Individual and contextual predictors of team member proactivity: what do we know and where do we go from here?

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A R T I C L E   I N F O

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A B S T R A C T

Contemporary organizations are placing greater emphasis on team work in order to meet the challenges of an increasingly turbulent business environment. In this context, the relationship between team member proactivity and overall team performance has been the focus of growing interest among management scholars and practitioners alike. Whereas extant scholarship acknowledges that team member proactivity is different from other forms of proactivity (i.e., individual and organization member proactivity), there is still only limited understanding of the factors that predict team member proactivity. Therefore, this paper extends current scholarship by identifying the individual and contextual predictors of team member proactivity and explaining how, taken together, they jointly influence team member proactivity. Building on these findings, the paper also identifies gaps in the current literature and proposes a model of team member proactivity to be tested in future research.

1. Introduction

Whereas ‘proactivity’ has become an increasingly common term in contemporary management discourse, it was first established as a specific field of study twenty-five years ago, when it was originally defined as “taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions” (Crant, 2000, p.436). A central theme in this definition is that employees are understood to engage in proactive activities both as part of their in-role behavior where they fulfill basic job requirements, and in their extra-role behavior which may involve redefining their role in the organization. This early definition was subsequently expanded beyond the individual level focus to accommodate environmental influences. Thus, for example, Grant and Ashford (2008) defined proactivity as “anticipatory actions that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environment” (p.8). These more expansive definitions prompted the emergence of studies examining proactivity at the team level of analysis, thereby capturing both how it influences individuals and contributes to team effectiveness (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). A key concern of these team-level studies has been to understand how elements of the social environment (i.e., relationships with and between coworkers and team leaders) impact on, and are impacted by, team member proactivity. In this regard, then, the focus has shifted away from individual characteristics as predictors of proactivity to explore the impact of contextual factors (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Hauschildt & Konradt, 2012; Liang & Gong, 2013). This shift signals how proactivity is not only an outcome of individual factors or contextual factors, but rather a complex combination of the two working together (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Ghitulescu, 2013; Hauschildt & Konradt, 2012; Kroon, Kooij, & van Veldhoven, 2013).

Although extant reviews have acknowledged that recent proactivity research has engaged more directly with the complexity of
proactivity and in particular the interplay between (a) the stable or transient characteristics of individuals (i.e., individual factors) and (b) the contextual factors that predict individual behavior (e.g., Grant & Ashford, 2008; Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010), we still know very little about proactivity at the team level of analysis (i.e., team member proactivity, Griffin et al., 2007). For example, whereas Parker et al. (2010) identified some predictors of team member proactivity, their work takes a relatively narrow focus and needs updating to cater to recent trends in the contemporary business environment. We offer this review, therefore, to extend contemporary understanding of this important research theme. The particular value of a more expansive review is that it allows for consolidation and elaboration of prior work on the individual and contextual predictors of proactivity (and their joint effects), whilst extending the emerging literature on team member proactivity more generally (e.g., Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Parker et al., 2010). In addition to making an important contribution to contemporary scholarship, the review has significant value for management practitioners given the increasing reliance on teams in many work contexts (Garrett & Gopalakrishna, 2017; Lyubovnikova, Legood, Turner, & Mamakouka, 2017). Specifically, it offers important insight for managers and team leaders seeking to enhance both individual and overall team performance (DeShon, Kozlowski, Schmidt, Milner, & Weichmann, 2004).

The aim of this review, therefore, is threefold 1) to consolidate what we already know about individual and contextual predictors of team member proactivity, 2) to examine how the identified individual and contextual predictors jointly influence team member proactivity and 3) to identify salient avenues for future research and practice. Connecting the review more directly to the Human Resource Management Literature, we will also use these three objectives as a platform to explain the centrality of HRM in enhancing team member proactivity.

Having introduced and identified the key objectives and contributions of the review, we turn now to examine its main constructs. This will be followed by a discussion of the methodological underpinnings of the review and a report of the findings. We will conclude by identifying gaps in the extant literature and suggesting a model for future research.

2. Defining team member proactivity

To define team member proactivity, we follow Griffin et al. (2007) who identified and defined proactivity targeted at different organizational levels. Specifically, they suggested that proactivity starts at the individual level, where individuals engage in self-starting, future-oriented behavior to change and/or improve their respective work situations, roles and tasks. This could be achieved, for example, by engaging in job crafting, a proactive work behavior where individuals revise and adjust their respective job tasks (Wrzesniewski & Dutton, 2001). Examples of job crafting activities include looking for alternative work methods to improve individual work efficiency (Baroudi & Khapova, 2017) or increasing social job resources (Tims, Bakker, & Derks, 2012). Some individuals might also engage in proactive work behavior by taking initiative, a form of self-starting, goal-directed proactive behavior aimed at improving how work is conducted, as well as developing personal prerequisites for meeting future work demands (Sonnenstag, 2003). Seeking feedback is another form of proactive work behavior which may also allow individuals to enhance their work performance by better responding to the demands of their respective environment, and thereby performing their work tasks more effectively (Ashford & Black, 1996; Parker & Collins, 2010). It is important to note, however, that proactivity at the individual level (as conceptualized by Griffin et al., 2007) is different from proactive career behavior because it is not aimed at furthering career goals, but rather focuses on how individuals improve their work (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010).

When individuals become part of a team and their work is dependent on and influenced by the performance of that team they will, according to Griffin et al. (2007), engage in team member proactivity (Griffin et al., 2007) where they start looking beyond their individual work roles and engage in proactive actions to impact on how their team operates as a whole. A construct that captures this form of behavior is team member initiative taking, in which a team member elects to perform duties that were originally allocated to others and/or solve collective problems to improve overall team functioning (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007). Team-oriented proactive behavior might also involve team members making suggestions to change standard procedures within work groups (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Van Dyne & Lepine, 1998) in order to enhance cooperation within the team (i.e., prosocial voice, Wang & Jiang, 2015). Another team member proactivity construct is team-oriented taking charge which comprises individual proactive behaviors aimed at improving how work is executed within the context of the respective work units (Li, Chiaburu, Kirkman, & Xie, 2013; Morrison & Phelps, 1999). In the extant research this construct is also classified as one of the four fundamental types of organizational citizenship behavior (e.g., Marinova, Moon, & Van Dyne, 2010).

As point of clarification, it is important to note that team member proactivity is conceptually different to team proactivity, where in the latter case, proactivity is a team endeavor rather than an individual endeavor (Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2010). Thus, for example, team proactivity involves the team as a whole engaging in proactive behavior, whereas team member proactivity involves team members engaging in some form of proactive behavior independently from the rest of the team. Table 1, below, provides an overview of the definitions and scale items of the distinguishable team member proactivity constructs that were identified in the review.

3. Method

In order to meet the research objectives outlined above, we reviewed relevant scholarly work that examines both individual and contextual predictors of team member proactivity and the joint effect of both sets of predictors. Whereas meta-analyses are usually conducted to assess individual relationships between independent and dependent variables (e.g., Ritz, Brewer, & Neumann, 2016; Rosenthal & Dimatteo, 2001), we are seeking to identify the relationships between multiple variables including several independent variables, moderators and mediators and its joint effect on team member proactivity. Therefore, we elected to conduct a systematic
We began the review by establishing the parameters for both working definitions of team member proactivity and for individual and contextual predictors. As noted above, we adopted Griffin et al. (2007) definition of proactivity at the team level. To capture and define individual and contextual predictors, we followed Zhou and Hoever’s (2014) understanding of individual-level predictors as “stable or transient individual characteristics such as personality traits, work motivations, an individual’s emotional state and creative abilities” (p. 336). Likewise, we used their definition of contextual predictors, defined as comprising the influence of aspects of the task, the physical environment, and the social environment (which may include relationships with and between coworkers, teams, leaders and customers) (p. 338). We then identified the key concepts relating to proactive behaviors which we understood as empirical/observable manifestations of proactive behavior (e.g., taking charge, personal initiative, job crafting and voice) rather than the trait-like conceptualizations of proactivity (e.g., proactive personality; Bateman & Crant, 1993). Following the same protocol adapted in other reviews (e.g., De Menezes & Kelliher, 2011), we combined these key concepts with the related concepts of “work”

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Scale Items</th>
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<tr>
<td>Team member proactivity</td>
<td>Reflects the extent to which an individual engages in self-starting, future-directed behavior to change a team's situation or the way the team works (Griffin et al., 2007 p.332)</td>
<td>1. Suggested ways to make your work unit more effectively 2. Developed new and improved methods to help your work unit perform better 3. Improved the way your work unit does things</td>
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<td>Team-oriented taking charge</td>
<td>Voluntary and constructive efforts, by individual employees, to effect organizationally functional change with respect to how work is executed within work units (Morrison &amp; Phelps, 1999, p. 403).</td>
<td>1. This person often tries to bring about improved procedures for the work unit or department.</td>
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<td>Team-oriented voice</td>
<td>Making innovative suggestions for change and recommending modifications to standard procedures affecting the work group even when others disagree (Van Dyne &amp; Lepine, 1998).</td>
<td>1. This particular co-worker develops and makes recommendations concerning issues that affect this work group 2. This particular co-worker speaks up and encourages others in this group to get involved in issues that affect the work group 3. This particular co-worker communicates his/her opinions about work issues to others in this group even if his/her opinion is different and others in the group disagree with him/her 4. This particular co-worker keeps him/herself well informed about issues where his/her opinion might be useful to this work group 5. This particular co-worker speaks up in this group with ideas for new projects or changes in the procedure</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cooperative voice</td>
<td>Cooperative voice is presented when employees are motivated by concern for others rather than for themselves (Wang et al., 2012)</td>
<td>1. Express solutions to problems with the cooperative motive of benefiting the work group and organization 2. Develop and make recommendations concerning issues that affect the work group and organization 3. Communicate opinions about work issues even if others disagree 4. Suggest ideas for change based on constructive concern for the work group and organization 5. Speak up with ideas for new projects that might benefit the work group</td>
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<td>Interpersonal proactive behavior</td>
<td>Focuses on promoting partners' benefits and maintaining high-quality relationships at work (Hwang et al., 2015)</td>
<td>1. share knowledge with colleagues. 2. take over colleagues' tasks when needed even though s/he is not obliged to 3. help orient new colleagues 4. help colleagues with developing or implementing new ideas</td>
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<tr>
<td>Employee propensity to safety initiatives for improving the work group's environment</td>
<td>The extent to which members of the work group take informal initiatives to improve safety, as well as make suggestions to and exert pressures on the supervisor for improving the work-environment's safety for the work group (Simard &amp; Marchand, 1995 p.115)</td>
<td>1. Employees take personal initiatives for improving the safe execution of their work for the work group. 2. Employees make suggestions to the supervisor for improving safety of the work environment 3. Employees put pressure on the supervisor for improving the safety of the work environment</td>
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and “team-level” to search for relevant articles in the ISI Web of Knowledge. We also filtered articles based on management and applied psychology research. Given that the literature on the antecedents of proactivity dates back to 1993 (e.g., Bateman & Crant, 1993), we ensured that our review was sufficiently comprehensive by searching for articles published from that date onwards. This initial search provided a preliminary sample of 140 articles.

In the next step, we read each of the identified article abstracts for potential inclusion in the final review. We excluded those articles that focused on concepts that are distinct from, although related to, proactivity, such as creativity at work (e.g., Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2013), thriving at work (e.g., Paterson, Luthans, & Jeung, 2014), goal regulation (e.g., Bindl, Parker, Totterdell, & Hagger-Johnson, 2012), organizational citizenship behavior as a one-dimensional construct (e.g., Hoffman, Blair, Meriac, & Woehr, 2007) and deviant work behavior (e.g., Vadera, Pratt, & Mishra, 2013), leaving a sample of 97 articles. We then read each of the 97 articles in detail. After this intense period of reading, 56 articles were excluded because their focus was outside the parameters of this particular project. Thus, for example, some examined proactive personality as an outcome, or proactive socialization processes, whereas others examined proactive behaviors as predictors and moderators and/or mediators (and thus were not investigated as outcomes). We also explored whether each of the remaining articles defined and operationalized team member proactivity to ensure appropriate synergy with the review’s objectives.

The final sample from the review comprised 41 empirical studies that focused solely on empirical research examining team member proactivity as an outcome in relationships in which individual and contextual factors were examined 1) as direct predictors, 2) as moderators and/or mediators or 3) jointly, to demonstrate moderated-mediated and mediated-moderated effects on team member proactivity. We turn now to the findings of the review, commencing with the individual predictors of team member proactivity.

4. Individual predictors of team member proactivity

In their seminal work, Crant (2000) and Parker et al. (2010) identified several individual-level predictors of proactivity such as proactive personality, goal-orientation, need for achievement and feedback, control appraisals and attributions, perceived costs of action, proactive motivation, positive affect, values, goal-orientation and knowledge, skills and abilities. When focusing specifically on the team level of analysis, our review reveals that team member proactivity can be predicted by the individual factors personality, knowledge skills and abilities (KSA), goal-orientation, affect, values and perceived costs of action, as explained below:

4.1. Personality

The idea that personality impacts on the extent to which someone will engage in proactive behavior is a longstanding feature of proactivity scholarship (e.g., Bateman & Crant, 1993; Crant, 2000). Individuals with a proactive personality, for example, have been found to identify opportunities more easily compared to their less proactive counterparts. They are also more likely to take initiative and engage in action that will ensure/promote meaningful change in their respective work environment. On the other hand, individuals with more passive personalities are more likely to accept a set of circumstances as ‘given’ without feeling the need to challenge or amend those circumstances to suit their own purposes (Bakker, Tims, & Derks, 2012).

Indeed, in our review of the literature, we found evidence that personality also predicts team member proactivity. For instance, Neal, Yeo, Koy, and Xiao (2012) examined how the Big Five traits influence proactivity at different organizational levels. Interestingly, at the team-level of analysis they found that only two personality traits influence team member proactivity (i.e., conscientiousness and neuroticism). The personality trait of conscientiousness, which refers to an individual’s propensity to be dependable and to strive for achievement (Barrick & Mount, 1991) was found to trigger individuals to look beyond their own work roles and to direct their proactive actions towards benefitting their team. On the other hand, neuroticism, a personality trait characterized by a predisposition towards negative cognitions, intrusive thoughts, and emotional reactivity (Smillie, Yeo, Furnham, & Jackson, 2006), appeared to trigger individuals to be more passive and hence was found to negatively influence team member proactivity. In another study, Wang and Hu (2018) investigated the relationship between the positive personality trait of core self-evaluations and deviant work behavior (e.g., Vadera, Pratt, & Mishra, 2013), leaving a sample of 97 articles. We then read each of the 97 articles in detail. After this intense period of reading, 56 articles were excluded because their focus was outside the parameters of this particular project. Thus, for example, some examined proactive personality as an outcome, or proactive socialization processes, whereas others examined proactive behaviors as predictors and moderators and/or mediators (and thus were not investigated as outcomes). We also explored whether each of the remaining articles defined and operationalized team member proactivity to ensure appropriate synergy with the review’s objectives.

4.2. Knowledge, skills and abilities (KSA)

Employees’ judgements of their perceived capability to go above and beyond their respective prescribed job tasks, also known as their role-breadth self-efficacy (Parker, 1998), is another important individual predictor of team member proactivity. Several studies have indicated that when individuals have confidence in their abilities to be proactive, they are more likely to take proactive actions to improve team functioning (e.g., Griffin et al., 2007; Hwang, Han, & Chiu, 2015; Strauss, Griffin, & Rafferty, 2009). Adding to this finding, Hauschildt and Konradt (2012) have reported that self-leadership, that is team members’ ability to lead themselves and work independently, enhances their proactivity towards the team indicating the additional importance of employee leadership skills for proactivity at the team level.
4.3. Goal-orientation

There are three types of goal orientation: performance-avoid goal orientation, performance-prove goal orientation, and learning goal orientation (VandeWalle, 1997). Individuals with high levels of performance-prove goal orientations, focus on attaining high levels of performance in order to ‘prove’ that they have the requisite skills and competencies. Conversely, individuals scoring high on performance-avoid goal orientations have a tendency to avoid negative work outcomes (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010), and thus focus on performing easy manageable tasks. Individuals with a learning goal orientation, however, are more concerned with mastering new skills rather than increasing performance per se (Dweck, 1986). Although extant research has examined all three types of goal orientation in relation to proactivity at all three organizational levels (e.g., Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Parker & Collins, 2010), where team member proactivity is concerned this review suggests that only a learning goal orientation can predict proactive behavior. Belschak and Den Hartog (2010), for example, report that employees with a high learning goal orientation engage in proactive behaviors to benefit teams more than their counterparts with a low learning goal orientation. High learning oriented individuals are also likely to achieve their learning goals by focusing on improving their teams (rather than individual work roles), because it offers a more challenging opportunity for learning (Farr, Hoffmann, & Ringenbach, 1993).

4.4. Affect

Affective work experiences are emotions that are felt in the workplace and which influence individual behavior (Barsade, 2002; George & Brief, 1992) and proactive behavior in the workplace in general (e.g., Binnewies, Sonnentag, & Mojza, 2009). The majority of scholars differentiate between positive and negative affect at work, often also conceptualized as positive and negative mood (Burke, Brief, George, & Roberson, 1989; Fisher, 2002). A high positive affect at work refers to “a state of high energy, full concentration, and pleasurable engagement” (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988 p. 1063) resulting in feelings of excitement, inspiration or a need to be physically active. In contrast, a high negative affect can be described as a state of “subjective distress and unpleasant engagement that subsumes a variety of aversive mood states” (p. 1063) and refers to feelings of being afraid, upset or hostile (Watson et al., 1988).

Our review reveals that positive feelings, moods and energy are particularly important resources for proactivity at the team level. For instance, Den Hartog and Belschak (2007) reported that team members are more likely to take extra initiative to contribute to team goals when they are emotionally attached to their team. In a similar vein, Lepine and Van Dyne (1998) identified a positive relationship between a member's satisfaction with their team and the extent to which they voice their ideas and suggestions for team goals when they are emotionally attached to their team. In some instances, however, personal values may also negatively influence team member proactivity. For example, Botero and Van Dyne (2009) reported that the individual cultural value orientation power distance (i.e., the extent to which differences in power are expected and accepted, Hofstede, 1980) negatively influences team-oriented voice behavior. This finding suggests that when individuals expect and accept power differences they are less likely to suggest improvements for change because it would mean going against their personal values.

4.5. Values

Some proactivity scholars have also identified the influence of personal values on team member proactivity where they have been shown to have both positive and negative effects. To illustrate the positive effects, Hwang et al. (2015) reported that when individuals internalize a team's norms and values (i.e., relational self-concept, Brewer & Gardner, 1996) to the extent that the values become expected and accepted, Hofstede, 1980) negatively influences team-oriented voice behavior. This finding suggests that when individuals expect and accept power differences they are less likely to suggest improvements for change because it would mean going against their personal values.

4.6. Perceived costs of action

Our review has also indicated that the perceived costs of being proactive are also likely to influence team member proactivity. When individuals engage in proactive behaviors to change and/or improve team functioning, for example, their behavior is likely to influence other team members (Griffin et al., 2007). For this reason, individuals might perceive being proactive as involving some element of risk and particularly if there is a chance that it might not be welcomed by other team members, as might be the case if the individual suggests a different way of working that involves longer work hours or demands extra effort. Indeed, in their study Frazier and Fainshmidt (2012) highlight the need for all team members to support proactive behavior. Specifically, their findings indicate that when team members perceive that they are encouraged to speak up and make suggestions (i.e., perceived group voice climate, Morrison, Wheeler-Smith, & Kamar, 2011), they are motivated to engage in team-oriented voice behavior and suggest improvements for the team. Likewise, cooperative relationships in which the costs of proactive actions are perceived to be lower by team members, had a positive impact on their initiative taking to contribute to a safer work environment (Simard & Marchand, 1995).

5. Contextual predictors of team member proactivity

Crant (2000) and Parker et al. (2010) also identified several contextual predictors of team member proactivity including: organizational culture and norms, situational cues, management support and public vs. private setting, job design, leadership and social processes.
Our review reveals that the contextual predictors of job design, leadership and management and organization support have been the focus of particular attention in relation to team member proactivity. We will, therefore, focus on these particular themes below.

5.1. Job design

There is an extensive body of literature demonstrating that proactivity varies as a function of the characteristics of work tasks and the nature of the work itself (e.g., Frese, Garst, & Fay, 2007; Ohly & Fritz, 2010; Petrou, Demerouti, Peeters, Schaufeli, & Hetland, 2012). Thus, for example, flexibility and autonomy in teams and team size have been shown to have an important influence on team member proactivity. Focusing on the flexible nature of work in teams, for instance, Simard and Marchand (1995) reported that non-routine work processes trigger team members to take informal initiatives by making suggestions to and exerting pressure on their supervisors to improve the work environment's safety for the team. Their study also suggested that the more flexible and unpredictable team tasks are, the more employees feel pressured to contribute to a safer work environment both for themselves and their team. In another study, Lepine and Van Dyne (1998) reported a direct relationship between team size and autonomy and the extent to which team members voice their ideas and suggestions for improving team effectiveness. Specifically, they found that the smaller the size of the team (i.e., when team members are collaborating with fewer coworkers), the more team members will engage in voice behaviors to contribute to team effectiveness. Lepine and Van Dyne (1998) also reported that the more autonomous the team, the more team members feel a responsibility to proactively suggest solutions and ideas to improve team effectiveness.

5.2. Leadership

Our review also identified a broad body of literature examining how leadership influences team member proactivity. For example, leadership style, leadership skills, leader trust, leader tension, empowering leadership behaviors and leader-subordinate relationships have all been found to have an impact on team member proactivity. Turning first to leadership style, there is strong evidence to suggest that different leadership styles influence team member proactivity differently. For example, transformational leadership has been found to positively predict team member proactivity (e.g., Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Liu, Lee, Hui, Kwan, & Wu, 2013; Wang, Hsieh, Tsai, & Cheng, 2012). A positive relationship has also been found between ethical leadership and employees’ voice behavior directed towards improving team dynamics and functioning (Walumbwa & Schaubroeck, 2009). On the other hand, abusive leadership was found to have a negative impact on the team member proactivity construct of prosocial voice (Wang & Jiang, 2015). These findings indicate that in order for team members to direct their proactivity towards benefitting their team, a leader who positively influences their attitude (Bass, 1985) and who motivates and encourages them to perform beyond expectations (Yukl, 1998) is required, as might be the case with transformational and ethical leaders. Conversely, leaders engaging in abusive behavior are likely to inhibit team member proactivity.

Continuing the focus on leadership skills, in her study Edmondson (2003) explored voice behavior in action teams in hospitals and demonstrated a significant relationship between the contextual variables of team leader coaching and team preparation with team member's voice behavior. More specifically, her study indicated that leaders with coaching skills and an orientation towards coaching are more likely to promote team practice sessions to give team members an opportunity to practice voice behavior (i.e., without putting a patient’s life at stake). As a result, team members learned how to engage in voice behaviors and became more confident in expressing their opinions, thereby engaging in more team-oriented voice behaviors. In another study, Schraub, Michel, Shemla, and Sonntag (2014) explored the effect of ‘leader emotion management’ on team members’ willingness to take personal initiative. As a point of clarification here, leader-emotion management can be best understood as the degree to which leaders are capable of managing their own and their employees’ emotions (Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, Van Kleef, & Damen, 2008). Schraub et al. (2014), then, found that the more capable leaders are in respecting different opinions in their team, in overcoming the frustration of team members, in demonstrating and encouraging enthusiasm, and in supporting team members more generally (Jordan & Lawrence, 2009), the more likely the respective team members are to take the initiative to improve team effectiveness. Taken together these findings highlight the importance of specific leadership skills for enhancing and encouraging proactivity at the team level.

Finally, our review suggests that the contextual factors of leader trust and empowering leadership behaviors positively influence group-oriented voice behaviors. Thus, for example, Gao, Janssen, and Shi (2011) reported that when employees trust their leader they are more likely to engage in voice behavior as a way of contributing towards team effectiveness. This positive relationship was moderated by empowering leadership behaviors (i.e., informing and coaching), such that leader trust was positively associated with employee voice aimed towards improving team effectiveness when empowering leadership behaviors were high. On the other hand, the relationship was non-significant when empowering leadership behaviors were low. In another study, Schlosser and Zolin (2012) examined the relationship between supervisory tension (understood as the level of tension felt by a supervisor) and felt trust towards employees with employees’ prosocial voice targeted at the respective supervisor. They reported that the more tension a supervisor feels the more willing he/she is to receive suggestions for team improvements from subordinates, thereby inviting employees to engage in more team-oriented voice behaviors. They also reported that the more trust a supervisor feels towards employees, the more likely they are to express voice behaviors. Finally, the quality of relationships between leaders and their subordinates (i.e., characterized by trust) has also been found to positively predict team-oriented voice behaviors (Botero & Van Dyne, 2009).

5.3. Management and organization support

Our review also identified an emerging body of research examining the relationship between management and organization support
support and team member proactivity. Some scholars, for example, have demonstrated that employees are more willing to engage in proactive behavior if management and organization support systems encourage them to do so (e.g., Crawshaw, van Dick, & Brodbeck, 2012; Liu et al., 2013). However, focusing on team member proactivity specifically, it is notable that some studies have reported that such support may positively or negatively influence proactive behavior. Turning first to the positive impact of management and organization support, Simard and Marchand (1995) found that participative management (in which employees are voluntarily involved in managing accident prevention activities) increases team members’ initiative taking towards the team. In another study, Takeuchi, Chen, and Cheung (2012) drew attention to the interactive effects between management and organization support factors on team-oriented voice behaviors. They reported a direct positive relationship between interpersonal justice (i.e., perceived interpersonal or interactional fairness in organizations) and team-oriented voice behavior, which was moderated by procedural justice (i.e., perceived procedural fairness in organizations) such that the relationship becomes weaker when procedural justice is high rather than low. In another study, Wang, Weng, McElroy, Ashkanasy, and Lievens (2014) demonstrated a positive relationship between personal or interactional fairness in organizations and team-oriented voice behavior, which was moderated by procedural justice (i.e., perceived procedural fairness in organizations). These results suggest that team member proactivity will be influenced (i.e., higher or lower), when contextual factors in the team are combined with positive affect. In another study, Li et al. (2013) focused on team-oriented taking charge behaviors and indicated that team commitment (i.e., team members’ emotional attachment to their team) negatively moderated the positive relationship between transformational leadership and taking charge. Transformational leaders who foster team member proactivity, by establishing clear team norms to support proactivity (Aga, Noorderhaven, & Vallejo, 2016), thus have less impact on team member proactivity when team members have higher, rather than lower, levels of team commitment.

Turning now to the effect of personality and goal-orientation on the relationship between contextual factors and team member proactivity, it is instructive to reexamine Li et al.’s (2013) study. In that study the authors reported a positive relationship between transformational leadership and team-oriented taking charge behavior, which was negatively moderated by team members’ learning goal orientation and proactive personality. Specifically, the moderation effect that they identified indicated that transformational team leaders influence team members’ taking charge behavior less when team members have proactive personalities and a propensity to set learning oriented goals.

Finally, although we found no evidence in the literature that gender is a direct individual-level predictor of team member proactivity, there was evidence to suggest that it acts as a moderator in the relationship between the contextual factor of management and organization support and team member proactivity. To illustrate, we return to Wang et al.’s (2014) study, introduced earlier in this paper, where the authors reported a positive relationship between career and professional development opportunities and employees’ team-oriented voice behavior. In that study, relationships were found to be moderated by gender, such that the relationship between career development opportunities and employees’ team-oriented voice behavior was stronger for males. The
positive relationship between employees' professional development (i.e., the degree to which employees are supported by the organization in developing their skills and competencies) and employees' team-oriented voice behavior was also moderated by gender, albeit more so among females. These findings suggest that males and females have different preferences with regard to career development opportunities, which tends to influence their team member proactivity.

6.2. Individual characteristics as mediators

Our review also suggested that the individual-level predictors values, perceived costs of action and KSA's have each been examined as mediators in the direct relationship between the contextual factor of leadership style and team member proactivity. To illustrate the mediating effect of values, for example, Wang et al. (2012) reported that group-focused transformational leadership positively predicted cooperative voice (i.e., team members expressing work-related ideas, information, and opinions based on collective and cooperative motives of a team or work group). This relationship was also mediated by followers' perceptions of value congruence between him/herself and their respective leader, a construct that refers to team members' perception that their personal values are similar to the values of their leaders (Kark & Shamir, 2002). Thus, when a team has a transformational leader, followers will show him/her that they have similar beliefs and values by proactively voicing constructive ideas to improve their respective team. In a similar vein, Lui, Zhu, and Yang (2010) demonstrated that team member's personal and social identification explains the direct positive relationship between transformational leadership and team-oriented voice behaviors. This indicates that transformational leaders are able to foster team member proactivity, because their followers admire them to the extent that they become motivated to become similar to their leader in terms of beliefs and values (i.e., personal identification, Pratt, 1998) and because they then also start defining themselves as bona fide members of their team, sharing the same values with the rest of the team (i.e., social identification, Mael & Ashforth, 1992). This increases their orientation towards team outcomes thereby positively influencing team member proactivity.

Walumbwa and Schaubroeck (2009) study illustrates the mediating effect of employees' perceived costs of action where they found a positive relationship between ethical leadership and employees' team-oriented voice behavior, which was mediated by team member's beliefs that is it safe for them to engage in risk taking in their team (i.e., psychologically safe work climate, Edmondson, 1999). This finding suggests that when teams have ethical leaders, team members feel more inclined to take risks, which results in more individual proactive contributions to the team. Additionally, Strauss et al. (2009) demonstrated that at the team level, leaders facilitate proactivity by increasing team member's confidence in their KSA's (i.e., role breadth self-efficacy). Finally, Brosi et al. (2018) demonstrate that there is also a joint effect between the contextual factor management and organization support and the individual factor positive affect. Specifically, their findings indicate that organizational pride in employees' efforts is associated with greater team member proactivity through affective organizational commitment. In other words, the more an organization values and appreciates employee effort, the more employees will become emotionally attached to their organizations (Allen & Meyer, 1990), and thus the more likely they will look beyond their individual work roles and engage in proactivity to benefit their team.

6.3. Contextual factors as moderators

As discussed above, our review has identified a paucity of research examining how contextual factors influence the direct relationship between individual predictors of team member proactivity and subsequent proactive behavior. We found, for instance, only one recently published article by Wu, Parker, Wu, and Lee (2018) demonstrating that different contextual factors can shape individual or team member proactivity by enabling employees to express their conceptions of individuality. More specifically, their findings show that at the team-level of analysis, individuals with interdependent self-construals (i.e., individuals who see themselves as interdependent with others, Markus & Kitayama, 1991) engage in proactive behaviors, but only when job interdependence is high. When job interdependence is low, however, there is an insignificant association between the individual predictor and team member proactivity. Additionally, the authors demonstrate that an individual’s commitment to his/her team, mediates the direct positive relationship between an interdependent self-construal and team member proactivity, but again only when job interdependence is high. Taken together, these findings highlight the importance of aligning one's job design with one's personal values and with positive affect to enhance team member proactivity. Table 2, below, summarizes and provides an overview the findings of our review.

7. Where should we go from here?

Having reviewed the extant literature on the individual and contextual predictors of team member proactivity, we have highlighted some of the key lines of enquiry and reported findings in the field. We have also examined contemporary theory and suggested an important area for further enquiry, which we will elaborate on below. As noted above, a key finding of the review is that there is a paucity of research identifying how contextual factors influence the direct relationship between individual predictors of team member proactivity and subsequent forms of proactive behavior. That so little attention has been paid to this theme seems particularly problematic given widespread empirical evidence that contextual factors have a significant influence on an individual's propensity to engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors (e.g., Griffin et al., 2007; Parker et al., 2010; Wu et al., 2018). Therefore, capitalizing on the findings of our review, and in order to contribute to the field we propose an integrated framework (see Fig. 1) which identifies the contextual factors that influence the relationship between individual predictors of team member proactivity and subsequent proactive behavior. In doing so, we also demonstrate how these contextual factors may influence the latter relationship. Our specific aim in this regard is to inspire other researchers to test the model empirically and to thus advance the field further.
Table 2
Summary of individual-level and contextual predictors of team member proactivity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Individual predictors</th>
<th>Contextual predictors</th>
<th>Joint effect of the two predictors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Personality</td>
<td>Job design</td>
<td>Affect and job design</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Conscientiousness +</td>
<td>• Autonomy +</td>
<td>Team size has a negative relationship with team member proactivity, which is strengthened when team members are highly satisfied with their team.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Neuroticism −</td>
<td>• Flexibility +</td>
<td>Team autonomy has a positive relationship with team member proactivity, which is strengthened when team members are highly satisfied with their team.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Core self-evaluation +</td>
<td>• Team size -</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KSA</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Role breadth self-efficacy +</td>
<td>• Transformational leader +</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Self-leadership skills +</td>
<td>• Ethical leader +</td>
<td>Transformational leadership has a positive relationship with team member proactivity, which is negatively moderated by member's team commitment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Role breadth self-efficacy +</td>
<td>• Coaching orientation +</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Core self-evaluation +</td>
<td>• Team size -</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Goal-orientation</td>
<td>Management and organization support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Learning +</td>
<td>• Participative management +</td>
<td>Follower's perception of value congruence mediates the positive relationship between transformational leadership and team member proactivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Interpersonal justice +</td>
<td>• Organizational conflict management -</td>
<td>Personal and social identification mediate the relationship between transformational leadership and team-oriented voice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Procedural justice (moderator)</td>
<td>• Relationship conflict management -</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affect</td>
<td>Values and leadership</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Emotional bond with one's team +</td>
<td></td>
<td>KSA and leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Satisfaction with team +</td>
<td></td>
<td>Role breadth self-efficacy mediates the positive relationship between transformational leadership and team member proactivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Perceived costs of action and leadership</td>
<td>Perceived costs of action and leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Relational self-concept +</td>
<td></td>
<td>A perceived psychologically safe work environment mediates the positive relationship between ethical leadership and team member proactivity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Power distance -</td>
<td>Perceived group voice climate +</td>
<td>Personality, goal-orientation and leadership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Perceived cooperative relationships +</td>
<td></td>
<td>The positive relationship between transformational leadership and team member proactivity is weaker when individuals have proactive personalities and a high learning-goal orientation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Gender, management and organization support
The positive relationship between career development opportunities and team member proactivity is stronger for females. Positive affect and management and organization support
The positive relationship between professional ability development and team member proactivity is stronger for females. Positive affect and management and organization support

Job design, values and affect
There exists a positive relationship between interdependent self-construals and team member proactivity, but only when job interdependency is high. An individual's commitment with his/her team mediates the positive relationship between interdependent self-construals and team member proactivity, but only when job interdependency is high.
8. Contextual factors influencing individual proactive behaviors in teams

Although there is currently only a limited understanding of the mechanisms triggering independent behaviors in teams, the literature on groupthink (e.g., Fulmer & Ostroff, 2016) offers a useful starting point. This body of literature provides a potentially useful explanation for individual behavior in teams, such as when team members engage in proactivity (e.g., Griffin et al., 2007). Therefore, below, we will introduce Fulmer and Ostroff’s (2016) recent work on groupthink and demonstrate its potential value for explaining how contextual factors could influence the relationship between individual predictors of team member proactivity and subsequent proactive behavior.

Groupthink, a term first coined by Janis (1972), has been widely understood as a premature consensus-seeking behavior that occurs among group members, with the potential to limit effective group decision-making. Although it has been the topic of considerable scholarly interest for many years, Fulmer and Ostroff’s (2016) recent work on emergence and convergence offers a particularly useful explanation for how it occurs in contemporary organizations. Specifically, these authors suggest that groupthink occurs when differences between individuals’ perceptions, attitudes and feelings converge resulting in similar reactions, behaviors and shared experiences. Understood from this perspective, then, groupthink would be especially likely to occur when members of a group or team feel pressured to conform to a particular set of behavioral expectations or standards.

To provide theoretical support for their argument, Fulmer and Ostroff (2016) draw on social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978) and sensemaking theory (Weick, 1995). First, drawing on social information processing theory, the authors argue that individuals’ work attitudes and behaviors are directly informed by the information they pick up from their respective work context. Second, drawing on sensemaking theory (Weick, 1995), they argue that how individuals make sense of their respective contexts informs their subsequent behavior and thinking towards others in that context. This argument has also been supported by earlier work, which suggests that this process is especially likely to occur when an individual confronts a new situation, event, or action (Weick, 1995; Wrzesniewski, Dutton, & Debebe, 2003). Fulmer and Ostroff (2016) suggest that mutual interactions within a group or team are new events and thus trigger sensemaking, as individuals seek to make sense of each other’s attitudes and behaviors (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994). Thus, if conformity is favored and expected by the team as a whole, members will feel pressured to behave and think similarly.

Extending this line of thinking further and to incorporate contextual influences, Fulmer and Ostroff (2016) also argue that groupthink and behavior can be facilitated by four specific contextual factors 1) structure and practices, 2) leader behaviors and leader-member interactions, 3) social processes and 4) homogeneity of individual attributes. Taking this argument as our starting point, as we explain below, these four contextual factors may also trigger team-oriented proactive behaviors occurring as an individual activity (i.e., team member proactivity).

9. Structure and practices

Fulmer and Ostroff (2016) argue that formal structures such as size, formalization and hierarchy are structural features that influence individual interpretations of events and interactions. These interpretations then impact on subsequent work behaviors, such that individuals start to behave and think similarly and thus engage in work behaviors collaboratively (i.e., as a group or team...
activity). The authors also suggest that management practices impact on work behaviors and should, therefore, be incorporated into our understanding of the contextual influences on behavior. We extend this line of thinking further, and argue that smaller team sizes, flexibility and autonomy are the structural features that influence sensemaking in teams and trigger individuals to engage in work behaviors individually. Although targeted at improving team outcomes, proactivity will then be most likely an individual activity (i.e., team member proactivity). In addition to this, we argue that hybrid reward structures can be used as management practices to enhance team member proactivity.

9.1. Team size

Turning first to team size, the relationship between the number of members in a team and their respective involvement in team activities was clearly identified in some of the earliest work in the field (e.g., Hackman & Vidmar, 1970; Thomas & Fink, 1963). Diffusion of responsibility was also been found to be positively related to the number of members in a team in this early work (Latane, 1981). Taken together, these early findings explain why team members may feel less responsible and motivated to contribute to team-level outcomes in larger teams, because it is more difficult to identify their individual contributions. Some of the very early research in the field has also suggested that pressure to conform tends to increase with team size (Gerard, Wilhelmy, & Conolley, 1968), making it less likely that individual members will suggest challenging or change-oriented ideas to improve team effectiveness. Rather, it is more likely that they will follow behaviors, attitudes and responses that are favored and expected by others in the respective team (Guzzo & Noonan, 1994).

Connecting this line of thinking with our review of the literature indicates that there is, indeed, a strong negative relationship between team size and team member proactivity as suggested by Lepine and Van Dyne (1998). However, extending the same line of thinking further, we propose that team size could also be understood as a contextual factor influencing the direct relationship between individual characteristics and team member proactivity. Thus, we propose that individuals who have the characteristics that trigger team member proactivity, such as high levels of conscientiousness (Neal et al., 2012), a learning-goal orientation (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010), and commitment to and satisfaction with their team (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007; Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998) for more individual-level predictors of team member proactivity, see Table 2, will be more likely to engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors when they are part of a smaller team. Moreover, we suggest that they will do so because their individual proactive contributions to their team are more likely to be recognized in smaller teams. However, they are also more likely to engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors individually, because mutual interactions are more likely to be facilitated in smaller teams, compared to larger teams. Proactive individuals will then have a much better understanding of how to direct their team-oriented proactive behavior to achieve positive outcomes both for themselves as individuals and for the team as a whole. Thus we propose that individuals with the characteristics that promote individual proactive behaviors are also more likely to engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors individually, if they are working in smaller teams.

**Proposition 1.** Team size will moderate the positive relationship between individual's proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact decreases when the team size increases.

9.2. Flexibility of work

Some scholars have argued that work roles cannot be formalized in contexts where individuals need to take charge of situations, anticipate problems and initiate changes at work (Williams et al., 2010). Supporting this argument, our review of the literature demonstrated that in a team context, individuals will be more motivated to engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors if the nature of their work is flexible (e.g., Simard & Marchand, 1995). Whereas routine work processes tend to be predictable and highly structured or formalized, non-routine work processes tend to be characterized by high levels of uncertainty requiring more flexibility in how, when and by whom they are performed (Simard & Marchand, 1995). Non-routine work processes, then, also require more proactivity where individuals must exert more control over the respective task, deciding how and when it needs to be completed. They also trigger more mutual interactions between team members and thus increase the requirement for accurate sensemaking to facilitate individual contributions to team performance. Thus, we propose that individuals with proactive individual characteristics engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors individually in teams when the nature of their respective work is flexible.

**Proposition 2.** Flexibility of work will moderate the positive relationship between individual's proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams with higher flexibility of work.

9.3. Autonomy

Turning now to autonomy, building on the propositions identified above, we also argue that individuals with proactive individual characteristics are likely to engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors in teams with high levels of autonomy. Specifically, autonomy allows team members to meet the demands of their work roles and responsibilities while at the same time enhancing their team member proactivity (e.g., Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998; Simard & Marchand, 1995). Exploring this proposition further, previous research has argued that self-management (i.e., autonomy) in teams increases individual motivation to be proactive (Williams et al., 2010). In autonomous teams, therefore, individuals are likely to experience greater task control and engagement in challenging tasks (Williams et al., 2010), which may develop and augment their proactive skills and abilities thereby increasing team member
proactivity (Strauss et al., 2009). Moreover, individuals working in self-managed teams are more involved in group decision making which is likely to increase mutual interactions and sensemaking. In these contexts, team members are likely to have a better understanding of their respective work environment and more information about the performance of their teams, which is, in turn, likely to encourage team member proactivity. Thus, we propose that individuals with proactive characteristics engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors individually in teams with high levels of autonomy.

**Proposition 3.** Autonomy will moderate the positive relationship between individual's proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams with higher levels of autonomy.

### 9.4. Management practices

To our knowledge, only one study - Baroudi, Fleisher, Khapova, Jansen, and Richardson (2017) – has examined the impact of compensation (as a management practice) on employee proactivity. These authors focused specifically on taking charge behavior (Morrison & Phelps, 1999) as an example of proactivity, demonstrating that an increase in salary fosters proactive behaviors for individuals with higher levels of ambition more strongly than it does for individuals with lower levels of ambition. Thus, we propose that monetary rewards (again as an example of management practice) may enhance team member proactivity. Specifically, however, we propose that this effect is more likely to occur with the use of hybrid monetary rewards where individuals are rewarded for performing their own tasks in addition to contributing to the team's overall performance (Chen & Kanfer, 2006).

According to expectancy theory, individuals are motivated to perform better when they perceive a clear link between their own efforts and rewards (Baron & Byrne, 1997). In some of the very early research on this topic, Lawler and Rhode (1976) also noted that output-based individual rewards are more effective in fostering behaviors required for achieving a set of goals. More recent work examining teams working on innovation has reported similar findings (Barczak & Wilemon, 2003; Sarin & Mahajan, 2001). Taken together, these findings suggest that individual rewards encourage team members to meet their individual performance targets whereas hybrid rewards are more likely to encourage more team-based behavior. This being the case, in order to motivate individuals to direct their focus and attention on improving team effectiveness, some scholars argue that (in addition to individual rewards) team members should also be rewarded based on their effort to accomplish shared team responsibilities (Chen & Kanfer, 2006; Pearsall, Christian, & Ellis, 2010). Thus, we propose that individuals with proactive characteristics engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors individually in teams using hybrid reward structures.

**Proposition 4.** Rewards will moderate the positive relationship between individual's proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams receiving higher hybrid monetary rewards.

### 10. Leader behaviors and leader-member interactions

Fulmer and Ostroff (2016) reported that leaders or direct supervisor behaviors have a direct impact on sensemaking and how individuals behave in work contexts. The findings of our review support this argument with several empirical studies reporting that transformational leadership in particular directly predicts individual team-oriented proactive behaviors (e.g., Lui et al., 2010; Strauss et al., 2009). The findings of these studies also suggest that transformational leaders are able to motivate and encourage team members to perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985), such as thinking about new ways of doing tasks or anticipating and solving problems. They also suggest that transformational leaders can inspire individuals to engage in more challenging tasks, thereby positively influencing their individual development (Avolio & Gibson, 1988). These leaders also engage in empowering leadership behaviors (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003), such as coaching team members and informing them about important work-related matters which further enhances team member proactivity (Edmondson, 2003; Gao et al., 2011). Moreover, because transformational leaders have the capacity to increase team member's confidence in their abilities to achieve goals (Antonakis & House, 2002), they might also be capable of controlling and managing team member's emotions, thereby enhancing team member proactivity (Schaub et al., 2014).

Building on the extant work on the connection between transformational leadership and team member proactivity, we propose that transformational team leadership can also positively influence the direct relationship between individual predictors of team member proactivity and the subsequent behavior, if the transformational team leader adopts a group-focused leadership style combined with an individual-focused leadership style (Wang et al., 2012). Elaborating on this last point, when transformational leaders adopt a group-focused leadership style, they behave in the same way towards all members in the team (Wu, Tsui, & Kinicki, 2010) and engage in behaviors that help develop a shared collective energizing vision (Antonakis & House, 2002; Bass, 1985; Wang et al., 2012). This type of leadership style is likely to be especially important for directing team member's orientation towards improving team-level, rather than, individual-level outcomes. Additionally, an individual-focused transformational leadership style will direct the leader's attention to individual needs, potential and emotional states (Kark & Shamir, 2002), thereby valuing the uniqueness and distinctiveness of each team member. Paradoxically, this could in turn motivate individuals to use their own proactive skills and abilities to contribute (individually) to enhancing team performance (i.e., team member proactivity). Combining these arguments, therefore, we propose that individuals with proactive characteristics engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors individually in teams where transformational leaders adopt a mixed leadership style that is individual and group-focused.

**Proposition 5.** Transformational leadership will moderate the positive relationship between individual’s proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams where transformational leaders adopt both an
individual and group orientation.

11. Social processes

Social processes within teams influence how team members make sense of their environment and how they respond to the respective environmental challenges, and thus also impact on their behavior (Fulmer & Ostroff, 2016). Fulmer and Ostroff (2016) offer two examples of such processes: cohesion and social rumination. First, cohesion in teams indicates that members have strong bonds with the team as a whole (Festinger, 1950), making them more inclined to care about overall team performance and functioning. In cohesive teams, there is also likely to be more cooperation and communication between members which could increase understanding and mutual support regarding individual proactive actions towards the team (Simard & Marchand, 1995). Understanding and support are especially important for team member proactivity, because proactive behavior often impacts on other team members and may be more ‘risky’ at the team level (Parker, Williams, & Turner, 2006). Rumination, on the other hand, occurs when individual members discuss key events together seeking to come up with a collective interpretation (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997). As might be expected, this process is more likely to occur among members in cohesive teams. Given these underlying principles, rumination is also likely to lead to a shared understanding about problems and issues related to the team. This could, in turn, increase support and appreciation for proactive individual efforts to improve the team, thereby positively influencing team member proactivity. Thus, we propose that proactive individuals will engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors individually in cohesive teams.

**Proposition 6.** Cohesion will moderate the positive relationship between individual’s proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams with higher levels of cohesion.

12. Heterogeneity of individual attributes

Finally, Fulmer and Ostroff (2016) argue that homogeneous personality, age and gender attributes in teams lead to groupthink, because it triggers similarity in sensemaking, thought processes and work behavior. Therefore, individual proactivity in such teams is likely to result in team proactivity (Williams et al., 2010). Thus, we propose that team member proactivity will be enhanced in teams with heterogeneous individual (proactive) attributes. For instance, our review of the extant literature suggested that the ability to be proactive influences team member proactivity (e.g., Griffin et al., 2007; Hwang et al., 2015; Strauss et al., 2009). Thus, if team members have different skills and abilities, they might also have different work styles and approaches towards proactivity which could trigger them to engage in the respective behavior independently from others. Likewise, our review suggested that if individuals have a learning-goal orientation they are more likely to engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors individually (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010). However, how they engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors could also depend on ‘what’ they want to learn and ‘how’ they want to learn it, which is likely to differ between individuals. Thus, we argue that there are likely to be individual differences regarding learning needs which will trigger individuals to engage in team-oriented proactive behaviors independently from others.

Another example to illustrate our argument is the influence of positive emotions on team member proactivity. Although positive emotions have been found, in general, to trigger team member proactivity (e.g., Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007; Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998), how individuals actually engage in the behavior appears to depend on the kind of positive emotions they have. For instance, when team members feel emotionally attached to their team, they engage in team-oriented behaviors by taking personal initiative to contribute to team goals (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2007). Satisfaction, however, triggers team members to voice suggestions for improving team effectiveness (Lepine & Van Dyne, 1998). To summarize, we propose that individuals with proactive individual characteristics engage in more team-oriented proactive behaviors individually in teams where there are heterogeneous individual

### Table 3
Overview of propositions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Propositions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Team size will moderate the positive relationship between individual’s proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact decreases when the team size increases.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Flexibility of work will moderate the positive relationship between individual’s proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams with higher flexibility of work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Autonomy will moderate the positive relationship between individual’s proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams with higher levels of autonomy.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Rewards will moderate the positive relationship between individual’s proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams receiving higher hybrid monetary rewards.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Transformational leadership will moderate the positive relationship between individual’s proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams where transformational leaders adopt both an individual and group orientation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Cohesion will moderate the positive relationship between individual’s proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams with higher levels of cohesion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Heterogeneity will moderate the positive relationship between individual’s proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams with more heterogeneous individual proactive attributes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Individual characteristics of team member proactivity are demonstrated in Fig. 1 and listed in Table 2.
proactive attributes.

**Proposition 7.** Heterogeneity will moderate the positive relationship between individual's proactive characteristics and team member proactivity, such that the positive impact will be stronger in teams with more heterogeneous individual proactive attributes Table 3.

13. Discussion

This review has sought to provide a more complete understanding of individual and contextual predictors of team member proactivity and the joint effect of the two types of predictors on the individual team-oriented proactive behavior. In order to achieve this aim, we first identified specific sets of individual and contextual factors that predict team member proactivity. We then highlighted the need for a more robust understanding of how the respective contextual factors influence the relationship between individual predictors of team member proactivity and the subsequent proactive behavior and proposed an integrated framework to be tested in future research. Below, we will discuss the implications of this proposed research agenda for team member proactivity scholarship and HRM practice.

13.1. Implications for team member proactivity scholarship

A key contribution of this review is that it has indicated how the majority of the extant research in the field has focused on the positive and individual predictors of team member proactivity. This might be partly a result of the phenomenon itself where proactivity is often viewed as a desirable outcome that is prone to being disrupted or inhibited (Burnett, Chiaburu, Shapiro, & Li, 2013), which is especially the case in team contexts (Parker et al., 2006). However, focusing on individual factors that encourage rather than discourage team member proactivity may not adequately reflect the reality of contemporary teams, given that some personality traits and individual values have a negative impact on individual team-oriented proactive behaviors (e.g., Botero & Van Dyne, 2009; Neal et al., 2012). Moreover, it is notable that some individual factors can positively predict proactivity at the individual level, but have no impact on proactivity at the team-level (Griffin et al., 2007). Thus, there is scope to consider more deeply which individual factors negatively influence team member proactivity (or have no influence), in order to find ways to enhance team member's proactivity through HRM practices.

For instance, some studies have demonstrated that ‘need for achievement’ is an important predictor of proactivity at the individual level (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010; Griffin et al., 2007) that could be ascribed to the assumption that individuals who focus on attaining high levels of performance engage in more proactive behaviors to demonstrate their competency to influential figures at work (Belschak & Den Hartog, 2010). However, we did not find evidence that this individual factor can be used to predict proactivity at the team level. A possible explanation for this finding could be that once individuals focus on attaining high levels of achievement, they also tend to avoid negative judgements from others about their competence (Joo & Park, 2010; Parker et al., 2010). This type of behavior could, therefore, be more common in teams, as the nature of work becomes much more interdependent (Pearsall et al., 2010) and the perceived costs of engaging in team-oriented proactive behaviors becomes too high (Frazier & Fainshmidt, 2012).

Second, some scholars have argued that proactive motivation positively predicts individual proactive work behaviors (e.g., Parker et al., 2010; Parker & Collins, 2010). Yet, our review did not find support for this argument at the team level of analysis - perhaps because when working in teams responsibility is shared and individuals may rely more on others to improve team outcomes. The same reasoning applies to the individual predictor control appraisals reflecting an individual's need to control their respective work situation (Bandura, 1997; Frese & Fay, 2001). Although some scholars have reported that this individual level predictor positively influences proactivity (Frese et al., 2007 in Frese & Fay, 2001) others have reported that it does not impact on the respective behavior (Parker et al., 2006). Supporting this latter finding, we did not find any evidence that control appraisal predicts team member proactivity. Thus, we assume that it could be because team responsibilities are shared and it is hard to control team outcomes, which makes this predictor less relevant for proactivity at the team-level.

13.2. Implications for HRM practice

Our review has a number of important implications for HRM practice. First, it suggests that an integrated HR strategy incorporating elements of recruitment and selection, leadership, coaching/mentoring, team design and incentives is required in order to enhance team member proactivity. We found, for example, that several individual characteristics trigger team member proactivity such as conscientiousness, a learning goal orientation and role-breadth self-efficacy. This finding could be usefully incorporated into recruitment and selection processes to assign proactive individuals to teams where high levels of team member proactivity is required to build and maintain team performance. Second, our review and the proposed model shown in Fig. 1, above, also highlight the importance of assigning proactive individuals to teams with heterogeneous individual proactive attributes. However, given that such heterogeneity could also invite further challenges in terms of managing team performance, we recommend HRM practitioners to make special effort to increase team cohesion in order to achieve a collective team spirit (Festinger, 1950). This could be achieved by planning and implementing team building activities to build stronger relationships among team members, thereby enhancing motivation towards and opportunities for team member proactivity. In addition to encouraging heterogeneity, we also recommend that HRM practitioners acknowledge the influence of team size and levels of autonomy given that smaller teams with high levels of autonomy and flexibility are likely to be more effective in enhancing team member proactivity.
Finally, our proposed model also highlights how team leaders might support and encourage team member proactivity, where transformational team leadership is likely to be most effective when it incorporates both group-focused leadership and individual-focused leadership styles (Wang et al., 2012). HRM practitioners could, for example, help leaders adopt this combined leadership style by providing them with relevant training programs and coaching. HRM practitioners could also take a more direct role in enhancing team member proactivity by providing incentives to team members. However, in doing so, our review suggests that a hybrid reward structure is most effective where individuals are rewarded based on a combination of their individual contributions to the team and their proactive efforts to improve overall team performance (Chen & Kanfer, 2006).

References


