Virtual and face-to-face team collaboration comparison through an agent-based simulation

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28 ABSTRACT

29

The ongoing COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated the acceptance of virtual team collaboration as

- 30 a replacement for face-to-face collaboration. Unlike face-to-face collaboration, virtual collaboration is
- 31 influenced by unique factors, such as technology mediation. However, there is a lack of rigorous research
- 32 that assesses the impact of virtual collaboration on the engineering design process. Therefore, the current
- 33 study investigates the effect of virtual team collaboration on design outcomes by means of the MILANO

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34	(Model of Influence, Learning, and Norms in Organizations) framework. To tailor MILANO for virtual
35	collaboration, this paper first presents an empirical study of human design teams, which shows how model
36	parameter values for face-to-face collaboration (like self-efficacy, perceived influencers, perceived degree
37	of influence, trust and familiarity) differ from appropriate parameter values for face-to-face collaboration.
38	The simulation results for both virtual and face-to-face collaboration show how design outcomes differ
39	with collaboration mode. Unlike teams with a few well-defined influential individuals, the mode of
40	collaboration does not have a significant impact on teams where all individuals are equally influential.
41	Virtual collaboration also results in lower exploration and variety than face-to-face collaboration.
42	
43 44	INTRODUCTION
45	The COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated a transition from face-to-face to virtual
46	team collaboration [1]. A report by McKinsey found that there are positive aspects to
47	this transition: people enjoy the added flexibility, they are more productive, and
48	organizations have fewer locational constraints [2]. For these reasons, virtual team
49	collaboration is likely to continue after the pandemic is over. However, there is little
50	research on the behavior and performance of virtual teams in engineering design. This
51	work presents insights from MILANO (Model of Influence, Learning, and Norms in
52	Organizations), an agent-based model that is tailored in this work to simulate various
53	virtual team collaboration scenarios.
54	A variety of terms have been used to describe the process used by a team that
55	does not work face-to-face, including distributed teams, computer-mediated
56	collaboration, or online collaboration [3]. The current work uses the term virtual team
57	<i>collaboration</i> to describe the state when the team is not working face-to-face at the

58	same location [4]. Virtual team collaboration (a term contrary to face-to-face or co-
59	located collaboration) can be characterized by the percentage of time spent working
60	apart and the level of technological enablement [5]. In this work, virtual collaboration
61	and face-to-face collaboration are being referred to as the two collaboration modes.
62	Virtual teams face unique challenges [6] such as trust-building and knowledge
63	sharing [7]. In addition, communication in virtual teams may affect social influence or
64	giving rise to more conflicts [8], and the participation of expert members in the team
65	may not guarantee good project outcomes [9]. These challenges, if not addressed and
66	managed appropriately, can affect the performance of virtual teams [10]. Therefore, the
67	purpose of the current work is to examine how design outcomes are affected by virtual
68	team collaboration.

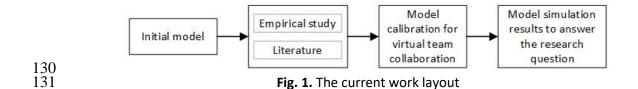
69 Studies have shown that virtual collaboration has unique drawbacks, especially 70 in terms of lower collaborative behavior in teams [15] which leads to lower cohesion 71 and weaker relationships in team members [16], which in turn negatively affects team 72 performance [17]. Moreover, task- and relationship-related challenges in virtual team 73 collaboration can further provide a hindrance to team performance [18]. For example, 74 team members may react differently in unexpected new situations due to external 75 stimuli when collaborating virtually, hence affecting relationships with the other team 76 members [18]. Virtual teams often face difficulties in communication due to issues with 77 technology. As these teams solely rely on technology to conduct any form of 78 communication, it is crucial to consider the technology medium as an important 79 attribute of virtual collaboration [19]. Any problem in the technology medium (e.g.,

80	internet, servers, collaboration software) directly affect communication among the
81	team members. This deterioration, in turn, may increase the probability of a conflict due
82	to misunderstanding or miscommunication [20]. Although face-to-face discussions are
83	more effective in overcoming conflicts [13], they may lead to group coalitions [14].
84	Other factors are also crucial for collaboration, like trust, perceived influence,
85	cohesiveness, and social interaction [11]. It is known that face-to-face collaborations are
86	more powerful in developing social norms, authority, group culture, and commitment
87	[12]. As in face-to-face collaboration, virtual collaboration also benefits from
88	relationships, shared understanding, and trust [21]. These socio-emotional factors that
89	affect the collaborative process should be considered when studying a collaborative
90	learning environment [22]. Virtual team collaboration impacts group member attraction
91	and task cohesion (i.e., an individual's attraction to the team because of a liking for or a
92	commitment to the group task) [23]. Virtual collaboration models like the ones
93	proposed by Alsharo et al. [7] and Choi and Cho [24] suggest that knowledge sharing
94	positively influences trust and collaboration among members, but trust does not have
95	any significant impact on team effectiveness. Other studies showed that there is lower
96	trust in virtual than face-to-face collaboration, but the level of trust increases towards
97	the end of a design activity [25]. In contrast to face-to-face collaboration, research has
98	shown that virtual team collaboration reduces the effect of personality, power or group
99	formations within teams [26] but could result in the polarization of the decisions [27].
100	From the past studies, it is clear that the performance of face-to-face teams differs from

101 virtually collaborating teams [17] as the elements that are useful in one collaboration
102 mode might not be effective in the other [6].

103 While virtual team collaboration is increasingly popular, there is little research 104 on the behavior and performance of virtual teams in engineering design. In contrast to 105 the rich literature found on the face-to-face collaboration environment, few studies 106 examine how virtual collaboration affects design team performance. Out of these few 107 studies on virtual collaboration, most have explored collaboration through software 108 tools like virtual worlds that assist designers [28,29]. Others have studied collaboration 109 in a distributed environment based on agent interaction or studied negotiation or conflict resolution during co-design sessions [30,31]. While most of the past literature 110 111 has focused on directly comparing the virtual and traditional face-to-face team 112 performance, the impact of collaboration elements such as project type or team 113 compositions in the two collaboration modes has not been given much attention [6]. For 114 example, certain collaboration elements might result in better virtual team 115 collaboration outcomes than in face-to-face. Hence, a wider research question is 116 identified that considers the effect of the individual, team, and task attributes during 117 virtual collaboration: 118 What is the effect of the two collaboration modes (i.e., virtual and face-to-face) 119 on design outcomes and design process? 120 This question is answered by using insights derived from an empirical study to 121 inform simulations in an agent-based model. The remainder of the paper is organized as 122 follows (see Figure 1). The paper begins with a description of the initial MILANO

modeling framework from prior work, which was built to simulate face-to-to-face
collaborations. The next section presents an empirical study designed to support the
modification of existing elements of MILANO to suit the virtual team collaboration
setting. The model is adjusted based on the empirical study and the existing literature,
to simulate virtual team collaboration. Test cases are defined, and the comparison of
the results of the virtual and face-to-face collaborations are presented to answer the
research question.



132 MODEL DESCRIPTION

133 Agent-based models have often been used to represent actual design sessions 134 [53, 57]. Such models have been built in the past to study different aspects such as 135 interactions [58, 59] and collaborative methods [60]. They have been also used to 136 simulate teamwork for different team types [54] and team structures [72]. The design 137 problem characteristics [61], problem-solving styles [53] and decision-making behavior 138 in agents during the early design phase [67] have been simulated to see the impact of 139 various model parameters on the team performance. Some models have varied the 140 agent characteristics like talkativeness, intelligence, and credibility to see their effect on 141 the emergence of leaders in teams [68]. As well as different types of learning have been 142 simulated in agents, for instance, collective learning where design team agents use input 143 knowledge, environmental information, and design goals [69], learning from experience

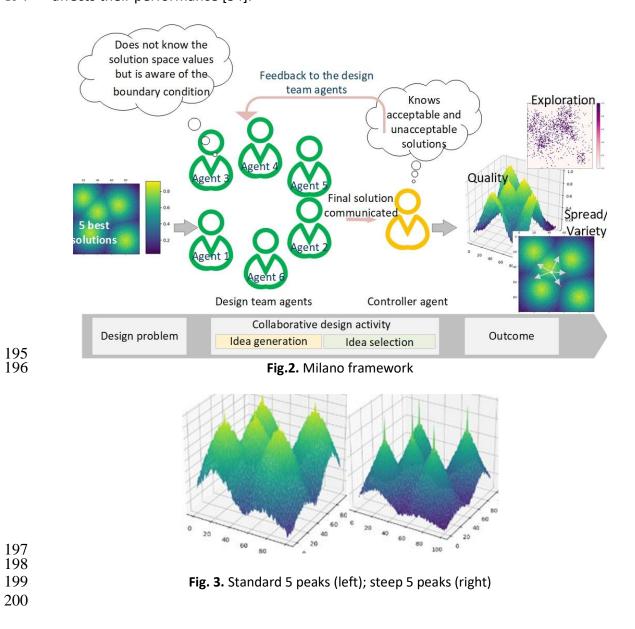
144	in agents [70] and social learning in agents [71]. From these studies, it is clear that
145	features that were crucial to fulfilling the aim of the work were considered as
146	implementing all of them would increase the computational load and would make it
147	more challenging to draw strong inferences.
148	The current work makes use of the Model of Influence, Learning, and Norms in
149	Organizations (MILANO) for simulating idea generation sessions [32] and concept
150	selection during co-design [33]. Like the real world, a MILANO simulation starts with a
151	design project that consists of multiple idea generation and selection sessions. Figure 2
152	shows one of these sessions in which designer agents generate solutions to a design
153	problem and propose a final solution to the controller agent (equivalent to a project
154	manager or similar) at the end of each session. The feedback from the controller agent
155	helps designer agents to learn and accordingly propose solutions in the following
156	session. The rest of this section details how design problems are represented in
157	MILANO, how designer agents carry out concept generation and selection, and how
158	designer agents with varying degrees of experience may be constructed.
159	
160	Design task
161	The design task drives many aspects of the simulation and should resemble real world
162	aspects of design. For instance, designers are often not immediately aware of the
163	quality of their solution and proceed by trial and error [32]. In this way, designing a
164	product resembles a search task where designers aim for acceptable solutions rather

165 than mathematical optimized solutions [66] like in the study that found that designers

166 tend to choose 'satisficing' solution concepts even when they were flawed [74]. Another

167	key aspect is that design tasks often have many below-average solutions with a few
168	solutions that have the highest value [32]. These characteristics of real-world design
169	tasks were considered in the construction of the computational design task solved
170	within the model.
171	In the model, a design task for which designer agents seek solutions is
172	computationally represented as an N-dimensional function where each dimension
173	denotes a design aspect (see Figure 2). Any point in the design space is a potential
174	solution and can have a value in the range [0, 1]. The design solution space is modelled
175	in such a way that there is a gradual slope between the best and worst solutions, hence
176	the subtle decrease in the hues around the best solution values (example can be seen
177	from Figure 2). An agent moves from one point on the design space to another and this
178	step taken by an agent is analogous to a designer exploring alternative solutions. The
179	results of the design outcome presented in the paper are related to the design space
180	with 5 peaks where peaks denote the best alternative options. The number of best
181	solutions or peak is analogous to the ease of finding a good solution for a conceptual
182	design problem (more details on this representation are provided in [32]). In this work, 2
183	aspects of a design (N=2) are considered for the prudent utilization of computational
184	resources and clear understanding of the designer agent teams. A similar design
185	problem representation was adopted for simulating teamwork based on differences in
186	cognitive style [53]. Other studies in problem-solving have also used a similar 1-D and 2-
187	D representation of the problem with peaks and valleys [54, 55].

188	The other parameter considered while representing a design problem is the
189	curvature of the peaks (steep or curved) which is analogous to the necessary level of
190	refinement or optimization during detailed design (as seen in Figure 3). Therefore,
191	having steeper peeks in the solution space would require additional detailed design
192	effort and increase the difficultly of a design task. Being able to modify the design task in
193	this way is crucial, as it is known that the nature of the task given to the participants
194	affects their performance [34].



201 Designer agents generating and selecting solutions

202 After the design task is given to the design team agents, they start generating 203 solutions. The designer agents individually generate solutions based on a detailed 204 process described in Singh et al. [32] and then propose the solutions to the team for 205 further processing [33]. All the designer agents are given the same set of rules that 206 determine their design behavior. However, this behavior is governed by the attributes of 207 the designer agents, including self-efficacy, influencing power, reputation, familiarity, 208 and trust. The influencing power perceived by an agent from its peer agent depends on 209 self-efficacy and trust between them, where trust is further affected by an agent's 210 reputation and familiarity (for more information on agent attributes see [32]). Each 211 agent explores the solution space based on its mental energy which decreases with the 212 length of an idea generation session. This results in a reduction in the size of steps taken 213 by an agent as it explores the design space, as the agent nears the end of a session. 214 Designer agents store both positive and negative experiences based on feedback from 215 the controller agent in past sessions. An agent learns from these experiences by 216 avoiding the area of the failures and moving in the direction of past success. Designer 217 agents also learn from their peers, based on a model of social influence which is built on 218 the differential self-efficacy and trust between the two designer agents. Trust in turn is 219 based on an agent's reputation (i.e., the ratio of the number of accepted solutions to 220 the total number of proposed solutions) and familiarity (i.e., the number of sessions the 221 two agents have in common). Influence, trust, and self-efficacy are all dynamic across 222 sessions. However, for the current work, influence values are pre-defined to create a

223	controlled environment. As mentioned earlier that influence depends on self-efficacy
224	and trust, since trust between the designer agents develops gradually with the design
225	sessions, self-efficacy value allotted to the designer agents at the beginning of the
226	simulation created influencers (i.e., designer agents having significantly higher self-
227	efficacy than other team agents were called influencers). More details on agent
228	behavior are provided in [32].

229 Idea selection follows idea generation as seen in Figure 2 [33]. In idea selection, 230 the designer agents propose their solutions to the team and the team collaboratively 231 decides which final solution to communicate to the controller agent. The probability of 232 an agent being selected to propose its solution depends on how the self-efficacy is 233 distributed in the team. An agent with high self-efficacy has a higher probability to 234 communicate their solution. Similar to real-world brainstorming sessions where similar 235 ideas may be combined, the designer agents in the model also combine their similar 236 proposed solutions. The computational similarity between the solutions is defined by 237 the distance between the solution points in the design space. The decision-making 238 during idea selection is affected by the presence of a highly confident individual in the 239 group as well as the majority effect 'caused by the presence of a critical mass of lavpeople sharing similar opinions [14]. For example, individuals having similar thinking 240 241 may strengthen their opinion and self-efficacy, hence, the majority effect. On the other 242 hand, if they are not confident about their option, they may be easily influenced by the 243 opinion of the influencer(s) in the team, hence the influencer effect. This gives rise to a 244 coalition group in teams as the opinions of individuals that are close to each other tends

245	to dominate the group judgment process. The cumulative self-efficacy of these coalition
246	groups is a major factor that decides the amount of agreement a team has on the
247	proposed solutions. The solutions with the maximum agreement are communicated to
248	the controller agent. Depending on the quality of the solution proposed, a controller
249	agent provides feedback to the team.
250 251	Experience in designer agents
252	Once the model is formed, it can be used to simulate different collaboration
253	scenarios by varying model parameters. For example, it is known that novice and
254	experienced individuals differ in their idea generation strategies [35]. In MILANO, a
255	novice agent is one that lacks exposure to problems or tasks which are similar to the one
256	currently being solved. In contrast, an experienced agent is one which has encountered
257	similar tasks before and therefore has extra knowledge of failure points. An
258	experienced agent has a tendency to work from its past known areas to solve the
259	current unknowns as it has worked on similar problems and recalls those experiences
260	when working on the current problem [35]. Novices, on the other hand, use trial-and-
261	error techniques to solve the current problem [35]. This may cause novices to take more
262	time to reach a satisfactory solution, as shown in prior work [36]. Designer agents who
263	have worked on a design task were stored in a pool as experienced agents. Then a few
264	agents from this experienced agent pool and some newly created agents were placed
265	together in a team to work on a design task (more details on the representation of
266	experience in MILANO are provided in [36]).

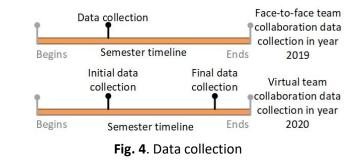
267	Like any other agent-based model that aims to mimic human activities, MILANO
268	also had some assumptions for example the most confident and trustful individuals
269	were considered influencers [32], the agreement in teams is affected by the influencers
270	[33] and experienced agents know the design space based on their past experience [36].
271	It should be noted that MILANO was originally conceived and implemented for
272	simulating face-to-face teams. Therefore, in order to understand and add some crucial
273	elements of virtual team collaboration, the following empirical study and some
274	supporting literature (as given in the virtual Team collaboration model section) were
275	used to adjust the original MILANO implementation.
276	
277	EMPIRICAL STUDY
278	As stated above, MILANO was initially constructed to simulate face-to-face
279	teams. Therefore, an empirical study was designed to expose the differences between
280	virtual and face-to-face collaboration, enabling these differences to be represented in
281	MILANO.
282 283	Experimental set-up
284	During the study, teams of 4 mechanical engineering graduate students worked
285	on a semester-long design task given by a company for a master's degree course on
286	
	Methods and Tools for Systematic Innovation at Politecnico di Milano, Italy. The design

288 domestic appliances like washing machines, dryers, dishwashers, refrigerators and air

289 conditioners. The teams had to choose one of the several design problems themes given

290 by the company (Appendix A). The structure of the course offers students to apply their 291 knowledge gathered from the lectures related to systematic innovation to a real-world 292 problem given by a company. The teams started with problem clarification, solution 293 generation and the idea selection phase where they selected the best solutions. These 294 teams were supervised by the teaching staff and received regular feedback from the 295 company experts during the design reviews throughout the semester. The design process 296 followed by the teams consisted of a typical divergent and convergent process 297 (generating and selecting solutions) for efficient problem-solving. The end outcome was 298 at least one conceptual design solution that aimed to solve one of the problems related 299 to electro-domestic appliances. The design scenario (lecture content and design review 300 dynamics) was kept similar for face-to-face and virtual collaboration settings.

301 Data was collected from 10 teams collaborating face-to-face in 2019, and for 15 virtual 302 teams in 2020. For each team, the data was collected in the form of online surveys. The 303 data collection was done as shown in Figure 4.





This information was collected for the empirical study (as seen in Table 1) as it forms the basis of collaboration affecting socio-emotional processes [22] such as social influence in design teams that give rise to influencers [32]. As such, they are important

309	factors in the MILANO framework. The self-efficacy questions for the face-to-face
310	collaboration were the same as [37] but the scale was changed from 10 to 4-point to
311	match the scale of the problem-solving attitude questions (not presented in this paper).
312	As the survey needed to be short and precise, the virtual collaboration questionnaire
313	consisted of a direct self-efficacy question. The question format for recording
314	respondents' trust, familiarity, degree of influence, agreement and communication with
315	each peer was inspired by [38]. The additional parameters were added to the virtual
316	collaboration questionnaire based on [23] as seen from Table 1 (more details could be
317	seen in Appendix B).

318

Table 1. Questionnaires elements during the empirical study

Common elen	nents of the 2 questionnair collaborati		019 and virtual team
	Elements	Scale	Range
Individual respondent data for itself	Self-efficacy	4 and 5- point Likert scale	1= least self-efficacy, 4 or 5 = maximum self- efficacy
	Perceived number of influencers	open-ended	-
Respondent's data for each of its	•	5-point Likert scale	1= least, 5 = maximum
peers	Trusting its peer	5-point Likert scale	1= least, 5 = maximum
	Familiarity with its peer	5-point Likert scale	1= least, 5 = maximum
Additional el	ements of the virtual team	i collaboration qu	estionnaire in 2020
Individual respondent data	Communication effectiveness	5-point Likert scale	1= least, 5 = maximum
for the team	Resolution of the conflicts	5-point Likert scale	1 =least, 5= maximum
	Task cohesion	5-point Likert scale	1= least, 5 = maximum
Respondent's data for each of its	Agreement with its peer	5-point Likert scale	1= least, 5 = maximum
peers	Communication with its peer	5-point Likert scale	1=least, 5= least or no conflicts and very efficient communication

- 319 In the following part of this section, the results from the individual data analysis 320 from the years 2019 and 2020 are discussed.
- 321 Empirical study findings

322 When analyzing the data from face-to-face and virtual collaboration, initial data 323 collected in 2020 was used as it matches the data collection time with the year 2019 324 (Figure 4). The difference in the information considered in face-to-face collaboration 325 and virtual collaboration can be seen in Figure 5. It is clear that the parameters shown in 326 Figure 5 behave differently when the collaboration mode changes from face-to-face to 327 virtual. Figure 5 shows the normalized values and p-values of the Mann Whitney U-test. 328 The parameters like self-efficacy and perceived degree of influence between the two 329 individuals have a higher value for the virtual collaboration. One reason for this trend 330 could be due to the efficient collaborative environment [39] where individuals feel more 331 confident about themselves than in classrooms or the better disposition of the 332 participants when collaborating remotely during the pandemic.

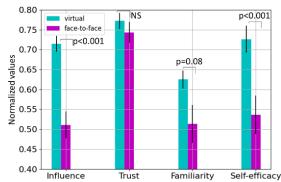
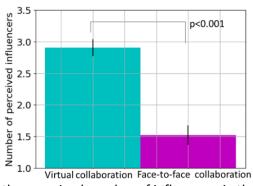


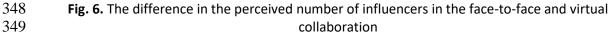
Fig. 5. The difference in the information in face-to-face and virtual collaboration during data analysis (NS = not significant)
 336

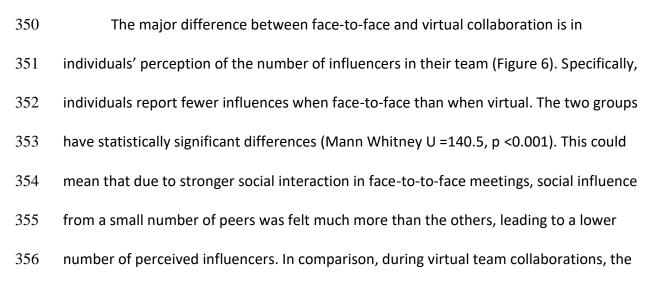
- 337 However, familiarity among individuals seems to be higher in virtual team
- 338 collaboration and is not significantly different from face-to-face collaboration. These

347

339 results conform to the studies which suggested that familiarity is not moderated by the 340 extent of virtualness [40]. In contrast, the trust did not significantly differ in virtual and 341 face-to-face collaborations. Studies suggest that trust, which is built through social 342 interaction in face-to-face meetings, might not necessarily be true for virtual team 343 collaborations [41]. Wilson et al. discovered that trust in computer-mediated teams was 344 lower but gradually increased to levels comparable to those in face-to-face teams over 345 time [42]. Since the presented empirical study has a low temporal resolution, no 346 conclusions can be drawn on trust-building in teams over time.





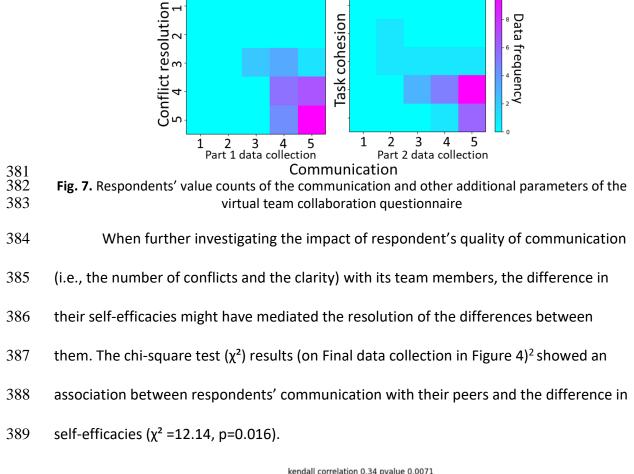


357 social interaction is not physical, hence, and the influence from peers is perceived more358 uniformly.

359 It is known that communication is key in any collaborative work [43]. In teams 360 collaborating face-to-face, communication is more likely to be initiated due to a higher 361 probability of chance encounters [12]. Hence, communication data was not collected in 362 face-to-face for its comparison with the virtual setting because it is already known that 363 virtual team collaboration suffers from effective communication [12] that give rise to 364 team conflicts [19] that affects design outcomes. Similarly, Figure 7 shows that those 365 individuals collaborating virtually who rated higher values for communication in their 366 teams also gave high scores to conflict resolution and task cohesion. Moreover, a 367 positive impact of effective communication on the number of conflicts arising in the 368 team (Kendall correlation coefficient τ =0.32, p= 0.05) when analyzing initial data (at the 369 beginning of 2020 in Figure 4) of the virtual team collaboration was found. However, no 370 such relationship between the two (communication and conflict resolution) was found 371 for data collected at the end of 2020 (Figure 4).

A stronger relationship can be seen between task cohesion (i.e., an individual's attraction to the team because of a liking for or a commitment to the group task [23]) and effective communication (Kendall correlation coefficient τ =0.5, p = 0.004) during the end of the design project (i.e., Final data collection Figure 4). This means that effective communication helps in resolving conflict or in enhancing clarity that prevents conflicts when the teams start working on a design project. While towards the end of the project, effective communication does not have any effect on the number of conflicts in a team

- 379 but improves task cohesion. Hinds and Mortensen, found in their work that
- 380 communication moderates the relationship between team distribution and conflict [44].



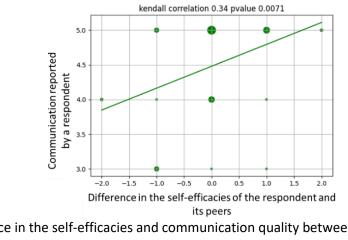


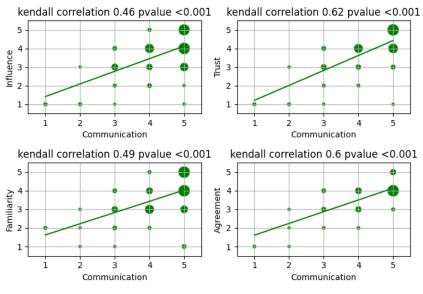


Fig. 8. Difference in the self-efficacies and communication quality between the respondent and
 their peers

² Initial data collected at the beginning of 2020 in Figure 4 had chi-square test significance value of 0.07.

393	The individuals who had higher self-efficacy than their peers (delta=positive)
394	entered higher value for effective communication with their peers, hence low conflict
395	probability (Figure 8). While respondents with lower self-efficacy than its peer entered
396	lesser communication. Figure 8 shows a positive correlation between the difference in
397	self-efficacies and communication (Kendall correlation coefficient τ =0.34, p =0.007). In
398	other words, the chances of having a disagreement are more when the respondent and
399	its peer have similar self-efficacies than when the respondent has higher self-efficacy
400	than the peer. Studies in the past have confirmed that self-efficacy affects an
401	individual's conflict style [45], where low self-efficacy is usually associated with conflict
402	avoidance.

403 Additionally, it was also found that respondents' communication with their team 404 members affected model parameters (Figure 9).



405 406

Fig. 9. The effect of communication of the model parameters

407 The relationship exists both in initial and final data (shown in Figure 4) but was stronger

408 for the data collected towards the end of the semester as shown in Figure 9. The

409	interpersonal attraction of a group member as described by [23] is considered a crucial
410	variable when the teams are collaborating at a distance. Similarly, a respondent's
411	perceived degree of influence from its peer that is considered for the current work is
412	also affected by communication between them (Kendall correlation coefficient τ =0.5, p
413	<0.001). The trust and familiarity between respondents and their peers also increase
414	with better communication (Kendall correlation coefficients τ =0.6 and 0.5 respectively
415	with p <0.001). Lastly, the amount of agreement a respondent had with its peers also
416	increases with communication between them (Kendall correlation coefficient τ =0.6,
417	p<0.001) as effective communication leads to clarity and conflict resolution [44].

418 VIRTUAL TEAM COLLABORATION MODEL

419

420 The insights from the empirical study are critical for informing the modification 421 of the MILANO framework [32-33] for addressing virtual teams. When considering the 422 empirical study, it is clear that the behavior of face-to-face teams differs from virtual 423 teams. The latter part of the empirical study also demonstrated how these relevant 424 model parameters are influenced by additional virtual team collaboration variables like 425 communication. The results of the empirical study were used to update the variable 426 relationships implemented in the model and not the exact coefficient. The remainder of 427 this section details several updates made to MILANO. 428 Team virtuality and technology impacting communication

In contrast to the rich interaction and better communication during face-to-facework, there is evidence that communication frequency decreases with physical

431 separation in teams [46]. However, many of these observations were made decades 432 ago, when virtual collaboration technology was in its infancy. With the development of 433 more advanced technology in the past ten years, the relationship between 434 communication and distance is now mediated by a variety of effective collaborative 435 technologies [19]. These are taken into consideration in Equation 1, where 436 communication effectiveness (η) depends on technology mediation (τ) and the degree 437 of team virtuality (V_d), while ε is the shape parameter.

438
$$\eta = \frac{\varepsilon}{(\varepsilon - 1) + e^{(\tau V_d)}}$$
(1)

439 τ ranges from 0.3-0.7 and V_d ranges from 0.0-4.0, (in order to constrain communication 440 efficiency in the domain [0 1]). The value of ε changes ranges between 1-2 times the s' 441 (for example s' =10, in this case). This gives the desired behavior of least communication 442 effectiveness when completely virtual team collaboration has the worst technology 443 mediation. The model assumes that when the teams are face-to-face, the 444 communication is most effective, thus the value of communication effectiveness (η) is 445 close to 1 (i.e., maximum effective communication).

446 **Communication affecting conflicts**

The past literature showed that effective communication among the team members helps in resolving conflicts [44]. However, the empirical study showed a weak relationship between communication and the number of conflicts emerging in the team. One possible reason revealed in the study was the difference in the self-efficacies of the two individuals (ΔSE). This means that if the two individuals have similar self-efficacy

452 ($\Delta SE \approx 0$), there is a higher probability of conflict or disagreement. Hence, Equation 2 453 can be formed to map this behavior, where the conflict factor (κ) depends on the 454 effectiveness of the communication (η) and θ . θ governs the conflict factor based on 455 the difference in the self-efficacies of the two designer agents (Equation 3).

456
$$\kappa = \frac{\theta}{(\theta - 1) + e^{\frac{\theta}{2}\eta}}$$
(2)

457
$$\theta = m + p \, \Delta S E_{i-j} \tag{3}$$

458 *m* in the above equation determines the slope of the curve and ranges from 0-2 (0 when 459 the two designer agents (*i* and *j*) have similar high self-efficacies and 2 when one of the 460 agents has higher self-efficacy than the other). To get the desired function value 461 between 0-1, p was taken as 2 for the current model simulation. Conflict probability is 462 determined by comparing κ to a random number between 0-1. If κ , which also depends 463 on ΔSE_{i-i} is greater than the generated random number then the chance of having a 464 conflict is more when the two agents have similar high self-efficacies. However, in this 465 way, the model does not eliminate the chance of having any conflicts between a high 466 and a low self-efficacy agent.

467 **Reduction in influence between team members**

Factors like trust, positive mutual regard, mutual attraction, cohesiveness, and social interaction are crucial for collaboration [11] and some of these are affected by communication mediated by technology [19]. Research in the past has shown that physical distance reduces the development of friendships or attraction, making conflict more likely [19, 23]. It was also seen from the above empirical study that good

473 communication between two individuals results in a higher influence value. Therefore,
474 the model considers the conflict between the two designer agents (κ) and reduces the
475 influence value as perceived by one agent from the other (Equation 4).

476
$$\Delta I_i^j = a \cdot \kappa^b \tag{4}$$

Where ΔI is the reduction in the influence value (*I*) of an agent *j* by agent *i*, and *a* (slope parameter) and *b* (power coefficient) were selected as 0.5 and 2 respectively. Influence value I_i^j as given in Equation 5 for face-to-face collaboration is the influence value perceived by agent *i* from *j* [32]. Where ΔSE = difference in self-efficacy of agent *i* and agent *j*, and *T* is the degree of trust of agent *i* has on agent *j*. *SE* is the self-efficacy of an agent *j*.

483
$$I_i^j(\Delta SE, SE, T) = w_1(\Delta SE_{i-j})^{1.5} + w_2(SE^j) + w_3(T_i^j)$$
(5)

484 Therefore, the influence $I_{\nu_i}^{j}$ during virtual team collaboration is reduced by ΔI_i^{j}

485 depending on the conflict and could be given as Equation 6. The weights w_1 , w_2 and w_3 486 were taken as 0.3, 0.3 and 0.4 respectively. More details on influence and trust rationale 487 could be found in Singh et al. [32].

488
$$I_{\nu_i}^{\ j} = I_i^j (\Delta SE, SE, T) - \Delta I_i^j (\kappa)$$
(6)

489

Gradual trust in virtual team members

Trust is one of the most important antecedents of virtual collaboration and over time trust may change [21]. From the above empirical study, little difference could be seen in the mean trust values (*T*) for virtual and face-to-face collaborations. As the empirical study was done at specific times, it doesn't capture the building of trust among team members. Studies also suggest that the communication medium alters the

495	rate at which trust develops in teams working electronically [42]. Specifically, they have
496	found that trust in electronic teams is lower than face-to-face collaborations at the
497	beginning but gradually becomes comparable. Similarly, other studies like the one by
498	DeRosa et al. mentioned that trust develops slowly in virtual teams than in face-to-face
499	teams [26]. Therefore, trust-building between the two designer agents for virtual
500	collaboration (T_{ν}) is lower and develops gradually than in face-to-face teams (Equation
501	7).

502
$$T_{v_i}^{\ j} = \lambda \cdot T_i^{\ j} \tag{7}$$

503 Where λ is a factor that results in gradual trust-building and lies between 0.7-1.0 (1 504 when the team is completely face-to-face).

505 SIMULATION METHODOLOGY

506 Studies in the past have shown that knowledge, skills, abilities, and other 507 characteristics of individuals when working virtually differs from those working face-to-508 face [49]. Individual characteristics like personality and experience, team composition, 509 and task features are also important in virtual team collaboration and their impact is 510 different from face-to-face [50, 51, 52]. In order to assess the impact of collaboration 511 mode (face-to-face and virtual) on design outcomes, the cases shown and described in 512 Figure 10 were simulated through the model.

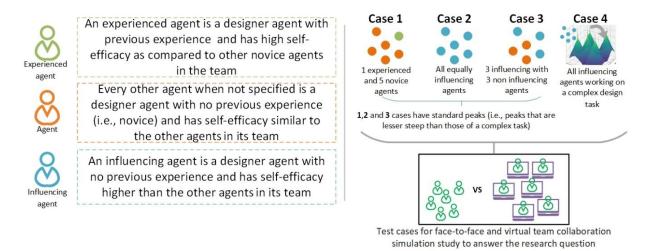




Fig. 10. Simulated test cases

515 These test cases were also recommendations by Powell et al. where issues 516 related to input, output, task and socio-emotional processes during an early virtual team 517 collaboration were identified [6]. As such, the cases used here represent common 518 design team collaboration conditions. For example, the first test case as seen in Figure 519 10 consists of a very common scenario where a design team has one experienced 520 individual in it. It would be interesting to see how the team in the first test case would 521 function in different collaborating modes. Similarly, cases like the second and third 522 simulate other commonly observed scenarios where the distribution of social influence (because of one's confidence and trust level) results in influencers. The fourth case sees 523 524 the changes due to the design task with respect to the collaboration mode. 525 The above test cases were simulated for virtual and face-to-face collaboration 526 scenarios where the extremes were considered (i.e., the degree of team virtuality was 527 maximum and technology mediation was bad with pure face-to-face collaboration) to 528 observe more variation. The results in the following section are obtained and based on

529 200 simulations to reduce the randomness. The design outcome from the

530 computational agent teams was measured in terms of quality solutions (value or utility)

531 [47] and exploration [48]. The quality of the solution is the value of a point on a design

solution space. Exploration on the other hand was further measured in three different

533 ways as given below.

534 *Exploration index (EI)* is the of solutions explored on a lower resolution solution space 535 (S_{exp}) to the area of this lower resolution space (A_{lr}) . The resolution of the design space 536 was reduced to avoid having an inaccuracy that could arise from near and far 537 exploration; for example, when an agent explores 4 immediate neighbor cells to an 538 agent exploring 4 cells at a larger distance.

$$EI = S_{exp}/A_{lr} \tag{8}$$

540 *Exploration quality index (EQI)* is the ratio of the number of the explored solution above 541 a certain threshold, t (in this case t is 0.5, where 0 is a minimum and 1 is a maximum 542 solution quality value) on a reduced resolution solution space (S_q) to the total number of 543 solutions available on the design solution space greater than the threshold value (TS_{lr}).

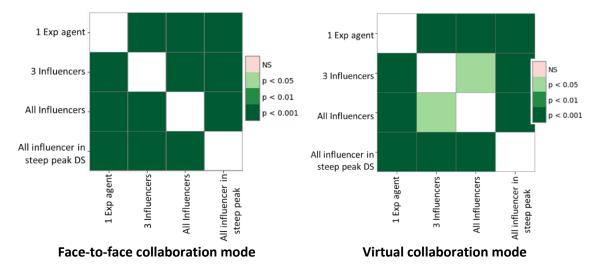
 $EQI = S_q / TS_{lr}$ (9)

545 *Spread* is the dispersion of the solutions. It is calculated by getting the distance between 546 each solution from the centroid of all the solutions on a design space. The variation in 547 these distances (i.e., the distance between a solution and centroid) gives the idea about 548 how the solutions are located on a design space. The spread shows how different the 549 solutions are from each other; in other words, it exhibits variety in the solutions. 550 If S is a set of n proposed solutions on a design space having 2 design variables, $S = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$. The coordinates of a centroid $c = (c_1, c_2)$, are 551 calculated as $(c_1, c_2) = (\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i, \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i)$. The average distance μ from that 552 centroid is $\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} ||S_i - c||$, where $||S_i - c||$ is the Euclidean distance d given as 553 $d = \sqrt{(x_i - c_1)^2 + (y_i - c_2)^2}$. The spread or the variety among the solutions can be 554 555 calculated as the standard deviation of these distances from the centroid (as given in 556 Equation 10). Where N is the total number of distances between the solution 557 coordinates and the centroid.

558
$$Spread = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (d_j - \mu)^2}$$
 (10)

559 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

560 The simulation results related to the quality of the solutions generated by 561 designer agents in the teams (of the 4 cases shown in Figure 10) in the two collaboration 562 modes differed significantly from each other (Figure 11).

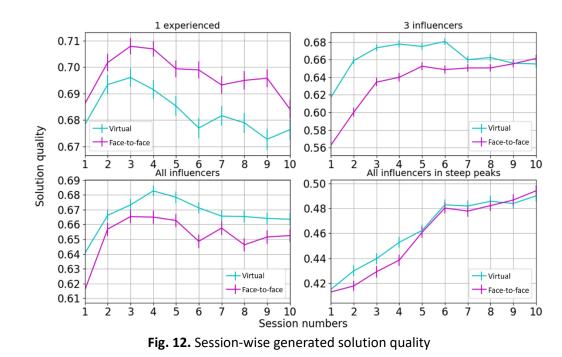


563Fig. 11. Post hoc pairwise T-test p-value plot (after Holm correction) for generated solution564quality during face-to-face (left) and virtual (right) collaboration mode

565	The session-wise difference in the individual designer agents' generated solution
566	quality in cases that were tested was lesser in virtual than face-to-face team
567	collaboration (Figure 12). The minor changes can be observed from Figure 12 in the
568	session-wise behavior related to the generated quality of designer agents in all
569	influencer teams both in virtual and face-to-face collaboration mode. Designer agents in
570	an all-influencer team generate slightly higher solution quality when in virtual
571	collaboration mode. As expected from the designer agents in the all- influencer teams in
572	steep peak design space configuration produced the least solution quality (due to the
573	nature of the design task). The session-wise difference in the behavior of designer
574	agents in the all-influencer teams when generating solutions to a design problem that is
575	difficult to refine (i.e., all influencers in steep peaks) in both virtual and face-to-face
576	collaboration is also trivial. One possible reason could be the similar state of designer
577	agents (i.e., similar self-efficacy among all of them), which resulted in similar behavior in
578	an individual designer agent when generating solutions. It could be inferred that if all
579	individuals in a team are equally confident, the mode of collaboration does not have a
580	significant effect on individual designer agent's idea generation quality.
581	The generated solution quality of the individual designer agents who have

different cognitive states (i.e., unequal distribution of self-efficacy) in teams, is more diverse in both the collaboration mode. Studies in past have shown that experienced designers who have task high proficiency drives the team design process and thus the team performance [62]. Similarly, as expected, the designer agents in teams with one influencing agent who is also experienced, generate better solution quality than all

- 587 other tested cases and this difference is significant when the teams are collaborating 588 face-to-face. In general, virtual team collaboration might be more effective when the 589 influencing power is in half of the team members (3 influencers) than face-to-face.
- 590 While the opposite might be true when there is an experienced individual in a team.



593 The teams in the tested cases show different session-wise exploration rate 594 patterns (Figure 13). The exploration rate can be defined as the number of unique 595 solutions explored during a session. It can be seen that all influencer team's exploration 596 rate increases drastically after initial sessions till mid-project and then plateaus for face-597 to-face collaboration. While in the virtual collaboration it gradually increases after initial 598 sessions till the end of the project. For all influencer team in steep design space (i.e., 599 complex design task) session-wise exploration rate in virtual collaboration decreases till 600 the middle of the design project and then gradually increases later.

601	The session-wise exploration rate for teams with a well-defined one experienced
602	influencer is higher (both in virtual and face-to-face) than other team compositions as
603	the experienced agent knows which areas are safe to explore. In general, a team with an
604	experienced agent when collaborating virtually explores less towards the end of a
605	project than when face-to-face. On the other hand, the team where half of the designer
606	agents had higher self-efficacy than the others (3 influencers) explored the design space
607	more when collaborating virtually. Another interesting thing to notice in the exploration
608	rate is the similarity between the 3 influencers and all influencers team in the virtual
609	collaboration after a few initial sessions. This behavior requires further investigation.

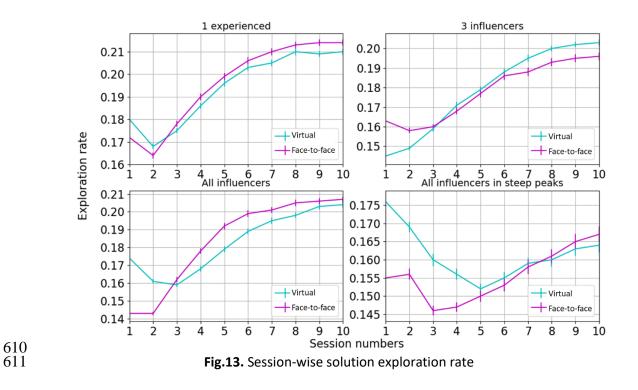
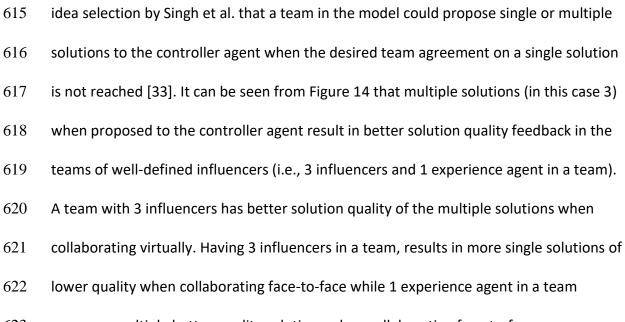
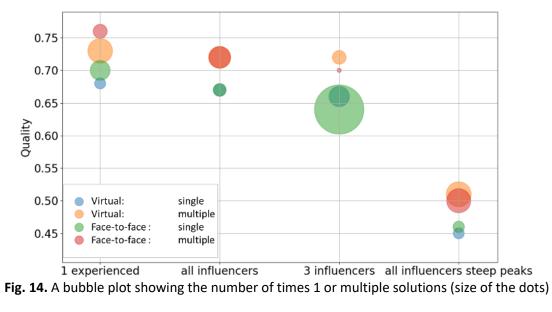


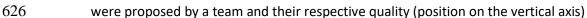
Figure 14 shows the bubble plot where the size of the bubble is defined by the number of times a team proposed single or multiple solutions to the controller agent and the quality of these solutions. Similar to the real design session as described in the

624 625





623 proposes multiple better-quality solutions when collaborating face-to-face.



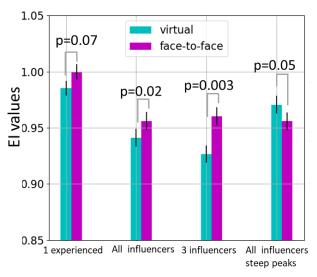
From Figure 14 a more distinct behavior of teams with all designer agents having
similar self-efficacy (i.e., all influencers) can be seen than those of the well-defined
influencers. All influencer teams produce similar quality when proposing multiple
solutions either virtually or face-to-face (Figure 14). These teams when working on a

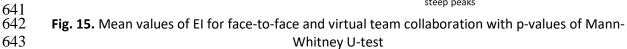
631 difficult design task (i.e., steep slopes where the solutions are hard to refine) show a

632 slight difference in the quality where proposed multiple solutions in virtual mode have

633 better quality.

The exploration index (EI) and the exploration quality index (EQI) are seen in Figure 15. It can be seen that the EI of the teams with 3 and all influencers differ significantly in two collaboration modes, where face-to-face collaboration had more exploration of the design space. While the teams with a well-defined one influencer with past experience (1 experienced) and teams working on a complex design task (All influencers in steep peaks) show a less significant difference in their exploration with respect to the collaboration environment.





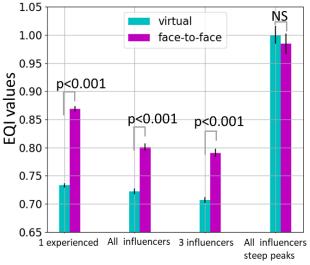
644 Figure 16 shows a significant difference in EQI values of all the team

645 compositions in the two collaboration modes except teams working on a complex task.

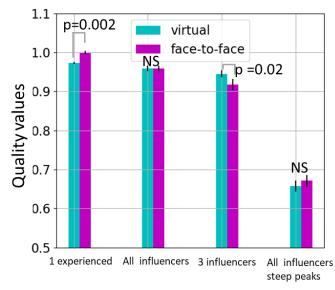
646 For a simple design task (design task with less steep peaks), face-to-face team

647 collaboration results in a better quality of the explored solutions than virtual team

648 collaboration.



649 650 Fig. 16. Mean values of EQI for face-to-face and virtual team collaboration with p-values of T-651 test (NS = not significant) 652 The evaluation of the final solutions that were proposed by the teams to the 653 controller agent in terms of quality and diversity (spread) in them can be seen in Figures 654 17 and 18. Similar to the generated solutions, no significant difference can be seen in 655 the quality of the final solutions proposed (Figure 17) by a team having similar self-656 efficacy (i.e., all influencers) do not differ in the two collaboration modes. This 657 difference is also insignificant when the designer agents in all influencers team, work on 658 a complex design task. However, a significant difference can be seen in the teams with 659 well-defined influencers. Teams with an experienced agent result in better solution 660 quality when working face-to-face while those with half influencers produce better 661 quality when working virtually.



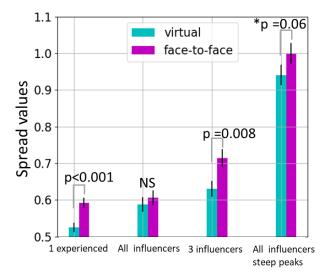
662
 663 Fig. 17. Mean values of final quality for face-to-face and virtual team collaboration with p-values
 664 of Mann-Whitney U-test (NS = not significant)

665 The diversity in the proposed solutions by the teams (Figure 18) differ

666 significantly for the teams with well-defined influencers (1 experienced and 3

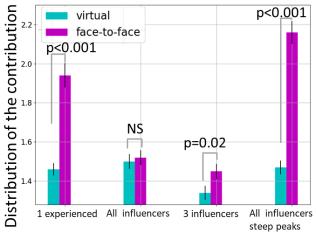
667 influencers teams), where face-to-face collaboration results in more spread. No or low

- 668 significant difference can be seen in the spread values for the teams with no well-
- 669 defined influencers (all influencers) when working virtually or face-to-face.



671Fig. 18. Mean values of final solution spread for face-to-face and virtual team collaboration with672p-values of T-test (p* is of Mann-Whitney U-test, NS = not significant)

673	The contribution can be defined as the number of times an agent proposed its
674	solution to the other team members. Figure 19 shows the significant difference (T-test p
675	values) in the contribution distribution in the teams in the two collaboration modes. In
676	general, face-to-face team collaborations results in only a few designer agents
677	continuously proposing solutions throughout a design project, hence higher distribution
678	value. On the contrary, virtual team collaboration causes a more uniform proposing of
679	solutions in its teams. This difference seems to be more significant in the case of well-
680	defined influencers (1experienced and 3 influencers). Unlike, teams of designer agents
681	with similar self-efficacies working on a complex design task (all influencers in steep
682	peaks), these teams when working on a less complex task produce no significant
683	difference in their team member contribution when the collaboration mode changes.
684	Some studies in the past also found that virtual teams distributed the contributions
685	among the team members and only a few selected team members contributed in the
686	collocated teams [56].



687 688 Fig. 19. The distribution of the contribution for face-to-face and virtual team collaboration with p-values of T-test (NS = not significant)

689

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690 **CONCLUSION**

691 Virtual team collaboration has the potential to revolutionize work as it offers 692 levels of flexibility and convenience that are not present in traditional face-to-face 693 collaboration. This work sought to answer the research question: What is the effect of 694 the two collaboration modes (i.e., virtual and face-to-face) on design outcomes and 695 design process? In doing so, an agent-based model was constructed based on empirical 696 study results that showed that face-to-face model parameters used in MILANO differed 697 from those needed to simulate virtual collaboration. The empirical study found that 698 communication in virtual collaboration affects other MILANO parameters. These results 699 facilitated the simulation of both face-to-face and virtual teams. The primary results 700 from those simulations are: 701 When self-efficacy is equally distributed in a team, the impact of the collaboration 702 mode (i.e., virtual and face-to-face) on idea generation and selection is minimized. 703 The solution quality of the teams with consistent high self-efficacy individuals in 704 virtual collaboration was comparable to that achieved in face-to-face settings. This 705 effect was robust across different levels of design task complexity. 706 The effect of design team collaboration mode (i.e., virtual or face-to-face) is more 707 prominent when the influence is not uniformly distributed in teams. The impact of 708 an influencer who is also experienced is more evident in the face -to face 709 collaborations than virtual. However, when half of the small design team members 710 are more confident than the others, virtual collaboration mode results in better 711 quality.

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Patterns of exploration differ in the two collaboration modes. Specifically, less
 exploration was observed in virtual mode than in face-to-face for a simple design
 task. Virtual collaboration also tends to result in less variety in the proposed
 solutions.

Virtual team collaboration encourages more uniform contributions by all team
 members. This difference is more significant when the teams have well-defined
 influencers or work on a complex design task.

719 The model considers some of the many parameters to capture the important 720 differences between virtual and face-to-face design settings. As the complexity of an 721 agent-based model increases, the generalizability of the model reduces. Therefore, it is 722 important to be explicit on how far one can take the results presented through the 723 agent-based model. The finding presented in the paper are based on certain model 724 parameters and changing these parameters may vary the results. For example, the 725 results were related to a design problem that had 5 best solutions, however, increasing 726 the number of best solutions (for example to 12 peaks) or having only one best solution 727 could produce different outcomes. The two-dimension representation of the design 728 space used less computation power and was effective in visualization agent behavior. In 729 the future, it could be expanded to more dimensions. The learning rules given to agents 730 limit the exact imitation of human designers. While simulating virtual and face-to-face 731 collaboration, factors such as gender roles, informal communications, experience, 732 interaction style, and cognitive biases were not considered during this work. Moreover, 733 the results shown in the empirical studies were based on self-reported data collected at

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734	specific times. This empirical data did not directly capture how many times the teams
735	generated and selected ideas. In the future, this study should be replicated on a larger
736	scale to reveal the impact of factors like the team demographic composition, size of the
737	teams, and task complexity on the design process and outcomes. This is necessary to
738	fully validate the results of this model as well as continuously improve the modelling
739	approach.
740	The work showed that the mode of collaboration (virtual and face-to-face) has more
741	impact on some teams than others. This unlocks the questions on combing the elements
742	of virtual and face-to-face collaboration that could result in the best design outcomes.
743	For instance, having face-to-face team collaboration before the same team starts
744	working virtually could result in better cohesion as the team members get familiar with
745	each other. At the same time, this setup could reduce social loafing (which mainly
746	occurs in face-to-face collaboration) that lowers team performance. This aspect of
747	successfully combining the elements of virtual and face-to-face collaboration should be
748	studied in the future.

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989 APPENDIX A

- 990 Design Brief
- 991
- 992 Since the *company* X^3 was a leader in the production of the mechatronic components for
- 993 household appliances in Europe, the design themes proposed by them consisted of the
- 994 following:
- 995

Table 2. Description of the design themes during the empirical study

Themes for	Platform	Current issue	Desired	Conditions
the year 2019			function	
No-Frost	Refrigerator	The moisture in	A system	Impact on individual
Refrigerator		the air freezes on	should be able	outlets and all
		the fridge	to differentiate	outlets of a
		surfaces.	the air coming	refrigerator should
			from the	be considered.
			freezer and	Using just one
			deviate it to the	actuator (12V) was
			desired zone.	allowed.
				The maximum power
				allowed was 4 W.
				The solution should
				have reasonable
				costs and must be
				able to fit in the

³ The company name will be updated in the final draft

				available
				refrigerators.
Microplastics	Washing	The friction	The system	A solution should
when washing	Machine	among clothes,	should be able	integrate into the
		and between the	to avoid the	appliance (i.e., the
		drum and the	dispersion of	washing machine of
		clothes shed	trapped	volume = 200 l x 150
		microfibers in the	microfibres in	w x 100 h (mm))
		water.	the	The solution should
			environment.	trap microfibers
				(0.03 to 0.3 mm:
				Appreciable, and >
				0.3 mm: Necessary).
Themes for	Platform	Current issue	Desired	Conditions
the year 2020			function	
Dryer Fluff	Tumble	The user has to	Reduce the	The overall
	Dryer	clean the fluff at	number of user	dimension of the
		the end of every	interactions	filters housings must
		cycle.	needed for fluff	be respected.
		Safety and	removing (from	Fluff cannot be
		efficiency issues.	1 to 10 drying	drained in the water
			cycles)	circuit.

Dishwasher	Dishwasher	High energy	The solution	Modification of
Drying		consumption due	should result in	components
		to hot water	low energy	currently inside the
		usage.	consumption	dishwasher was
		Water vapour is	drying.	allowed.
		being released in		
		the ambient.		
Air	Air	The drainage	The solution	Addition and (or)
Conditioner	Conditioner	system has issues	must avoid the	modification of the
Condensation		like stagnation,	formation of	current splits were
		walls	condensation	allowed.
		modifications and	and its	A non-invasive
		leakages.	accumulation	solution.
			on the splits.	
Washing	Washing	Paddles currently	Additional	Compatibility with
Machine	Machine	have a single	useful functions	the current system.
Paddles		function.	for paddles.	
Open Theme	Any	Find and address	Satisfy	Modification of
	electrical	the issues	user/customer	components
	appliance	users/customers	need	currently inside the
		are currently		systems was allowed.
		facing when		However, the
				solution must have a

operating these	low impact on
appliances	general platform
	design.

996

997 **APPENDIX B**

998

Table 3. Description of the elements in the questionnaires during the empirical study

Common elements of Description

the two questionnaires

Self-efficacy	It was explained as respondent's belief in its capacity to execute behaviors
	necessary to complete a task or achieve goals [32, 37]. Where;
	5 = very confident in your capacity to execute behaviors necessary to
	complete a task or achieve goals.
	1 = not at all confident in your capacity to execute behaviors necessary to
	complete a task or achieve goals.
Perceived number of	It was explained as the number of team member that respondent thinks
influencers	are most influential and are governing the team process the design
	activity [32,33]
Perceived degree of	It was explained as a peer's influential nature that causes a respondent to
influence from its peer	follow peer's actions of generating solutions and keeping into account the
	peer's proposed solution when the respondent is generating its own
	solutions [32,33]. Where;
	5 = You follow his/her techniques and actions of generating innovative
	solutions. You always keep into account his/her proposed solution into

account while generating your own solutions. You agree to him/her most of the time.

1= You never follow his/her techniques and actions of generating innovative solutions. You never consider his/her proposed solution into account while generating your own solutions. You never agree with him/her.

Trusting its peer
It was explained as having respondent's confidence/faith/hope in a peer
with its proposed solutions and ability to do design activities [32]. Where;
5 = You feel assured and can rely on his/her character, ability or strength.
You always place your confidence/faith/hope in him/her with his/her
proposed solutions and the ability to do project activities

1= You never feel assured and can never place your confidence/faith/hope in him/her with his/her proposed solutions and the ability to do project activities

FamiliaritywithitsIt was explained as the state of acquaintance between the respondentpeerwith its peer [73]. Where;

5 = You would consider yourself in close acquaintance with him/her and know his/her working style

1= You would consider yourself not at all acquainted with him/her and do not know his/her working style.

Additional elements of Description

the questionnaire

during virtual

collaboration

Communication	It was explained as a process of sharing information (exchanging ideas,			
effectiveness	thoughts and knowledge) such that the purpose or intention is fulfilled in			
	the best possible manner. Where;			
	5= Effective conversations when exchanging ideas, thoughts and			
	knowledge during project work. You find the conversations clear.			
	1= Ineffective conversations when exchanging ideas, thoughts and			
	knowledge during project work. You do not understand others when			
	they are conversing their ideas.			
Resolution of the	It was explained as the encounters or disagreements that occurred while			
conflicts	doing the project activity. These could be related to the task (eg.			
	disagreements on ideas, work distributions and so on) or emotional			
	(annoyance, envy, or personality) [23]. Where;			
	5= The team never faced situations where the opposition of persons or			
	forces gave rise to dramatic action. The team never had any serious			
	disagreements or arguments			
	1= Many times the team faced situations where the opposition of			
	persons or forces gave rise to dramatic action. The team had many			
	serious disagreements or arguments			
Task cohesion	It was asked as a respondent's attraction to the group because of its			
	liking for or a commitment to the given task (i.e. task-specific			
	teamwork)[23]. Where;			
	5= Members demonstrate their desire to do well on the project and pull			
	together to get the job done			

1= Members do not demonstrate their desire to do well on the project nor do they get the job done

Agreement with its It was explained as the situation in which the respondent had the peer same opinion as of the peer, or in which it approves of or accepts something from the peer [33]. Where;

5 = You always agreed with him/her on his/her ideas and solutions

1 = You never agreed with him/her on his/her ideas and solutions.

Communication with It was asked to capture how often the respondent's communication with its peer individual peers in the team was smooth (fluent) during the project activity.

Where;

- 5 = You had no conflicts and were always able to understand him/her.
- 1 = You always had conflicts and were never able to understand him/her.