Optimizing Enterprising Teamwork

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ABSTRACT

Enterprising behavior is often performed by teams rather than by solo enterprising individuals. Given the wide variety of manifestations of enterprising behavior, this article aims to outline generic teamwork competencies and their development that apply across a wide range of settings. One aspect of teamwork refers to team composition: putting an initial team together and managing changes in membership over time. Effective team workers are skilled in a range of social processes, such as the creation of psychological safety and trust, dealing with disagreements, managing fairness perceptions, and decision-making processes. The paper concludes with some pointers for student teams.

Keywords: Teams, teamwork, team-training, team-building, social skills

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INTRODUCTION

Many enterprising ventures or projects are conducted by a group of people, rather than by a solo individual. When a group performs a task together and each member is dependent on the others, it can be referred to as a team (Stewart, 1999). People have been working together from the beginnings of human history, hunting, raising families, and defending communities. Teams have two main functions: to make decisions and to perform actions. This paper focuses on teamwork skills; that is, the skills that are conducive to working effectively with and within a team.

Enterprising behavior can manifest in a wide variety of settings, which means that enterprising teams come in many shapes and forms. Teams that show enterprising behavior (EB teams) consist of two or more people who work interdependently on a common goal, where (at least some) risk, novelty, initiative, and autonomy is involved. Starting a new and independent business is one manifestation of enterprising behavior, but there are many others. Some EB teams are formed to organize a one-off event (project or action team) and then disband after the event, although they may re-unite for a new event. Other teams found and run a lasting organization. These teams are ongoing, but they may have some changes in their membership over time. Some teams will be large and others will consist of only two members. Some teams will have a leader who makes all the important decisions, whereas others will have leadership that is more, or even equally distributed. The actions that EB team members perform can be more or less interdependent, with the tasks varying in the degree to which they are additive (the result being the addition of fragmented contributions), disjunctive (the result determined by the strongest contribution), and conjunctive (the result constrained by the weakest). Even those enterprising projects or ventures that are solo efforts

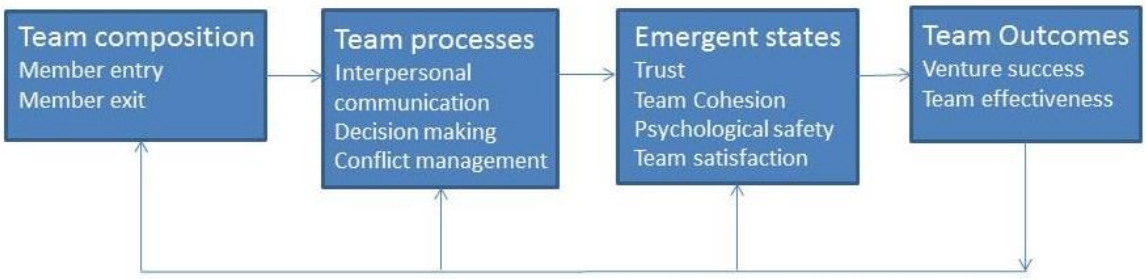
may, to some degree, work closely together with a variety of stakeholders (partners, alliances, networks, advisors). Given the wide variety of manifestations of EB teams and the tasks that they perform, this article seeks to outline generic teamwork competencies and their development that apply across a wide range of settings.

In this program (Van Gelderen, 2014), enterprising behavior is conceived of in a very broad sense; therefore, definitions of teams from the entrepreneurship literature are not always applicable to EB teams. It is customary in the entrepreneurship literature for three criteria to be fulfilled in order to call someone a member of an entrepreneurial team (Cooney, 2005; Wright and Vanaelst, 2009): (a) he or she jointly established the business; (b) he or she has financial ownership; and (c) he or she has a direct influence on strategic choices. Even within entrepreneurship this definition is somewhat problematic as criterion (a) is static and does allow later members to be recognized as entrepreneurial team members. As Wright and Vanaelst (2009) noted, the definition of an entrepreneurial team depends on the definition of entrepreneurship; if entrepreneurship is taken to be the founding of a new venture, then only founding members are considered to be part of the entrepreneurial team. For example, if entrepreneurship is taken to be the recognition or creation of entrepreneurial opportunities, then also some (but not all) 'top management teams' (TMTs) can be considered entrepreneurial. Criterion (b) may not always apply to EB teams as financial ownership does not always apply. Criterion (c) is important; although some ventures like to consider all those working for the venture as being part of the 'team', this article limits teams to those who not only perform, but also have input into decision-making. Moreover, EB teams do not only make decisions, but also implement them, unlike some TMTs, which mostly make decisions.

The purpose of this article is to outline a range of generic teamwork-related issues and skills and is structured in correspondence with the model provided in Figure 1. The remainder of the article starts with the composition of the team and thus the skill of putting a team

together. In this context, the article focuses on the topic of team diversity, and how to successfully manage these differences. The paper then considers a set of team processes, such as interpersonal communication, decision making, and conflict management. If managed well, the inputs and processes may lead to what is referred to as 'emergent states'; that is, intermediate outcomes such as trust and team cohesion. The final part of the model concerns outcomes, whether in the form of the success of the venture or project, or whether the team works well together and its members are satisfied. Time dynamics are also depicted in the figure. The loops refer to the many tasks that are cyclical. They also signify that EB teams, ventures, projects, and the environment change over time. Therefore, we will also consider team development. Models such as these have been used to guide and describe generic team research (e.g., Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp and Gilson, 2008) and, more recently, research on entrepreneurial teams (Klotz, Hmieleski, Bradley and Busenitz, 2014). First, however, the relation between teams and outcomes (venture performance, team effectiveness) is discussed.

Figure 1 Team inputs, process, emergent states and outcomes



ARE EB TEAMS MORE EFFECTIVE THAN SOLO EFFORTS?

The results achieved by teams can be much better or much worse than the sum of the contributions of its individual members. There are many potential advantages to be derived from teams, and equally as many potential disadvantages (see Table 1). In terms of

disadvantage, an obvious disadvantage of an additional team member is that it can bring additional financial costs in terms of wages and overheads and, if applicable, a dilution of ownership. Conflicts and power struggles may arise over decisions and performance aspects. Out of a desire for group harmony, groups can sometimes fail to consider important alternatives; this is known as groupthink (Janis, 1972). A related phenomenon is group-polarization or risk-shifting (Myers and Lamm, 1976), whereby groups tend to make more extreme (either risky or conservative) decisions than the members would have made individually. Social loafing and free–riding behavior may occur. In terms of potential advantages, additional team members can result in an increased quantity, quality, and variety of skills, information, and other resources. Decisions and tasks can be assigned to those specialists and, conversely, team members can step in for each other. Consequently, teams may be better able to deal with uncertain, volatile, and complex conditions. Team-based ventures are less dependent on and vulnerable to the loss of a key player than solo ventures. Finally, teams potentially cater for a range of social needs, with fellow team members fulfilling the need for belonging, expression, comparison, affection, recognition, and emotional support.

Given the range of potential advantages and disadvantages, the question of whether enterprising teams perform better than solo efforts is not very meaningful. Teams by themselves are no guarantee for success; decision making and performance can be undermined as well as improved. Outcomes can refer to the team (whether the team works together efficiently and effectively) and to the results of the venture. However, venture-level outcomes are dependent on a range of conditions, some of which are not controlled by the team. Regardless of venture-level outcomes, it takes skill and effort for teams to function well. The remainder of this article will focus on issues and skills involved in optimizing enterprising teamwork.

Table 1 Advantages and disadvantages of EB teams (vs. solo efforts)

Potential advantages	Potential disadvantages
Increase in resources (more and variety): skills, energy, finance, networks, information	Higher financial cost (financial remuneration)
Specialization of labor, tasks	Dilution of ownership
Compensate for weaknesses	Power issues
Monitor each other's behavior	Conflicts
Back-up behavior	Creates dependencies
Better able to deal with volatility, uncertainty, complexity; increased flexibility, adaptability	Free riders, social loafing
Improved problem-solving capacities	Longer decision-making processes
Less vulnerable to departure of key player	Groupthink
Sharing risk and anxiety	Risk shifting, more extreme decisions
Fulfill needs for belonging, expression, comparison, affection, recognition, emotional support	

INPUTS: TEAM COMPOSITION AND DIVERSITY

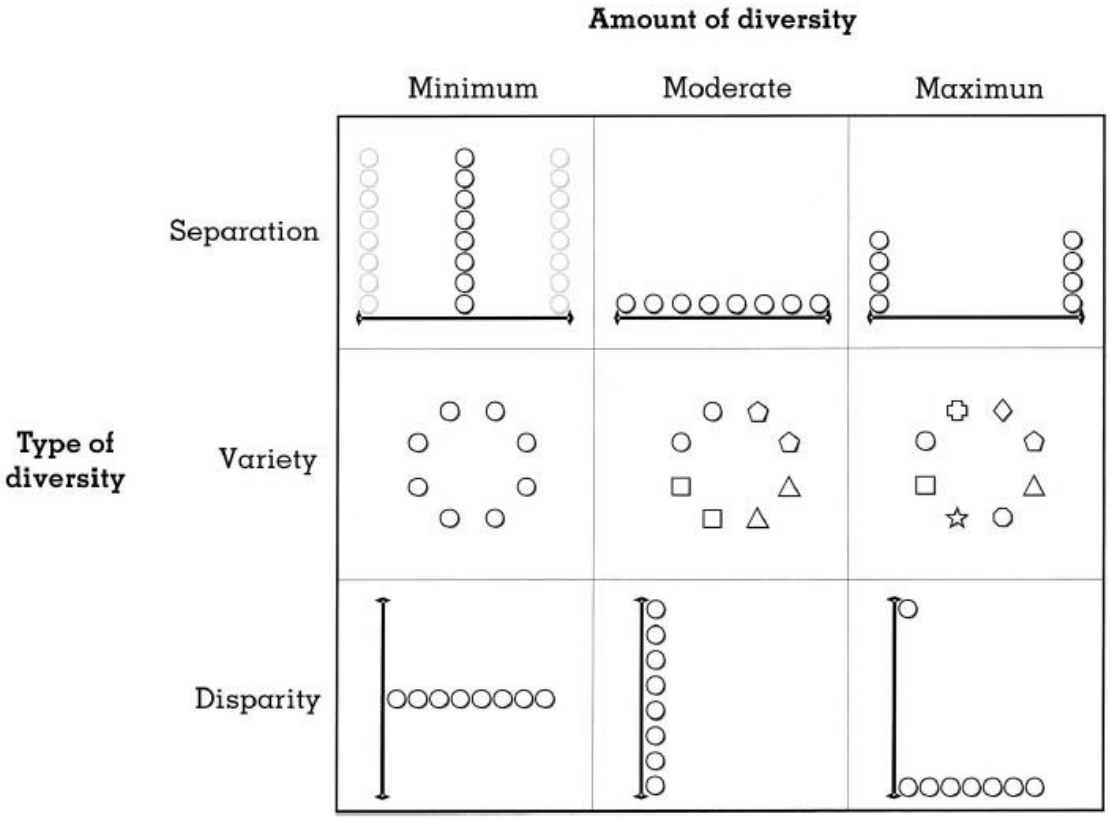
Whether diverse teams perform better than homogeneous teams has been a hotly debated and often investigated topic (Kozlowksi and Ilgen, 2006; Van Knippenberg and Schippers, 2007). On the one hand, homogeneous teams have the advantage that, because the members are rather similar, there may be more immediate trust, liking, and mutual understanding, which contributes to positive team outcomes. Theories such as similarity–attraction, self-categorization, and attraction–selection–attrition (reviewed in the context of teams by Williams and O'Reilly (1998) and Van Knippenberg and Schippers (2007)) suggest that greater similarity will bring greater liking and fewer stereotypes and in-groups and out-groups. On the other hand, a diverse team is able to bring a variety of resources and viewpoints to the table, which helps the team to be effective. From theories such as the law of requisite variety (Ashby, 1956) it is derived that the variety of information, knowledge, and social networks in the team should match the challenges that it faces, and greater diversity increases the cognitive and behavioral repertoire. However, the empirical research is inconclusive, with homogeneous teams performing better than diverse teams sometimes, and sometimes vice versa, and often they perform equally well (Kozlowksi and Ilgen, 2006; Van

Knippenberg and Schippers, 2007). Even intermediate outcomes often do not follow predictions; for example, it has been found that satisfaction is higher in diverse teams (Jehn, Northcraft and Neale, 1999; Lau and Murnighan, 2005), and a similar result was found for entrepreneurial teams (Foo, Sin and Yiong, 2006).

As was the case with the question of whether teams perform more successfully than solo efforts, the question of whether diverse or homogeneous teams are better is not very meaningful. Firstly, the outcome will depend on a range of conditions relating to the tasks, the environment, and the individuals involved. Secondly, homogeneity and diversity both have upsides and downsides, so both need to be well managed in order to make the most of them. Thirdly, diversity is a cover term for an endless amount of possible differences. It can range from to surface level characteristics such as age, gender, and ethnicity to deep-level attributes such as values and attitudes. In a penetrative article, Harrison and Klein discussed three meanings of diversity within a team and stated that the "substance, pattern, operationalization, and likely consequences" (p. 1200) of these three meanings are markedly different (see Figure 2, Harrison and Klein, 2007).

The first meaning they called separation, which reflects the distribution of where members stand regarding a particular value, belief, attitude, or orientation. Separation is about differences in position or opinion. The second meaning is variety, which reflects information – defined by Harrison and Klein as the distribution of what each team member knows that is unique from other members – as a product of education, experience, and training. Variety is about differences in kind or category. Thirdly, disparity reflects possession and refers to the distribution of how much power, status, or socially valued assets or resources each team member has.

Figure 2 Types and Amounts of Three Meanings of Team Diversity



(Source: Harrison and Klein, 2007)

Harrison and Klein further argued that whereas homogeneity is easily conceived of within these dimensions (all have the similar attitudes and values, similar knowledge, and are equal in power, status, and assets), this is not the case for maximum diversity. For example, if the following numbers represent team members, which teams are more diverse: 40-60-80-100, 40-40-100-100, or 40-40-40-100? For maximum disparity, the last distribution is representative, with one member holding all power and resources and the remaining members having none. With maximum variety, none of the members is alike. With maximum separation, the team is split into two groups that completely oppose each other.

It can now be easily seen why research on the consequences of surface-level diversity that does not consider these underlying dimensions produces confusing results, especially

when different characteristics are combined into an index of overall diversity. Demographic characteristics such as age, gender and ethnicity may refer to differences in position, information, or possession. Moreover, a team of five old white men and two dark-skinned young women would be ranked as equally diverse as, say, five white young women and two old dark-skinned men, but the team dynamics may be very different. Research on so-called fault lines (Lau and Murnighan, 1998) has investigated the point at which surface-level diversity erupts into conflict. This will depend on separation, variety, and disparity, and whether and how team members differ on these dimensions must therefore be investigated directly as their significance and existence cannot be assumed.

The hypotheses has been proposed (reviewed by Harrison and Klein, 2007) that teams operate more effectively if separation is minimal to moderate, variety is high, and disparity is minimal to moderate. Some differences of opinion (separation) are good because they bring out different information and encourage team members to reconsider their positions and to seek new information. With strongly separated subgroups, on the other hand, teams may run into problems. High variety in an informational sense is beneficial – in fact, more beneficial than moderate variety – as it sometimes happens in those cases where not all information is shared, as subgroup members assume that the information is known within subgroups (for example, a team of three product developers and three marketeers) (Harrison and Klein, 2007). High disparity is often resented by less powerful members, who may conform, withdraw, stay put, and limit their contributions (Levi, 2011). However, a more autocratic style of leadership may be tolerated if conditions are particularly challenging or urgent, or if the leader is very charismatic (Levi, 2011).

However, the empirical research tends to be inconclusive (Van Knippenberg and Schippers, 2007). Even within dimensions, different dynamics may be at play; for example, a team member who is high in power may be resented by team-mates, but use his or her

networks to great effect. Also, one type of diversity may lead to another (Harrison and Klein, 2007). In enterprising teams, disparity can be an advantage for the initiating enterprising person if it allows him or her to change the composition of the team. Furthermore, I would like to add that there's there is a fourth dimension of diversity: contribution. It is not typically desirable a team in which the members differ in level of enthusiasm, commitment, energy, effort, and time investment (in proportion to what has been agreed; for example, being a part-time team member). In an optimal team, diversity of contribution is minimal, and at the high end of contribution.

The ability to put together a good team is an important skill for an enterprising person. The entrepreneurship research shows that the make-up of the original team has lasting consequences (Beckman and Burton, 2008). Unfortunately, some studies on the effectiveness of teams in entrepreneurship research have neglected to take these underlying diversity dimensions into account (e.g., Amason, Shrader and Thompson, 2006), which means their conclusions need to be interpreted with caution. Drawing on the distinction between exploration and exploitation (March, 1991), the picture that emerges from the entrepreneurship literature is that homogeneous teams are better at exploitation, but heterogeneous (diverse) teams are better at exploration (Beckman, 2006). So, somewhat paradoxically, the conclusion is that the team needs to be homogeneous as well as diverse as both exploration and exploitation processes are vital (Beckman, 2006; West, 2007). Considerations of homogeneity and diversity should also be contingent on the environment and leadership style (Amason, Shrader and Thompson, 2006; Hmieleski and Ensley, 2007). However, there is a tendency to form homogeneous teams (Leung, Zhang, Wong and Foo, 2006; Ruef, Aldrich and Carter, 2003).

Activities and environments of ongoing enterprising teams may change over time, as may the requirements of what is needed from the team. From a life-cycle perspective, the

venture must adjust to changing contexts and environments and well as changing internal factors (for example, a growing venture). In such cases, additional members may be recruited, original members dropped, and team members may develop their skills and knowledge. Rubenson and Gupta (1996) studied the professionalization of entrepreneurial ventures and suggested that three sets of variables play a role: those relating to the changing needs of the venture, those relating to the ability and desire of the team members to adapt to those changing needs; and the ability of founding or existing team members to prevent their own succession. Research indicates that when ventures have high growth or fail to grow, it is more likely that the founder will leave the firm (Boeker and Karichalil, 2002); however, other research suggests that team tenure has beneficial effects as the members continue to grow closer and develop knowledge about each other's skills, abilities, and working styles (Ensley, Pearson and Amason, 2002).

The addition of new team members has been studied from a range of perspectives. As is the case with team composition, one main motivations for team member addition is a need for specific resources, in which case additions are based on complementary skills (high variety in the terms of Harrison and Klein, 2007). Another motivation is interpersonal attraction, which predicts additions based on liking (minimal separation in terms of Harrison and Klein) (Forbes, Borchert, Zellmer-Bruhn, and Sapienza, 2006). Ideally, the new members reflect both motivations, and Leung et al. (2006) found that although original founders tap into diverse networks to find additional team members, they prefer to add people to the team that resemble themselves.

A final decision point in team formation and development is whether the people involved are made part of the team, or whether the provision of their inputs is organized in another way. Not all of the people that an enterprising individual works with need to be part of the core team. One can have additional forms of cooperation with individuals who do not

share in the ownership of the venture. For example, one can have a board of advisers for strategic advice, and interact with creative people to generate ideas, and have mentors and coaches for other purposes. Not all expertise is needed in the team – it can also be hired or outsourced. Unlike those who work for large organizations, enterprising individuals choose their team, rather than being chosen. One criterion for selecting people should be teamwork capability; that is, the ability to work well with others. Teamwork concerns both task and social processes, which is the topic of the next section.

TEAMWORK: TASK AND SOCIAL ASPECTS

When children choose teams for a schoolyard game, they typically do so based on skills and friendship. These two criteria are indicative of the common distinction between the task and social aspects of team performance. The teamwork aspect refers to how the team will go about performing tasks such as playing a game, developing a product, or starting a business. It concerns such aspects as setting goals and priorities, designating roles, planning for activities and their sequences, sharing relevant information, back-up behavior and other forms of task support, and coordinating decision making and action. In addition, there are social aspects of teamwork: ensuring open communication, creating a psychologically safe environment, building cohesion, managing conflicts, setting norms for social interaction, and managing fairness issues. Thus, team roles can be task-related (such as an expert or facilitator) or social (for example, a supporter or a clown) (Levi, 2011).

The distinction between task and social aspects of teamwork is somewhat didactic, as tasks have social aspects and many social aspects are task-related. Still, it is a useful distinction to make. Teams sometimes focus on tasks and ignore the social or relationship aspects of teamwork (Kozlowski and Ilgen, 2006; Levi, 2011). Team members may not even find it necessary to attend to social aspects (Levi, 2011). As a consequence, these teams do

not take the time to discuss how the members will relate to each other. Moreover, the focus on tasks often forces teams to return to social aspects at a later stage when social problems emerge. For example, group norms are often not discussed until conflict arises. Poorly performing individual team members may be criticized even though weak social relations may have caused the problem (Levi, 2011). Social aspects are important to bring about the 'emergent states' or social process outcomes such as trust, psychological safety, cohesion, and team satisfaction (see Figure 1), which have positive effects on team performance (Blatt, 2009; Mathieu et al., 2008). Social aspects are particularly important in the context of making the most of the various aspects of team diversity (separation, variety, and disparity). It should be noted, however, that teamwork capabilities are no guarantee for venture level success; in fact, Brinckmann and Hoegl (2011) found that effective collaboration with external parties is far more important. I now review some social processes and emergent states.

TEAM TRUST

Team trust is derived from two factors: beliefs in the competence of the team members, and psychological safety (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, and Jundt, 2005). Psychological safety refers to an environment where people feel free to express their thoughts and feelings (Edmondson and Roloff, 2009). Team members invite each other to provide input, and are receptive to feedback. Furthermore, trust is enhanced when the other team members follow through on their promises and behave in a consistent and reliable manner. Building trust requires that individuals are both trusting and trustworthy (Levi, 2011).

Psychological safety is particularly important in diverse teams. When teams are high in variety, individual team members will have different approaches to problems, using different information. This should help the team, but only if it makes use of the variety that is present in the group. In teams where psychological safety is low, team members with low

status (disparity) and who represent a minority opinion or input, in particular, can easily not feel safe enough to contribute (Ilgen et al., 2005). A team that is high in psychological safety will also be better able to accommodate differences in attitudes and values (separation), and power and status (disparity). As the various team members feel free to express themselves, their opinions get taken into account and the team members may learn to appreciate their mutual differences. Indeed, research shows that teams that are demographically diverse sometimes score higher on team satisfaction, which runs counter to what might be predicted by social categorization theories (Jehn, Northcraft and Neale, 1999; Lau and Murnighan, 2005). If people work together for longer, the importance of surface-level diversity (for example, demographic characteristics such as gender, age and ethnicity) is reduced, but that of deep-level diversity (for example, separation differences in attitudes and values) may increase (evidence reviewed in Van Knippenberg and Schippers, 2007), again indicating the need for a psychologically safe climate.

DISAGREEMENT, CONFLICT, AND COHESION

A distinction is commonly made between task-related conflict and personal conflict (Jehn, 1995). The idea is that task-related conflict, or 'constructive controversy' (Tjosvold, 1985), is conducive to team performance, as it draws out different perspectives, leads to information elaboration, and motivates team members to think harder about various alternatives and to find additional information or to uncover alternative solutions. In contrast, personal (not task-related) conflict is seen as a negative factor if it directs attention away from the decision or action at hand, reduces the quality of communication in the team, and undermines team satisfaction (Kozlowski and Ilgen, 2006; Levi, 2011). The distinction between task-related and personal conflict has also been made in the entrepreneurship literature (Ensley, Pearson and Amason, 2002, Ensley and Pearson, 2005). Although the idea seems plausible, the

empirical literature provides little support for the idea that task conflict is beneficial (De Dreu and Weingart, 2003). This led Van Knippenberg and Schippers (2007) to suggest that it may not be so much task conflict that leads to improved team outcomes, but rather improved information elaboration (in the absence of conflict). It may be better to think of task-related disagreement rather than conflict, as differences of opinion may arise but not necessarily erupt into conflict; given the potential beneficial effects of disagreement, it may be better to think of disagreement management than of conflict resolution.

Conflict can easily arise and originate from many sources other than disagreements about decisions and strategies, including confusion about task aspects of teamwork (such as unclear goals, roles, or action plans; or competitive reward systems), social aspects (poor communication, perceived unfairness), and personal factors (hidden agendas, diverging goals, personality differences). Mathieu and Rapp (2009) discerned two strategies for managing conflict within teams. One is preventive, by coming to an early agreement about a range of task- and social aspects. The other strategy is intended to manage conflicts after they arise by working through task, process, and interpersonal disagreements. Levi (2011) outlined the dimensions of assertiveness and cooperation. Team members should be assertive, but retain a cooperative attitude.

The idea that too little disagreement can be a negative factor (although perhaps it should not turn into outright conflict) can also be found in research on team cohesion. Team cohesion is typically seen as deriving from three factors: social attraction (whether the members like each other), team pride or identity, and team activities and tasks (Festinger, 1950). Beal, Cohen, Burke, and McLendon (2003) conducted a meta-analysis on the relations among these cohesion components and found that they were more related to team efficiency and whether the members worked well together than to team outcomes. This result is echoed by Levi (2011), who reported that cohesion contributes positively to team members'

satisfaction and happiness, but less so to team performance. One possible mechanism that explains these results is that teams high in cohesion perhaps put harmony and good relations first, and do too little to confront one another. This again points to the important dimensions of assertiveness and cooperation. A team without disagreement may be suffering from a lack of assertiveness of its members, unhealthy agreement, a domineering leader, or from performing its task in a routine manner without aiming for improvement.

DECISION MAKING AND POWER STRUGGLES

Teams can make decisions in a variety of ways, from complete consensus (all members agree) to autocratic decision making, in which one team member has all decision making authority. Consensus does not mean that each team member's preferred decision is made – it just means that a decision is reached that is acceptable to everyone. The advantage of consensus is that all team members agree, but it may be time-consuming to achieve. Autocratic decisions can easily be resented by the other team members, who feel they have little influence, and who may disagree with the decision. However, research shows that autocratic decisions are better accepted during times of crisis (when the team is under pressure) (Hmieleski and Ensley, 2007). Moreover, followers follow more acceptingly when the team leader is charismatic (Howell and Shamir, 2005). A less autocratic process is consultative decision making: the leader has the decision rights but now consults. Voting is another way of reaching a decision, with either the most votes or a majority vote winning out. Although democratic, it may mean that a minority of the team members would have preferred a different decision, and they may not fully buy into the voting outcome. Voting can also be a strategy for avoiding disagreements and making quick decisions, but it can then result in a premature closure of the decision-making process (Levi, 2011). The primary criteria for evaluating the various decision-making approaches are quality, speed, and acceptance or

support, and the various decision-making approaches listed above represent trade-offs between these three criteria.

Groups are not necessarily good decision makers and a range of phenomena have been observed in groups that are linked with poor decisions. Decision making may be impaired by group-level phenomena such as groupthink (Janis, 1972), which occurs when important alternatives are not critically considered due to a desire for group harmony. Another phenomenon is risk-shifting (Myers and Lamm, 1976), which means that, because of normative and informational influences, groups tend to become either more risk-oriented or more conservative. A third feature is that time pressure may lead groups to adopt the first considered alternative, or revert to a plan that worked in the past, rather than systematically working through the entire issue and making an effort to arrive at multiple alternatives.

EB teams sometimes have a powerful leader, perhaps the person who initiated the team. There are many legendary examples of autocratic entrepreneurs, including Steve Jobs. However, team members tend to prefer rational argument, consultation, and inspirational appeals (Levi, 2011), rather than coercive power, which may lead to compliance but not necessarily acceptance. Group norms can put constraints on the behaviors of powerful members. If the norms encourage open and shared communication, disapprove of threats and intimidation, and value independent thinking, overbearing members may feel obliged to resort to a more participative style. Conversely, for those who are dominant, the question is how to activate the other team members. Rather than making all the decisions and doing all the work oneself, the challenge is to get the most out of one's team members. Assigning roles and responsibilities and rotating leadership roles can help. Leadership can be seen as a process or set of functions that may be performed by any team member, rather than just one person (Day, Gronn and Salas, 2004).

MANAGING FAIRNESS PERCEPTIONS

Enterprising teams need to decide on inputs and decision rights, but must also (especially in the context of a commercial venture) decide on the distribution of proceeds such as ownership rights, wages, and other outcomes. In an insightful article, Alvarez and Barney (2005) observed three basic models of distribution. The first one, which they called 'clan-based', represents a perfectly equal split. In other words, the team members contribute and receive in perfectly equal amounts. The second model is labeled expert-based; here, the proceeds (for example, ownership, wages, or decision rights) are distributed on the basis of a core input that is valued above all other inputs. This core input can be anything (the idea, network, knowledge, IPR, persuasion skills, etc.). A third model is the charisma model, where a charismatic person in the team 'deserves' more power and rewards (Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber, 2009).

Fairness issues come up in relation to outcomes, but also with regard to inputs. With social loafing or free-rider behavior, team members reduce their efforts compared to other members (Karau and Williams, 1993; Latané, Williams, and Harkins, 1979). According to Levi (2011), there can be many reasons why people become free riders. For example, they hope that others will do the work; they know they will receive their share of the group's rewards regardless of their efforts; they do not want others to take advantage of them; they do not believe their individual efforts are important; they may believe that others do a better job; they are given the least interesting tasks; they may not know how much effort the others are putting in; they may overestimate the extent of their own contributions; or they may not agree with decisions or directions taken. The chances of social loafing are reduced when each individual's participation is observable and measurable, when the task is motivating, when

integrated and coordinated performance is necessary, and when group performance is important (there is commitment to the outcome) (Levi, 2011). For example, there is little social loafing in basketball. Social loafing increases with team size, especially from five members onwards.

Task interdependence increases the power that individuals have over the group, but reduces the power that team members have over each other. The above-listed reasons for free riding listed also suggest possible solutions. Making the task more interesting, communicating everyone's contributions, making sure that decisions are shared by all team members, and so on, all help to reduce free-riding behavior. A smaller group size can be mimicked by assigning tasks to small teams (down to two persons) rather than individual team members. Rewards should be carefully balanced to reflect both individual and team performance. It is important that members feel that their contributions are valued, unique, and indispensable. Team members sometimes forget to praise one another (Levi, 2011).

TEAM TRAINING AND TEAM BUILDING

In the section on team inputs and composition, I discussed how teams develop over time, in response to different requirements, by adding or dropping team members. Teams can also develop by improving their capabilities. These can be individually task-related (for example, a team member acquires expertise with regard to a particular task) and teamwork-related; that is, a development in the capability to work effectively with and within a team. In teamwork, it is common to distinguish between team training and team building (Klein, DiazGranados, Salas, Le, Burke, Lyons and Goodwin, 2009). Team training is skill-focused (that is, it is focused on gaining specific competencies), typically includes a practice component, and is performed in context. It is generally formal and systematic. Team building, on the other hand, is often done in settings that do not approximate the actual performance environment and

focus on team-level interventions that improve social relations and clarify roles, as well as solving task and interpersonal problems that affect team functioning.

Recent meta-analyses (Klein et al., 2009; Salas, DiazGranados, Klein, Burke, Stagl, Goodwin and Halpin, 2008) provide evidence that both team training and team building have positive effects, with team training having stronger effects on performance outcomes, and team building having stronger effects on affective outcomes such as team satisfaction. Shuffler, DiazGranados, and Salas (2011) summarized these reviews by saying that team building is most effective for solving teamwork breakdowns, whereas team training is more effective for providing the knowledge and skills needed for teamwork.

Salas and Cannon-Bowers (1997) and Salas, Burke and Cannon-Bowers (2002) provided an overview of methods and techniques. Teams typically learn best by doing so that ideal practices approximate, simulate, or replicate task and performance context (Kozlowski and Ilgen, 2006), but even lecture-based trainings appear to be effective (Ellis, Bell, Ployhart, Hollenbeck and Ilgen, 2005). Thus, although the entrepreneurship literature suggests path dependency, in that the characteristics of the founding team constrain subsequent outcomes (Boeker and Wiltbank, 2005), team training and team building may be able to overcome some of these constraints. Appendix A lists some pointers for student teams.

SUMMARIZING CONCLUSION

A lot of enterprising behavior is performed by teams. Sometimes, a group of enterprising individuals for a team comes together or a single initiator forms a team around himself or herself. Teams have many potential advantages, but just as many potential disadvantages; therefore, team formation and team processes need to be carefully optimized. The dimension of diversity vs. homogeneity is an important consideration when forming teams. As people can differ from each other in endless ways, team diversity can take on several meanings. In

this article separation, variety and disparity were discussed as representing different forms of diversity. Moving to team processes and emergent states, a range of considerations were outlined with respect to trust, communication, conflict, cohesion, decision making, and fairness perceptions. Many social processes are ignored until problems arise. Fortunately, there is now a sizeable evidence base that team training and team building can have positive outcomes. Even brief teamwork interventions can improve the performance of enterprising teams.

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APPENDIX A

WORKING IN STUDENT TEAMS – SOME POINTERS

Many students have a love–hate relationship with teamwork (although some predominantly hate it and others predominantly love it). Working in teams helps to make new friends and acquaintances, and sometimes the team members truly push each other to great heights. At other times it is frustrating if your high-quality work is exploited by free riders, or if you are dependent on others who make poor contributions, are unreliable, and perhaps do not even bother to show up. Here are some pointers that may help to deal with some issues.

Firstly, in this program (Van Gelderen, 2014), you work in teams but are graded on the basis of individual reflections on your own enterprising behavior. This means that, unlike in many other student teams, the task is not to arrive at the best possible result (although that may very well happen), but rather to optimize the level and degree of enterprising behavior, and the learning that may come with it. So, in a particular situation it may be optimal (from a learning and enterprising behavior perspective) to let the least suitable team member do a task, rather than delegate it to the most qualified one. Rather than feeling responsible for optimal performance, you may want to take on a coaching role.

The article lists a number of reasons for social loafing, each of which provides a clue for how it can be prevented. Assign tasks to mini-teams of two rather than separate individuals; this way, there is more certainty and assigned responsibility that the task gets done. Make sure that everyone’s contributions are known to all team members.

Take time to get together with other team members before taking enterprising action in order to get to know each other. You can make better use of the different skill sets, knowledge, and networks in the team if they are disclosed. Find out what activates each member.

Another reason not to be instantly task-focused is in order to reach agreement about how you will relate to one another. As the article states, there are various ways to make decisions (and they vary in terms of quality, speed, and acceptance or support). Reach an agreement about how you will make decisions as a team. Discuss such aspects as meeting attendance, equity of contribution, quality of contribution, and cooperative behavior. Set rules for what people should do if they are late or miss deadlines, and how they can make up for it. Set intermediate milestones so you know early on whether someone is falling behind.

Team members sometimes complain that they cannot reach certain other members. Therefore, you can make sure you have multiple ways to connect, such as email, mobile phone, various social media and communication technology such as Skype.

Another common problem is actually the opposite of social loafing and free riding: An overbearing person who is very dominant, wants to make all decisions by himself or herself, believes that his or her own contributions are superior, and seems to hold the contributions of others in low regard. Make an agreement to rotate leadership rather than decide on an immediate leader, or assign leadership roles in various domains to various team members. If you are a ‘natural leader’, than practice being a good follower. There are follower skills in addition to leadership skills that can be practiced, such as support behavior.

Do not judge people immediately. It is easy to stereotype and to think in terms of in- and out-groups. Person(s) who are written off may actually make highly useful contributions, especially when they are different. However, a negative attitude will not bring out their best performance, and may result in a self-fulfilling prophecy. People who feel superior should ask themselves: Do I really know that those others are inferior to me, and am I as superior as I think I am?

Do not be afraid of disagreements in the team. Disagreements are good if they help to elaborate different points of view. Try to be assertive while being cooperative. Do not be

silent because you don’t want to rock the boat. Teams go through highs and lows. Team performance slows down if social issues are worked through, but the results will be better in the end.