

Multiple Team Membership and Empowerment Spillover Effects: Can Empowerment Processes Cross Team Boundaries?

Gilad Chen
University of Maryland

Troy A. Smith
University of Nebraska-Lincoln

Bradley L. Kirkman
North Carolina State University

Pengcheng Zhang
Huazhong University of Science and Technology

G. James Lemoine
University at Buffalo, The State University of New York

Jiing-Lih Farh
China Europe International Business School

In today's organizations, employees are often assigned as members of multiple teams simultaneously (i.e., multiple team membership), and yet we know little about important leadership and employee phenomena in such settings. Using a scenario-based experiment and 2 field studies of leaders and their employees in the People's Republic of China and the United States, we examined how empowering leadership exhibited by 2 different team leaders toward a single employee working on 2 different teams can spillover to affect that employee's psychological empowerment and subsequent proactivity across teams. Consistent across all 3 studies, we found that each of the team leaders' empowering leadership uniquely and positively influenced an employee's psychological empowerment and subsequent proactive behaviors. In the field studies, we further found that empowering leadership exhibited by one team leader influenced the psychological empowerment and proactive behaviors of their team member not only in that leader's team but also in the other team outside of that leader's stewardship. Finally, across studies, we found that empowering leadership exhibited on one team can substitute for lower levels of empowering leadership experienced in a different team led by a distinct leader. We discuss our contributions to the motivation, teams, and leadership literatures and provide practical guidance for leaders charged with managing employees that have multiple team memberships.

Keywords: multiple team membership, leadership, empowerment, proactivity, spillover

Supplemental materials: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/apl0000336.supp>

Over the past 30 years, there has been a sharp increase in not only the use and study of work teams but also the different forms of teaming and team-based structures that organizations adopt (Edmondson, 2012; Kozlowski & Bell, 2013; Mathieu, Hollen-

beck, van Knippenberg, & Ilgen, 2017). Because of the increasing complexity of work and pressure for organizations to be as efficient as possible, employees are often required to simultaneously work on multiple project/work teams (i.e., multiple team member-

Editor's Note. Talya N. Bauer served as the action editor for this article.—GC

Human Resources Management, China Europe International Business School.

This article was published Online First July 30, 2018.

Gilad Chen, Department of Management and Organization, Robert H. Smith School of Business, University of Maryland; Troy A. Smith, Department of Management, College of Business, University of Nebraska-Lincoln; Bradley L. Kirkman, Department of Management, Innovation, and Entrepreneurship, Poole College of Management, North Carolina State University; Pengcheng Zhang, Department of Business Management, School of Management, Huazhong University of Science and Technology; G. James Lemoine, Department of Organization and Human Resources, School of Management, University at Buffalo, The State University of New York; Jiing-Lih Farh, Department of Organizational Behavior and

The work described in this article was partially supported by a grant from the Research Grants Council of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, China (Project 16505315) awarded to Jiing-Lih Farh and Gilad Chen, and by grants from the National Natural Science Foundation of China (71572066, 71172090) awarded to Pengcheng Zhang. We thank Ian MacFarlane and Kerry Sauley for their assistance and helpful advice in this research.

Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Gilad Chen, Department of Management and Organization, Robert H. Smith School of Business, University of Maryland, 4538 Van Munching Hall, College Park, MD 20742. E-mail: giladchen@rhsmith.umd.edu

ship; Espinosa, Cummings, Wilson, & Pearce, 2003). Indeed, O’Leary, Mortensen, and Woolley (2011, p. 461) reported that “65 to 95 percent of knowledge workers across a wide range of industries and occupations in the United States and Europe are members of more than one project team at a time.” In line with this, it is estimated that up to 71 million employees in the United States simultaneously report to more than one supervisor (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2012). In assigning employees to multiple teams, often led by different leaders, organizations strive to better leverage talent by enhancing collective learning and productivity as well as further develop employees by providing them with a wider variety of teamwork experiences (Milgrom & Roberts, 1992; O’Leary et al., 2011).

To date, there has been scant research on multiple team memberships (see Kozlowski & Bell, 2013; Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008), and extant research has focused primarily on structural aspects, such as how the number and variety of teams to which members belong impact team member effectiveness. For example, O’Leary et al. (2011) theorized that the number and variety of simultaneous team memberships affect individual and team learning and productivity. Empirically, some studies showed that employees experience stress and role overload when working on multiple teams simultaneously (Pluut, Flestea, & Curşeu, 2014; Zika-Viktorsson, Sundstrom, & Engwall, 2006), and that employees can enhance a focal team’s performance when allocating more time to their work on that focal team—especially when team members are geographically dispersed (Cummings & Haas, 2012).

Even though initial work on multiple team memberships has provided insightful information, important questions remain regarding the complex interplay between teams and their employees in these contexts. In particular, it remains unclear whether (and, if so, how) social influences affecting employees in one team impact psychological reactions and behaviors of those same employees beyond the realm of that team. Moreover, with very few exceptions (e.g., Vidyarthi, Erdogan, Anand, Liden, & Chaudhry, 2014), the leadership literature has focused primarily on how a single leader influences employees. As such, scholars have yet to examine whether multiple team leaders can influence employee behaviors simultaneously across the multiple teams in which they work. For example, does a leader’s influence directed at a team member in one team spillover to affect that employee’s motivation to contribute positively to other teams led by different leaders? And, importantly, do these effects occur above and beyond the direct

impact of the leadership behaviors experienced in those other teams?

To address these questions, the present research examines whether and how empowering leadership (i.e., the actions through which leaders share authority, encourage self-management, and enhance confidence among team members; Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Konczak, Stelly, & Trusty, 2000) of a leader in one focal team can influence employees’ sense of empowerment (i.e., employees’ belief they have the freedom and capability to perform meaningful and impactful tasks; Spreitzer, 1995) across teams. We additionally examine whether an employee’s psychological empowerment mediates between multiple leaders’ empowering leadership and the employee’s engagement in proactive behaviors not only in one focal team but also across other teams with different leaders. We focus on empowering leadership for two reasons. First, prior research has consistently linked empowering leadership to important employee outcomes in teams, including motivating employees to proactively engage in behaviors that benefit their team (for reviews, see Chen & Tesluk, 2012; Harris & Kirkman, 2017; Maynard, Gilson, & Mathieu, 2012; Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011; Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). Second, building on social-cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986, 1997), we argue that empowering leadership promotes agency beliefs that can generalize beyond the realm of a single team. Specifically, we propose that psychological empowerment can link empowering leadership from a focal team’s leader to proactive behaviors exhibited by the same employee in other teams outside the stewardship of that focal team leader (see Figure 1).

In addressing these issues, we make three contributions to the teams, leadership, and motivation literatures. First, we extend prior work on multiple team membership by elucidating the process by which social influences on employees from multiple team leaders spillover across team boundaries to influence employee behaviors in different teams in which they work. Specifically, we delineate empowerment as a key psychological mechanism that explains how and why team leader actions can generalize beyond a single team to motivate employees to proactively contribute to other teams. To do so, our behavioral criterion is *team-directed proactivity*, or “self-starting, future-directed behavior to change a team’s situation or the way the team works” (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007, p. 332), including individual behaviors that were previously theorized and empirically shown to promote team learning and

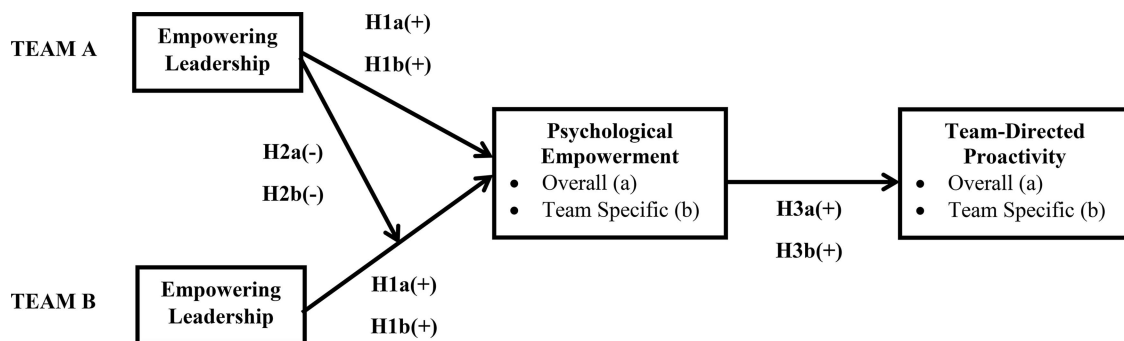


Figure 1. Conceptual model of employee empowerment and proactivity across teams.

innovation (Chen, Farh, Campbell-Bush, Wu, & Wu, 2013; Edmondson, 2003; Harris & Kirkman, 2017; Wilson, Goodman, & Cronin, 2007). Thus, we shed new light on the processes that ultimately enhance learning and effectiveness across teams, which is a major reason why organizations rely on multiple team memberships (Edmondson, 2012; O'Leary et al., 2011).

Second, even though the leadership literature has shown that leaders' actions at higher levels of an organization can cascade down to influence employee outcomes at lower levels (e.g., Schaubroeck et al., 2012), it remains unclear whether leadership actions directed toward an employee in one team can influence reactions by that same employee in another team outside of that leader's stewardship (i.e., whether leadership effects can also generalize horizontally to other teams). Finding that two distinct leaders' empowering leadership can uniquely influence a single employee, and that empowering leadership in one team can further influence an employee's work in another team, can open new avenues for team and leadership research, with important practical implications. For instance, organizations could strategically staff leaders with complementary or supplementary strengths across teams to more effectively manage teams and their members. In this regard, we theorize that the extent to which a team leader's empowering leadership influences employees in their focal team depends on the empowering leadership exhibited by leaders in other teams in which those employees work.

Finally, examining spillover processes across teams broadens understanding of the confluence of contextual factors affecting employee motivation and behavior. In particular, researchers have theorized and found that team leaders exert strong influences on employee motivation and proactivity in a single team, through empowering leadership and related leader behaviors (Chen et al., 2013; Chen & Kanfer, 2006; Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, & Farh, 2011; Chiaburu, Smith, Wang, & Zimmerman, 2014; Martin, Liao, & Campbell, 2013; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010; Zhang & Bartol, 2010). Extending this prior work, which focused primarily on single team membership contexts, we examine whether a leader's influence on an employee's motivation and proactivity in one team can generalize to other teams outside of that leader's stewardship.

Theoretical Development and Hypotheses

Over the past 20 years, scholars have increasingly realized that effective leaders often share power and leadership functions with followers to facilitate teamwork and encourage proactive input from employees (for a review, see Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, & Eagly, 2017). In line with this view, empowering leadership has emerged as a focal construct. In empowering their followers, leaders not only delegate authority to, and share power with, employees, but also motivate them to proactively engage in effective behaviors (Chen et al., 2007; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Konczak et al., 2000). Empowering leadership has been examined both as a team-level variable (i.e., aggregation of team members' perceptions of actions a leader takes toward a team as a whole; e.g., Chen et al., 2007) and an individual-level variable (i.e., individual members' perceptions regarding actions a leader takes toward them personally; e.g., Zhang & Bartol, 2010), and findings have shown positive influences on employee motivation and behaviors across levels (see Seibert et al., 2011). Given that research to date

has yet to examine empowering leadership in multiple teams membership contexts, we consider (and empirically examine) empowering leadership at both levels and leave it as an open research question as to whether relationships we hypothesize would differ depending on which level empowering leadership is operationalized.

One of the more proximal outcomes of empowering leadership is employees' sense of psychological empowerment. According to Spreitzer (1995), there are four subdimensions of psychological empowerment that collectively capture a sense of individual agency or active orientation to one's work, in which "an individual wishes and feels able to shape his or her work role and context" (p. 1444), including competence (i.e., akin to self-efficacy, or the belief in one's capability to perform a job), meaningfulness (i.e., intrinsic interest in performing a job), self-determination (i.e., a sense of choice to pursue job actions as one sees fit), and impact (i.e., the belief that one's job can influence important outcomes in an organization; Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Seibert et al. (2011) provided meta-analytic evidence that, in line with Spreitzer's theorizing, the four empowerment subdimensions share common antecedents, form a cohesive multidimensional construct, and collectively predict behavioral outcomes better than any single subdimension. Hence, in line with past research, we treat psychological empowerment as a unitary construct as opposed to examining its subdimensions separately. As we discuss next, there are reasons to expect that empowering leadership influences employee psychological empowerment and proactivity not only within a single team but also across multiple teams in which employees simultaneously work for different leaders.

Social Cognitive Theory and Empowerment Processes Across Teams

According to social cognitive theory (SCT; Bandura, 1986, 1997), individuals are agents who are both influenced by, and actively seek to shape, their environment. In particular, SCT suggests that there are reciprocal causal relationships involving one's (a) environment, (b) perception of the environment, and (c) purposeful behavior. A key perception of one's environment is *self-efficacy*, defined as "beliefs in one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (Wood & Bandura, 1989, p. 408). Individuals with higher self-efficacy pursue more challenging goals to influence outcomes in their environment and persist in goal pursuit. However, one's social environment and previous behavior also influence self-efficacy, such that self-efficacy can be heightened by prior accomplishments on the same or similar tasks (i.e., enactive mastery) as well as by social influences (e.g., a leader's modeling or encouragement to engage in certain behaviors).

Although self-efficacy is somewhat narrower than psychological empowerment (i.e., self-efficacy is more in line with the competence and impact dimensions), as noted earlier, the broader concept of psychological empowerment similarly captures an individual's sense of agency. Moreover, SCT is central to the conceptualization of psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). Also consistent with SCT, quantitative and qualitative literature reviews note that empowering leadership is positively related to employee psychological empower-

ment, and, in turn, employee psychological empowerment is positively related to individual innovation—a form of proactive behavior (Chen & Tesluk, 2012; Maynard et al., 2012; Seibert et al., 2011; Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). Furthermore, Chen et al. (2011, 2013) found that psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between team leaders' empowering leadership and employees' individual proactivity.

SCT suggests further that one's sense of agency can generalize across tasks and settings. Specifically, Bandura (1997) stated,

Powerful mastery experiences that provide striking testimony to one's capacity to effect personal changes can also produce a *transformational restructuring of efficacy beliefs* (italics in original) that is manifested across diverse realms of functioning. Such personal triumphs serve as transforming experiences. What generalizes is the belief that one can mobilize whatever effort it takes to succeed in different undertakings. (p. 53)

Along these lines, evidence shows that self-efficacy and related agency beliefs (e.g., sense of control and impact) can generalize across tasks and settings (Chen, Gully, & Eden, 2001; Judge, Erez, Bono, & Thoresen, 2002). However, the majority of research on self-efficacy and related agency beliefs (e.g., psychological empowerment) has been conducted on a single specific task across unique contexts, and as such, it remains unclear whether the generalization of agency beliefs can account for empowerment spillover effects across teams.

To delineate the potential effects of empowerment across teams, we borrow from the work–family literature, in which *spillover* is defined as “effects of work and family on one another that generate similarities between the two domains” (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000, p. 180). Edwards and Rothbard (2000) more specifically theorized that spillover effects can manifest in both the transference of influences from one domain to the other (e.g., higher satisfaction at work can positively relate to higher satisfaction at home) and unique influences emanating from each domain on one's overall experience (e.g., satisfying experiences at both work and home combine to positively influence one's overall well-being). Meta-analytic evidence has supported such spillover effects (e.g., see Casper, Vaziri, Wayne, DeHauw, & Greenhaus, 2018; Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007). Furthermore, in line with SCT, research has shown that, among women, confidence in one's abilities at home is positively related to managerial effectiveness at work (Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002). In addition, Greenhaus and Powell (2006) note that the positive relationship between job performance and parental performance is likely facilitated through enhanced perceptions of self-efficacy.

Admittedly, the work and family domains are more distinct than are different work teams employees work in on the same job. Still, O'Leary et al. (2011) noted that in multiple team membership contexts, different teams require employees to work toward unique goals, under different leaders, for different clients, and, in many instances, with unique teammates (Cummings & Haas, 2012). These team-specific features suggest that employees are exposed to unique experiences in different teams (Mathieu & Chen, 2011). Nonetheless, integrating the work–family notion of spillover with the aforementioned tenets from SCT that agency beliefs can generalize across tasks and settings as a result of situational influences (Bandura, 1986, 1997), we argue that the effects of empowering leadership on psychological empowerment can (a) originate from

behaviors of multiple leaders to which an employee is exposed, and, further, (b) extend beyond the realm of a single team, leading to proactive behavior in different teams.

Specifically, we propose that empowering leaders provide employees with strong mastery experiences (e.g., giving influential responsibilities and authority to employees, asking employees to contribute to important team decisions, allowing employees to set their goals and resolve performance problems on their own) that not only positively influence employees' psychological empowerment in the realm of a single team but also transcend team boundaries to influence employees' sense of psychological empowerment overall and in each team in which they work. This is consistent with the work–family literature, which suggests that psychological resources (i.e., employees' perceptions of confidence, meaningfulness, control, and impact) that are developed in one domain can spillover to impact other domains (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Hence, as empowering team leaders provide an employee with powerful mastery experiences, that employee learns they are capable of independently performing meaningful and impactful work tasks, and are able to effectively decide where and how to perform their work in the focal team. Subsequently, when an employee transitions from working on tasks in the focal team to working on tasks in a different team, those agency-based psychological resources nurtured by one focal team leader's empowering leadership are still motivationally salient in the other team in which the employee works.

This proposed spillover effect is likely due, in part, to the fact that employees in multiple team contexts often perform similar functional roles across teams (allowing organizations to better use employees' talents across teams; see O'Leary et al., 2011). For example, a structural engineer is more likely to be assigned to teams that require their technical expertise (e.g., regarding structural integrity of certain equipment or buildings) rather than to teams that require them to espouse knowledge outside of their functional expertise (e.g., marketing, electrical engineering). Indeed, according to SCT (Bandura, 1986, 1997) and Ashforth, Kreiner, and Fugate's (2000) theory of role transitions, employee experiences are more likely to generalize across contexts in which they perform more similar or well-integrated roles. As a result, when an empowering leader in one team delegates responsibilities to an employee, asks for and uses an employee's ideas when making team decisions, and increases an employee's sense of control, that employee is likely to recognize and perceive their overall role (across teams) as more meaningful and impactful, and thus experience higher levels of competence and flexibility in fulfilling their roles (Ashforth et al., 2000).

Our expectation for spillover effects for empowering leadership across teams, coupled with prior evidence for empowering leadership effects in single team contexts, also suggest that empowering leadership of two different team leaders would have a unique positive influence on an employee's psychological empowerment. That is, given that we expect leaders' empowering leadership to influence employees' psychological empowerment within and beyond a single team, we also expect that empowering leadership exhibited by different leaders across teams uniquely and positively influence employee's psychological empowerment. Specifically, we propose that unique influences emanating from two distinct leaders are essential for spillover effects to occur, given that such unique influences allow a leader's behavior in the realm of a focal

team to impact an employee in other teams (i.e., beyond the realm of the focal team) in addition to influences the same employee may receive from other leaders in other teams. Finally, in line with theorizing of spillover effects in the work and family literature (Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), we also expect the unique influences emanating from two team leaders' empowering leadership to influence an employees' (a) overall psychological empowerment (across teams), and (b) team-specific psychological empowerment.¹ Accordingly, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 1: Empowering leadership emanating from two distinct leaders of two different teams positively and uniquely influence an employee's (a) overall psychological empowerment (i.e., psychological empowerment across teams), and (b) team-specific psychological empowerment (i.e., psychological empowerment in each specific team).

Another likely implication of our theorizing leading to Hypothesis 1 is that empowering leadership from one leader may interact with empowering leadership from another leader to influence an employee's psychological empowerment. More specifically, given that empowering leadership can transform employees' psychological empowerment beyond the realm of a single team, we propose that higher levels of empowering leadership from one leader can compensate (or substitute) for lower levels of empowering leadership from another leader.

This expectation is in line not only with SCT (Bandura, 1986, 1997), in that multiple leaders' empowering leadership is likely to influence psychological empowerment, but also with the related notion of plasticity (see Eden & Aviram, 1993; Eden & Kinnar, 1991; Eden & Zuk, 1995). In particular, in a series of field experiments, Eden and colleagues found that it is easier to boost self-efficacy (e.g., through training or leadership interventions) for individuals whose baseline self-efficacy levels are lower than for those whose efficacy levels are higher. This is because those "low in self-efficacy are more plastic than are those high in self-efficacy" (i.e., those lower in self-efficacy have greater receptivity for interventions affecting their self-efficacy than those who are already high on self-efficacy; Eden & Zuk, 1995, p. 633). In this sense, the notion of plasticity is consistent with a ceiling effect—that is, when an employee's self-efficacy is already heightened, there is less room (or need) for any intervention to further heighten that employee's self-efficacy. Similarly, we expect one leader's empowering leadership to serve as a potential substitute for another leader's empowering leadership. Specifically, when an employee is working for one leader whose empowering leadership is low (high), their psychological empowerment is likely to be lower (higher), and hence is more (less) likely to be influenced by another leader's empowering leadership. Hence, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 2: Empowering leadership emanating from two distinct leaders of two different teams negatively interact to affect an employee's (a) overall psychological empowerment, and (b) team-specific psychological empowerment, such that when the empowering leadership of one team leader is higher, the other team leader's empowering leadership less positively influences an employee's overall and team-specific psychological empowerment.

The first two hypotheses are important in delineating the joint influences of leaders of two different teams—through their empowering leadership—on a single employee's overall and team-specific psychological empowerment. However, in assigning employees to multiple teams simultaneously, organizations also expect employees to contribute and transfer unique knowledge across teams to facilitate team and organizational learning (O'Leary et al., 2011). Accordingly, we also consider the impact of employees' psychological empowerment on their engagement in team-directed proactivity (hereafter, "proactivity"), which includes behaviors intended to positively impact their teams (e.g., voicing constructive or innovative suggestions for improving team functioning or outcomes; Griffin et al., 2007; Parker & Collins, 2010).

As noted, according to SCT (Bandura, 1986, 1997), as well as theorizing pertaining to psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 1995; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990), employees are not only passive recipients of contextual influences—they also seek to shape and influence their environments in which they work. In line with this theoretical expectation, psychological empowerment positively relates to proactivity behaviors, such as individual innovation and voice (for reviews, see Maynard et al., 2012; Seibert et al., 2011). Furthermore, following SCT, we expect psychological empowerment—which captures individuals' conceptions of their task environment—to mediate between social influences emanating from empowering leadership (see Hypothesis 1) and employees' proactivity. Indeed, there is evidence that employees' psychological empowerment mediates the relationship between team leader behavior and employee proactivity (Chen et al., 2011, 2013). Hence, psychological empowerment can serve as a mediator explaining why and how empowering leadership from different team leaders can influence employee proactive behaviors, not only in each focal team but also across teams.

We specifically expect that (a) overall psychological empowerment would mediate between leaders' empowering leadership and overall proactivity (across teams), and (b) team-specific psychological empowerment would mediate between leaders' empowering leadership and employee proactivity in a specific team. The latter mediation relationship is especially important to demonstrate, as it would more fully capture spillover effects emanating from one team leader's empowering leadership on an employee's proactivity in another team, above and beyond the leadership exhibited by the other team's leader. Thus, we predict the following:

Hypothesis 3a: An employee's overall psychological empowerment mediates the positive influences of empowering leadership emanating from two distinct leaders of two different teams on an employee's overall (across teams) proactive behavior.

Hypothesis 3b: An employee's team-specific psychological empowerment mediates the positive influences of empowering leadership emanating from two distinct leaders of two different teams on an employee's proactive behavior in each specific (respective) team.

¹ We do not make any a priori hypothesis as to whether the spillover effects we propose here are more likely to manifest in overall or team-specific psychological empowerment; rather, we examine this question empirically.

Overview of Studies

To test the hypothesized model (see Figure 1), we conducted three studies—a scenario-based experiment (Study 1) and two observational field studies (Studies 2 and 3). We obtained institutional review board (IRB) approvals for these studies from Texas A&M University (IRB2016-0163D, Multi-Leader Lab Study), University of Maryland (865639-1, Multi-Team Participation and Proactive Behaviors), and the University at Buffalo, The State University of New York (00000999, Leadership and Engagement). In Study 1, we manipulated the empowering leadership behavior of two different leaders of two distinct teams to examine their effects on participants' overall psychological empowerment and intended proactivity (i.e., testing Hypotheses 1a, 2a, and 3a). In Studies 2 and 3, using a multisource and timed-lagged designs, we surveyed employees who worked simultaneously in two different project teams in China (Study 2) and the United States (Study 3) and examined the relationships among the two different team leaders' empowering leadership, and employees' sense of empowerment and proactivity in each of the two distinct teams (i.e., testing Hypotheses 1b, 2b, and 3b). In Study 3, we also included a measure of overall empowerment, allowing us to also test Hypotheses 1a and 2a. In addition, Studies 1 and 2 focused on individual-referent measures of empowering leadership, whereas Study 3 included both individual-referent and team-referent measures of empowering leadership. Finally, as we describe further in descriptions of the studies we included different control variables across studies to collectively account for different alternative explanations for our findings. Thus, we sought to constructively replicate the findings by triangulating across methods in the three studies to test the model delineated in Figure 1. To facilitate transparency of our methods and results reporting, we also include online supplements that contain (a) the manipulations materials employed in Study 1, and (b) the actual data sets used to test the hypotheses in Studies 1 to 3, along with a file describing the data sets and R codes used to test the hypotheses.

Study 1

Method

Sample, procedures, and measures. We recruited 227 participants via Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk) for this study in exchange for US\$1.85. We initially screened the sample for quality, making sure potential respondents (a) were fluent English speakers living in the United States, (b) had prior experience working in at least two distinct teams under two different leaders within the past 2 years, and (c) paid sufficient attention to the online surveys (by answering multiple attention checks correctly). As a result of this screening, we retained a final sample of 115 participants (53 [46%] male), all of whom worked 40 hr or more per week at the time of the study. On average, they were 34.44 years old ($SD = 8.78$), with a position tenure of 4.22 years ($SD = 3.45$). We also asked 65 managers participating in an Executive MBA (EMBA) program of a large Middle Atlantic U.S. university to voluntarily complete the same study procedures, albeit using paper and pencil, as an in-class activity. Sixty managers (27 [45%] male) provided complete data, with an average age of 39.24 years ($SD = 5.52$) and an average position tenure of 4.77 years

($SD = 4.39$). Because the two samples yielded consistent results, we combined them for our analyses, controlling for sample (1 = MTurk sample; 2 = EMBA sample) in the analyses.

Participants first read a scenario in which their organization asked them to participate in two distinct teams aimed at addressing two important organizational issues with two different leaders—Team A (in charge of coming up with, and implementing ideas for, enhancing employee retention, led by Alex Johnson) and Team B (in charge of identifying and implementing ideas for improving customer loyalty and satisfaction, led by Chris Cole). We then randomly assigned participants to one of four conditions: (a) high empowering leadership in both Team A and Team B ($n = 44$), (b) high empowering leadership in Team A and low empowering leadership in Team B ($n = 44$), (c) low empowering leadership in Team A and high empowering leadership in Team B ($n = 45$), and (d) low empowering leadership in both Team A and Team B ($n = 42$). After reading more information about each team, participants read two e-mail messages from each team leader, which served as our manipulations of the leaders' empowering leadership. The manipulations focused on how each leader empowered participants personally (i.e., individual-referent empowering leadership; see the [online supplemental materials](#)).

Next, we asked participants,

Now consider your current job. Assuming you were reporting to two leaders who exhibit the same behaviors towards you as do Alex Johnson and Chris Cole, please rate the extent to which you would agree with each of the following statements with regards to how you would likely feel in your current job as a whole.

We then provided them with Spreitzer's (1995) original 12-item Psychological Empowerment scale (e.g., "I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job"; 1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .95$), and they then completed a three-item measure of intent to engage in proactivity overall on their jobs (i.e., across teams), adopted from Griffin et al. (2007; e.g., "I would come up with ways of increasing efficiency within the organization"; 1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .92$).

Manipulation checks. Prior to the study, we piloted the manipulation using a sample of 160 participants on MTurk, who—after being randomly assigned to the four conditions—completed a manipulation check consisting of Kirkman and Rosen's (1999) 14-item empowering leadership measure (e.g., "Gives me many responsibilities," "Tells me to expect a lot from myself"; 1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .97$ and $.98$ for Alex Johnson and Chris Cole, respectively). Results indicated that the Team A empowering leadership condition significantly affected participants' assessment of Alex Johnson's leadership ($M_{\text{high}} = 4.41$, $SD_{\text{high}} = 0.59$; $M_{\text{low}} = 2.11$, $SD_{\text{low}} = 0.90$), $F(1, 158) = 367.11$, $p < .05$, whereas the Team B empowering leadership condition did not impact participants' assessment of Alex Johnson's leadership ($M_{\text{high}} = 3.09$, $SD_{\text{high}} = 1.32$; $M_{\text{low}} = 3.20$, $SD_{\text{low}} = 1.40$), $F(1, 158) = 0.26$, $p > .10$. Likewise, the Team B empowering leadership condition significantly affected participants' assessment of Chris Cole's leadership ($M_{\text{high}} = 4.37$, $SD_{\text{high}} = 0.67$; $M_{\text{low}} = 2.07$, $SD_{\text{low}} = 0.75$), $F(1, 158) = 414.42$, $p < .05$, whereas the Team A empowering leadership condition did not impact par-

participants' assessment of Chris Cole's leadership ($M_{\text{high}} = 3.21$, $SD_{\text{high}} = 1.36$; $M_{\text{low}} = 3.36$, $SD_{\text{low}} = 1.39$), $F(1, 158) = 0.48$, $p > .10$. Thus, the empowering leadership conditions produced their intended effects.²

Results

Table 1 reports descriptive statistics and correlations among the study variables, and Table 2 summarizes the hypothesis tests. As shown in Table 2 (Model 1), regression analyses revealed that the two empowering leadership conditions (Teams A and B) uniquely and positively predicted participants' psychological empowerment ($b = .66$ and $.60$, $p < .05$, respectively), supporting Hypothesis 1a. Moreover, supporting Hypothesis 2a, the two leadership conditions significantly and negatively interacted to affect participants' overall psychological empowerment ($b = -.82$, $p < .05$; Model 2). As shown in Figure 2, Team B empowering leadership exerted more positive influence on overall psychological empowerment when Team A empowering leadership was low (simple slope $b = 1.02$, $p < .05$) than when Team A empowering leadership was high (simple slope $b = .19$, $p > .10$).

Finally, although the two empowering leadership conditions predicted intentions to engage in overall proactivity (Model 3; $b = .62$ and $.69$, $p < .05$, respectively), when entering overall psychological empowerment into the model (Model 4), the strength of the direct effects of the two leadership conditions on proactivity weakened (Model 4; $b = .20$, $p > .10$, and $.31$, $p < .05$, respectively), whereas psychological empowerment positively and significantly predicted team proactivity ($b = .63$, $p < .05$). In addition, using Selig and Preacher's (2008) Monte-Carlo-based mediation test, the indirect effects of both Team A empowering leadership (.42, 95% confidence interval [CI] [.25, .60]) and Team B empowering leadership (.38, 95% CI [.22, .55]) on proactivity through psychological empowerment were significant at $p < .05$. Thus, providing support for Hypothesis 3a, overall psychological empowerment mediated the positive effects of empowering leadership from two different leaders on overall proactivity.

Discussion

This first study provided support for Hypotheses 1a, 2a, and 3a in showing that empowering leadership emanating from leaders of two distinct teams could influence (uniquely and interactively) an employee's overall psychological empowerment and, subsequently, the employee's overall proactivity. A strength of the study is the experimental manipulation of two leaders' empowering leadership (while holding differences in employee, teams, and leader attributes constant), though the artificial (i.e., scenario-based) setting of the study, coupled with focus on proactivity intentions rather than actual behaviors, represent limitations. In addition, this study focused on overall (across teams) psychological empowerment and proactivity versus the extent to which empowering leadership of a leader in one team can spillover to affect an employee's psychological empowerment and proactivity in a different team.

In Study 2, we constructively replicated the first study in a number of ways. First, using a multisource and time-lagged survey design, employees assessed individual-referent empowering leadership of their two leaders in two distinct teams, as well as their

psychological empowerment in each team, whereas each of the two leaders rated employee proactivity in their teams, to test Hypotheses 1b, 2b, and 3b. Second, we wished to examine whether the effects detected in Study 1 in a U.S.-based sample generalizes to employees and leaders from a different cultural background (i.e., a sample in the People's Republic of China [PRC]). Third, to account for alternative explanations for the findings, we also statistically controlled for the total number of teams to which employees were assigned as well as the number of hours per week employees worked in each of the two teams. These are important controls because employees arguably have greater exposure to leader influences and more opportunities to be proactive in their teams when (a) they are members of fewer teams (and hence also work under fewer leaders) overall, and (b) spend more time working in any given team (cf. Cummings & Haas, 2012).

Study 2

Method

Sample and procedures. The sample for this study consisted of employees who worked on project teams in 10 business units of five different engineering and technology companies in the PRC. Employees worked on a variety of projects, such as ones involving transportation infrastructure and communication networks. A human resources (HR) contact in each unit helped us identify employees that were simultaneously assigned to work on at least two formal project teams (which we dubbed "Team A" and "Team B"). Although many employees worked on more than two teams concurrently ($M = 2.81$, $SD = 1.13$ teams), we only surveyed employees about two teams to which they were assigned to work throughout the period of this study, as identified by the HR contact. It is important to note that some employees worked more on "Team A," whereas others worked more on "Team B," during the time of the study; however, work on each team was relevant and important to all employees, and their work on each team was representative of their broader work roles and functional areas in their organization. In addition, the teams were independent of each other, with unique goals and responsibilities.

To reduce common method variance, we sent a survey via e-mail to 193 eligible employees and a follow-up survey to 94 of their team leaders (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The employee survey contained measures of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment (pertaining to the two

² We also assessed the extent to which the scenarios captured realistic situations, by administering a four-item scale—two items per team (e.g., "Alex Johnson is similar to other supervising authorities [e.g., supervisors or managers] I have had or somebody that I know has had in the past"; "The tasks of the employee retention team are similar to tasks I have had or somebody that I know has had with other teams in the past"; 1 = *strongly disagree*, 5 = *strongly agree*; $\alpha = .85$ and $.88$ for the Team A and Team B scenarios, respectively). Results indicated that the average realism ratings for Team A ($M = 3.38$, $SD = .83$) and Team B ($M = 3.47$, $SD = .96$) were above the middle point of the scale, suggesting most participants assessed the scenarios as sufficiently realistic (cf. Chen et al., 2011). In addition, the four experimental conditions did not differ on a variety of variables that were not manipulated, including age, gender, work and supervisory experiences, number of employees they supervised, position tenure, and number of teams they worked on (and supervisors they reported to) in the past 2 years.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 1)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5
1. Sample ^a	1.34	.48					
2. Team A empowering leadership	.50	.50	.02	—			
3. Team B empowering leadership	.51	.50	-.01	-.02	—		
4. Overall psychological empowerment	3.58	.89	-.06	.37*	.33*	(.94)	
5. Overall proactivity	3.79	.99	.06	.31*	.35*	.65*	(.92)

Note. *N* = 175. Internal consistency reliability (alpha) estimates are on the diagonal.

^a 1 = MTurk sample (*n* = 115); 2 = EMBA sample (*n* = 60).

* *p* < .05, two-tailed.

separate teams in which employees participated, each with a different leader). The organization gave us the total number of teams on which each employee worked, and employees reported the average number of hours they worked in each team per week, along with demographic information. Finally, 4 months after the employee survey, team leaders rated the level of proactivity exhibited by each participating employee from their respective teams (we chose this time lag to allow employees sufficient opportunities to engage in proactivity after the measurement of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment).

We obtained complete data from 148 employees (77% employee response rate) working in 102 project teams, supervised by 84 team leaders (89% leader response rate). We had an average of 2.90 employees participate from each project team. Although in our final sample some leaders led multiple teams, for our analyses, we considered only team members that had two different leaders in the two teams to which they reported.³ On average, employees worked 27.93 hr (*SD* = 14.95) in Team A and 25.42 hr (*SD* = 13.88) in Team B per week; also, among employees, average age was 33.45 years (*SD* = 7.54), most (95%) had college or more advanced degrees, average position tenure was 5.9 years (*SD* = 5.80), and 106 (72%) were male. For team leaders, average position tenure was 7.15 years (*SD* = 6.76), 49 (91%) were male, and all had college or more advanced degrees.

Measures. Employees rated two distinct team leaders on individual-referent empowering leadership and also indicated their psychological empowerment separately for each of the two teams in which they worked (i.e., “Team A” and “Team B”). We used the same measures as in Study 1 to capture empowering leadership⁴ (i.e., Kirkman & Rosen’s [1999] 14-item scale; $\alpha = .93$ and $.94$) and psychological empowerment (i.e., Spreitzer’s [1995] 12-item scale; $\alpha = .91$ and $.92$) in Teams A and B, respectively. The leader of each team also rated all employees who participated from their team on proactivity using the Griffin et al. (2007) three-item scale focused on team-specific proactivity (e.g., “[Name of Employee] suggested ways to make the team more effective”; $\alpha = .93$ and $.92$). To avoid confusion and ensure accurate ratings, we embedded the specific names of the two team projects and the name of each respective team leader into the survey questions, and, likewise, we embedded the employees’ names into the leaders’ surveys (the HR contacts gave this information to us ahead of time). Table 3 provides descriptive statistics, reliability estimates, and correlations among all measures in the study.

We conducted confirmatory factor analyses in LISREL on the empowering leadership and psychological empowerment measures

to ensure Team A and Team B measures exhibited measurement equivalence and discriminant validity. As shown in Table A1 in the Appendix, for both measures, the fit of a base measurement model in which loadings were allowed to differ across Team A and Team B measures, and the covariance between the Team A and Team B factors were freely estimated: (a) fit equally well relative to a measurement model in which factor loadings from Team A were set to be equal to respective factor loadings from Team B (indicating measurement invariance); and (b) fit significantly better ($p < .05$) than a measurement model in which the covariance between the Team A and Team B factors was set to 1.0 (indicating discriminant validity of the two teams’ factors).

Analyses strategy. Given the complex, multilevel nature of the data being nested within individuals (as repeated observations across two teams), project teams, and business units, we controlled for nesting by analyzing the data using Random Coefficient Modeling (RCM) in R using the lme4 package (Bates, Mächler, Bolker, & Walker, 2015). The analyses examined 296 observations (involving two repeated observations per individual employee, indicating antecedents and outcomes in two different teams), while controlling for fixed effects across three levels—individual employees ($n = 148$), project teams ($n = 102$), and business units⁵ ($n = 10$). Controlling for these fixed effects adjusted results for nesting effects of units, teams, and individuals, while examining relationships at the within-individual level (i.e., each individual with respect to Team A and Team B experiences). We set up the data such that there were two rows of data per employee—one row for Team A responses as the “focal team” and Team B responses as the “other team,” and another row for Team B responses as the “focal team” and Team A responses as the “other team.” This allowed us to test whether predictors pertaining to Team A and

³ As a result of this requirement, we dropped 32 employees for whom we had data from the final sample. Relative to the 32 employees who were dropped, the 148 employees we retained for the final sample did not significantly differ on empowering leadership or proactivity but did have significantly lower levels of psychological empowerment ($M = 4.41$, $SD = 0.58$ vs. $M = 4.12$, $SD = 0.58$; $F[1, 359] = 13.78$, $p < .05$).

⁴ Aggregation statistics for individual ratings of individual-directed empowering leadership were low (ICC1 = .05, ICC2 = .17; $F[96, 359] = 1.20$, $p = .17$; Mean Rwg [with expected uniform variance distribution] = .95), and as such, we examined empowering leadership as a Level 1 (i.e., individual within each team) predictor in this study.

⁵ Separate analyses in which we controlled for the five firms, instead of the 10 business units, yielded highly similar results. We hence controlled only for units, given that units likely subsumed firm-level effects.

Table 2
Regression Analyses of Overall Psychological Empowerment and Proactivity (Study 1)

Variable	Psychological empowerment		Proactivity	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Sample ^a	-.12 (.12)	-.12 (.12)	.12 (.14)	.20 (.12)
Team A empowering leadership	.66* (.12)	1.08* (.16)	.62* (.13)	.20 (.12)
Team B empowering leadership	.60* (.12)	1.02* (.16)	.69* (.13)	.31* (.12)
Team A Leadership × Team B Leadership		-.82* (.23)		
Psychological empowerment				.63* (.07)
R ²	.25*	.31*	.22*	.46*

Note. $N = 175$. Unstandardized estimates (with standard errors) are reported.

^a 1 = MTurk sample ($n = 115$); 2 = EMBA sample ($n = 60$).

* $p < .05$, two-tailed.

Team B (e.g., empowering leadership of leaders from Teams A and B) uniquely predicted outcomes pertaining to Team A (e.g., Team A psychological empowerment or proactivity). Note that we positioned Team A outcomes as the criterion variables when reporting results, but given the way the data were structured, results perfectly mirrored alternative analyses in which Team B outcomes were the criterion variables. We also reran the analyses without control variables and found that results led to similar inferences; hence, for completeness, we present results with controls (for more details, see the [online supplemental materials](#)). In addition, given our focus on unique, interaction, and mediated Level 1 effects of leadership emanating from two distinct leaders, and the complexity of our data, we relied on raw scores and did not employ centering to the data. Finally, for each model, we report

effect size estimate in the form of Level 1 pseudo- R^2 , following Snijders and Bosker's (1999) formula.

Results

Table 4 summarizes results from the RCM analyses, with psychological empowerment and proactivity in Team A as the outcomes (again, these results mirrored those obtained with Team B psychological empowerment as the outcome). Prior to running the models shown in Table 4, outcome-only models we analyzed determined that for team-specific psychological empowerment, 24% of the variance resided within individuals, 66% between individuals, 0% between teams, and 10% between units; for team-specific proactivity, 32% of the variance resided within individu-

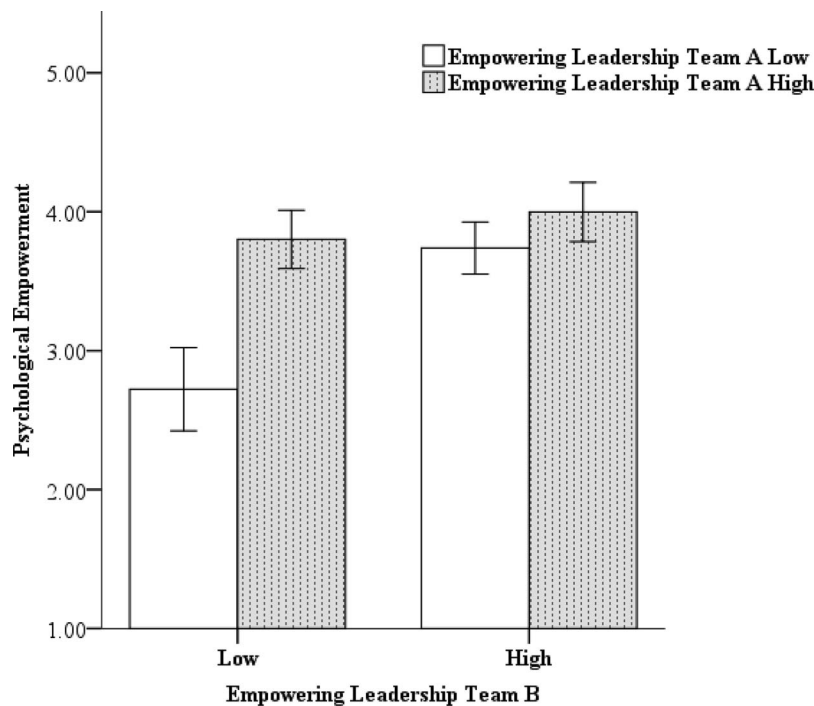


Figure 2. Interaction effect of Team A × Team B empowering leadership on overall psychological empowerment (Study 1).

Table 3
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 2)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Number of assigned teams	2.81	1.13	—								
2. Hours per week (Team A)	27.93	14.95	-.08	—							
3. Hours per week (Team B)	25.42	13.88	-.01	-.07	—						
4. Team A empowering leadership	4.22	.59	-.02	.10	.10	(.93)					
5. Team B empowering leadership	4.26	.55	.01	.11	.16*	.50*	(.94)				
6. Team A psychological empowerment	4.10	.55	.06	.10	.05	.56*	.54*	(.91)			
7. Team B psychological empowerment	4.15	.55	.05	.06	.18*	.38*	.67*	.76*	(.92)		
8. Team A proactivity	3.33	.79	.13	.07	.07	.06	.11	.21*	.15	(.93)	
9. Team B proactivity	3.51	.91	-.04	.04	.27*	.08	.01	.08	.12	.24*	(.92)

Note. *N* = 148 employees. Internal consistency reliability (alpha) estimates are on the diagonal.
* *p* < .05, two-tailed.

als, 18% between individuals, 37% between teams, and 13% between units. As shown in Table 4, in support of Hypothesis 1b, results indicated that empowering leadership of leaders from Teams A and B uniquely and positively predicted Team A psychological empowerment (Model 1; *b* = .49 and .19, *p* < .05, respectively). Results further showed that the interaction between Team A's and Team B's leaders' empowering leadership negatively predicted Team A psychological empowerment (Model 2, *b* = -.17, *p* < .05). As shown in Figure 3, and indicated by tests of simple slopes, Team B empowering leadership was more positively related to Team A psychological empowerment when Team A empowering leadership was low (simple slope *b* = .30, *p* < .05) than when Team A empowering leadership was high (simple slope *b* = .10, *p* < .10). Thus, results supported Hypothesis 2b.

As shown in Model 3 (see Table 4), Team A and Team B leaders' empowering leadership did not directly predict leader-rated Team A-directed proactivity (*b* = -.03 and .02, *p* > .10, respectively). However, employees' Team A psychological empowerment (but not employees' Team B psychological empowerment) significantly and uniquely predicted Team A-directed proactivity (Model 4; *b* = .28, *p* < .05, and *b* = -.17, *p* > .10, respectively). Moreover, empowering leadership from both the

Team A leader and Team B leader uniquely and positively exerted indirect effects on Team A-directed proactivity through Team A psychological empowerment (indirect effects = .14 and .05; 95% CIs [.02, .26] and [.01, .11], *p* < .05, respectively). These results hence supported Hypothesis 3b.

It is also interesting that psychological empowerment had a greater impact on proactivity when both variables were captured in the context of the same team versus when psychological empowerment referenced one team (e.g., Team B) and proactivity occurred in the context of another team (e.g., Team A; see Table 4). In line with these results, additional indirect effect tests indicated that Team B psychological empowerment did not significantly mediate between either Team A leader's or Team B leader's empowering leadership and the leader-rated proactivity measure referencing Team A (*p* > .10). Finally, it is also worth noting that none of the control variables significantly predicted either team-specific psychological empowerment or proactivity and that results held despite including these controls. In additional analyses we conducted, interactions between the empowering leadership and the control variables also did not significantly relate to team-specific psychological empowerment.

Table 4
Random Coefficient Modeling Analyses of Team A^a Psychological Empowerment and Proactivity (Study 2)

Variable	Psychological empowerment		Proactivity	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
Number of assigned teams	.04 (.03)	.04 (.03)	.05 (.05)	.04 (.05)
Hours per week (Team A)	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00)
Hours per week (Team B)	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00)	.00 (.00)
Team A empowering leadership	.49* (.04)	1.21* (.37)	-.03 (.07)	-.13 (.09)
Team B empowering leadership	.19* (.04)	.92* (.37)	.02 (.07)	.05 (.09)
Team A Leadership × Team B Leadership		-.17* (.08)		
Team A psychological empowerment				.28* (.12)
Team B psychological empowerment				-.17 (.12)
Level 1 pseudo- <i>R</i> ²	.39	.41	.00	.03

Note. *N* = 296 observations nested in 148 employees. Unstandardized estimates are reported, with standard errors in parentheses. Dependent variable = Team A psychological empowerment. ^aGiven the manner in which data were arranged, results using Team B psychological empowerment as the outcome mirrored (were identical) to those reported here with Team A psychological empowerment as the outcome.
* *p* < .05, two-tailed.

This document is copyrighted by the American Psychological Association or one of its allied publishers. This article is intended solely for the personal use of the individual user and is not to be disseminated broadly.

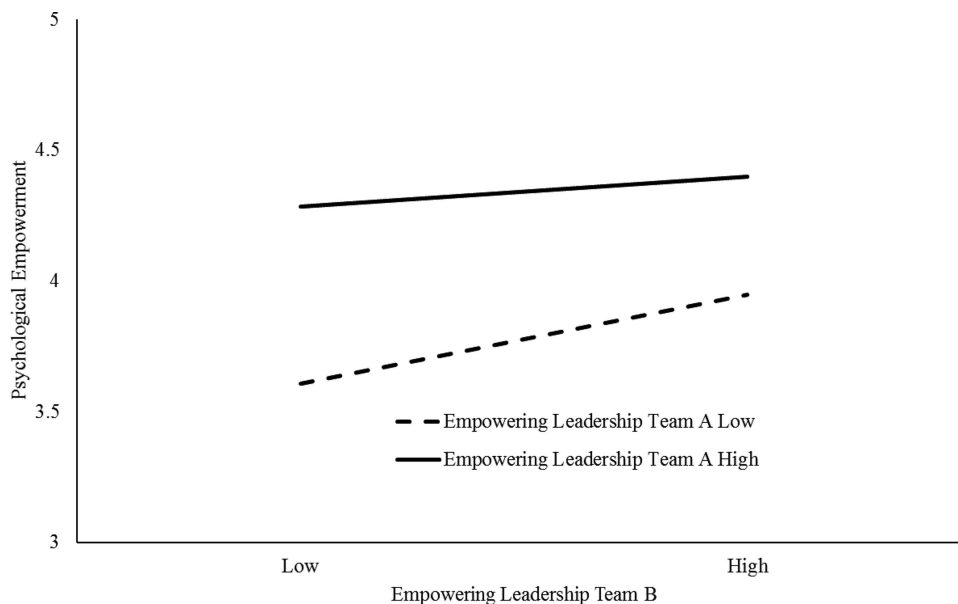


Figure 3. Interaction effect of Team A \times Team B empowering leadership on Team A psychological empowerment (Study 2).

Discussion

Results from Study 2 constructively replicated and extended results from Study 1 to team-specific forms of psychological empowerment and proactivity. First, in support of Hypotheses 1b and 2b, we found that empowering leadership from two different leaders of two distinct teams positively and uniquely related to an employee's team-specific psychological empowerment, and that the nonfocal team leader's empowering leadership more strongly and positively related to an employee's psychological empowerment in a focal team when the leader of that focal team exhibited lower empowering leadership. In addition, supporting Hypothesis 3b, we also found that an employee's team-specific psychological empowerment mediated between empowering leadership of two different team leaders and that employee's team-specific proactivity. Importantly, findings were consistent in this study (with team-specific measures of psychological empowerment and proactivity) with those reported in Study 1 (with measures of overall psychological empowerment and proactivity). This occurred despite the different study designs and measurement approaches in the two studies and using a sample of employees and their leaders from the PRC (vs. U.S.-based participants).

Importantly, Studies 1 and 2 relied on *either* overall *or* team-specific psychological empowerment, and *both* relied only on individual-level (i.e., individual-referent) operationalizations of empowering leadership. Hence, to further support and extend our hypotheses, we conducted Study 3, in which we included measures capturing (a) both individual-referent and team-referent empowering leadership, and (b) both team-specific and overall psychological empowerment (hence allowing us to Test Hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a, and 2b in the same study using different operationalizations of empowering leadership experienced by members in two distinct teams). Study 3 also included a sample of U.S.-based employees and their teams' leaders and a different set of controls than Study 2. In particular, we

controlled for (a) whether each team leader was also an employee's formal supervisor (because formal supervisors have more formal power, and hence may influence employees more strongly than others serving only as team leaders), and (b) whether the two teams' leaders were colocated or not (given colocated leaders may suggest the teams—and leader influences—are less distinct than teams whose leaders work in distinct offices/locations).

Study 3

Method

For Study 3, we surveyed employees in a mid-sized (i.e., around 500 employees) environmental consulting public benefit corporation (for information regarding such firms, see Kurland, *in press*), headquartered in the Eastern United States. Many employees in this company are assigned to work on multiple project teams (e.g., ones involving environmental planning, water filtration, and more) and report to several project team leaders concurrently. In addition, each employee had a formal supervisor that they reported to in their local office who conducted their annual performance evaluations. The company's CEO and HR manager helped identify employees that were simultaneously assigned to work on at least two project teams. To ensure that we had enough employees in each team to aggregate empowering leadership to the team level of analysis, they also helped identify other employees in each of the participating teams who could accurately evaluate the team-level empowering leadership of the team leaders (i.e., these employees were only surveyed about one team). Although on average employee worked on 6.08 ($SD = 3.81$) teams, we only asked each employee about the experiences they had in one (for the single-team employees) or two (for the multiple teams membership employees) teams. Similar to Study 2, some employees worked

more hours per week on Team A, whereas others worked more hours per week on Team B, with each employee assigned to teams to perform their core functional expertise. Also as in Study 2, the teams had unique goals and responsibilities.

We asked 283 employees and 87 team leaders to complete unique surveys with a short temporal lag of 1 week as a means to mitigate concerns related to common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). We asked employees to rate the individual-referent empowering leadership behaviors (e.g., “[Name of Team Leader] asks me for advice when making decisions,” “. . . allows me to set my own goals”), as well as team-referent empowering leadership behaviors (e.g., “[Name of Team Leader] asks the team for advice when making decisions,” “. . . allows the team to set our own goals”) of each of their team leaders, using two parallel versions of Kirkman and Rosen’s (1999) 14-item scale. We had 186 employees (65.7% employee response rate) provide us with 311 separate evaluations of 69 different team leaders (on average, each leader was rated by 4.51 employees; $SD = 2.45$) that led 103 distinct teams. As expected, team-referent empowering leadership ratings had more adequate support for aggregation ($ICC1 = .17$; $ICC2 = .49$; $F[68, 310] = 1.95, p < .01$; $M Rwg_{ij} = .92$) than did individual-referent empowering leadership ratings ($ICC1 = .08$; $ICC2 = .28$; $F[68, 310] = 1.38, p = .04$; $M Rwg_{ij} = .90$).⁶ As such, we aggregated the average team-focused rating of each team leader to form team-level empowering leadership scores; however, given that 77 individual employees were each nested in two of 74 teams, there were not enough members nested in each team to treat team-referent empowering leadership scores at the team level of analysis. Thus, although conceptually team-referent empowering leadership captures team-level leadership, and scores for team-referent empowering leadership were based on aggregation of multiple common team members’ ratings, both individual-referent and team-referent empowering leadership ratings were analyzed as within-individual (i.e., Level 1) predictors in the analyses in the Results section.

Using two parallel versions of Spreitzer’s (1995) 12-item scale, employees also rated their own psychological empowerment in each team (i.e., team-specific psychological empowerment; e.g., “I have significant influence over what happens in the team”) and their overall psychological empowerment across all assigned project teams (e.g., “I have significant influence over what happens in my work units”). A week after the employee survey, we asked team leaders to evaluate each employee’s proactivity in that leader’s team using the same three-item Griffin et al. (2007) scale used in Study 2, and we received ratings from 68 team leaders (78.2% leader response rate) of 101 teams. Finally, the firm also provided us with information as to whether (a) each team leader was also a supervisor of the focal employee (coded as 1) or not (coded as 0), and (b) whether, for each employee, the two leaders were colocated in the same geographic office (coded as 1) or not (coded as 0).

After retaining data only from employees for whom we had complete data and who worked on two distinct teams with two different team leaders, our final sample of matched data included 77 employees belonging to 74 different teams led by 53 team leaders.⁷ Within our final sample, employees worked an average of 34.4 hr ($SD = 39.3$) in Team A and 42.2 hr ($SD = 41.3$) in Team B during the 3 weeks prior to participating in the study. Among the employees, the average age was 35.3 years ($SD = 10.2$), most (67.5%) had some college or a more advanced degree, average

position tenure was 5.7 years ($SD = 6.2$), and 41 (53.6%) were male. For the team leaders, average position tenure was 9.8 years ($SD = 6.5$), 37 (71.2%) were male, and all had a college degree or a more advanced degree. Table 5 provides descriptive statistics, reliability estimates, and correlations among all measures in the study. In addition, as in Study 2, confirmatory factor analyses (see Table A2 of the Appendix) demonstrated measurement invariance as well as discriminant validity for (a) individual-referent and team-referent measures of empowering leadership in Team A and Team B (upper part of table), and (b) team-specific and overall psychological empowerment measures (lower part of table).

Results

The outcome-only models we analyzed indicate that for team-specific psychological empowerment, 48% of the variance resided within individuals, 52% between individuals, and 0% between teams; for overall empowerment, 100% of the variance resided between individuals, and 0% between teams; and, finally, for team-specific proactivity, 72% of the variance resided within individuals, 11% between individuals, and 17% between teams. Analyses testing Hypotheses 1b, 2b, and 3b are summarized in Table 6 (results with individual-referent measures of empowering leadership are shown in the upper part of the table, and results with team-referent measures of empowering leadership are presented in the lower part of the table). As in Study 2, analyses took into account fixed effects resulting from individual and team differences, and results without control variables were similar to those with controls.

As shown in Table 6, individual-referent measures of Team A and Team B leaders’ empowering leadership positively and uniquely predicted team-specific psychological empowerment (upper part of Model 1; $b = .61$ and $.15, p < .05$, respectively), as did team-referent measures of Team A and Team B leaders’ empowering leadership (lower part of Model 1; $b = .35$ and $.36, p < .05$, respectively), in support of Hypothesis 1b. In addition, both individual-referent and team-referent measures of Team A and Team B leaders’ empowering leadership negatively interacted to predict team-specific psychological empowerment ($b = -.24$ and $-1.01, p < .05$ – per upper and lower parts of Model 2, respectively). As shown in Figures 4a and 4b, simple slopes capturing the relationship between Team B empowering leadership and Team A psychological empowerment were positive and significant when Team A empowering leadership was low (simple slope $b = .26$ and $.72, p < .05$, for individual-referent and team-referent measures of empowering leadership, respectively) but not when Team A empowering leadership was high (simple slope $b = -.07$ and $-.13, p > .10$, for individual-referent and team-referent measures of empowering leadership, respectively).

⁶ For team-focused empowering leadership, Rwg_{ij} values ranged from 0 to 1.0, but only five cases had Rwg_{ij} values below .90; for individual-focused empowering leadership, Rwg_{ij} values also ranged from 0 to 1.0, and nine cases had Rwg_{ij} values below .90.

⁷ As a result of this requirement, we dropped 97 employees for whom we had data from the final sample. The 77 employees we retained for the final sample did not significantly differ from those 97 who were dropped on any of the empowering leadership, psychological empowerment, or proactivity measures.

Table 5
Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (Study 3)

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Leader is Supervisor A	.10	.31	—											
2. Leader is Supervisor B	.16	.37	-.15	—										
3. Leaders colocated	.56	.50	.22	.02	—									
4. Ind. Empowering Leadership A	3.88	.70	-.01	-.14	-.06	(.95)								
5. Ind. Empowering Leadership B	3.78	.65	-.07	.07	.12	.53*	(.94)							
6. Team Empowering Leadership A	3.91	.35	-.05	-.14	-.08	.53*	.10	(.95)						
7. Team Empowering Leadership B	3.83	.48	-.03	-.24*	-.22	.29*	.35*	.37*	(.96)					
8. Psychological Empowerment A	3.89	.72	.00	-.12	-.10	.66*	.48*	.33*	.43*	(.93)				
9. Psychological Empowerment B	3.88	.74	.00	-.03	.05	.40*	.62*	.07	.21	.52*	(.93)			
10. Overall psych. empowerment	3.98	.69	-.02	.02	-.03	.51*	.56*	.27*	.39*	.68*	.77*	(.92)		
11. Team A proactivity	3.07	1.06	.13	.10	-.01	.16	.02	.20	.11	.18	-.11	-.05	(.97)	
12. Team B proactivity	3.44	1.10	-.01	.16	-.10	-.04	.06	.09	.06	.14	.18	.14	.07	(.94)

Note. $N = 77$ employees; internal consistency reliability (α) estimates are on the diagonal. A = Team A; B = Team B; Ind. = individual referent; Team = team referent.

* $p < .05$.

Thus, results supported Hypothesis 2b, with both individual-referent and team-referent measures of empowering leadership.

In addition, as in Study 2, neither individual- nor team-referent measures of Team A and Team B leaders' empowering leadership significantly predicted Team A proactivity (upper and lower parts of Model 3; Table 6). However, as shown in Model 4 (upper and lower parts, respectively), Team A psychological empowerment (but not Team B psychological empowerment) positively predicted Team A proactivity above and beyond individual-referent empowering leadership ($b = .31, p < .05$) and team-referent empowering leadership ($b = .29, p < .05$). In addition, empowering leadership from both Team A leaders and Team B leaders uniquely and positively exerted indirect effects on leader-rated Team A-directed proactivity through Team A psychological empowerment with the individual-referent measure (indirect effect for Team A leader = .19, 95% CI [.01, .38]; indirect effect for Team B leader = .05, 90% CI⁸ [.003, .108]), and the team-referent measure (indirect effect for Team A leader = .10, 95% CI [.01, .24]; indirect effect for Team B leader = .10, 95% CI [.01, .25]). These results mostly support Hypothesis 3b.

Results also indicated that one of the controls—whether the Team A leader was also the employee's supervisor—significantly and positively predicted the employee's Team A proactivity (see Models 3 and 4, in both upper and lower parts of Table 6). However, the results we discussed earlier indicated support for our hypotheses, even when controlling for whether team leaders were also supervisors (and whether the two team leaders were colocated). In addition, as in Study 2, additional analyses found no significant interaction effects between controls and empowering leadership variables on psychological empowerment.

Table 7 summarizes results from analyses of overall psychological empowerment. As shown in the upper part of Table 7, analyses with individual-referent empowering leadership found support for both Hypothesis 1a (Teams A and B empowering leadership both predicted overall psychological empowerment; $b = .29$ and $.43, p < .05$, respectively) and Hypothesis 2a (i.e., Teams A and B empowering leadership interacted negatively to predict overall psychological empowerment, $b = -.26, p < .05$; see also Figure 5a, in which the simple slope for Team B empowering leadership was $.56, p < .05$, when Team A empowering leadership was low,

and $.20, p > .10$, when Team A empowering leadership was high). With team-referent empowering leadership (lower part of Table 7), Team B empowering leadership ($b = .54, p < .05$), but not Team A empowering leadership ($b = .31, p > .10$), predicted overall psychological empowerment, providing only weak support for Hypothesis 1a. However, the two leaders' team-referent empowering leadership interacted negatively to predict overall psychological empowerment ($b = -.89, p < .05$; see also Figure 5b, in which the simple slope for Team B empowering leadership was $.71, p < .05$, when Team A empowering leadership was low, and $.08, p > .10$, when Team A empowering leadership was high), in support of Hypothesis 2a.

Finally, the results also showed that, after adding overall empowerment to Model 3 from Table 6, overall empowerment did not significantly predict team-specific proactivity when controlling for either individual-referent empowering leadership ($b = -.05, p > .10$) or team-referent empowering leadership ($b = -.04, p > .10$). In addition, Team A psychological empowerment remained a significant positive predictor of team-specific proactivity, even when controlling for overall psychological empowerment.

Discussion

As a whole, Study 3 provided further evidence in support of our theoretical model and hypotheses. In particular, using both individual-referent as well as team-referent measures of empowering leadership, the results fully replicated Study 2's findings in support of Hypotheses 1b, 2b, and 3b (i.e., spillover relationships involving team-specific psychological empowerment and proactivity). With individual-referent measures of empowering leadership, results also fully replicated Study 1 in supporting Hypotheses 1a and 2a (i.e., spillover relationships involving overall psychological empowerment). Although the results with team-referent

⁸ We recognize that the indirect effect for individual-referent measure of Team B empowering leadership was only marginally significant ($p < .10$). However, we still report it as such, given that (a) Study 3 had lower power (resulting from lower N) than Study 2, and (b) the indirect effect was still consistent (in the same direction) as the other indirect effects we report for Team B leader's empowering leadership (which were significant at $p < .05$).

Table 6
Random Coefficient Modeling Analyses of Team A Psychological Empowerment and Proactivity (Study 3)

Variable	Psychological empowerment		Proactivity	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
With individual-referent leadership				
Team A leader is also supervisor	-.03 (.14)	-.10 (.14)	.77* (.26)	.77* (.26)
Team B leader is also supervisor	-.01 (.14)	-.09 (.14)	.28 (.27)	.28 (.27)
Team leaders colocated	-.06 (.11)	-.04 (.10)	-.13 (.20)	-.12 (.20)
Team A empowering leadership	.61* (.07)	1.49* (.28)	.21 (.15)	.04 (.17)
Team B empowering leadership	.15* (.07)	1.02* (.28)	-.04 (.14)	.03 (.17)
Team A Leadership × Team B Leadership		-.24* (.07)		
Team A psychological empowerment				.31* (.15)
Team B psychological empowerment				-.17 (.15)
Level 1 pseudo-R ²	.40	.45	.21	.26
With team-referent leadership				
Team A leader is also supervisor	.06 (.18)	-.01 (.17)	.86* (.26)	.83* (.26)
Team B leader is also supervisor	-.03 (.18)	-.10 (.17)	.32 (.27)	.34 (.26)
Team leaders colocated	.06 (.14)	.11 (.13)	-.06 (.19)	-.07 (.20)
Team A empowering leadership	.35* (.13)	4.19* (1.22)	.28 (.25)	.25 (.26)
Team B empowering leadership	.36* (.13)	4.21* (1.22)	.31 (.21)	.28 (.22)
Team A Leadership × Team B Leadership		-1.01* (.32)		
Team A psychological empowerment				.29* (.13)
Team B psychological empowerment				-.19 (.13)
Level 1 pseudo-R ²	.08	.15	.18	.26

Note. $N = 154$ observations nested in 77 employees. Unstandardized estimates are reported, with standard errors in parentheses. Dependent variable = Team A psychological empowerment. Given the manner in which data were arranged, results using Team B psychological empowerment as the outcome mirrored (were identical) those reported here with Team A psychological empowerment as the outcome.

* $p < .05$.

measures of empowering leadership provided weaker support for Hypothesis 1a, in that leadership from one leader (Team B) predicted overall psychological empowerment, and leadership from another leader (Team A) did not, the results provide strong support for Hypothesis 2a in that the two leaders' empowering leadership interacted significantly to impact overall psychological empowerment. Finally, Study 3's results also showed that team-specific psychological empowerment from the same focal team—but not team-specific psychological empowerment from another team or overall psychological empowerment—uniquely and positively related to team-specific proactivity and mediated the influences of two distinct leaders' empowering leadership on team-specific proactivity.

General Discussion

Contributing to the budding literature on multiple team memberships, we conducted three studies to examine the role of empowerment in motivating employees working in multiple team contexts to contribute proactively across teams. Results largely supported our theoretical model, suggesting that employees' sense of psychological empowerment serves as an important conduit through which empowering leadership from multiple team leaders can influence employee proactivity across teams. We next discuss implications for extant theory and managerial practice.

Theoretical Implications

Our study makes theoretical contributions to the teams, leadership, and motivation literatures. First, as noted, organizations are

increasingly assigning employees to work in multiple teams simultaneously, with the hope that such work arrangements will more effectively use employee skills and facilitate knowledge transfer across teams (O'Leary et al., 2011). The limited research to date on multiple team memberships has focused primarily on the relationship between structural aspects of such work designs (e.g., number and variety of teams to which members belong) and outcomes such as employee workload and job demands, and employee and team effectiveness (Cummings & Haas, 2012; Pluut et al., 2014; Zika-Viktorsson et al., 2006). Theoretical work has also proposed that knowledge transfer and coordination across teams are critical in organizations that rely on multiple membership designs (O'Leary et al., 2011). As such, we proposed that understanding why and when employees in multiple team membership contexts engage in proactive behaviors is especially important, given employee proactivity likely facilitates knowledge flow and coordination within and across teams. Accordingly, and extending prior research and integrating and building on SCT (Bandura, 1986, 1997), we theorized and found that an employee's psychological empowerment serves as an important underlying mechanism linking the unique and positive influences of two different team leaders' empowering leadership and that employee's proactivity across distinct teams. We also found evidence in support of the plasticity hypothesis (e.g., Eden & Aviram, 1993; Eden & Zuk, 1995), in that empowering leadership of one leader has a stronger, positive effect on an employee's psychological empowerment across teams when that same employee is exposed to another leader whose empowering leadership is lower rather than higher.

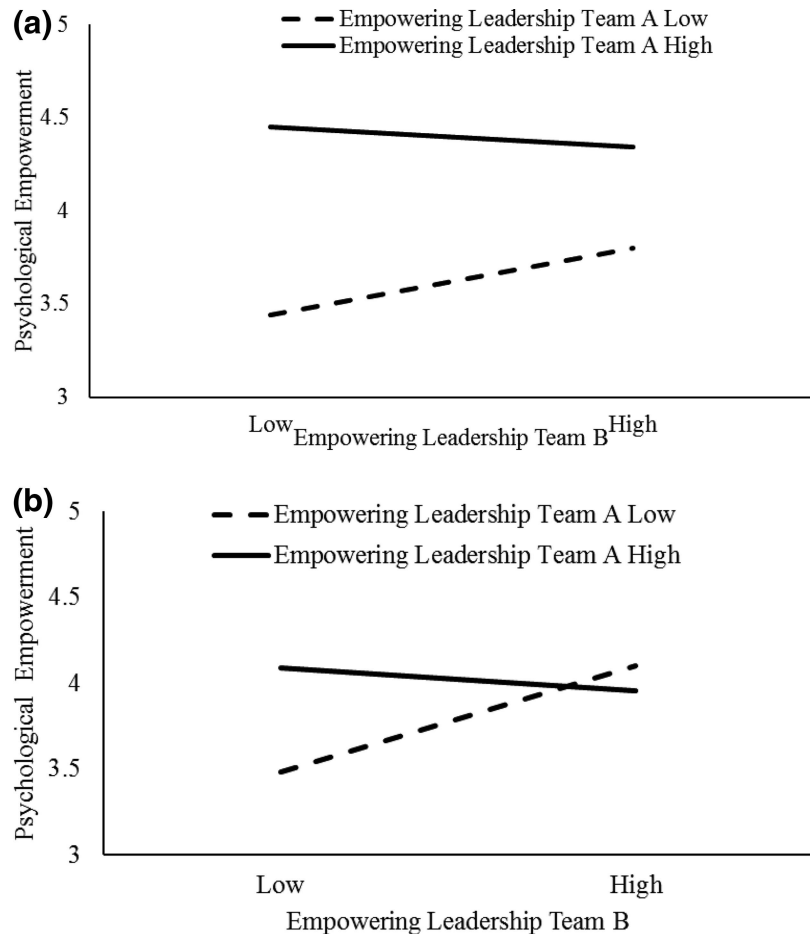


Figure 4. (a) Interaction effect of Team A \times Team B individual-referent empowering leadership on Team A psychological empowerment (Study 3). (b) Interaction effect of Team A \times Team B team-referent empowering leadership on Team A psychological empowerment (Study 3).

Furthermore, integrating prior work on spillover effects from the work–family literature (e.g., Edwards & Rothbard, 2000), we also proposed and found that the impact of two leaders’ empowering leadership can spillover to influence both an employee’s overall (i.e., across teams) and team-specific psychological empowerment. However, when it comes to an employee’s proactive behavior in a focal team, influences of empowering leadership from team leaders of that focal team and another team are more likely to be mediated by an employee’s psychological empowerment in the focal team rather than an employee’s overall psychological empowerment or psychological empowerment in the other team. These findings, in turn, enhance our theoretical understanding of how the social environment (captured by empowering leadership) that employees encounter in multiple teams may affect their motivation (captured by psychological empowerment) to proactively contribute across teams. Thus, empowering leadership helps organizations and their teams to benefit more from members in multiple teams (e.g., through knowledge transfer and innovation; cf. Chen et al., 2013; Edmondson, 2003).

Second, we also contribute to the leadership literature by showing that empowering leadership effects can generalize (or spill-

over) “horizontally” across teams to affect employee motivation and behavior. Prior research on leadership has primarily shown effects of leaders on their members in the context of a single team (e.g., Chen et al., 2007, 2011; Kirkman & Rosen, 1999) or across hierarchical organizational levels (e.g., Schaubroeck et al., 2012). Our findings suggest that leaders’ influence can also spillover horizontally to other teams beyond the realm of a single team. Moreover, the negative interaction we found between empowering leadership from two different leaders of two distinct teams on employee psychological empowerment indicates that one team leader’s higher levels of empowering leadership can substitute for another leader’s lower levels of empowering leadership. Importantly, the results were consistent for such “horizontal spillover” effects of empowering leadership across cultures (i.e., U.S.-based and PRC-based samples), using experimental as well as multi-source survey designs, and when operationalizing empowering leadership using individual-referent and team-referent measures. Thus, our studies enhance understanding of the scope of influence that team leaders can have on members beyond the realm of their own teams.

Table 7
Random Coefficient Modeling Analyses of Overall Psychological Empowerment (Study 3)

Variable	Psychological empowerment	
	Model 1	Model 2
With individual-referent leadership		
Team A leader is also supervisor	.07 (.22)	.00 (.21)
Team B leader is also supervisor	.08 (.18)	-.01 (.18)
Team leaders colocated	-.10 (.14)	-.08 (.13)
Team A empowering leadership	.29* (.11)	1.22* (.35)
Team B empowering leadership	.43* (.12)	1.39* (.36)
Team A Leadership × Team B Leadership		-.26* (.09)
Level 1 pseudo- R^2	.38	.39
With team-referent leadership		
Team A leader is also supervisor	.01 (.25)	-.06 (.24)
Team B leader is also supervisor	.25 (.21)	.20 (.21)
Team leaders colocated	.08 (.16)	.12 (.15)
Team A empowering leadership	.31 (.23)	3.78* (1.41)
Team B empowering leadership	.54* (.17)	3.88* (1.34)
Team A Leadership × Team B Leadership		-.89* (.36)
Level 1 pseudo- R^2	.13	.19

Note. $N = 77$ employees; unstandardized estimates are reported, with standard errors in parentheses.

* $p < .05$.

Finally, our findings inform the growing literature on contextual influences on employee motivation and proactivity. In particular, moving beyond prior research that has theorized and found that leaders can empower and motivate employees to engage in proactive behaviors in the realm of a single team (e.g., Chen et al., 2011, 2013; Martin et al., 2013; Parker et al., 2010), our findings suggest that employees' encounters with different leaders across teams can also combine to motivate them to engage in proactive behaviors. These findings provide a unique test in support of SCT's (Bandura, 1986, 1997) generalizability principle and suggest that to more fully understand employee motivation and proactivity, we need to consider the multitude of social influences employees encounter across different teams in which they work (and possibly other work environments they encounter; cf. Chen & Kanfer, 2006; Parker et al., 2010). This is especially important given that many employees work in multiple teams simultaneously, underscoring the need to understand these complex employee–environment dynamics.

Practical Implications

Our findings also have important practical implications for organizations and leaders. To begin, our results show that employees' psychological empowerment is important for the successful implementation of multiple team membership designs in organizations. Specifically, our studies indicate that enhancing employees' psychological empowerment can motivate employees in multiple team membership settings to contribute their talents to their teams and transfer knowledge across teams (e.g., by proactively offering innovative suggestions and initiating positive changes in their teams; cf. Griffin et al., 2007; Parker & Collins, 2010). These findings are especially insightful for organizations that heavily espouse team-based operations, such as the organization we sam-

pled in Study 3, an employee-owned public benefit entity with a strong focus on effective team-based work and human capital utilization.

Our research also suggests that leaders play an important role in empowering (and thus motivating) members to contribute proactively across (and not just within) the teams to which they belong. Specifically, our findings suggest that one way in which organizations can use empowering leadership is to train all leaders to engage in more empowering practices, such as how best to share decision-making authority with followers or enhance employees' sense of confidence (e.g., Kirkman & Rosen, 1999; Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). Second, perhaps a more novel insight from this research is that companies can also strategically assign team members to teams based in part on leaders' empowering tendencies and capabilities in a way that would strategically allow leaders that engage in more empowering leadership behaviors to compensate for other leaders that engage in fewer such behaviors. Indeed, we found that employees who work under one leader who is highly empowering and another leader who is less empowering can still feel highly empowered in both teams, because the effects of a single empowering leader can transfer with the employee across teams—and even compensate for the lower levels of empowering leadership the employees may experience in other teams.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

Despite the contributions noted in the previous sections as with all research, there are also limitations that can highlight fruitful avenues for future research. First, our study was limited to two teams and only one form of social influence in each team (i.e., empowering leadership). According to O'Leary et al. (2011) and the organizations we sampled in Studies 2 and 3, many employees work on more than two teams simultaneously and, as such, it is important to examine whether our findings generalize beyond two teams. Even though we theoretically anchored our choice for examining empowering leadership and the resulting empowerment and proactivity processes across teams in SCT, there are reasons to believe other social influences—both positive (e.g., positive affective tone or psychological safety in teams) and negative (e.g., negative affective tone or abusive supervision in teams)—can also influence employees across teams. Likewise, researchers should also examine other important employee reactions and behaviors across teams (e.g., negative affective states, employee learning, different forms of employee voice).

Second, same-source and common-method variance could have inflated some findings in our studies, such as relationships between self-rated psychological empowerment and proactivity intentions in Study 1, and relationships between individual-referent empowering leadership and psychological empowerment in Studies 2 and 3. That said, we minimized this concern by constructively replicating findings across different operationalizations of empowering leadership in the studies (i.e., scenario-based manipulations in Study 1, individual-referent measures in Studies 2 and 3, and an aggregated team-referent measure in Study 3). We also relied on leader ratings of proactivity in Studies 2 and 3, which further minimizes these concerns. It is also worth noting that same-source and common-method variance is less likely to impact interaction effects (see Evans, 1985; Siemsen, Roth, & Oliveira, 2010), which we consistently found across all of our studies using different

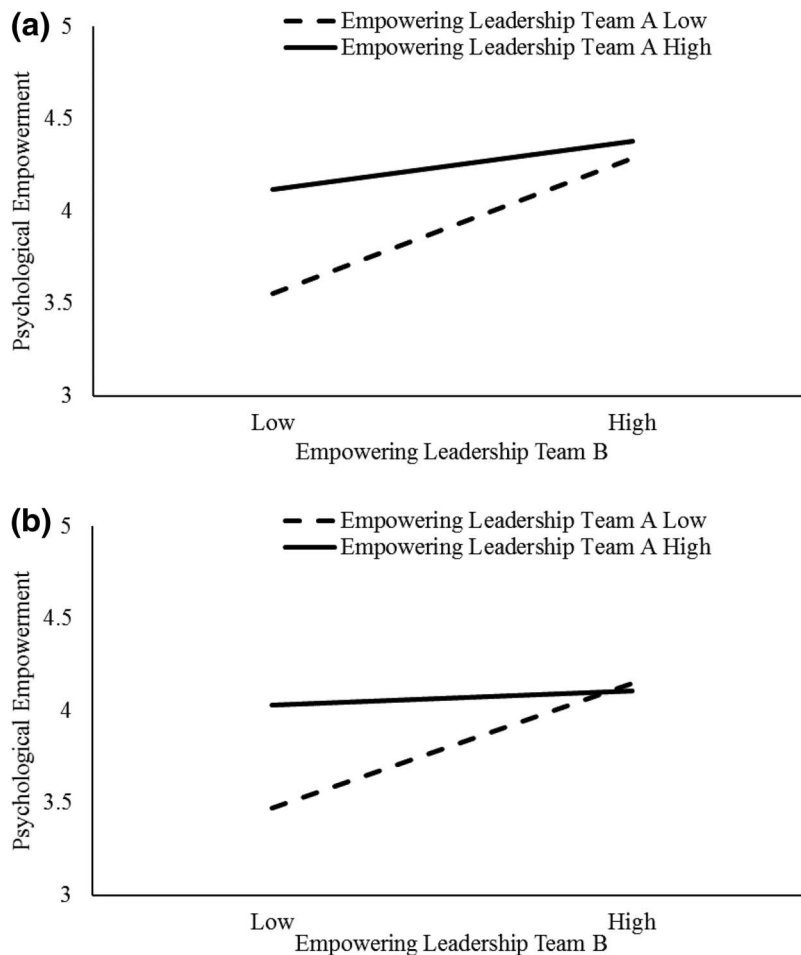


Figure 5. (a) Interaction effect of Team A \times Team B individual-referent empowering leadership on overall psychological empowerment (Study 3). (b) Interaction effect of Team A \times Team B team-referent empowering leadership on overall psychological empowerment (Study 3).

operationalizations of empowering leadership and psychological empowerment.

Third, we controlled for various alternative explanations, such as the amount of time employees worked in each team and the number of teams to which they were assigned (Study 2), and whether leaders had more formal power (i.e., were performance managers of employees, in addition to team leaders) and were colocated geographically (and hence teams were less distinct from each other; Study 3). Although results consistently supported our hypotheses despite these controls, other constructs or other operationalizations of these constructs may still moderate spillover effects involving leader influences in multiple team membership contexts. For example, in line with Ashforth et al.'s (2000) theorizing, one could expect leadership and other team effects to have stronger spillover effects across teams in which members hold roles with which they strongly identify (i.e., in which they hold more integrated roles across teams) as opposed to teams in which members hold less integrated (more distinct) roles. Likewise, spillover effects may be more powerful when there is greater similarity across the teams' social contexts (e.g., similar team goals and membership overlap across teams). In addition, leaders

who are more similar to employees (e.g., in terms of demographic or functional attributes) may more strongly influence their employees beyond the realm of their teams.

Fourth, despite the fact that we hypothesized and found that psychological empowerment can mediate between one team leader's empowering leadership and an employee's proactivity in other teams, we did not find evidence for spillover effects involving an employee's psychological empowerment in one team and their proactivity in another team. We also found that an employee's psychological empowerment in a focal team (but not her/his overall psychological empowerment) mediated between empowering leadership and employee proactivity in that focal team. Unfortunately, we did not examine overall (across teams) employee proactivity in Studies 2 and 3, and hence could not compare the relative influences of overall and team-specific psychological empowerment on overall proactivity.

It is also interesting, in this regard, that leader ratings of team-specific proactivity only modestly or weakly related across teams ($r = .24$ and $.07$ in Studies 2 and 3, respectively; see Tables 3 and 5). This raises important questions as to why and when an employee's reactions in one team, as well as overall (across teams),

may affect their behavior across teams. For example, might there be conditions under which employees are more likely to act proactively across different teams when they feel more empowered in specific teams and/or overall across teams? It is possible, for instance, that certain incentives (e.g., linking employee knowledge sharing and innovative behaviors to employee pay) and team climates (i.e., support for innovation climates across teams) can motivate more psychologically empowered employees in one specific team to engage in more proactivity across different teams (cf. Chen et al., 2013).

Finally, although we focused on employee proactivity, which has been theorized and shown to positively relate to important team outcomes (e.g., Chen et al., 2013; Griffin et al., 2007; Harris & Kirkman, 2017), we did not actually examine whether the empowerment processes studied in this research translated into improved team-level outcomes across teams. Thus, we clearly need to learn more about employee experiences and behaviors in multiple-team-membership settings. For example, studies can examine whether and when more motivated members (e.g., those who feel more psychologically empowered) promote positive outcomes across teams in which they work.

Conclusion

Given that many of today's employees simultaneously work in more than one team, importantly, our research suggests that the effects of empowering leadership are not isolated within the domain of a single team in which they are experienced. Rather, empowering leadership spills over to psychological empowerment (and then, in turn, to proactive behaviors) of employees in other teams in their workplace, broadening the scope of potential empowering leadership effects. Our study thus suggests that scholars studying leadership, teams, and proactivity need to better understand how the leadership that employees experience in one team generalizes to employees' psychological and behavioral reactions in other teams. We hope our research spurs additional investigations on employee and team processes in multiple team membership contexts.

References

- Ashforth, B. E., Kreiner, G. E., & Fugate, M. (2000). All in a day's work: Boundaries and micro role transitions. *The Academy of Management Review*, 25, 472–491. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.2000.3363315>
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York, NY: Freeman.
- Bates, D., Mächler, M., Bolker, B. M., & Walker, S. C. (2015). Fitting linear mixed-effects models using lme4. *Journal of Statistical Software*, 67, 1–48. <http://dx.doi.org/10.18637/jss.v067.i01>
- Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2012). *Industry employment and output projections to 2020*. Retrieved from <http://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2012/01/art4full.pdf>
- Casper, W. J., Vaziri, H., Wayne, J. H., DeHauw, S., & Greenhaus, J. (2018). The jingle-jangle of work-nonwork balance: A comprehensive and meta-analytic review of its meaning and measurement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 103, 182–214. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/ap10000259>
- Chen, G., Farh, J. L., Campbell-Bush, E. M., Wu, Z., & Wu, X. (2013). Teams as innovative systems: Multilevel motivational antecedents of innovation in R&D teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98, 1018–1027. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0032663>
- Chen, G., Gully, S. M., & Eden, D. (2001). Validation of a new general self-efficacy scale. *Organizational Research Methods*, 4, 62–83. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/109442810141004>
- Chen, G., & Kanfer, R. (2006). Toward a systems theory of motivated behavior in work teams. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 27, 223–267. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085\(06\)27006-0](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0191-3085(06)27006-0)
- Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., Kanfer, R., Allen, D., & Rosen, B. (2007). A multilevel study of leadership, empowerment, and performance in teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 331–346. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.331>
- Chen, G., Sharma, P. N., Edinger, S. K., Shapiro, D. L., & Farh, J. L. (2011). Motivating and demotivating forces in teams: Cross-level influences of empowering leadership and relationship conflict. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96, 541–557. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0021886>
- Chen, G., & Tesluk, P. E. (2012). Team participation and empowerment: A multilevel perspective. In S. W. J. Kozlowski (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of organizational psychology* (Vol. 2, pp. 767–788). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Chiaburu, D. S., Smith, T. A., Wang, J., & Zimmerman, R. D. (2014). Relative importance of leader influences for subordinates' proactive behaviors, prosocial behaviors, and task performance. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 13, 70–86. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000105>
- Cummings, J. N., & Haas, M. R. (2012). So many teams, so little time: Time allocation matters in geographically dispersed teams. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 33, 316–341. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/job.777>
- Eden, D., & Aviram, A. (1993). Self-efficacy training to speed reemployment: Helping people to help themselves. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 352–360. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.78.3.352>
- Eden, D., & Kinnar, J. (1991). Modeling Galatea: Boosting self-efficacy to increase volunteering. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76, 770–780. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.76.6.770>
- Eden, D., & Zuk, Y. (1995). Seasickness as a self-fulfilling prophecy: Raising self-efficacy to boost performance at sea. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80, 628–635. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.80.5.628>
- Edmondson, A. C. (2003). Speaking up in the operating room: How team leaders promote learning in interdisciplinary action teams. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40, 1419–1452. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/1467-6486.00386>
- Edmondson, A. C. (2012). *Teaming: How organizations learn, innovate, and compete in the knowledge economy*. San Francisco, CA: Wiley.
- Edwards, J. R., & Rothbard, N. P. (2000). Mechanisms linking work and family: Clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *The Academy of Management Review*, 25, 178–199. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.2000.2791609>
- Espinosa, J. A., Cummings, J. N., Wilson, J. M., & Pearce, B. M. (2003). Team boundary issues across multiple global firms. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 19, 157–190. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/07421222.2003.11045746>
- Evans, M. G. (1985). A Monte Carlo study of the effects of correlated method variance in moderated multiple regression analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 36, 305–323. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(85\)90002-0](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(85)90002-0)
- Ford, M. T., Heinen, B. A., & Langkamer, K. L. (2007). Work and family satisfaction and conflict: A meta-analysis of cross-domain relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 57–80. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.1.57>
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. *The Academy of Management Review*, 31, 72–92. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.2006.19379625>

- Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2007). A new model of work role performance: Positive behavior in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of Management Journal*, *50*, 327–347. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amj.2007.24634438>
- Harris, T. B., & Kirkman, B. L. (2017). Teams and proactivity. In U. K. Bindl & S. K. Parker (Eds.), *Proactivity and work: Making things happen in organizations* (pp. 530–558). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Judge, T. A., Erez, A., Bono, J. E., & Thoresen, C. J. (2002). Are measures of self-esteem, neuroticism, locus of control, and generalized self-efficacy indicators of a common core construct? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *83*, 693–710. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.83.3.693>
- Kirkman, B. L., & Rosen, B. (1999). Beyond self-management: Antecedents and consequences of team empowerment. *Academy of Management Journal*, *42*, 58–74.
- Konczak, L. J., Stelly, D. J., & Trusty, M. L. (2000). Defining and measuring empowering leader behaviors: Development of an upward feedback instrument. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, *60*, 301–313. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/00131640021970420>
- Kozlowski, S. W. J., & Bell, B. S. (2013). Work groups and teams in organizations. In N. Schmitt & S. Highhouse (Eds.), *Handbook of psychology: Vol. 12. Industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 412–469). London, UK: Wiley.
- Kurland, N. (in press). ESOP plus Benefit Corporation: Ownership culture with benefit accountability. *California Management Review*.
- Lord, R. G., Day, D. V., Zaccaro, S. J., Avolio, B. J., & Eagly, A. H. (2017). Leadership in applied psychology: Three waves of theory and research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *102*, 434–451. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/apl0000089>
- Martin, S. L., Liao, H., & Campbell, E. M. (2013). Directive versus empowering leadership: A field experiment comparing impacts on task proficiency and proactivity. *Academy of Management Journal*, *56*, 1372–1395. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0113>
- Mathieu, J. E., & Chen, G. (2011). The etiology of the multilevel paradigm in management research. *Journal of Management*, *37*, 610–641. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206310364663>
- Mathieu, J. E., Hollenbeck, J. R., van Knippenberg, D., & Ilgen, D. R. (2017). A century of work teams in the Journal of Applied Psychology. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *102*, 452–467. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/apl0000128>
- Mathieu, J., Maynard, M. T., Rapp, T., & Gilson, L. (2008). Team effectiveness 1997–2007: A review of recent advancements and a glimpse into the future. *Journal of Management*, *34*, 410–476. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206308316061>
- Maynard, M. T., Gilson, L. L., & Mathieu, J. E. (2012). Empowerment—Fad or fab? A multilevel review of the past two decades of research. *Journal of Management*, *38*, 1231–1281. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206312438773>
- Milgrom, P. R., & Roberts, J. (1992). *Economics, organization, and management*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- O’Leary, M. B., Mortensen, M., & Woolley, A. W. (2011). Multiple team membership: A theoretical model of its effects on productivity and learning for individuals and teams. *The Academy of Management Review*, *36*, 461–478.
- Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., & Strauss, K. (2010). Making things happen: A model of proactive motivation. *Journal of Management*, *36*, 827–856. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206310363732>
- Parker, S. K., & Collins, C. G. (2010). Taking stock: Integrating and differentiating multiple proactive behaviors. *Journal of Management*, *36*, 633–662. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0149206308321554>
- Pluut, H., Flestea, A. M., & Curşeu, P. L. (2014). Multiple team membership: A demand or resource for employees? *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, *18*, 333–348. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/gdn0000016>
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *88*, 879–903. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.5.879>
- Ruderman, M. N., Ohlott, P. J., Panzer, K., & King, S. N. (2002). Benefits of multiple roles for managerial women. *Academy of Management Journal*, *45*, 369–386.
- Schaubroeck, J. M., Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., Kozlowski, S. W., Lord, R. G., Treviño, L. K., . . . Peng, A. C. (2012). Embedding ethical leadership within and across organization levels. *Academy of Management Journal*, *55*, 1053–1078. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amj.2011.0064>
- Seibert, S. E., Wang, G., & Courtright, S. H. (2011). Antecedents and consequences of psychological and team empowerment in organizations: A meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *96*, 981–1003. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0022676>
- Selig, J. P., & Preacher, K. J. (2008). Monte Carlo method for assessing mediation: An interactive tool for creating confidence intervals for indirect effects [Computer software]. Retrieved from <http://quantpsy.org/medmc/medmc.htm>
- Sharma, P. N., & Kirkman, B. L. (2015). Leveraging leaders: A literature review and future lines of inquiry for empowering leadership research. *Group & Organization Management*, *40*, 193–237. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1059601115574906>
- Siemens, E., Roth, A., & Oliveira, P. (2010). Common method bias in regression models with linear, quadratic, and interaction effects. *Organizational Research Methods*, *13*, 456–476. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/1094428109351241>
- Snijders, T. A. B., & Bosker, R. J. (1999). *Multilevel analysis: An introduction to basic and advanced multilevel modeling*. London, UK: Sage.
- Spreitzer, G. M. (1995). Psychological empowerment in the workplace: Dimensions, measurement, and validation. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*, 1442–1465.
- Thomas, K. W., & Velthouse, B. A. (1990). Cognitive elements of empowerment: An “interpretive” model of intrinsic task motivation. *The Academy of Management Review*, *15*, 666–681.
- Vidhyarthi, P. R., Erdogan, B., Anand, S., Liden, R. C., & Chaudhry, A. (2014). One member, two leaders: Extending leader-member exchange theory to a dual leadership context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *99*, 468–483. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0035466>
- Wilson, J. M., Goodman, P. S., & Cronin, M. A. (2007). Group learning. *The Academy of Management Review*, *32*, 1041–1059. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.2007.26585724>
- Wood, R., & Bandura, A. (1989). Social cognitive theory of organizational management. *The Academy of Management Review*, *14*, 361–384. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amr.1989.4279067>
- Zhang, X., & Bartol, K. M. (2010). Linking empowering leadership and employee creativity: The influence of psychological empowerment, intrinsic motivation, and creative process engagement. *Academy of Management Journal*, *53*, 107–128. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5465/amj.2010.48037118>
- Zika-Viktorsson, A., Sundström, P., & Engwall, M. (2006). Project overload: An exploratory study of work and management in multi-project settings. *International Journal of Project Management*, *24*, 385–394. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijproman.2006.02.010>

(Appendix follows)

Appendix

Confirmatory Factor Analyses

Table A1
Confirmatory Factor Analyses (Study 2)

Variable/model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI
Empowering Leadership				
Free factor loadings & free factor covariances	43.94	15	—	.98
Equal factor loadings & free factor covariances	46.73	19	2.79	.98
Free factor loadings & equal factor covariances	660.05	16	616.11*	.69
Psychological Empowerment				
Free factor loadings & free factor covariances	48.40	15	—	.98
Equal factor loadings & free factor covariances	53.43	19	5.03	.98
Free factor loadings & equal factor covariances	301.35	16	252.95*	.89

Note. $N = 180$. We first created four parcels of items for each Empowering Leadership and Psychological Empowerment scale. For Empowering Leadership, the same group of items—chosen in random—composed Parcels #1–4 for Team A and Team B leaders; items of each Psychological Empowerment subdimension (i.e., Competence, Meaning, Autonomy, and Impact) were averaged to form the four parcels, separately for Team A and Team B responses. Also, in all models, error covariances of like-parcels were freely estimated (e.g., error variance for Team A Empowering Leadership Parcel #1 was allowed to covary freely with the error variance for Team B Empowering Leadership Parcel #1, etc.). *df* = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index.

* $p < .05$.

Table A2
Confirmatory Factor Analyses (Study 3)

Variable/model	χ^2	<i>df</i>	$\Delta\chi^2$	CFI
Empowering Leadership				
Free factor loadings & free factor covariances	183.33	74	—	.97
Equal factor loadings & free factor covariances	187.34	82	4.01	.97
Free factor loadings & equal factor covariances	1129.71	79	946.38*	.76
Psychological Empowerment				
Free factor loadings & free factor covariances	87.97	39	—	.96
Equal factor loadings & free factor covariances	97.75	47	9.78	.96
Free factor loadings & equal factor covariances	307.70	42	219.73*	.85

Note. $N = 151$. We first created four parcels of items each for Team A and Team B Empowering Leadership, and team-specific and overall Psychological Empowerment, scales. For Empowering Leadership, the same group of items—chosen in random—composed Parcels #1–4 for Team A and Team B leaders; items of each Psychological Empowerment subdimension (i.e., Competence, Meaning, Autonomy, and Impact—separately for team-specific and overall Psychological Empowerment scales) were averaged to form the four parcels, separately for the overall, Team A, and Team B scales. Also, in all models, error covariances of like-parcels were freely estimated (e.g., error variance for Team A Empowering Leadership Parcel #1 was allowed to covary freely with the error variance for Team B Empowering Leadership Parcel #1, etc.). *df* = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index.

* $p < .05$.

Received April 13, 2017
Revision received May 16, 2018
Accepted May 20, 2018 ■