Team Communication and a Model of Team Training

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by
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This study has explored the prescriptions laid down by scholars and organizational consultants for team leaders and team members for ensuring effective team communication and has suggested an approach to a model of team training. The studies pertaining to team leaders were classified as Generic Leadership Studies, and Context-Specific Leadership Studies. The Generic Leadership Studies pertaining to team leaders were further classified as prescriptions pertaining to orientation toward the achievement of goal and performance management, creation of a collaborative climate, participative style of functioning and supportive decision-making climate, and modeling behaviors. The Context-Specific Leadership Studies were further divided into Developmental Stage-Specific Leadership Studies, and Situation-Specific Leadership Studies. The studies pertaining to team members were classified as Generic Studies and Context-Specific Studies. The Generic Studies were further
classified as prescriptions relating to orientation toward the goal and creation of a collaborative climate. The model of team training that has been suggested based on a synthesis of the prescriptions begins with a needs assessment. A method of needs assessment combining observations, interviews, surveys using questionnaires and principles of sociolinguistic analysis has been suggested. A training model based on hypothetical but probable scenarios has also been developed.

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Chair
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Chapter 1

Introduction and Overview

During my education and my tenure with several organizations I have been on teams and have been a witness to the problems that teams encounter. I found that the teams were either plagued by infighting or so cohesive that they could never perform effectively. Extreme infighting and lack of trust among team members crippled their abilities to work together as a unit. Cohesiveness, though often a great virtue, prevented team members from applying any critical thought to the decisions that they took. This led me to ponder: "How could teams communicate effectively and produce effective results?" This question is the main impetus behind undertaking this thesis.

Training plays a major role in helping teams acquire the skills required for successful functioning. It helps in transforming individuals who have been formed in the mold of individualism to be successful team players capable of carrying out task and transactional processes effectively. Hence, an approach to a model of training has also been undertaken as part of this thesis.

Research Questions

This inquiry poses the following questions:

- What do scholars, researchers, and organizational consultants prescribe for effective team communication?
In light of the prescriptions of scholars and organizational consultants, what could be an appropriate approach to a model of training for team leaders and team members?

The report begins with a background and a rationale for the study in the form of a general review of literature. This is followed by a description of the methodology employed. The section on methodology is followed by a section that summarizes scholarly work in the area of team communication pertaining to team leaders and team members. This review is followed by a section that proposes an approach to a model of training. The report culminates with a discussion of results and directions for future research. It provides considerable insight into effective team communication and has wide applicability in the field of training and development.

**Background**

The structure and style of organizational management has changed considerably over the years. Looking at the history of modern day organizations, we can find that the early modes of organizing were based on the principles of Scientific Management advocated by Frederick Taylor (Eisenberg & Goodall, 2004). Frederick Taylor (as cited in Tedford & Barker, 2000) advocated that work be divided into small tasks that could be taught to anyone and that planning of tasks should be separated from the doing of the tasks. Thus, there was a clear demarcation between those who planned the tasks and those who performed them. The worker who actually performed the tasks was given less importance. The fact that every human being was endowed with
intellectual capacities for problem solving and creativity was virtually ignored. However, this view did not last for long (Tedford & Barker, 2000).

As education became more widespread and as highly trained workers entered the labor force, a change in attitude became necessary. Moreover, the business environment began to change drastically. According to Letize and Donovan (1990), it became highly volatile and was characterized by fierce competition, deregulation, mergers and acquisitions, technological advancements, etc. They further added that to survive organizations had to face the looming challenges successfully, and this called for high performance, high flexibility, and high commitment from organizations and their employees.

Aside from environmental factors, organizations themselves were evolving in terms of complexity. According to Beyerlein (2000):

Products and services evolved to levels of complexity that demanded interdependent inputs from multiple contributors. At that point bureaucracy, with its top-down control reserving decision-making for top managers could not generate sufficient employee commitment, quality, innovation, and customer service. (p. xix)

Beyerlein further adds that an increasing emphasis on knowledge and learning and the prevalent view that human and social capitals were as important as financial capital necessitated a change in the style of management. He says that this was mainly due to the fact that the dominance of manufacturing industries was giving way to the dominance of service and knowledge industries, which were difficult to
manage in a highly bureaucratic fashion. All these factors called for advanced forms of participative management in the form of work teams.

Organizing based on work teams has resulted in decentralized decision-making, which has improved efficiency and has provided the flexibility that is required in a highly volatile business environment. The design of the work teams has provided for sufficient diversity and airing of divergent points of view, which are required for dealing with complexity. This has also contributed to increased efficiency and productivity. The problems of employee turnover, dissatisfaction, and absenteeism have been controlled to a great extent. The view that workers are just replaceable cogs in the machine called organization has been superseded by a point of view, which emphasizes that workers are important stakeholders in the organization. Workers have greater control over their work and are expected to be active participants in the working of the organization. This has given them a sense of self-actualization and has led them to expend their effort in achieving the goals of the organization (Eisenberg & Goodall, 2004).

However, teams have not been a bed of roses. In spite of the fact that teams have offered the solution for effective organization, they have often produced less than desirable results. Internal process and relational problems have often crippled a team’s ability to perform effectively. Teams, to be productive and successful, require effective task and transactional relationships. According to G. Lumsden and D. Lumsden (1993), task relationships or processes are “specific interactions that focus on the job at hand” and transactional relationships or processes “are give and take
interactions that carry messages about individuals, messages about teams, and messages about task” (p. 15). They also add that task processes work within the flow of transactional processes.

Therefore, developing excellent task and transactional processes are essential for improving productivity and achieving the goals of the organization. This has led to large scale research in this area and the setting up of training institutes catering to the need for training team members and team leaders in developing effective task and transactional relationships.
Chapter 2
General Review of Literature

Groups, Small groups and Teams

Groups

According to Zander (1982), “a group is a collection of individuals who interact with and depend on each other” (p. 1).

According to Cartwright and Zander (1968):

A group is an aggregate of individuals standing in certain descriptive relations to each other. The kind of relations exemplified will, of course, depend upon, or determine, the kind of group, whether it be a family, an audience, a committee, a labor union, or a crowd. (p. 46)

According to Ball (1994), “a group is a collection of individuals who interact over a period of time with a network of interlocking tasks and roles” (p. 182).

Small groups

Phillips and Erickson (1970) define a small group in the following manner:

Two or more persons sitting face to face in a defined space dealing with a specific agenda that states some goal like solving a problem, feeling better, or procuring enjoyment; each participant normally has some stake or interest in the process and stands to gain or lose personally by the outcome. (p. 7)

Crosbie (as cited in Nixon, 1979, p.6) defines a small group as “a collection of people who meet more or less regularly in face to face interaction, who possess a common identity or exclusiveness of purpose and who share a set of standards governing their
activities.”

The common thread that runs through groups and small groups is that both consist of a collection of people and imply a certain degree of interaction and interdependence. However, in the case of small groups the degree of interaction and interdependence seems to be higher, and there is an explicit mention of a goal that binds the members together. Hence, small groups are a kind of group that has an explicit goal to achieve and has a high degree of interaction and interdependence.

Groups, in general, may or may not have a common goal and the degree of interdependence varies. For instance, a group of people at a street corner may or may not have any explicit goal to achieve as a result of their interaction, and their degree of interdependence may also be very low.

**Teams**

Scholars and researchers have defined teams in terms of the degree of structure and interaction necessary to accomplish a task. According to Donellon (1996), "a team is a group of people who are necessary to accomplish a task that requires the continuous integration of the expertise distributed among them" (p. 10). Thiagrajan and Parker (1999) define a team as “a group of people with a high degree of interdependence geared toward the achievement of a goal or the completion of a task" (p. 5). Polvinic, Ronald, and Rubin (1975) define a team " as that combination of people whose coordinated inputs are necessary to accomplish a given task or set of tasks " (p. 20). According to Sunsdrom, De Meuse, and Futrell (1990)," work teams are defined as interdependent collection of individuals who share responsibility for the specific
outcomes of their organization" (p. 120). D. Lumsden and G. Lumsden (2000) define a team as “a diverse group of people who share leadership responsibility for creating a group identity in an interconnected effort to achieve defined goals within the context of other groups and systems” (p. 13).

The above mentioned definitions point out that teams are groups. However, they more closely resemble small groups as there is an explicit mention of a goal that binds the members together. In spite of the fact that teams belong to the class of small groups, they differ from them in the sense that they are an elite kind of a group. In most of the definitions, there is an explicit mention of a higher degree of interdependence and coordination or collaboration among members to achieve the goal or the objective of the team. Hence, in teams there is an emphasis on a high degree of interdependence, which leads to successful functioning through coordination and collaboration. Coordination and collaboration are achieved through a high degree of effective communication. Thus we can come to the conclusion that a team is an elite group belonging to the category of small groups, which relies on an effective and a high degree of communication for successful functioning.

Work Groups and Teams

Work groups and teams are the most commonly found types of groups in organizations. The two terms are often used interchangeably. Hence the need to differentiate between them is imperative.

According to Ray and Bronstein (1995), a work group is a group that is highly dependent on its leader or manager. The leader is in charge and makes the decisions,
sets the goals, allocates the work, and does the performance appraisal. In certain organizations, he or she is also responsible for hiring and firing. The work is often segmented into different parts and each part is assigned to a particular person. The end product or the entire process is visible only to the manager. The group members have only that authority that the manager or the leader confers on them. The identity of the group is that of the manager and not of the members as a whole. Ray and Bronstein also say that these groups may, at times, behave like teams as the contributions of members may be solicited for decision-making or they may be asked to perform certain things that a team may perform. However, their discretionary powers are limited and are dependent on what the manager or leader confers on them. These characteristics of work groups lead Ray and Bronstein to comment as follows: “If the method of work is so dependent upon a single person, there is little hope of the group becoming a true team” (p. 12).

Katenbach and Smith (1993) share the view that "a working group relies primarily on the individual contributions of its members for group performance, whereas a team strives for a magnified impact that is incremental to what its members should achieve in their individual roles" (pp. 88-89). They emphasize that in a work group, individual performance and responsibility are stressed. Though individual members in effective working groups may constructively compete with one another and help one another if the need arises, each member is responsible only for his or her performance. Teams, in contrast, require both individual and mutual responsibility. Teams primarily rely on the joint efforts of the members for magnified or incremental
performance impact.

The views expressed above clearly show that a team is a unique kind of a group that is dependent on the joint efforts of its members to achieve synergy, which results in a magnified impact. Joint efforts often yield results due to effective communication that exists among the members of the group. Hence, a distinctive form of communication exists among the members of a team as opposed to a work group.

Having differentiated teams from groups and small groups in general and from work groups in particular, the question now arises: How did teams evolve and what is the reason for their growing popularity?

**Evolution of teams and the reasons for their adoption as a form of organizing**

The earliest system of management in the American settings was the one proposed by Fredrick Taylor in the early 1900s. He proposed that the best way to organize was to standardize the activities of workers into simple repetitive tasks and closely supervise them. Thus, workers did the job that they were told to do and the decision-making was carried on by the management. The conditions at that time in the United States necessitated the need for such a kind of management as the work force consisted of poorly educated immigrants, who could not speak English. For more than half a century such a kind of organizing continued in spite of the fact that research and studies proved that management through the use of participative structures could be a solution to the ills that plagued organizations (Eisenberg & Goodall, 2004).
In the 1920s, Kurt Lewin wrote a paper on Taylorism. In his paper, he advocated new ideas about workers and the values that workers placed on the work that they were doing. He felt that the satisfaction gained from work was a determinant of how well an employee performed. Later on during World War II at the request of the United States government he, along with Margaret Mead, worked on a project that involved getting people to eat more non-rationed food and less rationed food. They conducted experiments involving groups of people. Some groups were just given an awareness regarding the need for eating more of non-rationed food while others were given information as well as were involved in discussions regarding the facts presented and the action that was required to be taken. Though both groups initially resisted the efforts made to get them to eat non-rationed food, a follow-up study found that groups which were given a lecture as well as were involved in discussions were more likely to have changed their minds when compared to groups which were given only a lecture. This led them to conclude that people were committed to decisions that they had a part in making (Tedford & Barker, 2000).

This was later proved in the Harwood studies, which involved unearthing reasons for low productivity among the southern workers in the Harwood Company’s pajama factories in the southern part of the United States. The Southern workers were less productive when compared to Northern workers. However, after having been exposed to better methods of production and after having been given the freedom to decide the output goals, it was found that the productivity of the Southern workers increased substantially (Tedford & Barker, 2000).
In 1946, Kurt Lewin and Douglas McGregor established the Research Center for Group Dynamics at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology to scientifically study group dynamics and group processes (Tedford & Barker, 2000). It was here that Douglas McGregor developed the “Theory Y” style of management, which was based on Maslow’s Hierarchy of Needs and was a turning point in stimulating interest in work teams (Tedford & Barker, 2000; Shonk, 1992).

McGregor (1960) in his “Theory Y” stipulated the following propositions:

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort is as natural as play or rest. [This proposition was intended to show that human beings did not inherently dislike work].

2. External control or threat of punishment is not the only means for bringing effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.

4. The average human being learns under proper conditions, not only to accept responsibility but also to seek responsibility.

5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

6. Under conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual
potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized.

( pp. 47-48 )

Though work teams, as a predominant form of organizing, were a late arrival in the United States, experimentation with team-based organizations began abroad. In the 1950s, Erick Trist experimented with team-based organization in the British coal mines. The coal miners were organized into teams based on socio-technical requirements. The workers worked cooperatively helping out each other and often trading jobs. This led to increased productivity and job satisfaction among coal miners as they had more control over their jobs (Wellins, Byham, & Wilson, 1991). Subsequently, several of Trist's colleagues implemented models based on the socio-technical principles in a fertilizer plant in Norway, a refinery in Great Britain, and a textile mill in India. The success of the socio-technical model in the mines of Great Britain led to the National Union of Mine Workers implementing the model in the U.S. mines in Durham, North Carolina, and Pennsylvania. The implementation was met with success as productivity increased and rates of absenteeism and accidents were lowered (Eby, Sinoway, & Parisi, 2000).

Sweden also experimented with team-based organizations. In the Volvo factory at Kalmaar in Sweden, assembly lines gave way to work teams. Cars were transported on mechanical carriers to different work teams responsible for assembling various units or systems. The implementation of the team approach resulted in increased morale and improved work satisfaction (Wellins, Byham, & Wilson, 1991).

Meanwhile, Japan in deference to the suggestions of Dr. W. Edward Deming came up
with the concept of Quality Circles aimed at improving employee participation in the workplace (http://www.referenceforbusiness.com/small/Op-Qu/Quality-Circles.html). These Quality Circles were seen as the main reason behind Japan's success (Wellins, Byham, & Wilson, 1991).

These developments stirred widespread interest in team-based organizations in many industries in the United States. Teams seemed to be the best way to face competition from Japanese, Europeans and low wage third world producers and were also found to be the reason for Japan’s increase in productivity. Though employee involvement spread rapidly in Japan and Sweden, it took a while to establish itself in the United States. This was because considerable time and effort had to be expended to get the commitment of employee unions. (Hoerr, 1989).

The American involvement with team-based organizations began with the Quality of Work life movement in the early 1960s. Workers were asked for their suggestions as to how to make their jobs easier and more pleasant. Though this style of management improved the morale of the workers and their attitudes, they remained highly skeptical about it (Wellins, Byham, & Wilson, 1991).

In the late 1970s, Quality Circles modeled on their Japanese counterparts emerged on the American organizational horizon. These Quality Circles or problem-solving teams consisted of groups of five to twelve employees drawn from different areas who would work together on specific quality, productivity, and service problems. Though these Quality Circles provided a means to improve employee participation, they did not provide employees the power to make decisions or implement them.
Moreover, they were temporary in nature (Wellins, Byham, & Wilson, 1991).

In the early 1980s, Japanese style Quality Circles gave way to more empowered teams called Special Purpose Teams, which had duties like designing and introducing work reform and new technology. The emergence of these teams created an atmosphere conducive for quality and productivity improvements to take place. They also created the foundation for the emergence of Self-Managing Work Teams. Though Self-Managing Work Teams were used by a few companies in the 1960s and 1970s, they became popular from the mid to the late 1980s. These teams consisted of five to fifteen employees who produced an entire product instead of parts of it. Members were trained on the entire task of producing the product as job rotation was a prominent feature of these teams (Hoerr, 1989). Managerial duties such as work and vacation scheduling, planning, controlling and improving the work processes, goal-setting, problem-solving, preparing budgets, coordinating with other departments, ordering materials, training and hiring new members were taken over by these teams (Hoerr, 1989; Wellins, Byham, & Wilson, 1991; Shonk, 1982). These teams gave employees more control over their jobs and made the organization more flat by eliminating supervisory roles (Hoerr, 1989).

Some of the early adopters of team-based organizations were Proctor and Gamble, 1962; Cumins Engine, 1973; General Motors, 1975; Digital Equipment, 1982; Ford, 1982; Tek Tronics, 1983; Champion International, 1985; General Electric, 1985; LTV Steel, 1985; Catepillar, 1986; A.O. Smith, 1987; and Boeing, 1987 (Hoerr, 1989). Team-based organizing has now become a very common feature of the work place as
more and more organizations are adopting this form of organization by bestowing varying degrees of autonomy. According to Wellins, Byham, and Wilson (1991), the movement toward teams is due to the following reasons:

1. Organizing around teams results in improved quality, productivity, and service.
2. Teams provide greater flexibility for organizations to respond to the needs of customers and the changing market place.
3. Teams reduce operating costs as organizations become flatter as result of their adoption.
4. Organizing around teams results in a faster response to technological change as they provide the communication links and the responsiveness necessary to make advanced technology work.
5. Teams lead to fewer and simpler job classifications as jobs are rotated and employees perform several functions.
6. Teams are in tune with new worker values like responsibility, autonomy, and empowerment.
7. Teams have the ability to attract and retain the best people.

Shonk (1992) cites the following reasons for the growing popularity of team-based organizations:

1. Teams help in empowering employees to contribute more fully and in increasing organizational productivity.
2. Teams provide the flexibility to respond to growing market place demands, changes in business environment, foreign competition, and contractions and
expansions of the economy.

3. Teams help in improving coordination within the organization.

4. Teams result in employee satisfaction and development.

Rees (1991) is of the view that the movement toward team-based organization is because companies are discovering that teams are more responsive to the demands of the market place than traditional structures. The movement toward teams also occurs because participative management is ethically important. Sashkin (1984) is of the view that participative management is an ethical imperative and that the failure to indulge in participative style of management is ethically unjustifiable. He argues that participative management helps in improving performance, productivity, and employee satisfaction by fulfilling the three basic work needs of autonomy, meaningful work, and interpersonal and task relevant contacts. He adds that failure to satisfy these three needs is psychologically and physiologically harmful to employees.

Therefore, improved quality, productivity, flexibility, cost reduction, employee satisfaction through increased autonomy and empowerment are some of the reasons behind the growing popularity of team-based organizations. Now there exists a need to focus attention on the characteristics that are required for teams to be effective, as the reasons for the growing popularity of work teams have been discussed.

**Characteristics of effective teams**

According to C. C. Manz, Neck, Mancuso, and K. P. Manz (1997), the best teams are the ones that have capable and committed team members combining their skills
and knowledge for the good of the team. They are of the view that "the key to the success of teams lies in the creation of synergy" (p.4).

According to Larson and LaFasto (1989), a clear elevating goal, clear roles, accountabilities, an effective communication system that provides for easy accessibility to information from credible sources, a system for providing feedback, and an emphasis on fact-based judgments are required for effective team performance. In addition to these requirements, they are also of the view that there should also be a tendency among team members to collaborate effectively. They also add that the success of a team depends on the presence of people with the right kind of skills and abilities who are willing to contribute and collaborate effectively. LaFasto and Larson (2002) say that effective teams are characterized by working knowledge, which includes experience, productive problem-solving ability, and teamwork which includes openness, supportiveness, action-orientation, and positive personal style. According to Sundstrom, Demeuse, and Futrell (1990), member satisfaction, participation, willingness to continue to work together, cohesion, inter-member coordination, mature communication and problem-solving capabilities, and clear norms and roles are some of the factors that contribute to the effectiveness of teams.

Cannon-Bowers, Tannenbaum, Salas, & Volpe (1995) have listed the knowledge, skill, and attitude competencies required by team members. Knowledge competencies required include accurate shared mental models; an understanding of the nature of team work and teamwork skills; knowledge of overall team goals,
objectives, and mission; knowledge about boundary spanning; knowledge about fellow team members’ roles and responsibilities; and cue-association strategies (the association of cues in the environment to appropriate coordination strategies). Skill competencies include adaptability, shared situational awareness, performance monitoring and feedback, shared leadership/team management skills, interpersonal skills, coordination skills, communication skills, and decision-making skills. Attitude competencies include attitude toward teamwork and the team concept, collective orientation, collective efficacy, cohesion, mutual trust, and a shared vision. Though all these competencies are important for teamwork, Cannon-Bowers et al. feel that their relative importance and the feasibility of developing them will be influenced by the nature of the task, the team, and the environment in which the team operates. Hence, they have classified these competencies into context-driven competencies, team-contingent competencies, task-contingent competencies, and transportable competencies.

From the literature reviewed above, we can conclude that teamwork requires the development of effective task and transactional relationships. A noteworthy point is that most of these task and relationship competencies either contribute toward effective team communication or are the result of effective team communication. Thus communication is the life blood of effective team performance. This leads one to ponder: In spite of the fact that the concept called “team” is endowed with superior characteristics or competencies, why is it that teams in reality often come up with less than desirable results?
Reasons for ineffective team performance

According to Larson and LaFasto (1989), teams perform ineffectively because they focus their attention on issues of lesser significance rather than the goal or the objective to be achieved. These include issues relating to matters of control as to who is in charge, political issues like anxiety about the response of other team members to a particular course of action, and self-serving interests of team members to obtain personal advantages to protect themselves. They also add that complexity of the problem to be solved, and the intense and constant concentration involved in the degree of collaboration called forth by problem-solving strategies can also lead to a loss of focus on the goal.

Eisenstat (1990) in a study of a team that was given the responsibility of managing and designing the organizational design of a startup plant manufacturing air conditioners found that lack of clear direction, complexity of the task coupled with inexperience of the members, lack of trust and openness, lack of a clear agenda for discussion during meetings, difficulty in managing interpersonal conflicts, and unclear group norms were some of the factors that led to ineffective performance of the team. Kayes (2004) in a study of mountain expedition teams of 1996 that had intended to scale Mount Everest found that narrowly defined purpose, directive leadership that inhibited the ability of team members to respond to changing circumstances, and failure to sense ill-defined problems led to the disaster resulting in the death of some of the climbers.

Helmreich and Schahfer (1994) in a study of operating room team performances of a
European Teaching hospital found that lack of proper communication, lack of coordination, ineffective decision-making, and interpersonal conflicts, which were unresolved, were some of the factors which led to poor performance of teams in the operating room. Specifically, some of the factors that impaired team performance in the operating room included: surgeons failure to inform the anesthetist of a drug having an effect on blood pressure; consultants scheduling the patient without informing the resident or the nursing staff on the team; lack of pre-operative briefings; failure of consultants to provide training to residents on the team; failure on the part of some team members to inform other team members of work load or patient problems; failure of team members to discuss alternative procedures and advocate each one's position; lack of planning in patient preparation; lack of debriefing after the operation; hostility and frustrations due to poor team coordination; and unresolved conflicts between surgeons and anesthetists.

Barker (1993), in a study of a small manufacturing company that transformed its style of management from the traditional bureaucratic style to one which comprised of self-managing teams, found that the values that the teams had drawn from the common vision of the organization became norms that regulated the behaviors of the members. These norms later became rules, which were enforced by the team as a whole. The control exercised by the team on its members was so powerful that at times the worth and dignity of an individual was compromised, and the system itself became quite inflexible. Thus concerted control, rather than freeing workers from the iron cage of rules, entrapped them in a new one.
Cohen (1990) studied the case of a top management team that was set up to turn around a hospital (an inpatient facility for disturbed teenagers), which had lost its accreditation. The team under the leadership of the superintendent had succeeded in getting the accreditation and bringing the hospital back on track. The team, because of the crisis it was confronted with, allowed itself to be led by the autocratic style of the leader. However once the crisis was resolved, developmental issues which arose called forth a highly participative form of management. The team members remained passive and continued to rely on the leader, and the leader continued with her autocratic ways. She structured all meetings, introduced the agenda, and forcefully argued her position. At times, she made decisions by herself without any input from others on the team. This prevented the team from becoming empowered. During the meetings the team members responded more to the leader than to each other. Thus, the style of management was a hub and spokes style. It was after a change in membership (replacement of a clinical director) that the team became more participative. Cohen also adds that this did not mean that the team became highly participative. It still possessed some of its old ways of functioning with the leader continuing to be autocratic.

Davis Sacks (1990) studied a credit analysis team (set up to prepare a series of reports on the credit programs in the federal budget and their impact on the national debt) that did not meet the deadline for submitting the final report. This was in spite of the fact that the team had highly competent members. The internal process problems that the team faced alienated the members and incapacitated it. The
autocratic behavior of the leader mainly created the problems. The team was
supposed to be a self-managing team, but the leader prevented it from becoming
empowered through her autocratic ways. The decisions that were made were not
through a team effort. The team members never collaborated or coordinated with
each other, rather they worked under the direct supervision of the team leader. The
channel of communication was directly through her as she would not tolerate the
group members coordinating the work or directly dealing with the client. Hence,
synergy never operated in the team and it did not utilize the expertise of its members
effectively.

Davis Sacks (1990) says that these problems were intensified because the team
members were never clear on the definition of the team that was formed. On the one
hand, the head of the agency wanted the team to operate as a self-managing team in
accordance with the tradition of the branch. The team leader, on the other hand,
because of her relatively junior status in the organization and her sudden elevation to
power preferred a hub and spokes style of functioning. The project was very
challenging to the team members and they had the desire to fully contribute their
expertise. This would not be possible, if they chose to be under the preferred style of
functioning of the leader. To override her preferred style by making an effort toward
empowerment, the team members feared they would antagonize her. This created
confusion among the team members and finally resulted in the team being ineffective.

The consultant felt that the leader should have realized that her mode of operation
was not in accordance with the history of the branch and should have altered it to
adapt to the context, or she should have informed the team of her preferred style of operation as it was contrary to the tradition of the branch. This would have sparked off some debate as to the rationale for such a mode of operation and the team could have succeeded in making the leader change some of her ways of managing even while she retained some authority as the head.

**Challenges posed by diversity**

Most of the problems that teams encounter are often intensified by the diversity factor. Though diversity has certain advantages, in terms of the diverse perspectives to the process of decision-making that it offers, it also has the potential to be an impediment. Diversity arises on account of the differences in culture (includes both race as well as ethnicity), gender, age, differences in expertise, organizational affiliation (inter-departmental teams and inter-organizational teams consisting of suppliers and manufacturers) and many other personal characteristics (Jackson, May, & Whitney, 1995). The demographics of U.S. labor force indicate that it is highly diverse. The current statistics provided by the U.S. department of labor indicate that the percentage of women in the civilian labor force is 46.41%. In terms of the different races, Whites constitute 82.14%, Blacks constitute 11.29%, and Asians constitute 0.043%. These work force demographics have resulted in increasing the diversity of work teams (Jackson, May, & Whitney, 1995).

As U.S. corporations are expanding overseas to withstand competition, they are finding themselves in an increasingly inter-cultural environment. Cultures differ in their attitudes, values, and beliefs. Specifically, cultures differ from one another in
terms of power distance, individualism-collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity and femininity (Hofstede, 1983). These differences affect the attitude toward the dimensions of face, perceptions of trust, attitude toward conflict, and conflict management styles (Ting-Toomey, 1985; Ting-Toomey et al., 1991; L. B. Nadler, M. K. Nadler, & Brome, 1985).

Porter (1997) in a study of cross cultural teams found that though team members appreciated the fact that cultural diversity within the team brought in diverse perspectives, perceptions as to the constituents of the concept “trust” differed among members of different cultures. She cites that for instance, for the Germans trust resided in information. On the contrary for people from the United States, trust resided in the person as symbolized by his or her credibility. The Japanese found it difficult to trust the Americans because of their lack of interest in participating in lengthy and detail-oriented discussions.

The differences arising out of diversity also lead to the emergence of stereotypes and biases. According to Jackson, May, & Whitney (1995), when attitude dissimilarity is perceived, it evokes a negative affective response. According to them, team members interact more closely with those whom they perceive as similar in attitudes, values and beliefs and, they tend to interact less with those whom they perceive as being dissimilar to them.

Zenger, and Lawrence (1989), found that a relationship existed between age, tenure distribution, and frequency of technical communication in project teams. Saavedra (1990) in a study of a high performance and a low performance team in a
beer company found that the latter was more heterogeneous when compared to the former. The team had four young men and four older men. The young men were a closely knit group and were highly enthusiastic and energetic, and spent a lot of time with each other. The older men were more task-oriented, valued job security, and liked to spend time with their families. The younger men looked upon their older counterparts with less favor and said that they would feel little remorse if the older members were to be replaced. The team leader also favored the younger men and said that he would gladly replace the older men with younger men. The older men also felt that the leader was partial to the younger men on the team.

According to Jackson, May, & Whitney (1995), the perception of differences also leads to status assignments with high status team members displaying more assertive nonverbal behavior during communication; speaking, criticizing and interrupting more often; and stating more commands than low status members. Silver, Troyer, and Cohen (2000) in a study of a team involved in the design phase of the construction of a new $100,000,000 corporate facility of a fortune 500 company found that status hierarchy arising from the managerial rank held by some members had a profound influence on the information exchange within the team as the high status members dominated the information exchange process. The team consisted of employees from various divisions within the corporation for which the facility was being constructed, and employees from architectural, engineering, and construction companies who were serving as consultants to the corporation on the particular project.
Therefore, the formation of in-groups and status hierarchies could lead to underutilization of the resources of the team, inappropriate assignment of roles and responsibilities, and the potential for conflicts and misunderstandings (Jackson, May, & Whitney, 1995). In such circumstances, developing a sense of cohesiveness by relegating differences and self-interest to the background could lead to effective team performance.

Challenges posed by homogeneity

An intense sense of identification with the team can have its disadvantages as it has the potential to lead the group to come up with less than desirable results. This is mainly because of the phenomenon called “GroupThink,” which leads to an overestimation of the power and morality of the group. This according to Janis (1982) is depicted in the form of illusion of invulnerability, closed-mindedness, and pressures toward uniformity. The consequences of groupthink, he says, are an incomplete examination of all the available alternatives and objectives, failure to examine the risks associated with the preferred choice, failure to reexamine the alternatives that were initially rejected, inadequate information search, selective bias in information processing and failure to develop contingency plans. Janis says that the group think syndrome may have operated in a host of political decisions with disastrous consequences like the Bay of Pigs invasion plan, President Truman’s and his team’s decision to invade North Korea, and the lack of vigilance over Pearl Harbor even in face of mounting Japanese threats.

Manz, and Sims (1982) found that symptoms of group think appear in the decision-
making practices of autonomous work groups. They describe autonomous work groups as groups where members are responsible for managing the activities like problem-solving, technical adjustments, etc., have a high level of interaction and depend on the support of each other to achieve the goals and objectives. On observation, they found that direct pressure, illusion of unanimity, self-censorship, collective rationalization, and shared stereotypes impaired the decision-making capability of the autonomous work groups. According to Gouran, Hirokawa, and Martz (1986), the perceived pressure to produce a desired recommendation, apparent unwillingness by the parties to violate perceived role boundaries, questionable patterns of reasoning by key managers, ambiguous and misleading use of language that minimized the perception of risk, and frequent failure to ask important questions relevant to the task led to the failure of the decision-making process resulting in the Challenger disaster.

**Team training**

Training can play a major role in helping teams acquire the requisite skills necessary for successful functioning. Helmreich and Scahaefer (1994) have pointed out that the solution to human errors is usually found through the use of technology. This, however, is not a very effective solution. They advocate human solutions to human problems as they may be more effective and less costly. Training is one of the tools of intervention that they advocate for increasing team effectiveness. Training, according to them, will be effective in solving most of the problems as they are due to lack of communication, ineffective decision-making, and interpersonal conflicts. In
view of the possibility of group think, Manz and Sims (1982) advocate the implementation of training programs to improve decision-making skills and increase the knowledge regarding the potential hazards associated with group think. According to Letize and Donovan (1990), fears, concerns, and uncertainties that supervisors have concerning their new roles in team-based organizations could be overcome through training.

**Objective of the study**

The literature reviewed has clearly shown that teamwork requires the development of effective task and transactional relationships. Moreover, it has also thrown light on the fact that heterogeneity and homogeneity need to be managed effectively, if the benefits they offer are to be reaped. The fact that training can play a major role in helping teams acquire the skills necessary for effective team communication (which ensures the achievement of the goals of the team) has also been emphasized. In this way, the enquiry has attempted to answer the following questions:

- What do scholars and organizational consultants prescribe for team leaders to ensure effective team communication so that the goals of the team are achieved?
- What do scholars and organizational consultants prescribe for team members to ensure effective team communication so that the goals of the team are achieved?

The prescriptions refer to the precedents that set the stage for effective communication and the ingredients of effective team communication.
• In light of the prescriptions of scholars and organizational consultants, what could be an appropriate approach to a model of training for team leaders?

• In light of the prescriptions of scholars and organizational consultants, what could be an appropriate approach to a model of training for team members?
Chapter 3

Methodology

Documentary research was used to select literature pertaining to team communication with respect to team leaders and team members. The sources of documentary research were mainly printed material consisting of books, journals and proceedings of conferences. A book, according to Hocking, Stacks, and McDermott (2003), "can present an in-depth analysis of its topic, provide a rich historical perspective and a clearly developed theoretical perspective" (p. 87). Journals, according to them, are produced by professional organizations and their contents represent the ideas and interests of these organizations. This method was used to collect information considering the fact that information collected through this method would be credible. Most of the matter that is found in books, journals, and conference proceedings has been subjected to peer-review and criticism. Moreover, information collected through this method could become the basis for a future study, intended at assessing the status of team training programs.

Books, journals, and conference proceedings used for the study were mainly from the areas of Sociology, Psychology and Management with contributing authors being also affiliated to other disciplines like Communication. They were evaluated for their scholarly quality in terms of affiliations of the authors, and the extent of research that went into the works. The affiliations of the authors were assessed in terms of whether they were organizational consultants or researchers attached to universities. The extent of research that went into the creation of the book or the article was assessed in
terms of the methodology, the contents of the index, the footnotes, and the bibliographies (R. B. Rubin, A. M. Rubin, & L. J. Piele, 2005).

Databases like University library catalog, World Cat, PsychInfo, Proquest, Eric, Ebsco, and ABI Inform were used for searching books and journals. Search terms like ‘team communication’, ‘teams in work place’, ‘teams in organizations’, ‘cultural teams’, ‘effective team work’, etc were used for locating books and articles relating to prescriptions for effective team communication. Search terms like ‘needs analysis’, ‘training and needs analysis’ were used for locating sources relating to needs assessment. Bibliographies appended at the end of books and articles also served as important sources of information for locating books, journals, and conference proceedings relevant to this study.

The prescriptions for team leaders and team members have been categorized into generic studies and context-specific studies. Based on the conclusions drawn from these prescriptions, a model of team training for team leaders and team members has been suggested. In spite of the fact that this methodology yielded rich theoretical information, limitation in terms of the length of time required for the study (which prevented an extensive review of the field of team communication) existed. Moreover, obtaining literature relevant to the enquiry depended much on the search terms that were used.
Chapter 4

Bibliographic study pertaining to team leader and team member communication

Prescriptions for team leaders for ensuring effective team communication

The studies concerning the prescriptions for team leaders are categorized into the following divisions: Generic Leadership studies and Context-Specific Leadership Studies. The Generic Leadership Studies are divided into views that focus on orientation toward the achievement of the goal and performance management, creation of a collaborative climate, participative style of functioning and a supportive decision-making climate, and modeling behaviors. Context-Specific leadership studies are divided into Developmental Stage-Specific Leadership Studies and Situation-Specific Leadership Studies.

Generic leadership studies

Orientation toward the achievement of goal and performance management: Team leaders, in order to ensure effective team communication, should indulge in the following kinds of behaviors: communicate an inspiring vision and goal (Bultler, Cantell & Flick, 1999; Gillespie & Mann, 2004); clearly define the goal, and articulate it in a manner that inspires passion and commitment, (LaFasto & Larson, 2002); exhibit a sense of personal commitment to the goals and objectives of the team and help team members understand the importance of their contribution to the achievement of the goal (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); set priorities, ensure that too many priorities do not dilute the team’s effort, communicate and reinforce a focus on priorities, be flexible to changing priorities, if the situation calls for that (LaFasto &
Larson, 2002); provide information (Kennedy, 2003; Larson & LaFasto, 1989; Zaccaro, Ritmann & Marks, 2001); demonstrate sufficient technical know-how and be well versed with the tasks of the team (McIntyre & Salas, 1995; Perkins & Abramis, 1990); clearly specify member roles (Zaccaro, Ritmann & Marks, 2001); facilitate and offer advice in team problem-solving (Leitze & Donovan, 1990; Sims & Manz, 1994; Stoker & Remdisch, 1997); facilitate planning (Sims & Manz, 1994); discuss task and performance strategies that require coordination (Ginnet, 1990); create constructive thought patterns within the team (Manz & Sims, 1991); help create shared mental models by creating an accurate understanding among team members about the operating environment and how as team they need to respond and readjust team members’ actions in accordance with the changes in the environment (Zaccaro, Ritmann & Marks, 2001); develop awareness within the team about the need to discipline itself and the rules and norms that can have an adverse impact on its performance (Barker, 1996); encourage the setting of performance goals, and self evaluation (Barker, 1996; Manz & Sims, 1984); exhibit the willingness to confront and resolve inadequate performance issues (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); make performance expectations clear by specifying clear performance objectives and standards, confront and resolve performance issues in a constructive manner, encourage team members to agree on a set of values that guides performance, ensure that rewards and incentives are aligned with the achievement of the team’s goals (LaFasto & Larson, 2002); remedy implementation problems (Hackman, 1990); monitor and provide constructive feedback (LaFasto & Larson, 2002; Zaccaro,
Team communication and training

Rittman, & Marks, 2001); ensure that measures exist for evaluating team performance and help the team become focused on creating and implementing its own systems of monitoring (Barker, 1996); focus on team performance more than individual performance and view performance problems as team problems that require team solution (Kinlaw, 1998); provide the team with help in setting improvement goals (Leitze & Donovan, 1990); provide performance feedback (Freidman, 1990; Leitze & Donovan, 1990; Zaccaro, Rittmann & Marks, 2001); provide recognition for team achievements (Freidman, 1990; Leitze & Donovan, 1990); encourage team self-management through self-observation, self-evaluation, and self-reinforcement (Manz & Sims, 1987); define the boundaries of the team (Ginnet, 1990); represent the team in the larger organization (McIntyre & Salas, 1995; Perkins & Abramis, 1990); and align the goals of the team with the goals of the organization (Leitze & Donovan, 1990; Kennedy, 2003).

Thus, effective team communication requires that team leaders be goal oriented, help team members develop a sense of goal-orientation, adopt an effective system of priority setting and management, facilitate task performance by helping team members develop effective task relationships and competencies, help the team to develop an effective performance management system, and represent and define the team in the organizational context.

Creation of a collaborative climate: Team leaders, in order to ensure effective team communication, should indulge in the following kinds of behaviors: ensure that political issues do not interfere with the working of the team (Larson &
LaFasto, 1989; LaFasto & Larson, 2002; specify expectations regarding the need for collaborative behaviors and reward collaborative behaviors (LaFasto & Larson, 2002); display a sense of fairness and impartiality and develop a safe communicative environment, where people can freely express their views (Larson, & LaFasto, 1989); encourage open discussion of problems within the team (Savaadra, 1990); avoid the tendency to cut off team members during a discussion (LaFasto & Larson, 2002); (LaFasto & Larson, 2002); facilitate the creation of an atmosphere of mutual trust and understanding (Butler, Cantrell & Flick, 1999; Gillespie & Mann, 2004; Korsgaard, Schweiger & Sapienza, 1995; Manz, & Sims, 1984); provide honest feedback (Manz, & Sims, 1984); ensure that the rules and norms that have been established have not become oppressive, and if they have become oppressive, facilitate corrective action and reach a consensus on the values and norms that are applicable in disciplinary situations and ensure that the team carefully exercises the power that has been bestowed on it (Barker, 1996); prevent the development of the feeling within the team that the team is being deluded or tricked into a decision and avoid the tendency to prescribe the taste and style of team members and be critical in a negative manner (LaFasto & Larson, 2002); and facilitate conflict resolution within the team (Manz, & Sims, 1984).

Therefore team leaders, in order to ensure effective team communication, should prevent the emergence of dysfunctional conflict; specify the need for collaborative behaviors; facilitate collaboration by creating the appropriate atmosphere, and setting values and norms that promote collaboration; and facilitate conflict resolution.
Participative style of functioning and supportive decision-making climate: Team leaders, in order to ensure effective team communication, should indulge in the following kinds of behaviors: help the team to solve problems on its own by encouraging it to come up with its own solution (Manz & Sims, 1984); encourage team members to put forth new ideas and information required for the achievement of the goal of the team (Korsgaard, Schweiger & Sapienza, 1995; Larson & LaFasto, 1989; Saavedra, 1990; Stoker & Remdisch, 1997); avoid the tendency to be highly-control oriented and autocratic (LaFasto & Larson, 2002; Saavedra, 1990); give team members the opportunity to influence the design and performance of their work (Kennedy, 2003; Kinlaw, 1998); encourage team members to take risks, make choices, and work toward the success of the team (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); encourage team members to scrutinize and challenge decisions, let the team manage both the task and the interpersonal relationships and perform the role of a coordinator and moderator of team discussions (Saavedra, 1990); remedy inappropriate weighing of member inputs (Hackman, 1990; LaFasto & Larson, 2002); strive to involve all team members by ensuring that opportunities exist for the involvement of all team members (Kinlaw, 1998); and give people the opportunity to exhibit their competencies, and provide the required support (Perkins & Abramis, 1990; Stoker & Remdisch, 1997).

Hence, team leaders, in order to ensure effective team communication, should allow the team to manage its activities, encourage team members to participate in decision-making and problem solving, provide opportunities for each team member to
contribute towards the activities of the team and challenge the decisions made by the team, and provide a supportive decision-making that encourages risk taking and choice making.

Modeling behaviors: Team leaders in order to ensure effective team communication should indulge in the following kinds of behaviors: communicate and model important values (Gillespie & Mann, 2004); model the kind of behaviors that are expected from team members (Gillespie & Mann, 2004; McIntyre and Salas, 1995); model self-leadership behaviors like self-observation, self-goal setting, cue-management, rehearsal, self-reward, and constructive self-punishment; engage in providing and accepting feedback (Manz & Sims, 1987; Manz & Sims, 1991; Sims & Mann, 1984); and exhibit willingness to indulge in self-correction when pointed out by other team members (McIntyre & Salas, 1995).

Thus, team leaders, in order to ensure effective team communication, should model behaviors that demonstrate self-leadership, adherence to important values, willingness to accept and receive feedback, and self-correction.

Context specific leadership studies

Developmental stage-specific leadership studies

Team leaders in order to ensure effective team communication should adapt their behaviors according to the developmental stage of the team. Stewart and Manz (1995) proposed that on the one hand, self-managing teams with active autocratic leaders or passive autocratic leaders may fail to improve quality, productivity, and team member morale. On the other hand, self-managing teams with passive-
democratic leaders will be highly self-regulated and will exhibit long term improvements in quality, productivity, and employee morale. They, however, suggest that early stage of team development requires active forms of democratic leadership where the leader actively involves himself in the activities of the team.

Yun, Faraj, Xiao, and Sims (2003), in a study of a trauma resuscitation team found that both directive and empowering relations were preferred, depending on the situation or the context. A trauma resuscitation team is a cross functional team comprising of individuals possessing diverse expertise and professional affiliations like surgeons (who are usually the team leaders), anesthesiologists, medical residents, TRV nurses, and TRV technicians (p.192). Yun et al. say that when the team was inexperienced or when the patient was severely injured, directive leadership was preferred as empowering leadership could result in treatment taking a longer time. The team members may also become stressed or overwhelmed and may indulge in inappropriate use of the team’s resources and faulty decision-making (especially if they are inexperienced). This could be hazardous to the patient. Yun et al. also say that when the team members were more experienced, empowering leadership was preferred when compared to directive leadership. This was because team leader could benefit from other specialists on the team, and provide team members with the opportunity to learn how to lead the process of trauma resuscitation. In addition, they say that an empowering opportunity was expected to be highly motivating as the team was comprised of professionals who had a high level of professionalism and need for autonomy.
Glaser (1991) presents a model of self-managing team development. The model states that there should be a movement from dependence on the leader to a stage where the team is capable of leading itself. The model suggests that as the team passes through the various stages of development from the undeveloped to the traditional, to the self-managing, the leader or the facilitator should transform himself from a traditional leader who is highly directive to an enlightened leader and finally to a super leader who helps others to lead themselves. Specifically the model states that in the first stage of team development or "settling in" the leader should plan direct, and control the group. In the second stage of team development or "opening up", the facilitator or leader should work like a coach or a counselor and create a climate of dialogue within the team. Discussion regarding the rationale behind policies and procedures and group feedback should be encouraged by the leader. This would in turn create an open communication climate among the team members, and between the leader and the team members. In the third stage called "participating and reflecting", the leader/facilitator should create learning opportunities and situations for the team that involves problem-solving, decision-making and critical reflection. This would in turn lead to the development of self-efficacy and self-confidence among team members. The fourth and the final stage is called "transforming" where the leader relinquishes his control over the team and behaves like a super leader modeling self-leadership and facilitating a culture of self-leadership. The leader at this stage helps the team to pose relevant questions and arrive at solutions or answers on its own. This in turn facilitates self-governance. Glaser suggests that before the
leader applies this model to the development of the team, he or she should consider
the length of time the team has worked as a self-managing team and the experience of
the group with regard to a particular task.

According to Kozolowski, Gully, Salas and Cannon-Bowers (1996), the leader
should vary his or her behavior in accordance with the developmental stage of the
team. They are of the view that at the time of formation, the team is just a collection
of individuals and is not a real team. Therefore the team leader, at this stage, should
play the role of a mentor as the team members at this stage of development seek
information, structure, and guidance from the leader to reduce social ambiguity; to
learn about the skills, abilities, attitudes, and goals of other team members; and to
understand the goals of the team and their role in the team. To effectively facilitate
this process Kozolowski et al. suggests that the leader should engage in the following
behaviors: facilitate the inclusion and acceptance of new team members; facilitate an
open discussion of acceptable behaviors, attitudes, values, rules, regulations, and
behavioral norms; create informal opportunities for open communication; provide
information regarding the extent and types of self-disclosure; promote shared
perception of an open communication climate by modeling appropriate behaviors;
model behaviors that demonstrate commitment to the goals of the team, engage
proactively in providing functional task information and role clarification, and
promote discussions regarding teams goals and objectives; specify the role of the
team in the organizational context and the accepted performance standards; ensure
that consensus exists on team goals and performance standards; clarify the kind of
influence that team members need to exert on one another so as to create a shared sense of team climate; and develop an awareness among team members regarding the need for a sense of shared responsibility in matters relating to team performance.

Kozolowski et al. (1996) says that with the social structure of the team in place, the team moves on to the developmental stage, where concentration is focused on the task. They suggest that the team leader, at this stage, should perform the role of an instructor and help team members gain mastery over their individual tasks and develop self-efficacy. This can be done, according to Kozolowski et al., by indulging in the following behaviors: setting specific learning goals intended to make use of the unused or underutilized skills of individual team members; providing constructive positive feedback to team members who are engaged in the process of developing the required skills; indulging in diagnosis and providing process feedback for the team as a whole for improving future performance; planning instructional experiences in such a way that the tasks that are entrusted to team members are not complex and will enable them to be successful and will help them to develop self-efficacy; providing opportunities for team members to observe the successful working of others on the team; providing equal opportunity for acquiring and practicing the required skills; and educating team members on the objectives of the learning cycle rather than on the superficial aspects of the task.

According to Kozolowski et al. (1996), once the team members have acquired the skills necessary for effective task performance and have developed the required self-efficacy, the focus of attention of the leader should turn to the development of
teamwork skills. He or she should play the role of a coach. This involves, according to Kozolowski et al., helping team members develop an awareness regarding their interdependencies, which leads to the development of shared mental models; develop competencies such as mutual performance monitoring, error detection, load balancing, and coordination; and develop team efficacy or task confidence in the team. This process, they believe, can be facilitated by indulging in the following behaviors: specifying and setting learning goals for team work skills that incorporate skills in coordination such as mutual performance monitoring, error detection, load balancing, resource sharing, etc.; providing an awareness regarding complicated interdependencies, and role relationships; creating opportunities for the acquisition of teamwork skills in an environment where the cost of making mistakes is low, diagnosing and proactively setting attainable goals that will facilitate performance in complex and stressful situations; diagnosing and providing process feedback on the skills in teamwork that the team has acquired and providing recommendations for improving performance in the future.

Once the team has gained efficacy in terms of team work skills, Kozolowski et al. says that the role of a leader becomes that of a facilitator who helps the team in making best use of the skills that have been acquired in the previous stages of development. In other words, the leader facilitates self-regulation and self-management. This process according to them can be facilitated by indulging in the following types of behaviors: working with the team in deciding long term objectives so as to allocate the resources in accordance with the priorities; working with team to
decide on how best to match people with the available resources so as to ensure effective task performance; determining additional needs for mentoring, instructing, or coaching so as to maximize the utilization of resources; discussing and clarifying team objectives (when task loads are at a minimum); ensuring that consensus exists on the team’s objectives and members understand these objectives; working with the team to identify key sub-goals; defining situational contingencies that can alter the sub-goals and formulating alternative strategies; ensuring that a consensus exists on the kind of strategy that needs to be used in situational contingencies; providing situation assessment updates to team members so as to create a shared perspective about the team’s performance and the strategy for adapting to a changing team environment; providing information regarding future events; redistributing tasks so as to equalize workload among team members when workloads exceed the capacity of the team members to effectively reallocate the tasks; redefining task objectives and roles of team members in the face of unexpected contingencies; setting aside moments of reflection and learning especially when task loads are low; encouraging reevaluation of the strategies that have been used in the past and past performance of the team with aim of improving in the future; assisting the team in diagnosing individual skill and teamwork competencies and adorning the role of a mentor, instructor, and coach when necessary; and using reassessment information for planning for the future, situation assessment updates, and for redefinition of the task or the team.

The developmental-stage specific leadership studies point out that early stages of
Team development require the leader to indulge in active leadership. This involves instructing team members in various aspects of task performance and teamwork. As the team moves from one stage of development to the other, the leader should reduce his degree of intervention and bestow the team with the appropriate level of autonomy.

**Situation-specific leadership studies**

According to Hill's (2001) model of leadership, the team leader should engage in either object mediation (monitoring) or action mediation (taking the appropriate action) depending on the circumstances. Hill says that if the process of monitoring reveals that the state of the team’s functioning is satisfactory, the leader should continue to engage in monitoring the internal and external environment of the team. If the process of monitoring reveals that the state of the team’s functioning is unsatisfactory, then the leader should engage in action-mediation. The leader should then decide whether the action needs to be taken at the internal or external level.

Hill (2001) says that internal task leadership functions involves goal focusing, which involves clarification and gaining commitment; planning, organizing, role clarification, and delegating; facilitating decision-making through informing, controlling, coordinating, mediating, synthesizing, and issue focusing; training team members in performing the task (which involves educating and developing them and maintaining standards of excellence through an evaluation of individual and team performance) and confronting performance issues.

Internal relationship leadership functions, according to Hill (2001), include
coaching team members in interpersonal skills, collaboration, managing conflict and power issues, building commitment and *esprit de corps*, attending to individual member needs, and modeling ethical and principled practices (fair, consistent, and normative).

External leadership functions, according to Hill (2001), involve networking and forming alliances in the environment to gather the required information; advocating for and representing the team in its external environment; negotiating upwards for securing resources, support, and recognition required for successful team functioning; cushioning team members from environmental jolts, assessing and sharing relevant environmental information with team members, etc.

Hill (2001) suggests that the leader, after deciding the level of intervention, should choose the kind of behavior that is most appropriate. However, Hill also adds that deciding on the level of intervention is a complicated issue. For instance, he says that infighting for control and power could be interpreted as an internal relationship problem due to the autocratic and authoritative behavior of a team member, an internal task problem arising from an inappropriate team structure and lack of clarity regarding roles and responsibilities, or an external environmental problem arising from the lack of autonomy for the team, leading to fighting among team members for whatever little power and control that exist. Hill suggests that the leader when confronted with such a situation should continue to monitor the situation without indulging in any immediate intervention and then decide the level at which he or she should intervene, which may include all the three levels depending on the situation.
According to Hackman and Walton (1986), a leader should engage in ensuring establishment and maintenance of favorable performance conditions. To successfully achieve this purpose, they suggest that he or she needs to engage in monitoring and taking action. Monitoring, according to them, involves diagnoses by raising questions like does the team have a clear and engaging direction? Are performance conditions satisfactory? It also involves forecasting about future opportunities and impediments that the team is likely to encounter. They also add that if on diagnosis the leader discovers that the team lacks a clear engaging direction, the leader should undertake to unearth the reason for it. Diagnosis regarding the performance conditions, according to them, involves an assessment of the team’s performance on the three process criteria of effectiveness—ample effort, sufficient knowledge and skill, and task appropriate performance strategy. If on diagnosis the leader finds that the team is not applying sufficient effort, Hackman and Walton suggest that he or she should probe further to find out whether the task is not motivating, and whether interaction or coordination problems exist among team members resulting in alienation or withdrawal of some of them.

With regard to process criteria of knowledge and skill, Hackman and Walton suggest (1986) suggest that the leader has to diagnose whether the knowledge and skill that is required for the performance of the tasks of the team are actually being employed. If not, the leader should probe further to find out whether it is the lack of knowledge (i.e. the knowledge of what needs to be done is lacking) or lack of skill (i.e. team members are aware of what needs to be done, but lack the required skills)
that is inhibiting performance. In addition, they also suggest that the leader should also focus attention on the composition of the team, the kind of organizational support that is available, and group dynamics (for instance, does demographic factors take precedence over task expertise; is there a lack of utilization of the expertise of all team members, etc).

With regard to performance strategies, Hackman and Walton (1986) suggest that the leader should diagnose to find out whether appropriate performance strategies relevant to the task and the situation are employed. If they are not employed, they suggest that the leader should probe further to find out whether limitations imposed by team norms exist, and whether adequate information and resources required for strategy planning are available. Once the assessment has been made, the leader, according to them, should take the necessary action to improve the state of affairs, exploit the opportunities that exist and prevent potential problems that are likely to arise in the future.

While exercising critical leadership functions, Hackman and Walton (1986) suggest that the time in the life of the group should be taken into consideration. They suggest following the five phases identified by Gerswick: first meeting, phase I or the learning or exploring phase with low productivity, midpoint transition, phase II or the most productive phase, and stage of completion.

During the first meeting, Hackman and Walton (1986) suggest that the leader can help the team understand task and boundary management, and develop norms that guide its behavior in the first stage of its life. The leader at this stage, according to
them, can collect diagnostic information relating to the problems and opportunities the group is likely to encounter. During phase I, they caution that the leader should not indulge in any sort of intervention as the team would be exploring and learning on its own through a trial and error method. During mid-point transition, they suggest that the leader along with team members can indulge in monitoring and forecasting by assessing the past performance, the current status, and the problems and opportunities the team is likely to encounter in the second part of its life cycle. Based on the data gathered, the leader should help the team indulge in practices like reflecting on the process difficulties that it has encountered, reaffirming and renegotiating its direction, assessing the appropriateness of norms, fine-tuning tasks, and finding out the resource needs of the future. During phase II as the team is focused on the task performance, they advise that the leader should spend time monitoring the progress of the group and providing the required process assistance and coaching. He or she, according to them, should also ensure that the team has the required organizational support and the resources necessary for the completion of the task). During the completion phase, Hackman and Walton say that the leader can help the group reflect on its past performance and learn from the reflection.

According to Lord and Engle (1996), during periods of cultural stability, the leader in mature self-managed work teams should indulge in monitoring and evaluating behaviors. This, according to them, involves recognizing discrepancies from existing standards and evaluating the appropriateness of such standards. Lord and Engle say that during periods of cultural change, the leader must build the new cultural schema
for team members and help them to operate according to the schema.

Kozolowski et al. (1996) cautions leaders that they need to take into account the task intensity, complexity, and work load when indulging in specific kinds of interventions. When the work load is low, Kozolowski et al. suggest that the leader provide the team with the necessary information and instruction. When the work load is high, they suggest that the leader should engage in the process of monitoring team performance.

The situation-specific leadership studies reviewed thus far point out that the leader should indulge in monitoring and taking action. Based on the results of monitoring, the leader should decide whether to intervene or not to intervene. If the results of the monitoring show that the performance of the team is unsatisfactory, the team leader should select the appropriate type of intervention. Monitoring should be carried out when the team is engaged in task performance and during periods of cultural stability. Intervention should be carried when the team is not actively engaged in task performance and during periods of cultural change.

Summary of the leadership studies

Generic Leadership Studies specifies in general the behaviors or roles team leaders should adopt. Context-Specific Leadership Studies adopt a process-oriented approach by specifying what the team leader should do in accordance with the stage of development of the team or the situation that confronts the team. The Context Specific Leadership Studies point out that while exercising critical leadership functions, the time in the life of the group or the team should be taken into
consideration. Integrating and synthesizing the literature surveyed under the Generic Leadership Studies and Context-Specific Leadership Studies, we can come to the conclusion that team leaders in order to ensure effective team communication should adorn the roles of model; mentor, instructor and coach; and facilitator in accordance with the demands of the task and the situation. Modeling behaviors are behaviors that are to be exercised during the entire life of the team. Mentoring, instructing, coaching, and facilitating behaviors are developmental stage-specific and situation-specific strategies. Mentoring, instructing, and coaching behaviors should generally be exhibited during the early stage of development of the team. However, if required, the leader should return to these practices even at a later stage of development of the team (Kozolowski, Gully, Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 1996). Facilitating behaviors are behaviors that are exhibited by the leader, once the team has gained self-efficacy.

**Prescriptions for team members for ensuring effective team communication**

The studies concerning the prescriptions for team members are categorized into the following divisions: Generic Studies and Context-Specific Studies. The Generic Studies are divided into studies that focus on orientation toward the achievement of the goal, and creation of a collaborative climate.

**Generic Studies**

*Orientation toward the goal:* Team members, in order to ensure, effective team communication should indulge in the following kinds of behaviors: create a common vision (Manz & Neck, 1995); exhibit willingness to expend whatever effort that is necessary for the success of the team (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); help establish
constructive beliefs and assumptions within the team (Manz & Neck, 1995; Neck & Manz, 1994); contribute fully in terms of knowledge and expertise (Danty & Kakabadse, 1992); demonstrate a realistic understanding of roles and accountabilities (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); share information (Larson & LaFasto, 1989; Milanovich, Salas, Cannon-Bowers, & Muniz, 2000; D. Tjosvold & M. T. Tjosvold, 1994; Tjosvold, 1995); contribute toward process improvement and indulge in problem-solving (Kennedy, 2003); indulge in closed-loop communication so as to ensure the accuracy of information (McIntyre & Salas, 1995); guide behavior on the basis of objective and fact-based judgments/indulge in rational decision-making (Larson & LaFasto, 1989; LaFasto & Larson, 2002; G. Lumsden & D. Lumsden, 2000; D. Tjosvold & M. T. Tjosvold, 1994); use high quality reasoning (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); discuss collective doubts (C. C. Manz, Neck, Mancuso, & K. P. Manz, 1997); exhibit courage of conviction by confronting issues (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); present opposing points of view (Larson & LaFasto, 1989; & Manz & Neck, 1995); indulge in critical evaluation (Neck & Manz, 1994); perform leadership behaviors in ways that contribute to team success (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); encourage the participation of team members from diverse backgrounds who differ in expertise, opinions, outlooks, and organizational positions (Flory, 1998; LaFasto & Larson, 2002; D. Tjosvold & M. M. Tjosvold, 1995); take into account non-stereotypical views (Manz & Neck, 1995); consult diverse sources so as to help the team decide on an effective course of action (D. Tjosvold & M. M. Tjosvold, 1995); adapt strategies to meet the requirements of the task (Blickensdorfer, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas,
and display situation awareness (Milanovich, Salas, Cannon-Bowers, & Muniz, 2000).

Thus, team members, in order to ensure effective team communication, should be task-oriented and goal-oriented and perform leadership behaviors in ways that contribute to team success; indulge in rational decision-making and critical evaluation coupled with the willingness to confront issues; take into account non-stereotypical and diverse points of view; and display situation awareness.

Creation of a collaborative climate: Team members, in order to ensure effective team communication, should indulge in the following kinds of behaviors: prioritize team goal above the individual goal (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); offer required and appropriate help and support to each other (Larson & LaFasto, 1989; Milanovich, Salas, Cannon-Bowers, & Muniz, 2000; Parker, 1990), demonstrate support for team decisions (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); exhibit constructive response to feedback (Larson & LaFasto, 1989); set cooperative goals (D. Tjosvold & M. T. Tjosvold, 1994; Tjosvold, 1995); share information and resources (Blickensderfer, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas, 1997; D. Tjosvold & M. T. Tjosvold, 1994); recognize each team member's value (Manz & Neck, 1995); consider each other's perspective (D. Tjosvold & M. T. Tjosvold, 1994); display openness in perceptions and feedback (Danty and Kakabadse, 1992; Larson & LaFasto, 1989); discuss opposing ideas openly (D. Tjosvold & M. T. Tjosvold, 1994; D. Tjosvold & M. M. Tjosvold, 1995); establish norms that promote openness/openly express concerns and opinions (D. Tjosvold & M. M. Tjosvold, 1995); manage conflicts constructively (D. Tjosvold &
M. T. Tjosvold, 1994); establish right to dissent and free speech, criticize ideas rather than attack individuals and avoid the tendency to dominate the team’s process (D. Tjosvold & M. M. Tjosvold, 1995); be aware of the factors that constrict or limit performance (C. C. Manz, Neck, Mancuso, & K. P. Manz, 1997); indulge in assertive problem-solving by communicating in a caring and empathetic manner (C. C. Manz, Neck, Mancuso, & K. P. Manz, 1997); describe problems rather than be evaluative or judgmental (LaFasto & Larson, 2002); describe the effects or consequences of problems and request for considering a change of behavior, if required (LaFasto & Larson, 2002); exhibit willingness to compromise (LaFasto & Larson, 2002); neutralize defensiveness (LaFasto & Larson, 2002; Danty and Kakabadse, 1992; & Kennedy, 2003); prevent dysfunctional conflict from interfering with the team (Blickensderfer, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas, 1997; Parker, 1990); monitor each others’ performance with a constructive intent (McIntyre & Salas, 1995; Milanovich, Salas, Cannon-Bowers, & Muniz, 2000; & Blickensderfer, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas, 1997); be willing to give and accept feedback (Blickensderfer, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas, 1997); develop mutual trust (Milanovich, Salas, Cannon-Bowers, & Muniz, 2000; Parker, 1990); commit to relationships (LaFasto & Larson, 2002); correct attitudes, behaviors, and cognitions without outside intervention (Blickensderfer, Cannon-Bowers, & Salas, 1997; Parker, 1990); recognize ethical and moral consequences of decisions (C. C. Manz, Neck, Mancuso, & K. P. Manz, 1997; Parker, 1990).

Thus team members, in order to ensure effective team communication, should uphold team goals over individual goals; promote an open communication climate,
which allows opposing ideas to be discussed openly and the consideration of the perspectives of every team member; create a supportive and cooperative atmosphere; develop attitudes and behavior that are conducive to the emergence of a team climate; manage conflicts constructively, and prevent the emergence of dysfunctional conflict; and be ethical.

Context-Specific Studies

According to Tompkins (1997), teams pass through the stages of collaborative climate, collective understanding, collective competency, and continual improvement often cycling back and forth between the various stages when confronted with new learning scenarios. Collaborative climate, Tompkins says is the stage that sets the foundation for the subsequent stages and it involves team members openly confronting one another in a constructive way, rather than trying to avoid conflict and seeking an understanding of the work styles of other team members. The second stage, according to Tomkins is the stage of collective understanding, which is characterized by development of a common vision by team members through the sharing of knowledge and skills. This is done with a focus on the goal. The third stage, Tomkins says is called collective competency. At this stage team members build their own skills, accept responsibility for team efforts, and share information regarding team tasks. It is during this stage that team members learn how to put their collective understanding into practice. The fourth stage, according to Tomkin, is the stage of continual improvement where team members add the skills that have been acquired to their repertoire and focus on continuous learning.
Parker (1990) says that to ensure effective communication, each of the categories of team players--contributor, communicator, challenger, and collaborator should adjust their style of communication according to the stage of development of the team. Regarding the role of the contributor, he says that during the forming stage, the contributor can help initiate a discussion about the team’s tasks, solicit the expertise of the team members on the issues that are being discussed, solicit the direction of the leader on team procedures, etc.; during the storming stage, the contributor should display objectivity and encourage fellow team members to examine both sides of an issue, encourage team members to substantiate their opinions with data, play the role of reminder in making team members realize about the tasks that need to be done, and air the need for the team to focus on its tasks; during the norming stage, the contributor should emphasize high quality standards, encourage the team to make the best use of its resources, encourage the team to set priorities, allocate tasks among team members, and undertake responsibilities without being explicitly told to do; and during the performing stage, the contributor should insist on the team maintaining high standards as success may result in team members foregoing their commitments, put forth new and challenging assignments, and encourage the team to examine its requirements and resources.

Regarding the role of the collaborator Parker (1990) says that during the forming stage, the collaborator can play a role in asking the leader for his views on the purpose of the team, offering his or her views on the mission of the team, soliciting the views of other team members on the mission of the team, and putting forward the
view that the team develop goals that ensures the achievement of its mission; during the storming stage, the collaborator should exhibit openness to ideas and encourage other team members to do the same, ask how opinions expressed influence the team’s mission and goals, exhibit willingness to revise mission and goals based on the opinions within the team, and display the willingness to help other team members; during the norming phase, the collaborator should help the team focus on its mission, and encourage periodic revisiting of the mission and goals to ensure the existence of commitment; and during the performing phase, the collaborator should facilitate brainstorming on future issues and ensure participation of all members.

Regarding the role of the communicator, Parker (1990) says that during the forming stage the communicator should ensure that personal interaction occurs within the team, and suggest the creation of a list of expertise of all team members; during the storming stage, the communicator should display good listening skills, and encourage other team members to do the same, suggest norms for resolving differences, ensure and encourage the participation of all team members especially the ones who are passive, and support the leader in ensuring that all points of view are adequately represented and help him or her take a decision; during the norming phase, the communicator should remind team members that disagreements should be aired even if a consensus has been reached, encourage the team to conduct an internal assessment of the team processes and provide feedback to ensure that awareness exists among team members about behaviors that contribute to groupthink; and during the performing stage, the communicator should encourage and initiate the
acknowledgement of the accomplishments of the team, challenge team members to maintain norms or establish new ones and give feedback to team members.

Regarding the role of the challenger Parker (1990) says that during the forming stage the challenger should ask the group, if it agrees to the team’s mission, raise issues regarding the team’s purpose or methods; aid the leader by raising questions; and encourage team members to put forth their concerns regarding the team’s charter, goals, methods, membership, and individual member role. During the storming phase, he says that the challenger should display positive confrontational behavior, which involves the expression of conflict over issues and not over people; cease the display of confrontational behavior once a clear consensus has emerged; and encourage the team to take risks and adopt innovative approaches to problem-solving once a clear consensus has emerged. During the norming phase, Parker suggest that the challenger pose tough questions, and encourage other team members to display similar behavior, if required; challenge the leader; effectively challenge the symptoms of groupthink, etc. During the performing stage, the challenger, according to him should confront the team when there are indication of stagnation; question complacency with regard to assumptions of success; recommend an assessment of the resources that are required for the completion of tasks in the future; and stimulate a discussion on the internal and external change, and its impact and implications on the team (p. 126).

The context-specific studies have shown that team members can adopt different roles that contribute toward the success of the team. The roles that they adopt should be in harmony with the stage of development of the team.
Summary

Generic Studies specify in general the behaviors or roles team members should adopt. Context-Specific Studies adopt a process-oriented approach by specifying what team members should do according to the stage of development of the team or the situation that confronts the team. Integrating and synthesizing, the literature surveyed under the generic and context-specific studies we can come to the conclusion that team members in order to ensure effective team communication should indulge in effective task and transactional relationships. The team members while indulging in task and transactional behaviors should take into account the context or stage of development of the team.
Chapter 5

Model of Training

In light of the suggestions and recommendations given by scholars and organizational consultants, the question arises: How can teams utilize this knowledge to facilitate effective functioning? One answer to this question is to implement training program incorporating these suggestions. This section presents a model of training developed based on the prescriptions provided by scholars and organizational consultants for team leaders and team members.

_Analyzing_ training requirements: Before one develops and implements a specific training program, an effort should be made to diagnose the problems that teams face. In other words, a needs assessment should be undertaken. According to Brown (2002), needs assessment is essential for developing an effective training program. She defines training needs assessment as a process of collecting data to determine the training requirements, so as to ensure that training programs that are developed can help the organization meet its objectives. Brown says that when training programs are implemented without conducting a prior needs assessment, they run the risk of not catering to the actual needs that should be addressed.

According to Glorioso (1991), “A needs assessment is a systematic examination of current job performance and a desired set of job skills” (http://proquest.umi.com/pqdweb). Thus, needs assessment involves identifying the factors responsible for impeding the effective performance, which in turn facilitates the adoption of corrective strategies relevant to the problem at hand. Koonce (2001),
says that needs assessment plays an important part in ensuring effective implementation of diversity training. According to Apking and Fleming (1986), training programs based on needs analysis help in identifying needs, prioritizing needs, and determining whether a need stems from a training or a performance problem.

Needs Assessment, according to Brown (2002), can also help in evaluating the effectiveness of training programs as a basis for comparison of the pre-training state and the post-training state exists. According to Glorioso (1991), needs assessment helps not only in gathering data for assessing requirements for a training program, but also in getting the required support from the management and for program evaluations. Needs Assessment should begin with data collection, followed by analysis. Scholars and organizational consultants have suggested and employed several methods for collecting data to guide the implementation of training programs. They are presented below.

Methods for collecting data: Cline and Seibert (1993), says that both hard and soft data should be collected and analyzed when conducting a needs assessment. Hard data include production reports, absentee reports, etc. Soft data include data collected through interviews, group discussions, questionnaires, etc. Brown (2002) suggests several methods for conducting a needs assessment. These include surveys/questionnaires, interviews, performance appraisals, observations, tests, focus groups, document reviews, assessment centers, and advisory committees. As each method can have its advantages and disadvantages, a combination of different
methods should be used for collecting data. This will improve the validity of the results obtained and will present a more objective picture, when compared to assessments utilizing a single method. According to Apking and Fleming (1986) consultants can use interviews, surveys, observations, and written sources to conduct a needs analysis for developing training programs. A combination of techniques should be used since different methods may yield different and even conflicting results. According to Glorioso (1991), the various methods for gathering data include interviews, questionnaires, group discussions, document reviews, and feedbacks.

According to McClelland (1994a) interviews are important means of collecting data pertaining to needs assessment for developing training programs. McClelland says that interviews can be both structured and unstructured. Structured interviews have a very narrow focus and a relatively large number of questions. Unstructured interviews are more broad based and includes a large number of open-ended questions. Interviews, he adds, have the disadvantage of making an interviewee feel uncomfortable when certain questions directly concerned with him or her are asked. However, he is of the view that they offer highly qualitative data, which can be very effective in developing training programs. He suggests that interviews be used in conjunction with other techniques for collecting data required for a needs assessment.

McClelland (1994b) suggests onsite observation as an important tool for collecting data required for conducting a needs analysis. Both quantitative and qualitative data can be collected using onsite observations. He says that observations should be conducted as unobtrusively as possible, so as to ensure that the observer
does not distract the flow of activities. In case clarifications are required during the
process of observation, the researcher should direct the queries in a friendly,
conversational manner, and ask direct and targeted questions about the methods,
processes, or behaviors being observed. Once the clarifications have been made, the
researcher should withdraw from the setting so as to prevent further interruption of
the activities. Onsite observations, according to him, should be used in conjunction
with other techniques such as surveys, as data obtained may not be significant enough
to draw valid conclusions. Moreover, the bias of the observer may interfere with the
observations. In order to overcome this problem, McClelland suggest that the
observer be an external person or an internal person capable of neutral observation,
who is familiar with the tasks of the team.

*Data collection for undertaking a needs analysis for team training:* Given the
literature reviewed above, a combination of techniques should be used for collecting
data pertaining to needs analysis for teams. A combination of observations,
interviews, and questionnaires should be used to collect data. The collection of data
should begin with observations, which should be recorded. The team functioning
could also be video-taped, and viewed later. The data collected on the basis of the
observations should be analyzed using the technique of Sociolinguistic Analysis.
Donnellon (1996) employed Sociolinguistic Analysis in studying teams. She
analyzed factors like identification, interdependence, power differentiation, social
distance, and conflict management tactics using Socio-Linguistic Analysis. The
assessment was based on the words, syntax, turn-taking, topic-changing, hesitation,
and knowledge of each person's typical speech style, role, and power in the company. The teams were then placed at one of the three ends of the continuum—end points and middle—with respect to each dimension of team interaction. Sociolinguistic Analysis should be complemented by a method which focuses on analyzing nonverbal communication of team members. This is because nonverbal behaviors are powerful symbols that convey important messages in an interaction.

According to Mehrabian (1967) looking at a speaker or looking away from a speaker when he or she is talking, standing close to a person or standing away from the person, leaning forward instead of back while seated, touching, having mutual gaze or eye contact, extending bodily contact as during a handshake, etc, are factors that convey important meanings in an interaction. For instance, he says that a firm handshake is more intense and indicates greater liking and warmer feelings than a loosely clasping hand (which indicates aloofness and unwillingness to become involved) and depiction of relaxation during interactions is indicative of high status. According to Leathers (1979) emotions, moods, and feelings that a person is experiencing are indicated by the nonverbal behaviors displayed as responses to certain messages or certain stimuli. Nonverbal communicative behaviors, Leathers says, also provide important information about the kind and intensity of feelings that a person has for others.

An interview with the team members and team leaders, based on the results of the observation, should be conducted to have an understanding of the history of past relationships; attitudes, values and beliefs of the team members; and scripts, rites, and
rituals which govern individual and team behavior. Certain parts of the interview could be custom designed for each team member. The questions should not be phrased in a manner that may threaten the interviewee or may make him or her uncomfortable. Questions constructed on the basis of hypothetical situations could be used to elicit the opinions, attitudes and beliefs of the interviewees.

Questionnaires could be used to enhance the interview process. Self-report questionnaires, could be administered prior to interviews for gaining an understanding of the attitudes and values of the team members and team leaders. The data that has been obtained from the interviews should be subjected to a thematic analysis for identifying the main themes. Once the data from the observations, interviews and questionnaires have been collected and analyzed, the conclusions drawn from each method should be integrated and the final conclusion should be drawn. These results should then be shared with team members and team leaders, so as to gain their commitment for designing and implementing a training program. Once the training needs have been assessed and have been discussed with team leaders and team members, the training program should be designed in accordance with the noted requirements.

Training modules for team leaders

Consider that the needs assessment has revealed that the team, which should be in a mature state of development, is functioning ineffectively because of autocratic behavior of the leader. In such a situation the team leader should be trained in
developmental stage-specific strategy. Both skill and attitude training should be imparted.

*Developmental stage-specific leadership training*

Team leader should be trained as a mentor, instructor, coach; and a facilitator. He or she should be shown choices concerning when to indulge in what kind of behavior, in accordance with the stage of development of the team. This comprehensive training module will address not only immediate concerns, but also equip the team leader with a broad perspective on leadership behaviors.

*Figure 1*  Training in Developmental-Stage Specific Strategy
Figure 2. Training as a mentor, instructor and coach

**Attitude training:**
- Need for building the skills and confidence of team members
- Need for socializing new team members and facilitating their inclusion and acceptance
- Need for discussing and specifying roles and responsibilities, rules and regulations and acceptable standards of behavior
- Need for acknowledging superior performance
- Need for providing feedback
- Need for creating constructive thought patterns within the team

**Skill training:**
- Training in building the skills of team members and instructing them in problem-solving and decision-making.
- Training in team building.
- Training in helping team members form shared-mental models, cultural schema and developing competencies such as mutual performance monitoring, and error detection.
- Training in monitoring and intervention.
- Training in discussing and specifying roles and responsibilities, rules and regulations and acceptable standards of behavior.
Facilitator Training

Attitude Training
- Need for creating a supportive decision-making climate
- Need for encouraging team members to be participative
- Need for sharing of control
- Need for encouraging the setting of performance goals, and self evaluation among team members
- Need for facilitating a culture of self-leadership within the team

Skill Training
- Training in facilitating goal setting, identifying resource needs, providing information, facilitating problem-solving, creating a supportive decision-making climate, coordinating and remedying coordination problems, creating a collaborative climate, conflict resolution, performance management, participative style of functioning and sharing of control, bargaining and negotiating skills, facilitating collective reflection on the processes of the team, facilitating a culture of self-leadership within the team, situation assessment, and adorning the role of a mentor, instructor, and coach when necessary.

Figure 3. Training as a facilitator
This module can be implemented, if other aberrations, like for instance a laissez-faire type of leadership was detected when a more directive style would be suited to the stage of development of the team.

Situation-specific leadership strategy

If the results of needs assessment have revealed that the lack of capability of the leader in providing situation-specific leadership has jeopardized the functioning of the team, then training in situation-specific leadership should be provided. For instance, a mature team was faced with an emergency situation, and the team leader continued to indulge in a laissez faire style of leadership. This caused considerable stress among team members and jeopardized the functioning of the team. In such a situation, the following training program can be implemented.

![Diagram showing Situation-Specific Leadership with branches for Directive Leadership and Empowering Leadership.]

Figure 4. Training in Situation-Specific Leadership
Figure 5. Training in directive leadership

Figure 6. Training in empowering leadership
If the results of the needs assessment have revealed that the team leader is unaware as to when to indulge in monitoring and intervention, then the following training program can be implemented.

**Figure 7. Training in monitoring and intervention**

*Other Training Modules*

If the results of needs analysis reveal that the failure of the team leader to command respect is the major cause of ineffective team performance, then the following training module could be implemented.
**Attitude Training:**
- Need to demonstrate a personal commitment to the goal
- Need to display fairness and impartiality
- Need to display behaviors that encourage trust, confidence, loyalty in the team and other ethical and principled practices
- Need to demonstrate technical competency
- Need to communicate goals, vision, and a shared sense of performance
- Need to exhibit willingness to indulge in correcting mistakes
- Need to adopt self-leadership behaviors
- Need for a participative style of functioning

**Skill training:**
- Training in communicating goals, vision, and a shared sense of performance.
- Training in adopting self-leadership behaviors.
- Training in participative style of functioning.

*Figure 8. Training in modeling behaviors*
The module given above could be administered either independently, or in conjunction with the module dealing with developmental stage-specific leadership.

**Training modules for team members**

**Training in decision making skills**

If the results of the need assessment reveal that ineffective functioning of the team is due to the lack of good decision-making skills, then the following training module can be implemented. Specifically, this module focuses on rectifying the deficiencies arising out of inefficient information search and analysis and group think.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 9** Training in decision making
If the results of the needs analysis reveal that groupthink has resulted in the team making ineffective decisions, then the following training program can be implemented. The term “team think” coined by Manz and Sims (1995) is used to label this program. Team think refers to thought patterns within the team that counteract the inclination toward group think.

Figure 9. Training in Team Think
Team think training

- Training in objective and fact based judgments
- Training in critical thinking and evaluation
- Training in challenging the status quo
- Training in open communication
- Training in providing feedback
- Training in participative style of functioning
- Assertiveness training
- Consensus training

**Training in team relationships**

If the results of the need analysis reveal that the team is performing ineffectively mainly because of the conflict among team members, then the following program can be implemented.

*Figure 10. Training in Transactional Relationships*
Attitude Training:
- Need for collaborative behavior
- Need for communicating in a caring and empathetic manner
- Need for indulging in supportive behaviors
- Need for cooperative goal setting
- Need for constructive controversy (controversy over people and not over ideas)
- Need for self correction
- Need for open communication
- Need for providing constructive feedback and accepting feedback
- Need for developing a commitment to the team

Skill Training:
- Training in constructive controversy
- Training in cooperative goal setting
- Training in open communication
- Training in providing constructive feedback (specific and descriptive feedback).
- Training in conflict management strategies.
- Training in good listening skills.

If the results of the needs analysis reveal that a lack of commitment on the part of the team members has resulted in the team performing ineffectively, then the following training program can be implemented.
Commitment Training

Attitude Training
- Need for commitment to the team
- Need for establishing standards of achievement and priorities
- Need for exhibiting leadership behaviors

Skill Training
- Training in establishing standards of achievement and priorities.
- Training in exhibiting leadership behaviors.

Figure 11. Commitment training
If the results of the needs analysis reveal that dominance by a particular individual, (or group of individuals) is impairing the functioning the team, then the following program can be implemented.

**Figure 12. Training in avoiding dominant tendencies**

**Attitude training**
- Need for a participative style of functioning.
- Need for obtaining input from diverse sources.

**Skill training**
- Participative style of functioning
Simulations should be developed for both an individual as well as for a group of people.

If the results of the needs assessment reveal that the team fails to perform effectively because of cultural misunderstandings, then training in cross cultural communication should be implemented.

*Figure 13. Training in cross-cultural communication*

If the results of the needs analysis reveal that team is performing ineffectively because of the lack of ethical communication among team members, then training in ethical communication should be implemented.
This section has focused on developing individual training modules for training team leaders and team members. A method for collecting and analyzing data to identify training needs has also been suggested. Training programs based on hypothetical, but probable situations have been identified. The mode of delivery of the training (role plays, films, workshops, etc) has also been suggested. Integrating the individual training modules, we can develop a comprehensive training model. The following figures display the comprehensive training module.

**Summary**

Figure 14. Training in ethical communication
Figure 15. Team leader training

Figure 16. Team member training
Chapter 6
Discussion and conclusion

The study had posed the following questions:

- What do scholars, researchers, and organizational consultants prescribe for effective team communication?
- In light of the prescriptions of scholars and organizational consultants, what could be an appropriate approach to a model of training for team leaders and team members?

With regard to the question concerning the prescriptions for team leaders for ensuring effective communication, the following conclusions were drawn by integrating and synthesizing the literature surveyed: The team leaders in order to educate effective team communication should adorn the roles of mentor, instructor, and coach; and facilitator accordance with the stage of development of the team. The team leader should also indulge in situation-specific leadership strategies, in accordance with demands of the situation. For instance, when faced with a crisis or an emergency situation, the team leader should adopt a directive style of leadership, even if the team is at a mature stage of development. In addition to developmental-stage specific and situation-specific leadership strategies, the team leader should also exhibit modeling behaviors throughout the life of the team. This is intended for developing and preserving the morale and commitment of team members.

With regard to the question concerning the prescriptions for team members for
ensuring effective communication, the following conclusion was drawn by integrating and synthesizing the literature surveyed: Team members in order to educe effective team communication should indulge in effective task and transactional relationships. Effective task relationships require that team members exhibit good decision-making skills by indulging in good information search and sharing practices, objective and fact-based judgments, and critical evaluation. In addition, the team members should counteract tendencies toward group think by challenging the status quo or by playing the role of the “devil’s advocate.” Effective transactional relationships require that team members indulge in collaborative behavior, constructive controversy, conflict management and participative style of functioning. They should also avoid the tendency to dominate the team processes, display behaviors that demonstrate commitment to the team, take into account cross-cultural sensitivities, and indulge in ethical communication.

With regard to the question concerning an approach to a model of training, the implementation of training program should begin with a needs assessment. This involves data collection and analysis. Based on the results of the analysis, the training program should be developed. Hypothetical but probable scenarios have been created as part of the model of training. Based on these scenarios, training modules have been suggested. Most of the training modules impart both skill and attitude training. Some, however, just focuses on either skill training or attitude training. The modes of delivery of the training in the form of lectures, films role plays, case studies, simulations have also been suggested.
The study has thrown light on team communication and has proposed a model of training. However, it suffers from certain limitations. The study involved documentary research and locating the material depended much on the key words that were used. Though a fairly comprehensive review has been attempted, the limitation posed by the time required to complete the study prevented a thorough review of the field of team communication. For instance, much of the focus of the literature reviewed is on what the team leader should do and not on what the team leader should refrain from doing. Similarly in the case of team members, the focus has been mainly on what they should do and not on what they should refrain from doing. In addition, the literature that was reviewed mainly pertained to teams in a face to face environment. With the advancement in technology, virtual teams have become important feature of modern day organization. Communication patterns in virtual teams differ from face to face teams as they are not co-located.

The model of training that has been developed is on certain hypothetical scenarios commonly faced by teams. They are not exhaustive. Needs analysis may reveal certain scenarios, which are not mentioned in the model of training. The list of training topics is also not exhaustive. They have been based on the literature reviewed. There may be topics, which could have been included, but have not come under the purview of literature reviewed on team communication. The field of team communication is broad and I believe there is more material left to be read. The efficacy of the method suggested for conducting a need analysis should also be tested. In spite of these limitations, the study has provided a fairly extensive insight into the
area of team communication, and has delineated areas for future research.

The survey of literature on team leadership revealed two types of leadership being mentioned. These included leadership associated with external team leaders and internal team leaders. External team leaders are appointed by the management and are given the positions that were previously occupied by supervisors or foremen. They interacted with the team and facilitated much of the critical task and transactional processes (Manz & Sims, 1984). Internal team leaders are those who are elected by the team members (Manz & Sims, 1984). In the study conducted by Manz and Sims (1984), self-managing teams had external as well as internal leaders. Internal leaders served as subordinates of external leaders. The communication relationship between these external leaders and internal leaders in the context of a self-managing team environment is a potential area that needs to be investigated.

The study had also intended to assess the current status of team training programs. However, as most of the training materials were proprietary, access could not be obtained. This is a crucial area of research that needs to undertaken, as training programs play a major role in helping teams acquire the skills and attitudes necessary for successful functioning. Another future area of research is the testing of the method suggested for needs assessment. The model of training has cited several modes of delivery of training programs. An inquiry into the effectiveness of the various modes of delivery on enhancing team performance should be undertaken.
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