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## Management Decision Making and Political Viability Criteria in Large Corporate Organizations

Kalman J. Kovach

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ABSTRACT

MANAGEMENT DECISION MAKING AND POLITICAL VIABILITY

THE CRITERIA IN LARGE CORPORATE ORGANIZATIONS

Political viability in managerial decision making in large corporate organizations. Political viability is defined as perpetuating shrewdness to flourish one's career within an organization.

Recent economic conditions and global competitiveness have forced corporations to examine their traditional managerial roles. As a result, many corporations have totally revamped **Kalman J. Kovach, B.S.** an attempt to present a clear and unobstructed vision of their mission.

Over the last decade research done by organizational psychologists, consultants, independent "think" tanks, and decision experts have bombarded corporations with many management philosophies. Decision making is an integral part of all these management philosophies and political viability is an integral part of decision-making.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the possibility of **An Abstract Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of Lindenwood College in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science** superior-subordinate relationships.

1991



## ABSTRACT

This thesis focuses on the magnitude of political viability in managerial decision making in large corporate organizations. Political viability is defined as perpetuating shrewdness to flourish one's career within an organization.

Recent economic conditions and global competitiveness have forced corporations to examine their traditional managerial roles. As a result, many corporations have totally revamped goals and objectives in an attempt to present a clear and unobstructed vision of their mission.

Over the last decade research done by organizational psychologists, consultants, independent "think" tanks, and decision experts have bombarded corporations with many management philosophies. Decision making is an integral part of all these management philosophies and political viability is an integral part of decision-making.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the possibility, that, within a large corporate organization, managers may bias decision making to ensure harmonious superior-subordinate relationships.

Specifically, it is hypothesized that management decision making is primarily driven by internal political viability rather than the business objectives in large corporations.

Ninety-six (96) managers participated in the evaluation. The subjects were administered a self-assessment survey for the purposes of distinguishing the political viability relationship as related to the subjects' decision making processes. In all, 54 subjects responded for a 56% return ratio.

Each respondents' selections were coded and tabulated. A frequency polygon (distribution) for raw scores showed 42.6% of the sample population were conducive to the H<sub>0</sub>, the null hypothesis, 9.2% were neutral, and 48.2% were presumed conducive to H<sub>1</sub>, the research hypothesis.

The inferential test was a  $t$  distribution with 53 degrees of freedom. Based on the critical  $t$  value, the obtained  $t$  value did not fall into the 5% probability area. Therefore, the null hypothesis could NOT be rejected and it cannot be statistically inferred that political viability exists within management decision-making in large corporations.

COMMITTEE IN CHARGE OF CANDIDACY:

**MANAGEMENT DECISION MAKING AND POLITICAL VIABILITY**

**CRITERIA IN LARGE CORPORATE ORGANIZATIONS**

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**Kalman J. Kovach, B.S.**

A Culminating Project Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate  
School of Lindenwood College in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the  
Degree of Master of Science

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	Adjunct Assistant Professor Joseph Ancona	
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Management is specifically charged with making resources productive, that is, with the responsibility for organized economic advance (P. Drucker comments: Meredith, Gibbs (2)).

Niccolo Machiavelli provided an interesting management philosophy. He created such ethically questionable principles as the "ends justify the means." This was during the sixteenth century, yet the connotation still provides a rather potent punon.

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Chapter I  
INTRODUCTION

A family unit is a group with a common purpose or people who interact

The existence of management as a force is to accomplish goals set forth in an organization (Lynn & O'Grady 67). Management is the process of bringing resources together in order to accomplish these goals.

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accounts provided by the Chinese and Mesopotamians between 3000 and 4000 B.C. (Vecchio 12).

A family unit is a group with a common purpose or goal. A group is a collection of people who interact with each other regularly over a period of time and perceive themselves to be mutually dependent with respect to the attainment of one or more common goals. A formal group is a legitimate sub-unit of an organization that has been established by the organization's charter or by a managerial decree (Wexley and Yukl 132).

The Industrial Revolution of the nineteenth century may be considered the birth of corporate management. Work became centrally located in factories with the advent of machinery. Industrialists of that era preferred an engineering approach to managing called scientific management (Vecchio 13).

The drawbacks to scientific management today, would be numerous. Performance was considered a tangible effort. Generally, workers were paid to increase the speed of the production line, not to improve the production environment. Management bore this responsibility and it was considered a lower level

management problem. Another perspective concentrated on higher level managers dealing with everyday problems of managing the entire organization. This was known as classical organization theory (Ivancevich, Donnelly, Gibson 11). In 1925, Henri Fayol was a managing director of a French coal company. He wrote 14 principles for management that were to guide the thinking of managers in resolving problems. They essentially were:

1. Division of labor
2. Authority
3. Discipline
4. Unity of command
5. Unity of direction
6. Subordination of individual interest
7. Remuneration of personnel
8. Centralization
9. Hierarchy of authority
10. Order
11. Equity
12. Stability of staff
13. Initiative
14. Esprit de corps

These fourteen principles were avant-garde for their day. It is ironic that the majority of management principles today are essentially the opposite.

The Division of labor, authority, hierarchy, order, and centralization are unclear with "skunk

works", task teams, matrix, and project management established for a myriad of corporate goal(s).

Discipline, stability of staff, remuneration of personnel, and the unity of command have decreased witnessing common day Wall Street practices.

Subordination of corporate interest versus individual interests is the rule rather than the exception. Yet unity of direction, equity, initiative, and esprit de corps may still exist if prioritized by leaders and/or managers within an organization.

During the same time period, another school of thought emerged, the human relations approach. Much of the force behind this movement was the result of the Hawthorne studies started in 1927 and continued for 12 years. This demonstrated that, in addition to the job itself, certain factors can influence a workers' behavior. Informal social groups, management-employee relations, and the interrelatedness among the many facets of work settings were found to be quite influential (Vecchio 15).

The 1950's also saw the development of systems theory, operations research and the computer, each of

After World War II, Douglas McGregor developed his Theory X and Theory Y opposing worker views. Theory X hypothesized that all workers were lazy and need to be driven, while Theory Y hypothesized that workers were creative and should be given responsibility.

On the surface, Theory X and Theory Y managers are mutually exclusive. You pick one or the other. In reality, you are neither and both at the same time. Managers can and do combine aspects of Theory X and Theory Y to delegate authority and to instill productivity to reach organizational goals.

The behavioral science approach of the 1950's applied behavioral sciences to management. It was believed that man was much more complex than the "economic man" description of the classical approach and the "social man" description of the human relations approach. The behavioral science approach concentrated on the nature of the work itself, and to what degree it could fulfill the human needs to use skills and abilities (Ivancevich, Donnelly, Gibson 15).

The 1950's also saw the development of systems theory, operations research and the computer, each of

which furthered the cause of manufacturing systems management. (Drumwright 27). It is important to

The system approach employed a decision focus to mathematical models while operations research solved allocation, scheduling, planning, processing, inventory, layout, control, and location problems (Meredith, Gibbs 19).

Within the last two decades, the Contingency approach has increased in popularity. Research has shown that given certain characteristics of a job and certain characteristics of the people doing the job, certain management practices work better than others (Ivancevich, Donnelly, Gibson 18).

The contingency approach might best be described as situational analysis and action that integrates diverse kinds of knowledge into effective management strategies (Drumwright 29).

We can reasonably assume that this approach promotes any principle of management theory that works best for the situation without adopting all. Many management theorists feel that contingency management

(Chester Barnard quotes Peters and Waterman 97).

is more of a final product of our age than a strategy for a viable future (Drumwright 37). It is important to realize that contingency management may be a direct result of the speed-up of change in society as a whole (Toffler 135).

Theory Z, also developed within the last two decades, is an industrial clan approach. It promotes a corporate philosophy that states the objectives, operating procedures, and constraints of an organization (Ouchi 113). Theory Z management concentrates on developing long term employee commitment and social interaction within each group of an organization strata. As in Theory Y, Theory Z promotes the belief in participative decision making.

But, as in Theory X, forceful leadership is required to achieve organizational goals with the complex process of participative decision making. An organization that adapts to participative management must adapt representation for all employees (Dixon 6).

Cooperation originates in the need of an individual to accomplish purposes to which he is by himself biologically unequal. (Chester Barnard quote; Peters and Waterman 97).

The last decade has been bombarded by management styles that have evolved with global competition and technological changes. The consensus of these styles swirl around corporate culture, customer awareness, minimal vertical hierarchy, flexibility through empowered workers, and an organization's internal ability to change to their external environment (Peters 34). Other studies and management styles were initiated to increase worker productivity. But, in all, it can be stated that decision making was and is the most central activity of any management, that it is the very essence of a manager's job (Vecchio 318).

#### Types and Processes of Decision Making

Decision making can be defined as the process of thought and deliberation which results in a decision.

Decisions, the output of the decision making process, are means through which a manager seeks to achieve a desired state (Ivancevich, Donnelly, and Gibson 558).

As was stated before, the existence of management as a force is to accomplish goals set forth in an organization. The process with which managers achieve

these goals determines the logic in their decision making (Ivancevich, Donnelly, Gibson 3).

Effective decisions are a product of quality and acceptance. A decision should be made jointly between a manager having the expertise and the workers to whom the decision must be acceptable (Burke and Weir 47).

Programmed decisions are the decisions that managers make in response to routine and repetitive problems. Decisions are termed "nonprogrammed" when they are made for novel and unstructured problems (Ivancevich, Donnelly, Gibson 82).

The classical decision theory or a rational-economic model assumes that decision making is, and should be, a highly rational process (Vecchio 320). It best describes how a decision should be reached, but rarely captures how managers actually make decisions. The information or time needed to rationalize the best decision is usually not available.

The behavioral theory of decision making or the administrative model acknowledges real-world limitations on management decision making (Vecchio 322). The administrative model allows the choice of the reasonably acceptable solution. It may not be the best

decision but, it can be assumed to be enough to meet the requirement.

Any manager that produces a decision affects the organizations' workers whether it is a direct or indirect. Many important decisions in organizations are made by groups rather than individuals. These decision-making groups may be permanent management teams or temporary committees formed to deal with a problem.

Theory Z advances participative decision making or decision making by consensus (Ouchi 37). But, all employees must be aware of the organizations' acceptable goals, as well as, willingly engage in its decision making (Ouchi 162).

There are advantages and disadvantages in using groups instead of individuals to make decisions.

Table 1  
Advantages and Disadvantages of Group Decision Making

#### ADVANTAGES

1. In developing objectives, groups provide a greater amount of knowledge.
2. In developing alternatives, the individual efforts of group members can enable a broader search in the various functional areas of the organization.
3. In evaluating alternatives, groups have a wider range of viewpoints.

4. In selecting alternatives, groups are likely to accept more risk than are individual decision makers.
5. Because of the participative decision process, the individual members of groups are more likely to be motivated to carry out the decision.
6. Greater creativity results from the interaction of individuals with different viewpoints.

#### DISADVANTAGES

1. The implementation of a decision, whether or not it is made by a group, must be implemented by individual managers. Since a group cannot be held responsible, group decisions may result in a situation in which no one is responsible, and buck-passing results.
2. Considering how valuable time is as an organizational resource, group decisions are costly.
3. Group decision making is inefficient if a decision is to be made promptly.
4. Group decisions may in some cases be the result of compromise and indecision on the part of group members.
5. If superiors are present, or if one member has a dominant personality, the decision of a group may in reality not be a group decision.

---

SOURCE: Managing for Performance. Figure 4-4  
Ivancevich, Donnelly, Gibson (1986).

Group size, composition, status, member traits, and cohesiveness can bias all groups in their decision making process and must be consciously addressed.

Some highly cohesive groups experience a phenomena called "groupthink". In 1972, Irving Janis found the following characteristics of groupthink in a series of case studies of decision processes that lead up to disastrous political decisions (Wexley, Yukl 147):

1. Illusion of invulnerability
2. Rationalization of negative information
3. Stereotyping of groups
4. Assumption of morality
5. Self-censorship
6. Illusion of unanimity
7. Mindguarding
8. Direct social pressure

In groupthink, the defensive avoidance that sometimes occurs in individual decision making is magnified by the efforts of the group members to achieve consensus and avoid conflict (Wexley, Yukl 147).

The final step in decision making is planning how the decision will be implemented. Good decisions may be unsuccessful simply because no one has bothered to see if it is implemented (Wexley, Yukl 153).

### Political Environments

Two types of environment can impact managerial decision making; internal and external. Although, the latter has become increasingly potent in influencing corporate policy, only the internal environment will be examined since it's impact is more insidious on corporate decision making.

A brief description of the external environment is given to distinguish it from a corporate internal

environment. . . as defined by Webster, is an

The external environment are outside forces that are difficult to control. Government regulations, citizens, and vocal stakeholders have a great influence on corporate decisions. Business institutions have to adjust to increased external politicization of their decisions (Bennis 7).

A corporation's internal environment, a set of political rules or an organizational change, also influence managers' decision making abilities. For example, a new CEO may decide to remove a percentage of travel budget dollars and allocate it to employee training. If a line manager decided to visit a customer location prior to this CEO decision, that manager may have to alter his decision to suit this new policy, irrespective of the cause for the original decision.

These alterations of management decisions may, or may not, be in concert with goals set forth in an organization.

The set of corporate political rules mentioned before govern behaviors that are not required as part of one's formal role in an organization. But, they influence the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organization (Robbins 353).

Political, as defined by Webster, is an act characterized by shrewdness in managing, contriving, or dealing. Although, this definition may be somewhat negative in connotation, it aptly defines management decision making possessing a political element in its environment that influences the determination of advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, these acts encompass efforts to influence goals, objectives, or processes used for decision making.

#### Statement Of Purpose

The purpose of this study is to isolate the internal political viability in managerial decision making as it relates to large corporate organizations and to discern whether it addresses an organizations' goals and objectives or self-attainment through superior-subordinate relationships.

Drache states that Leadership involves: 1. Defining current situations and articulating goals for the future, 2. Making decisions needed to resolve

Chapter II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Management decision making in large corporate organizations is driven by business issues or needs. It may also be driven to address the internal political environment which may hinder or conflict with these business issues or needs.

This dilemma is especially acute in competitive markets where elimination of symptoms rather than organizational causes are less painful to corporate superior-subordinate relationships.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) noted that a leader's choice of decision procedures reflects forces in the leader, forces in the subordinates, and forces in the situation . . . " (Wexley and Yukl 183).

The type of leadership, managerial style of decision making and subordinate perceptions all affect corporate business actions.

Brache states that Leadership involves: 1. Defining current situations and articulating goals for the future, 2. Making decisions needed to resolve

problems and achieve goals, 3. Gaining commitment from those who have to implement these decisions (121).

Involvement of followers is central to all three components. Effective employee participation can be impeded by seven common myths about leadership. These are:

1. Managers cannot learn leadership
2. Managers are paid to make decisions and should make them.
3. Managers should always allow others to participate in decision making.
4. Managers should strive for time efficiency.
5. Managers should make others feel they are participating, even when they are not.
6. Managers should never relinquish control over the final decision.
7. Managers should use consistent leadership behavior for subordinates (124).

Heller focused on such illusions as much as on the reality of managerial decision making. His test had found that successful managers in successful organizations use seemingly inconsistent and varied styles of decision making (27). The extrapolation illusion; the tendency to think that, if some behavior is good, more of it is better, has been taken to unwarranted lengths (23). In an 8 country sample of 1,600 senior managers, the senior managers' perceptions of skill differences between their immediate

subordinates' and their own was almost always larger than the actual difference. Highly autocratic decision making was related to the senior managers' perception of subordinates' skills (25).

Heller states that recent research has revealed widespread undiscovered subordinate skill and that many organizations have similar experience among senior executives at the lower organizational levels.

Reasons that available skills are wasted include: 1. Judgements people make about subordinates, and 2. Centralized decision making (26).

Kayaalp relates that managers seeking a theoretical base for effective decision making are finding that the field involves competing theories of managerial problem solving. The economic decision theory assumes the optimal solutions can be obtained if the person making the choice acts with rational self-interest. The other theory is a behavioral one in which distinctions are made between structured and unstructured decisions. This theory concludes that, when problems involve uncertain tasks, managers will give up the algorithmic (rational/programmed) decision processes and turn to heuristic ones (unprogrammed), or learning by discovery (37).

Rather than learning how and when to use these different processes, managers must learn to integrate them into a total decision-making model. Currently, both economists and behavioral decision scientists are working to amend their theories.

Rothenberg states that decision making involves:

1. Recognition of an opportunity or problem, 2. Obtaining information, 3. Developing alternatives, 4. Analyzing alternatives and selecting the best on the basis of valid and relevant information (34).

Unfortunately, rarely does this economic decision theory relate to today's business climate. This leaves the heuristic or discovery process which may allow for subtle corporate culture biases to cloud management decisions.

✓ Odiorne found that decision-making by top management has become a time-consuming process in U.S. businesses. He concludes that organizational styles of business have evolved from one-person leadership to intracompany special interest groups affected by external influences such as laws related to employee relations and environmental conservation (35).

Odiorne also found that executives are more likely to seek the advice of experts prior to making a decision, which also slows the process. Effective decision-making must consider both the quality of the suggestion and the acceptance level with which it will be greeted by employees.

Odiorne presents three managerial approaches to decision-making: saying no to everything, saying yes to everything, and investigating everything. To expedite decision-making, subordinate employees should:

1. Present requests for decisions in written form, evidencing thorough research;
2. Argue in favor of certain positions by defining the problem, identifying alternative solutions, and screening the alternatives;
3. Try to discuss the decision-making area with the decision maker, prior to presenting the proposal for action; and
4. Identify risks involved and offer alternative reactions should such risks arise (38).

But, effective decision-making should not be perceived as time-consuming in order to achieve quality standards. This depends on the situational circumstances which may dictate expediency rather than investigating all alternate avenues.

In a 1987 study by Hornstein, subordinate perceptions of leaders were tested (managers and leaders for this study were used synonymously). The researchers hypothesized that perceptions of leaders' effectiveness may be based as much or more on how they are regarded as they are on actual deeds. Leadership behavior that is objectively proper may be viewed differently by subordinates and colleagues and have a negative effect on the way a leader is viewed. A participative, relations-oriented, and supportive approach may be the best way to promote a good opinion of a manager among employees (65).

Dixon, though, states that participative management is a complex process that requires a dynamic leadership to help achieve organizational goals (3).

Three leadership theories have been widely tested. They are Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model, House's Path-Goal theory, and the Vroom-Yetton leadership decision-making model.

Drumwright postulates that all these models are types of contingency management. But, contingency

is noted (315). Figure 1 (diagram) the various components.

Robbins warns that most studies of the Hersey and Blanchard model were not comprehensive enough to ascertain its validity (317).

Figure 1  
HERSEY & BLANCHARD

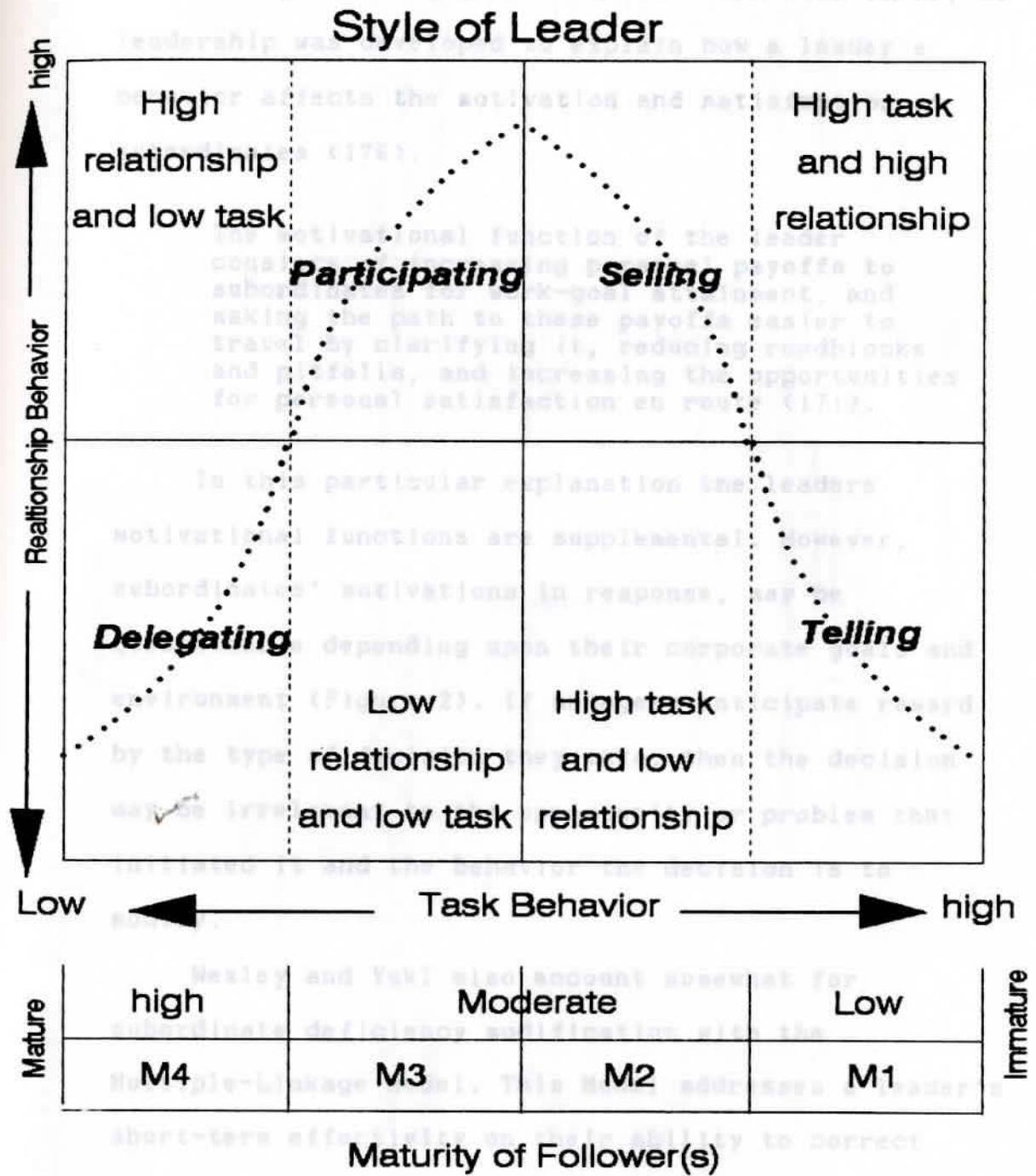
management, however, may be a final product of our age or what best fits the environment, rather than a strategy for a viable future (43).

Robbins defines Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership model as a contingency theory that focuses on the followers. That is, the emphasis on the followers in leadership effectiveness reflects the reality that it is they who accept or reject the leader. Regardless of what the leader does, effectiveness depends on the actions of his or her followers.

Hersey and Blanchard's model uses two leadership dimensions: task and relationship behaviors of which can be either high or low. It also uses four leadership styles: telling, selling, participating, and delegating. The final component defines four stages of maturity: M1. People are both unable and unwilling to take responsibility to do something, M2. People are unable but willing to do the necessary job tasks, M3. People are able but unwilling to do what the leader wants, M4. People are both able and willing to do what is asked (315). Figure 1 integrates the various components.

Robbins warns that most studies of the Hersey and Blanchard model were not comprehensive enough to ascertain its validity (317).

# Figure 1 HERSEY & BLANCHARD SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP MODEL



*Source: Hersey & Blanchard; Management of Organizational Behavior,  
Copyright 1982, p. 152*

Wexley and Yukl state that the Path-Goal Theory of leadership was developed to explain how a leader's behavior affects the motivation and satisfaction of subordinates (176).

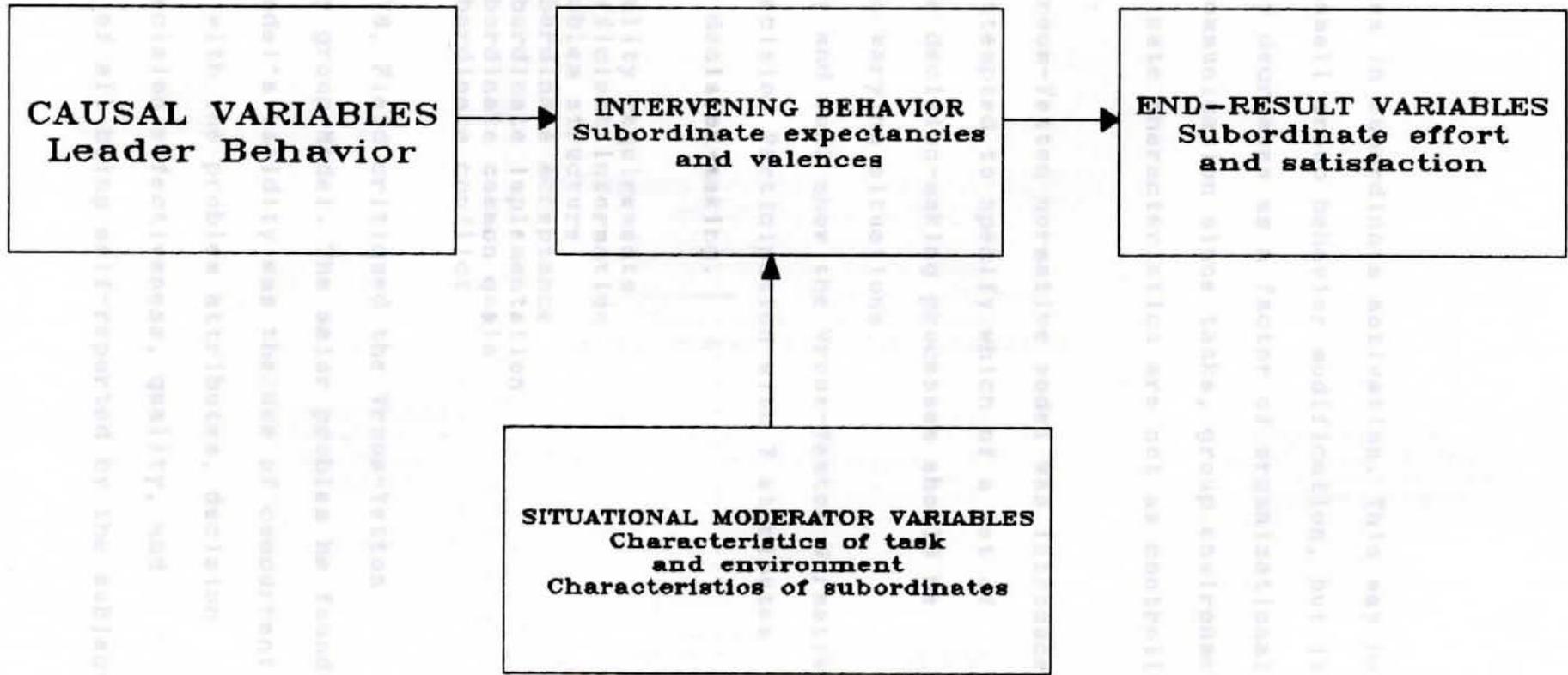
The motivational function of the leader consists of increasing **personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment**, and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route (171).

In this particular explanation the leaders motivational functions are supplemental. However, subordinates' motivations in response, may be questionable depending upon their corporate goals and environment (Figure 2). If managers anticipate reward by the type of decision they make, then the decision may be irrelevant to the opportunity or problem that initiated it and the behavior the decision is to modify.

Wexley and Yukl also account somewhat for subordinate deficiency modification with the Multiple-Linkage Model. This Model addresses a leader's short-term effectivity on their ability to correct

# CAUSAL RELATIONSHIPS IN PATH-GOAL THEORY

## Figure 2



Source: G. Yukl, *Leadership in Organizations*, Copyright 1981, p. 147.

deficiencies in subordinate motivation. This may be valid for small group behavior modification, but its flexibility decreases as a factor of organizational size and communication since tasks, group environments, and subordinate characteristics are not as controllable (Figure 3).

The Vroom-Yetton normative model was introduced in 1973 and attempted to specify which of a set of alternative decision-making processes should be employed in varying situations.

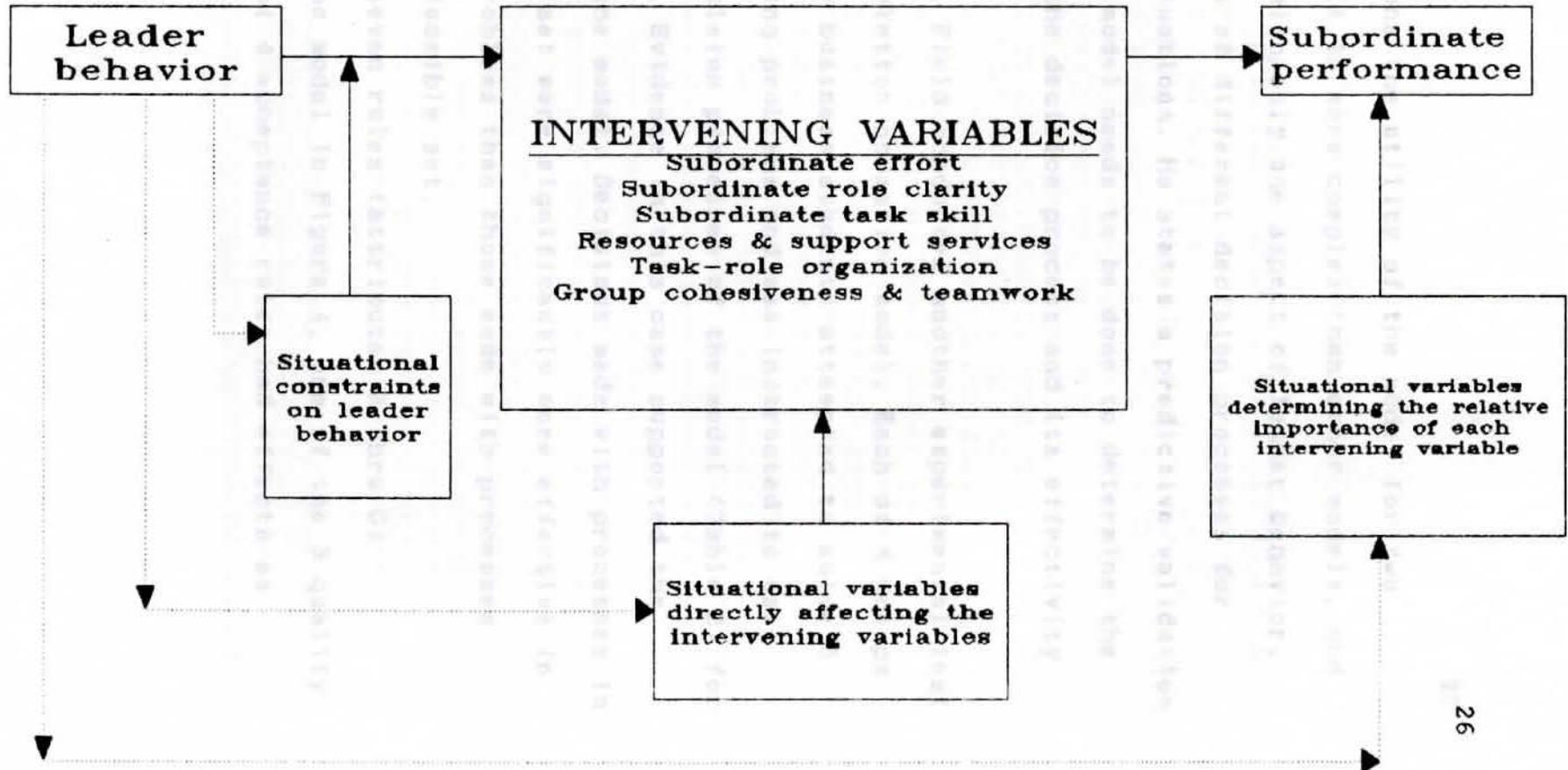
Wexley and Yukl show the Vroom-Yetton Normative Model of Decision Participation with 7 attributes concerning decision-making.

1. quality requirements
2. sufficient information
3. problem structure
4. subordinate acceptance
5. subordinate implementation
6. subordinate common goals
7. subordinate conflict

In 1979, Field critiqued the Vroom-Yetton Contingency group Model. The major problem he found with the model's validity was the use of concurrent validation with the problem attributes, decision process, decision effectiveness, quality, and acceptance of all being self-reported by the subject manager.

# CAUSAL RELATIONSHIPS OF MULTIPLE-LINKAGE MODEL

**Figure 3**



Field questions the utility of the model for two reasons: 1. It is more complex than other models, and 2. It deals with only one aspect of leader behavior, the selection of different decision processes for different situations. He states a predictive validation study of the model needs to be done to determine the validity of the decision process and its effectivity (250-255).

In 1982, Field conducted another experimental test of the Vroom-Yetton normative model. Each of 4 groups of university business students attempted to solve 5 decision-making problems and was instructed to use different decision processes of the model (Table 2) for each problem. Evidence in this case supported the validity of the model. Decisions made with processes in the feasible set were significantly more effective in satisfying problems than those made with processes outside the feasible set.

Of the seven rules (attributes A thru G) underlying the model in Figure 4, one of the 3 quality rules and 3 of 4 acceptance rules had effects as predicted.

Table 2

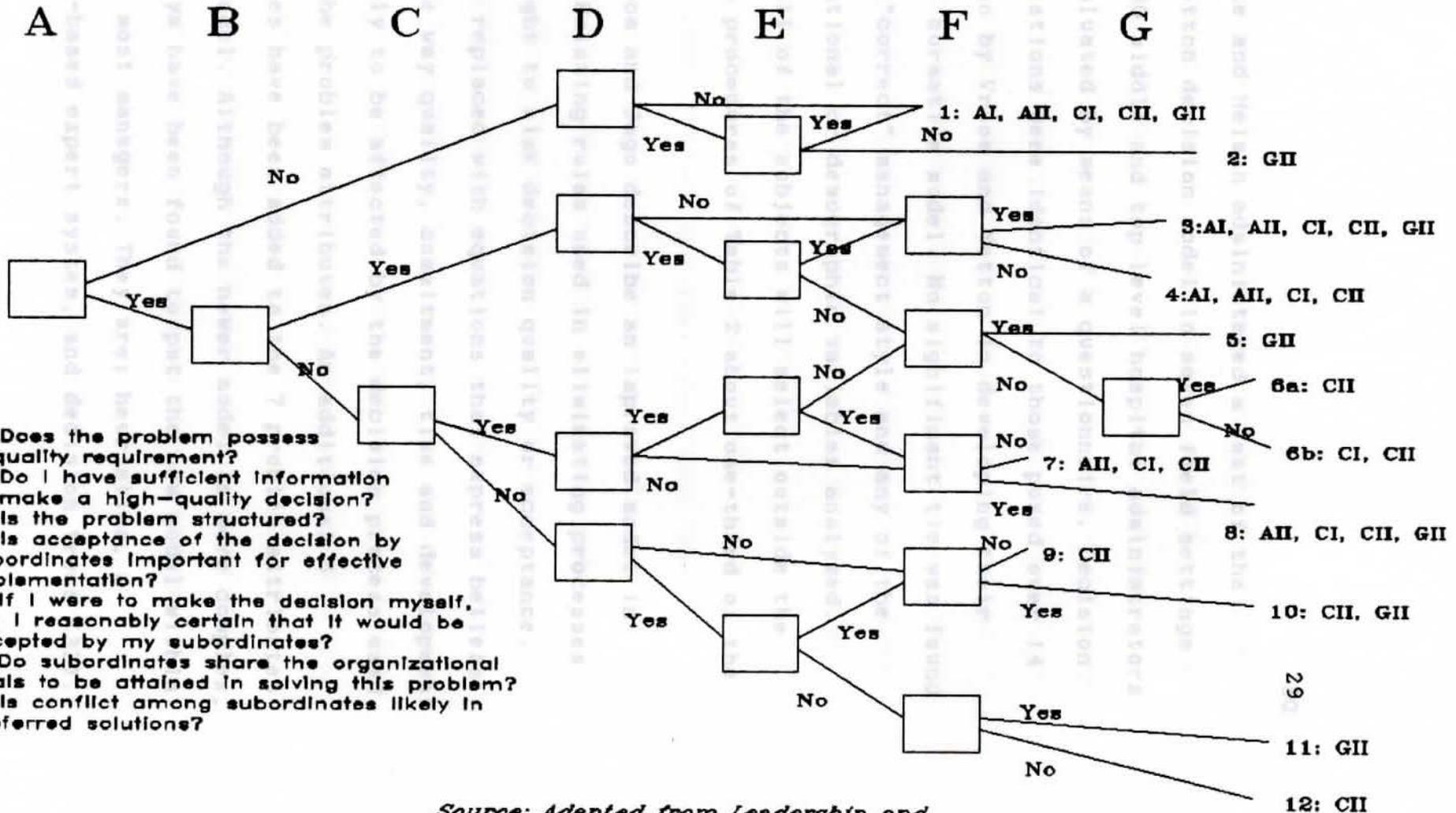
## Vroom-Yetton Decision Procedures

- AI. You solve the problem or make the decision yourself, using information available to you at the time.
- AII. You obtain the necessary information from your subordinates, then decide the solution to the problem yourself. You may or may not tell your subordinates what the problem is in getting the information from them.
- CI. You share the problem with the relevant subordinates individually, getting their ideas and suggestions without bringing them together as a group. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.
- CII. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group, obtaining their collective ideas and suggestions. Then you make the decision, which may or may not reflect your subordinates' influence.
- GII. You share the problem with your subordinates as a group. Together you generate and evaluate alternatives and attempt to reach agreement (consensus) on a solution. Your role is much like that of a chairperson. You do not try to influence the group to adopt "your" solution, and you are willing to accept and implement any solution which has the support of the entire group.

SOURCE: Leadership and Decision-Making by Victor H. Vroom and Phillip W. Yetton (1973). As cited in Organizational Behavior and Personnel Psychology. Table 7-3, Wexley and Yukl.

# VROOM AND YETTON DECISION-PROCESS FLOWCHART

Figure 4



- A. Does the problem possess a quality requirement?  
 B. Do I have sufficient information to make a high-quality decision?  
 C. Is the problem structured?  
 D. Is acceptance of the decision by subordinates important for effective implementation?  
 E. If I were to make the decision myself, am I reasonably certain that it would be accepted by my subordinates?  
 F. Do subordinates share the organizational goals to be attained in solving this problem?  
 G. Is conflict among subordinates likely in preferred solutions?

Source: Adapted from *Leadership and Decision-Making* by Vroom & Yetton, 1973.

Pate and Helman administered a test of the Vroom-Yetton decision model in seven field settings where 530 middle and top level hospital administrators were evaluated by means of a questionnaire. Decision rule questions were identical to those posed over 14 years ago by Vroom and Yetton in developing their original normative model. No significant tie was found between "correct" management style and any of the organizational or demographic variables analyzed. Nearly all of the subjects will select outside the decision procedures of Table 2 about one-third of the time. In 1988, Estling and Jago found that the

Vroom and Jago describe an improved model in detail. Existing rules used in eliminating processes are thought to risk decision quality or acceptance. They are replaced with equations that express beliefs about the way quality, commitment, time and development are likely to be affected by the decision process used and by the problem attributes. An additional 5 attributes have been added to the 7 problem attributes in the model. Although the newer model is more complex, three ways have been found to put the new model within reach of most managers. They are; heuristics, a computer-based expert system, and decision trees (33).

The basic training features are unchanged in the new model. New problem sets have been developed to reflect the larger number of problem attributes and new computer programs are written to take advantage of the greater analytical possibilities of the new model.

In 1984, a discussion with Vroom of his model showed when used normatively, it may determine when participative decision making is required in a given decision situation, and descriptively, to assess the determinants and characteristics of superior-subordinate relationships (19).

In 1988, Ettling and Jago found that the Vroom-Yetton model was subjected to conditions of conflict. The rule of conflict prescribes group decision-making methods when conflict among subordinates is anticipated and acceptance of the decision is critical. This is based on the assumption that a group process provides a more effective vehicle for conflict resolution than other less participative methods (75).

The present experiment tests the Conflict rule against an alternative hypothesis that predicts the technical quality of the decision.

If all goals and objectives in a large corporate organization are not clear throughout the various enterprises of that organization, then

conflict intensification and polarization in group settings. Forty groups of five members each considered a decision task chosen for its likelihood of generating a task-based conflict. The 2 x 2 design, (decision-making process by leader reward structure), created conditions in which a particular decision-making process either conformed to or violated the normative attributes of the Vroom-Yetton model. Both attitudinal and behavioral measures of decision acceptance revealed that the interactive group process was significantly more effective than one-to-one consultation in generating support for a leader's solution (84).

A secondary analysis treating the quality of the leader's decision as a covariate revealed no significant variation in the pattern of subordinate acceptance explained by this factor.

Overall, the results support the Vroom and Yetton's Conflict Rule and suggest that subordinates are far more likely to accept a leader's decision following an interactive group process regardless of either the leader's desire to reach consensus or the technical quality of the decision.

If all goals and objectives in a large corporate organization are not clear throughout the various enterprises of that organization, then

subordinates may condone decisions that conflict with their goals in favor of that superiors' decision.

This does not mean however, that subordinates will increase productivity as a result of increased decision acceptance.

Leana conducted an experimental study examining situational factors in Vroom and Yetton's 1973 model that predict differences in managers' reported preferences for delegation or participation. She compared the theoretical and empirical delegation and participation. These two processes have sometimes been treated as interchangeable. Delegation and participation have evolved from two different theoretical perspectives and are used by managers under different sets of conditions. Two studies are reported that examined these differences.

Results indicated that decision importance, subordinate information, and subordinate goal congruence explained 23% of the variance in manager's preference (230).

The correlational study examined similar situational predictors of supervisors' reported use of delegation and participation with subordinates.

These results largely confirmed the findings of the experimental study and also showed supervisor workload as a significant predictor. In addition, objective measures of subordinate performance significantly correlated with the use of delegation but not with participation (232).

Green and Tabor noted that a group nominal voting scheme produced the highest satisfaction with the group decision making process, as well as, the lowest amount of expressed negative socio-emotional behaviors and personal participation. A consensus scheme produced practically the opposite results (104).

Leana compared the effects of group cohesiveness and leader behavior on defective decision making in a partial test of Janis' Groupthink Model. Groupthink is a term used to describe concurrence seeking tendencies which can be detrimental in the way they can override a realistic appraisal of the possible courses of action open to a group or to members thereof. This can result in defective decision making when the following occur: gathering prior to the discussion. The major influencing factor on decision appears to be the type of leadership present (17).

Weiss found that leaders who feel they are

1. An incomplete assessment of the objectives
2. Not examining preferred risks
3. Failure to examine all the alternatives
4. Incomplete information acquired
5. Exhibition of selective bias
6. Not reappraising alternatives
7. Lack of a contingency plan.

A comparison was made of groups that have consistently worked together and newly formed groups for the presence of detrimental groupthink. The study included 208 students divided into groups consisting of three group members and one group leader. Each group was presented with the same problem to solve and roles were assigned. The levels of cohesiveness, tested were twofold: cohesive and noncohesive. The levels of leader behavior tested were also twofold: directive and participative. The amount of information able to be processed by a group is directly related to cohesiveness, and leader behavior affected the final decisions as well as number of alternatives considered (15). Cohesiveness also allowed for better information gathering prior to the discussion. The major influencing factor on decision appears to be the type of leadership present (17).

Weiss found that leaders who feel they are

participative often use a participative approach only when a quality solution is not needed. Such participation is self-defeating because of its condescending nature. When there is a lack of goal congruence, but decisions are turned over to a group anyway, the recommendations are often ignored because they do not meet the leaders' objectives. If more and more recommendations are ignored, the frustration level of subordinates will grow (4-5).

Munkirs and Knoedler questioned whether business decisions are a product of competitive market structures or are determined through the use of power and coercion by giant corporations. They concluded that, although the efficient use of modern tools demands intra/inter-industry coordination and cooperation, community adherence to the prevailing ceremonial knowledge is still a prerequisite for those in power to retain their status. This is why decisions and actions of corporate leaders are becoming increasingly dysfunctional (1682).

Corporate grass-roots participation through goal congruence to meet strategic business objectives may become irrelevant if decisions made at the first

company line level are not adhered to at senior corporate levels.

### Subjects

#### Statement of Hypothesis

The specific hypothesis is that management decision-making is primarily driven by political viability (superior and subordinate acceptance) in large corporate organizations.

The subliminal thought process behind a decision is gratification of organizational acceptance and distribution of advantages and disadvantages rather than the need to resolve the business issue.

A strata of managerial personnel within the RCA/R component is the Product Support Division with approximately 2,000 employees.

The Product Support Division was selected as the representative sample population for the following reasons:

1. Personnel who are within the division represent a large cross section of job classifications (70% for manufacturing and support and service sectors skills).

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### Subjects

The target population are managers of large corporations (greater than 10,000 employees).

The representative corporation surveyed is the McDonnell Aircraft Company (MCAIR), a component of McDonnell Douglas Corporation.

There are 6 levels of management for 33,000 employees, as defined by McDonnell Aircraft's organizational structure. They are labeled level A thru F with A representing the President of the MCAIR component, and levels D thru F representing a department director thru subordinate section manager respectively. The 1st line supervision (F level) is a direct subordinate link to worker levels.

A strata of managerial personnel within the MCAIR component is the Product Support Division with approximately 2,000 employees.

The Product Support Division was selected as the representative sample population for the following reasons:

1. Personnel who are within the division represent a large cross section of job classifications (72) for manufacturing and support and service sectors skills.

2. The employees have a diversified background of collegiate and military disciplines.
3. The sampling frames and survey information are readily obtained.

The sample frame is the MCAIR Human Resources Division (HRD) compensation system managerial listing for the Product Support Division. The sampling units are individual elements of the population.

Demographic information does not indicate a significance to affect survey data. Age, sex, geographic location, and education are predominately; 35 to 60, male, Midwest, and collegiate, respectively.

### Instrument

The first concern is whether the population defined as management D thru F have an equal chance of selection.

The method used to select subjects is random sampling. No strata was additionally defined since the research hypothesis is concerned with operational management rather than hierarchical management levels, therefore additional stratification is not necessary.

The sample frame consists of 191 managers. Managers were selected as subjects via random number assignment to the sample frame. All even numbers from lowest to highest were selected until 96 subject managers (50%) were attained.

An array table of 7000 random digits was used to select the 191 random numbers representing the sampling frame. 255 total numbers were selected to avoid duplication for the 191 sampling units of the frame.

The D and E management levels are 35% of the total sample frame and the F level is the remainder. 96 numbers were selected using a skip interval of every other number for a 50% random sample.

A construct survey by self-administered questionnaires was the data collection process.

The cover memorandum, Appendix A, stated the purpose of the survey and specific instructions.

A mailing list was constructed and subjects were sent a questionnaire via mail. Respondents were given no later than 2 weeks to return the questionnaire.

The dependent variable to be measured is managerial political viability with respect to the independent variable, managerial decision-making.

Manipulation of the independent variable, managerial decision-making, is through descriptive statements addressed to the subjects. Subjects then have the option to agree or disagree with the descriptive statements.

The validity of measurement must first isolate the political viability, if any, from the technical

issue(s) in a manager's decision process. Second, it must gauge the magnitude of political viability.

The randomization of subjects strengthens the external validity.

The consistency of results produced by the relevancy of the question and the respondents' selections will validate its reliability.

### Procedure

The H<sub>0</sub>, null hypothesis that will be tested is there is no political viability in management decision-making within large corporations. In other words, the H<sub>0</sub>, null hypothesis states that respondents ratings will not differ from those expected on the basis of chance alone.

✓ The H<sub>1</sub>, alternative or research hypothesis is that there is a significance of political viability in management decision-making of large corporations.

The H<sub>0</sub>, null hypothesis will be rejected only if the sample value obtained is rare enough to come from the hypothesized (H<sub>1</sub>) population. A 5% criterion of significance and a "two-tail test" will be performed.

The measurement scale selected is a Likert-type summated ordinal scale.

Although, a Likert-type scale has ordinal properties on an inter-subject basis, a presumed interval (summed) scale measurement is obtained for each individual subject by assigning numerical values. Empirical studies have been conducted on behavioral attitudes that allow researchers using rating scales without a real zero to assume equal intervals between values.

Five response categories are used to poll attitudes with respect to decision-making.

A pretest of the questionnaire was conducted with 5 managers not in the sample frame to assess their response. No conflicts or ambiguity were encountered.

Questions were assigned negative and positive magnitude with respect to the their favorability to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis.

The questionnaire (Appendix B) is constructed as a Likert-type scale with questions favorable or unfavorable (-F or +U) to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis.

Questions 2 thru 13 were used to isolate the dependent variable, political viability, under the following research assumptions:

2. The question is unfavorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. If the subject is in agreement, the subject is concerned with subordinate acceptance versus an optimizing model of

- decision-making and a positive magnitude will be indicated.
3. The question is unfavorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. If the subject is in agreement, the subject is concerned with superior acceptance versus an optimizing model of decision-making and a positive magnitude will be indicated.
  4. The question is favorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. If the subject is in agreement, a negative magnitude will be indicated. Interactive subordinate decision processes mute political viability.
  5. The question is unfavorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. If the subject is in agreement, a positive magnitude will be indicated. One-to-one consultations for decisions are more prone to political viability since the group may be unaware of the decision alternatives prior to the decision-making process.
  6. The question is unfavorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. If the subject is in agreement, the subject is concerned with subordinate acceptance versus an optimizing model of decision-making and a positive magnitude will be indicated.
  7. The question is unfavorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. If the subject is in agreement, a positive magnitude will be indicated. Anticipation of rewards can bias the decision-making process.
  8. The question is favorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. If the subject is in agreement, a negative magnitude will be indicated. Subject agreement indicates subordinates are best equipped to provide technical analysis which mutes a politically viable decision.
  9. The question is unfavorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. If the subject is in agreement, a positive magnitude will be indicated. Subject agreement is prone to the political viability of superior/subordinate acceptance.
  10. The question is unfavorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. If the subject is in agreement, a positive magnitude will be indicated. Subject agreement is prone to the political viability of superior/subordinate acceptance.
  11. The question is unfavorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. If the subject is in agreement, the subject is concerned with benefits of the organization versus an optimizing model of decision-making and a positive magnitude will

be indicated.

12. The question is unfavorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. The subject's agreement is political in nature, since the question's description is a definition of organizational politics and a positive magnitude will be indicated.
13. The question is unfavorable to the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis. When organizational resources decline, political viability increases. The subject's decision-making may be biased by organizational resource advantages and disadvantages versus an optimizing model of decision-making. A positive magnitude will be indicated if the subject is in agreement.

### Data Analysis

Numerical values were assigned to the 5 rating categories in the survey as -2, -1, 0, 1, and 2.

For example, if a question was favorable to the null hypothesis, it was assigned a negative value (-1, or -2) with respect to the subject's strength of agreement. If a question was unfavorable to the null hypothesis, it was assigned a positive value (1, or 2) with respect to the strength of the subject's agreement. A zero was assigned if a subject was uncertain or ambivalent to the question.

A simple data tabulation of respondent selections was gathered by assigning numbers and magnitude to the ratings categories for each question.

The more negative the magnitude of the respondents' total score, the greater the respondent identified with  $H_0$ , the null hypothesis.

The more positive the magnitude of the respondent's total score, the less the respondent identified with  $H_0$ , the null hypothesis.

Questions 1 and 14 in Figure 6 were used only for introduction and ending of the questionnaire and served no statistical purpose. They were discarded from the data compilation.

In all, 54 subjects responded for a 56% return ratio. The return is sufficient to begin scoring and analyses.

Segregation of ratings categories were not tallied by question for cross checks since categories could not be accurately assessed to a subject or the hypotheses.

Since the Likert-type scale cannot be interval by ratings categories, a  $t$  test for one sample was defined as the inferential statistical test for a nondirectional hypothesis with a probability of .05.

Each respondents' selection were added algebraically for the respondents total score. This calculates to an obtained  $t$  value of 0.9635 standard deviations beyond the  $H_0$  null hypothesis mean of 0.00.

A  $t$  distribution with 50 degrees of freedom,  $(N - 1)$ , has a critical  $t$  value of 2.011 for a nondirectional hypothesis with a probability of .05 as provided by Student's  $t$  Distribution Table.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Table 3 records the respondents' results. All respondents' answers were numerically coded. The tabulation of answers are summed algebraically and squared for each respondent. The total score is 30 and each individual respondent sum is squared and summed for a value of 968.

A frequency distribution for the raw scores in Figure 5 shows 42.6% of the sample population to be negative in magnitude with 9.2% neutral. The remaining 48.2% are positive in magnitude.

The Measure of Central Tendency in Table 4 is the mean of the sampling distribution which equals 0.555.

The Measures of Dispersion are the sum of the squared deviations at 951.33, a sample variance of 17.949 and the estimate of sample standard deviation at 4.236.

The standard error of the mean is 0.5765. This calculates to an obtained  $t$  value of 0.9635 standard deviations beyond the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis mean of 0.00.

A  $t$  distribution with 53 degrees of freedom, (N of 54 - 1), has a critical  $t$  value of 2.021 for a nondirectional hypothesis with a probability of .05 as provided by Student's  $t$  Distribution Table.

Table 3

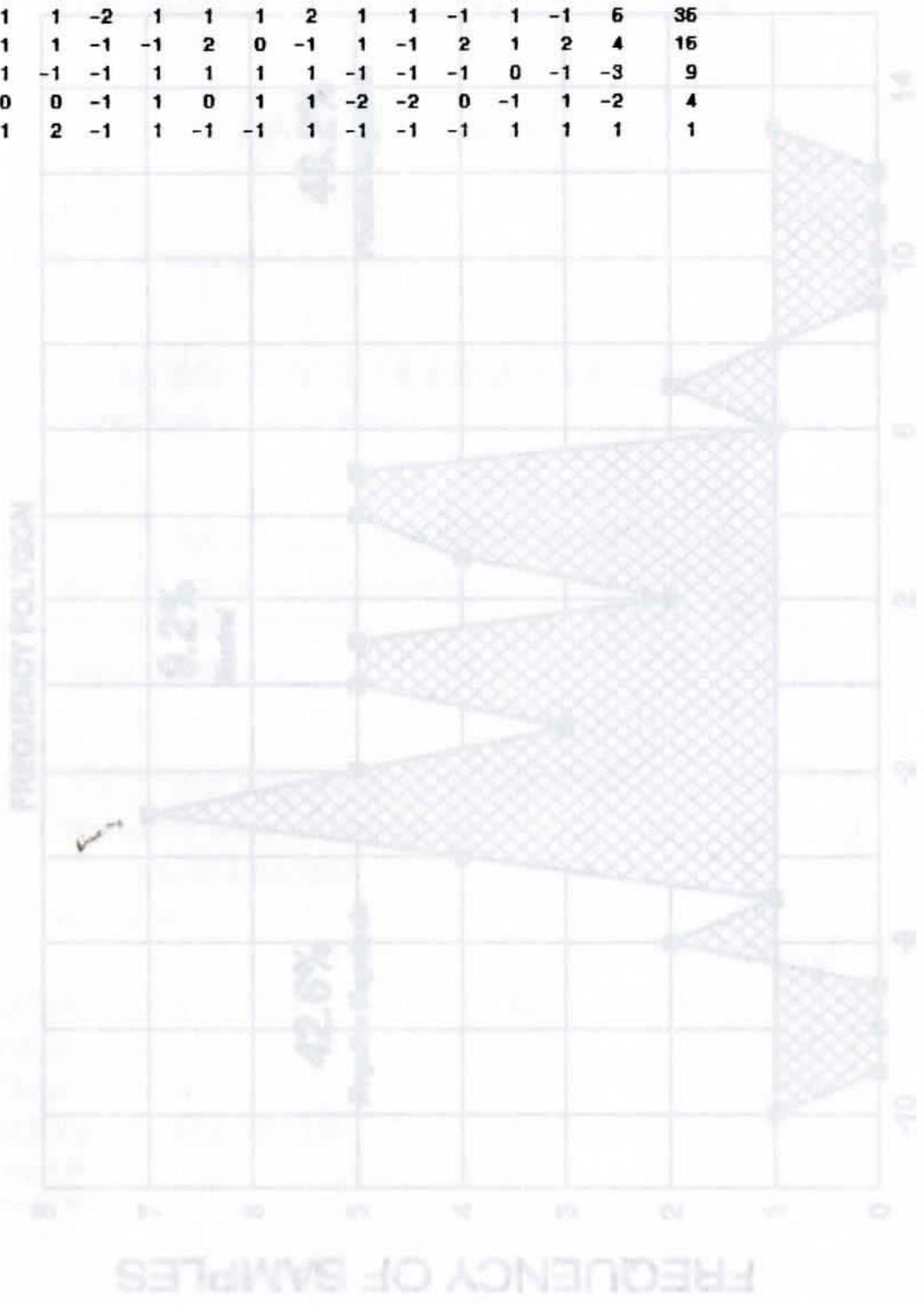
## MANAGEMENT POLITICAL VIABILITY SURVEY

(per subject)	*(F)avorable, (U)nfavorable and Magnitude (+/-) for Ho													SUM	SUM
\$	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	SUM	SUM	
*	+U	+U	-F	+U	+U	+U	-F	+U	+U	+U	+U	+U		SQD	
1	-1	1	-1	0	1	2	1	-1	1	1	1	2	7	49	
2	-1	-1	-1	1	0	1	2	1	-1	1	1	1	4	16	
3	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	-1	-1	-2	1	1	-5	25	
4	1	1	-1	-1	0	-1	-1	1	-1	1	-1	2	0	0	
5	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	-1	1	-1	-1	0	-1	1	-6	36	
6	0	1	-1	1	0	0	1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	1	1	
7	1	1	0	1	0	1	2	-1	-1	-1	1	1	5	25	
8	2	2	-1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	13	169	
9	1	1	-1	-1	0	-1	1	-1	0	-1	-1	1	-2	4	
10	-1	1	-1	-1	1	1	1	-1	0	-1	1	1	1	1	
11	-1	2	-2	2	1	1	-2	0	-2	-1	1	2	1	1	
12	-1	0	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	0	-1	-1	1	2	-4	16	
13	-1	1	-1	-1	0	1	1	0	0	1	1	2	4	16	
14	-1	1	-1	-1	1	2	2	1	-1	-1	1	2	5	25	
15	-1	-1	-1	1	2	1	-1	-1	-1	-2	1	2	-1	1	
16	-1	-1	0	1	-1	1	1	-1	-2	-1	1	2	-1	1	
17	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-2	-1	1	2	-4	16	
18	1	1	-2	-1	2	1	1	0	-1	-1	1	1	3	9	
19	-1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	1	0	-1	-1	-1	1	-3	9	
20	-1	0	-1	2	2	1	-1	1	0	1	0	1	5	25	
21	-1	1	-1	-1	1	0	2	0	-2	1	1	2	3	9	
22	-1	-2	1	1	0	1	1	-1	0	1	2	2	5	25	
23	-1	-1	-1	-1	0	1	-1	0	-1	-1	1	1	-4	16	
24	-1	-1	-2	1	0	2	1	-1	-1	2	2	1	3	9	
25	-2	-2	-1	1	1	1	1	-1	1	1	2	2	4	16	
26	1	-1	-1	0	1	-1	-1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	
27	-1	-1	-1	0	1	-1	2	-1	-2	-1	1	1	-3	9	
28	1	2	-1	-1	-1	1	2	-1	-1	-1	1	2	3	9	
29	-1	1	-1	-1	0	-1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	-3	9	
30	-1	-1	-1	1	1	2	2	-1	-1	-1	0	2	2	4	
31	-2	-2	-2	-1	2	-1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	-6	36	
32	1	-1	-1	-1	0	1	0	-1	-1	0	-1	2	-2	4	
33	-1	2	-1	1	-1	1	1	1	1	-1	2	2	7	49	
34	-1	0	1	1	-1	1	1	1	-2	-1	-1	-2	-3	9	
35	2	1	-2	2	1	0	1	1	-1	1	1	1	8	64	
36	-1	-1	-1	0	0	1	1	1	1	-1	-1	1	0	0	
37	-1	-1	-2	-1	2	-1	-1	0	-1	1	2	2	-1	1	
38	-1	1	-2	-1	-1	1	2	2	-1	-1	1	2	2	4	
39	-1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	1	1	0	0	
40	-1	0	-1	-1	1	-1	1	0	-1	-1	0	1	-3	9	
41	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	-2	4	
42	-1	1	1	-1	-1	1	0	0	-2	-2	0	1	-3	9	
43	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	-1	1	-10	100	
44	-1	1	-1	0	0	0	0	1	-1	-2	-1	0	-4	16	
45	2	1	-1	-2	-2	1	1	0	-2	1	0	1	0	0	
46	-1	-1	-2	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	2	4	16	
47	-1	-1	-1	1	-1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	-2	4	

Table 3 (cont.)

#	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	SUM	SQD
*	+U	+U	-F	+U	+U	+U	-F	+U	+U	+U	+U	+U		
48	1	1	-1	1	1	0	0	0	-1	0	1	2	5	25
49	1	-1	0	1	1	1	-2	1	-1	-2	-1	2	0	0
50	1	1	-2	1	1	1	2	1	1	-1	1	-1	6	36
51	-1	1	-1	-1	2	0	-1	1	-1	2	1	2	4	16
52	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1	1	-1	-1	-1	0	-1	-3	9
53	0	0	-1	1	0	1	1	-2	-2	0	-1	1	-2	4
54	1	2	-1	1	-1	-1	1	-1	-1	-1	1	1	1	1

MANAGER'S POLITICAL VIABILITY



RAW SCORES

FREQUENCY OF SAMPLES

Total Sample = 24

# MANAGER'S POLITICAL VIABILITY

## FREQUENCY POLYGON

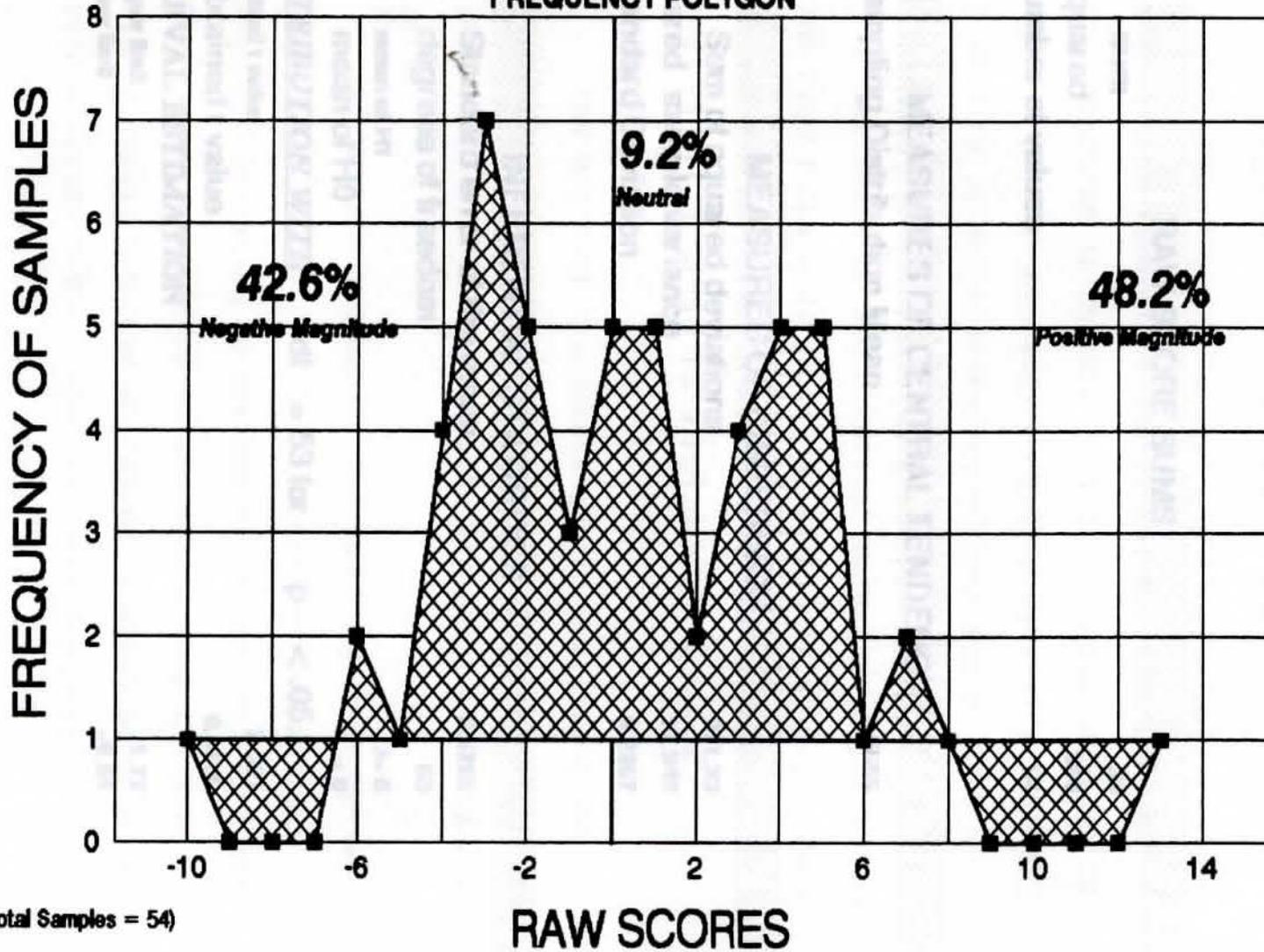


Figure 5

LINDENWOOD COLLEGE

Table 4

DESCRIPTIVE & INFERENCE STATISTICS  
FOR MANAGEMENT POLITICAL VIABILITY

RAW SCORE SUMS

<i>EX</i>	sum	30
<i>EX</i>	squared	968
<i>N</i>	number of values	54

MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY

<i>X</i>	Sampling Distribution Mean	0.5555
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MEASURES OF DISPERSION

<i>SS</i>	Sum of squared deviations	951.33
<i>s</i>	squared sample variance	17.949
<i>s</i>	Standard Deviation	4.2367

INFERENCE STATISTICS

<i>sx</i>	Standard error of the mean	0.5765
<i>df</i>	degrees of freedom	53
<i>U</i>	mean of H1	1=0
<i>u</i>	mean of H0	=0

*t* DISTRIBUTION WITH *df* = 53 for *p* < .05.

<i>t</i>	Critical <i>t</i> value	2.021
<i>t</i>	Obtained <i>t</i> value	0.9635

INTERVAL ESTIMATION

<i>u</i>	upper limit	1.72
<i>u</i>	lower limit	-0.61

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION

The main thesis is that political viability is a significant element of management decision-making. Research in Chapter II and III lends credence to certain points that address the fringes of political viability in decision-making without empirically stating that it exists.

The research and resultant survey attempts to test the significance of political viability as determined by manager self-assessed responses to the method or type of decision-making used in large corporate organizations.

The  $H_0$ , null hypothesis states that political viability in management decision-making does not exist, therefore, the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis has a mean equal to zero.

As Table 4 indicates, the sampling distribution of the mean is 0.555, and the estimate of population standard deviation or measure of variability is 4.236. Therefore, respondents in the random sample appear to average about 0.5 over an assumed neutral point of 0 with a standard deviation just over 4 points.

This element appears within Figure 5's frequency polygon (distribution) as the 48.2% sample population with a positive magnitude.

This presumes that political viability may exist, however slight, within management decision-making. Its significance is tested by the estimate of standard deviation for the sampling distribution of the mean which is 0.576. This calculates to an obtained  $t$  value of 0.963 standard deviations beyond the  $H_0$ , null hypothesis mean of 0.00.

A  $t$  distribution with 53 degrees of freedom, (N of 54 - 1), has a critical  $t$  value of 2.021 for a probability of .05 based on Student's  $t$  Distribution.

Based on the critical  $t$  value, the obtained  $t$  value of 0.963 does not fall into the 5% probability area of a nondirectional hypothesis.

The  $H_1$  research hypothesis cannot be supported.

#### Summary

As a result it cannot be statistically inferred that The  $H_0$ , null hypothesis that the population of the mean 0.555 and the standard deviation of 4.236 CANNOT be rejected at the 95% confidence level.

The sample subjects come from a population who DO NOT have a bias of political viability

$t(53) = .963, p < .05$ .

As indicated by the obtained  $t$  value the sample proportion of positive magnitude scores was not significant enough at the 95% confidence level to put the sample population within the 5% area of Figure 6.

The critical value of 2.021 for an alpha level of .05 indicates that samples which are 2.021 standard deviation units or more from the mean in the sampling distribution have a probability of .05 or less of being selected at random from the population distribution described by  $H_0$ , null hypothesis.

The sample mean is 0.965 standard deviation units from the mean of the sampling distribution for  $H_0$ .

Therefore, the obtained  $t$  value is less than the critical  $t$  value. The probability of the sample coming from the population distribution described by  $H_0$  is greater than the alpha level and  $H_0$  must be retained. The  $H_1$ , research hypothesis cannot be supported.

As a result it cannot be statistically inferred that political viability exists within management decision-making in large corporations.

### Limitations

Corporations normally consider political behavior outside the realm of curricular duties in a managerial decision-making process.

# SAMPLING DISTRIBUTION FOR POLITICAL VIABILITY

with critical t values included

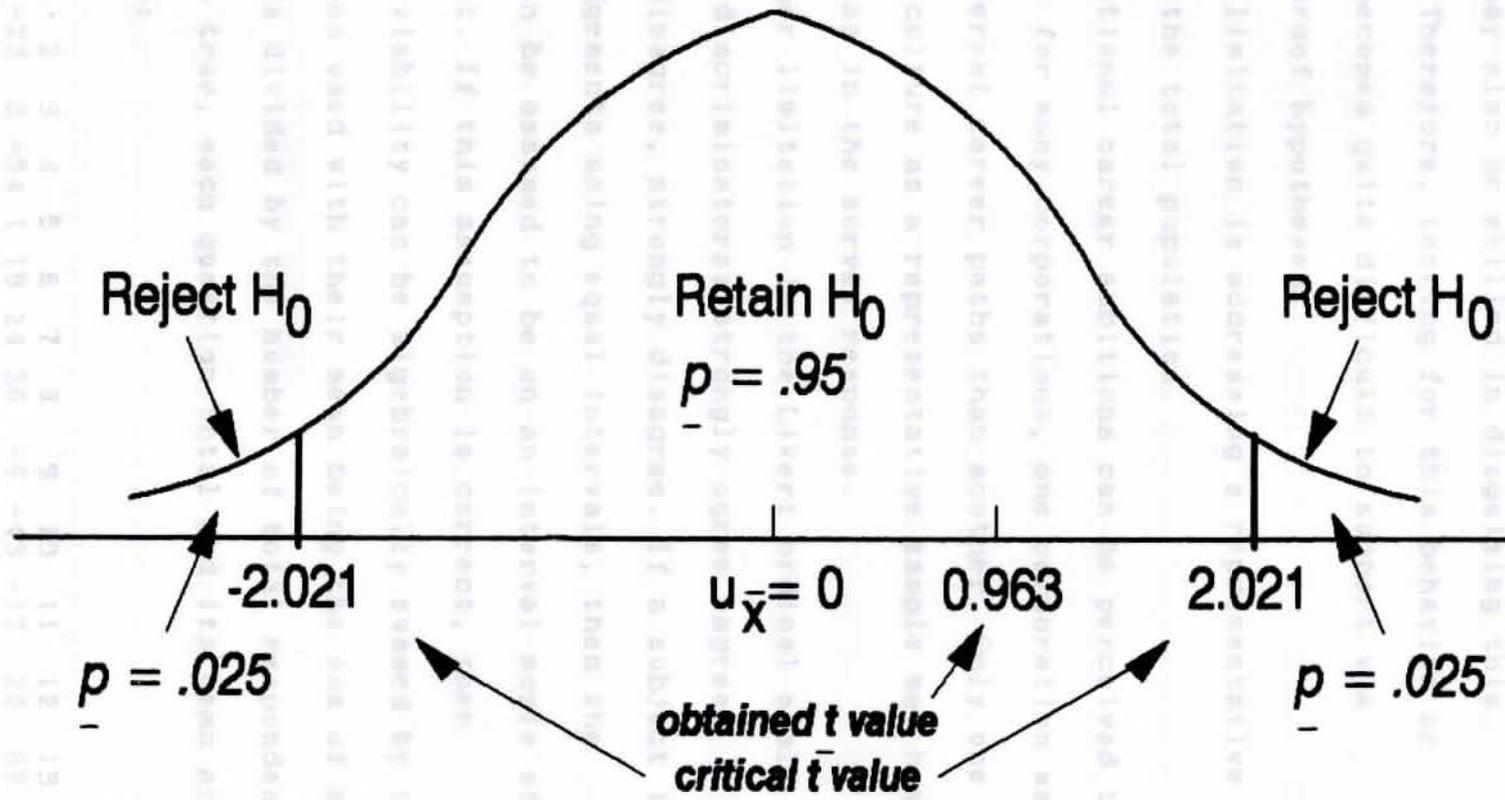


Figure 6

One may presume that managers skilled in corporate politics may also be skilled in disguising this behavior. Therefore, testing for this behavior or attitude becomes quite difficult to support via indirect proof hypotheses.

The first limitation is addressing a representative sample of the total population.

Promotional career ambitions can be perceived to be similar for many corporations, one corporation may chart different career paths than another. Only one corporate culture as a representative sample may have induced bias in the survey response.

Another limitation is the Likert ordinal scale with five discriminators; strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree. If a subject is making judgements using equal intervals, then the ratings can be assumed to be on an interval scale of measurement. If this assumption is correct, then political viability can be algebraically summed by the 12 questions used with their mean being the sum of all respondents divided by the number of total respondents. If this is true, each question total and its mean are as follows:

QUESTION#	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
TOTAL	-23	3	-54	1	18	24	36	-9	-43	-17	26	68
MEAN	-.4	.1	-1	0	.3	.4	.6	-.2	-.8	-.3	.5	1.2

This could then be tested through an analysis of variance (ANOVA) for two or more conditions (samples) in a single test. Unfortunately, there is only one condition or sample; the dependent variable, political viability. This negates the ANOVA since there must be more than one condition.

In addition, the questions may not represent an accurate picture of the respondents' attitudes when taken out individually as a measurement.

Another limitation is the t test inferential statistic for one sample. With a t test for independent samples, two samples instead of one, are described to test  $H_0$ , the null hypothesis. The test is based on the differences between sample means. Even this is not as effective as a t test for correlated samples which measures actual behaviors versus the difference between behaviors. Both t tests mentioned offer better statistical measures of the hypothesis than the t test used for one sample.

#### Suggestion for Future Research

A different instrument design such as a control and experiment group in lieu of a survey for political viability would reduce external influences on the subjects' responses.

Use of a ratio or true interval scale would of subjected data to a more rigorous statistical test for  $H_0$ , the null hypothesis, thereby decreasing the chance of a Type II error.

A larger sample population across a wider geographical area may have provided a more accurate assessment of the dependent variable, political viability.

Better discriminators (questions), would allow a more precise interpretation of the respondents attitude towards the dependent variable, political viability.

The hypothesis itself could of been narrowed to a more specific population than managers in large corporations. Perhaps, directors, vice-presidents or combinations of other managerial strata could of been selected.

Additional research of empirical data may overcome the covertness of political behavior, as well as, changes in management culture and corporate career development.

Sincerely,

Kalena J. Kovach  
0791294/870-2892

APPENDIX A  
POLITICAL VIABILITY QUESTIONNAIRE

COVER MEMORANDUM

Informal Memo  
16 November 1990

Dear Teammate:

I am conducting this survey for a Master's thesis to obtain information on the relative political viability of management decision making in large corporate organizations.

You were selected via simple random sampling from the HRD Compensation System listing. This is a confidential survey, do not provide any identification. Your responses to my questionnaire will be anonymous.

The enclosed questionnaire asks you to respond to 14 items and shouldn't take more than a few minutes to complete. Your answers and opinions are extremely important. Please answer all questions or it can negate all answers.

Just fold the entire questionnaire, staple it, and return it by 30 November 1990 via interoffice mail.

I look forward to receiving your response and those of your teammates. If you are interested in the surveys' results, please call me after seven weeks from the date of this memo.

The outcome should be interesting. Do not hesitate to call at the extension below if there is an uncertainty about the survey.

Thank you for your time and help.

Sincerely,

Kalman J. Kovach  
0791294/872-2892

APPENDIX B

POLITICAL VIABILITY QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

In ten words or less, state your most important belief of effective managerial decision-making.

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CHECK ONE FOR EACH ITEM)

Subordinate acceptance of your business decisions is one of the most pressing problems you face today.

<input type="checkbox"/>				
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

Superior acceptance of your business decisions is one of the most pressing problems you face today.

<input type="checkbox"/>				
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

Most of the time, my decisions are based on a subordinate interactive group decision-making process.

<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

Most of the time, my decisions are based on one-to-one consultations with subordinates in my group.

<input type="checkbox"/>				
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

Your direct subordinates make the best business decisions for the market environment you face today.

<input type="checkbox"/>				
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE

Managers in general, anticipate their "rewards based on the type of decisions they make.

STRONGLY  
AGREE

AGREE

UNCERTAIN

DISAGREE

STRONGLY  
DISAGREE

Technical analysis for decision making has no value above the mid-management (E level) level.

STRONGLY  
AGREE

AGREE

UNCERTAIN

DISAGREE

STRONGLY  
DISAGREE

The value of a decision is measured less in its solution than by its compatibility with the organization in which it is pronounced.

STRONGLY  
AGREE

AGREE

UNCERTAIN

DISAGREE

STRONGLY  
DISAGREE

The correct decision to make is the decision desired by subordinates and/or superiors.

STRONGLY  
AGREE

AGREE

UNCERTAIN

DISAGREE

STRONGLY  
DISAGREE

Decisions are justified by the benefits to the organization, but they are made by considering the benefits to the decision-makers.

STRONGLY  
AGREE

AGREE

UNCERTAIN

DISAGREE

STRONGLY  
DISAGREE

Decision-making is concerned with the distribution of advantages and disadvantages within the organization.

STRONGLY  
AGREE

AGREE

UNCERTAIN

DISAGREE

STRONGLY  
DISAGREE

When an organizations resources are declining or the existing pattern of resources are changing, a manager's decision-making process is likely to be affected.

STRONGLY  
AGREE

AGREE

UNCERTAIN

DISAGREE

STRONGLY  
DISAGREE

In ten words or less, state your least important belief of effective managerial decision-making.

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Again, all reponses will be treated with the utmost confidence.

WHEN COMPLETED, FOLD ENTIRE QUESTIONNAIRE, STAPLE, AND MAIL VIA INTER-OFFICE MAIL.

(Note: Survey forms were altered for presentation in Appendix B)

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