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ORGANISATIONAL ROADMAP TOWARDS TEAL ORGANISATIONS

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Teams are back! Bos-Nehles, Bondarouk, Meijerink, and Renkema have drawn together a wealth of previous literature to review and new empirical data to remind scholars and practitioners of the potential benefits (and pitfalls) of teams, particularly self-managing work teams, within organisations. This book is a timely contribution to scholarship while practitioners can gain a wealth of useful knowledge throughout the seven key sections of this book. The work is well-written, accessible, and covers and inordinate amount of ground as the authors step the reader through decades of history and research, provide an insightful case study of a healthcare organisation, and then tightly link the human resource management activities, and line manager roles in organisations that adopt self-managing teams. This book is an essential guide to practitioners and scholars both looking to understand teams as they continue to evolve two decades in to the twenty-first century.

Dr Keith Townsend | Associate Professor,
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In the seminal work of Rosabeth Moss Kanter, who was one of the pioneers in structural empowerment research, she defines power as the ability to mobilise resources to get things done. Power is on when individuals have access to lines of information, support, resources, and opportunities to learn and to grow. Otherwise, power is off and effective work is impossible. The meaning of power is thus based on positive sum ideology and is closer to mastery than to domination or control over others. These lines of power are sources of structural empowerment within an organisation as a multilevel-system influence an individual's access to power and opportunity – that is, their ability to access and mobilize the resources to work effectively. To create and maintain such empowerment system is hard, yet necessary. This book brilliantly approaches empowerment and self-management from different organisational aspects giving a good account of the complexity of the phenomenon.

Sut I Wong, Professor of Communication and Leadership,
Nordic Centre for Internet and Society,
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Management; more than 40 articles in Dutch scientific and other journals and more than 15 books or chapters of books. He participated in European research projects (Innoflex, Saltsa Hospital Network), was Project Manager of several research and consultancy projects at TNO. His consultancy work is focusing on evaluating shift roster systems, designing ergonomic friendly and efficient rosters, self-rostering and self-organisation. Both in industry and healthcare.

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Introduction

> The decision to implement self-directed work teams should not be taken lightly. The process requires an enormous amount of organisation and planning. Done right, however, these teams can increase performance, quality and employee involvement.
>
> – Caudron (1993, p. 78)

Caudron (1993) was describing the reorganisation of the San Diego Zoo in 1988. Employees at the Zoo used to have well-defined jobs: keepers did the keeping and gardeners did the gardening. The clearly defined job design worked as long as there were clear boundaries between animal exhibits, public areas and floral displays. In 1988 the Zoo began to develop bioclimatic zones, in which animals and plants were grouped in cageless fields that resembled their natural habits. Visitors were invited to view the exhibits by walking through them instead of observing them from afar. The management team renewed their vision that a bioclimatic 3.5-acre Tiger River exhibit would provide a healthier environment for animals and plants, and a better educative environment for visitors. The zones became fully interdependent, and employees had to start working closely together, across traditional job functions. The HRM department decided to regroup all employees into self-directed interdisciplinary teams. Starting from this vision and strategy, the Zoo has switched from maintaining traditional functional jobs to self-directed, multidisciplinary teams to manage bioclimatic zones.

Self-managing teams are back again. We hear and read familiar discourses: self-organisation, self-management, self-managing teams, ownership, job and work autonomy, worktime control, high-performance work systems, high-involvement work systems, sociotechnical systems approach … Some 50 years after Frederick Herzberg published one of the most influential *Harvard Business Review* articles ever (Herzberg, 1968), we have witnessed numerous examples of constructs and practices that embody his core concepts of job enlargement, job enrichment and job autonomy. Autonomy is not limited to an individual level; rather, it has been conceptualised and materialised on the team level.

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Druskat and Wheeler (2004, p. 65) report that '79% of companies in the Fortune 1,000 and 81% of manufacturing organisations currently deploy such "empowered," "self-directed" or "autonomous" teams.' One of the most illustrative modern examples is the thought-provoking book *Reinventing Organisations* by the corporate consultant Laloux (2014) on Teal organisations. In this book, he makes a substantial statement about modern organisations, in which the development of the organisational world is inspired by the next stage of human consciousness. Grounded in evolutionary and development theory, Laloux views the emergence of the new organisational model as a next stage in organisational development. This new organisational model – with self-managing teams as the basic building block – is called the 'Teal organisation'. It is different from the former green, orange, amber and red organisations, in the sense that decisions are made within teams of 10–15 people. There is no boss, no middle management left. Any team member can make decisions; the traditional hierarchies have been moved to the team level. This central idea has numerous consequences for the whole organisational structure, processes, systems, behaviours and attitudes of all organisational members and their stakeholders.

An example of how comprehensive and wide-ranging this idea of self-management is concerns the management of time. Traditional organisations impose fixed working hours on their employees, based on the principle that they are 'resources'. It assumes that people cannot be trusted to set their own goals and do not have the self-discipline to work until they reach their goals. In many organisations, only the higher ranks experience this freedom to determine their own hours, of exercising self-discipline and working until the job is finished. The unspoken assumption according to Laloux (2014, p. 182) is that people in managerial positions put their organisational commitment above any other commitment in their lives. They are always 'on', they must obey their corporate cultures at the expense of what they care about the most. In Teal organisations, this freedom is not a privilege reserved for managers, it is available to all organisational members. There is one fundamental difference: they all have the right to dissent and speak up about other important commitments in their lives. They must be able to talk to each other and to reach agreements upon the hours they want to invest in the organisation.

In echoing these developments, the recent review of 100 years of team articles in the *Journal of Applied Psychology* (Mathieu, Hollenbeck, van Knippenberg, & Ilgen, 2017) shows an enormous increase in group/team articles published during 2005–2015. Compared to the preceding 50-year average, the number has quadrupled. While this increase is about teamwork in general, during the last decade there has also been greater interest in self-managing teams. Other journals and book series have opened their pages to manuscripts about self-managing teams. For example, an analysis of the publications in the Scopus database reveals an excessive growth of work on self-managing teams, especially since 1996 (Figure 1).

We started writing this book to answer the question of why self-managing teams are becoming popular (again). What are the reasons for the new interest in self-managing teams in this decade? We could easily be satisfied with a simple answer: because these teams promise to deliver extra performance results. Indeed, there is

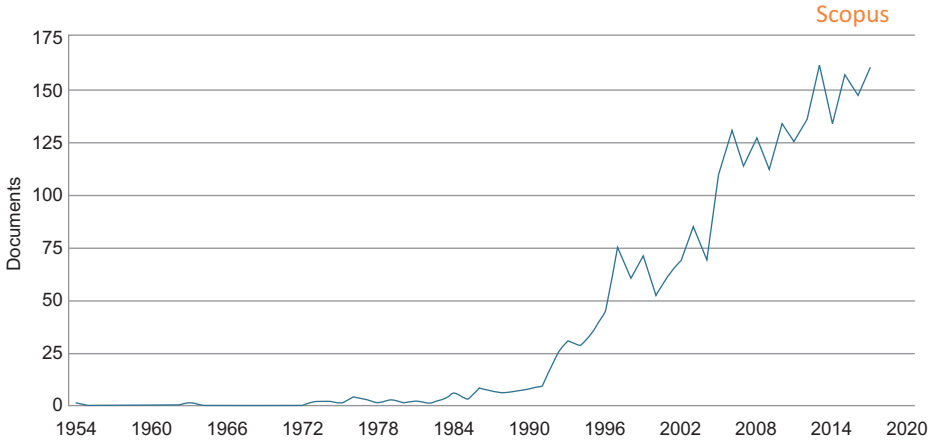

Figure 1: Scopus Analysis of the Publications about Self-managing Teams. *Source*: Copyright @ 2018 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved. Scopus is a registered trademark of Elsevier B.V.

almost no organisational environment in which teams – if done right – can't have a serious evidence-based impact on performance at different levels in organisations.

At the same time, we see new developments in modern society that have contributed to the new self-managing teams wave. The first development involves the societal trends of emancipation, individualisation and assertiveness (Bauman, 2000). People in general do not want to be governed, rather they want to decide for themselves. Since the 1960s, people have been longing for more freedom and individual choices. This can be traced back to various typical developments, like the decreasing memberships of churches, political parties (Van Biezen & Poguntke, 2014) and trade unions (Visser, 2006). People are more mobile than ever, more inclined to choose a different trade than that of their parents, and more self-determining of their own working life; in other words, they are more independent. They bring these attitudes to the modern workplace. The basic idea is that traditional hierarchies in organisations do not reflect the expectations of modern assertive citizens. They need organisations in which they can put forward their own ideas, making full use of their own knowledge, skills and competences. Therefore, this long-lasting development of modern society brings ideas like self-management and self-managing teams to the forefront. Step by step, more and more organisations are trying to implement these ideas.

The second general trend is the role of technology in modern society and in the corporate world. The use of modern technology, including robotics, manufacturing technologies, communication technologies and social media, has already changed the workplace. Advancement in collaboration technologies has had a major impact on the way teams can operate (Gilson, Maynard, Jones Young, Vartiainen, & Hakonen, 2015; Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas, & Cohen, 2012). These technologies enable collaboration at a distance, they have the potential to increase team

awareness, and they allow the teams to cooperate 24/7 (MacDuffie, 2007). Many authors are already speaking of the era of ubiquitous computing (Cascio & Montealegre, 2016), in which technology permeates everything, enabling people to access and control their working and life environment at any time and anywhere. It is even possible that technology can replace human team members with robots and avatars. In short, technology may change the nature of teamwork. To extend our argument one step further, we also assume that technology may increase the self-managing nature of teams. Given the communication and collaboration technologies, the possibilities to cooperate in teams are just endless, and members do not need to work in proximity. Virtual teams may have team members across all time zones. The same holds for information and knowledge. Advanced technologies can increase the possibilities of how teams share data, information, insights and actions. No hierarchy is needed to coordinate the information flows between team members, it can be part of the workflow enabled by technology and available for every team member.

Goal and Approach in This Book

It is interesting to observe the interconnections of terms in the research about teams and self-managing teams. Figure 2 shows that research into (self-managing) teams goes hand in hand with such terms as team performance, team effectiveness, leadership and knowledge management. At the same time, implementation of the self-managing teams does not appear as one of the central topics.

We were inspired by the observation that there is a consensus about the benefits of self-managing teams in organisations on the one hand, while there is also a consensus that its implementation costs a fortune on the other. With the knowledge that has accumulated about teams and self-managing teams, now is the time to discuss challenges that 'traditional' organisations experience once they move towards self-managing organisations. The concept of Teal organisations is not surprising nowadays, but strangely enough, it is still a dream for many organisations. With the few exceptions of smoothly working Teal examples described by Laloux (2014), such as Buurtzorg (healthcare, Netherlands), AES (energy sector, global, born in USA), BSO/Origin (IT consulting, global, started in the Netherlands), RHD (human service, USA), FAVI (metal manufacturing, France) or ESBZ (school in Germany), we dare to conclude that the majority of organisations have hierarchical managerial constructions with little to no self-management.

This volume focuses on the transformation towards self-management (teams), the team performance and the organisational and HRM support they need to work successfully. Conceptually and empirically, we illustrate that self-managing teams require a new way of organising, structuring and leadership in organisations.

We start with the introduction of self-management in general and self-managing teams in particular by exploring issues related to opportunities and reasons for working with self-managing teams in modern organisations (see chapter 'The Concept of Self-managing Teams: History and Taxonomy'). We briefly share

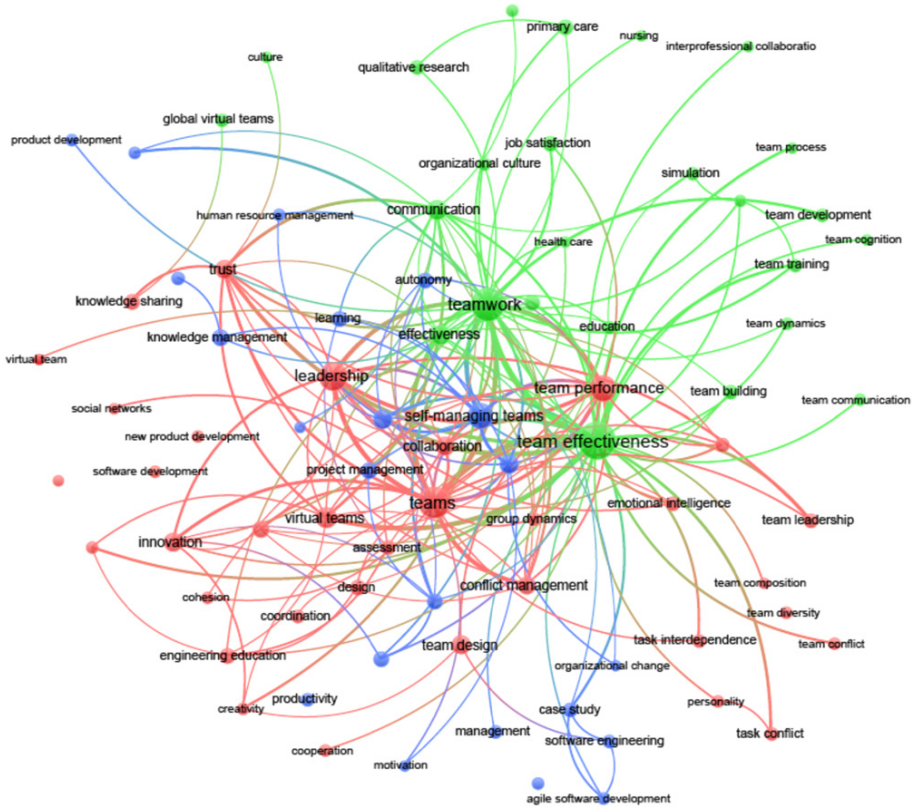

Figure 2: Interconnections of Terms Related to the Research into Self-managing Teams.

evidence-based observations about the challenges that organisations face when they want to transfer their existing managing structures, traditions and styles towards self-management. We will mainly focus on a systematic overview of existing typologies of self-managing teams. In the chapter 'Literature Review of Successful Self-managing Teams' we continue with the historical literature overview of self-managing teams since the first articles in the 1950s and 1960s. The evidence-based integrative literature review of almost 60 articles from peer-reviewed international journals will lead to a comprehensive framework for the success of self-managing teams. This framework distils the factors for successful self-managing teams and shows that the ones contributing to success are based on three levels: organisational, team and individual levels, each having its own factors. Taken together, all of the factors are known to enhance managerial ratings of performance, employee ratings of performance, quality of work life and withdrawal behaviours to differing extents.

In the chapter 'Healthcare Teams in Long-term and Elderly Care at Livio: A Case Study' we introduce our case organisation – Livio – that decided to take the

step towards self-managing teams. We followed its transformation journey towards self-managing teams over a long period and saw how careful and thoughtful decision-making processes, dedicated leadership and patience, and empowerment of employees helped this organisation to go through the change from a traditional to a self-managing team structure. We continue with the analysis of the empirical case study to explore whether and to what extent self-managing teams need managers (or do not) who supervise and lead them to perform well. In the chapter 'The Relevance of Line Managers in Self-managing Teams' we investigate the shift in responsibilities of line managers by applying a two-way devolution process of people management responsibilities: from HRM managers to line managers and from line managers to self-managing teams. We study the implementation of self-managing teams based on the implementation literature and distinguish four implementation phases. Based on role theory, we analyse the role of managers in these four phases. We do this by examining the role change between managers in the different phases of the implementation process and how this change may lead to contradictory expectations between actors and experienced role conflict. The chapter 'Governance Mechanisms and HRM Activities in Self-managing Teams' discusses the governance mechanisms in self-managing teams from theoretical and empirical perspectives. We focus on how self-managing teams coordinate and collaborate to perform the HRM activities for which they are responsible. This chapter continues with the description of practical examples of which mechanisms and processes within self-managing teams are important for aligning HRM activities to enhance team performance. We argue that the coordination and execution of HRM activities in conjunction with governance mechanisms and processes determine the effectiveness of self-managing teams.

In the chapter 'Discussion and Future Outlook' we combine conceptual and empirical insights to discuss the changing role of the HRM function in self-managing teams. It starts with a reflection on how self-managing teams are part of a broader development in theory and practice in which HRM responsibilities are increasingly delegated to employees (such as online self-services, shared services and job crafting). After reflecting on these developments, the chapter continues with a discussion of which implications the continued devolution of HRM activities has on the role of 'traditional' HRM actors such as central HR departments, centres of expertise and HRM shared service centres. Here we argue that the HRM function in self-managing teams moves away from adopting a 'champion of processes' role (which controls employees and their enactment of HRM responsibilities) to a service provider role. In the concluding chapter, we will offer implications for future research and organisational practices. Although we acknowledge the benefits of self-managing teams, we are convinced that no single organisation should start implementing self-managing teams without a full understanding of this phenomenon, and without the strategic need for the introduction of self-managing teams. The introduction and implementation of self-managing teams require an enormous amount of thought, analysis and planning.

Defining Our Terms: Self-management and Self-managing Teams

Self-managing teams are not teams of colleagues from one department working on one project, who come together to foster the team spirit. Neither are they cross-functional groups of colleagues who come together to solve a problem and then return to their original jobs. Neither of these two teams are self-managing because they do not change the way organisations are structured, performance is managed, information flows are changed, the concept of career paths is altered and the work gets done.

Allow us to take a step back and introduce definitions of teams, self-management and then self-managing teams. The first step is to focus on teams in organisations. Here, the diversity in teams is as large as the diversity in organisations. Imagine top management teams, project teams, semi-autonomous teams, manufacturing teams, action teams, continuous improvement teams, scrum teams, management teams, taskforces, new-product innovation teams, departmental teams like financial teams or HR teams, cross-functional teams, product teams, ad hoc teams and so on. They all are called teams, and these teams do fit the commonly cited team definitions although they differ in goals, nature, temporality, size and many other aspects. If we take some well-known definitions, all those teams do fit them:

> A team is a small number of people with complementary skills who are committed to a common purpose, set of performance goals, and approach for which they hold themselves mutually accountable. (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993, p. 112)

> A team is defined as (a) two or more individuals who; (b) socially interact (face-to-face or, increasingly, virtually); (c) possess one or more common goals; (d) are brought together to perform organisationally relevant tasks; (e) exhibit interdependencies with respect to workflow, goals, and outcomes; (f) have different roles and responsibilities; and (g) are together embedded in an encompassing organisational system, with boundaries and linkages to the broader system context and task environment. (Kozlowski & Ilgen, 2006, p. 79)

These team definitions are to the point and describe all of the important characteristics of teams and teamwork, but they fail to describe the kind of teams, in short, what the organisational task at hand is. Therefore, we agree with Hollenbeck, Beersma, and Schouten (2012) who state that any researcher of teams must struggle to clarify what kind of team is under scrutiny. Otherwise, we are studying similar team processes in different task contexts: top management teams are different from work teams or project teams.

The second step is to focus on self-management. In the early stages of team research, the job design theorists defined autonomy as one of the most important aspects of work teams (Hackman, 1987). Autonomy is defined on an individual level, namely as the degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the individual in scheduling the work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out (Hackman & Oldham, 1976, p. 258). The same focus predominantly on the individual level is taken by organisation

psychologists, who define empowerment as the increased task motivation resulting from an individual's positive orientation to his/her work role (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). Kirkman and Rosen (1999) have emphasised that empowerment must also be identified at the team level, and they distinguish four dimensions of team empowerment: potency (competence), meaningfulness, autonomy and impact.

In this book, we view self-management in a way that integrates both the job design and the psychology perspective. This means that all of the important elements of job autonomy at the team level and the psychological aspects of ownership are addressed. Self-management applied to teams makes self-managing teams. Self-managing teams may have many responsibilities and authority: determining the division of work, allocation of resources, budget expenditures, work strategy development, performance assessment and recruitment and development of new members (Luciano, Mathieu, & Ruddy, 2014). They do this by planning, scheduling, assigning tasks to members and making decisions as a team, without the interference of supervisors or managers. According to Hackman (1987), the team members of self-managing teams (1) take collective responsibility for the outcomes of their work, (2) monitor their own performance by actively seeking data about how they have performed and (3) manage their own performance by making alterations in work strategies when circumstances change or feedback indicates that new approaches are needed.

Many scholars agree that self-managing teams are 'groups of interdependent individuals that can self-regulate their behaviour on relatively whole tasks'. This definition stems from Goodman, Devadas, and Griffith Hughson (1988) and forms the basis of definitions mentioned by many followers (Cohen & Ledford Jr, 1994; Cohen, Ledford, & Spreitzer, 1996; De Jong, De Ruyter, & Wetzels, 2005; Janz, Wetherbe, Davis, & Noe, 1997; Kuipers & Stoker, 2009; Langfred, 2004; Moorhead, Neck, & West, 1998; Spreitzer, Cohen, & Ledford, 1999; Stoker, 2008).

The characteristics of self-managing teams can be generally described as the collective possession of a variety of work skills, the responsibility for many traditional management tasks (Neck & Manz, 1994), the autonomy to make decisions previously made by the managers (Alper, Tjosvold, & Law, 1998; Liebowitz & Holden, 1995; Rogers, Metlay, Kaplan, & Shapiro, 1995), including monitoring their own performance and altering it as needed (Lambe, Webb, & Ishida, 2009; Thoms, Pinto, Parente, & Druskat, 2002; Wageman, 1997; Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002). More specific team tasks have been mentioned in the literature, too. For example, researchers report that self-managing teams set production schedules and standards, monitor customer feedback and their own performance and develop and train for quality improvement practices (Kirkman, Jones, & Shapiro, 2000; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Kirkman & Shapiro, 2001). Some studies emphasise that teams receive feedback and evaluations on their performance (Bishop & Scott, 2000), gather information and meet organisational goals (Muthusamy, Wheeler, & Simmons, 2005; Van der Vegt, Bunderson, & Kuipers, 2010).

To focus our message in this book and based on the above-mentioned characteristics of self-managing teams, we suggest that:

> […] self-managing teams are groups of interdependent individuals who have the autonomy to self-regulate their behaviour on relatively whole tasks, they possess a variety of work skills, are responsible for decision making, monitoring and altering their performance, they fulfil traditional management tasks and meet company goals.

Finally, a last remark on the key characteristic of self-managing teams: the degree of autonomy. It is important to view it is a matter of degree. We must analyse the matter of autonomy as precisely as possible. To what degree do teams have autonomy? Does self-management imply the abolition of hierarchies? If we read Laloux (2014), we must ultimately say yes, the team is self-managing, without bosses, managers or executive officers being needed anymore. In practice, as our case study will show, self-managing teams do operate in an organisational context. Therefore, it is important to analyse and write about self-management more precisely. In line with sociotechnical systems theory (e.g. De Sitter, 1994), we must distinguish between (1) the object of autonomy (which tasks are the responsibility of the team), (2) the level of autonomy (team gets information only, team may give advice, participative decision-making and full delegation to the team) and (3) the scope of autonomy (does the decision have consequences for the workplace only, for the department or for the entire organisation). That improves our understanding of the nature of the empowerment and autonomy of self-managing teams.

The Authors' Self-managing Team

We started this project more than a year ago, when we entered the case organisation with our research questions about self-managing teams. Writing the book with five authors has become an intensive journey – to coordinate the effort, to unfold historical overviews, to conduct and analyse interviews, to think repeatedly about what does it mean for modern organisations to switch towards self-managing teams.

We would like to thank our colleagues and junior researchers who helped – at different stages of this project – to shape and challenge our opinions, making this research possible: Adina Aldea, Anastasia Cvetkovski, André Pieffers, Anneke de Bruin, Cindy Wiese, Daphne Veelers, Giulia Mestrovic, Laurens Averesch, Marijn Schrander, Mark Breukink, Patty van Engelen, Rohid Bhansing, Roos ten Vregelaar, Stefan Becking, Ufuk Karakus, Wouter ter Avest and Yosri Mhiri. Our special thanks go to the people from the case organisation: Heinz Reinink and Henk Eleveld, Management Team and the 70 interviewees.

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The Concept of Self-managing Teams: History and Taxonomy

A Short History of Self-managing Teams in Three Waves

To improve our understanding of the potential of self-managing teams (SMTs), we have to look into the past. Teams are certainly not a new phenomenon, nor are SMTs. They have been around in the organisational world for decades. Around 100 years ago, the team as an organisational unit appeared. Stemming from the Hawthorne studies back in the 1920s and 1930s, conducted at the Western Electric Company, reported by Roethlisberger and Dickson (1939), the group was 'discovered'. It is not only the individual who counts, it is the individual and his or her relations with co-workers. The group – informal or formal – is important in understanding how to improve the work situation of people. What we do know about teams and SMTs, their antecedents and outcomes will be discussed later in a thorough literature review of SMTs. Here we intend to summarise in a structured way the development of the nature and the context of SMTs in a short history of SMT research.

Three waves are described here using two main lines of team characteristics: the organisational design and the socio-psychological team processes. The history of SMTs can be read as an interplay between both aspects. The psychology discipline contributed to a better understanding of group processes, team dynamics and power and trust relations within teams and between teams and their environment. The sociologists, management and job design theorists contributed to a better understanding of the structural aspects of teams, the connections between teams and the environment and the embedment of teams within organisations. From time to time, in every wave, attempts have been made to integrate both aspects in 'grand theories', such as classic socio-technical systems (STS) thinking (Cherns, 1976; Trist & Bamforth, 1951) in the first wave, modern STS theory (De Sitter, Den Hertog, & Dankbaar, 1997) and empowered teams (Wellins, Byham, & Wilson, 1991) in the second wave and the evolutionary approach (Laloux, 2014) in the third wave.

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First Wave: The Classic Self-managing Team Approach (1950–1980)

The foundation of the classic SMT approach was the discovery of the power of group relations deep down in the British coal mines. Detailed observation of traditional and new methods of coal mining led to the statement that the social fabric of group relations are vital and cannot be understood without the technology (Trist & Bamforth, 1951). To understand productivity, it is better to think about the joint optimisation of technology and social systems. The new coal mining methods were destroying the previously self-regulating small groups of the traditional hand-got method. Instead, the more industrial longwall method was introduced with a functional structure and led to a kind of alienation of the team members: if supervisors want to do it in this way, we will do it, although it is better to change our behaviour. This was not determined by technology, and other social arrangements are also possible (the concept of organisational choice) and can dramatically increase output and productivity. It required multi-skilled workers, with problem-solving authorities on the shopfloor and good social relations between co-workers and supervisors. The core ideas of SMTs were born: common goals, interdependence, self-regulating capacities, trust relations and multi-skilled workers.

Throughout the history of research into teams, we see two models as vitally important and laying the path for future studies into SMTs. The first stream of research was developed by Hackman and his school. Hackman and Oldham (1976) designed the job characteristics model of work motivation, in which they propose core job dimensions, critical psychological states and related personal work outcomes, such as high internal motivation of the proposed work, high-quality work performance, high work satisfaction, low employee turnover and low absenteeism. Almost a decade later, Hackman (1987) used the concepts of the work design theory and job characteristics model in the normative model of group effectiveness. This model looked at how group effectiveness is established by starting with the organisational context and the group design; it considers the influence of group synergy and looks at the process criteria of effectiveness. The model was designed to support and assess work teams. Hackman (1987) and Hackman and Oldham (1976) designed frameworks on team effectiveness and job motivation, which are widely mentioned in later research on team effectiveness and also with regard to SMTs (Cohen, Ledford, & Spreitzer, 1996).

Second Wave: The Modern Self-managing Team Approach (1980–2005)

The second influential stream of research was developed from the work of Cohen et al. (1996), who designed a predictive model for effective SMTs. We view this model as representing the modern SMT approach. This model makes an important contribution to the literature since it is one of the few models especially designed for SMTs. Cohen published 57 works that earned more than 9,500 citations. Her work is well known, especially her article on ‘a predictive model for effective self-managing teams’.

Cohen et al. (1996) describe four main predictors for effective SMTs: group task design, group characteristics, encouraging supervisory behaviour and a context that supports employee involvement. These predictors explain different variances in the following dependent variables: manager ratings of performance, team ratings of performance, quality of work life (QWL) and withdrawal behaviours. Since these four antecedents and their outcomes function as the foundation of this literature review, we first provide a more detailed explanation of them. From the literature, we sensed that successful teams possess the following characteristics: they satisfy external and internal clients, develop capabilities for future performance and their members find meaning and satisfaction within their team (e.g. Hackman, 2002). Five conditions to enhance success for teams are described in the 'Five Factor Model' by Hackman (2002): being an actual team, providing direction with clear goals, enabling the structure of the team, having a supportive context in place and expert guidance or coaching.

Work design and STS theory point out that task design contributes to effective SMTs by its effect on motivation and its impact on self-regulation. There are several attributes of task design that advocate for work team motivation and self-regulation: group task variety, group task identity, group task significance, group task autonomy and group task feedback (Cohen et al., 1996). Group task design is also found to predict team ratings of performance but does not influence QWL.

Encouraging supervisory behaviour is the attribute focused on self-leadership in SMTs. This self-leadership is established through a supervisor facilitating it. There are six leadership behaviours this supervisor should adhere to: encourage self-observation/self-evaluation, self-goal setting, self-reinforcement, self-criticism, self-expectation and rehearsal. This self-leadership is found to influence the performance effectiveness of team members since they learn to improve team performance by correctly performing desired behaviours. Self-leadership, just like group task design, has self-regulation as the key to self-management (Cohen et al., 1996). Encouraging supervisory behaviour is found to be negatively related to manager ratings of performance.

Group characteristics as an antecedent is divided into the sub-categories of group composition, group beliefs and group processes. Group composition consists of the variables group expertise, group size adequacy and group stability. Group beliefs, which a group shares with its members, can be classified into group norms and group self-efficacy. The sub-category group process refers to the interaction between group members when on the job. Group process is divided into group coordination and group innovation processes. Part of the effectiveness of a SMT may depend upon the ability of the team to solve problems and implement innovative ideas to address the change in task demands (Cohen et al., 1996). Group characteristics were found to predict absenteeism and team ratings of performance but is not related to QWL.

The last category mentioned by Cohen et al. (1996) is the employee involvement context. An organisational context that supports the involvement of employees results in more effective SMTs. For SMTs to be effective, several elements of organisational design should be moved to lower levels in an organisation. Cohen et al. (1996)

mention five design elements: power, information, rewards, training and resources. The further these five elements are moved down the organisation, the more employees will take ownership and responsibility for their task, which in turn motivates performance. The five elements reinforce each other. Employee involvement context has the strongest influence on QWL and manager ratings of performance, and only employee involvement can predict QWL.

In line with the model of Cohen et al. (1996), many other authors and researchers came up with their conceptualisation of SMTs. In some cases, they rely more on the cultural and socio-psychological aspects of teamwork, such as Katzenbach and Smith (1993) and Wellins et al. (1991). In other cases, they rely more on the structural and design aspects of teamwork, like modern STS theory (De Sitter et al., 1997). In this short history of SMTs, we must pay some attention to the details of the modern STS approach.

van Eijnatten (1993) has identified four different streams of modern STS, which are geographically distinct: the Australian, the North American, the Scandinavian and the Dutch approach. The Australian variant, also called participative design, is an approach with a full emphasis on the participation of all stakeholders, breaking away from the traditional expert approach. Tools in this approach are the search conference, the participative design workshop and some skill-analysis techniques (Emery, 1993). The North American variant, known as modern STS design, is very much related to the QWL programmes. In the 1990s, many projects were carried out under team labels: empowerment, self-directed teams, high-commitment teams, high-performance teams and so on. Taylor and Felten (1993) provide an overview of the STS-thinking in North America. They stress among other things the understanding of the business in which a company is involved and the focus on the product of the STS approach. In the variance control analysis, they emphasise that when key variances occur, they should be controlled by the group of employees where they arise. They also indicate the need for competence development of workers to control these key variances and to understand the company's environment. The examples they provide are typical mainstream STS implementations, very successful in increasing the internal control of the teams, but less successful in increasing the control of the teams over business responsibilities. The Scandinavian variant of STS – democratic dialogue – goes beyond the company level, emphasising the formation of networks and open communication between the partners. Local knowledge should be developed in sharing information from other companies. Adler and Docherty (1998) claim that many studies focus on primary work group control, including the development of business control and customer contact for these work group members.

The Dutch variant of modern STS offers a detailed design approach, claiming an integral approach to the quality of the organisation, QWL and quality of labour relations through the design of the architecture of the organisation structure. De Sitter et al. (1997, p. 503) recognise that the open systems approach is much more than only QWL and therefore 'functional requirements with respect to customers, the physical environment, the labour market, suppliers of capital, workers, etc. should be regarded as equivalent'. The concepts developed within the Dutch variant

include the distinction between the production structure, the control structure and the information structure, as well as the logic of designing them in this sequence. The aim is to reduce the complexity of the organisation and to create primary work groups that are responsible for the whole product flow, from the beginning to the end. Detailed design principles regarding the parallelisation and segmentation of product flows are given. This provides the SMTs with a structural basis for having control over purpose, context and system dynamics. The concept of control capacity (De Sitter, 1994) of primary work groups seems to be quite comprehensive; it is possible to analyse and design a detailed picture of all relevant internal and external decisions and routine and non-routine ones.

Firmly based in modern STS, but one step further is the mini-company concept (De Leede, Looise, & Verkerk, 2002). It was Suzaki (1993) who coined the term 'mini-company' for primary work groups that are responsible for their supplier–client relationships. The organisation is viewed as a collection of mini-companies. Each work group within the organisation has its own process. The next process is viewed as the customer, and the previous process is viewed as the supplier of every unit. The word 'mini-company' brings ideas such as ownership, entrepreneurship and client–supplier relationships. The mini-company has four characteristics, distinct from socio-technical primary work groups (De Leede et al., 2002; p. 345): (1) The mini-company has a name and a mission statement. Both are formulated by the mini-company itself. This relates to control over purpose. (2) The mini-company identifies its clients and suppliers and is responsible for managing its relationships. While it is not always appropriate for external clients and suppliers to have direct contacts with the mini-company, there are at least the internal client–supplier relationships. This is equivalent to control over context. (3) The mini-company is responsible for its own improvement programme. Based on its contacts with clients, suppliers and management, the mini-company is able to identify its weak points, which are open to improvement. This characteristic entails control over system dynamics. (4) The mini-company presents its name, mission, members, customers, suppliers, improvement programme and results on display walls.

The mini-company process is the dynamic side of the mini-company concept. It represents a cycle in which the name and mission are under review in every period and the relevant clients and suppliers are identified and visited. These visits are oriented towards overall assessments of the mini-company. In executing the cycle of the mini-company process, the requirements of the customers (internal or external) and suppliers are made visible every time. These requirements are the inputs for the improvement programme. The mini-company concept has the three areas of control that are additional to mainstream STS theory, according to Adler and Docherty (1998). This concerns control over purpose in formulating the group's business goals, control over context in maintaining the client–supplier relationships and control over system dynamics in the learning and improvement aspects.

These socio-technical system ideas about a structural basis for SMTs are used and 're-invented' in other approaches of the 1990s and early 2000s. A good example

is the Business Process Reengineering (BPR) approach of the best-selling book of Hammer and Champy (1993). As Van Hootegem, Benders, Delarue, and Procter (2005) show, BPR stresses that organisations need to be structured around processes. These processes must be organised in a way that is characterised by ideas like 'several jobs are combined into one', 'workers make decisions', 'work is performed where it makes the most sense' and 'checks and controls are reduced'. These ideas are exactly the same as the modern socio-technical ideas, but written down in an easy-to-understand, non-academic fashion.

The last representative of the second wave is what has become known as 'High-Performing Work Systems' (HPWS) or High-Involvement Work Systems (HIWS). The message of a key publication in HPWS (Appelbaum, Bailey, Berg, & Kalleberg, 2000) was that domestic American workplaces could not be saved by superior technological innovation alone, reforms in work systems are needed also, although they are not sufficient on their own. Much discussion has been around in defining the core work practices that belong to HPWS (see Boxall & Macky, 2009), but the core idea again was that teams and individuals on the shopfloor must possess enough autonomy to decide on problems occurring at the workplace. As Human Resource Management (HRM) can be seen as consisting of work practices and employment practices, HPWS tries to align both sets of practices in order to be more effective. The HRM practices must be aligned to encourage employees to take this more empowered role. Further in this book, we will explore in much more detail how HRM practices go along with SMTs. An approach with a slightly different acronym – HIWS – also focuses on removing the old Taylorist approach of centralised decision-making and problem-solving in the hands of management by replacing them with practices in which the employees themselves are empowered to make these decisions. It is all about the reintegration of planning and execution. The work practices that are used for this are not the same in every context or sector. For example, within the automobile industry, MacDuffie (1995, p. 203) identifies five practices: work teams, problem-solving groups (employee involvement or quality circle groups), employee suggestion schemes, job rotation and decentralisation of quality-related tasks. This type of flexible production requires highly skilled workers. MacDuffie (1995) makes this quite clear: greater involvement in decision-making implies better skills. HRM practices for developing employees are necessary.

Third Wave: The Contemporary Self-managing Team Approach (2005–2020)

The first and second waves have delivered a rich quantity of aspects, practices and policies of self-management and SMTs. Based on overviews of work design theories like the recent one of Parker, Morgeson, and Johns (2017), it is possible to state that after the job characteristics model of Hackman and the STS concepts of group autonomy, no fundamental new aspects have been put forward on the issue of SMTs. Of course, important work has been published on the balance of job demands and job control (Karasek & Theorell, 1990) or on job demands/job

resources (Demerouti, Bakker, Nachreiner, & Schaufeli, 2001) or on the characteristics of team empowerment (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). Useful integrative overviews of work design have also been published (e.g. Grant & Parker, 2009) that cover the relational job design perspective and the social context of work design. Nevertheless, to our understanding, fundamentally new perspectives or really new insights on a fundamental level have not been put forward. The basics of job and group autonomy, feedback, goal and task interdependence, social support, interactions with the environment are mentioned and elaborated into a finer set of concepts.

New fundamental insights in what we call the third wave of the contemporary SMT approach is based on the evolutionary perspective. In his Foreword to the book of Laloux (2014), Ken Wilber makes an important observation while describing the position of the book. Many writers and theorists on organisations of the past have emphasised their own perspective by claiming a new paradigm: 'there's-a-great-new-paradigm-and-major-consciousness-transformation' now underway (ibid, p. xi). The old paradigm, which was analytic or abstract or fragmented or masculine or tayloristic was the cause of all organisational and humanities problems. Now we need a new paradigm: an organic, holistic, systemic, inclusive perspective on organisations, and the good news is: it is here. This kind of black and white reasoning is quite exemplary within business science. Slowly, a new wave of books has been published with a more sophisticated psychological component in which the development of mankind in general and individual people was applied to organisational development. It is not just old and new, it is a development into more stages, with all intermediate levels. Laloux's contribution (2014) was to describe several levels of consciousness in a clear manner and apply them to organisations. This does not mean that there is only one line of development, from the initial level-1 to the ultimate level-7 in one straight pathway. There are many pathways or lines. In every line (cognitive, moral, emotional and economic), there are different levels. That makes it rather complex, because a single person can be in different levels at the same time, as can an entire organisation.

The application of consciousness levels to organisations stresses some interesting aspects concerning the topic of self-management and SMTs. Laloux (2014) shows that the Teal organisation (the organisation which operates on the highest level) no longer works with dominator hierarchies in a classic sense. However, this is not to say that there no hierarchies at all! Hierarchies emerge and pop up everywhere; the examples of Teal organisations simply move these lower, intermediate and higher hierarchies into teams of 10−15 people who are responsible for all the major decisions. All decisions concerning sales, marketing, finance, salary, purchasing and so on are made by these teams themselves. Taken to the extreme, these examples show that top management and middle management hardly exist any longer. They have been replaced by teams who manage themselves. For many organisations, this is still in the future, as we will see in the Discussion and Future Outlook part of this book.

What does a Teal organisation look like? Its structure has changed from a pyramid towards a bundle of SMTs. The teams do not have bosses or supervisors, they

are self-governing and self-organising. Every team member does have some of the managerial tasks that are 'normally' in the hands of one person: the boss. Instead of the boss, the teams are provided with support in the form of training, coaching and tools required to be self-managing. All team members are trained in problem-solving techniques, collaboration techniques and communication skills, because these skills are needed to avoid conflict or becoming stuck in the middle. Teal organisations have only the bare minimum of staff functions. Instead of economies of scale, provided by staff in more traditional organisations, Teal organisations have to rely on trust and motivated people.

The processes in Teal organisations are as vital as the structure. Decision-making processes within SMTs have to be re-invented to reflect the Teal principles. Decision-making is not based on command-and-control, nor on the hierarchical or position power. At the other extreme, decision-making is also not based on consensus, nor can any team member veto the decision-making process. That would lead to endless meetings with a great risk of conflictual situations arising. Instead, any individual – a team member or the leader of the organisation – who wants to make a decision can do so, but *only* after having sought advice from those who are affected by that decision. The decision-maker has to take that advice into account, while retaining the responsibility to make a decision. Self-managing organisations do not have authorisation limits or procurement departments, they just rely on the seeking-advice process. No central staff department is needed to benefit from volume discounts or standardisation: if a standard is needed, someone will stand up and call together a knowledgeable group that will make one.

To summarise this short history on SMTs, we have seen three waves, the classic approach from 1950 to 1980, the modern approach from 1980 to 2005 and the contemporary approach from 2005 until the present. To avoid misunderstandings, these three waves correspond only loosely with the exact years; some practices and publications do exist in earlier periods, and some contemporary publications reflect the classic or modern approaches. A good example is the story of Semco (Semler, 1993). It is a continuous story of implementing new elements based on new insights, but with a clear vision of employee involvement and employee ownership. Semco is using SMTs as a basis for its manufacturing, and in all other parts of the company, the next step was to split up the plant into smaller ones. The control of teams over their own work was gradually increased, also by aligning all staff functions to the teams. Semco introduced profit-sharing and other HRM practices like selection by team members. The team members can set their own goals and are rewarded according to these goals. In other words, they can set their own salaries. In addition, leave and vacation days are also up to the teams, they can decide on the number of days off and the scheduling of the holidays. In short, Semco is an example of a Teal organisation *avant-la-lettre*, and it is still developing in that sense, thereby serving as a world-renowned example of SMTs. The development of that Brazilian company is a good example of the evolutionary approach, with different lines on different levels.

Types of Self-managing Teams

A team is not a team. As mentioned in the introduction, there are many types of teams, such as top management teams, project teams, semi-autonomous teams, manufacturing teams, scrum teams, new-product innovation teams, departmental teams, cross-functional teams product teams, ad-hoc teams and so on. Hollenbeck, Beersma, and Schouten (2012) produced a list of 42 types with definitions found in the organisation sciences literature. Similarly, there is not one type of SMT. Our case study will reveal differences between the teams at Livio: there are differences due to the context in which they operate and the maturity of the intra-team and inter-team processes. This section will define some characteristics by which it becomes possible to make useful distinctions between teams. The most important characteristic of SMTs is their autonomy, so we shall start with autonomy typologies (such as Bailey & Adiga, 1997). Next, the renowned Team-Description-Index of Hollenbeck et al. (2012) is described, and we shall conclude with team developmental models like Tuckman (1965), Gersick (1988) and Laloux (2014).

Teams differ in their degree of self-managing capacity. Sandberg (1982, p. 5) has already stated that 'a work group cannot be said to be autonomous or not autonomous, it is autonomous in certain respects and to a certain extent'. Several authors have developed categories of decision areas that can be controlled by teams. Susman (1976) in the classic period of STS distinguished between self-regulation (coordination of production, allocation of resources and boundary management), independence (when and where to produce) and self-government (leadership, membership and task allocation). Wall, Kemp, Jackson, and Clegg (1986) came forward with groups that were granted control over tactical and operational areas. These areas included internal task allocation, achieving quantity and quality goals, resolving production problems, recording production data, scheduling breaks, ordering raw materials, delivering finished goods, calling for external support and training and selecting new members.

Bailey and Adiga (1997) proposed a taxonomy of work group autonomy that builds on these early classifications and extends them to include advanced technologies. They propose two dimensions: a technical/administrative dichotomy and an operational/tactical/strategic impact of the decision. The technical and administrative dichotomy distinguishes between decisions about group processes and managerial issues (administrative) versus decisions on products, services, equipment or production processes (technical). They developed well-defined measurements of these types of work group autonomy, which are useful for clarifying to what extent the teams are responsible. This taxonomy is represented in Table 1.

This taxonomy can serve as a precise instrument to assess the autonomy and independence of the SMTs. It assists employees who are looking for a guide about the extent to which they are self-managing. The operationalisation of this taxonomy is especially useful for these practical purposes. In addition, for researchers, it is absolutely necessary to be able to compare the degree of autonomy of SMTs in order to compare the effectiveness of such groups.

Table 1: Taxonomy of Work Group Autonomy.

	Area of Control	Technical	Administrative
Operational	Methods	Set individual methods	
	Scheduling	Determine job sequence	Schedule breaks
			Schedule overtime
	Task allocation		Assign production task to members
	Resource allocation and management	Prioritise equipment repair	
	Goals	Set daily production goals	
	Boundary management	Contact external support (engineers, maintenance, etc.)	Contact suppliers and customers
Tactical	Scheduling		Schedule vacations
	Resource allocation and management	Schedule equipment maintenance	Schedule training
		Evaluate or select new equipment	Determine pay increases for members
	Goals	Set weekly or monthly goals	Evaluate individual performance
		Determine group performance metrics	
		Implement solutions to problems	
	Boundary management	Supply chain management	Select new members
			Initiate disciplinary actions
			Fire or expel members
			Select group leader
			Evaluate external support performance
Strategic	Resource allocation and management	Assess equipment needs	Determine group and individual training needs
	Goals	Set long-range production goals	
		Determine improvement areas and goals	
	Boundary management		Determine headcount requirements
			Determine group tasks

Source: Bailey & Adiga (1997), p. 162, adapted.

A recent taxonomy of teams has been developed by Hollenbeck et al. (2012). In a thorough review of other taxonomies and 42 types of teams they propose three dimensions based on what teams make teams by definition. Teams are made up of multiple individuals who are linked to each other by structural dependence. Team members do collaborate with each other to achieve their goals and fulfil their tasks. Therefore, in the first place, it is important to know who performs which tasks (skill differentiation). In the second place, teams might differ in the way how authority is defined and organised within the teams (authority differentiation). Finally, the third dimension refers to the extent teams are stable over time (temporal stability). It is these three dimensions who in the view of Hollenbeck et al. (2012) are important to differentiate between teams. In proposing and describing these three dimensions, they move away from the traditional team type discussions in the literature that is more focused on a 2×2 matrix, or, more complicated, a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ matrix. In reality, it is not that dichotomous; instead it is crucial for practitioners and researchers to take into account that many teams differ from each other *to a certain degree* in a particular dimension.

For the purpose of our book it is especially important to see how they use the second dimension: the authority differentiation. After all, it is on this dimension where the main differences are between the traditional hierarchical teams and the more democratic and SMTs. As we have seen with the autonomy taxonomy of Bailey and Adiga (1997), autonomy can refer to many objects: both technical and administrative, as well on matters of strategic, tactical and operational value and time horizon. The Hollenbeck taxonomy shows that this autonomy dimension is a true *dimensional* scale, in the sense that there are many options between the extreme positions. On this scale, the teams they mention vary from 'judge-adviser system', via 'hierarchical decision-making teams', 'traditional work teams', 'stable emergent leader teams', 'rotated leadership teams' and 'democratic teams' to 'autonomous/self-managing teams'. Apparently, the role of leadership is important in this dimension; later in this book, we also want to focus on this aspect: the role of managers in SMTs.

One last step in describing teams is the level of maturity of the SMTs. Teams differ also on their level of development. We might think of teams who have the same amount of tasks and responsibilities to perform, and are also authorised to perform these responsibilities. In addition, the team composition is similar, so they have the same characteristics in skill differentiation and in temporal stability. And still, some teams perform much better compared to other ones. What makes similar teams perform differently? The difference might be traced back to team dynamics and interpersonal relations within the teams that might be characterised as conflictual or harmonious. They trust each other to a certain degree, they show team cohesion to a certain extent, they are open to each other and rely on each other's support to a certain degree. These teams can vary on these kind of aspects, what we like to call the team maturity. Team maturity refers to the developmental state in which the teams are situated from an initial low-performing stage to a final high-performing stage. Many authors propose different names for these specific stages in which teams can exist, like the sequence of Katzenbach and Smith (1993), where low

performing teams are called 'working groups', and starting teams that perform even worse 'pseudo teams', while better performing teams are called 'potential teams', 'real teams' and 'high-performance teams'.

Probably the most well-known team development model is Tuckman's one (1965): teams develop over four stages: 'forming', 'storming', 'norming', 'performing', slightly adjusted with a fifth stage by Tuckman and Jensen (1977) 'adjourning'. This model is the basis of a more recent model of group development, now widely used and tested called the Integrated Model of Group Development (IMGD) (Wheelan, 2005; Wheelan & Hochberger, 1996), which is measured with the Group Development Questionnaire. The IMGD model also consists of four stages of group development. In the first stage, called 'dependency and inclusion', team members are highly dependent on the designated leader, it is all about safety, and inclusion issues. In this stage, members are still tending to agree with the suggestions made by the leader. Productivity levels during Stage 1 usually are low. The second stage of group development is called a period of 'counter dependency and fight'. At this stage, team members increasingly have opposing perspectives about group goals and procedures. Conformity with emerging group norms, evident at Stage 1, decreases. The group's challenge is to develop a unified set of goals, values, norms and operational procedures. If the group manages to work through the unavoidable conflicts of Stage 2, mutual trust, commitment and willingness to collaborate increase. In the next stage, 'trust and structure', teams are having mature negotiations about roles, organisation and procedures. Member conformity with group goals and norms increases during Stage 3 because consensus about these goals and norms has been achieved. Group productivity begins to increase as well. The fourth stage, 'work and productivity', is a time of effectiveness. Having resolved the issues of the previous stages, the group can focus most of its energy to achieve their goals and fulfil their tasks. Typically, Stage 4 teams spend 80% of the time on productivity, while Stage 1 groups only 40% (Wheelan & Williams, 2003).

Although most authors and researchers of these team development models acknowledge that team development is not a linear process, these models suggest something different that is teams develop from one stage to the other, in short they grow in maturity. Gersick (1988, p. 11) observed the striking resemblance of all stage-based models, they are:

> deeply grounded in the paradigm of group development as an inevitable progression […] researchers construe development as a movement in a forward direction and expect every group to follow the same historical path.

Theories and models are needed that allow for multiple possible sequences or iterative cycles of group development. In addition, such models need to adequately address mechanisms for change over a group's lifespan, or when and how a team moves from one stage to the next. Gersick's (1988) model suggests that teams progress in patterns of 'punctuated equilibiria', through inertia and revolution, triggered by member's awareness of time and deadlines. Progress in team development is highly connected with the context, the relevant stakeholders outside the team,

a notion which we have seen already with the mini-company concept (De Leede et al., 2002).

Still, the growth or development of teams towards a more productive state, being more self-managing is a powerful metaphor. In this book, we will describe teams of one healthcare organisation that are more successful compared to others. They are teams of one and the same organisation, and might be structured and organised in the same manner. They are offered the same HRM policies and practices, nevertheless they are very different in how they work smoothly together or not. They differ in team maturity. This concept of team maturity is a powerful concept to address these socio-dynamic issues. It is also one of the appealing characteristics of the Teal organisation: these organisations have found some mechanisms that open up the possibilities of collaboration within and across the SMTs, they have found ways to increase trust and openness across team members, thereby allowing for high levels of productivity and innovative behaviour.

Summary: How to Describe Self-managing Teams in Detail

To summarise this section, we have seen a number of different ways in how to distinguish between teams. The taxonomy of Bailey and Adiga (1997) highlights how teams differ on the dimension of autonomy. In line with STS thinking (De Sitter et al., 1997) it is useful to make a detailed analysis on the object of autonomy (which topics the teams are self-managing), the scope of autonomy (to what time horizon these topics refer to as, such as operational, tactical and strategic topics) as well as the organisational scope (to what organisational unit does the autonomy have influence on, such as workplace, department, business unit or entire organisation). To complete this taxonomy, we want to add the level of autonomy, for instance by using the power-influence continuum of Heller, Drenth, Koopman, and Rus, 1988. The level of autonomy can be perceived as a continuum which starts from no, or minimal information sharing and goes through solely information sharing, to giving advice, taking advice into consideration, joint decision-making and finally self-management. The four aspects of autonomy, (1) object, (2) time and impact scope, (3) organisational scope and (4) level of autonomy, together provide a detailed picture of how autonomous SMTs are. Only if we have this picture sharp enough, we can make sound and adequate distinctions between different SMTs.

However, even with a detailed picture of autonomy, there are more dimensions in which SMTs differ. As we have seen with the Hollenbeck et al. (2012) taxonomy, it is also about skill differentiation (the diversity in experience, competences, knowledge, culture and gender) and temporal stability (the duration of the team). Finally, the team development also does matter. This 'magic' factor makes a difference between low and high performing teams and traces it back to all kind of collaboration processes.

With this accurate view on what SMTs can look like, we end Part I. Now, we are able to review the literature in order to identify the factors that contribute to the

success of SMTs. To compare team research, it is a matter of comparing these characteristics of SMTs.

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