CHAPTER 2:
LITERATURE REVIEW: TEAMING IN ORGANISATIONS

- 18 -
2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents a literature review of the concepts central to this study. Teamwork as a broad concept is defined and various types of teams are looked at. Aspects of teamwork, such as team roles (and theories relating to the role of teams in organisations), team development and team building, and how teams function, are examined. The use of teams in the context of 21st century organisations is also explored.

2.2 IMPORTANCE OF A LITERATURE REVIEW

One of the research participants, an audit manager at the Auditor General (Interviewee 3, 2007:pers.comm.) commented: “Textbooks offer fascinating theories and explanations. The more you read the ‘better you get’ at leading teams. However, implementation remains the biggest team challenge for organisations”. This offers a good rationale for doing a literature review.

The literature review remains a crucial part of any research project. According to Mouton (2001:86), a literature review is aimed at finding out what has been done in a particular field of study. Babbie (2005:457) regards such a review as the process of indicating where a particular report or study fits into the context of the general body of scientific knowledge. To ensure that the research question is unique and will add value to the body of knowledge, the researcher has to find out what has been written in that particular field and discover what has been found in the empirical research in the field.

Mouton (2001:87) prefers to speak of a review of the existing scholarship, since the researcher is actually interested in a whole range of research products that have been produced by other scholars in that field. To focus this review, the following questions were used, as proposed in the guidelines for writing a literature review by two authors from Rhodes University (Grahamstown), Oosthuizen and Shell (2002:30):

- What are the broad bodies of literature relevant to this research topic?
- What method(s) and results have previous resources in this field produced?
• What theoretical models relate to this research topic?
• What different methodologies have been applied by other researchers?
• What are the most recent findings in this field of study?
• What gaps exist in these findings?

*My greatest challenge was to review all the relevant literature, but remain objective and unbiased since my interviews have to guide my report and team findings. I have to focus on the fact that my reasoning has to be inductive and that – only after the qualitative intervention – I can really make conclusions.

2.3 INTRODUCING TEAMS

Teams can be depicted in terms of many philosophies and theoretical frameworks, and team-based philosophy within organisations is becoming increasingly popular and commonplace (Sheard & Kakabadse, 2001). Recently, in the United Kingdom (UK), as many as 82% of companies with 100 or more employees reported using team structures (Gordon, 2002). Banker et al. (1996) argue that the use of teams has led to tremendous organisational improvements in a variety of industries. In South Africa, the scenario is the same: “Teams, instead of jobs, have become the critical building block of future organisations” (Robbins et al., 2004:99).

Since the beginnings of humankind, some form of teamwork has continuously taken place. Nevertheless, when people are asked to define the underlying principles of modern teams, they are often vague about the precise meaning and implications of the words “teams” or “teamwork”.

Teamwork has been investigated widely and can be defined from many perspectives. As a consultant working with team development issues on a daily basis, I used literature studies and existing models to enable me to

* From the researcher’s diary. Similar reflections are included in grey shaded boxes throughout the report.
understand teams and answer my research question regarding what teams are.

There is currently a large body of work looking at very specific aspects of teamwork and team development. Many Organisational Behaviour theories on teamwork were reviewed in order to consider all the relevant theories and models that might explain teams in any way.

2.4 DEFINING “TEAMS”

“Teamwork is the ability to work together toward a common vision, the ability to direct individual accomplishment toward organisational objectives. It is the fuel that allows common people to attain uncommon results” (Exco member, Auditor General 2007: pers.comm.). This view by one of the research participants reflects only one view of many.

In order to understand teams and their complexities, a researcher or team consultant needs to read, read and read.

Koontz and Weihrich (1988:101) define teamwork as two or more persons who
• are interdependent in executing a set of activities;
• interact face-to-face and interact frequently with each other;
• make differential contributions; and
• strive to achieve a common goal in respect of a core task.

Robbins et al. (2004) describes self-managed teams as teams where members are willing to
• accept change;
• try new things;
• take on more responsibility;
• be held accountable for results;
• take action instead of waiting for instructions; and
• act in the best interests of the team rather than the self.
Hemingway (1991) distinguishes between nominal teams (which are a group in name only and in essence consist of individuals trying to work together) and real teams.

Real teams are defined as teams where individuals
- understand their assignments;
- have clear goals and values;
- communicate in an open manner;
- operate in a basic climate of trust; and
- have basic team skills.

As a last comment regarding a definition of teams, Guzzo and Dickson (1996:308) refer to a so-called ‘definitional struggle’ in the field of team research. Authors, as explained in the stated definitions, often refer to work groups or teams alike.

Hackman (1987) argues that a work group is made up of individuals who see themselves and who are seen by others as a social entity, who are interdependent because of the task they perform as members of a group, who are embedded in one or more larger social system and who perform tasks that affect others.

Katzenbach and Smith (1993) assert that groups become teams when they develop a sense of shared commitment and strive for synergy among members. In the view of these definitions, Guzzo and Dickson (1996:309) suggest that the “labels” of team and group should be used interchangeably, recognising that “there may be degrees of difference, rather than fundamental divergences, in the meaning implied by these terms”.

In the context of teams, **team effectiveness** should also be defined and understood.

There seems to be no uniform or singular measure of performance effectiveness for teams. Guzzo and Dickson (1996:309) suggest that team effectiveness should be defined broadly, and is indicated by:

(a) “group produced outputs like quality, speed and customer satisfaction;  
(b) the consequences a group has for its members; or  
(c) the enhancement of a team’s capability to perform effectively in future”.

### 2.5 TEAM IDENTITIES / TYPES OF TEAMS

In order to understand teams, recent research on particular types of teams should be considered. Various classifications of teams into some kind of group or category have been offered. Hackman (1990), for example, classified teams in categories such as ‘delivery teams’ and ‘performing teams’.

Teams are often defined in terms of their type or function, and many titles are given to many sets of teams. Literature studies unveil various terms and phrases that attempt to make it easier to understand teams: work teams, groups, virtual teams (Duarte & Tennant Snyder:1999), task forces, committees and cross-functional teams (Parker, 1994), project teams, hot groups (Lipman-Blumen & Leavitt, 1999), high performance teams and self-management teams (Wilson, 1996), to name but a few.

* From the researcher’s diary.
Kreitner and Kinicki (2001) describe 21st century teams in particular. They argue that the following would constitute the ideal scenario for successful organisations to thrive in the 21st century, incorporating new, innovative leadership and team styles:

- Teams are defined as small groups with complementary skills, committed to a common purpose, common performance goals, and a common approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable.
- A group of individuals becomes a team when:
  - leadership becomes a shared activity;
  - accountability shifts from being strictly individual to being both individual and collective;
  - the group develops its own purpose or mission;
  - problem-solving becomes a way of life, not a part-time activity;
  - effectiveness is measured by the group’s collective outcomes and products;
  - virtual teams (information technology) allows group members in different locations to conduct business;
  - self-managed teams are groups of employees granted administrative oversight for their work; and
  - cross-functional teams are made up of technical specialists from different areas.

There are many fascinating and interesting theories and models on teams and teamwork. It seems as if authors now prefer to move away from describing how teams work to describing the advantages of teams and the benefits they can generate – hence the use of terms such as “high performance teams” and the “high performance workplace”.

Vennix (1996) suggests that team learning should be better understood and used as a development tool in organisations. Sheard and Kakabadse (2001) argue that leaders should move away from loose groups towards effective teams; Nadler (1992) advocates high performance teams and Mohrman, Cohen and Mohrman (1995) describe the advantages of what they call “designing a team-based organisation”.

Some types of team that are being cited and relevant to the 21st century organisation are described below.

2.5.1 Self-managed teams

“Self-managing work teams offer a radical alternative to the status quo – one which allows individuals to grow beyond their wildest expectations, and at the same time allows unprecedented levels of output and quality improvement” (Wilson 1996:1).

The concept of self-directed work teams reached the popular audience in the United States of America (USA) in the late 1980s. In the late 1990s, a conference on self-managed work teams was convened in Texas, and more than over 350 delegates shared ideas on self-managed teams, improved quality and increased productivity. This era saw a boom in self-managed teams in the workplace (Wilson 1996). Cover stories in both *Fortune* and *Business Week* added to the uncritical praise of the shift toward empowering teams (Manz & Simsa, 1995:vii).

In essence, self-management means that groups perform the activities of a manager, and in many cases, have to make strategic decisions. Aldag and Riggs Fuller (1993) comment that self-managing teams will continue to grow in importance in the context of the new workplace, where structures are becoming flatter and decision-making is delegated to lower levels.

Robbins, Odendaal and Roodt (2004: 201) define self-managed work teams as “a permanent group of six to 18 relatively highly skilled organizational members who take a wide-ranging and joint responsibility for a whole process or product through the performance of a wide variety of tasks within clearly defined boundaries”.

Robbins *et al.* (2004) describe self-managed teams (from an organisational behavioural context) as members who have the ability to accept change, try new things, take on more responsibility, take risk, help other team members to succeed, take action and work responsibly without constant supervision.
Fully self-managed teams seem to answer to the following criteria:

- they are willing to and capable of working independently;
- they select their own members;
- they evaluate each other’s performance;
- they make their own decisions; and
- they continuously evolve towards higher levels of involvement, empowerment, enablement and leadership.

It thus seems as if self-managing teams are a “concrete manifestation of the learning organisation” (Robbins et al. 2004:204).

2.5.2 Virtual teams

Until a few years ago, teams typically operated in a face-to-face environment, conducting regular meetings and postponing interventions if one of the team members could not be present. In today’s business environment, team challenges are growing; and organisations literally have to adapt or die.

Globalisation, growing competition, technology and time constraints have now created an environment in which teams are logistically scattered and might not even operate in the same time zones. Teams now typically communicate and interact virtually and, as modern organisations emerge, it becomes rare to find all the team members located in the same office or place.

Katzenbach and Smith (2001:25) define virtual work as consisting of “tasks and activities that occur within today’s vast network of electronics, telecommunications and information technology”. With virtual teamwork, technology and the computer continue to redefine where and how work is done. The virtual team is no longer bound by traditional team practices, time, distance or locality; and a virtual team does not follow old models and team approaches.

Duarte and Tennant Snyder (1999:4) argue that there are various configurations of virtual teams:

- networked teams;
- parallel teams;
• project or product-development teams;
• work or production teams;
• service teams;
• management teams; and
• action teams.

The three primary factors that distinguish a virtual team from face-to-face teams are (Robbins et al., 2004)
• the absence of para-verbal and non-verbal cues;
• limited social context; and
• the ability to overcome time and space constraints.

McShane and Von Glinow (2003:230) note that “virtual teams leverage the benefits of team dynamics. They enable employees in diverse locations to collaborate and make potentially better decisions on complex issues”. When implemented effectively, virtual teams “represent a natural extension of knowledge management because they minimize the silos of knowledge problems that tends to develop when employees are geographically scattered”.

Katzenbach and Smith (2001) developed a short exercise to help virtual teams focus and streamline their efforts. They work through the following questions:
• Are you sure you are a team? Do you have to work together to achieve some performance purpose and challenge?
• Are a significant number of the team members located in different locations and or time zones?
• Will it benefit your team to interact routinely with one another?
• Will you be required to do a certain amount of virtual work?
• Do you have a plan for virtually acting as a team?

Guzzo and Dickson (1996) refer to an interesting study on computer-assisted groups, conducted by Hollingshead and McGrath in 1995. They found that computer-mediated groups tend to be characterised by less interaction and exchange than face-to-face groups, and often tend to take longer in their
work. They further noted that virtual teams appear superior at generating ideas. Sainfort et al. (1990) found that computer-aided groups generated more potential solutions to a problem and perceived themselves as making greater progress than the other groups in the study.

Dennis and Valacich (1993) also reported that virtual teams produced more ideas during a brainstorming task that did nominal groups.

Several authors have also studied communication patterns in virtual teams and reached similar finding. Kiesler and Sproul (1992) found that the communication in virtual groups is often characterised by greater equality of participation, more risky decisions, more hostile communications and greater direct advocacy.

2.5.3 High performance teams

As already stated, the concept of teams is as old as the human race, yet it remains a hot topic amongst researchers, managers and employees. The basic underlying principle of high performance teams is that “a group of people working in unison can accomplish more than those same numbers of people working alone” (Dalton, 1996:1). This concept is called synergy, and teams are often more effective than individuals because of the rich variety of talents, skills and strength they make available to the group.

Mc Shane and Von Glinow (2003: 231) refer to team effectiveness as “the extent to which a team achieves its objectives, achieves the needs and objectives of its members, and sustains itself over time”. They argue that organisations should rely on high performance teams rather than functional departments to reach organisational objectives. This argument also refers to the 21st century type of organisation with leaner structures and more integration versus a “silo” mentality.

According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2001), the attributes of high performance teams include the following:

- encouraging participative leadership;
- sharing responsibility;
aligning on purpose;
ensuring high communication levels;
being future-focused;
being focused on tasks;
developing creative talents; and
ensuring rapid response.

Rosenthal (2007) suggests that modern managers spend more and more time on getting teams back on track or intervening when the team is not achieving the expected results. He advises managers to focus on five key success factors when establishing and managing high performance teams:

- ensuring a shared and meaningful purpose;
- setting specific and challenging goals;
- determining a common and collaborative approach;
- clarifying roles; and
- ensuring complementary skills.

### 2.5.3.1 High performance team-based culture

According to Kilmann, Saxton, Serpa & Associates (1985:20), culture “is to the organisation what personality is to the individual – a hidden yet unifying theme that provides meaning, direction, and mobilization”.

In the introduction to his book *Thriving on Chaos*, Tom Peters (1989) remarks: “To thrive amidst chaos means to cope or come to grips with it, to succeed in spite of it. But that is too reactive an approach, and misses the point. The true objective is to take the chaos given and learn to thrive on it”. Against the background of the changes faced by organisations, many authors are of the opinion that companies need to capitalise on the talents and skills of their teams to focus their energy on solving complex problems and harnessing chaos.

To create an entire workplace to be a high performance team-based structure is incredibly difficult and challenging (Dalton, 1996). Quite often, the organisation becomes impatient before the process is completed, and when
the team approach does not illustrate a dramatic improvement in the company’s bottom line, managers often decide that teams do not work. The reality is that the workforce needs to be guided from working solo to working in teams, and that the organisational culture must be supportive of the team structure. When assessing research done in this field, it becomes clear that a high performance team-based culture is not attained overnight.

The implied characteristics of a high performance team-based culture are the following:

- the freedom to explore new technologies or approaches in order to solve complex problems (Hyman, 1993:56);
- a strong and aligned vision throughout the company (Ehlen, 1994);
- an environment which uses failures as foundations for successes (Hyman, 1993);
- a strong executive team and leadership (Nadler, 1992);
- a reward system that kicks in when the team produces quality results (Nadler, 1992);
- an open and honest communication practice where employees are encouraged to challenge and differ (Rohlander, 1999);
- an environment of trust, respect and support, where conflict is managed effectively (Dalton, 1996);
- a patient and committed culture – high performance teams are not developed overnight and require hard work (Dalton, 1996);
- a well-balanced (in terms of team roles) and diverse workforce (McCann & Margerison, 1998);
- a learning organisation orientation, where teams are regarded as a vehicle for learning to take place (Robbins et al., 2004).

2.5.4 Virtual high performance teams

“Effective leaders do not achieve team goals or team objectives by controlling, “bossing” and inhibiting people. They achieve goals by creating opportunities for teams to thrive and to be successful” (Interviewee 2: 2007. pers. comm). A virtual team does not follow old models and team approaches. A virtual team
uses technology and, although team members do not interact in a face-to-face manner on a daily basis, they communicate and focus on the results to be achieved. Many software packages have been developed to enable geographically dispersed team members to operate in such a manner as to ensure high performance.

Duarte and Tennant Snyder (1999:131) suggest that virtual teams that strive to operate as high performance teams need to become more self-aware. The following simple questions could assist a virtual team to elicit feedback and grow:

- Was my behaviour consistent with expectations?
- What was productive about it for the team?
- What was unproductive about it?
- If the team were to give me advice about how to behave differently next time, what would it be?
- Did cultural or functional differences affect perceptions?

Technology is not the only thing that makes a team a virtual team. Research suggests that contextual factors, apart from mere computer programs, play a role in high performance virtual teams. Valacich et al. (1994) studied the results between groups using the same computer system when all members of the group were in one room, as opposed to when the members were dispersed. The dispersed group generated more high quality and unique solutions than did the proximate group.

When observing teams and trying to understand what is expected of virtual team work, other factors, like context and communication patterns, should thus also be considered.

A high performance culture does not develop in a month or two. It takes time, top management commitment, time, hard work, resilience and more time. It can also only be done if an integrated and inter-disciplinary approach is adopted. To establish long-term changes and ensure an organisational development intervention, the leader / manager / consultant should look at the organisation at all organisational levels.
2.6 TEAM ROLE THEORIES

Extensive research regarding the roles that individuals play in teams has also been done. I selected to focus on the views of Dr Meredith Belbin, since he has taken the lead with books such as *Management teams: why they succeed or fail* (Belbin, 1993a), *Team roles at work* (Belbin, 1993b) and later *Beyond the team* (Belbin, 2000). Understanding team roles enables a researcher to discover team complexities and understand team challenges in context.

2.6.1 Belbin’s team role analysis

Belbin developed what is now called team role analysis. He has studied teams for many years and identified nine roles that he sees as important in teamwork. If one of these roles is not “played”, the grouping cannot be called a team, but merely a number of individuals working together (Belbin, 2000). The Belbin team role analysis is a very powerful tool in developing teams, but so far it is underutilised and it is hardly ever used as part of an integrated approach towards teamwork.

A team role can be described as a tendency to behave, contribute and interrelate with others in a particular way (Robbins, *et al*., 2004). The value of the nine roles identified by Belbin lies in the fact that the theory enables individuals or teams to benefit from self-knowledge. It also helps them to adjust according to the demands being made by the external situation.

Belbin conducted his team research at Henley Management College in the UK. Belbin and his co-researchers studied the behaviour of managers from all over the world. The participants in his study were given a battery of psychometric tests and they were put in teams of varying composition (Belbin, 2000). Their different personality traits, intellectual styles and behaviour styles were assessed while they were performing a complex management exercise. In his research, Belbin identified different clusters of behaviour. He found that these clusters underlie the success of teams. From that study, he identified three clusters and nine team roles, as illustrated in Table 2.1:
Table 2.1: Belbin’s role synopsis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Team role</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Action orientated</td>
<td>Shaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Implementer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Completer Finisher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People orientated</td>
<td>Co-ordinator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Team Worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Resource Investigator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cerebral roles</td>
<td>Plant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Monitor Evaluator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Specialist</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Belbin (2000)

Belbin (1993b) describes the characteristics of each role, as well as the “allowable weaknesses” of the roles as follows:

- **Plant**: Creative, imaginative, unorthodox. Solves difficult problems. Ignores detail. Too pre-occupied to communicate effectively.
- **Co-coordinator**: Mature, confident, a good chairperson. Clarifies goals, promotes decision-making, delegates well. Can often be seen as manipulative. Off-loads personal work.
- **Monitor Evaluator**: Sober, strategic and discerning. Sees all options. Judges accurately. Lacks drive and ability to inspire others.
- **Implementer**: Disciplined, reliable, conservative and efficient. Turns ideas into practical actions. Somewhat inflexible. Slow to respond to new possibilities.
- **Completer Finisher**: Painstaking, conscientious, anxious. Searches out errors and omissions. Delivers on time. Inclined to worry unduly. Reluctant to delegate.
- Shaper: Challenging, dynamic, thrives on pressure. The drive and courage to overcome obstacles. Prone to provocation. Offends people's feelings.
- Team Worker: Co-operative, mild, perceptive and diplomatic. Listens, builds, averts friction. Indecisive in crunch situations.
- Specialist: Single-minded, self-starting, dedicated. Provides knowledge and skills in rare supply. Contributes only on a narrow front. Dwells on technicalities.

Since Belbin's research has been published, many researchers set out to test his team role theory.

Fisher et al. (1998) specifically studied the issue of secondary team roles, because many teams in industry had fewer than nine members. The collected data showed that team roles fell into two general categories, and they labelled these two categories as “task” and “relationship” (1998:283). They found that these categories revealed the likely secondary team role for any given individual, and also predicted the degree of harmony and productiveness of dyads within any given team.

Prichard and Stanton (1999:650) found, consistent with Belbin's theory, that mixed teams, in which a variety of team roles were represented, performed significantly better at a management game in consensus decision making than teams composed solely of individuals identified as shapers. They confirmed that shaper teams are prone to in-fighting and high levels of failure to reach consensus on decisions. However, they indicated that more research needs to be conducted in the field of team roles, for example: the validation of the team roles themselves, and to establish the reliability and validity of the Belbin team role self-perception inventory (SPI) to predict them.
The Belbin team role analysis has tremendous potential if used correctly, but many organisations tend to use it in a culture that is not team-driven. This tool needs to be understood fully first before it can become part of an integrated team solution.

*Since both organisations in my study have been exposed to Belbin questionnaires before, it might be interesting to investigate the effectiveness of such a tool further. However, this is not part of the main research question and should not become the focus of the research interviews.

### 2.6.2 McShane and Von Glinow’ view on team roles

McShane and Von Glinow (2003:241) define a team role as a “set of behaviors that people are expected to perform because they hold certain positions in a team and organizations” (2003:241). They differentiate between task-orientated and relationship-orientated roles. They stress that team members need to ensure that all these roles are fulfilled in order to facilitate the team’s to functioning optimally and effectively.

#### Table 2.2: Roles for team effectiveness (McShane & Von Glinow, 2003:241)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role activities</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Task-orientated roles</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initiator</td>
<td>Identifies goals for the meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information seeker</td>
<td>Asks for clarification of ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information giver</td>
<td>Shares information and opinions about the teams goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinator</td>
<td>Coordinates subgroups and pulls together ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluator</td>
<td>Assesses the team’s functioning against a standard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summarizer</td>
<td>Acts as the team’s memory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* From the researcher’s diary.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orienter</td>
<td>Keeps the team focused on the goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Harmonizer</td>
<td>Mediates intra group conflicts and reduces tension</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gatekeeper</td>
<td>Encourages and facilitates participation of all team members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourager</td>
<td>Praises and support the ideas of other team members</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Relationship-orientated roles**

Source: McShane and Von Glinow (2003:241)

### 2.6.3 Blanchard’s team research

Ken Blanchard’s (1988) team research also needs to be investigated in the quest to understand team dynamics. Blanchard is essentially perceived as a trainer and motivational speaker and is not seen as an academic researcher, however he added to the teamwork body of knowledge by introducing various popular concepts used in the business arena. He built his theory of team roles around the assumption that employees tend only to be productive if they understand the importance of their contribution to the “bigger” picture and if their roles are clear. Margerison and McCann (1990) added to knowledge in this field by developing an instrument called the team management index (TMI) to measure team roles. They also stress the importance of team role balance in high performing teams.

Ken Blanchard (1988) built his theory of team roles around the following aspects:

- employees will only be productive if they understand the importance of their contribution to the “bigger” picture;
- establishing shared goals and values will lead to commitment;
- if you give employees control over the work they perform, you instil pride and respect; and
- enthusiasm in teams is created by recognising both progress and results.
He developed the “Gung Ho” approach in cooperation with Sheldon Bowles after many years of working closely with individuals and teams. He experimented, observed individuals and teams and concluded that the “spirit of the squirrel”, “the way of the beaver” and “the gift of the goose” is needed for optimal team functioning (Blanchard, 1988). The squirrel is symbolic of the need of team members to know that their work is worthwhile and driven by goals and values. The beaver illustrates the importance of putting employees in control of achieving goals. Lastly, the goose indicates the importance of team members to cheer each other on.

He argues that teams will be even more effective if constant recognition is given for work well done. Once again, the true challenge is to use this in a practical and value-adding way in a diverse and complex workplace.

2.7 TEAM DEVELOPMENT THEORIES

Researchers have always been interested in how teams are formed and how they develop in practice. Understanding the forming of teams will enable a researcher to include this theory in the journey towards a deeper understanding of team complexities.

2.7.1 Tuckman’s model of team development

Tuckman (1965) developed a model for team development (see Figure 2.1) that has been widely used and adapted. He describes team stages as forming, storming, norming and performing – natural stages that each team has to go through when its members are selected as a team. These stages are iterative in nature and do not have a specific time-line. Tuchman later added a stage called “adjourning”, which is the stage where the group dissolves after a job well done or members leave the team.
He defines the **forming** stage as the phase where members get to know each other and seek to establish ground rules. **Storming** is the phase where control is resisted and hostility is shown openly. During **norming** members start working together and develop a sense of camaraderie. **Performing** is the stage where all members work together to get the job done. After this phase, the group dissolves, **adjourning**, because the job has been done or because certain members leave the team. The purpose of each team is to reach the performing stage – thus operating as a high performance team.

Ed Kur (1996) added to this body of knowledge with a model he calls “the faces model”. He describes it as a new model of team development which describes teams using five common patterns called “faces”. This model assumes that teams wear one face and then wear other faces in no specific order, unless the team drives its members to wear a specific face or to engage in a specific pattern of behaviour.
Figure 2.2: Ed Kur’s Faces Model (Kur, 1996:33)

Kur (1996:34) describes his model as “more encompassing, more powerful, and in a sense, more forgiving than sequential development models” (1996:34).

Kriek and Viljoen (2003:1) argue that it is generally accepted that teams and their use in South African companies have become an important feature of “modern organisational life”. They add that “there are even suggestions that teams (and project teams in general) will become the entrenched and preferred form of organisational structure in future”. They focus on team building, and suggest various stages of the teambuilding process (see Table 2.3), namely

- culmination: (At this stage, questions are asked such as: what did it mean to the team and how did it measure up?);
- perpetuation: (How can we maintain our momentum?);
- regulation: (How are we doing and what do we do?);
• generation: (What binds us together and where are we going? are typical questions to be answered);
• configuration: (Questions like who are we and who are our members?).

Table 2.3: Kriek and Viljoen’s team building view: (Kriek & Viljoen, 2003: 16)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STAGES</th>
<th>Inward</th>
<th>Outward</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Culminate</td>
<td>What did it mean to the team?</td>
<td>How did we measure up?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perpetuate</td>
<td>How do we maintain our momentum?</td>
<td>How do we know we are doing it?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Regulate</td>
<td>How are we doing it?</td>
<td>What do we do?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generate</td>
<td>What binds us together?</td>
<td>Where are we going?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Configure</td>
<td>Who are we?</td>
<td>Who are our members?</td>
</tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Kriek and Viljoen (2003:16)

Many questionnaires have been developed to determine the phase in which a team finds itself – but the actual challenge remains to integrate this model into a holistic approach towards synergistic team development.

2.8 TEAM FUNCTIONING THEORIES

Motivational speaker Vince Lombardi once said that “individual commitment to a group effort – that is what makes teams work, a company work, a society work, a civilization work”.

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Any manager working with teams or any individual working in a team should have insight into the mechanics and functioning of teams. In this study, the focus was on the question: what do individuals expect of teamwork to make it actually work?

Teams are supposed to outperform individuals (Robbins et al., 2004), especially since a team approach is an effective way to use team talents and teams can solve problems better by applying different skills, judgement and experience. Newstrom and Davis (2002) also believe this, remarking that teams are highly empowering in that they allow for flexibility, joint decision-making and multi-skilling. In terms of this framework, the challenge would be to get to understand teams better. What makes teams tick and what are the expectations teams have when operating in a modern work situation?

Ilgen et al. (2005) refer to various aspects of team functioning that should be understood if teams are considered. They specifically refer to theories relating to bonding, adapting and learning.

2.8.1 Team Bonding

Bonding refers to “reflecting the affective feelings that team members hold toward each other and the team” (Ilgen et al, 2005:526). Bonding goes beyond trust and reflects a strong sense of rapport and a desire to stay together. Bonding often takes time to occur, and consequently can be observed better when the group starts to function. Beal et al. (2003) suggest that bonding in teams is crucial when workflow interdependence is high. Early and Mosakowski (2000) also indicate that the key to team bonding is to develop a single culture within the team.

The management of conflict amongst team members directly impacts the way in which team members bond with each other. Ilgen et al. (2005:529) argue that there is emerging consensus among researchers that task conflict is generally unhelpful in terms of the functioning of teams. Instead of task conflict, teams require (a) rich, emotional debate in a trusting environment;
(b) a context where team members feel free to express their doubts and change their minds; and (c) an ability to resist pressures to compromise quickly or to reach premature consensus.

2.8.2 Adapting for optimal team functioning

21st Century organisations are dynamic and challenging – both to individuals and teams, and for this reason adapting is crucial for team functioning. Work for many in the 21st century is project-based, with free-lance independent contractors able to do their work based on their unique circumstances and preferences (Laubacher & Malone, 1997). Teams are often working as virtual teams and change is rapid and, in many cases, overwhelming. Teams comprise of multi-cultural individuals, who are also very diverse.

Key features of the newly emerging organisation are that it is a networked organisation, flat and lean, flexible, diverse and global in orientation and operations (Standing, 1999).

Other features include the need to manage and adapt to the following areas:

- **Change**
  A successful 21st century organisation and manager must understand the dynamics of change, especially with the advent of new global trends. The impact of globalisation on the expansion of multi-national corporations means that change affecting accurate organisational values and culture needs to be managed soundly (Standing, 1999). Robbins *et al.* (2004:11) assert that “today’s managers need to implement quantum change and reinvent their organisations. As organisations enter the 21st century, they need to transform leaders who can reengineer the workplace and to get employees to ‘buy into’ the upheavals that come with quantum change.”

- **Diversity and culture**
  Linked to the above are respect for diversity and an understanding of a multicultural workforce. Although historically diversity has been seen as potentially volatile and sensitive, it is now becoming increasingly important for diversity to be addressed within organisations. On the positive side, according to Fuhr (1994), diversity is creating a work
environment in which everyone has a sense of belonging and which removes the barriers that have hindered the fulfilment of human potential.

- **Empowerment of employees**
  In current organisations, integral focus is placed on the individual. The authoritarian and bureaucratic structures of the past will not be successful in the new global economy. Teams will become and currently are becoming more and more important. Furthermore, Kamp (1999) concurs that a 21st century manager’s power is based on being the resource that enables things to happen rather than merely being a doer.

- **Decision-making**
  Decision-making is one of the most crucial elements in the success of a 21st century organisation. Decisions that influence the entire functionality and operations of the organisation must be made in a participative manner by including all the stakeholders. However, it is also essential for managers as well as teams to be able to make quick and effective decisions in times of crisis – decisions that will best suit all the stakeholders of the organisation (Goleman, 2003).

- **Communication management**
  The success of a 21st century organisation rests on the pillar of effective communication. Especially with the reliance on technology and to stay ahead in the global rat race, communication needs to be clear and understood by all effected stakeholders. Diversity management can be brought into this perspective, as the medium of communication must be understood throughout the organisation. Bill Gates of the Microsoft Corporation attributes a considerable amount of his organisation’s success to effective communication, especially since he has had to integrate a very diverse workforce (Goleman, 2003).

In order to function as high performance teams, a large amount of adapting to circumstances is thus necessary. A study by Waller (1999) indicated that the speed with which teams recognise environmental change was of critically importance for team functioning and adaptability. Okhuysen and Waller
(2002: 1059) found that the speed with which teams recognised the need for change was related to the number of “interruptions” that caused them to “stop and think” about their processes while engaged in the task. They further found that specific instructions to team members to raise questions, helped adaptation.

2.8.3 Learning in Teams

Ilgen et al. (2005) identify learning as an important aspect of team functioning. They distinguish between learning from team members who are minorities and learning from the best team member. They argue that teams need to learn from their members under different circumstances, and then “use this knowledge to improve performance and expand the knowledge of other team members” (Ilgen et al. 2005:533).

Peter Senge was named strategist of the century by the Journal of Business Strategy. He entered the limelight when he published his book The Fifth Discipline and popularised the concept of the “learning organization” (Senge, 1990). Senge argues that individuals need to learn in teams to align and develop the capacities of the team. He suggests that, when people learn together, there will be good organisational results and the members will grow rapidly. According to Senge, the discipline of team learning starts with dialogue. Learning is thus no longer an individual experience: it becomes a team process and requires new and innovative ways of looking at performance.

2.9 INDIVIDUALS IN TEAMS

Successful team players are individuals that have a strong self-awareness. When working with teams, individual behaviour models and theories with a strong team implication should also be considered.
Numerous profiles / explanations / models explain individual differences and behaviour. Since there are far too many to discuss, I selected the “Tony Allesandra” model to indicate that the individual in the team is unique and brings to the team a number of different behaviours. This model is furthermore used in both organisations to establish a culture where individuals are respected in terms of their differences.

2.9.1 Tony Allesandra’s relationship strategies

Allesandra (1992) developed a model that he calls “relationship strategies” (see Figure 2.3). He argues that the platinum rule in communication is to treat others as they want to be treated. Changing or adapting your behaviour will make both individuals and teams more successful.

![Figure 2.3: Relationship strategies](Allesandra, 1992:3)

This model builds on many others, but the truths are generic:

- individuals have different preferences;
- these preferences will dictate a specific way of interacting with others;
- understanding the behaviour of others, and altering your own behaviour accordingly, will optimise your success as a team player and communicator.

* From the researcher’s diary.
2.10 CONCLUSION

From the literature discussion above, it is evident that organisations are more successful when people work together towards a common goal. This comment incorporates and integrates many views and theories involving teamwork, which in itself is a complex domain with multiple dimensions.

Within an Organisational Behaviour context, in this study, an attempt is made to be responsive to the research situation as it is, building on previous research and going beyond that which was done before. This study therefore has as its central mission finding out what is really expected by individuals in teams in order to influence a new approach towards team development towards team performance in the 21st Century organisation.

Globalisation and the resulting trends create enormous management challenges because, as organisations and the workforce change, so the types of people who manage it also need to change. The workplace has indeed transformed from being a hierarchical organisation with autocratic management styles to effective teams, which empower individuals who are in turn mentored by innovative and creative 21st century managers. However, the challenge for us as scholars of Organisational Behaviour is looking ahead, and since we are currently in the 21st century, it would be interesting to speculate where organisations will be in the 22nd century and what type of people dynamics or technology will drive them to success.

In concluding this chapter, it is perhaps apposite in the team context to remember the old Arab proverb quoted below:

“Men are four: He who knows not and knows not he knows not, he is a fool—shun him;
He who knows not and knows he knows not, he is simple—teach him;
He who knows and knows not he knows, he is asleep—wake him;
He who knows and knows he knows, he is wise—follow him!”