of
             camaraderie and friendships.
         7. Problems with the five-stage model (ppt9-7)
             a. Many assume that a group becomes more effective as it progresses
                 through the first four stages. While generally true, what makes a group
                 effective is more complex. Under some conditions, high levels of conflict
                 are conducive to high group performance.
             b. Groups do not always proceed clearly from one stage to the next.
                 Sometimes several stages go on simultaneously, as when groups are
                 storming and performing. Groups even occasionally regress to previous
                 stages.
             c. Another problem is that it ignores organizational context. For instance, a
                 study of a cockpit crew in an airliner found that, within ten minutes,
                 three strangers assigned to fly together for the first time had become a
                 high-performing group.

        d. The strong organizational context provides the rules, task definitions, information, and resources needed for the group to perform.

    B. An Alternative Model: For Temporary Groups with Deadlines (ppt9-8)

       1. Temporary groups with deadlines don't seem to follow the usual five-stage model. Studies indicate they have their own unique sequencing of actions (or inaction):

          a. This punctuated-equilibrium model is shown in Exhibit 9-2.

III. The Punctuated-Equilibrium Model (Exhibit 9-2)

    A. The punctuated-equilibrium model characterizes groups as exhibiting long periods of inertia interspersed with brief revolutionary changes triggered primarily by their members' awareness of time and deadlines.

    B. Phase I—The first meeting sets the group's direction – the first inertia phase. A framework of behavioral patterns and assumptions emerges. These lasting patterns can appear as early as the first few seconds of the group's life span.

    C. Phase 2 is a new equilibrium or period of inertia. In this phase, the group executes plans created during the transition period.

IV. Group Properties: Roles, Norms, Status, Size, and Cohesiveness (ppt9-9)

    A. Introduction

       1. "A set of expected behavior patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit."

    B. Group Property 1: Roles (ppt9-10)

       1. Introduction

          a. All group members are actors, each playing a role.

          b. "A set of expected behavior patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit."

          c. We are required to play a number of diverse roles, both on and off our jobs. Many of these roles are compatible; some create conflicts.

          d. Different groups impose different role requirements on individuals.

       2. Role Identity

          a. There are certain attitudes and actual behaviors consistent with a role, and they create the role identity.

       3. Role Perception

          a. One's view of how one is supposed to act in a given situation is a role perception.

       4. Role Expectations

          a. How others believe you should act in a given situation.

          b. How you behave is determined to a large extent by the role defined in the context in which you are acting.

       5. Role Conflict

          a. "When an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations"

          b. It exists when compliance with one role requirement may make more difficult the compliance with another.

       6. An Experiment: Zimbardo's Prison Experiment (ppt9-11)

          a. Conducted by Stanford University psychologist Philip Zimbardo and associates.

          b. What should you conclude from this prison simulation?

             i. The participants had learned stereotyped conceptions of guard and prisoner roles from the mass media and their own personal experiences in power and powerless relationships at home.

            ii. This allowed them easily and rapidly to assume roles that were very different from their inherent personalities.

    C. Group Properties 2 and 3: Norms and Status (ppt9-12)

       1. Introduction

        a. All groups have norms—"acceptable standards of behavior that are shared by the group's members." Norms tell members what they ought and ought not to do under certain circumstances.

    2. The Hawthorne Studies (ppt9-13)

        a. Experiments conducted between 1924 and 1932 by Elton Mayo at Western Electric at the company's Hawthorne Works in Chicago.

        b. Studies conclude that a worker's behavior and sentiments were closely related.

        c. As a follow-up the researchers began a second set of experiments in the relay assembly test room at Western Electric.

        d. In essence, workers in both the illumination and assembly-test-room experiments were reacting to the increased attention they received.

        e. A third study, in the bank wiring observation room, was introduced to ascertain the effect of a sophisticated wage incentive plan.

        f. Members were afraid that if they significantly increased their output, the unit incentive rate would be cut, the expected daily output would be increased, layoffs might occur, or slower workers would be reprimanded.

        g. The norms the group established included a number of "don'ts."

    3. Conformity (ppt9-15)

        a. There is considerable evidence that groups can place strong pressures on individual members to change their attitudes and behaviors to conform to the group's standard.

        b. Individuals conform to the important groups to which they belong or hope to belong. However, all groups do not impose equal conformity pressures on their members. Important groups are referred to as reference groups.

        c. The pressure that groups exert for conformity was demonstrated by Solomon Asch. Groups of seven or eight people were asked to compare two cards held by the experimenter. One card had one line, the other had three lines of varying length. Under ordinary conditions, subjects made less than one percent error. (Exhibit 9-3)

    4. Deviant Workplace Behavior: (ppt9-15)

        a. This term covers a full range of antisocial actions by organizational members that intentionally violate established norms and that result in negative consequences for the organization, its members, or both. (Exhibit 9-4) (ppt9-16)

        b. Deviant behavior depends on the accepted norms of the group—or even whether an individual is part of a group.

  D. Status (ppt9-17)

    1. Status is a socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others. We live in a class-structured society despite all attempts to make it more egalitarian.

    2. What Determines Status?

        a. Status characteristics theory – differences in status characteristics create status hierarchies within groups.

    3. Status and Norms (ppt9-18)

        a. High-status members of groups often are given more freedom to deviate from norms than other group members.

        b. High-status people also are better able to resist conformity pressures.

    4. Status and Group Interaction

        a. Interaction is influenced by status

    5. Status Inequity

        a. When inequity is perceived, it creates disequilibrium that results in corrective behavior.

  E. Group Property 4: Size (ppt9-19)

1. The size of a group affects the group's overall behavior, but the effect depends on the dependent variables: Smaller groups are faster at completing tasks than are larger ones.
2. Social loafing is the tendency for individuals to expend less effort when working collectively than when working individually.
3. Social loafing: (ppt9-20)
   a. Causes of Social Loafing
      i. A belief that others in the group are not carrying their fair share.
   b. Preventing Social Loafing
      i. Set group goals.
      ii. Increase intergroup competition.
      iii. Engage in peer evaluation.
      iv. Select members who have high motivation and prefer to work in groups.
      v. If possible, base group rewards in part on each member's unique contributions.
F. Group Property 5: Cohesiveness (Exhibit 9-6) (ppt9-21)
   1. Groups differ in their cohesiveness, "the degree to which members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the group."
   2. Cohesiveness is important because it is related to the group's productivity.

V. Group Decision Making
   A. Groups Versus the Individual (ppt9-22)
      1. Strengths of Group Decision Making
         a. Groups generate more complete information and knowledge.
         b. They offer increased diversity of views.
         c. This opens up the opportunity for more approaches and alternatives to be considered.
         d. The evidence indicates that a group will almost always outperform even the best individual.
         e. Groups lead to increased acceptance of a solution.
      2. Weaknesses of Group Decision Making
         a. It is time consuming.
         b. There is a conformity pressure in groups.
         c. Group discussion can be dominated by one or a few members.
         d. Group decisions suffer from ambiguous responsibility.
      3. Effectiveness and Efficiency
         a. Whether groups are more effective than individuals depends on the criteria you use.
         b. In terms of accuracy, group decisions will tend to be more accurate.
      4. Summary
         a. Groups offer an excellent vehicle for performing many of the steps in the decision-making process.
         b. They are a source of both breadth and depth of input for information gathering.
         c. When the final solution is agreed upon, there are more people in a group decision to support and implement it.
         d. Group decisions consume time, create internal conflicts, and generate pressures toward conformity.
   B. Groupthink and Groupshift (ppt9-23)
      1. Groupthink is related to norms
         a. It describes situations in which group pressures for conformity deter the group from critically appraising unusual, minority, or unpopular views.
      2. Groupshift
         a. Groupshift, which describes the way, in discussing a given set of

alternatives and arriving at a solution, group members tend to exaggerate the initial positions they hold.
3. Groupthink
    a. The phenomenon that occurs when group members become so enamored of seeking concurrence is that the norm for consensus overrides the realistic appraisal of alternative courses of action and the full expression of deviant, minority, or unpopular views.
    b. In studies of historic American foreign policy decisions, these symptoms were found to prevail when government policy-making groups failed.
4. Groupshift and Group Polarization
    a. The groupshift can be viewed as actually a special case of groupthink. The decision of the group reflects the dominant decision-making norm that develops during the group's discussion.
    b. The greater occurrence of the shift toward risk has generated several explanations.
    a. Implications of Groupshift:
        i. Recognize that group decisions exaggerate the initial position of the individual members.
        ii. The shift has been shown more often to be toward greater risk.
C. Group Decision-Making Techniques (ppt9-24)
1. Most group decision-making takes place in interacting groups.
    a. In these groups, members meet face to face and rely on both verbal and nonverbal interaction to communicate with each other.
    b. Interacting groups often censor themselves and pressure individual members toward conformity of opinion.
2. Brainstorming
    a. It is meant to overcome pressures for conformity in the interacting group that retard the development of creative alternatives.
    b. In a typical brainstorming session, a half dozen to a dozen people sit around a table.
3. The nominal group technique:
    a. Restricts discussion or interpersonal communication during the decision-making process
    b. Group members are all physically present, but members operate independently.
    c. The chief advantage of the nominal group technique is that it permits the group to meet formally but does not restrict independent thinking, as does the interacting group.
4. The computer-assisted group or electronic meeting blends the nominal group technique with sophisticated computer technology.
    a. Up to 50 people sit around a horseshoe-shaped table, empty except for a series of computer terminals.
5. Early evidence suggests electronic meetings don't achieve most of their proposed benefits. They actually:
    a. Lead to *decreased* group effectiveness
    b. Require *more* time to complete tasks
    c. Result in *reduced* member satisfaction compared with face-to-face groups
6. Each of the four group decision-making techniques has its own set of strengths and weaknesses. The choice depends on what criteria you want to emphasize and the cost–benefit trade-off. (Exhibit 9-7) (ppt9-25)

VI. Global Implications (ppt9-26)
    A. Structure and Culture
        1. Cultural differences do affect status.
    B. Social Loafing

   1. Social loafing appears to have a Western bias.
   2. It's consistent with individualistic cultures.
   3. It is *not* consistent with collective societies, in which individuals are motivated by in-group goals.
C. Group Diversity
   1. Diversity appears to increase group conflict, especially in the early stages of a group's tenure, which often lowers group morale and raises dropout rates.
   2. Evidence is accumulating that, over time, culturally and demographically diverse groups may perform better, if they can get over their initial conflicts. Why might this be so?
      a. Surface-level diversity—observable characteristics such as national origin, race, and gender—alerts people to possible differences in deep-level diversity—underlying attitudes, values, and opinions.
   3. In summary, the impact of cultural diversity on groups is mixed.
   4. It is difficult to be in a diverse group in the short term.
      a. However, if members can weather their differences, over time diversity may help them be more open minded and creative, allowing them to do better in the long run.

VII. Summary and Implications for Managers (ppt9-27)
A. Performance
   1. Among the most prominent properties related to group performance are role perception, norms, status differences, size of the group, and cohesiveness.
   2. Role perception and an employee's performance evaluation are positively related.
   3. Norms control behavior by establishing standards of right and wrong.
   4. Status inequities create frustration and can adversely influence productivity and willingness to remain with an organization.
   5. The impact of size on a group's performance depends on the type of task.
   6. Cohesiveness can influence a group's level of productivity or not, depending on the group's performance-related norms.
B. Satisfaction
   1. High congruence between a boss's and an employee's perception of the employee's job correlates strongly with high employee satisfaction.
   2. Most people prefer to communicate with others at their own status level or a higher one rather than with those below them.
   3. The group size–satisfaction relationship is what we would intuitively expect: larger groups are associated with lower satisfaction.

EXPANDED CHAPTER OUTLINE

I.   Defining and Classifying Groups
     A.   Definition
          1.   A group is defined as two or more individuals, interacting and
               interdependent, who have come together to achieve particular objectives.
          2.   Groups can be either formal or informal.
               a.   Formal groups—those defined by the organization's structure, with
                    designated work assignments establishing tasks.
                    i.   The behaviors that one should engage in are stipulated by and
                          directed toward organizational goals.
                    ii.   An airline flight crew is an example of a formal group.
               b.   Informal groups—alliances that are neither formally structured nor
                    organizationally determined
                    i.   Natural formations in the work environment in response to the need
                          for social contact.
                    ii.   Three employees from different departments who regularly eat lunch
                          together is an informal group.
               c.   It is possible to sub-classify groups as command, task, interest, or
                    friendship groups.
                    i.   Command groups are dictated by the formal organization.
                          (a) The organization chart determines a command group.
                          (b) Composed of direct reports to a given manager.
                    ii.   Task groups—organizationally determined—represent those working
                          together to complete a job task.
                          (a) A task group's boundaries are not limited to its immediate
                               hierarchical superior. It can cross command relationships.
                          (b) For instance, if a college student is accused of a campus crime, it
                               may require communication and coordination among the dean of
                               academic affairs, the dean of students, the registrar, the director
                               of security, and the student's advisor.
                          (c) All command groups are also task groups, but the reverse need
                               not be true.
                    iii. An interest group. People who affiliate to attain a specific objective
                          with which each is concerned.
                          (a) Employees who band together to have their vacation schedules
                               altered
                    iv.   Friendship groups often develop because the individual members
                          have one or more common characteristics.
                          (a) Social alliances, which frequently extend outside the work
                               situation, can be based on similar age or ethnic heritage.
                          (b) Informal groups satisfy their members' social needs.
                          (c) These types of interactions among individuals, even though
                               informal, deeply affect their behavior and performance.
     B.   Why do people form groups?
          1.   Our tendency to take personal pride or offense for the accomplishments of a
               group is the territory of social identity theory.
          2.   There is no single reason why individuals join groups.
          3.   Social identity theory proposes that people have emotional reactions to the
               failure or success of their group because their self-esteem gets tied into the
               performance of the group.
               a.   Social identities help us understand who we are and where we fit in with
                    other people, but they can have a negative side as well. Probably the

biggest downside is that social identities encourage ingroup favoritism.
  b. When do people develop a social identity? Several characteristics make a social identity important to a person:
    i. *Similarity.* Not surprisingly, people who have the same values or characteristics as other members of their organization have higher levels of group identification.
    ii. *Distinctiveness.* People are more likely to notice identities that show how they are different from other groups. Respondents in one study identified more strongly with those in their work group with whom they shared uncommon or rare demographic characteristics.
    iii. *Status.* Because people use identities to define themselves and increase self esteem, it makes sense that they are most interested in linking themselves to high-status groups. Graduates of prestigious universities will go out of their way to emphasize their links to their alma maters and are also more likely to make donations.
    iv. *Uncertainty reduction.* Membership in a group also helps some people understand who they are and how they fit into the world.
  c. Exhibit 9–1 summarizes the most popular reasons people have for joining groups.

II. Stages of Group Development
  A. The Five-Stage Model (Exhibit 9-1)
    1. Forming:
      a. Characterized by a great deal of uncertainty about the group's purpose, structure, and leadership.
      b. Members are trying to determine what types of behavior are acceptable.
      c. Stage is complete when members have begun to think of themselves as part of a group.
    2. Storming:
      a. One of intragroup conflict. Members accept the existence of the group, but there is resistance to constraints on individuality.
      b. Conflict over who will control the group.
      c. When complete, there will be a relatively clear hierarchy of leadership within the group.
    3. Norming:
      a. One in which close relationships develop and the group demonstrates cohesiveness.
      b. There is now a strong sense of group identity and camaraderie.
      c. Stage is complete when the group structure solidifies and the group has assimilated a common set of expectations of what defines correct member behavior.
    4. Performing:
      a. The structure at this point is fully functional and accepted.
      b. Group energy has moved from getting to know and understand each other to performing.
      c. For permanent work groups, performing is the last stage in their development.
    5. Adjourning:
      a. For temporary committees, teams, task forces, and similar groups that have a limited task to perform, there is an adjourning stage.
      b. In this stage, the group prepares for its disbandment. Attention is directed toward wrapping up activities.
    6. Responses of group members vary in this stage. Some are upbeat, basking in the group's accomplishments. Others may be depressed over the loss of camaraderie and friendships.

7. Problems with the five-stage model
    a. Many assume that a group becomes more effective as it progresses through the first four stages. While generally true, what makes a group effective is more complex. Under some conditions, high levels of conflict are conducive to high group performance.
    b. Groups do not always proceed clearly from one stage to the next. Sometimes several stages go on simultaneously, as when groups are storming and performing. Groups even occasionally regress to previous stages.
    c. Another problem is that it ignores organizational context. For instance, a study of a cockpit crew in an airliner found that, within ten minutes, three strangers assigned to fly together for the first time had become a high-performing group.
    d. The strong organizational context provides the rules, task definitions, information, and resources needed for the group to perform.
B. An Alternative Model: For Temporary Groups with Deadlines
    1. Temporary groups with deadlines don't seem to follow the usual five-stage model. Studies indicate they have their own unique sequencing of actions (or inaction):
        a. Their first meeting sets the group's direction;
        b. This first phase of group activity is one of inertia;
        c. A transition takes place at the end of this phase, which occurs exactly when the group has used up half its allotted time;
        d. A transition initiates major changes:
        e. A second phase of inertia follows the transition; and
        f. The group's last meeting is characterized by markedly accelerated activity. This pattern, called the punctuated-equilibrium model, is shown in Exhibit 9-2.

III. The Punctuated-Equilibrium Model (Exhibit 9-2)
    A. The punctuated-equilibrium model characterizes groups as exhibiting long periods of inertia interspersed with brief revolutionary changes triggered primarily by their members' awareness of time and deadlines.
    B. Phase I—The first meeting sets the group's direction – the first inertia phase. A framework of behavioral patterns and assumptions emerges. These lasting patterns can appear as early as the first few seconds of the group's life span.
        1. Then a transition takes place when the group has used up half its allotted time.
        2. The group's direction becomes fixed and is unlikely to be reexamined throughout the first half of the group's life.
        3. The group tends to stand still or become locked into a fixed course of action.
        4. The group is incapable of acting on new insights in Phase 1.
        5. The midpoint appears to work like an alarm clock, heightening members' awareness that their time is limited and that they need to "get moving." A transition initiates major changes.
        6. This ends Phase 1 and is characterized by a concentrated burst of changes, dropping of old patterns, and adoption of new perspectives. The transition sets a revised direction for Phase 2.
    C. Phase 2 is a new equilibrium or period of inertia. In this phase, the group executes plans created during the transition period.
        1. The group's last meeting is characterized by markedly accelerated activity.

IV. Group Properties: Roles, Norms, Status, Size, and Cohesiveness
    A. Introduction

      1. "A set of expected behavior patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit."
- B. Group Property 1:Roles
  1. Introduction
     a. All group members are actors, each playing a role.
     b. "A set of expected behavior patterns attributed to someone occupying a given position in a social unit."
     c. We are required to play a number of diverse roles, both on and off our jobs. Many of these roles are compatible; some create conflicts.
     d. Different groups impose different role requirements on individuals.
  2. Role Identity
     a. There are certain attitudes and actual behaviors consistent with a role, and they create the role identity.
     b. People have the ability to shift roles rapidly when they recognize that the situation and its demands clearly require major changes.
  3. Role Perception
     a. One's view of how one is supposed to act in a given situation is a role perception.
     b. We get these perceptions from stimuli all around us—friends, books, movies, television.
     c. The primary reason that apprenticeship programs exist is to allow beginners to watch an "expert," so that they can learn to act as they are supposed to.
  4. Role Expectations
     a. How others believe you should act in a given situation.
     b. How you behave is determined to a large extent by the role defined in the context in which you are acting.
     c. When role expectations are concentrated into generalized categories, we have role stereotypes.
     d. The psychological contract is an unwritten agreement that exists between employees and their employer.
     e. It sets out mutual expectations—what management expects from workers, and vice versa.
     f. It defines the behavioral expectations that go with every role.
     g. If role expectations as implied are not met, expect negative repercussions from the offended party.
  5. Role Conflict
     a. "When an individual is confronted by divergent role expectations"
     b. It exists when compliance with one role requirement may make more difficult the compliance with another.
     c. All of us have faced and will continue to face role conflicts. The critical issue is how conflicts imposed by divergent expectations impact on behavior.
     d. They increase internal tension and frustration.
  6. An Experiment: Zimbardo's Prison Experiment
     a. Conducted by Stanford University psychologist Philip Zimbardo and associates. They created a "prison" in the basement of the Stanford psychology building. They hired two dozen emotionally stable, physically healthy, law-abiding students who scored "normal average" on extensive personality tests. Each student was randomly assigned the role of "guard" or "prisoner." To get the experiment off to a "realistic" start, Zimbardo got the cooperation of the local police department: Police went, unannounced, to the future prisoners' homes, arrested and handcuffed them, put them in a squad car in front of friends and neighbors, and took them to police headquarters where they were booked and

fingerprinted. From there, they were taken to the Stanford prison. At the start of the planned two-week experiment, there were no measurable differences between those assigned to be guards and those chosen to be prisoners.

b. The guards received no special training in how to be prison guards. They were told only to "maintain law and order" in the prison and not to take any nonsense. Physical violence was forbidden. To simulate further the realities of prison life, the prisoners were allowed visits. Mock guards worked eight-hour shifts; the mock prisoners were kept in their cells around the clock and were allowed out only for meals, exercise, toilet privileges, head-count lineups, and work details. It took the "prisoners" little time to accept the authority positions of the guards, or the mock guards to adjust to their new authority roles. After the guards crushed a rebellion, the prisoners became increasingly passive. The prisoners actually began to believe and act as if they were inferior and powerless. Every guard, at some time during the simulation, engaged in abusive, authoritative behavior. Not one prisoner said, "Stop this. I am a student like you. This is just an experiment!" The simulation actually proved too successful in demonstrating how quickly individuals learn new roles. The researchers had to stop the experiment after only six days because of the pathological reactions that the participants were demonstrating.

c. What should you conclude from this prison simulation?

d. The participants had learned stereotyped conceptions of guard and prisoner roles from the mass media and their own personal experiences in power and powerless relationships at home.

e. This allowed them easily and rapidly to assume roles that were very different from their inherent personalities.

C. Group Properties 2 and 3: Norms and Status

  1. Introduction
    a. All groups have norms—"acceptable standards of behavior that are shared by the group's members." Norms tell members what they ought and ought not to do under certain circumstances.

  2. The Hawthorne Studies
    a. Experiments conducted between 1924 and 1932 by Elton Mayo at Western Electric at the company's Hawthorne Works in Chicago.
    b. Studies conclude that a worker's behavior and sentiments were closely related.
      i. The Hawthorne researchers began by examining the relationship between the physical environment and productivity. Illumination and other working conditions were selected to represent this physical environment.
      ii. The researchers' initial findings contradicted their anticipated results.
    c. As a follow-up the researchers began a second set of experiments in the relay assembly test room at Western Electric.
      i. Observations covering a multiyear period found this small group's output increased steadily.
      ii. It became evident this group's performance was significantly influenced by its status as "special."
    d. In essence, workers in both the illumination and assembly-test-room experiments were reacting to the increased attention they received.
    e. A third study, in the bank wiring observation room, was introduced to ascertain the effect of a sophisticated wage incentive plan.
      i. The most important finding of this study was that employees did not individually maximize their outputs.
      ii. Their output became controlled by a group norm that determined

what was a proper day's work.

    iii. Interviews determined the group was operating well below its capability and was leveling output to protect itself.

   f. Members were afraid that if they significantly increased their output, the unit incentive rate would be cut, the expected daily output would be increased, layoffs might occur, or slower workers would be reprimanded.

   g. The norms the group established included a number of "don'ts."

    i. *Don't* be a rate-buster, turning out too much work.

    ii. *Don't* be a chiseler, turning out too little work.

    iii. *Don't* squeal on any of your peers. How did the group enforce these norms?

      (a) The methods included sarcasm, name-calling, ridicule, and even punches to the upper arm of any member who violated the group's norms.

      (b) Members also ostracized individuals whose behavior was against the group's interest.

3. Conformity

   a. There is considerable evidence that groups can place strong pressures on individual members to change their attitudes and behaviors to conform to the group's standard.

   b. Individuals conform to the important groups to which they belong or hope to belong. However, all groups do not impose equal conformity pressures on their members. Important groups are referred to as reference groups.

   c. The reference group is characterized as one where the person is aware of the others; the person defines himself or herself as a member, or would like to be a member; and the person feels that the group members are significant to him/her.

   d. The pressure that group exerts for conformity was demonstrated by Solomon Asch. Groups of seven or eight people were asked to compare two cards held by the experimenter. One card had one line, the other had three lines of varying length. Under ordinary conditions, subjects made less than one percent error. (Exhibit 9-3)

   e. Will the pressures to conform result in an unsuspecting subject (USS) altering his/her answer to align with the others?

   f. The experiment began with several sets of matching exercises. All the subjects gave the right answers.

   g. On the third set, however, the first subject gave an obviously wrong answer, the next subject gave the same wrong answer, and so did the others until it got to the unknowing subject.

   h. The results obtained by Asch demonstrated that over many experiments and many trials, subjects conformed in about 37% of the trials; the subjects gave answers that they knew were wrong but that were consistent with the replies of other group members.

   i. Has time altered the validity of these findings of nearly 50 years ago, and are they generalizable across cultures?

   j. There have been changes in the level of conformity over time. Levels of conformity have steadily declined.

   k. Asch's findings are culture-bound. Conformity to social norms is higher in collectivist cultures than in individualistic cultures.

4. Deviant Workplace Behavior

   a. This term covers a full range of antisocial actions by organizational members that intentionally violate established norms and that result in negative consequences for the organization, its members, or both. (Exhibit 9-4)

b. Rudeness is on the rise and 12 percent of those who experienced it actually quit their jobs.

c. When deviant workplace behavior occurs it can affect employee commitment, cooperation, and motivation. This could lead to performance issues and a lack of job satisfaction.

d. Someone who ordinarily wouldn't engage in deviant behavior might be more likely to do so when working in a group. A recent study suggests those working in a group were more likely to lie, cheat, and steal than individuals working alone. (Exhibit 9-5)

e. Deviant behavior depends on the accepted norms of the group—or even whether an individual is part of a group.

D. Status

1. Status is a socially defined position or rank given to groups or group members by others. We live in a class-structured society despite all attempts to make it more egalitarian.

2. What Determines Status?

a. Status characteristics theory – differences in status characteristics create status hierarchies within groups.

i. Status derived from one of three sources:

(a) The power a person wields over others

(b) A person's ability to contribute to group's goals

(c) Individual's personal characteristics

3. Status and Norms

a. High-status members of groups often are given more freedom to deviate from norms than other group members.

b. High-status people also are better able to resist conformity pressures.

c. The previous findings explain why many star athletes, famous actors, top-performing salespeople, and outstanding academics seem oblivious to appearance or social norms.

4. Status and Group Interaction

a. Interaction is influenced by status.

b. High-status people tend to be assertive.

c. Status differences inhibit diversity of ideas & creativity.

d. Lower-status members tend to be less active.

5. Status Inequity

a. When inequity is perceived, it creates disequilibrium that results in corrective behavior.

b. The trappings of formal positions are also important elements in maintaining equity. Employees expect what an individual has and receives to be congruent with his/her status. For example: pay, office space, etc.

c. Groups generally agree within themselves on status criteria.

d. Individuals can find themselves in a conflict situation when they move between groups whose status criteria are different or when they join groups whose members have heterogeneous backgrounds.

E. Group Property 4: Size

1. The size of a group affects the group's overall behavior, but the effect depends on the dependent variables: Smaller groups are faster at completing tasks than are larger ones.

2. If the group is engaged in problem solving, large groups consistently do better.

3. Large groups—a dozen or more members—are good for gaining diverse input.

4. Smaller groups—seven members—are better at doing something productive with that input.

5. Social loafing is the tendency for individuals to expend less effort when working collectively than when working individually.
6. A common stereotype about groups is that team spirit spurs individual effort and enhances overall productivity.
7. In the late 1920s, a German psychologist named Max Ringelmann compared the results of individual and group performance on a rope-pulling task.
   a. Ringelmann's results showed that groups of three people exerted a force only two-and-a-half times the average individual performance. Groups of eight collectively achieved less than four times the solo rate.
   b. Increases in group size are inversely related to individual performance.
   c. Replications of Ringelmann's research generally support his findings.
8. Social loafing:
   a. Causes of Social Loafing
      i. A belief that others in the group are not carrying their fair share.
      ii. The dispersion of responsibility and the relationship between an individual's input and the group's output is clouded.
      iii. There will be a reduction in efficiency where individuals think that their contribution cannot be measured.
   b. Preventing Social Loafing
      i. Set group goals, so the group has a common purpose to strive toward.
      ii. Increase intergroup competition, which again focuses on the shared outcome.
      iii. Engage in peer evaluation so each person evaluates each other person's contribution.
      iv. Select members who have high motivation and prefer to work in groups.
      v. If possible, base group rewards in part on each member's unique contributions.
F. Group Property 5: Cohesiveness (Exhibit 9-6)
   1. Groups differ in their cohesiveness, "the degree to which members are attracted to each other and are motivated to stay in the group."
   2. Cohesiveness is important because it is related to the group's productivity.
   3. The relationship of cohesiveness and productivity depends on the performance-related norms established by the group.
   4. If performance-related norms are high, a cohesive group will be more productive.
   5. If cohesiveness is high and performance norms are low, productivity will be low.
   6. How to encourage group cohesiveness:
      a. Make the group smaller.
      b. Encourage agreement with group goals.
      c. Increase the time members spend together.
      d. Increase the status of the group and the perceived difficulty of attaining membership in the group.
      e. Stimulate competition with other groups.
      f. Give rewards to the group rather than to individual members.
      g. Physically isolate the group.

V. Group Decision Making
   A. Groups Versus the Individual
      1. Strengths of Group Decision Making
         a. Groups generate more complete information and knowledge.
         b. They offer increased diversity of views.
         c. This opens up the opportunity for more approaches and alternatives to be considered.

    d. The evidence indicates that a group will almost always outperform even the best individual.

    e. Groups lead to increased acceptance of a solution.

  2. Weaknesses of Group Decision Making

    a. It is time consuming.

    b. There is a conformity pressure in groups.

    c. Group discussion can be dominated by one or a few members.

    d. Group decisions suffer from ambiguous responsibility.

  3. Effectiveness and Efficiency

    a. Whether groups are more effective than individuals depends on the criteria you use.

    b. In terms of accuracy, group decisions will tend to be more accurate.

    c. On the average, groups make better-quality decisions than individuals.

    d. If decision effectiveness is defined in terms of speed, individuals are superior.

    e. If creativity is important, groups tend to be more effective than individuals.

    f. If effectiveness means the degree of acceptance the final solution achieves, groups are better.

    g. In terms of efficiency, groups almost always stack up as a poor second to the individual decision maker. The exceptions tend to be those instances where, to achieve comparable quantities of diverse input, the single decision maker must spend a great deal of time reviewing files and talking to people.

  4. Summary

    a. Groups offer an excellent vehicle for performing many of the steps in the decision-making process.

    b. They are a source of both breadth and depth of input for information gathering.

    c. When the final solution is agreed upon, there are more people in a group decision to support and implement it.

    d. Group decisions consume time, create internal conflicts, and generate pressures toward conformity.

 B. Groupthink and Groupshift

  1. Groupthink is related to norms.

    a. It describes situations in which group pressures for conformity deter the group from critically appraising unusual, minority, or unpopular views.

    b. Groupthink is a disease that attacks many groups and can dramatically hinder performance.

  2. Groupshift

    a. Groupshift describes the way of discussing a given set of alternatives and arriving at a solution.

    b. Group members tend to exaggerate the initial positions they hold.

    c. Groups tend toward a risky shift.

  3. Groupthink

    a. The phenomenon that occurs when group members become so enamored of seeking concurrence is that the norm for consensus overrides the realistic appraisal of alternative courses of action and the full expression of deviant, minority, or unpopular views.

    b. It is a deterioration in an individual's mental efficiency, reality testing, and moral judgment as a result of group pressures.

    c. Symptoms of Groupthink include:

     i. Group members rationalize any resistance to the assumptions they have made.

        ii. Members apply direct pressures on those who momentarily express doubts.

       iii. Those members who hold differing points of view seek to avoid deviating from group consensus by keeping silent.

       iv. There appears to be an illusion of unanimity.

d. In studies of historic American foreign policy decisions, these symptoms were found to prevail when government policy-making groups failed. Examples:

       i. Unpreparedness at Pearl Harbor in 1941

       ii. The U.S. invasion of North Korea

       iii. The Bay of Pigs fiasco

       iv. The escalation of the Vietnam War

       v. The Challenger and Columbia space shuttle disasters

       vi. The failure of the main mirror on the Hubble telescope

e. Groupthink appears to be closely aligned with the conclusions Asch drew from his experiments on the lone dissenter. The results were that individuals who hold a position different from the majority are put under pressure to suppress or change their true beliefs.

f. Groupthink does not attack all groups. It occurs most often where there is a clear group identity, where members hold a positive image of their group, which they want to protect, and where the group perceives a collective threat to this positive image.

g. How to minimize groupthink:

       i. Encourage group leaders to play an impartial role.

       ii. Appoint one group member to play the role of devil's advocate.

       iii. Utilize exercises that stimulate active discussion of diverse alternatives without threatening the group and intensifying identity protection.

4. Groupshift and Group Polarization

a. There are differences between group decisions and the individual decisions of group members.

b. Sometimes group decisions are more conservative. More often, they lean toward greater risk.

c. What appears to happen in groups is that the discussion leads to a significant shift in the positions of members toward a more extreme position in the direction in which they were already leaning before the discussion. Conservatives become more cautious, and the more aggressive take on more risk.

d. The groupshift can be viewed as actually a special case of groupthink. The decision of the group reflects the dominant decision-making norm that develops during the group's discussion.

e. The greater occurrence of the shift toward risk has generated several explanations:

       i. Discussion creates familiarization among the members. As they become more comfortable with each other, they also become more bold and daring.

       ii. Most first-world societies value risk. We admire individuals who are willing to take risks. Group discussion motivates members to show that they are at least as willing as their peers to take risks.

       iii. The most plausible explanation of the shift toward risk, however, seems to be that the group diffuses responsibility.

       iv. Group decisions free any single member from accountability for the group's final choice.

f. Implications of Groupshift:

         i.   Recognize that group decisions exaggerate the initial position of the individual members.

        ii. The shift has been shown more often to be toward greater risk.

C. Group Decision-Making Techniques

  1. Most group decision-making takes place in interacting groups.

    a. In these groups, members meet face to face and rely on both verbal and nonverbal interaction to communicate with each other.

    b. Interacting groups often censor themselves and pressure individual members toward conformity of opinion.

    c. Brainstorming, the nominal group technique, and electronic meetings have been proposed as ways to reduce many of the problems inherent in the traditional interacting group.

  2. Brainstorming

    a. It is meant to overcome pressures for conformity in the interacting group that retard the development of creative alternatives.

    b. In a typical brainstorming session, a half dozen to a dozen people sit around a table.

    c. The process:

       i.   The group leader states the problem clearly.

       ii. Members then "free-wheel" as many alternatives as they can in a given length of time.

      iii. No criticism is allowed, and all the alternatives are recorded for later discussion and analysis.

      iv. One idea stimulates others, and group members are encouraged to "think the unusual."

  3. The nominal group technique:

    a. Restricts discussion or interpersonal communication during the decision-making process.

    b. Group members are all physically present, but members operate independently.

    c. Specifically, a problem is presented, and then the following steps take place:

       i.   Members meet as a group but, before any discussion takes place, each member independently writes down his or her ideas on the problem.

       ii. After this silent period, each member presents one idea to the group. Each member takes his or her turn.

      iii. The group now discusses the ideas for clarity and evaluates them.

      iv. Each group member silently and independently rank-orders the ideas.

       v. The idea with the highest aggregate ranking determines the final decision.

    d. The chief advantage of the nominal group technique is that it permits the group to meet formally but does not restrict independent thinking, as does the interacting group.

  4. The computer-assisted group or electronic meeting blends the nominal group technique with sophisticated computer technology.

    a. Up to 50 people sit around a horseshoe-shaped table, empty except for a series of computer terminals.

    b. Issues are presented to participants, and they type their responses onto their computer screen.

    c. Individual comments, as well as aggregate votes, are displayed on a projection screen.

    d. The major advantages of electronic meetings are anonymity, honesty, and speed.

  5. Early evidence suggests electronic meetings don't achieve most of their

proposed benefits. They actually:
   a. Lead to *decreased* group effectiveness
   b. Require *more* time to complete tasks
   c. Result in *reduced* member satisfaction compared with face-to-face groups
   6. Each of the four group decision-making techniques has its own set of strengths and weaknesses. The choice depends on what criteria you want to emphasize and the cost–benefit trade-off. (Exhibit 9-7)

VI. Global Implications
   A. Structure and Culture
      1. Cultural differences do affect status.
      2. Importance varies among cultures.
      3. It is important to understand who and what holds status when interacting with people from a culture different from one's own.
   B. Social Loafing
      1. Social loafing appears to have a Western bias.
      2. It's consistent with individualistic cultures.
      3. It is *not* consistent with collective societies, in which individuals are motivated by in-group goals.
   C. Group Diversity
      1. Diversity appears to increase group conflict, especially in the early stages of a group's tenure, which often lowers group morale and raises dropout rates.
      2. Evidence is accumulating that, over time, culturally and demographically diverse groups may perform better, if they can get over their initial conflicts. Why might this be so?
         a. Surface-level diversity—observable characteristics such as national origin, race, and gender—alerts people to possible differences in deep-level diversity—underlying attitudes, values, and opinions.
      3. In summary, the impact of cultural diversity on groups is mixed.
      4. It is difficult to be in a diverse group in the short term.
         a. However, if members can weather their differences, over time diversity may help them be more open minded and creative, allowing them to do better in the long run.

VII. Summary and Implications for Managers
   A. Performance
      1. Among the most prominent properties related to group performance are role perception, norms, status differences, size of the group, and cohesiveness.
      2. Role perception and an employee's performance evaluation are positively related.
      3. Norms control behavior by establishing standards of right and wrong.
      4. Status inequities create frustration and can adversely influence productivity and willingness to remain with an organization.
      5. The impact of size on a group's performance depends on the type of task.
      6. Cohesiveness can influence a group's level of productivity or not, depending on the group's performance-related norms.
   B. Satisfaction
      1. High congruence between a boss's and an employee's perception of the employee's job correlates strongly with high employee satisfaction.
      2. Most people prefer to communicate with others at their own status level or a higher one rather than with those below them.
      3. The group size–satisfaction relationship is what we would intuitively expect: larger groups are associated with lower satisfaction.