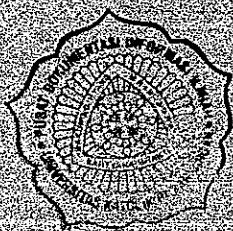


**PERAN TIM ERA ABAD KE 21
SUATU KAJIAN DAMPAK PEMBERDAYAAN TIM
TERHADAP
KINERJA TIM VIRTUAL**



**OLEH:
URIP SANTOSO**

658 402
SAM
F

BANDUNG – 2006

121188 R/PISIP
18 3 08

658 402 .

KATA PENGANTAR

Dalam era yang modern ini tidak mungkin lagi suatu pekerjaan dalam suatu organisasi dikerjakan oleh seseorang sendirian. Hal ini dikarenakan semakin kompleksnya suatu pekerjaan yang perlu pemikiran dan penanganan oleh banyak orang. Dengan kondisi demikian, tim merupakan jawaban yang paling tepat.

Pentingnya suatu tim tidak diragukan lagi, sehingga dimana-mana kita sering mendengar kerja sama tim dalam rangka pencapaian suatu tujuan tertentu. Pentingnya tim dirasakan dimana-mana, baik pada organisasi bisnis maupun non bisnis, baik skala lokal; regional maupun global.

Lebih jauh lagi dalam era globalisasi pada abad ke 21 ini, peran tim telah berkembang ke arah tim tanpa batas wilayah yang jelas, menembus batas-batas yang tidak terkendali. Tim demikian dikenal dengan Tim Virtual. Agar tim virtual dapat berdaya guna, maka pemberdayaan tim menjadi lebih penting.

Dengan landasan pentingnya suatu tim, khususnya tim virtual, penulis mencoba memberikan pembahasan tentang Peran Tim Era Abad ke 21, Suatu Kajian Dampak Pemberdayaan Tim Terhadap Kinerja Tim Virtual.

Penulis menyadari bahwa paper/makalah ini masih jauh dari sempurna, namun setidaknya dapat memberikan pancingan untuk mendiskusikan lebih mendalam. Oleh karena itu dari lubuk hati yang mendalam, penulis mengharapkan kritik dan saran agar tulisan ini menjadi lebih berbobot.

Bandung, 08 Januari 2006
Penulis,

Urip Santoso



DAFTAR ISI

Halaman

KATA PENGANTAR	ii
DAFTAR ISI	iii
1. Pendahuluan	1
2. Pengertian Tim dan Kelompok	3
2.1. Pengertian Tim	3
2.2. Pengertian Kelompok	4
2.3. Perbedaan tim kerja dan kelompok kerja	4
2.4. Tipe Tim	5
2.5. Membentuk Tim yang Efektif	9
2.6. Kegagalan Tim Kerja	19
2.7. Membentuk Pemain Tim	20
2.8. Tim dan Keanekaragaman Angkatan Kerja	20
2.9. Tim virtual Dalam Era Globalisasi	21
3. Pembahasan Kasus Dampak Pemberdayaan Tim Terhadap Kinerja Tim Virtual	24
4. Kesimpulan	31
REFERENSI	33
LAMPIRAN JURNAL	34

PERAN TIM ERA ABAD KE 21 SUATU KAJIAN DAMPAK PEMBERDAYAAN TIM TERHADAP KINERJA TIM VIRTUAL *)



1. Pendahuluan

Pesatnya perkembangan teknologi informasi dan globalisasi pada dewasa ini menyebabkan lingkungan organisasi bersifat tubulen dan cepat berubah, hal ini mengharuskan setiap organisasi dikelola secara efisien dan efektif dengan sumber daya manusia (SDM) sebagai keunggulan kompetitif. Sumberdaya manusia harus diberdayakan dan harus dijadikan suatu asset yang sangat berharga, bukan untuk dieksplorasi. Sudah saatnya harus berubah dalam memandang sumber daya manusia, karena manusia merupakan makluk yang berakal budi yang dapat dikembangkan sesuai dengan kamampuannya.

Setiap organisasi berupaya agar dapat tumbuh dan berkembang serta berkelanjutan. Untuk mencapai tujuan tersebut organisasi modern dewasa ini telah banyak menerapkan paradigma baru manajerial. Paradigma baru dalam manajerial tersebut adalah : perubahan dari peran individu ke peran tim atau kelompok, perubahan dari satu fungsi kerja ke fungsi kerja silang, perubahan dari kuantitas ke kualitas dan perubahan dari profit ke kepuasan dan loyalitas pelanggan. Saat ini tidak mungkin lagi seseorang bekerja sendiri untuk mencapai tujuan atau kelompok tertentu menganggap bahwa kelompoknya dapat menyelesaikan tugasnya dengan baik. Saat ini diperlukan suatu kerja tim, keberhasilan organisasi merupakan keberhasilan suatu tim.

Berdasarkan teori dan hasil penelitian-penelitian diketahui bahwa kinerja tim lebih unggul dibandingkan kinerja individu untuk tugas-tugas yang menuntut ketampilan ganda. Organisasi dengan tim kerja yang baik akan dapat bersaing dengan lebih efektif dan efisien. Tim juga lebih tanggap dan responsif terhadap perubahan-perubahan internal dan ekternal organisasi. Tim mempunyai

*) Disampaikan Pada Diskusi Intern Program Doktor Fakultas Ekonomi 1
Universitas Padjadjaran Bandung, tanggal 8 Januari 2006

kemampuan untuk dengan cepat berkumpul, menyebar, memfokus ulang dan membubarkan diri. Kondisi ini sesuai dengan kondisi perubahan lingkungan yang begitu cepat, yang menuntut semua organisasi harus menyesuaikan diri dan beradaptasi agar tidak tergilas oleh para pesaingnya. Kondisi ini berlaku baik pada organisasi bisnis maupun non bisnis, karena lingkungan selalu menuntut perubahan yang nyata yang dapat dirasakan secara cepat. Oleh karena itu sikap tanggap sangat diperlukan sekali, dengan adanya tim yang banyak anggotanya dan tidak bekerja sendiri-sendiri, kondisi ini dapat ditangkap dengan segera.

Sungguhpun kelebihan peran tim dalam organisasi telah diketahui namun kenyataannya masih banyak ditemukan organisasi yang belum menggunakan tim sebagai bagian dari budaya organisasinya atau peran tim dalam organisasi masih belum optimal digunakan. Kondisi ini memang mempersulit perkembangan organisasi, namun perubahan budaya bukan merupakan hal yang mudah, namun penulis yakin bahwa perlahan-lahan dengan pemahaman konsep-konsep tim, hal ini tentunya akan dapat merubah paradigma kerja masing-masing organisasi dalam memandang suatu tim. Oleh karena itu perlu ada suatu kajian yang mendalam tentang peran suatu tim dengan memulai memahami terlebih dahulu bagaimakah bentuk dan peran tim dalam organisasi ? Untuk selanjutnya dipahami juga bagaimana mengembangkan tim yang efektif dalam organisasi ? Akhirnya diharapkan dapat dipahami bagaimana peran tim dalam organisasi pada era globalisasi ? Olah krena itu penulis mencoba untuk mendiskusikan masalah ini dengan topik Peran Tim Era Abad ke 21, Suatu Kajian Dampak Pemberdayaan Tim Terhadap Kinerja Tim Virtual.

Dalam makalah ini akan dipaparkan kajian teoritis yang berkaitan dengan tim serta pembahasan kasus yang penulis ambil dari jurnal penelitian tentang peran tim dalam organisasi, khususnya tentang kajian pemberdayaan Tim Terhadap Kinerja Tim Virtual dengan harapan dapat dipakai sebagai masukan dalam pengembangan tim dalam organisasi yang ada di masyarakat. Penulis yakin bahwa dengan kajian ini maka kita akan lebih memahami peran suatu tim dalam organisasi, sehingga kita akan lebih memanfaatkan lagi keunggulan-keunggulan tim dalam pengelolaan suatu organisasi.

2. Pengertian Tim dan Kelompok

2.1. Pengertian Tim.

Robbin, et al (2001:347) menyebutkan tim kerja adalah suatu kelompok di mana individu menghasilkan suatu tingkat kinerja yang lebih besar daripada jumlah masukan individu tersebut. Menurut Wood, et.al (2000:290), tim adalah kelompok kecil dari orang saling melengkapi skill, dimana mereka bekerja sama untuk mencapai tujuan mereka secara bersama-sama. Selanjutnya Wood dalam halaman yang sama menjelaskan tim bekerja dalam tiga tingkatan, yaitu:

1. Tingkatan tugas tim
2. Tingkatan kebutuhan individu, dan
3. Tingkatan pemiliharaan tim

Katzenbach dan Smith dalam Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:108) mendefinisikan sebuah tim (team) sebagai “sejumlah kecil orang dengan ketrampilan-ketrampilan yang saling melengkapi dan menganggap bahwa mereka sama-sama bertanggung jawab terhadap tujuan, sasaran kinerja, dan pendekatan bersama.

Lebih lanjut Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:109) menyatakan bahwa yang dimaksud dengan “sejumlah kecil” orang di dalam definisi mereka, adalah antara 2 dan 25 orang dan mereka menemukan bahwa tim yang efektif khususnya memiliki anggota kurang dari 10 orang. Kesimpulan ini diperkuat dengan hasil survei terhadap 400 anggota tim di tempat kerja Amerika Serikat dan Kanada, rata-rata tim terdiri dari atas 10 orang dan yang paling umum adalah 8 orang.

Dari pengertian diatas, maka tim tidak lain adalah sekelompok kecil orang yang berkerja bersama untuk mencapai tujuan, sasaran bersama, dengan menggunakan ketrampilan dan pendekatan bersama yang saling melengkapi dengan tanggung jawab ditanggung bersama. Dalam suatu tim tidak dikenal bekerja sendirian, tetapi dalam kelompok dan kelompok tersebut berusaha untuk mencapai tujuannya sesuai dengan yang diharapkan. Jadi dalam suatu tim sifat individualisnya akan hilang dengan sendirinya, karena ter dorong juga oleh semangat kesatuan untuk mencapai tujuan bersama dan sasaran bersama.

2.2. Pengertian Kelompok.

Di lingkungan kita berada, tempat kerja atau tempat lainnya seringkali terbentuk suatu kelompok, dimana tujuan pembentukan kelompok tersebut tidak lain agar orang dapat saling membagi perasaan atau melakukan kegiatan yang berhubungan dengan masalah yang dianggap penting bagi mereka.

Robbins, et al (2001:347) mengemukakan bahwa kelompok kerja adalah kelompok dasar yang berinteraksi untuk berbagi informasi dan mengambil keputusan untuk membantu tiap anggota berkinerja sesuai bidang tanggung jawab. Sementara Wood, et.al (2000:289), mendefenisikan kelompok adalah sekelompok individu yang berinteraksi dengan orang lain untuk tujuan bersama, sedangkan tim adalah bagian dari kelompok terdiri dari orang yang berfungsi sebagai bagian suatu unit. Gibson, et al (1996:402) menyebutkan bahwa kelompok adalah kumpulan individu dimana perilaku dan atau kinerja satu anggota dipengaruhi oleh perilaku atau persepsi anggota lainnya.

Dari pandangan-pandangan diatas, maka dapat disebutkan sedikitnya 4 ciri-ciri dari kelompok yaitu:

1. Termotivasi untuk bergabung
2. Menganggap kelompok sebagai suatu kesatuan unit dari orang yang berinteraksi.
3. Berkontribusi terhadap berbagai proses kelompok
4. Mencapai kesepakatan dan ketidak sepakatan melalui berbagai bentuk interaksi

2.3. Perbedaan tim kerja dan kelompok kerja.

Perbedaan tim kerja dan tim kelompok dapat ditinjau dari empat aspek, yaitu: tujuan, sinergi, akuntabilitas dan keahlian seperti tercermin pada Tabel 2.1.

Tabel. 2.1. Perbedaan Tim Kerja dan Tim Kelompok

Aspek	Kelompok Kerja	Tim Kerja
1. Tujuan.	Kebutuhan informasi	Kinerja bersama
2. Sinergi	Natural (terkadang negatif)	Positif
3. Akuntabilitas	Individual	Individu dan ketergantungan
4. Keahlian	Acak dan variasi	Pelengkap

2.4. Tipe Tim

Tim kerja diciptakan untuk berbagai maksud sehingga dengan demikian menghadapi tantangan-tantangan yang berbeda. Para manajer dapat menangani tantangan-tantangan tersebut dengan lebih efektif jika mereka memahami bagaimana tim tersebut berbeda. Sebuah cara yang bermanfaat untuk mengerti hal ini adalah dengan memperhatikan sebuah tipologi tim kerja yang dikembangkan oleh Eric Sundstrom dan rekan-rekannya. Menurut Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:109) ada Empat jenis umum dari kerja tim yaitu (1) nasihat, (2) produksi, (3) proyek, dan (4) tindakan. Masing-masing label ini mengidentifikasi sebuah *tujuan* dasar. Misalnya, tim penasihat pada umumnya membuat rekomendasi-rekomendasi bagi keputusan manajerial. Mereka kurang umum bekerja pada pembuatan keputusan akhir yang sebenarnya. Sebaliknya, tim produksi dan tim pelaksana menjalankan keputusan-keputusan manajemen.

Empat jenis umum tim kerja berhubungan dengan **spesialisasi teknis, koordinasi, siklus kerja, dan hasil**. Masing-masing dengan kombinasi sebagai berikut:

Spesialisasi teknis rendah jika tim mendasarkan pada pengalaman dan kemampuan memecahkan masalah yang bersifat umum dari para anggota. Spesialisasi tinggi jika anggota tim diminta untuk menerapkan keterampilan-keterampilan teknis yang diperoleh melalui pendidikan yang lebih tinggi dan/atau pelatihan ekstensif.

Tingkat koordinasi dengan unit-unit kerja yang lain ditentukan oleh tingkat independensi relatif tim (koordinasi rendah) atau saling ketergantungan (koordinasi tinggi).

Siklus-siklus kerja merupakan jumlah waktu yang dibutuhkan oleh tim untuk menyelesaikan misi mereka.

Lebih lanjut masing-masing jenis umum Tim Kerja dapat dijelaskan sebagai berikut:

Tim Penasihat

Seperti yang dimaksudkan oleh namanya, tim penasihat diciptakan untuk memperluas basis informasi bagi keputusan-leputusan manajerial. Lingkaran-lingkaran kualitas, merupakan contoh utama karena mereka memfasilitasi anjuran-anjuran bagi perbaikan kualitas dari sukarelawan produksi atau para pekerja jasa. Tim penasehat cenderung memiliki tingkat spesialisasi teknis yang rendah. Koordinasi juga rendah karena tim penasihat sebagian besar bekerja sendiri. Komite ad hoc (misalnya, komite piknik tahunan) memiliki siklus kehidupan lebih pendek daripada komite-komite tetap (misalnya, komite yang menangani keluhan).

Tim Produksi

Jenis tim yang kedua ini bertanggung jawab untuk menjalankan operasi-operasi harian. Pelatihan yang minimal untuk tugas-tugas rutin menjelaskan tingkat spesialisasi teknis yang rendah. Namun koordinasi khususnya tinggi karena arus kerja dari satu tim ke tim yang lain. Misalnya, pekerja pemelihara jalan kereta api membutuhkan informasi segar tentang perbaikan-perbaikan yang dibutuhkan dari pekerja kereta api.

Tim Proyek

Proyek-proyek membutuhkan pemecahan masalah yang kreatif, yang sering kali melibatkan aplikasi dari pengetahuan khusus. Sebagai contoh jumbo jet 777 baru dari Boeing yang dirancang oleh tim proyek yang terdiri atas para ahli teknik, manufaktur, pemasaran, keuangan, dan pelayanan konsumen. Program-program pembuatan model komputer memungkinkan tim dapat merakit model-model komputer tiga dimensi dari pesawat terbang yang baru. Masalah-masalah desain

dan perakitan dipecahkan di dalam pertemuan-pertemuan tim proyek sebelum para pekerja produksi mulai memotong setiap logam untuk pesawat 777 yang pertama. Tim desain Boeing 777 membutuhkan tingkat koordinasi yang tinggi di antara subunit organisasional karena mereka adalah lintas fungsional. Tim penelitian obat-obatan biokimia, sebaliknya, akan kurang berinteraksi dengan unit-unit kerja yang lain karena secara relatif tim memiliki muatan sendiri.

Tim Tindakan

Jenis tim terahir ini paling baik dicontohkan oleh sebuah tim bisbol. Spesialisasi tinggi dikombinasikan dengan koordinasi tinggi. Sembilan atlet yang sangat terlatih memainkan posisi-posisi bertahan khusus. Namun permainan bertahan yang baik tidak cukup karena pukulan yang efektif juga dibutuhkan. Lagi pula, koordinasi antara manajer dan para pemain dengan tugas masing-masing harus tepat. Contoh-contohnya antara lain pekerja kokpit pesawat terbang, tim bedah rumah sakit, ekspedisi pendaki gunung, kelompok musik rock, tim negosiasi kontrak tenaga kerja, dan tim satuan polisi. Tantangan yang unik untuk tim tindakan adalah memperhatikan kinerja puncak atas permintaan.

Empat tipologi kerja tim ini dinamis dan berubah, tidak statis, beberapa tim berkembang dari satu jenis ke jenis yang lain dan tim lain menggambarkan sebuah kombinasi dari beberapa jenis.

Sedangkan menurut Robbins, et.al (2003: 348-351) menjelaskan tim berdasarkan sasarannya, yang dibedakan menjadi 4 bentuk yaitu:

1. Tim kerja pemecah masalah: Merupakan kelompok 5 sampai 12 orang karyawan dari beberapa departemen yang bertemu selama beberapa jam tiap pekan untuk membahas perbaikan kualitas, efisiensi, dan lingkungan kerja. Dalam tim kerja pemecah masalah, anggota berbagi gagasan atau menawarkan saran mengenai bagaimana proses dan metode kerja dapat diperbaiki.
2. Tim kerja pengelolaan diri: Kelompok 10 sampai 15 orang yang memiliki tanggung jawab dari mantan penyelia mereka. Kegiatan tim ini mencakup perencanaan dan penjadualan kerja, kontrol kolektif atas langkah kerja, membuat keputusan operasi, dan mengambil tindakan atas permasalahan. Tim

- kerja yang sepenuhnya mengelola sendiri bahkan memilih anggota-anggotanya sendiri dan menyuruh anggota itu untuk saling menilai kinerja.
3. Tim lintas fungsional: Tim dengan tenaga kerja dari tingkat hierarki yang sama tetapi dari tempat pekerjaan yang berbeda. Tim lintas fungsional merupakan cara efektif yang memungkinkan orang-orang dari aneka bidang dalam suatu organisasi untuk bertukar informasi, mengembangkan gagasan baru dan memecahkan masalah, serta mengkoordinasikan proyek yang rumit.
 4. Tim virtual: Tim yang menggunakan teknologi komputer untuk mengikat secara fisik secara bersama bagi anggota untuk mencapai tujuan bersama. Tim virtual mengizinkan orang untuk bergabung secara langsung dengan menggunakan komunikasi langsung seperti jaringan kerja, video konferensi, dan email. Tim virtual dapat melakukan sesuatu seperti yang dilakukan tim lain, kebutuhan informasi, mengambil keputusan sesuatu, melengkapi tugas dan lainnya.

Berbagai jenis pendekatan yang menarik untuk tim dan kerja tim dapat ditemukan di tempat kerja saat ini. Sejumlah besar eksperimen sedang berlangsung saat organisasi berjuang agar menjadi semakin fleksibel dan responsif. Teknologi-teknologi informasi baru juga telah mendorong eksperimen dengan format-format tim.

Tiga pendekatan berbeda menurut Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:124) untuk tim yaitu: (1) lingkaran kualitas, (2) tim virtual, dan (3) tim yang dikelola sendiri (*self-managed team*).

Ketiga jenis tim ini dipilih karena tiga alasan yaitu:

- (1) Mereka memiliki nama-nama yang dapat dikenali.
- (2) Mereka memiliki paling sedikit beberapa bukti penelitian.
- (3) Mereka bertingkat dari tingkat pemberian kewenangan rendah, sedang, sampai tinggi

Lingkaran Kualitas

Lingkaran kualitas (*quality circles*) adalah sekelompok kecil orang dari wilayah pekerjaan yang sama yang secara sukarela berkumpul bersama untuk mengidentifikasi, menganalisis, dan merekomendasikan solusi bagi masalah yang

terkait dengan kualitas, produktivitas, dan penurunan biaya. Beberapa orang lebih menyukai istilah *lingkaran pengendalian kualitas*. Dengan ukuran ideal 10 sampai 12 anggota, mereka biasanya bertemu sekitar 60 sampai 90 menit secara teratur.

Tim Virtual

Definisi Tim Virtual menurut Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:127) adalah teknologi informasi memungkinkan anggota kelompok di lokasi yang berbeda untuk menjalankan usaha.

Tim virtual adalah produk jaman modern. Mereka mengambil nama dari simulasi komputer 'realitas virtual' (*virtual reality*), di mana "ini hampir seperti pada kenyataannya."

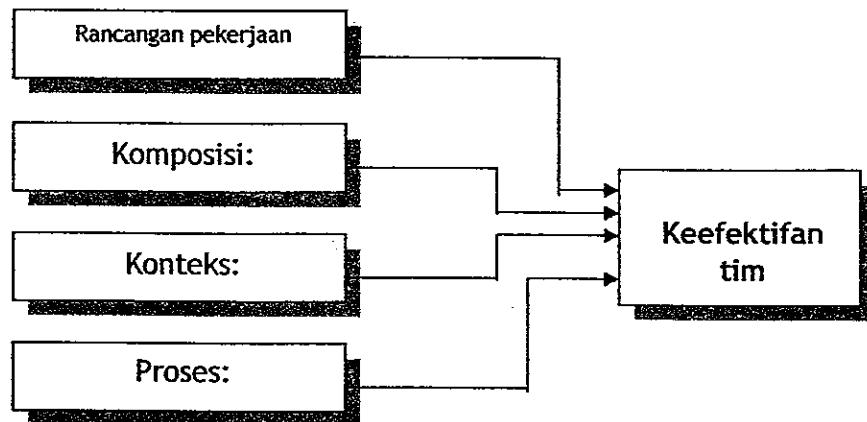
Tim yang dikelola sendiri (*self-managed team*)

Tim yang dikelola sendiri (*self-managed team*) didefinisikan sebagai kelompok-kelompok pekerja yang diberikan wawasan administratif bagi bidang-bidang tugas mereka. Wawasan administratif melibatkan kegiatan-kegiatan yang didelegasikan seperti perencanaan, penjadwalan, pemantauan, dan penetapan staf. Ini adalah tugas-tugas yang biasanya dikerjakan oleh para manajer. Singkatnya, para karyawan pada kelompok kerja yang unik ini bertindak sebagai supervisor diri mereka sendiri. Tim yang dikelola sendiri secara beragam disebut sebagai kelompok kerja semi-otonom, kelompok kerja otonom, dan super tim. Ciri umum tim yang dikelola sendiri, khususnya di antara mereka yang berada di atas tingkatan pekerja atau tingkatan juru tulis, adalah lintas fungsionalisme (*cross -functionalism*). Dengan kata lain, para spesialis dari bidang-bidang yang berbeda ditempatkan pada tim yang sama.

2.5. Membentuk Tim yang Efektif

Keefetisan tim dipengaruhi oleh : rancangan pekerjaan, komposisi, konteks, dan proses, seperti pada Gambar 2.1.

Gambar 2.1. Keefektifan Tim



Rancangan pekerjaan.

1. Otonomi tugas.
2. Macam-macam keahlian.
3. Identitas tugas
4. Kepentingan tugas

Komposisi.

1. Kemampuan anggota, perlu tiga tipe anggota yaitu:
 - Keahlian teknis
 - Ketrampilan pemecahan masalah dan pengambilan keputusan,
 - Ketrampilan penyelesaian konflik.
2. Personalitas/kepribadian dalam hal emosional, kermahan, kekonsistenan,dll.
3. Pengalokasian peran, tim yang potensial mempunyai 9 peran yang harus diisi anggotanya yaitu:
 - penghubung,
 - pencipta,
 - promosi,
 - penaksir,
 - pengorganisasi,
 - penghasil,

- pengontrol,
 - pemelihara dan penasihat.
4. Ukuran tim kerja, ukuran tim sekitar 10 sampai 12 orang.
 5. Kefleksibelan anggota, yaitu anggota yang dapat menyelesaikan tugas yang lainnya.
 6. Pilihan anggota, semua anggota adalah pemain tim.

Konteks.

1. Sumber daya yg memadai.
2. Kepemimpinan, setiap anggota tim harus sepandapat mengenai siapa melakukan apa dan memastikan bahwa semua anggota menyumbang secara dalam berbagibebeban kerja, sehingga kepemimpinan tidak selalu diperlukan.
3. Penilaian kinerja dan ganjaran, perlu ada ganjaran yang sifatnya individu dan tim.

Proses

1. Tujuan bersama.
2. Tujuan khusus/spesifik.
3. Kekuatan tim.
4. Tingkat konflik.
5. Kemalasan sosial.

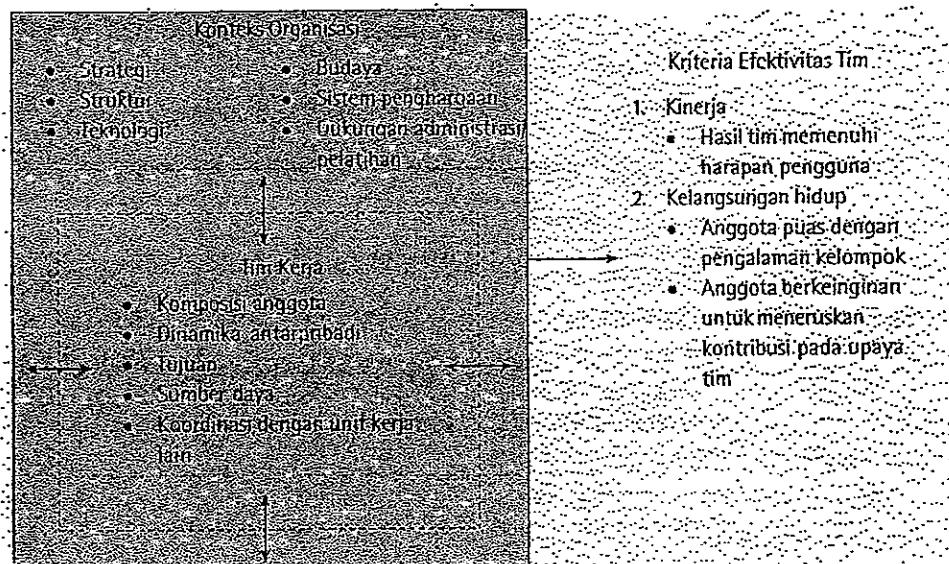
Sebagai pembanding berikut ini diberikan contoh sebuah model ekologi Efektivitas Tim Kerja.

Sebuah contoh efektivitas dari tim atletik adalah sebuah masalah yang langsung antara kalah dan menang. Namun hal-hal ini menjadi semakin rumit ketika fokus beralih kepada tim kerja pada organisasi saat ini. Menurut Sundstrom dan para koleganya: "*Kinerja* berarti keberterimaan output bagi para konsumen di dalam atau pun di luar organisasi yang menerima produk, jasa, informasi, keputusan, atau pelaksana kegiatankegiatan tim (seperti presentasi atau kompetisi). Sementara yang sedang berjalan terkait dengan pemuasan kebutuhan dan harapan

orang-orang luar seperti klien, konsumen, dan penggemar, kriteria efektivitas tim lain muncul, yaitu, kelangsungan hidup tim (*team viability*), didefinisikan sebagai kepuasan anggota tim dan berlanjutnya keinginan untuk berkontribusi. Apakah anggota tim menjadi lebih baik atau lebih buruk karena telah menyumbang pada upaya tim? Sebuah kerja tim tidak benar-benar efektif jika ia berhasil menyelesaikan pekerjaan namun merusak dirinya sendiri selama dalam proses atau menimbulkan habisnya kekuatan fisik, emosi maupun motivasi dari setiap orang.

Figur Model Ekologis dari Efektivitas Tim Kerja merupakan sebuah model ekologis karena menggambarkan tim kerja di dalam lingkungan organisasional mereka. Dalam menjaga arti kata yang sebenarnya dari *ekologi*, yaitu penelitian atas interaksi antara organisme dengan lingkungannya, model ini menekankan bahwa tim kerja membutuhkan sebuah sistem dukungan kehidupan organisasional. Enam variabel penting dalam konteks organisasional terdapat pada Figur tersebut. Tim kerja memiliki peluang yang jauh lebih besar untuk menjadi efektif jika tim diasuh dan difasilitasi oleh organisasi. Tujuan tim harus sesuai dengan strategi organisasi. Demikian juga, partisipasi dan otonomi tim membutuhkan budaya organisasional yang menghargai proses-proses tersebut. Anggota tim juga membutuhkan peralatan teknologi dan pelatihan. Kerja tim perlu diperkuat dengan sistem pemberian penghargaan organisasional. Tidak demikian halnya jika pembayaran dan bonus dikaitkan semata-mata dengan output individual. Sehubungan dengan proses-proses internal dari tim kerja, terdapat lima faktor penting yang disajikan pada Figur tersebut.

Figur Model Ekologis dari Efektivitas Tim Kerja



SUMBER: Diadaptasi sebagian dari E.Sundstrom, K.P.Dr.McClelland, "Work Teams", *American Psychologist*, Februari 1990, hal. 120-33.

Bagi suatu tim efektif menurut Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:114) terdapat karakteristik tertentu yang dapat diperluas dan bermanfaat dalam mengevaluasi tim tugas baik di sekolah maupun di dalam pekerjaan dengan 12 karakteristik menurut GM Parker yaitu:

1. Tujuan Jelas
2. Tidak formal
3. Partisipasi
4. Mendengarkan
5. Ketidaksetujuan yang beradab
6. Keputusan kesepakatan
7. Komunikasi terbuka
8. Peran dan penugasan kerja jelas
9. Berbagai kepemimpinan
10. Hubungan luar
11. Keberagaman gaya
12. Penilaian diri

Menurut Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:117) mengemukakan tentang kerja tim yang efektif dicirikan oleh 3 komponen yaitu (a) kerja sama (b) kepercayaan dan (c) kekompakan, yang masing-masing dapat dijelaskan sebagai berikut:

Kerja Sama

Individu dikatakan bekerja sama jika upaya-upaya mereka secara sistematis *terintegrasi* untuk mencapai sebuah tujuan bersama. Semakin besar integrasinya, semakin besar tingkat kerja sama

Kerja Sama versus Kompetisi

Asumsi yang secara luas dipegang di antara para manajer Amerika adalah bahwa "kompetisi mengeluarkan yang hal-hal terbaik dalam diri orang-orang." Dari sudut pandang ekonomi, kelangsungan hidup bisnis bergantung pada kemampuan untuk tetap berada di depan dalam arena kompetisi. Namun dari sudut pandang antarpribadi, banyak kritik yang menentang kompetisi, terutama karena dianggap mengorbankan kerja sama.

Hasil Penelitian tentang Kerja Sama

Berikut ini diberikan contoh hasil penelitian tentang kerja sama.

Setelah menjalankan meta-analisis dari 122 penelitian yang mencakup berbagai subjek dan latar belakang yang luas, satu tim peneliti menyimpulkan bahwa:

1. Kerja sama lebih unggul dibandingkan dengan kompetisi dalam meningkatkan prestasi dan produktivitas.
2. Kerja sama lebih unggul dibandingkan upaya-upaya individualistik dalam meningkatkan prestasi dan produktivitas.
3. Kerja sama tanpa kompetisi antar kelompok meningkatkan prestasi dan produktivitas lebih tinggi daripada kerja sama dengan kompetisi antarkelompok.

Dengan ukuran dan keberagaman dasar penelitian yang dibicarakan, penemuan-penemuan ini sangat mendorong kerja sama dalam organisasi-organisasi

modern. Kerja sama dapat didorong dengan sistem pemberian penghargaan yang memperkuat tim kerja, sejalan dengan pencapaian individu.

Penelitian lain yang melibatkan 84 peserta pelatihan pria dari Angkatan Udara AS menyimpulkan hubungan yang menggembirakan antara kerja sama dan hubungan-hubungan ras yang baik. Setelah mengamati subjek-subjek tersebut berinteraksi pada tim berisikan tiga orang dalam sebuah permainan manajemen, para peneliti menyimpulkan: "Rekan-rekan tim (yang sangat membantu), baik berkulit hitam maupun putih, menarik rasa hormat dan rasa suka lebih besar daripada rekan-rekan tim yang tidak membantu. Karena itu, masuk akal jika disimpulkan bahwa perilaku membantu dengan sukarela dapat membangun kerja sama pada tim dan juga kelompok-kelompok dengan campuran gender.

Sebuah penelitian lebih baru yang melibatkan 72 pekerja medis di Pusat Medis Masalah-masalah Veteran AS menemukan sebuah hubungan negatif antara kerja sama dengan ukuran tim. Dengan kata lain, kerja sama menurun ketika tim pekerja medis menjadi semakin besar. Oleh karena itu para manajer perlu membatasi ukuran tim kerja jika mereka ingin memudahkan kerja sama.

Kepercayaan

Definisi Kepercayaan adalah kayakinan timbal balik pada niat dan perilaku orang lain.

Akhir-akhir ini telah menjadi saat-saat yang kurang menguntungkan bagi tumbuhnya kepercayaan di dunia korporasi. Bertahun-tahun merger, pengurangan ukuran, pemecatan, penggembungan bonus para eksekutif, dan pelanggaran janji telah membuat para karyawan bersikap sinis terhadap manajemen. Setelah menjalankan serangkaian survei tahunan atas tempat kerja, seorang konsultan manajemen baru-baru ini menyimpulkan bahwa: "Kepercayaan dalam perusahaan AS berada pada sebuah titik yang rendah. Jelas, para manajer perlu mengambil tindakan yang membangun untuk mengatasi apa yang oleh majalah *Fortune* disebut "kesenjangan kepercayaan. Singkatnya, kita cenderung memberikan apa yang kita dapat: kepercayaan mendapatkan kepercayaan; ketidakpercayaan mendapatkan ketidakpercayaan.

Model kepercayaan organisasional yang lebih baru memasukan sifat kepribadian yang disebut **kecenderungan untuk percaya** (*propensity to trust*).

Definisi Kecenderungan untuk percaya adalah sebuah sifat kepribadian yang melibatkan keinginan umum seseorang untuk memercayai orang lain.

Para pengembang model tersebut menjelaskan Kecenderungan (propensity) dapat dianggap sebagai keinginan umum untuk memercayai orang-orang lain. Kecenderungan akan memengaruhi seberapa banyak kepercayaan yang dimiliki seseorang untuk orang yang dipercaya sebelum data pada pihak khusus itu tersedia. Orang-orang dengan pengalaman-pengalaman berkembang yang berbeda, jenis-jenis kepribadian berbeda, dan latar belakang budaya berbeda sangat berbeda dalam kecenderungan mereka untuk memberikan kepercayaan.

Bagaimana kecenderungan Anda untuk percaya? Bagaimana Anda akan mengembangkan sikap kepribadian itu?

Kepercayaan melibatkan loncatan "kognitif" melampaui harapan-harapan yang dijamin oleh dasar pemikiran dan pengalaman. Misalnya, anggap anggota tim proyek kelas yang baru saja dibentuk bekerja keras, didasarkan pada asumsi bahwa teman-teman timnya juga bekerja keras.

Membangun Kepercayaan

Menurut Fernando Bartolome dalam Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:121) menawarkan enam pedoman berikut untuk membangun dan menjaga kepercayaan yaitu:

1. **Komunikasi.** Menjaga agar anggota tim dan para karyawan mendapatkan informasi dengan menjelaskan kebijakan-kebijakan dan keputusan-keputusan serta memberikan umpan balik yang akurat. Berterusteranglah tentang masalah dan keterbatasan seseorang, katakan yang sebenarnya.
2. **Dukungan.** Selalu bersedia dan mau didekati. Berikan bantuan, saran, nasihat, dan dukungan untuk ide-ide anggota tim.
3. **Rasa hormat.** Delegasi, dalam bentuk kewenangan pembuatan keputusan yang sebenarnya, merupakan ekspresi terpenting dari penghormatan manajerial. Secara aktif mendengarkan ide-ide orang lain adalah ekspresi terpenting kedua, pemberian kewenangan tak mungkin tanpa kepercayaan.

4. **Keadilan.** Cepatlah dalam memberikan pujian dan pengakuan kepada mereka yang berhak mendapatkannya. Pastikan semua penilaian dan evaluasi kinerja objektif dan tidak memihak (tidak berat sebelah).
5. **Dapat diprediksi.** Seperti yang telah disebutkan sebelumnya, jadilah konsisten dan dapat diramalkan dalam masalah Anda sehari-hari. Penuhi janji-janji Anda baik yang terucap maupun yang tersirat.
6. **Kompetensi.** Tingkatkan kredibilitas Anda dengan memperlihatkan pemahaman bisnis yang baik, kemampuan teknis, dan profesionalisme. Kepercayaan harus dihasilkan; ia tak dapat diminta.

Kekompakan

Definisi : Kekompakan (*cohesiveness*) adalah sebuah proses di mana "sebuah rasa ke-kamian muncul untuk mengatasi perbedaan-perbedaan dan motif-motif individual .

Anggota-anggota dari kelompok yang kompak saling mendukung satu sama lain,mereka enggan untuk meninggalkan kelompok. Para anggota kelompok terpadu melekat bersama untuk satu atau dua alasan berikut:

- (1) karena mereka menikmati kebersamaan satu dengan yang lain atau
- (2) karena mereka membutuhkan satu sama lain untuk menyelesaikan sasaran bersama. Karena itu, dua jenis kekompakan kelompok, yang diidentifikasi oleh para sosiolog, adalah kekompakan sosio-emosional dan kekompakan instrumental.

Menurut Robert Kreitner,et.al (2005:122)Kekompakan sosio-emosional (socio-emotional cohesiveness) adalah sebuah rasa kebersamaan yang berkembang ketika individu-individu mendapatkan kepuasan emosional dari partisipasi kelompok. Sebagian besar pembicaraan umum tentang kekompakan kelompok terbatas untuk jenis ini.

Sedangkan Kekompakan instrumental adalah rasa kebersamaan yang didasarkan pada ketergantungan timbal balik yang diperlukan untuk menyelesaikan pekerjaan.

Namun demikian, dari sudut pandang menyelesaikan segala sesuatunya di dalam kelompok dan tim tugas, kami tak dapat mengabaikan kekompakan instrumental. Kekompakan instrumental (instrumental cohesiveness) merupakan sebuah rasa

kebersamaan yang berkembang ketika para anggota kelompok sama-sama bergantung satu dengan yang lain karena mereka percaya bahwa mereka tak dapat mencapai sasaran kelompok dengan bertindak secara terpisah. Perasaan "ke-kami-an" bersifat instrumental dalam mencapai sasaran bersama. Penelitian Kekompakan Kelompok meneliti apakah ada hubungannya antara kekompakan kelompok dengan kinerja? Sebuah meta-analisis dari 49 penelitian menurut Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:122-123) yang melibatkan 8.702 subjek memberikan wawasan-wawasan sebagai berikut ini:

- Terdapat sebuah dampak kekompakan → kinerja yang kecil namun secara statistik signifikan.
- Dampak kekompakan → kinerja lebih kuat bagi kelompok-kelompok yang lebih kecil dan kelompok pada dunia nyata (dibandingkan dengan kelompok-kelompok yang tersusun di dalam penelitian laboratorium).
- Dampak kekompakan → kinerja menjadi lebih kuat ketika orang bergerak dari kelompok bukan militer ke kelompok militer sampai ke tim olahraga.
- Komitmen terhadap tugas yang dihadapi (berarti individu melihat standar-standar kinerja sebagai yang suatu hal yang berlaku) memiliki dampak paling kuat atas hubungan kekompakan → kinerja.
- Hubungan kinerja → kekompakan lebih kuat daripada hubungan kekompakan → kinerja. Jadi, keberhasilan cenderung mengikat anggota-anggota kelompok atau tim bersama, lebih dari kelompok-kelompok yang terjalin erat yang menjadi lebih berhasil.
- Kebalikan dengan pandangan umum, kekompakan bukan "sebuah minyak pelincir yang memperkecil gesekan karena "kerikil" manusia di dalam sistem. Semua bukti ini telah mengarahkan para peneliti menuju pada kesimpulan: "Upaya-upaya untuk meningkatkan kinerja kelompok dengan mengembangkan daya tarik antar pribadi atau memompa kebanggaan kelompok sepertinya tidak efektif."

Meta-analisis kedua menemukan bahwa tak ada hubungan signifikan antara kekompakan dengan kualitas keputusan kelompok. Namun, dukungan ditemukan untuk anggapan bahwa pemikiran kelompok cenderung menambah kekompakan di dalam kelompok dengan kepemimpinan yang kuat. Kelompok yang para anggotanya saling menyukai dengan amat sangat cenderung menghasilkan keputusan-keputusan dengan kualitas yang lebih buruk.

2.6. Kegagalan Tim Kerja.

Para pendukung pendekatan tim bagi manajemen melukiskan gambaran yang cerah dan sangat optimistis. Namun tetap terdapat sisi gelap bagi tim. Sementara statistik yang pasti tidak tersedia, tim kerja dapat dan sering kali gagal. Setiap orang yang berusaha menerapkan struktur tim di dalam lingkungan kerja membutuhkan sudut pandang yang seimbang atas keuntungan dan keterbatasan tim kerja. Ancaman utama yang terjadi bagi efektivitas tim adalah harapan-harapan tidak realitstis yang dapat menyebabkan frustasi yang pada gilirannya mendorong orang-orang untuk mengabaikan tim. Akhirnya baik manajer maupun anggota-anggota tim dapat menjadi korban karena harapan-harapan yang tidak realitstis.

Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:116) menyebutkan Kegagalan Tim dapat terjadi karena:

1. Kesalahan yang umumnya dibuat oleh manajemen antara lain:
 - a. Tim tak dapat mengatasi strategi-strategi yang lemah dan praktik-praktik bisnis yang buruk
 - b. Lingkungan yang tidak bersahabat bagi tim (budaya 'perintah dan kendalikan', program penghargaan individual/kompetitif; penolakan manajemen).
 - c. Tim digunakan hanya sebagai mode sesaat, penyelesaian cepat; tak ada komitmen jangka panjang.
 - d. Hal-hal yang dipelajari satu tim tidak ditransfer ke tim lain (eksperimen yang terbatas dengan tim).
 - e. Penugasan tim saling bertentangan atau tidak jelas.
 - f. Pelatihan keterampilan tim yang tidak cukup.
 - g. Pemilihan staf tim yang buruk
 - h. Kurangnya kepercayaan
2. Masalah yang umumnya dialami anggota tim
 - a. Tim mencoba melakukan terlalu banyak hal dengan terlalu cepat.
 - b. Konflik atas perbedaan gaya-gaya kerja pribadi (dan/atau konflik-konflik kepribadian).
 - c. Terlalu banyak menekankan pada hasil, tidak cukup pada proses tim dan dinamika kelompok.
 - d. Hambatan yang tidak diantisipasi yang menyebabkan tim menyerah.
 - e. Penolakan untuk mengerjakan hal-hal secara berbeda.

- f. Keterampilan-keterampilan antar pribadi yang buruk (komunikasi yang agresif dan bukannya asertif, konflik yang merusak, negosiasi menang-kalah).
- g. Hubungan antar pribadi yang buruk (penyendiri, pendominasi, menunjuk diri sendiri).
- h. Kurangnya kepercayaan.

2.7. Membentuk Pemain Tim

Upaya untuk merubah individu menjadi pemain tim dapat dilakukan beberapa langkah sebagai berikut, yaitu:

1. Seleksi: anggota tim yang dipekerjakan harus memiliki ketrampilan teknis untuk mengisi pekerjaan dan dapat memenuhi syarat peran dalam tim.
2. Pelatihan.
3. Meberikan Ganjaran: Sistem ganjaran perlu diperbaiki untuk mendorong upaya kooperatif. Promosi, kenaikan upah, dan bentuk-bentuk pengkuan lain hendaknya diberikan kepada individu untuk keefektifan mereka sebagai seorang anggota tim yang kolaboratif. Contoh perilaku yang mendapat ganjaran antara lain: melatih rekan baru, berbagi informasi dengan teman satu tim, membantu memecahkan konflik tim, dan menguasai ketrampilan baru yang diperlukan tim.

2.8. Tim dan Keanekaragaman Angkatan Kerja

Hasil-hasil studi menunjukkan bahwa anggota tim kohesif mempunyai kepuasan yang lebih besar, kemangkiran yang rendah dan pengurangan anggota kelompok yang rendah.(Stogdill, 1992). Tim yang beraneka ragam mempunyai tingkat kohesif yang rendah dan merupakan salah satu kekurangan tim dengan kenaneka ragaman. Namun demikian tim dengan keanekaragaman angkatan kerja mempunyai beberapa kelebihan (McGrath, 1984), beberapa keuntungan dan kerugian diversitas menurut Mc. Grath adalah sebagai berikut:

Tabel. 2.2. Keuntungan dan Kerugian tim Diversitas

No.	Keuntungan	Kerugian
1	Perspektif yang beraneka ragam	Ambigu
2	Terbuka secara lebar untuk ide baru	Kompleksitas
3	Interpretasi beraneka ragam	Kekacauan
4	Meningkatkan kreativitas.	Salah paham.
5	Meningkatkan fleksibilitas.	Sulit menemukan kesepakatan tunggal.
6	Meningkatkan keahlian memecahkan masalah.	Sulit menyetujui tindakan khusus.

2.9. Tim Virtual dalam Era Globalisasi

Berkembangnya lingkungan bisnis yang tidak memandang lintas batas antar negara sehingga menyebabkan kemajuan teknologi dan informasi. Apalagi sekarang ini dengan adanya globalisasi perdagangan menyebabkan persaingan semakin kompetitif. Perkembangan pola perdagangan ini menyebabkan orang berfikir globalisasi dan tentunya hal ini diikuti perkembangan teknologi informasi yang tanpa batas sehingga akhirnya organisasipun berubah menjadi organisasi tanpa batas (*boundaryless organization*), organisasi virtual (*virtual organization*, dan mengembangkan lingkungan kerja virtual (*virtual workplace*) yang menggunakan teknologi komunikasi dan informasi sebagai sarana interaksi. Organisasi virtual dan tanpa batas tidak terikat oleh tempat, dan karyawan yang ada dalam organisasi virtual memiliki mobilitas dan flexibilitas yang tinggi dalam melakukan pekerjaan mereka.

Tim kerja virtual (*virtual teamwork*) adalah sekelompok orang atau group yang berasal dari tempat dan lingkungan organisasi yang terpisah yang bekerja secara sinergis dalam suatu kelompok dengan menggunakan kemajuan teknologi untuk mencapai tujuan bersama (Cascio, 2000) dalam Hidayah (2001). Anggota tim menggunakan teknologi komunikasi seperti *e-mail*, *chat room*, *teleconference*, mesin fac ataupun tatap muka langsung dalam melakukan

komunikasinya. Menurut Stough, Eom & Buckenmyer (2000) tim kerja virtual adalah sekelompok orang yang berkolaborasi secara dekat walaupun mereka terpisah jarak, waktu, maupun batasan organizational, dan menggunakan teknologi komunikasi dan informasi dalam interaksinya. Definisi dari sebuah tim virtual (*virtual team*) menurut Robert Kreitner, et.al (2005:127) adalah sebuah kelompok tugas yang tersebar secara fisik yang menjalankan usahanya melalui teknologi informasi modern. Para pendukungnya mengatakan bahwa tim virtual sangat fleksibel dan efisien karena didorong oleh informasi dan keterampilan, bukan menurut waktu dan lokasi. Orang-orang dengan informasi dan/atau keterampilan yang dibutuhkan dapat menjadi anggota tim tanpa memerhatikan di mana atau kapan mereka benar-benar mengerjakan pekerjaan mereka. Dari sisi negatif, kurangnya interaksi tatap muka dapat memperlemah kepercayaan, komunikasi, dan akuntabilitas.

Beberapa hal yang dipelajari sejauh ini dari penelitian-penelitian terakhir dari kelompok-kelompok yang dihubungkan oleh computer menunjukkan (Robert Kreitner, et.al 2005:127) :

- Kelompok virtual yang terbentuk lewat Internet mengikuti sebuah proses pengembangan kelompok yang sama dengan kelompok tatap muka.
- Ruang bincang (chart rooms) di Internet menciptakan lebih banyak pekerjaan dan menghasilkan keputusan-keputusan lebih buruk daripada pertemuan tatap wajah dan konferensi telepon.
- Keberhasilan penggunaan groupware (perangkat lunak yang memfasilitasi interaksi di antara anggota-anggota kelompok virtual) membutuhkan pelatihan dan pengalaman.
- Kepemimpinan inspirasional memiliki dampak positif pada kreativitas dalam kelompok sumbang saran elektronik.

Tim kerja virtual memiliki karakteristik sebagai berikut:

1. Menembus batas (*transcendency*)

Artinya tim kerja virtual dapat menembus batas ruang dan waktu maupun batas organisasional dengan menggunakan kemajuan

teknologi. Dalam hal ini tidak dikenal adanya batas-batas negara, karena tim virtual bekerja dalam wilayah dunia maya yang tidak dikenal adanya batas tertentu. Tim virtual dapat bekerja kapan saja dalam batas-batas wilayah yang tidak terkendali. Hubungan antara anggota tim hanya dikendalikan oleh software komputer, sehingga secara fisik tidak dapat diketahui persis batas-batasnya. Setiap anggota tim dapat berkomunikasi dengan bebas tanda ada gangguan komunikasi secara fisik kecuali gangguan software atau peralatan yang bukan merupakan intervensi pihak lain secara nyata.

2. *Tak terbatas (infinity)*

Jumlah tim kerja dapat tidak terbatas jumlahnya dengan menggunakan jaringan yang sudah tersambung keseluruhan penjuru dunia dengan keahlian dan kemampuan yang dibutuhkan. Jumlah anggota dapat berkembang terus tanpa adanya batasan, sesuai dengan kebutuhan dari masing-masing tim tersebut. Bilamana tim dirasakan bermanfaat, maka akan dapat berkembang terus tanpa dapat dibatasi jumlahnya.

3. *Anonymity*

Dalam membentuk tim kerja virtual, anggota tim dapat tidak diketahui satu sama lain karena jarang sekali dilakukan tatap muka langsung dalam komunikasinya, sehingga akan dapat menghilangkan kemungkinan terjadinya konflik antar pribadi yang bersifat personal. Tim virtual tidak mengenal secara fisik satu dengan yang lain, antar anggota tidak bertatap muka, sehingga secara fisik mereka juga tidak saling mengenal. Mereka hanya saling berkomunikasi melalui media komputer, melalui dunia maya. Tak seorangpun yang mengenal secara pasti antar anggotanya, pertemuan hampir tidak pernah dilakukan namun mereka dapat berkomunikasi secara intensif untuk saling menyampaikan maksud dan tujuan serta sasaran yang hendak dicapainya. Komunikasi semacam ini berbeda sekali dengan tim pada umumnya yang secara fisik harus dilakukan face-to-face, sehingga sering terjadi konflik antar anggota.

3. Pembahasan kasus dampak pemberdayaan tim terhadap kinerja tim virtual

Pada bagian ini akan dibahas mengenai topik yang berkaitan dengan tim dan penulis membahas hasil penelitian mengenai Dampak Tim Empowerment Terhadap Prestasi Tim Virtual

SASARAN PENELITIAN:

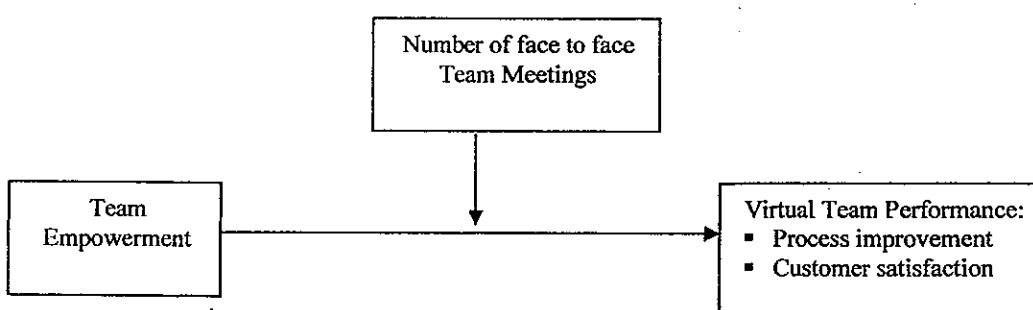
Menginvestigasi hubungan antara tim empowerment dan prestasi tim virtual serta peran antara terhadap tingkat interaksi face to face..

LATAR BELAKANG:

Townsend et al., (1988) menjelaskan bahwa team empowerment adalah sebagai prediktor kritis dari prestasi tim virtual, seperti digambarkan pada Gambar 1.

1. Team Empowerment: didefinisikan sebagai peningkatan dalam memotivasi tugas adalah dalam kaitan dengan anggota tim kolektif, penilaian positif tentang tugas organisasi mereka (kirkman & Rosen, 2000). Team empowerment memiliki empat dimensi, yaitu potency (potensi), meaningfulness (penuh pengertian), autonomiy (otonomi), dan impact (dampak).

Gambar 1. Model Kontigensi Terhadap Prestasi Tim Virtual



Team Empowerment dan Prestasi Virtual Team

Tim kerja virtual (*virtual teamwork*) adalah sekelompok orang atau group yang berasal dari tempat dan lingkungan organisasi yang terpisah yang bekerja secara sinergis dalam suatu kelompok dengan menggunakan kemajuan teknologi untuk mencapai tujuan bersama (Cascio, 2000) dalam Hidayah (2001). Anggota tim menggunakan teknologi komunikasi seperti *e-mail*, *chat room*, *teleconference*, ataupun tatap muka langsung dalam melakukan komunikasinya. Menurut Stough, Eom & Buckenmyer (2000) tim kerja virtual adalah sekelompok orang yang berkolaborasi secara dekat walaupun mereka terpisah jarak, waktu, maupun batasan organizational, dan menggunakan teknologi komunikasi dan informasi dalam interaksinya. Tim kerja virtual memiliki karakteristik sebagai berikut, (1). Menembus batas (*transcendency*), (2) Tak terbatas (*infinity*), dan (3) *Anonymity*.

Ada dua variable sebagai indikator prestasi Tim Virtual, yaitu *process improvement* dan *Customer satisfaction*. **Process improvement**, kebanyakan tim virtual adalah tim berdasarkan pengalaman yang memecahkan masalah konsumen atau mengembangkan produk baru, satu dari pencapaian hasil prestasi penting adalah *process improvement* (Edmondson, bohmer, & Pisano, 2001) mencontohkan prilaku-prilaku dalam *proses improvement* seperti pencarian umpan balik, mendiskusikan kesalahan, dan mengadakan percobaan. **Customer satisfaction**, ketika tim virtual terjadi perubahan lingkungan per departemen atau organisasi-organisasi, kepuasan merupakan kunci internal dan ekternal konsumen adalah merupakan sukses tertinggi dari tim virtual.



HIPOTESIS:

- 1) Team empowerment berkorelasi positif terhadap virtual team process improvement.
- 2) Team empowerment berkorelasi positif terhadap virtual team customer satisfaction.
- 3) Sekelompok team face to face akan moderat keterkaitan antara Team empowerment dan process improvement.
- 4) Sekelompok team face to face akan moderat keterkaitan antara Team empowerment dan customer satisfaction.

METODE:

Sample:

Sebanyak 280 dari 333 anggota team yang disurvei tergabung dalam 35 team. Terdiri dari 69% responden wanita. 4% umur kurang dari 25 tahun, 17% umur 26-35 tahun, 45% umur 36-45 tahun, 28% umur 46-55 tahun, dan 6% umur diatas 55 tahun. Dari kelompok tersebut 5% Afrika_Amerika, 4% Asia-Amerika, 1% Pacific Islanders, 12% Hispanic-Amerika, dan 78% Caucasian (kulit putih). 10,5% responden *high school degrees*, 12% *associate's degrees*, 3,5% *technical degrees*, 32% *college beyond an associate's degree* dan 3,5% *graduate degrees*.

Pengukuran:

Team empowerment:

Menggunakan pendekatan Kirkman dan Rosen's (1999) dengan menggunakan 12 item pengukuran atau pertanyaan dan 3 dimensi empowerment, seperti berikut:

Pilihan responden dengan menggunakan skala dari 1 hingga 7 (nilai mulai sangat tidak setuju sampai sangat setuju. Ke duabelas pernyataan tersebut adalah sebagai berikut:

1. My team has confidence in itself. (potency)
2. My team can get a lot done when it works hard. (potency)
3. My team believes that it can be very productive. (potency)

4. My team believes that its projects are significant. (meaningfulness)
5. My team feels that its tasks are worthwhile. (meaningfulness)
6. My team feels that its work is meaningful. (meaningfulness)
7. My team can select different ways to do the team's work. (autonomy)
8. My team determines as a team how things are done in the team. (autonomy) 9.
My team makes its own choices without being told by management.
(autonomy)
10. My team has a positive impact on this company's customers. (impact)
11. My team performs tasks that matter to this company. (impact)
12. My team makes a difference in this organization. (impact)

Process improvement

Partisipasi organisasi menggunakan "balanced scorecard". Penilaian process improvement berdasarkan pengurangan dalam perputaran waktu masing-masing tim berdasarkan jumlah hari antara suatu pesanan untuk suatu sistem reservasi perjalanan dan waktu operasi yang efektif dari suatu sistem. Manajemen menghitung persentase process improvement dengan membagi jumlah hari pencapaian terhadap jumlah hari nyata penyelesaian dikali 100. Range skor antara 112% hingga 20%.

Team customer satisfaction

Pengukuran Team customer satisfaction juga menggunakan "balance scorecard". Pertanyaan tentang customer service dan support dengan skala 1 hingga 5 (dari paling tidak menyenangkan hingga paling menyenangkan)

Number of face to face meetings.

Untuk menilai tingkat interaksi tatap muka tim (face to face meetings), kita mengukur jumlah pertemuan-pertemuan dengan pertanyaan tunggal atas anggota tim survei: " Berapa kali tim melakukan tatap muka pada tahun lalu ?" Masing-Masing tanggapan anggota tim dikumpulkan untuk mengukur level tim.

Jumlah pertemuan tim di dalam sample bergerak antara 1 hingga 12 kali per tahun, dengan rata-rata 4,67 pertemuan saban tahun.

HASIL:

Hipotesis 1 dan 2 diuji dengan analisis regresi hirarkis. Tabel 2 menunjukan hasil dari test ini. Langkah 1, kita masuk variabel kontrol, dan langkah 2, team empowerment. Sebagaimana kita lihat di bagian dari tabel 2 hasil signifikan dalam langkah 2, tim empowerment dengan hasil signifikan, berkorelasi secara positif dengan proses improvement (β 0,44, $p < .01$) dan customer satisfaction (β 0,48, $p < .01$), suatu hasil temuan mendukung Hipotesis 1 dan 2.

Tabel 2. Hasil Analisis Regresi Hirarki

Variabel	95% Confidence Interval	
	Process Improvement	Customer Satisfaction
Step 1		
Team size	-0,08	-0,05
Task Interdependence	-0,22	-0,12
F	0,73	0,21
R ²	0,04	0,01
Step 2		
Team empowerment	0,44 **	0,48 **
F	3,10	3,14 *
R ²	0,23	0,23
Δ R ²	0,19 **	0,22 **

* $p < 0,05$

** $p < 0,01$

Untuk menguji Hipotesis 3 dan 4, kita menggunakan analisis regresi moderated. Langkah 1, kita masuk semua variabel kontrol sebagai "efek utama" dan kedua variabel tim empowerment dan jumlah pertemuan tim face-to-face. Langkah 2, kita masuk terminologi interaksi untuk kedua-duanya tim empowerment dan jumlah pertemuan face-to face, dan tim empowerment dan task interdependence, seperti pada Tabel 3.

Seperti dapat dilihat di langkah 2 hasil di (dalam) Tabel 3, efek interaksi untuk team empowerment dan pertemuan face to-face adalah signifikan terhadap proses improvement ($\beta = -11.47$, $p < .01$), mendukung Hipotesis 3, tetapi tidak signifikan customer service ($\beta = 0.45$, n.s.), tidak mendukung Hipotesis 4. Dampak Interaksi terhadap task interdependence sebagai variabel kendali adalah tidak signifikan terhadap proses improvement atau customer satisfaction, seperti ditunjukkan dalam Gambar 2., hubungan antara process improvement terhadap team empowerment.

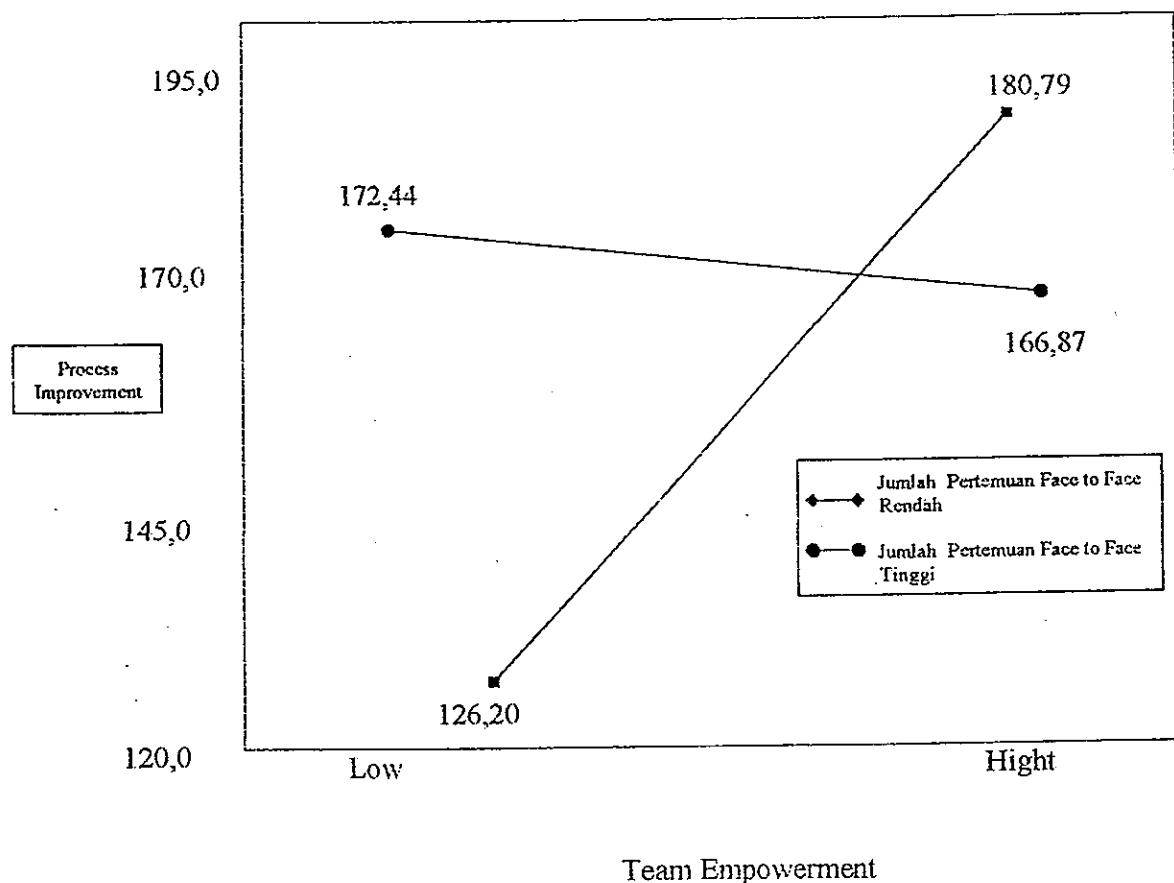
Tabel 3. Hasil Analisis Regresi Moderat

Variabel	95% Confidence Interval	
	Process Improvement	Customer Satisfaction
Step 1		
Team size	-0,07	-0,05
Task Interdependence	-0,27	-0,25**
Team empowerment	0,40	0,53*
Number of face to face meeeting	0,14	-0,22*
F	2,82*	2,90*
R ²	0,25	0,28
Step 2		
Team empowerment X interdependence	0,44	-1,62
Team empowerment X Number of face to face meeeting	-0,47**	6,61
F	3,30*	2,37
R ²	0,41	0,34
Δ R ²	0,16*	0,06

* $p < 0,05$ ** $p < 0,01$

Seperti yang ditunjukkan Gambar 2. bahwa team empowerment adalah signifikan yang menunjukkan hubungan positif terhadap process improvement suatu team yang “jarang” melakukan pertemuan face to face (maksudnya, team yang lebih tinggi virtualitasnya) dan tidak berkaitan terhadap process improvement untuk team yang sering melakukan pertemuan (artinya virtualitas lebih rendah).

Gambar 2. Efek Moderat Terhadap Jumlah Pertemuan Face to face dalam Kaitan Antara Team Empowerment dan Process Improvement



Secara teoritis dan implikasi manajemen atas empowerment (pemberdayaan) dan kinerja tim virtual ternyata ditemukan bahwa untuk memperdaya tim yang terpusat (colocated) peneliti merekomendasikan bahwa ketua tim memberi semangat kepada tim untuk memecahkan problem/masalahnya dan membuat harapan yang tinggi.(Kirkman & Rosen,1999). Mengingat sifat dari penyebaran tim virtual, ketua tim mungkin akan menggunakan waktu untuk membimbing anggota tim secara individual of line (tanpa tatap muka/face-to-face) dan bekerja dengan rajin untuk menjamin bahwa semua anggota tim merasa terlibat secara penuh tentang pentingnya masalah organisasi dan apapun juga (Kayworth & Leidner,2001;Kirkman et al.2002). Memberi semangat tim untuk memecahkan masalah dan membuat harapan yang tinggi akan memberikan dampak yang rendah/kecil pada tim virtual jika anggota tim tidak secara nyata terlihat bagaimana usaha mereka mempunyai kontribusi kepada tim dan kinerja organisasi, dengan lebih bermasalah/sulit untuk anggota yang menyebar daripada yang terkonsentrasi.

Tujuan kami yang kedua untuk menguji apakah jumlah pertemuan (face-to face) tim memoderasi hubungan antara pemberdayaan tim (team empowerment) dan kinerja team (team performance). Kami yakin bahwa pemberdayaan tim akan lebih penting bagi tim dengan berkurangnya pertemuan daripada lebih sering. Untuk mendukung perkiraan kami, kami melaksanakan secara independen seperti menaksir dengan jumlah pertemuan tatap muka tim (face-to face) momoderasi hubungan antara pemberdayaan tim dan satu dimensi dari proses peningkatan kinerja tim virtual.. Diantara tim yang jarang bertemu secara tatap muka/face-to face (sangat tinggi pada tim virtual), memperlihatkan bahwa pengalaman pemberdayaan tim sangat kritis untuk pembelajaran yang terjadi dalam tim. Seperti pada gambar 2 merupakan suatu kontras yang dramatis, antara tingkatan proses peningkatan kemampuan dengan tingginya pemberdayaan tim dimana jarang berjumpa/ face-to face ($X=180,79$) dan proses peningkatan kinerja dengan berkurangnya pemberdayaan tim dimana jarang bejumpana/face-toface ($X=126,20$)

4. Kesimpulan

Dari pembahasan pada bagian-bagian sebelumnya yang didukung oleh salah satu jurnal penelitian, maka kami dapat menyimpulkan beberapa hal sebagai berikut:

1. Dalam era globalisasi ternyata bentuk tim berkembang ke arah pemanfaatan teknologi informasi, dimana orang-orang mulai mengurangi pertemuan face to face tetapi lebih banyak menggunakan teknologi informasi seperti e-mail, teleconference dan sebagainya dan bentuk tim tersebut dikenal sebagai Tim Virtual. Peranan tim ini sangat tinggi dalam organisasi, terlihat bahwa tujuan organisasi akan tercapai dengan baik bilamana dikerjakan oleh tim, dan tim virtual merupakan pilihan yang baik dalam organisasi di era globalisasi.
2. Semakin mengglobal suatu organisasi maka dalam mengembangkan tim sudah tidak cocok lagi bilamana kita menggunakan pendekatan lama, tetapi harus berubah dengan tuntutan perubahan lingkungan. Untuk itu tim yang efektif harus dikembangkan menjadi **Tim Virtual** karena amat sulit orang melakukan face to face dengan adanya perubahan lingkungan kerja.
3. Peran tim dalam organisasi pada era globalisasi terutama tim virtual sangat berguna dalam penyelesaian tugas dalam suatu organisasi bisnis. Hal ini dikarenakan keunggulan **tim virtual** dibandingkan dengan **tim bukan virtual** adalah bahwa tim virtual memiliki tiga sifat yaitu: (1). Menembus batas (*transcendency*), (2) Tak terbatas (*infinity*), dan (3) *Anonymity*.

REFERENSI

- Greenberg, Jerald dan Baron, Robert A. 2000. *Behavior in Organizational*. New Jersey. Prentice Hall.
- Gibson, James L; Ivancevich, John M; Donnelly,Jr, James H. 1996. Organisasi: Prilaku, Struktur, dan Proses – edisi ke delapan Jilid 1, Binarupa Aksara.
- Hidayah, Nuri Lesmono. 2001. Virtual Team: Tim Kerja dalam Era Teknologi, *Majalah Usahawan Indonesia*, Lembaga Manajemen FE UI, Jakarta.
- Kirkman, B.L., Rosen, B and Gibson; C.B.2004. The Impact of Team Empowerment on Virtual Team Performance: The Moderating Role of Face to Face Interaction *Academy of Management Journal*, vol. 47, No.2: 175-192.
- Ivancevich, John. M dan Matteson, Michael T.1999. *Organizational Behavior And Management*. Singapore. Mc.Graw-Hill.
- Luthan, Fred. 1989. *Organization Behavior*, fifth edition, Mc. Graw-hill International edition.
- McGrath, J.E. 1984. *Groups: Interaction and performance*. NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Robert Kreitner & Angelo Kinicki. 2005. Perilaku Organisasi, Edisi 5, Salemba Empat, Jakarta.
- Robbins, S.P. 2003. *Perilaku Organisasi*.. Jakarta: PT. Indeks Kelompok Gramedia.
- Senge, Peter. M. 1990. *The Fifth Discipline The Art and Practice of the Learning Organization*. New York. NY:Doubleday.
- Stogdill, R. M. 1992. *Group productivity, drive, and cohesiveness*. Journal Organizational behavior. John Willey and sons, Ltd.
- Wood, Jack; Wallace, Joseph; Zeffane, Rachid M. 2001.Organisational Behaviour, Second efition,John Wiley & Sons, Inc, USA.
- Yukl, Gary A. 1998. *Leadership in Organization*. New Jersey. Prentice Hall.

====08/01/06=====

LAMPIRAN JURNAL

THE IMPACT OF TEAM EMPOWERMENT ON VIRTUAL TEAM PERFORMANCE: THE MODERATING ROLE OF FACE-TO-FACE INTERACTION

BRADLEY L. KIRKMAN
Georgia Institute of Technology

BENSON ROSEN
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill

PAUL E. TESLUK
University of Maryland

CRISTINA B. GIBSON
University of California, Irvine



We investigated the relationship between team empowerment and virtual team performance and the moderating role of the extent of face-to-face interaction using 35 sales and service virtual teams in a high-technology organization. Team empowerment was positively related to two independent assessments of virtual team performance—process improvement and customer satisfaction. Further, the number of face-to-face meetings moderated the relationship between team empowerment and process improvement: team empowerment was a stronger predictor for teams that met face-to-face less, rather than more, frequently.

Advances in communication and information technology have created new opportunities for organizations to build and manage virtual teams. Virtual teams are defined as groups of employees with unique skills, situated in distant locations, whose members must collaborate using technology across space and time to accomplish important organizational tasks (Lipnack & Stamps, 2000). While virtual teams play an important role in industry worldwide, most of the knowledge about them derives from practitioner articles (Cascio, 2000; Coutu, 1998; Kirkman, Rosen, Gibson, Tesluk, & McPherson, 2002; Townsend, DeMarie, & Hendrickson, 1998), popular books (Duarte & Snyder, 2001; Haywood, 1998; Lipnack & Stamps, 2000), case studies (Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000), and theoretical work (Armstrong & Cole, 1995; Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Furst, Blackburn, & Rosen, 2001; Griffith & Neale, 2001; Griffith, Sawyer, & Neale, 2003). There are recent exceptions (see Gibson and Cohen's [2003] edited volume), including several empirical investigations (Jarvenpaa, Knoll, & Leidner, 1998; Jarvenpaa & Leidner, 1999; Montoya-Weiss, Massey, & Song, 2001; Warkentin, Sayeed, & Hightower, 1997). The latter studies, however, used students performing artificial tasks with unrealistic time limits. To understand what is required for virtual teams to be successful, studies

examining ongoing virtual work teams performing meaningful, complex tasks in business organizations are now needed.

Previous research has shown that various team types (for instance, project, management, parallel, and work) have different performance drivers (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). For example, while autonomy has been linked to performance in permanent work teams, this is not the case for project teams (Cohen & Bailey, 1997). Accordingly, it would be unwise to assume that factors influencing colocated (that is, face-to-face) team effectiveness are valid for virtual teams (Potter & Balthazard, 2002). Previous research has demonstrated a positive relationship between team empowerment and colocated team performance (Burpitt & Bigoness, 1997; Hyatt & Ruddy, 1997; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Wellins, Byham, & Wilson, 1991). To date, however, little attention has been paid to virtual team empowerment. Thus, our first objective was to determine whether or not team empowerment is related to virtual team performance. Our second objective was to examine the possible moderating effect of the extent of face-to-face interaction on the team empowerment-team performance relationship. In practice, virtual teams vary on amount of face-to-face interaction, which can range from no physical interaction to monthly face-to-face team meetings

(Lipnack & Stamps, 2000; Townsend et al., 1998). Thus, we add to the emerging theoretical and empirical research on virtual teams by including the extent of face-to-face interaction, which we believe is an important contingency variable for virtual team performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESES

Both the existing literature on colocated teams and the emerging theoretical work on virtual teams contain many potential predictors of virtual team performance. In view of our own observations and others' reports on the typical tasks virtual teams perform (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; King & Majchrzak, 2003; Raven, 2003), we focus on team empowerment as a key emergent state important to virtual team performance (cf. Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). Although not all virtual teams perform highly complex tasks, most are knowledge-based teams charged with developing new products, improving organizational processes, or satisfying complex customer problems (Duarte & Snyder, 2001; Lipnack & Stamps, 2000; Townsend et al., 1998). For example, Eastman Kodak's virtual teams design new products (Lipnack & Stamps, 1999); Hewlett Packard's virtual teams solve clients' computing problems (Geber, 1995); and Sun Microsystems' virtual teams generate new business models (Lipnack & Stamps, 2000).

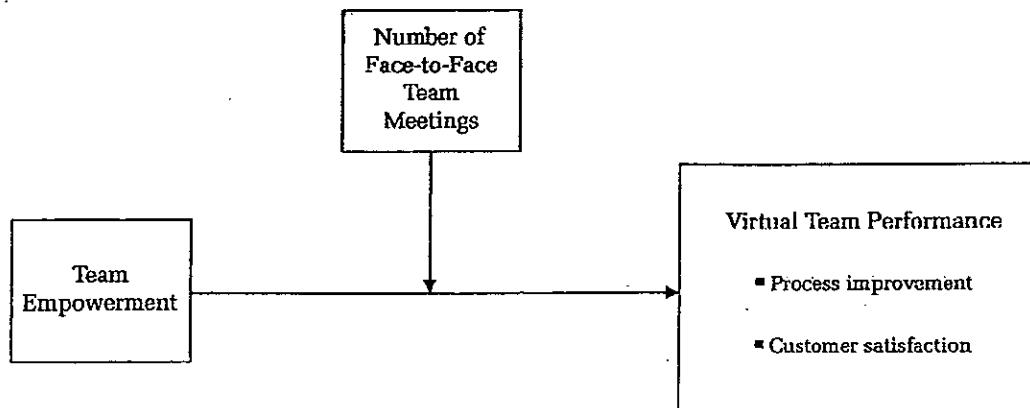
Organizations increasingly face high levels of dynamic, complex change and environmental uncertainty (Champy & Nohria, 1997). Because virtual teams can rapidly respond to business globalization challenges (Kayworth & Leidner, 2001; Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000; Montoya-Weiss et al., 2001), their use is expanding exponentially (Kirkman et al., 2002). Dispersed members' proximity to

customers, markets, and resources in their local contexts enhances innovation ability (Gluesing et al., 2003; Maznevski & Athanassiou, 2003). Members can be inserted in and removed from teams quickly when customer needs or environmental demands change (Townsend et al., 1998). For these and other reasons explained below, we believe that team empowerment is a critical predictor of virtual team performance. However, the strength of the relationship between team empowerment and virtual team performance may depend on the degree to which team members experience face-to-face interaction—that is, on how virtual the teams really are. Figure 1 depicts our contingency model of virtual team performance.

Team Empowerment Defined

To date, empowerment has been conceptualized and empirically examined primarily at the individual level of analysis (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Ford & Fottler, 1995; Koberg, Boss, Senjem, & Goodman, 1999; Liden, Wayne, & Sparrowe, 2000; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996; Spreitzer, Kizilos, & Nason, 1997; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). A growing body of recent theoretical and empirical research also supports the positive effects of empowerment for colocated work teams (Burpitt & Bigoness, 1997; Hyatt & Ruddy, 1997; Kirkman & Rosen, 1997, 1999; Wellins et al., 1991). Team empowerment is defined as increased task motivation that is due to team members' collective, positive assessments of their organizational tasks (Kirkman & Rosen, 2000). Teams experience empowerment on four dimensions: *potency*, the collective belief of a team that it can be effective; *meaningfulness*, the extent to which team members feel an intrinsic caring for their tasks; *autonomy*, the degree to which team members be-

FIGURE 1
A Contingency Model of Virtual Team Performance



lieve that they have freedom to make decisions; and *impact*, the extent to which team members feel that their tasks make significant organizational contributions (Kirkman & Rosen, 1997). The four dimensions combine additively to create an overall construct of team empowerment. Thus, even though a team may have little autonomy, members can still experience team empowerment to the extent that they feel a collective sense of potency, a high level of meaningfulness in the work, and a sense that the team's work has impact on stakeholders (cf. Spreitzer, 1995).

Team empowerment falls into the category of an *emergent state*, or a construct that characterizes "properties of the team that are typically dynamic in nature and vary as a function of team context, inputs, processes, and outcomes" (Marks et al., 2001: 357). Emergent states describe cognitive, motivational, and affective states of teams. Within the emergent state framework, team empowerment is a dynamic *motivational* construct. Whether members of a team feel empowered or not depends on their assessments of job and organizational characteristics. The degree to which team leaders allow them to make decisions is one such characteristic; whether or not the team has access to important resources is another (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). Unlike empowerment at the individual level, which consists of a set of individual cognitions (Spreitzer, 1995), team empowerment emerges from collective cognition—that is, it is socially constructed (Gibson, 2001)—and represents members' assessments of their tasks and the conditions under which their team works. Thus, the referent is the team rather than the individual (see Chan's [1998: 238–239] description of referent-shift consensus models). Team empowerment should not be confused with team processes such as communication or conflict, which involve the interdependent actions team members take to convert inputs to outcomes to achieve team goals (Marks et al., 2001). In contrast, team empowerment is a reflection of a team's motivation level at a given point in time.

Although the four-dimension conceptualization of both individual and team empowerment is relatively new (Kirkman & Rosen, 1997; 1999; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990), each dimension has historical roots in previous theoretical models. For example, the team empowerment constructs of meaningfulness, autonomy, and impact grew out of three of the "critical psychological states" in the job characteristics model (Hackman & Oldham, 1980): these are experienced meaningfulness of work, responsibility for the outcomes of work, and knowledge of the actual results of work activities, respectively. Potency and autonomy are

analogous to competence and self-determination in Deci and Ryan's (1980) cognitive evaluation theory. What distinguishes team empowerment from earlier intrinsic motivation models is that team empowerment is conceptualized at the team, rather than the individual, level of analysis, and team empowerment combines dimensions that have been previously considered separate in earlier models.

Team Empowerment and Virtual Team Performance

In the absence of theoretical or empirical work examining empowerment in virtual teams, we argue that team empowerment may be more important to the performance of virtual teams than it is to the performance of colocated teams because of the unique nature of virtual team tasks. We believe that team empowerment will be especially critical for virtual team process improvement and customer satisfaction.

Process improvement. Because most virtual teams are knowledge-based teams that solve customer problems or develop new products, one of the most important performance outcomes is process improvement. Process improvement is analogous to team learning (Redding, 2000; Watkins & Marsick, 1993), which is defined as "activities carried out by team members through which a team obtains and processes data that allow it to adapt and improve" (Edmondson, 1999: 351). Examples of process improvement behaviors include seeking feedback, discussing errors, and experimenting (Edmondson, Bohner, & Pisano, 2001).

The complex, knowledge-based tasks many virtual teams perform require behaviors such as planning and executing, integrating with other teams inside and outside organizational boundaries, managing team performance, improving team processes, and influencing organization-level direction and resource allocations (Mohrman, Cohen, & Mohrman, 1995). Empowered teams have the authority to engage in these behaviors (Wellins et al., 1991). As a result, we believe, all four dimensions of team empowerment should contribute to virtual team process improvement. For example, higher team autonomy will likely lead to greater risk taking and experimentation (Tushman & O'Reilly, 1996). Team members will not have to wait for managerial permission or guidance before engaging in risk-taking activities crucial to process improvement and learning, such as detecting environmental changes and proactively meeting changing customer needs (Edmondson, 1999). As Redding noted, "Teams that were trained to follow tradi-

tional prescribed teamwork practices were less apt to produce novel, creative solutions than teams that were left to their own devices" (2000: 9).

Through potency, another dimension of team empowerment, virtual team members will likely behave proactively (Crant, 2000), seek continuous improvement, revise work processes, and search out innovative solutions to work problems (Hyatt & Ruddy, 1997). All of these activities should be associated with higher levels of virtual team process improvement (Lipnack & Stamps, 2000; Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000; Townsend et al., 1998). Likewise, when empowered team members experience meaning in their work, they are more likely to respond with higher levels of persistence (cf. Gorn & Kanungo, 1980) and motivation (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Persistence and motivation are likely to translate into higher levels of learning and process improvement (Edmondson, 2002). Similarly, when empowered team members experience impact, or knowledge of how their work affects others, they are more likely to have the information necessary to make accurate adjustments in their work (Kirkman & Rosen, 1997). Impact allows teams to enhance learning by improving team members' collective understanding of a situation and revealing unexpected consequences of previous actions (Edmondson, 1999). Empowerment has been empirically linked to innovation at both the team (Burpitt & Bigoness, 1997) and individual levels of analysis (Spreitzer, 1995). In summary, empowered virtual teams—those whose members experience high levels of autonomy, potency, meaningfulness, and impact—should be more capable of taking self-corrective actions to improve team processes than less empowered virtual teams. Thus, we predict:

Hypothesis 1. Team empowerment will be positively related to virtual team process improvement.

Team customer satisfaction. Another outcome vitally important to virtual teams is customer satisfaction (Duarte & Snyder, 2001; Haywood, 1998; Lipnack & Stamps, 2000). Since virtual teams increasingly span departmental boundaries or organizations, satisfying key internal and external customers is paramount to virtual team success. All four empowerment dimensions should enable virtual teams to better satisfy customers. For example, teams that experience high autonomy take responsibility to handle customer complaints directly and often self-diagnose quality problems and issues without waiting for managerial approval (Wellins et al., 1991). Indeed, preliminary research suggests that collective perceptions of team autonomy are critical if virtual teams are to quickly respond

to customer requests or environmental changes (Townsend et al., 1998). More potent virtual team members believe they can deal with customer complaints and issues. Guzzo and his associates (Guzzo et al., 1991; Shea & Guzzo, 1987) found that more potent colocated teams had higher levels of internal and external customer service. Virtual teams that find their tasks meaningful will likely take care and concern with customers because such responsibilities are intrinsically important (Hackman, 1987). Lastly, a sense of impact should allow team members to better know the exact changes needed to satisfy customers (Hackman & Oldham, 1980). Support for this view comes from empirical research demonstrating that a related characteristic, team organizational awareness (that is, the extent to which team members understand how their behavior influences organizational success), is linked to customer satisfaction (Hyatt & Ruddy, 1997). Further, empirical research in colocated teams has demonstrated that team empowerment is positively related to customer satisfaction (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). Given the nature of their tasks and the challenges of virtuality, we expect this relationship to be even stronger in virtual teams. Hence, we predict:

Hypothesis 2. Team empowerment will be positively related to virtual team customer satisfaction.

The Moderating Impact of the Extent of Face-to-Face Interaction in Virtual Teams

Even though most of the virtual teams literature is anecdotal or case-based, it has addressed two questions: (1) what are the key antecedents to virtual team performance and (2) how do virtual and colocated teams differ? To our knowledge, however, there has been little systematic analysis of these issues to date using intact virtual teams in industry. Further, the second question implies that teams can be viewed as completely virtual or completely face-to-face. Recently, scholars have argued that this distinction is unrealistic and artificial: instead, virtuality lies on a continuum ranging from highly to minimally virtual (Cohen & Gibson, 2003; Griffith & Neale, 2001; Griffith et al., 2003). For example, some teams that are referred to as colocated actually communicate electronically between face-to-face meetings. Similarly, teams that are viewed as virtual often have at least an initial face-to-face meeting (Geber, 1995), and many virtual teams, including globally dispersed teams, schedule periodic face-to-face meetings (Geber, 1995; Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000).

Although some researchers have limited the term "virtual team" to teams that never meet face-to-face (Jarvenpaa et al., 1998; Kristof, Brown, Sims, & Smith, 1995), many definitions acknowledge that virtual teamwork involves some level of face-to-face interaction even though, on a day-to-day basis, most work is carried out using technology-mediated communication (Maznevski & Chudoba, 2000). For example, Townsend and colleagues defined virtual teams as "groups of geographically and/or organizationally dispersed coworkers that are assembled using a combination of telecommunications and information technologies to accomplish an organizational task" (1998: 18). They go on to state, "Virtual teams rarely, if ever, meet in a face-to-face setting" (Townsend et al., 1998: 18). Bell and Kozlowski stated that "it is the absence of this proximal, face-to-face interaction between members of virtual teams that makes them 'virtual' and distinguishes them from more traditional teams" (2002: 22).

We acknowledge that virtuality is likely multidimensional (Cohen & Gibson, 2003; Griffith & Neale, 2001; Griffith et al., 2003; Townsend et al., 1998), encompassing, for example, the richness of the communication media used by members to accomplish tasks. A highly virtual team might communicate using only e-mail or facsimile, thus omitting all nonverbal communication such as facial expressions or tone of voice. In contrast, a less virtual team will likely meet face-to-face periodically and supplement this interaction with richer communication media, such as teleconferencing or Web-based videoconferences, and thus capturing many, but not all, of the subtleties of face-to-face teams. Other dimensions of virtuality could be the extent to which members are distributed across space (physical proximity; Griffith et al., 2003) and time (time zones; Cohen & Gibson, 2003). A highly virtual team might have members who are spread throughout the world in different time zones, while a less virtual team might have members located in the same city and who are temporally entrained. Regardless of the alternate ways to conceptualize degree of virtuality, given the importance of face-to-face meetings in almost all virtual team definitions, we focus here on that specific element of virtuality. The extent to which virtual team members assemble for intact, face-to-face meetings is an important process factor that likely changes fundamental features of task accomplishment.

We believe an important research question is this: How does the degree of virtuality influence the relationship between virtual team antecedents and outcomes? Studies addressing this question might uncover important differences in virtual

team leadership and support requirements that depend upon the extent of face-to-face interaction and might also generate important theoretical insights regarding virtual teams. As Bell and Kozlowski stated in their recent theoretical review of virtual teams, "There is little current theory to guide researchers on the leadership and management of virtual teams" (2002: 15). In our study, we chose to focus on degree of virtuality as a key moderator, rather than on other potential moderators, such as task interdependence or task complexity, because we believed that the extent of face-to-face interaction is one of the most important elements differentiating teams that interact primarily using technology (Cohen & Gibson, 2003). In our contingency model of virtual team performance (see Figure 1), we argue that team empowerment will be a stronger predictor of virtual team performance the *less* frequently teams meet face-to-face.

Underlying our rationale that virtuality is an important moderator is the recognition that both intrinsic and extrinsic factors may motivate teams (Deci & Ryan, 1980). Intrinsic motivation in teams consists of a variety of factors embedded in the task or activity itself. Thus, intrinsic motivation is inherent in team empowerment, which is rooted in assessments of a team's set of tasks, responsibilities, and capabilities (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). For example, team members are more likely to feel intrinsically motivated when they believe their team has the following: high performance capability (that is, potency), a strong sense of meaning generated by the team's work (meaningfulness), high responsibility and authority to carry out work (autonomy), and a full realization that the team's work has significant consequences for its organization (impact) (Kirkman & Rosen, 1997).

In contrast, extrinsic motivation originates from factors outside the team and external to team members, such as rewards and evaluations, recognition from external team leaders, feedback received from organizational stakeholders and outside customers, and peer pressure or team norms (Deci & Ryan, 1980; Hackman, 1987). These forms of extrinsic motivation are frequently encountered in teams that often meet face-to-face (that is, teams low in virtuality). However, highly virtual teams have physical, temporal, and psychological separation (Lipnack & Stamps, 2000; Townsend et al., 1998), are less embedded in immediate contexts, and have members who are less connected to each other and their team leaders. Thus, many of the factors that typically function as extrinsic motivators in face-to-face teams are likely to be less powerful sources of motivation for teams that seldom meet face-to-face. For instance, the dispersed nature of virtual

teams makes direct supervision of team members through coaching and rewarding team performance less viable (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Montoya-Weiss et al., 2001). The physical absence of a formal leader exacerbates lack of extrinsic motivation (Kayworth & Leidner, 2001). In virtual teams that rarely meet face-to-face, team leaders often have no choice but to distribute and delegate leadership functions and responsibilities to team members (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). Virtual team members will more likely assume these responsibilities and functions if they feel highly empowered. In short, empowerment in a virtual team may function as a substitute for many of the leadership functions that are normally executed by a team leader who is physically present and interacting face-to-face with a team (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). Given the probable lack of extrinsic motivators in highly virtual teams, intrinsic motivation through team empowerment likely becomes more critical for team performance.¹

In addition, teams with few opportunities to meet face-to-face are highly vulnerable to process losses and performance problems (Gibson & Cohen, 2003; Lipnack & Stamps, 2000). One factor that might offset performance problems is team empowerment. When team members have a collective sense of potency, meaningfulness, autonomy, and impact, their individual and collective actions will likely be more proactive and decisive than those of the members of less empowered teams (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). In the absence of a strong sense of team empowerment, however, these virtual team dynamics may lead to distrust and information hoarding, unwillingness to take risks and learn from mistakes, and even inaction and paralysis. All of these problems detract from process improvement and customer service. Frequent meetings, particularly under the guidance of a skilled leader, should help virtual teams overcome these problems (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). Without such meetings, however, team empowerment will likely be critical if team members are to be confident and decisive, willing to experiment and learn from their mistakes, and less dependent on formal team leaders, and if they are to share a collective sense of responsibility, commitment, and ownership of the team's mission. A collective sense of empowerment is particularly important for virtual teams that meet infrequently. Thus, we predict:

Hypothesis 3. A team's number of face-to-face meetings will moderate the relationship be-

tween team empowerment and process improvement; specifically, team empowerment will be more strongly related to process improvement in teams that meet less frequently face-to-face (that are higher in virtuality) than in teams that meet more frequently face-to-face (that are lower in virtuality).

Hypothesis 4. A team's number of face-to-face meetings will moderate the relationship between team empowerment and customer satisfaction; specifically, team empowerment will be more strongly related to customer satisfaction in teams that meet less frequently face-to-face (that are higher in virtuality) than in teams that meet more frequently face-to-face (that are lower in virtuality).

METHODS

Sample

We conducted a field study to test the (1) direct effects of team empowerment on virtual team process improvement and customer satisfaction and (2) moderating effects of face-to-face interaction on the relationships between team empowerment and both process improvement and customer satisfaction. Specifically, we studied a high-technology service organization in the travel industry that had formally implemented virtual teams. The organization develops, installs, and services computer travel reservation systems for travel agencies and holds a majority ownership position in a company that offers Web-based travel services.

Each virtual team consisted of members with different roles, including account executives (selling the reservation systems), field service technicians (installing the systems), training representatives (training end users on the systems on-site), installation operation coordinators (setting up installation appointments), account management specialists (handling customer billing), and customer service representatives (fielding customer phone calls and questions).

Members of each team were geographically dispersed. Many members worked from offices in their homes. All of the day-to-day work carried out by teams was virtual in nature. Team members communicated using telephones and voice mail, e-mail, and instant messaging. Each team reported virtually to a general manager who had overall responsibility for monitoring team performance, supporting team training, and evaluating individual contributions to the team's objectives. Teams competed against each other on completion of training

¹ We thank an anonymous reviewer for specific suggestions on developing the theoretical logic in this section.

modules and on improvements in customer service indicators, among other criteria.

A total of 280 out of 333 team members responded to surveys representing 35 teams, giving us a response rate of 84 percent. In addition, for all 35 teams, more than half of the team members responded, which supported the use of the data at the team level of analysis. Sixty-nine percent of the respondents were female; 4 percent were less than 25 years old, 17 percent were 26–35 years old, 45 percent were 36–45, 28 percent were 46–55, and 6 percent were over 55; 5 percent were African-American, 4 percent were Asian-American, 1 percent were Pacific Islanders, 12 percent were Hispanic-American, and 78 percent were Caucasian; 10.5 percent of the respondents had high school degrees or less, 12 percent had associate's degrees, 3.5 percent had technical degrees, 32 percent had some college beyond an associate's degree, 38.5 percent had bachelor's degrees, and 3.5 percent of the employees had graduate degrees. The average organizational tenure was 10.7 years, and the average team tenure was 2.4 years. There was an average of eight members per team.

Measures

Team empowerment. Team empowerment was assessed using a shortened version of Kirkman and Rosen's (1999) 26-item measure; the Appendix gives the 12 items used. These included 3 items representing each of the four team empowerment dimensions. Given high intercorrelations, the results of a principal components analysis, and a high level of fit using a one-factor confirmatory factor analysis, we combined our items into a single, global scale (e.g., Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). Individual responses were aggregated to the team level of analysis. We tested the validity of aggregating team empowerment in several ways (Gibson, Randel, & Earley, 2001; Kirkman, Tesluk, & Rosen, 2001; Klein, Conn, Smith, & Sorra, 2001; Tesluk, Zaccaro, Marks, & Mathieu, 1997). First, we ran a one-way analysis of variance to ensure that the variance between teams was greater than the variance within teams, which was positively confirmed ($F_{34, 244} = 1.74, p < .01$). Second, we used the interrater agreement procedure to assess reliability for each team (James, Demaree, & Wolf, 1984, 1993). The mean interrater agreement (r_{wg}) across all teams for team empowerment was .95 (values ranged from .84 through .99), demonstrating very high within-group agreement. Third, we calculated the intraclass correlation coefficients, ICC(1) and ICC(2). The resulting ICC(1) of .10 indicated that a team membership accounted for a reasonable pro-

portion of the variance in individual responses on team empowerment (James, 1982). Even though the ICC(1) value is not as high as might be desired, the ICC(2) value of .74 is large enough to indicate that the team means for empowerment were stable (Bliese, 2000). Thus, we treated team empowerment as a team-level construct in all of our subsequent analyses. The reliability for this scale was .93.

Process improvement. The participating organization used a sophisticated "balanced scorecard" that was administered at the team level (see Kaplan and Norton [1996] for a description of an organization-level balanced scorecard) to monitor each virtual team's performance. One independent component of the balanced scorecard was "process improvement," an assessment of reductions in cycle time for each team based on the number of days between an order for a travel reservation system and the effective operation of a system. Quarterly, the company's management set process improvement goals in number of days. Management calculated a process improvement percentage by dividing the number of days set by the goal by the number of actual days taken to complete an installation and then multiplying by 100. Using this formula, higher process improvement percentages were better, and scores in our study ranged from a low of 112 percent to a high of 200 percent. Process improvement scores were available for all 35 virtual teams in our study, and we used scores calculated for the time period most closely following the completion of our survey. In this organization, which had been collecting process improvement data for two years prior to our data collection, process improvement was viewed as an objective assessment of team learning, or a team's ability to continually refine processes and develop innovative solutions to shorten the cycle time needed to deliver and install reservation systems. Our measure of process improvement is consistent with other recent subjective assessments of learning in teams, such as taking time to figure out ways to improve team work processes (Edmondson, 1999, 2002) and altering behavior on the basis of processing new information (Lynn, Skov, & Abel, 1999).

Team customer satisfaction. A second component of the balanced scorecard was customer satisfaction. The company administered quarterly surveys to the outside customers (external to the organization) of each team. While answering several specific questions about customer service and support, customers also responded to a summary question, "What is your overall level of satisfaction with the service and support provided by this team?" (1, "not at all satisfied," to 5, "completely

satisfied"). As with process improvement, the company set quarterly customer service goals for each team using the percentage of customer satisfaction ratings falling within the top two rating points (4, "somewhat satisfied," and 5, "completely satisfied"). Thus, for each team, management computed a customer satisfaction percentage by dividing the team's actual customer satisfaction percentage by the team's goal and then multiplying by 100. For example, if a team had a goal of 90 percent customer satisfaction and then actually achieved a 90 percent score, that team's customer satisfaction percentage would be 100 percent ($90/90 \times 100$). If, however, the team received an 80 percent score, its customer satisfaction percentage would be 89 percent ($80/90 \times 100$). If the team received a 100 percent score, its percentage would be 111 percent ($100/90 \times 100$). With this formula, higher customer satisfaction percentages are better, and scores in our study ranged from 71 to 119 percent. Rather than merely capturing percentages based on the raw scores of customer satisfaction, this measure thus relates actual customer satisfaction ratings to each team's customer satisfaction goal, which differed across teams depending on the complexity of the service provided and historical customer service ratings with that customer. As with process improvement, customer satisfaction percentages were available for all 35 of the virtual teams in our study and were collected for the time period most closely following our survey administration.

Number of face-to-face meetings. To assess the extent of teams' face-to-face interaction, we measured number of meetings with a single question on the team member survey: "How many times did your entire team meet face-to-face in the past year?" Each team member's response was aggregated to the team level. Number of team meetings in our sample ranged from 1 to 12 times per year, with a mean of 4.67 meetings per year. Checks for aggregating number of face-to-face team meetings yielded acceptable values ($F_{34, 244} = 2.16, p < .001$; $ICC[1] = .13$; $ICC[2] = .79$). Management explained that even though all 35 teams performed the same task, the number of face-to-face meetings varied by team owing to factors such as team strategy, and team leader and member preferences. Number of team meetings was not significantly related to task characteristics such as task interdependence (Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993).

Control variables. Measures of control variables included team size, which was obtained from company records. Because task interdependence has been found to moderate the relationship between increased control in groups (autonomy) and team performance (Langfred, 2000; Liden, Wayne, &

Bradway, 1997), we also measured and controlled for its potential moderating effect on the relationship between team empowerment and both process improvement and customer satisfaction. A three-item task interdependence measure from Campion et al. (1993) was used. The reliability for this measure was .69, and checks for aggregating task interdependence yielded acceptable values ($F_{34, 244} = 1.68, p < .05$; $r_{wg} = .72$; $ICC[1] = .10$; $ICC[2] = .68$).

Procedures

A total of 35 teams met our criteria for selection: (1) a minimum team life span of one year, (2) a clear team identity (teams had names, and clear boundaries existed between the teams), and (3) physical separation of team members. We contacted each team member via e-mail to explain the purpose and logistics of the survey and included an embedded Website link for completing the survey on-line. We told team members that their responses were confidential and anonymous, assured them that the data would be collected and maintained in an off-site computer system to help guarantee confidentiality, and explained that management would receive a summary report without individual identification.

RESULTS

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations. Hypotheses 1 and 2 were tested with hierarchical regression analysis. Table 2 presents the results of these tests. In step 1, we entered the control variables, and in step 2, team empowerment. As can be seen in the section of the table showing the values yielded by step 2, team empowerment was significantly, positively related to process improvement ($\beta = 0.44, p < .01$) and customer satisfaction ($\beta = 0.48, p < .01$), a finding that supports Hypotheses 1 and 2.

To test Hypotheses 3 and 4, we used moderated regression analysis. In step 1, we entered all of the control variable "main effects" and both team empowerment and number of face-to-face team meetings. In step 2, we entered the interaction terms for both team empowerment and number of face-to-face meetings, and team empowerment and task interdependence. Table 3 gives these results).

As can be seen in the step 2 results in Table 3, the interaction effect for team empowerment and face-to-face meetings was significant for process improvement ($\beta = -11.47, p < .01$), supporting Hypothesis 3, but it was not significant for customer service ($\beta = 0.45, n.s.$), failing to support Hypothesis 4. The interaction effects for task interdepen-

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations^a

Variable	Mean	s.d.	1	2	3	4	5
1. Team size	8.00	2.83					
2. Task interdependence	5.61	0.45	-.28				
3. Team empowerment	5.46	0.53	-.06	.19			
4. Number of face-to-face meetings	4.67	2.61	.05	-.17	.22		
5. Process improvement	161.85	31.83	-.02	-.20	.39*	.27	
6. Team customer satisfaction	95.25	8.76	-.02	-.10	.44**	-.06	.12

^a n = 35.

* p < .05

** p < .01

TABLE 2
Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis^a

Variable	95 Percent Confidence Interval				95 Percent Confidence Interval			
	Process Improvement	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	Customer Satisfaction	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance
Step 1								
Team size	-0.98	-4.98	3.27	0.92	-0.05	-1.31	0.99	0.92
Task interdependence	-0.22	-41.53	10.70	0.92	-0.12	-9.60	5.00	0.92
F (df)	0.73 (2, 32)				0.21 (2, 32)			
R ²	.04				.01			
Adjusted R ²	-.02				-.05			
Step 2								
Team empowerment	0.44**	11.13	75.28	0.97	0.48**	4.08	21.69	0.97
F (df)	3.10 (3, 31)				3.14* (3, 31)			
R ²	.23				.23			
Adjusted R ²	.16				.16			
ΔR ² ^b	.19**				.22**			

^a Standardized regression coefficients are shown.

^b Step 1 to step 2.

* p < .05

** p < .01

dence as a control were not significant for either process improvement or customer satisfaction. Figure 2 shows the plot of the significant interaction (Aiken & West, 1991). As can be seen in Figure 2, team empowerment was significantly, positively related to process improvement for teams that rarely met face-to-face (that is, teams that were higher in virtuality) and was not related to process improvement for teams that often met face-to-face (were lower in virtuality).

To ensure that we had included all appropriate control variables, we also ran additional post hoc analyses that included various indicators of team demographic heterogeneity, such as age, sex, race/

ethnicity, education, and organizational and team tenure. Previous research has shown effects for demographic heterogeneity on team outcomes (see Milliken and Martins [1996] and Williams and O'Reilly [1998] for reviews). We found no significant effects for the heterogeneity variables and thus do not report the results here. In addition, we examined the effects of team empowerment and the interaction of team empowerment and extent of face-to-face interaction on the raw scores for process improvement and customer satisfaction (that is, scores that did not take into account team goals set by the organization). We obtained highly similar results. Finally, we assured that none of the as-

TABLE 3
Results of Moderated Regression Analysis^a

Variable	95 Percent Confidence Interval				95 Percent Confidence Interval			
	Process Improvement	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance	Customer Satisfaction	Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Tolerance
Step 1								
Team size	-0.07	-4.61	2.96	0.92	-0.05	-1.16	0.88	0.92
Task interdependence	-0.27	-43.99	5.79	0.36	-0.25	-11.67	1.77	0.86
Team empowerment	0.40*	6.28	73.02	0.90	0.53**	5.39	23.40	0.90
Number of face-to-face meetings	0.14	-2.41	5.85	0.91	-0.22	-1.85	0.38	0.91
<i>F</i> (<i>df</i>)		2.82* (4, 30)				2.90* (4, 30)		
<i>R</i> ²		.25				.28		
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²		.15				.18		
Step 2								
Team empowerment × interdependence	0.45	-8.92	10.97		-1.62	-3.90	1.89	
Team empowerment × number of face-to-face meetings	-11.47**	-37.61	-5.55		6.61	-1.25	8.09	
<i>F</i> (<i>df</i>)		3.30* (6, 28)				2.37 (6, 28)		
<i>R</i> ²		.41				.34		
Adjusted <i>R</i> ²		.28				.20		
ΔR^2 ^b		.16*				.06		

^a Standardized regression coefficients are shown.

^b Step 1 to step 2.

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

sumptions in our regression analyses were violated (for instance, skewness, kurtosis, and normality). We now turn to a discussion of the theoretical and managerial implications our findings.

DISCUSSION

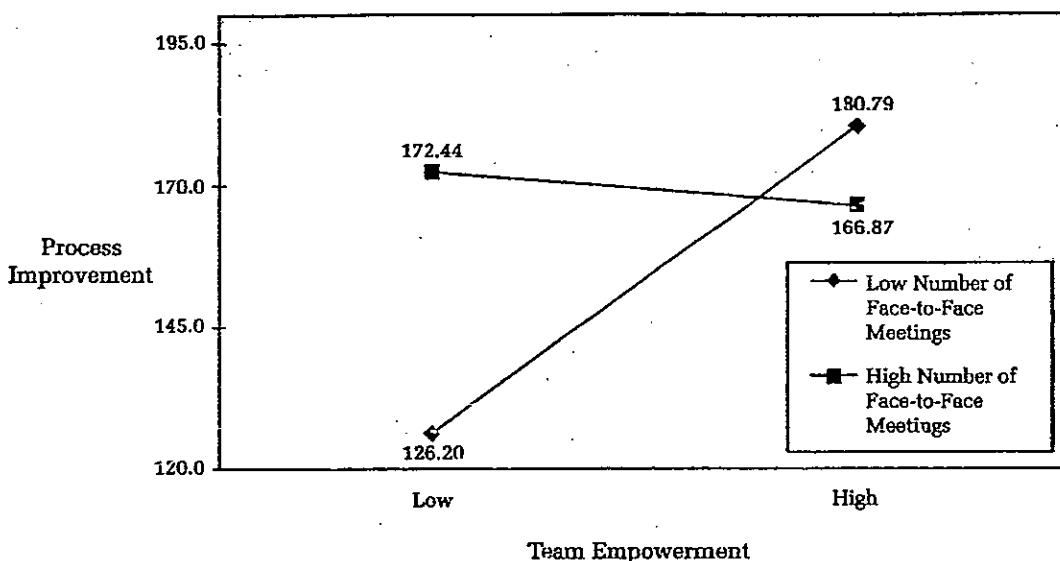
In their article on temporal coordination and conflict management in virtual teams, Montoya-Weiss and her colleagues asked, "How can organizations create virtual teams that work effectively?" (2001: 1251). Because the literature on virtual teams is sparse, especially with regard to actual virtual teams performing meaningful tasks in organizations, the answer to this question has remained elusive. We believe that our study makes several contributions. First, we extend previous research on team empowerment by demonstrating the generalizability of the team empowerment-team performance relationship to virtual teams. Second, we demonstrate the importance of the extent of face-to-face interaction (an important component of degree of virtuality) and show its impact on antecedent-outcome relationships in virtual

teams. Our findings suggest that virtual teams researchers need to take into account the extent of face-to-face interaction in studies of virtual team performance. Even when considering the same types of teams in the same organization, researchers may see variability in the degree of virtuality. Not all virtual teams are created alike. Finally, we extend previous research on virtual teams by examining team-level relationships in a set of service virtual teams in a meaningful organization setting, thus complementing existing virtual team studies using student samples or case methodology.

Theoretical and Managerial Implications

Empowerment and virtual team performance. Researchers have demonstrated positive links between team empowerment and colocated team performance in a variety of work settings (Burpitt & Bigoness, 1997; Hyatt & Ruddy, 1997; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Wellins et al., 1991). Our findings showed team empowerment to be significantly, positively related to both process improvement and customer satisfaction in virtual teams. These find-

FIGURE 2
The Moderating Effect of Number of Face-to-Face Meetings on the Relationship between Team Empowerment and Process Improvement



ings extend the previously established link between team empowerment and customer satisfaction in colocated teams (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). Our findings also support the multilevel role of empowerment in organizations (Seibert, Silver, & Randolph, in press). At the individual level of analysis, empowerment has been positively linked to managerial performance, innovation, job satisfaction (Spreitzer, 1995; Spreitzer et al., 1997), and organizational commitment (Liden et al., 2000), and negatively linked to turnover intentions (Koberg et al., 1999). Our study supports the growing body of research suggesting that empowerment is a very important motivational construct at the team level of analysis as well. Researchers who build comprehensive models of virtual team effectiveness should include team empowerment as an important predictor variable.

Our results suggest that, for managers to enhance virtual team process improvement and customer satisfaction, they should increase team empowerment. In virtual teams, team members must demonstrate a particularly high level of initiative and proactivity (Blackburn, Furst, & Rosen, 2003; Duarte & Snyder, 2001; Haywood, 1998; Lipnack & Stamps, 2000; Townsend et al., 1998). Accordingly, it is important that team members collectively feel enabled to improve processes and respond to changing customer demands, often coming up with creative solutions to resolve problems and emergency situations. Researchers have recommended ways to increase team empowerment in colocated

teams (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999); however, there may be important differences in the empowerment of colocated and virtual teams.

For example, to empower colocated teams, researchers have recommended that team leaders encourage teams to solve their own problems and set high expectations (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). In view of the dispersed nature of virtual teams, team leaders will likely have to spend considerable time coaching individual team members off-line and work diligently to ensure that all team members feel fully informed about important organizational matters and events (Kayworth & Leidner, 2001; Kirkman et al., 2002). Encouraging team problem solving and setting high expectations may have little impact in virtual teams if team members do not clearly see how their efforts contribute to team and organizational performance, which is more problematic for dispersed, rather than colocated, members. Similarly, researchers have suggested that modifying social structures to establish more communication and coordination across teams is important to empower colocated teams (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). However, in virtual teams, since almost all communication and coordination occur through electronic media, teams will have to be trained on using such technology, and members will need excellent technical support from management and knowledge about when to use which technology (Townsend et al., 1998). We expect that the empowerment of virtual teams will be much more complex than that of colocated teams (Kayworth &

Leidner, 2001). Much future research is required in this area before clear mechanisms for empowering virtual teams emerge.

Face-to-face interaction and virtual team performance. Our second objective was to examine whether the number of face-to-face team meetings moderated the relationship between team empowerment and team performance. We believed that team empowerment would be more important for teams that met less, rather than more, frequently. Supporting our expectation, we found that virtuality, as assessed by number of face-to-face team meetings, moderated the relationship between team empowerment and one dimension of virtual team performance—process improvement. Among teams that rarely meet face-to-face (highly virtual teams), it appears that team empowerment experiences are critical for learning to occur in teams. As shown in Figure 2, there is a dramatic contrast between the level of process improvement achieved by highly empowered (one standard deviation above the mean) teams that rarely meet face-to-face ($\bar{x} = 180.79$) and the process improvement achieved by less empowered (one standard deviation below the mean) teams that rarely meet face-to-face ($\bar{x} = 126.20$). When teams seldom interact face-to-face, it appears that process improvement is contingent on team empowerment experiences. Empowered teams may view themselves as capable of responding to the challenges of slow cycle times and confident in their abilities to act quickly and decisively to remove obstacles and solve complex coordination problems without waiting for managerial approval (Kirkman & Rosen, 1997).

In contrast, teams that lack empowerment and rarely meet face-to-face may become passive and likely to rely on their leaders for direction as to how to address continual improvement objectives. Because team leaders manage their teams through largely virtual means and rely on less rich communication, it is more difficult to encourage teams that feel less empowered to concentrate their energies on addressing process improvement goals (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002). Moreover, less empowered virtual teams that seldom meet face-to-face may overestimate perceived constraints around taking corrective actions. One interpretation of these findings is that teams that rarely meet face-to-face require a collective sense of empowerment in order to learn and make meaningful process improvements. For teams that hold frequent face-to-face meetings (those low in virtuality), levels of team empowerment were not related to process improvement. This finding contrasts with earlier research that showed strong links between team empowerment

and performance (Burpitt & Bigoness, 1997; Hyatt & Ruddy, 1997; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999). The conflicting findings may be the result of differences in the way team performance was measured or the types of teams studied. For example, none of the previous studies measured team learning as evidenced by process improvement. Or perhaps face-to-face meetings encourage the development of cohesion, consensus, and mutual accountability that enhance efforts to improve processes regardless of the level of empowerment (or, in effect, substituting for empowerment). Another explanation may be the role of leaders in low-empowerment virtual teams that meet frequently. Here leaders may adopt a more directive style, focusing team members' collective attention on the need for process improvement. An interesting question, deserving of further investigation, is whether leaders call for more face-to-face meetings and act more assertively when teams show little initiative in addressing process improvement issues. Clearly, future research is needed to determine causality over time.

Regarding theory, researchers have questioned how virtuality affects virtual team performance (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Gibson & Cohen, 2003; Griffith & Neale, 2001; Griffith et al., 2003). To date, however, very little empirical research has answered this call. Although we recognize the more complex, multidimensional definitions of the construct, we believe that our research takes a first step in the empirical evolution of this important variable. Realizing that substantial variance exists with respect to degree of virtuality among virtual teams within and across real organizations, the conceptualization, measurement, and assessment of virtuality should help advance virtual team theory and research. Inclusion of degree of virtuality also indirectly supports our earlier claim that, while team empowerment has been shown to be important for colocated teams, it is even more important for virtual teams. For example, while all of the teams in our study were considered virtual owing to the lack of face-to-face interaction in carrying out day-to-day work, we found that empowerment was more important to teams that rarely met than for teams that met more frequently. Comparative research including both highly face-to-face and highly virtual teams (e.g., Potter & Balthazard, 2002) is now needed to more directly assess the assertion that team empowerment is more important for virtual rather than for colocated teams.

Inclusion of assessments of virtuality, such as the extent of face-to-face interaction, as part of the design of any research project on virtual teams, has the added benefit of facilitating a comparison of findings from research across a variety of virtual

team settings. A parallel situation exists with regard to the research on self-managing work teams (SMWTs). When researchers fail to include a measure of the degree of self-management, comparisons across studies are difficult. Thus, SMWT research has remained disjointed and unable to capitalize on a systematic, cumulative base of knowledge (Guzzo & Dickson, 1996).

The findings for team empowerment and the extent of face-to-face interaction in virtual teams also have implications for managers. First, our findings may assist leaders of virtual teams in determining the number of face-to-face team meetings that is appropriate to the level of team empowerment. Specifically, when teams experience little empowerment, frequent face-to-face meetings appear critical to learning (see Figure 2). Second, some managers may find that they have very little control over the number of face-to-face meetings they can arrange. Often, virtual teams are formed because members simply cannot meet face-to-face. If managers have very little control over face-to-face meeting frequency, because of dispersion of members or resource constraints, they need to focus their team-building efforts on increasing team empowerment. Indeed, the organization that served as the setting for this study encouraged its team leaders to take advantage of limited opportunities for their teams to meet face-to-face to engage in activities and exercises to build team identity, confidence in team capabilities, and a collective sense of purpose and direction (a sense of empowerment).

Although we found that number of face-to-face meetings had a significant, moderating effect on the relationship between team empowerment and process improvement, we did not find this effect for customer satisfaction. Thus, more empowered teams were better able to satisfy their customers than less empowered teams regardless of the number of times the teams assembled face-to-face. Perhaps team members better understood the actions needed to satisfy customers (such as quick installations, corrections of billing problems, training in the use of software), and thus face-to-face team meetings were not as critical to increase customer service. In contrast, regarding process improvement, for teams that met frequently, the level of empowerment was irrelevant. Risk taking, experimentation, and reflection—all actions that are critical for team learning (Edmondson, 1999, 2002)—most likely occurred in face-to-face meetings as teams worked on reducing cycle time. However, for those that rarely met, team empowerment had a dramatic effect on learning. Apparently, empowerment is needed under these conditions because

team members must have the authority to engage in activities such as experimentation without the managerial guidance common in most face-to-face meetings.

Limitations and Future Research

Our first limitation is the number of teams in the study. This limitation is offset to some extent by our having used a sample of virtual teams performing the same task and assessed by two independent outcome measures in a business organization. Such a sample is relatively rare in field research. In addition, given that it is difficult to obtain field samples with high numbers of teams, our study is in line with existing studies in both face-to-face team research (Ancona & Caldwell, 1992; Janz, Colquitt, & Noe, 1997; Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999) and virtual team studies (Jarvenpaa et al., 1998; Montoya-Weiss et al., 2001; Warkentin et al., 1997).

A second limitation is our unidimensional representation of virtuality. Measuring number of face-to-face meetings may have failed to capture the quality of virtual team meetings as well as other dimensions, such as physical dispersion, richness of communication media, and number of time zones crossed. As we noted, we encourage future researchers to build on our conceptualization to explore possible multidimensional aspects and measures of degree of virtuality.

A third limitation of our study is its cross-sectional design. Thus, we were unable to conclusively demonstrate that higher levels of team empowerment led to enhanced process improvement and customer satisfaction. It may be the case that higher levels of learning and customer satisfaction cause team members to feel more empowered. As has been argued about empowerment and performance at the individual level (e.g., Spreitzer, 1995), team empowerment and team performance are likely to have a reciprocal relationship (Kirkman & Rosen, 1999) that is similar to an efficacy spiral (Lindsley, Brass, & Thomas, 1995). Clearly, longitudinal studies are needed. On a positive note, we were able to capture timely assessments of team empowerment using an on-line survey. Team empowerment was compared to current indicators of team performance collected after our survey was administered.

A final limitation is the number of variables we were able to include in our study. Clearly, the lack of existing research on virtual teams warrants the assessment of a comprehensive model of virtual team performance. Most important may be the inclusion of process variables such as communica-

tion, decision making, and conflict management that might help to explain process improvement or customer satisfaction. We chose to take a more limited approach because of restrictions on our degrees of freedom, given 35 teams, and organizational concerns over survey length. We strongly encourage future researchers to find and examine larger samples of virtual teams performing real tasks in actual organizations.

Conclusion

To our knowledge, this study is the first to examine the influence of team empowerment on virtual team performance using intact virtual teams performing meaningful tasks in an actual business organization. In addition, we proposed and explored an important element of degree of virtuality (Bell & Kozlowski, 2002; Cohen & Gibson, 2003; Griffeth & Neale, 2001; Griffeth et al., 2003)—number of face-to-face team meetings—and examined its moderating effects on the relationship between empowerment and two independent measures of virtual team performance. We hope our findings contribute to further theoretical and empirical development of the degree of virtuality construct and to a more comprehensive model of virtual team performance.

Our findings have several important implications for leading and managing virtual teams. Highly empowered virtual teams were associated with significantly higher levels of process improvement and customer satisfaction than were less empowered teams. Moreover, high levels of team empowerment were critical to process improvement for teams that rarely met face-to-face. To enhance the effectiveness of virtual teams, managers have several options. One option is to bring virtual teams together for periodic face-to-face meetings to enhance process improvement. Where periodic face-to-face meetings are not feasible, managers need to make extra efforts to empower virtual teams to deal directly and decisively with process improvement issues. With the growing popularity of virtual teams, both comprehensive models of virtual team effectiveness and rigorous longitudinal studies of virtual team performance are clearly needed.

REFERENCES

- Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. 1991. *Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Ancona, D. G., & Caldwell, D. F. 1992. Demography and design: Predictors of new product team performance. *Organization Science*, 3: 321–341.
- Armstrong, D. J., & Cole, P. 1995. Managing distances and differences in geographically distributed work groups. In S. E. Jackson & M. N. Ruderman (Eds.), *Diversity in work teams: Research paradigms for a changing workplace*: 187–215. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Bell, B. S., & Kozlowski, S. W. J. 2002. A typology of virtual teams: Implications for effective leadership. *Group & Organization Management*, 27: 14–49.
- Blackburn, R. S., Furst, S. A., & Rosen, B. 2003. Building a winning virtual team. In C. B. Gibson & S. G. Cohen (Eds.), *Virtual teams that work: Creating the conditions for virtual team effectiveness*: 95–120. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bliese, P. D. 2000. Within-group agreement, non-independence, and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In K. J. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multilevel theory, research and methods in organizations*: 349–381. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Burpitt, W. J., & Bigoness, W. J. 1997. Leadership and innovation among teams: The impact of empowerment. *Small Group Research*, 28: 414–423.
- Campion, M. A., Medsker, G. J., & Higgs, A. C. 1993. Relations between work group characteristics and effectiveness: Implications for designing effective work groups. *Personnel Psychology*, 46: 823–850.
- Cascio, W. F. 2000. Managing a virtual workplace. *Academy of Management Executive*, 14(3): 81–90.
- Champy, J., & Nohria, N. 1997. *Fast forward: The best ideas on managing business change*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Chan, D. 1998. Functional relations among constructs in the same content domain at different level of analysis: A typology of composition models. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83: 234–246.
- Cohen, S. G., & Bailey, D. E. 1997. What makes teams work: Group effectiveness research from the shop floor to the executive suite. *Journal of Management*, 23: 239–290.
- Cohen, S. G., & Gibson, C. B. 2003. In the beginning: Introduction and framework. In C. B. Gibson & S. G. Cohen (Eds.), *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness*: 1–13. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. 1988. The empowerment process: Integrating theory and practice. *Academy of Management Review*, 13: 471–482.
- Coutu, D. L. 1998. Trust in virtual teams. *Harvard Business Review*, 76(3): 20–21.
- Grant, J. M. 2000. Proactive behavior in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 26: 435–462.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. 1980. The empirical exploration of intrinsic motivational processes. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology*, vol. 13: 39–80. New York: Academic Press.

- Duarte, D. L., & Snyder, N. T. 2001. *Mastering virtual teams* (2nd ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Edmondson, A. 1999. Psychological safety and learning behavior in work teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44: 350-383.
- Edmondson, A. 2002. The local and variegated nature of learning in organizations: A group-level perspective. *Organization Science*, 13: 128-146.
- Edmondson, A., Bohmer, R. M., & Pisano, G. P. 2001. Disrupted routines: Team learning and new technology implementation in hospitals. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46: 685-716.
- Ford, R. C., & Fottler, M. D. 1995. Empowerment: A matter of degree. *Academy of Management Executive*, 9(3): 21-31.
- Furst, S. A., Blackburn, R. S., & Rosen, B. 1999. Virtual team effectiveness: A proposed research agenda. *Information Systems Journal*, 9: 249-269.
- Geber, B. 1995. Virtual teams. *Training*, 32(4): 36-40.
- Gibson, C. B. 2001. From accumulation to accommodation: The chemistry of collective cognition in work groups. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22: 121-134.
- Gibson, C. B., & Cohen, S. G. 2003. The last word: Conclusions and implications. In C. B. Gibson & S. G. Cohen (Eds.), *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness*: 403-421. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gibson, C. B., & Randel, A. E., & Earley, P. C. 2000. Understanding group-efficacy: An empirical test of multiple assessment methods. *Group & Organization Management*, 25: 67-97.
- Gluesing, J. C., Alcordo, T. C., Baba, M. L., Britt, D., Wagner, K. H., McKethan, W., Monplaisir, L., Ratner, H. H., & Riopelle, K. 2003. The development of global virtual teams. In C. B. Gibson & S. G. Cohen (Eds.), *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness*: 353-380. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Gorn, G. J., & Kanungo, R. N. 1980. Job involvement and motivation: Are intrinsically motivated managers more job involved? *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 26: 265-277.
- Griffith, T. L., & Neale, M. A. 2001. Information processing in traditional, hybrid, and virtual teams: From nascent knowledge to transactive memory. *Research in organizational behavior*, vol. 23: 379-421. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Griffith, T. L., Sawyer, J. E., & Neale, M. A. 2003. Virtualness and knowledge in teams: Managing the love triangle of organizations, individuals, and information technology. *MIS Quarterly*, 27: 265-287.
- Guzzo, R. A., & Dickson, R. A. 1996. Teams in organizations: Recent research on performance and effectiveness. In L. W. Porter (Ed.), *Annual review of psychology*, vol. 47: 307-338. Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.
- Guzzo, R. A., Campbell, R. J., Moses, J. L., Ritchie, R. R., Schneider, B., Shaff, K., Wheeler, J., Gustason, P. W. 1991. *What makes high-performing teams effective?* Unpublished manuscript. University of Maryland, College Park, Maryland.
- Hackman, J. R. 1987. The design of work teams. In J. Lorsch (Ed.), *Handbook of organizational behavior*: 315-342. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hackman, J. R., & Oldham, G. R. 1980. *Work redesign*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Haywood, M. 1998. *Managing virtual teams: Practical techniques for high-technology managers*. Boston: Artech House.
- Hyatt, D. E., & Ruddy, T. M. 1997. An examination of the relationship between work group characteristics and performance: Once more into the breach. *Personnel Psychology*, 50: 553-585.
- James, L. R. 1982. Aggregation bias in estimates of perceptual agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67: 219-229.
- James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. 1984. Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69: 85-98.
- James, L. R., Demaree, R. G., & Wolf, G. 1993. r_{wg} : An assessment of within-group interrater agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78: 306-309.
- Janz, B. D., Colquitt, J. A., & Noe, R. A. 1997. Knowledge worker team effectiveness: The role of autonomy, interdependence, team development, and contextual support variables. *Personnel Psychology*, 50: 877-904.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., & Leidner, D. E. 1999. Communication and trust in global virtual teams. *Organization Science*, 10: 791-815.
- Jarvenpaa, S. L., Knoll, K., & Leidner, D. E. 1998. Is anybody out there? Antecedents of trust in global virtual teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 14: 29-64.
- Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. 1996. Using the balanced scorecard as a strategic management system. *Harvard Business Review*, 74(1): 75-85.
- Kayworth, T. R., & Leidner, D. E. 2001. Leadership effectiveness in global virtual teams. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 18: 7-40.
- Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. 1978. Substitutes for leadership: Their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 22: 375-403.
- King, N., & Majchrzak, A. 2003. Technology alignment and adaptation for virtual teams involved in unstructured knowledge work. In C. B. Gibson & S. G. Cohen (Eds.), *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness*: 403-421. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

- tions for virtual team effectiveness: 265–291. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Rosen, B. 1997. A model of work team empowerment. In R. W. Woodman & W. A. Pasmore (Eds.), *Research in organizational change and development*, vol. 10: 131–167. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Rosen, B. 1999. Beyond self-management: The antecedents and consequences of team empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42: 58–74.
- Kirkman, B. L., & Rosen, B. 2000. Powering up teams. *Organizational Dynamics*, 28(3): 48–66.
- Kirkman, B. L., Rosen, B., Gibson, C. B., Tesluk, P. E., & McPherson, S. O. 2002. Five challenges to virtual team success: Lessons from Sabre, Inc. *Academy of Management Executive*, 16(3): 67–79.
- Kirkman, B. L., Tesluk, P. E., & Rosen, B. 2001. Assessing the incremental validity of team consensus ratings over aggregation of individual-level data in predicting team effectiveness. *Personnel Psychology*, 54: 645–667.
- Klein, K. J., Conn, A. L., Smith, D. B., & Sorra, J. S. 2001. Is everyone in agreement? Exploring the determinants of within-group agreement in survey responses. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86: 3–16.
- Koberg, G. S., Boss, R. W., Senjem, J. C., & Goodman, E. A. 1999. Antecedents and outcomes of empowerment: Empirical evidence from the health care industry. *Group & Organization Management*, 24: 71–91.
- Kristof, A. L., Brown, K. G., Sims, H. P., & Smith, K. A. 1995. The virtual team: A case study and inductive model. In M. M. Beyerlein, D. A. Johnson, & S. T. Beyerlein (Eds.), *Advances in interdisciplinary studies of work teams: Knowledge work in teams*, vol. 2: 229–253. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Langfred, C. W. 2000. Work-group design and autonomy: A field study of the interaction between task interdependence and group autonomy. *Small Group Research*, 31: 54–70.
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Sparrowe, R. T. 2000. An examination of the mediating role of psychological empowerment on the relations between the job, interpersonal relationships, and work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85: 407–416.
- Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J., & Bradway, L. K. 1997. Task interdependence as a moderator of the relation between group control and performance. *Human Relations*, 50: 169–181.
- Lindsay, D. H., Brass, D. J., & Thomas, J. B. 1995. Efficacy-performance spirals: A multilevel perspective. *Academy of Management Review*, 3: 645–678.
- Lipnack, J., & Stamps, J. 1999. Virtual teams: The new way to work. *Strategy & Leadership*, 27(1): 14–19.
- Lipnack, J., & Stamps, J. 2000. *Virtual teams: People working across boundaries with technology* (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.
- Lynn, G. S., Skov, R. B., & Abel, K. D. 1999. Practices that support team learning and their impact on speed to market and new product success. *Journal of Product Innovation Management*, 16: 439–454.
- Marks, M. A., Mathieu, J. E., & Zaccaro, S. J. 2001. A temporally based framework and taxonomy of team processes. *Academy of Management Review*, 26: 356–376.
- Maznevski, M. L., & Chudoba, K. M. 2000. Bridging space over time: Global virtual-team dynamics and effectiveness. *Organization Science*, 11: 473–492.
- Maznevski, M. L., & Athanassiou, N. A. 2003. Designing the knowledge-management infrastructure for virtual teams: Building and using social networks and social capital. In C. B. Gibson & S. G. Cohen (Eds.), *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness*: 196–213. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Milliken, F. J., & Martins, L. L. 1996. Searching for common threads: Understanding the multiple effects of diversity in organizational groups. *Academy of Management Review*, 21: 402–433.
- Mohrman, S. A., Cohen, S. G., & Mohrman, A. M. 1995. *Designing team-based organizations: New forms for knowledge work*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Montoya-Weiss, M. M., Massey, A. P., & Song, M. 2001. Getting it together: Temporal coordination and conflict management in global virtual teams. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44: 1251–1262.
- Pelled, L. H., Eisenhardt, K. M., & Xin, K. R. 1999. Exploring the black box: An analysis of work group diversity, conflict, and performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44: 1–28.
- Potter, R. E., & Balthazard, P. A. 2002. Understanding human interaction and performance in the virtual team. *Journal of Information Technology Theory and Application*, 4(1): 1–23.
- Raven, A. 2003. Team or community of practice—Aligning tasks, structures, and technologies. In C. B. Gibson & S. G. Cohen (Eds.), *Virtual teams that work: Creating conditions for virtual team effectiveness*: 292–306. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Redding, J. C. 2000. *The radical team handbook: Harnessing the power of team learning for breakthrough results*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Seibert, S. E., Silver, S. R., & Randolph, W. A. 2004. Taking empowerment to the next level: A multilevel model of empowerment, performance, and satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47: In press.
- Shea, G. P., & Guzzo, R. A. 1987. Group effectiveness: What really matters? *Sloan Management Review*, 28(3): 25–31.

- Spreitzer, G. M. 1995. Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38: 1442-1465.
- Spreitzer, G. M. 1996. Social structural characteristics of psychological empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39: 483-504.
- Spreitzer, G. M., Kizilos, M. A., & Nason, S. W. 1997. A dimensional analysis of the relationship between psychological empowerment and effectiveness, satisfaction, and strain. *Journal of Management*, 23: 679-704.
- Tesluk, P. E., Zaccaro, S. J., Marks, M. A., & Mathieu, J. E. 1997. Task and aggregation issues in the analysis and assessment of team performance. In M. T. Brannick & E. Salas (Eds.), *Assessment and measurement of team performance: Theory, research and applications*: 197-224. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Thomas, K. W., & Veltheuse, B. A. 1990. Cognitive elements of empowerment: An "interpretive" model of intrinsic task motivation. *Academy of Management Review*, 15: 666-681.
- Townsend, A. M., DeMarie, S. M., & Hendrickson, A. R. 1998. Virtual teams: Technology and the workplace of the future. *Academy of Management Executive*, 12(3): 17-29.
- Tushman, M. L., & O'Reilly, C. A., III. 1996. Ambidextrous organizations: Managing evolutionary and revolutionary change. *California Management Review*, 38(4): 8-30.
- Warkentin, M. E., Sayeed, L., & Hightower, R. 1997. Virtual teams versus face-to-face teams: An exploratory study of a web-based conference system. *Decision Sciences*, 28: 975-996.
- Watkins, K. E., & Marsick, V. J. 1993. *Sculpting the learning organization*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Wellins, R. S., Byham, W. C., & Wilson, J. M. 1991. *Empowered teams: Creating self-directed work groups that improve quality, productivity, and participation*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Williams, K. Y., & O'Reilly, C. A., III. 1998. Demography and diversity in organizations: A review of 40 years of research. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior*, vol. 20: 77-140. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

APPENDIX

Survey Items Used in the Study

Team Empowerment

This scale is a shortened version of Kirkman and Rosen's (1999) 26-item original. Response options ranged from 1, "strongly disagree," to 7, "strongly agree." The dimensions of empowerment tapped by items appear here, in parentheses, but were not included in the survey as administered to respondents.

1. My team has confidence in itself. (potency)
2. My team can get a lot done when it works hard. (potency)
3. My team believes that it can be very productive. (potency)
4. My team believes that its projects are significant. (meaningfulness)
5. My team feels that its tasks are worthwhile. (meaningfulness)
6. My team feels that its work is meaningful. (meaningfulness)
7. My team can select different ways to do the team's work. (autonomy)
8. My team determines as a team how things are done in the team. (autonomy)
9. My team makes its own choices without being told by management. (autonomy)
10. My team has a positive impact on this company's customers. (impact)
11. My team performs tasks that matter to this company. (impact)
12. My team makes a difference in this organization. (impact)

Task Interdependence

Campion, Medsker, and Higgs (1993) developed this measure.

1. My team cannot accomplish its tasks without information or materials from other members of the team.
2. Members of my team depend on each other for information or materials needed to perform their tasks.
3. Within my team, jobs performed by team members are all related to one another.



Bradley L. Kirkman (brad.kirkman@mgt.gatech.edu) is associate professor of management in the College of Management at the Georgia Institute of Technology. He received his Ph.D. in organizational behavior from the Kenan-Flagler Business School at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. His research interests include work team effectiveness, cross-cultural management, organizational change and development, and organizational justice.

Benson Rosen is the Hanes Professor of Management in the Kenan-Flagler Business School at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. He received his Ph.D. in social and industrial psychology from Wayne State University. His research interests include team development, career management, and international ethics.

Paul E. Tesluk is an associate professor of organizational behavior at the University of Maryland and Associate Director of the Center for Human Capital, Innovation and Technology at the Robert H. Smith School of Business. He received his Ph.D. from the

Pennsylvania State University in industrial/organizational psychology. His research interests include the design and implementation of high-involvement workplace systems, work team performance, and employee and managerial development.

Cristina B. Gibson is an assistant professor at the Graduate School of Management, University of California,

Irvine, where she received her Ph.D. in organizational behavior. Her research interests include social cognition, communication, interaction, and effectiveness in teams; the impact of culture and gender on work behavior; and international management.
