

# Shared leadership: A state-of-the-art review and future research agenda

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## Summary

The traditional “great man” approaches to leadership emphasize qualities of individual leaders for leadership success. In contrast, a rapidly growing body of research has started to examine shared leadership, which is broadly defined as an emergent team phenomenon whereby leadership roles and influence are distributed among team members. Despite the progress, however, the extant literature on shared leadership has been fragmented with a variety of conceptualizations and operationalizations. This has resulted in little consensus regarding a suitable overarching theoretical framework and has undermined developing knowledge in this research domain. To redress these problems, we provide a comprehensive review of the growing literature of shared leadership by (a) clarifying the definition of shared leadership; (b) conceptually disentangling shared leadership from other theoretically overlapping constructs; (c) addressing measurement issues; and (d) developing an integrative framework of the antecedents, proximal and distal consequences, and boundary conditions of shared leadership. We end our review by highlighting several new avenues for future research.

## KEYWORDS

framework, measurement, review, shared leadership, teams

## 1 | INTRODUCTION

Increasingly, work teams distribute functional leadership roles to members in areas in which those members have requisite talent (Goldsmith, 2010; Pearce, 2004; D. Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014). Recognizing this trend, leadership scholars have started to shift their focus from a top-down vertical influence process to a horizontal and shared leading process among team members (Carson, Tesluk, & Marrone, 2007; Denis, Langley, & Sergi, 2012; Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, & Eagly, 2017). *Shared leadership*, defined as an emergent team phenomenon whereby leadership roles and influence are distributed among team members (Carson et al., 2007), has received considerable attention in an array of academic disciplines, including industrial and organizational psychology, organizational behavior, strategic management, and entrepreneurship. Differing from other leadership theories

that focus on the leadership role of formal appointed leaders, shared leadership highlights the agentic role of team members in team leading processes (Carson et al., 2007; Nicolaides et al., 2014; Pearce & Conger, 2003). In particular, accumulated evidence suggests that shared leadership plays a promising role in increasing team effectiveness (e.g., O'Toole, Galbraith, & Lawler, 2002; Pearce, Manz, & Sims Jr, 2009; D. Wang et al., 2014). As such, shared leadership is an intriguing new field that enriches our understanding of leadership and shifts the leadership paradigm from viewing leadership as a property of the individual to viewing leadership as a property of the collective (Cullen-Lester & Yammarino, 2016).

Although research on shared leadership has burgeoned recently, the extant literature is fragmented in two important ways. First, various definitions and corresponding measures across studies lead to low consensus in shared leadership research. Indeed, D'Innocenzo, Mathieu, and Kukenberger (2016, p. 1965) noted that “the literature has become quite disjointed with a proliferation of nomenclature

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and conceptualizations.” To date, there is no unified conceptualization regarding what shared leadership is and no unified theoretical framework that explains the emergence and consequences of shared leadership. Researchers have proposed several definitions, resulting in different interpretations of shared leadership and the corresponding measures (Carson et al., 2007; Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2004; D’Innocenzo et al., 2016; Nicolaides et al., 2014; D. Wang et al., 2014). For example, some definitions focus on the number of people involved in leadership activities to distinguish shared leadership with traditional leadership. These definitions highlight the collective engagement in team leadership in contrast with the engagement of a single leader (e.g., Ensley, Hmieleski, & Pearce, 2006). Some definitions focus on the source of leadership influence. Specifically, shared leadership involves horizontal, lateral influence among team members, which is in contrast with the traditional top-down leadership influence derived from a formal position with entitled power and status (e.g., Pearce & Sims, 2002). Accordingly, researchers operationalized shared leadership distinctively. Some of them focus on measuring the extent to which team members collectively engage in leadership behaviors (e.g., Avolio, Sivasubramaniam, Murry, Jung, & Garger, 2003; Pearce & Ensley, 2004), while others intend to capture the extent to which leadership is decentralized (e.g., Mehra, Smith, Dixon, & Robertson, 2006). Such various definitions and measures likely cause a significant difference in the effect size that shared leadership has on the same team outcome across studies (D’Innocenzo et al., 2016). Hoch and Kozlowski (2014, p. 393) therefore pointed out that “a challenge facing researchers is determining how to measure shared leadership.”

Second, although some researchers have quantitatively reviewed extant studies on shared leadership (e.g., D’Innocenzo et al., 2016; Nicolaides et al., 2014; D. Wang et al., 2014), our knowledge of the antecedents, consequences, and boundary conditions of shared leadership remains fragmented due to the lack of an overarching framework that depicts the general stream of research on shared leadership. The approach of meta-analysis is limited in that it only considers variables that have been examined in multiple samples. To date, meta-analyses (e.g., D’Innocenzo et al., 2016; Nicolaides et al., 2014; D. Wang et al., 2014) have been limited to examining the relationship of shared leadership with a single outcome—team performance—and, in one case (Nicolaides et al., 2014), a single mediating mechanism of this relation—team confidence. Contrary to this narrow focus, though, dozens of studies on shared leadership have been conducted, and many of them include unique outcomes and mediators. Because shared leadership research is still emerging and a substantial body of empirical research has investigated various antecedents and consequences of shared leadership sporadically, a comprehensive qualitative review is valuable for capturing this growing area of research more effectively and for identifying important research directions. Despite of some brief qualitative summaries of shared leadership embedded in broader leadership reviews (e.g., Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Day et al., 2004; Denis et al., 2012; Lord et al., 2017; Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs, & Shuffler, 2012), so far, we still lack a comprehensive review that synthesizes the factors that contribute to how shared leadership emerges, why and how shared leadership influences team processes, and what boundary conditions shape the effects of shared leadership.

With the aim of developing an agenda for future research, we provide a thorough qualitative review of shared leadership research. By doing so, we contribute to the development of shared leadership research in four important ways. First, given the numerous definitions of shared leadership (Carson et al., 2007; Yammarino et al., 2012), we review shared leadership definitions, identify the developmental history and key characteristics of shared leadership, and distinguish it from other theoretically overlapping leadership constructs such as emergent leadership, self-leadership, empowering leadership, participative leadership, and team leadership. Building on this work, we endeavor to reduce current confusion regarding the shared leadership construct and provide suggestions for its conceptualization. Second, by reviewing the existing measures of shared leadership and evaluating their respective strengths and weaknesses, we recommend some theoretically coherent measures for future empirical research. Third, we present an overarching framework that summarizes the antecedents, proximal and distal consequences, and boundary conditions of shared leadership, noting issues such as theoretical perspectives and types of teams. Such a comprehensive framework has both theoretical and empirical significance because it provides a roadmap of where we are and where to start from for the advancement of shared leadership research. Fourth, we discuss insights from our review and systematically propose a series of potential future research directions.

## 2 | UNDERSTANDING AND DEFINING SHARED LEADERSHIP

Historically, researchers have conceptualized leadership as a downward hierarchical influence process derived from a single individual within work teams—the formal leader. Conventional leadership research has mostly considered how one leader influences followers in a team or organization (Bass & Bass, 2008; Bolden, 2011; Pearce & Conger, 2003). This hierarchical, leader-centric paradigm has been a prominent feature in the leadership literature for many decades (Bass & Bass, 2008; Pearce, Hoch, Jeppesen, & Wegge, 2010). Nevertheless, since the 1990s,<sup>1</sup> a growing number of scholars have challenged the conventional conceptualization of leadership by arguing that leadership can also be shared among members of a group (Carson et al., 2007; Pearce & Sims, 2002). With this approach to team leadership, team members exert leadership influence and provide guidance to one another as needed (Carson et al., 2007). For example, team members skilled in a specialized area might engage in leadership behavior in that domain, while adopting the role of follower in other domains (Manz, Skaggs, Pearce, & Wassenaar, 2015; Meuser et al., 2016).

### 2.1 | Definitions of shared leadership

As shown in Table 1, shared leadership has been conceptualized in different ways (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; Nicolaides et al., 2014; Pearce &

<sup>1</sup>Although the concept of shared leadership is rooted in earlier works (see Follett, 1924; Gibb, 1954; Katz & Kahn, 1978), this perspective has become more prominent in contemporary leadership theories and research from the mid-1990s onward (Avolio et al., 1996; Seers, 1996).

**TABLE 1** Representative definitions of shared leadership

References	Definitions	Articulated the three key characteristics	Additional components
Pearce and Sims (2002)	Distributed influence from within the team. (p. 172) Lateral influence among peers. (p. 176)	1, 2, 3	
Sivasubramaniam et al. (2002)	Collective influence of members in a team on each other. (p. 68)	1, 2, 3	
Erez et al. (2002)	Leadership can be shared over time whereby team members share (albeit not at once) in responsibilities involved in the leadership role ... by clarifying who is to perform specific role behaviors (i.e., leader and member). (pp. 933–934)	1, 2, 3	A leadership role shifts among team members over time
Pearce and Conger (2003; the most widely cited definition)	A dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both. (p. 1)	1, 2, 3	
Pearce et al. (2004)	Simultaneous, ongoing, mutual influence process within a team that is characterized by “serial emergence” of official as well as unofficial leaders. p. 48)	1, 2, 3	“Serial emergence” of leaders
Ensley et al. (2006)	A team process where leadership is carried out by the team as a whole, rather than solely by a single designated individual. (p. 220)	1, 2	
Mehra et al. (2006)	Shared, distributed phenomenon in which there can be several (formally appointed and/or emergent) leaders. (p. 233)	2, 3	
Hiller et al. (2006)	The epicenter of collective leadership is not the role of a formal leader but the interaction of team members to lead the team by sharing in leadership responsibilities. (p. 388)	1, 2, 3	
Carson et al. (2007)	An emergent team property that results from the distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members. (p. 1218)	1, 2, 3	
Avolio, Walumbwa, and Weber, 2009	Shared leadership: an emergent state where team members collectively lead each other. (p. 431)	1, 2, 3	
Pearce et al. (2010)	Shared leadership occurs when group members actively and intentionally shift the role of leader to one another as necessitated by the environment or circumstances in which the group operates. (p. 151)	1, 2, 3	intentionally shift the role of leader to one another as necessitated
Gupta, Huang, and Yayla (2011)	Team's capability for collectively engaging in transformational leadership behaviors; leadership as a collective process, such that the team influences, inspires, and motivates team members. (p. 32)	1, 2	Content is transformational leadership
M. A. Drescher et al. (2014)	An emergent property of a group where leadership functions are distributed among group members. (p. 772)	1, 2, 3	
Nicolaides et al. (2014)	A set of interactive influence processes in which team leadership functions are voluntarily shared among internal team members in the pursuit of team goals. (p. 924)	1, 2, 3	team leadership functions are voluntarily shared
D. Wang et al. (2014)	An emergent team property of mutual influence and shared responsibility among team members, whereby they lead each other toward goal achievement. (p. 181)	1, 2, 3	
D'Innocenzo et al. (2016)	An emergent and dynamic team phenomenon whereby leadership roles and influence are distributed among team members. (p. 5)	1, 2, 3	
Meuser et al. (2016)	A form of leadership that is distributed and shared among multiple participating individuals, rather than being produced by a single individual. (p. 1390)	1, 2, 3	
Chiu et al. (2016)	A group-level phenomenon generated from reciprocal reliance and shared influence among team members so as to achieve team goals. (p. 1705)	1, 2, 3	
Lord et al. (2017)	Shared leadership can be viewed in terms of how different individuals enact leader and follower roles at different points in time. (p. 444)	2, 3	Leader and follower roles shifts among individuals over time

*Note.* The three key characteristics are (1) lateral influence among peers, (2) an emergent team phenomenon, and (3) leadership roles and influence are dispersed across team members.

Conger, 2003; D. Wang et al., 2014; Yammarino et al., 2012). For example, Pearce and Conger (2003, p. 1) described shared leadership as “a dynamic, interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both.” Ensley et al. (2006, p. 220) defined shared leadership as “a team process where leadership is carried out by the team as a whole, rather than solely by a single designated individual.” Carson et al. (2007, p. 1218) defined shared leadership as “an emergent team property that results from the distribution of leadership influence across multiple team members.” Chiu, Owens, and Tesluk (2016, p. 1705) defined shared leadership as “a group-level phenomenon generated from reciprocal reliance and shared influence among team members so as to achieve team goals.”

Across these different conceptualizations of shared leadership, there are three key commonalities: (a) Shared leadership is about lateral influence among peers, (b) shared leadership is an emergent team phenomenon, and (c) leadership roles and influence are dispersed across team members (see Table 2; Carson et al., 2007; M. A. Drescher, Korsgaard, Welp, Picot, & Wigand, 2014; Pearce & Conger, 2003).

The first characteristic, lateral influence among peers, is pertinent to the *source of leadership influence*. In work teams, there are two important sources of team leadership. One is vertical leadership stemming from the formal team leader, and the other is shared leadership stemming from team members (Locke, 2003; Nicolaides et al., 2014). Specifically, compared with the top-down influence of vertical leadership from a single formal team leader, shared leadership focuses on the influence of horizontal, lateral leadership from team members (Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010; Pearce & Conger, 2003). For example, Pearce and Sims (2002, p. 176) regarded shared leadership as “lateral influence among peers.” Hiller, Day, and Vance (2006) emphasized that the epicenter of shared leadership is not the role of a formal leader but the interaction of team members during the team leading processes. It is worth noting that scholars have emphasized that shared leadership is not an alternative to vertical leadership; rather, both sources of team leadership are important and can operate in tandem, and thus, they should be studied in tandem (Carson et al., 2007; Denis et al., 2012; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003). For example, Ensley et al. (2006) found that both vertical leadership and shared leadership were significant predictors of new venture performance.

The second characteristic is pertinent to the *unit of analysis* (Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, & Johnson, 2011). In contrast to traditional leadership as a phenomenon derived from a single individual, shared leadership highlights leadership as an emergent property of a

collective (Carson et al., 2007). Whereas the first characteristic indicates that team members are the source of leadership influence, the second characteristic indicates that leadership influence does not reside in the formal leader nor individual team members, but rather it is shared among members collectively at the group level. That is, shared leadership focuses on the pooled leadership influence of all team members (Carson et al., 2007). Sivasubramaniam and colleagues (2002), for instance, noted that shared leadership focuses on the influence of the group as opposed to one or a few individuals. Likewise, Carson et al. (2007) emphasized that shared leadership is an emergent property of a group. Accordingly, shared leadership should be analyzed at the group level rather than at the individual level, and the referent of leadership must shift from an individual to the group (Avolio et al., 2003).

The third characteristic focuses on the *distribution of influence* in the team leadership structure. Compared with a leadership structure in which leadership is centralized around one leader, shared leadership entails the view that leadership influence is “broadly distributed” across team members (Carson et al., 2007; Meuser et al., 2016). For example, Meuser et al. (2016, p. 1390) defined shared leadership as “a form of leadership that is distributed and shared among multiple participating individuals, rather than being produced by a single individual.” While the first two characteristics indicate that shared leadership focuses on leadership influence from all team members, the third characteristic further describes how leadership influence is distributed among team members, that is, leadership is dispersed widely across team members. These three characteristics collectively capture the inherent nature of shared leadership. Based on these characteristics, we define shared leadership as an emergent team phenomenon whereby leadership roles and influence are distributed among team members.

In addition to the above commonalities, the existing definitions of shared leadership also diverge in two important respects regarding what constitutes shared leadership. First, the extent to which the three characteristics of shared leadership are reflected in the definition differs. Some definitions highlight the first and second characteristics (e.g., Ensley et al., 2006; Gupta et al., 2011), whereas other definitions highlight the second and third characteristics (e.g., Mehra et al., 2006; Pearce et al., 2010). Second, as summarized in Table 1, some definitions add assumptions or additional requirements. For example, Erez, Lepine, and Elms (2002) added the requirement that a leadership role shifts among team members over time. Gupta and colleagues (2011) restricted the content of shared leadership to

**TABLE 2** Key characteristics of shared leadership

Perspectives	Key characteristics of shared leadership	The opposite conditions	Sample references
Source of leadership influence	Horizontal, lateral leadership influence among peers where team members take on the functions of leadership traditionally handled by a designated or elected leader	Vertical leadership influence from a designated or elected leader	Pearce and Conger (2003) Pearce and Sims (2002)
Unit of analysis (leadership at the collective level)	Views leadership as an emergent group-level phenomenon	Views leadership as an individual action	Carson et al. (2007) Chiu et al. (2016)
Distribution of leadership influence	Leadership influence or roles are dispersed widely across team members	Leadership influence or roles are centralized around a few individuals	Carson et al. (2007) M. A. Drescher et al. (2014)

a certain leadership behavior (i.e., transformational leadership). After adding these assumptions, the definition becomes narrower by capturing a specific kind of shared leadership, such as rotated leadership or shared transformational leadership.

## 2.2 | Forms of shared leadership

The aforementioned characteristics help us understand “what shared leadership is.” However, the three characteristics answer neither the question of “what is being shared in shared leadership?” nor “what is the process through which leadership is shared?”

To date, organizational scholars have taken different approaches to understanding “what is being shared in shared leadership.” First, some research has focused on a specific leadership style being shared. This line of research is associated closely with the first characteristic of shared leadership, where team members perform the functions of leadership that formal leaders traditionally handle (e.g., Ensley et al., 2006; Hiller et al., 2006; Pearce & Sims, 2002; Schaubroeck, Lam, & Peng, 2016). The combination of shared leadership with a specific leadership style has spawned a large number of shared leadership studies, including studies of shared transformational, charismatic, transactional, directive, empowering, and authentic leadership (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016; Nicolaides et al., 2014; D. Wang et al., 2014). From this point of view, almost any type of leadership can be shared, and shared leadership is regarded as “meta-level leadership” (Yammarino et al., 2012).

A second approach researchers have taken to understand “what is being shared” focuses on “overall” leadership (D. Wang et al., 2014). Instead of capturing certain specific leader behavioral content, this line of research captures leadership in a generic or overall sense and then aggregates individuals' leadership to the team level (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; M. A. Drescher et al., 2014; Mathieu, Kukenberger, D'Innocenzo, & Reilly, 2015). For example, Carson et al. (2007) first asked each team member to rate the extent to which the team relied on a respective teammate for leadership in a generic sense. Then they cumulated each individual's score to attain a shared leadership score for the team. Higher score reflects that the team relies heavily on most of its members for leadership, and thus higher level of shared leadership.

As to “how leadership is shared,” existing literature also offers several modalities. In one modality, the *sharing* process can occur in a way that team members work together in time and place to “co-perform the same leadership activity.” Another modality is that the sharing process can occur over time, where team members “emerge as informal leaders serially or take turns to serve in the leadership role” (Lord et al., 2017; Pearce, Yoo, & Alavi, 2004). This kind of shared leadership has been labeled *rotated leadership* (Davis & Eisenhardt, 2011; Erez et al., 2002). Yet another kind of modality is that the sharing process can occur across functional roles. According to functional leadership theory (e.g., Morgeson et al., 2010), multiple leadership functions or roles exist. Shared leadership does not necessarily mean every team member must perform all leadership functions or roles. Rather, team members with different skills or preferences may selectively perform leadership functions in an interdependent way. We can utilize the social network terms to elaborate this situation:

When each team member is responsible for one leadership role, the team may have a centralized leadership structure in each role, but the overall leadership structure is decentralized (Contractor, DeChurch, Carson, Carter, & Keegan, 2012).

Forms of shared leadership can also be differentiated based on the formality of the leadership roles. Typically, shared leadership is ad hoc, emergent, and informal (Morgeson et al., 2010), because team members who share the leadership usually do not have formally designated positions. Indeed, Morgeson et al. (2010) have characterized shared leadership as an internal and informal leadership style. Nonetheless, some scholars have argued that shared leadership can also be deliberately planned and implemented (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016; Klein, Ziegert, Knight, & Xiao, 2006).

## 3 | COMPARISON WITH OTHER LEADERSHIP THEORIES

These three key characteristics of shared leadership help us identify six theoretically overlapping leadership constructs: collective leadership, emergent leadership, self-leadership, empowering leadership, participative leadership, and team leadership. In the text below and in Table 3, we briefly introduce these leadership constructs and discuss how they differ with shared leadership from the aspects of sources of leadership influence, units of analysis, and distributions of leadership influence.

### Collective leadership

Collective leadership refers to “a dynamic leadership process in which a defined leader, or set of leaders, selectively utilize skills and expertise within a network, effectively distributing elements of the leadership role as the situation or problem at hand requires” (Friedrich, Vessey, Schuelke, Ruark, & Mumford, 2011; p. 933). Similar to shared leadership, collective leadership reflects a team leadership phenomenon such that multiple members jointly take on leadership responsibilities within the team (Contractor et al., 2012; Friedrich et al., 2011; Hiller et al., 2006). A slight difference is that collective leadership tends to take the “fit” and “contextual” approaches to sharing leadership functions. Yammarino et al. (2012, p. 394) suggested that “collective leadership approach can be viewed as an analog of a flexible, multi-level, neuro-cognitive system where neurons (people) can be activated as the situation demands.” Collective leadership assumes that team members selectively perform leadership roles that match their skills and expertise and effectively distributing elements of the leadership role as the situation or problem at hand requires (Friedrich et al., 2011; Yammarino et al., 2012).

Despite this slight difference, collective leadership shares many similarities with shared leadership. As summarized in Table 3, collective leadership fits with the three characteristics of shared leadership (i.e., team members take on leadership functions, views leadership as an emergent collective-level phenomenon, and leadership is distributed among participating individuals). Pearce and Wassenaar (2015) argued that collective leadership “readily fit under the umbrella term of shared leadership” (p. 1). Indeed, both shared leadership and collective leadership research recognize Gibb (1954) as one of their main



**TABLE 3** Comparison of shared leadership with other leadership theories

Constructs	Sample definitions	1. Sources of leadership influence	2. Units of analysis	3. Distributions of leadership influence
Shared leadership	See Table 1	Horizontal leadership displayed by team members versus hierarchical leader-focused view	View leadership as a team-level phenomenon	Leadership is distributed across the many, not the few
Collective leadership	A dynamic leadership process in which a defined leader, or set of leaders, selectively utilize skills and expertise within a network, effectively distributing elements of the leadership role as the situation or problem at hand requires.	Leadership is a shared social process, and it is embedded in units, teams, and networks, rather than solely on the skills of individual leaders	View leadership as a collective level phenomenon	Effectively distributing elements of the leadership role as the situation or problem at hand requires
Emergent leadership/informal leadership emergence	Group members exhibit leadership influences over other group members although no formal authority has been vested in them (Schneider & Goktepe, 1983)	Focus on horizontal leadership influence (i.e., lateral influence on peers' work)	Focus on one or a few team members who emerge as informal leaders	Cannot address the distribution and sharing of leadership among all team members
Self-leadership	A process through which people influence themselves to achieve the self-direction and self-motivation needed to perform (Houghton et al., 2003, p. 126).	Followers are not peers	Can be an individual level phenomenon	Cannot address the distribution and sharing of leadership among all team members
Empowering leadership	The extent to which leaders enhance autonomy, control, self-management, and confidence in their team (Chen et al., 2011, p. 541)	Typically, the focus is vertical influence from the formal team leader	Can be an individual or dyadic level phenomenon	Cannot address the distribution and sharing of leadership among all team members
Participative leadership	Joint decision-making or at least shared influence in decision-making by a superior and his or her employees (Koopman & Wierdsma, 1998, p. 297)	Typically, the focus is the formal team leader who asks team members to voice their ideas and consider their ideas before making his or her own decision. A team leader may be a participative leader, but withholds the power of making final decision, and retains most of the authority and leadership influence.	Can be an individual or dyadic level phenomenon	Cannot address the distribution and sharing of leadership among all team members
Team leadership	Team leadership is an integrated concept based on the literature on teams and leadership (Day et al., 2006, p. 211).	It includes both horizontal leadership influence from team members and vertical leadership influence from the formal team leader.	Study leadership in teams	Do not have the requirement of decentralized distribution of leadership influence

historical, theoretical roots (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; Contractor et al., 2012). The terms *shared leadership* and *collective leadership* are often used interchangeably in the extant shared leadership literature (e.g., Day et al., 2004; Nicolaides et al., 2014) and collective leadership literature (e.g., Contractor et al., 2012; Hiller et al., 2006). In their impactful leadership review, Avolio et al. (2009) also referred to shared leadership and collective leadership interchangeably. Moreover, so far, all meta-analytic review of shared leadership included collective

leadership as well (e.g., D'Innocenzo et al., 2016; Nicolaides et al., 2014; D. Wang et al., 2014). The *Leadership Quarterly* 2016 special issue on collective leadership also included studies about shared leadership (e.g., G. Drescher & Garbers, 2016; Serban & Roberts, 2016). In short, collective leadership shares many similarities with shared leadership, and there are no definitive conclusions about the differences between shared leadership and collective leadership based on current research. Yet, there may be a subtle nuance of these two constructs

where collective leadership concerns more specifically about “fit” and “contextual” approaches to sharing leadership functions (Friedrich et al., 2011; Yammarino et al., 2012). Future research may pay attention to this subtle nuance of these two related constructs and use the constructs that fit research contexts appropriately.

### Emergent leadership

Emergent leadership appears when group members exhibit leadership influence over other team members although no formal authority has endorsed their leadership (Schneider & Goktepe, 1983). Similar with shared leadership, emergent leadership also captures horizontal leadership influence stemming from team members rather than vertical leadership influence from a team leader (Schneider & Goktepe, 1983; Zhang, Waldman, & Wang, 2012). However, whereas emergent leadership shares conceptual space with shared leadership, the two constructs are distinct. Emergent leadership does not fit with the second and third characteristics of shared leadership (see Table 2). Specifically, shared leadership is distinct from emergent leadership (Schneider & Goktepe, 1983) in that emergent leadership typically focuses on one or two team members who emerge as informal leaders, rather than addressing the distribution and sharing of leadership among all team members (Carson et al., 2007). In other words, emergent leadership is an individual-level leadership phenomenon that does not encapsulate the leadership structure of the group.

### Self-leadership

Self-leadership is defined as “a process through which people influence themselves to achieve the self-direction and self-motivation needed to perform” (Houghton, Neck, & Manz, 2003, p. 126). Self-leadership is similar to shared leadership in that both constructs are open to the possibility that team members can be the source of leadership influence (Bligh, Pearce, & Kohles, 2006). Both shared leadership and self-leadership differ from vertical leadership regarding the sources of leadership influence (i.e., who is the leader). However, the sphere of influence for self-leadership is limited to the leader himself or herself, whereas in the case of shared leadership this sphere encompasses all team members. Furthermore, like emergent leadership, self-leadership is better thought of as an individual-level phenomenon rather than a group-level phenomenon like shared leadership. Therefore, self-leadership and shared leadership are related but distinct constructs, with self-leadership as a possible antecedent of shared leadership (Bligh et al., 2006; Houghton et al., 2003).

### Empowering and participative leadership

Empowering leadership is defined as “the extent to which leaders enhance autonomy, control, self-management, and confidence in their team” (Chen, Sharma, Edinger, Shapiro, & Farh, 2011, p. 541). Participative leadership involves the leader allowing followers to participate in joint decision-making and considering followers’ ideas before making the final decision (Koopman & Wierdsma, 1998; Sharma & Kirkman, 2015). Similar to shared leadership, empowering and participative leadership represent a broad distribution of leadership authority, influence, and responsibility (Lee, Willis, & Tian, 2017; Meuser et al., 2016). Although the empowering and participative leadership of formal team

leaders are likely to be important facilitators of shared leadership (Van Knippenberg, 2017), there are important differences. In regard to empowering leadership, team members have control over their own tasks but do not necessarily have leadership influence over each other (M. A. Drescher et al., 2014). Although a participative leader asks team members to voice their ideas and considers their ideas in decision-making, the power of making final decisions is still withheld from followers as formal leaders retain the majority of authority and influence in the group. Shared leadership also differs from empowering and participative leadership regarding the source of leadership influence. Shared leadership focuses on horizontal leadership influence among team members, whereas the formal team leaders’ empowering and participative leadership still focus on vertical leadership influence.

### Team leadership

Team leadership is an integrated concept based on the literature on teams and leadership (Day, Gronn, & Salas, 2006; Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). Shared leadership can be viewed as one form of team leadership (Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014; Lord et al., 2017; Van Knippenberg, 2017). Compared with shared leadership, team leadership is a broader construct, because it includes influences from both horizontal leadership (team members) and vertical leadership (the formal team leader; Day et al., 2006; Morgeson et al., 2010). Also, team leadership does not require that leadership roles and influence be decentralized. Team leadership can also include centralized leadership represented by a solo leader (Day et al., 2006). Thus, shared leadership and team leadership are related but distinct.

## 4 | OPERATIONALIZING SHARED LEADERSHIP

In addition to a proliferation of definitions, extant research has taken different approaches to operationalize shared leadership (Nicolaidis et al., 2014; D. Wang et al., 2014). We summarize the representative operationalizations of shared leadership in Table 4 and demonstrate how they fit with the key characteristics of shared leadership. As summarized in Table 4, two major approaches to operationalizing shared leadership have emerged.

### 4.1 | The aggregation approach

Some researchers have taken an *aggregation* approach, also known as the *referent-shift* approach (Chan, 1998), to measure shared leadership (e.g., Avolio, Jung, Murry, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Ensley et al., 2006; Hmieleski et al., 2012; Pearce & Sims, 2002). Methodologically, this approach uses the original leadership scale (e.g., the multifactor leadership questionnaire) and shifts the source of leadership from the formal leader to team members (i.e., change the item referent from “my supervisor” to “my team members”) and aggregates team members’ ratings to the team level (D. Wang et al., 2014).

Using this approach, scholars have investigated the effects of sharing a specific form of leadership (e.g., shared transformational leadership). This approach has been useful in demonstrating that traditional dimensions of vertical leadership (e.g., transformational leadership,

**TABLE 4** Measurements of shared leadership

Approaches	Indexes	Sample reference	Sample item
Aggregation	Shared transformational leadership	Avolio et al. (2003)	Members of my team instill pride in being associated with each other.
	Shared transactional leadership	Avolio et al. (2003)	Members of my team allow performance to fall below minimum standards before trying to make improvements.
	Shared visionary leadership	Pearce and Ensley (2004)	Because of my team members, I have a clear vision of our team's purpose.
	Shared leadership in different leadership functions (e.g., planning and organizing)	Hiller et al. (2006)	How often do team members share in deciding how to go about our team's work?
Social network	Density (i.e., amount of leadership behavior)	Carson et al. (2007)	To what degree does your team rely on this individual for leadership?
		Chiu et al. (2016)	In addition to an overall assessment of leadership used by Carson et al. (2007), they added four items to capture the different team leadership functions, including facilitating planning in the organization, aiding in problem solving, providing personal support and consideration, and fostering development and mentoring.
	Decentralization	Mehra et al. (2006)	Qualitative coding based on visual analysis of leadership network diagrams
	Density and decentralization	DeRue et al. (2015)	Use the Lord, Foti, and De Vader (1984) four-item leadership emergence measure (e.g., the amount of influence in determining the team's success)

Note. Similar ones using the aggregation approach include shared empowering leadership (Pearce & Sims, 2002), shared authentic leadership (Hmieleski, Cole, & Baron, 2012), and so forth.

transactional leadership, directive leadership, and servant leadership) can also extend to shared leadership at the group level (e.g., Avolio et al., 2003; Ensley et al., 2006). Although most studies that adopted this approach have investigated sharing a specific leadership, a handful of empirical studies have also used the aggregation approach to investigate sharing overall leadership, including multiple leadership functions or styles (e.g., M. A. Drescher et al., 2014; Hiller et al., 2006; Pearce & Sims, 2002). For example, Pearce and Sims (2002) suggested that shared leadership includes five distinct behavior strategies: aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering.

The aggregation approach fits with the key characteristics of shared leadership. Specifically, shared leadership views leadership as an emergent property of a group, and it focuses on lateral influence among peers in which team members take on leadership functions traditionally handled by a designated leader (Carson et al., 2007; Pearce & Conger, 2003). The aggregation approach captures the leadership influence that all team members adopt, not just a single, formal team leader. A critical limitation of this approach, however, is that it generally positions shared leadership as deriving from an undifferentiated set of members and assumes convergence of attitudes among team members (Carson et al., 2007; D'Innocenzo et al., 2016). Because this approach assumes that team members share a convergent perception of how much leadership their peer display, it takes the third characteristics of shared leadership—decentralized distribution of leadership influence—as granted.

## 4.2 | The social network approach

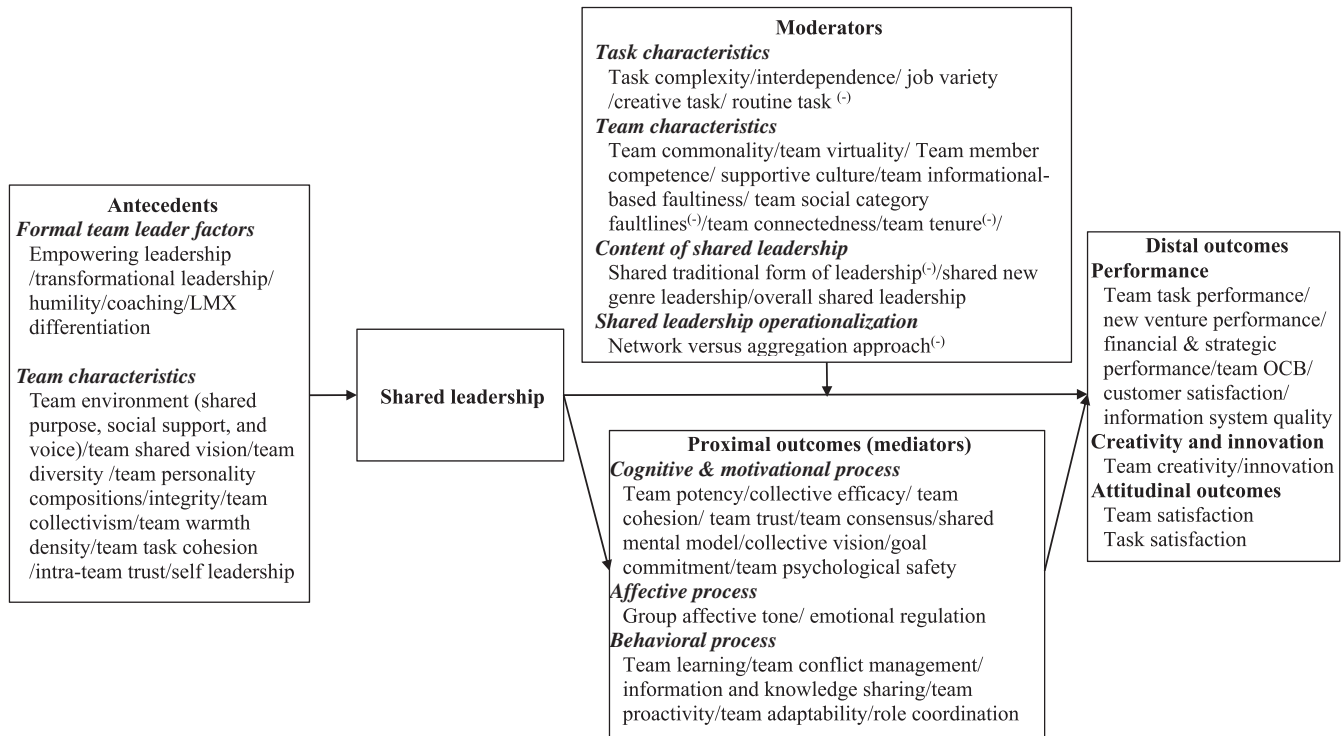
To address the above-noted limitations, another group of researchers (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; Mayo, Meindl, & Pastor, 2003; Mehra et al., 2006; White, Currie, & Lockett, 2016) have adopted a social network approach to operationalize shared leadership. The social network approaches assume that dyadic leader–follower relationships jointly form the overall

leadership structure within a group. Specifically, this approach assumes dyadic leading–following connections and tests whether in fact they exist (and to what degree), and then merges those dyads into a larger collective network. Although social network approaches do not address levels of analyses, they allow leadership to be studied as a shared activity and provide details regarding the shared leadership structure, which is indexed as density or decentralization of leadership network structure at the group level. They also enhance the understanding of the recursive leader–follower processes among team members and facilitate studying the unique influence of team members (Carson et al., 2007; D'Innocenzo et al., 2016), which is indexed as leadership centrality at the individual level. Thus, the social network approaches allow scholars to investigate the team-level antecedents and consequences of shared leadership as well as enable scholars to examine underlying processes at the individual level (Carter, Dechurch, Braun, & Contractor, 2015).

In this stream of research, shared leadership has been operationalized either as the density of leadership (Carson et al., 2007; Mathieu et al., 2015) or as the decentralization of leadership (Mehra et al., 2006). Density has been the most commonly used network index of shared leadership (Carson et al., 2007; Derue, Nahrgang, & Ashford, 2015; D'Innocenzo et al., 2016). According to the density approach (Carson et al., 2007), shared leadership can be measured by asking each team member to rate the degree to which the team relies on each teammate for leadership. Instead of using binary (i.e., leader or not) items to assess the presence of a leading–following relationship, Carson et al. (2007) used valued items (i.e., measured on a scale ranging from “not at all” to “a great extent”) to evaluate the strength of the relationship. Leadership density and thus shared leadership are highest when all team members exhibit a significant amount of leadership influence.

In addition to density, some researchers have focused on the distribution of leadership and have used decentralization as an index of shared leadership (e.g., Erez et al., 2002; Mehra et al., 2006). Decentralization is the reverse of centralization, where centralization is an





**FIGURE 1** An integrative framework for shared leadership. Note: “–” in the moderator box suggests negative moderating effects

index of the extent to which the network is centered around one member or a small group that has more ties than others (DeRue et al., 2015). Leadership centralization is calculated as the sum of the differences between the maximum individual member's leadership centrality value and every other individual member's leadership centrality value, divided by the maximum possible sum of differences (DeRue et al., 2015; Kilduff & Brass, 2010). According to the third key characteristic of shared leadership, the higher the level of dispersion of leadership influence among team members (e.g., high decentralization), the higher the level of shared leadership.

Both leadership density and decentralization capture the essence of shared leadership (DeRue et al., 2015), yet each index has its own limitations. For example, a limitation of the density index is that teams with the same level of leadership density may differ in the extent to which leadership influence is dispersed among team members. A limitation of the decentralization index is that higher levels of decentralization could refer to two competing situations (i.e., shared leadership and leader void) and the meaning of high scores of decentralization of leadership network in a team is not very clear (D'Innocenzo et al., 2016). Therefore, to capture shared leadership, it is advisable to use both the density and decentralization indices simultaneously (DeRue et al., 2015).

## 5 | INTEGRATIVE FRAMEWORK OF SHARED LEADERSHIP

Thus far, we have reviewed the key characteristics that constitute shared leadership, the definitions and operationalizations of shared leadership, and its similarities with and differences from other leadership constructs. We now present an integrative framework that

depicts extant research on the antecedents, consequences, mediating mechanisms, and boundary conditions of shared leadership.<sup>2</sup> We also introduce the theoretical perspectives that scholars have drawn to elaborate how shared leadership emerges and affects its consequences. Instead of introducing all detailed research findings, our review aims to provide a more systematic structure by focusing on key aspects of current research on shared leadership. Figure 1 depicts the integrative framework of shared leadership.

### 5.1 | Antecedents of shared leadership

#### 5.1.1 | Formal team leader-related factors

Extant research suggests that empowering leadership (Margolis & Ziegert, 2016; Wood, 2005), servant leadership (L. Wang, Jiang, Liu, & Ma, 2017), transformational leadership (Hoch, 2013), humility of the formal team leaders (Chiu et al., 2016), and supportive coaching behaviors of external team leaders (Carson et al., 2007) are all positively related to the emergence of shared leadership in teams. Zhang et al. (2012) also found that followers with whom leaders had developed high-quality leader–member exchange (LMX) tended to take on informal leadership roles at work. Some research has also addressed the circumstances under which formal leadership factors are related to shared leadership. Chiu et al. (2016), for example, integrated theories of social information processing, adaptive leadership, and dominance complementary to investigate the effect of formal leader humility on shared leadership under different conditions of team proactive personality. They found that when team members share high proactive personality,

<sup>2</sup>In our review of the integrative framework of shared leadership, we also include empirical research on collective leadership.

formal leader humility is more likely to increase shared leadership. Additionally, Zhang et al. (2012) demonstrated that team shared vision strengthened the positive effect of LMX quality on employees' emergence as informal leaders. Recently, researchers have considered formal leadership factors that are detrimental to shared leadership. L. Wang and colleagues (2017), for example, found that LMX differentiation within teams was negatively related to shared leadership, but leaders' servant leadership behaviors buffer this negative effect.

### 5.1.2 | Team characteristics

In addition to top-down influences, research suggests that some team characteristics facilitate the emergence of shared leadership. Carson et al. (2007) found that an internal team environment that consists of shared purpose, social support, and voice led to the development of shared leadership in teams. This positive effect was contingent on teams with low supportive coaching behaviors from external team leaders. An interesting finding from their study was that teams with an unsupportive internal team environment still showed high levels of shared leadership as long as they received supportive coaching behaviors. Serban and Roberts (2016) found that team task cohesion enhanced the development of shared leadership. Two studies investigated the effects of team diversity on shared leadership and found distinct results. Kukenberger, Mathieu, D'Innocenzo, and Reilly (2011) showed that functional diversity in teams had a positive effect on shared leadership only when teams implemented highly cooperative conflict management practice. Hsu, Li, and Sun (2017) drew on role-taking and role-making perspective and argued that value diversity in teams had a negative effect on shared leadership and team vertical leadership mitigated this negative effect.

Research has also found that some shared team member characteristics are positively related to shared leadership, such as high levels of core self-evaluations (Kukenberger et al., 2011), integrity (Bligh et al., 2006), warmth across team members (DeRue et al., 2015), intrateam trust (M. A. Drescher et al., 2014), and endorsing collectivistic views within the team (Hiller et al., 2006). In particular, DeRue et al. (2015) drew on adaptive leadership theory to suggest the construction of shared leadership as a process in which team members both claim their leadership roles and grant leadership to others. A recent conceptual paper by Hoch and Dulebohn (2017) proposed that teams with higher levels of extraversion, conscientious, agreeableness, openness to experience, and emotional stability are likely to exhibit shared leadership. Additionally, team members' engagement in self-leadership, a process through which members influence themselves by self-directing and motivating their own performance, has been documented as an antecedent of shared leadership. Bligh et al. (2006) showed that self-leadership among team members led to team trust, potency, and commitment, which translated into higher levels of shared leadership.

## 5.2 | Consequences of shared leadership

In the following sections, we first review the proximal outcomes that pertain to various team processes (e.g., team efficacy and team affective tone), followed by a discussion of the distal outcomes such as team performance and team creativity. Building on our review of those consequences, we further summarize the boundary conditions for the effects of shared leadership.

### 5.2.1 | Proximal outcomes

Most research pertaining to the proximal outcomes of shared leadership has explored how shared leadership shapes team processes, which in turn contribute to team successes (e.g., higher team performance and team viability). Some of these studies have examined team cognitive and motivational processes. For example, Nicolaides et al. (2014) synthesized 52 empirical studies and found that team confidence (i.e., collective efficacy and team potency) mediated the effects of shared leadership on team performance. Mathieu et al. (2015) found that shared leadership exerted indirect effects on team performance via team cohesion. Using a longitudinal design with three waves of surveys, M. A. Drescher et al. (2014) found that increases in shared leadership led to increases in team trust, which in turn enhanced team performance. Moreover, Hiller et al. (2006) suggested that when team members enact leadership roles, the levels of team collectivism increased, resulting in high performance. Han, Lee, Beyerlein, and Kolb (in press) showed that shared leadership increased team members' goal commitment, thus facilitating team performance. Bergman, Rentsch, Small, Davenport, and Bergman (2012) suggested that shared leadership is associated with less conflict, greater consensus, and higher team trust and cohesion. Drawing on the I-P-O (input-process-output) framework of team performance, Mihalache, Jansen, Bosch, and Volberda (2014) found that top management team shared leadership enhanced organizational ambidexterity through cooperative conflict management style and decision-making comprehensiveness. Liu, Hu, Li, Wang, and Lin (2014) used social learning theory and suggested that shared leadership had a positive impact on team learning and this impact was realized through the mediating role of team psychological safety. McIntyre and Foti (2013) found that shared leadership has a positive effect on team performance through the mediating role of team mental model similarity and accuracy. In addition to these empirical studies, others have proposed that collective vision within teams mediated the effects of shared leadership on team performance (e.g., Ensley et al., 2006; Ensley, Pearson, & Pearce, 2003).

A small number of articles have investigated team affective processes through which shared leadership produces high team performance. Hmieleski et al. (2012), for example, used affective events theory and upper echelons theory to explain that shared authentic leadership in top management teams of new ventures led to positive team affective tone, which translated into the better performance of new ventures. In addition to team positive affect, Hoch and Dulebohn (2013) suggested that shared leadership was beneficial to controlling team conflict and enhancing team members' well-being, which helped teams achieve greater performance.

Several studies have also examined team behavioral processes that explain how shared leadership helps team succeed. Marion, Christiansen, Klar, Schreiber, and Erdener (2016) found that team members' enactment of informal leadership helped teams absorb information flow and thus increased the team's productivity. Using a phenomena-based simulation, Will (2016) found that team members' participation in leadership roles resulted in higher team technical and adaptive capacities. Other research also suggested that shared leadership enhanced team proactivity (Erkutlu, 2012), team learning behavior (Liu et al., 2014), and role coordination activities and knowledge sharing behaviors within teams (Han et al., in press), which

increased team effectiveness. Interestingly, L. Wang, Han, Fisher, and Pan (2017) used a longitudinal approach to examine the relation of shared leadership with team learning behaviors and found that shared leadership evoked team learning behaviors only at the early stage of team work rather than at the middle or later stage of team work. Team learning behaviors at the early stage of team work, in turn, facilitated shared leadership afterwards. Their research suggested a more dynamic and complex relational pattern between shared leadership and team learning behaviors in self-management teams.

### 5.2.2 | Distal outcomes

Most studies focused on team performance, typically observing that shared leadership increases team task performance (Carson et al., 2007; G. Drescher & Garbers, 2016; Hoch & Kozlowski, 2014; Nicolaides et al., 2014). For example, Galli, Kaviani, Bottani, and Murino (2017) examined the effectiveness of shared leadership in Six Sigma Projects and found that shared leadership was positively related to project completion and customer satisfaction. Muethel, Gehrlein, and Hoegl (2012) found that shared leadership was an enabler of team performance in geographically dispersed teams. Karriker, Madden, and Katell (2017) found that shared leadership predicted financial and strategic performance over and above the effects of team size and team sex diversity. Carson and colleagues (2007) revealed that shared leadership increased team performance in consulting teams. Additionally, a study conducted by L. Wang and colleagues (2017) suggested that shared leadership increased employees' extra-role performance such as organizational citizenship behaviors. Drawing on social identity theory, J. Zhu, Liao, Wang, and Li (2017) found that shared leadership enhances team citizenship behavior through team identification. Several studies specifically reported that various types of shared leadership in entrepreneurial teams (e.g., shared directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leadership, Ensley et al., 2006; shared authentic leadership, Hmieleski et al., 2012) engendered new venture performance, including revenue and employee growth (Ensley et al., 2006; shared directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leadership; Hmieleski et al., 2012; shared authentic leadership). For example, Ensley et al. (2006) reported that shared leadership predicted team performance after controlling for vertical directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leadership in entrepreneurial teams.

Beyond team performance, researchers have considered other outcomes as well, such as team creativity and innovation. Hoch (2013), for example, found that shared leadership increased team members' innovative behaviors. Likewise, Bligh et al. (2006) showed that shared leadership enhanced team knowledge creation. Building on social cognitive theory, Liang and Gu (2016) proposed that shared leadership has a positive influence on creativity in knowledge-work teams through team potency. In addition to main effects, Hu et al. (2017) explored the boundary effect of shared leadership on the negative relation of conflict with creativity. They found that shared leadership mitigated this negative relation, such that teams exhibited higher creativity as a function of intermediate task conflict when they had high (versus low) levels of shared leadership.

Finally, researchers have investigated how shared leadership affects team members' work-related attitudes. G. Drescher and Garbers (2016) found that shared leadership increased members' team satisfaction. Moreover, Serban and Roberts (2016) showed that shared leadership is positively related to team members' task satisfaction. Robert and You (2017) also observed a moderating effect of shared leadership in shaping team members' job satisfaction, such that shared leadership strengthened the relationship between employee trust and job satisfaction.

### 5.2.3 | Boundary conditions on the effects of shared leadership

Extant research also provides evidence that the effects of shared leadership are contingent on various moderators, including the content of shared leadership, task characteristics, team characteristics, situational factors, and operationalization of shared leadership. D. Wang et al. (2014) conducted a meta-analytical review, in which they found that shared traditional forms of leadership (i.e., initiating structure and consideration) had weaker effects on team effectiveness than did either shared new-genre leadership (e.g., transformational leadership, visionary leadership, charismatic leadership, and empowering leadership) or cumulative and overall shared leadership. They also found that task complexity moderated the effects of shared leadership on team effectiveness, such that the relationship was stronger when team tasks were more complex compared with when tasks were less complex (Bligh et al., 2006). This owed in part to the heightened demands for more than one individual to play the leader role (Day et al., 2004; D. Wang et al., 2014).

Some researchers have also investigated the moderating roles of task characteristics. Nicolaides et al. (2014) found that task interdependence strengthened the relationship of shared leadership with team performance, suggesting that shared leadership was most useful within teams that required a great deal of coordination. Likewise, Bligh et al. (2006) reported that task complexity and task interdependence strengthened the effects of shared leadership on knowledge creation. Lemoine, Koseoglu, and Blum (2015) found that shared leadership had stronger relationships with team performance for creative tasks than decision-making tasks. Liu et al. (2014) found that the indirect effects of shared leadership on team and individual learning behaviors through psychological safety were more positive when team members perceived high job variety.

Several studies have explored the moderating effects of team characteristics on the effects of shared leadership.<sup>3</sup> G. Drescher and

<sup>3</sup>Based on our review, we found that team characteristics can affect both the emergence and effectiveness of shared leadership. However, the nature of these team characteristics might be slightly different when considering their role in shared leadership research. Specifically, the antecedents of shared leadership are often team characteristics that stimulate team members to step up and claim leadership or facilitate team members to grant other team members' leadership attempts, such as team member proactive personality, mutual trust, and social support. The moderators for shared leadership effects are often team characteristics associated with whether team members can provide diverse knowledge, effectively utilize team members' knowledge, or facilitate the coordination of team members. Therefore, some team characteristics (e.g., social support) that facilitate the emergence of shared leadership also works as the boundary conditions for shared leadership effects. Additionally, there are also some team characteristics (e.g., team member competence, team connectedness, and team virtuality) that may only work as the moderators for the effects of shared leadership on team outcomes.

Garbers (2016) found that team commonality moderated the relationships of shared leadership with team performance and team members' job satisfaction, such that the relationships were stronger for teams with high (versus low) commonality. They also found that team's communication patterns shaped the intensity of the effects of shared leadership, such that shared leadership led to better performance and greater satisfaction in virtual teams than it did in face-to-face teams. Chiu et al. (2016) found that team members' task-related competence strengthened the positive relationship of shared leadership with team performance. Mihalache et al. (2014) suggested that connectedness enhanced the effect of TMT shared leadership on ambidexterity. Erkutlu (2012) showed that when teams had a supportive culture, shared leadership was more likely to increase team members' proactive behaviors. D. Wang et al. (2014) reported that team stability of power distance mitigated the positive effects of shared leadership on team performance. Nicolaides et al. (2014) reported that team tenure was another important moderator that influenced the effects of shared leadership on team performance. In teams with shorter rather than longer tenure, shared leadership had a stronger positive relation with team performance. Furthermore, Waldman, Wang, and Zhang (2016) investigated the moderating effect of team demographic fault lines on the relationship between shared leadership and team performance. They found that informational-based fault lines enabled a positive effect of shared leadership, whereas social category fault lines produced a negative effect of shared leadership on team performance.

Finally, a meta-analytical review conducted by D'Innocenzo et al. (2016) reported that the way in which shared leadership is operationalized is another boundary condition on the effects of shared leadership. These authors found that when using network density and (de) centralization approaches to measuring shared leadership, the relationship of shared leadership with team performance was stronger, compared to using aggregation-based approaches. D'Innocenzo et al. (2016) provided several explanations for this finding. Density and decentralization indices from a network approach capture each individual's leadership influence, and these two indexes provide richer and more informative measures of shared leadership than does an overall rating of team members' leadership influence. Moreover, deriving the individual member's influence from a network approach minimizes the mental arithmetic (and thus errors and biases) that the aggregation approaches require of respondents.

## 6 | FUTURE DIRECTIONS FOR SHARED LEADERSHIP RESEARCH

Our review suggests that although shared leadership has received increased attention, there are many uncharted territories that await future research. Below, we summarize particularly fertile topics and emerging research questions.

### 6.1 | Refining understanding of shared leadership

While it is important to understand the common characteristics of shared leadership, it is also important to contextualize our understanding of shared leadership. In particular, the nature of shared leadership

might be different in cases whether the formal leader is involved or not. In teams with formal team leaders, vertical leadership and shared leadership may coexist, and shared leadership complements the leadership functions provided by vertical leadership (e.g., Ensley et al., 2006). As formal team leaders have the leadership authority, shared leadership occurs when leadership activities or roles are "distributed" or "passed" by the formal team leader to team members, such that shared leadership involves "the encouragement of leadership from below" (Pearce, Manz, & Sims, 2008, p. 354). That is, formal team leaders empower or allow team members to participate in team leadership or take on some leadership responsibilities (Denis et al., 2012; Van Knippenberg, 2017). In contrast, in teams without a formal team leader (e.g., self-managed teams), team members can take on the full-range of leader roles needed within teams. As all leadership influences are horizontal among peers in teams without a formal team leader, the focus of shared leadership is on whether the overall leadership influence is distributed widely among many team members or around a few team members. Shared leadership can occur in multiple formats, including that team members work together in time and place to co-perform the same leadership activity, that team members take turns to serve in the leadership role, and that team members take on differentiated leadership roles (e.g., each team member takes responsibility for one or a few leadership roles). Given that the nature of shared leadership might be different in different situations (e.g. whether the formal leader is involved or not), we encourage future research to explore whether shared leadership in these two distinct contexts yield differences in team processes.

In addition, the "social network approach" has advanced our understanding of shared leadership by explicating the amount of leadership displayed by each team member and the configuration of shared leadership. Yet, so far, this line of research has not articulated the content of shared leadership (i.e., which leadership function is performed by who). For example, Carson and colleagues (2007) focus on the extent to which overall leadership was shared among team members. According to the functional leadership theory (Morgeson et al., 2010), there are multiple leadership functions in work teams. To clearly understand how leadership is shared within the team, it is important to articulate whether team members differentiated their roles in collectively engaging in team leadership or they co-perform the same leadership functions. To address this issue, we encourage future research to take on a function-based approach to understand shared leadership. For example, studies could consider both the team leadership functions needed in the team and the persons who take on each of the leadership functions. Studies could also investigate whether it is more effective to let different team members take on different leadership functions or it is more effective to let team members co-perform all leadership functions.

### 6.2 | Improving the operationalization of shared leadership

As we reviewed, researchers have provided a number of measures of shared leadership (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; Mehra et al., 2006). These measures contribute considerably to the burgeoning stream of research on shared leadership. Nonetheless, new methods are needed



to capture important aspects of shared leadership more precisely. First, both leadership structure density (i.e., the amount of leadership being shared) and decentralization (i.e., the distribution pattern of leadership influence) are essential to assess shared leadership (DeRue et al., 2015). Extant research, however, tends to operationalize shared leadership by focusing on either density or decentralization, but not both. Therefore, we call for future research to develop composite measures that appropriately capture both the amount of leadership being shared and their distribution pattern.

Second, Carson et al.'s (2007) shared leadership measure is currently the most frequently used measure of shared leadership. This measure asked every team member to rate each of his or her teammates (from 1 = *not at all* to 5 = *to a very great extent*) on the following question: "To what degree does your team rely on this individual for leadership?" This measure captures the configuration of the leadership network, yet the content (e.g., the specific leadership behavior or leadership roles) has been overlooked. Thus, another promising direction for future research is to develop measures that capture both the configuration of leadership and the content being shared. For example, future research could integrate shared leadership and functional leadership research (e.g., Morgeson et al., 2010) and ask every team member to rate each of his or her teammates' leadership influence for every leadership function.

Third, beyond survey methodology, some researchers are starting to use innovative methods to capture shared leadership. For example, H. Zhu, Kraut, Wang, and Kittur (2011) captured shared leadership using trace data from Wikipedia. This novel method provides a new way to detect shared leadership by utilizing objective and archival data on shared leadership activities. With an ever-increasing number of companies recording various aspects of employees' work activities, this method may provide a powerful way to track the dynamics of shared leadership over time in natural settings. Likewise, M. A. Drescher et al. (2014) used trace data from a simulation game to capture shared leadership. Bergman et al. (2012) assessed shared leadership by behaviorally coding videotapes of team discussion. These innovative methods enriched our knowledge by providing novel perspectives to look at shared leadership. Following these examples, we call for more creative methods in future research to investigate shared leadership more fully.

### 6.3 | Developing a unified theoretical framework for shared leadership research

Our thorough review of shared leadership literature reveals that a diverse range of theories have been utilized to study shared leadership. Among these theories, adaptive leadership theory (DeRue, 2011; DeRue & Ashford, 2010), social information processing theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978), and social learning theory (Bandura, 2001) are the major theoretical foundations for scholars to explain the emergence of shared leadership (e.g., Chiu et al., 2016; DeRue et al., 2015). Social identity theory (Hogg & Terry, 2000), social cognition theory (Bandura, 1977), affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), and role theory (Biddle, 1979) have been drawn to explicate the effects of shared leadership (e.g., Hmieleski et al., 2012; Hsu et al., 2017; Liang & Gu, 2016; Liu et al., 2014).

Although these theories helped enhance the knowledge of shared leadership, there appears to be little consensus regarding a unifying theory of shared leadership. We thus encourage future research to explore an overarching theoretical framework of shared leadership. For example, scholars could draw on relational models theory of group-level leadership emergence (Wellman, 2017) to better understand the emergence of shared leadership. As highlighted by Wellman (2017), most theories of individual-focused leadership emergence suffer from three common limitations when applied to the shared leadership context: (a) They do not consider the potential for group-level dynamics in the leadership generation process, (b) they underestimate the importance of context, and (c) they assume that leadership activity in groups does not change once it has emerged. Thus, there is a strong need to develop contextually grounded, group-level theory of leadership emergence. Moreover, scholars could draw on the relational theory of leadership (Uhl-Bien, 2006) and functional leadership theory (Morgeson et al., 2010) to study the relational dynamics in the leadership sharing process and how those relational dynamics affect team outcomes.

### 6.4 | Temporal dynamics of shared leadership

Scholars have highlighted that shared leadership is a time-varying construct (e.g., Pearce & Conger, 2003). However, research on the dynamics of shared leadership has just started to emerge (Aime, Humphrey, DeRue, & Paul, 2014; M. A. Drescher et al., 2014; L. Wang, Han, et al., 2017). To obtain a finer grained understanding of the dynamics of shared leadership, we identified a set of interesting and important research questions that need further attention. First, the need for leadership from certain individuals will ebb and flow over time as tasks and strategies change (e.g., switching between exploration and exploitation). This raises some questions. For example, how does the team identify and respond to the need for change in shared leadership? How does the team handle the redistribution of leadership influence if transitions are needed? What critical team processes and emergent states are involved in such transitions? How does the team regulate commensurate changes in power and influence among its members during these leadership transitions?

Second, teams have different needs for leadership during team's transition phase and action phase (Morgeson et al., 2010). As such, the emergence and effectiveness of shared leadership may change over different team phases (i.e., transition and action phases). It is possible that leadership roles tend to concentrate on the formal team leaders during team transition phases and be shared among team members during team action phases.

Third, both vertical leadership and shared leadership are important for teams (Pearce, 2004), which creates the possibility that teams may need to shift between these two types of leadership across different team stages and/or situations. For example, when teams face time pressures or crises, a shift from shared leadership to vertical leadership may allow for more powerful allocation of resources. Future research could investigate the factors that trigger the shift between shared leadership and vertical leadership, and to explore how the shift influences teamwork process and effectiveness.



## 6.5 | Antecedents of shared leadership

Although considerable research has investigated the outcomes of shared leadership, research on the antecedents of shared leadership is still in its infancy. First, and perhaps most important, extant antecedent-focused research on shared leadership tends to neglect organizational level or structure-based factors that can promote or inhibit shared leadership. We thus encourage future research to specifically target such antecedents. For example, a team's dispersion of power or status differentials may influence the expression of shared leadership. Teams with minimal power and status differentials might tend to display shared leadership. Likewise, human resource practices, such as group-based performance appraisal or reward, may play a role in facilitating shared leadership. When such practices motivate team members to cooperate with each other rather than to compete, shared leadership may be more likely to occur and may also be more effective (Pearce & Sims, 2000).

Second, the formal team leader's role in the emergence of shared leadership may deserve further investigation (Carson et al., 2007). A team leader with high managerial openness may encourage team members to assume leadership roles. A dysfunctional or incompetent formal team leader may increase the need for team members to undertake some leadership responsibilities, yet such a formal team leader may be less capable of effectively guiding the team members to share leadership and addressing problems in the sharing process. Whether shared leadership is more likely to occur in teams with an incompetent formal team leader is an intriguing question that deserves serious exploration. Furthermore, future research could investigate leadership styles that are detrimental to the emergence of shared leadership. For example, future research could investigate whether authorization leadership or abusive supervision has a negative effect on the emergence of shared leadership and if yes, what are the underlying mechanisms. Leaders in general display high levels of abusive supervision or authorization leadership; followers tend to have lower psychological safety, decreasing the tendency of their attempts to claim leadership roles.

Third, team characteristics and composition may be important antecedents of shared leadership (Conger & Pearce, 2003). Despite the existing investigations of several specific team characteristics, there is still much space for further exploration along this research line. For example, when teams experience rapid changes in membership (e.g., employee turnover or entries of newcomers), shared leadership may encounter disturbance. Besides, the abilities, motivations, and relationship qualities of team members may also influence whether shared leadership is more or less likely to emerge. For example, members with low motivations to lead may not work together to produce shared leadership. Besides, team members with low-quality relationships may be reluctant to accept others' influence, which hinders the effective development of shared leadership. Team tenure could also be a possible predictor of the emergence of shared leadership, where shared leadership may be less likely to occur in earlier stages when teams are forming, and norms are emerging.

Fourth, little research has investigated the effects of prior leader-team interactions on the emergence of shared leadership. Yet prior leader-team interaction is likely to be a key antecedent of shared leadership. One reason is that shared leadership requires collective identity (Venus, Mao, Lanaj, & Johnson, 2012). When prior leader-

team interactions enhance collective identity, shared leadership is likely to emerge. However, if prior interactions enhance an individual or self-focused identity, then shared leadership will be stymied. For example, if the formal leader promotes differentiated levels of LMX that create visible distinctions between team members, members will develop strong individual identities that in turn prohibit the emergence of shared leadership within the team. Thus, whether and how prior leader-team interactions influence the emergence of shared leadership is an intriguing question that deserves exploration.

Fifth, few studies have investigated the boundary conditions for antecedents of shared leadership. For example, L. Wang and colleagues (2017) found that servant leadership alleviates the negative effect of LMX differentiation on shared leadership. Carson et al. (2007) found that the positive effect of internal team environment on shared leadership was contingent on teams with low supportive coaching behaviors from external team leaders. Kukenberger et al. (2011) showed that team functional diversity had a positive effect on shared leadership only when teams implemented highly cooperative conflict management practice. Given that there are so few studies on the boundary condition of the antecedents of shared leadership, we suggest this as another area of future research direction.

Lastly, as an increasing number of empirical studies have investigated the antecedents of shared leadership, a meta-analytical review on the antecedents of shared leadership shall be helpful to guide future research.

## 6.6 | Outcomes and mediating mechanisms of shared leadership

To demonstrate the value of shared leadership, scholars have linked shared leadership to several critical work outcomes such as task performance and creativity. Scholars could further advance this line of research in several ways. First, beyond the outcomes that have been examined, future research could include a wider range of outcomes pertaining different entities and at different levels. For example, it would be interesting to examine whether shared leadership could influence firm-level outcomes such as corporate social responsibility and competitive advantage. It is also interesting to examine whether shared leadership could influence a variety of individual behaviors and well-being.

Second, as theory develops, future research should advance and explore the potential mediating mechanisms linking shared leadership to work outcomes. For example, shared leadership may facilitate a bunch of team emergent states and team properties including team mindfulness, team monitoring, team back-up behavior, team reflexivity, team absorb capability, and team knowledge integration capability, which in turn could lead to better team performance. Furthermore, the frequent leading-following interaction among team members may help the team develop collective team cognitions, such as a shared mental model and transactive memory systems.

Lastly, scholars have suggested that organizations can develop deliberate managerial intervention or training programs to nourish shared leadership (Day et al., 2004; Denis et al., 2012; Pearce & Manz, 2005). This effort is valuable as it can provide practitioners with a tool to enhance shared leadership and it can also help scholars to address the causality issue of the relationship between shared leadership and

team outcomes. Yet little research has used intervention or training to study shared leadership. We invite future research to develop shared leadership intervention or training and study the effectiveness of shared leadership using an experimental research design. Future research could also compare a shared leadership intervention with other types of leadership interventions (e.g., transformational or empowering leadership interventions).

## 6.7 | Potential boundary conditions on the effectiveness of shared leadership

Besides those already identified in published works, a number of potential boundary conditions of shared leadership should be investigated. First, the effectiveness of shared leadership depends on competently integrating team members' expertise and contributions. Therefore, social-related factors that stimulate team members to cooperate or compete may influence the effectiveness of shared leadership. For example, shared leadership may be more effective when the team has a collective identity that facilitates sharing leadership, as opposed to members holding more independent or individual identities (Venus et al., 2012). When the team lacks a collective identity, shared leadership is unlikely to be effective due to a lack of goal congruence among team members. LMX differentiation may undermine cooperation among team members, and thus LMX differentiation might mitigate, or even reverse the direction of relations between shared leadership and team outcomes. Also, effective shared leadership requires the team to match tasks, expertise, and persons. Thus, a transactive memory system is likely to be an important boundary condition of the effectiveness of shared leadership.

Second, future research should focus on a more detailed understanding of the best practices of shared leadership. Our review identifies different ways to share the leadership. For example, team members can collectively engage in all leadership roles or they can take on different leadership roles and perform different functions (Contractor et al., 2012). The ways leadership is shared beg the following question: How should leadership be shared to maximize effectiveness? Moreover, contingency theories of leadership suggest that the effectiveness of leadership depends on the specific situations. Therefore, another important question could be the match between the way leadership is shared and the specific situations. Improved understanding of these questions not only contribute to the fine-grained theorization of shared leadership but also has important practical implications.

Third, the effectiveness of shared leadership may depend on the work groups in which it operates. For example, team-based knowledge work may benefit more from developing shared leadership (Pearce, 2004), because the involvement in leadership activities are motivating to knowledge workers. In sum, although the literature assumes positive effects of shared leadership on work outcomes, we suggest that future research explore additional boundary conditions that might strengthen, mitigate, or even flip such relationships.

## 6.8 | Potential dark side of shared leadership

Our review identifies that current research has focused predominantly on the bright side of shared leadership. To date, knowledge on the

potential dark side of shared leadership is lacking. Like other positive leadership constructs such as empowering leadership (e.g., Sharma & Kirkman, 2015), we suggest that shared leadership researchers should explore its potential dark side as well.

There is a set of interesting research issues surrounding when and for whom shared leadership is harmful. For example, as shared leadership is a more complex and time-consuming process compared with traditional vertical leadership (Pearce, 2004), teams with high levels of shared leadership may take more time to reach consensus, resulting in lower efficiency in decision-making. This could be a challenge especially in industries with high environmental dynamism. Moreover, shared leadership is associated with dispersion of responsibility; thus, the issues of free riding and social loafing may emerge in shared leadership contexts, especially in large teams. Also, shared leadership might be associated with groupthink, especially in teams with low cognitive diversity.

Another potential drawback of shared leadership is that equal influence among team members may not be necessarily desirable (Locke, 2003), even though getting more members involved would increase the level of shared leadership. When all team members attempt to lead the team, issues such as conflicts, coordination failures, and information overload will likely arise. Individuals also differ in their leadership capabilities and motivation to lead. On the one hand, some team members who are suitable for certain leadership roles because of their expertise may not desire such leadership roles (e.g., low motivation to lead) or even avoid taking leadership responsibilities. On the other hand, those with relatively stronger motivation to lead may share in more leadership functions, yet who is nevertheless not the most suitable or competent member. Although the implicit assumption in shared leadership research suggests that it is a positive construct, future research should discuss when equal or differentiated involvement in shared leadership should be pursued or avoided.

A final potential drawback of shared leadership is that it may have some undesirable consequences for formal team leaders. For example, the formal team leader might experience psychological territory infringement when team members attempt to take the leadership roles. Shared leadership may slow or inhibit the development of leadership capabilities of formal leaders. Shared leadership may be threatening to leaders, thus reducing their leadership self-efficacy and motivation to lead. Simply put, we suggest that while shared leadership has many benefits for teams, it may also be detrimental under certain team contexts. We, therefore, recommend that scholars examine the potential downsides of shared leadership so that they can be effectively managed.

## 6.9 | The interplay of vertical leadership and shared leadership

There are complex relations between formal leadership and shared leadership. Shared leadership and other formal leadership behaviors mutually influence each other. Past research has tended to position formal leadership as a predictor of shared leadership, and hence we discuss these possibilities. First, formal leadership may act as an important factor that influences the emergence of shared leadership (e.g., Carson et al., 2007; Chiu et al., 2016). As we discussed in the

review of antecedents of shared leadership, empowering leadership, servant leadership, leader humility, and supportive coaching behaviors of external team leaders enhance the emergence of shared leadership. Moreover, formal leadership styles may also serve as boundary conditions on the effects of shared leadership (e.g., vertical leadership; Hsu et al., 2017). For example, LMX differentiation moderates the effect of shared leadership on team identity, such that the relationship between shared leadership and team identity is stronger in teams with low rather than high LMX differentiation (J. Zhu et al., 2017). Furthermore, shared leadership may affect the development and consequences of certain formal leadership. For example, when team members more frequently take the leadership functions and coordinate well, the formal leader is likely to grant more latitude to team members. Building from this perspective, shared leadership may trigger empowering leadership, and it may also make empowering leadership more effective.

## 7 | CONCLUSION

Our review has provided conceptual clarity and structure to the expanding shared leadership literature. By identifying the three key characteristics of shared leadership, we provide an approach to understand shared leadership and differentiate it from similar constructs. In addition, this review has provided an integrative framework that summarizes the extant knowledge and identifies potential avenues for future research. We hope that this review spurs further research in the shared leadership literature, and we look forward to learning about new discoveries and insights regarding teams in which leadership roles and influence are distributed among members.

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