The Leadership Quarterly xxx (2013) xxx–xxx

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

The Leadership Quarterly

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/leaqua

The role of organizational leaders in employee emotion management: A theoretical model ☆

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:
Received 3 March 2013
Received in revised form 23 November 2013
Accepted 25 November 2013
Available online xxxx

Handling Editor: Ronald Riggio

Keywords:
Emotion
Affect
Leadership
Emotion management
Performance

ABSTRACT

The actions of organizational leaders are important determinants of the emergence, management, and consequences of employee emotional experience. However, the nature and dimensionality of leader emotion management and the behaviors that constitute such management are largely unknown. The authors present a comprehensive, theoretically-derived model of leader emotion management which clarifies the nature of emotion management and its role in leadership. This model also delineates the knowledge and skill-based antecedents of emotion management and the consequences of such management. Specifically, we propose linkages between particular KSAOs and specific emotion management dimensions and between those dimensions and particular individual and organizational outcomes. The model is meant to serve as a framework to guide empirical efforts in investigating the nature and correlates of leader emotion management.

1. Introduction

Work is an emotional experience. It is a source of anger, distress, frustration, and embarrassment, but also a spring of pride, belongingness, fulfillment, and excitement (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Boudens, 2005). These emotions derive both from work-related events and interactions (Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2008; Reichard & Riggio, 2008) and from the non-work feelings that employees bring with them to the job. The consequences of these emotions are far-reaching, impacting not only well-being, but also individual, group and organizational performance (for reviews, see Barsade & Gibson, 2007; Elfenbein, 2007).

A consistent theme that has emerged from the literature on workplace emotions is that organizational leaders have a great deal of influence over the emergence, management, and consequences of organizational affective experiences (for a review of relevant literature, see Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010). Specifically, several studies have revealed that leaders are responsible for some of the most important and frequent determinants of employees' emotions (e.g., Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2008; Dasborough, 2006; George, 2000; Pescosolido, 2002; Reichard & Riggio, 2008). Leavitt and Bahrami, 1988 go so far as to suggest that, "managing one's own emotions, and those of employees, is as much a critical managerial function as managing markets or finances" (1988: 40). Similarly, Rafaeli and Worline, 2001 conclude, "put simply, management's job has become the management of emotion" (2001: 107).

Owing to, and perhaps driving, this recognition that leaders exert a significant impact on employees' work-related feelings, there has been a rapid growth in research on what we refer to as leader emotion management or LEM (e.g., Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Humphrey, 2008; Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008; Pescosolido, 2002). While impressive, the swiftness of this growth also has resulted in a

☆ This material is based upon work supported by U.S. Army Research Institute under Contract No. W91WAW-08-P-0430. The statements and opinions expressed in this presentation do not necessarily reflect the position or the policy of the U.S. Army and no official endorsement should be inferred.
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http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.015

disjointed and sometimes confused body of work. Evidence for this fragmentation and confusion is apparent when one considers the very different conceptualizations of and approaches to leader emotion management in the literature.

2. Current approaches to studying leader emotion management

One common approach is to conceptualize leader emotion management as closely entwined with a characteristic of the leader—most often emotional intelligence (EI) (e.g., Humphrey et al., 2008; Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002; Wong & Law, 2002; for a recent review, see Walter, Cole, & Humphrey, 2011). Studies in this vein usually address the question of how well EI predicts a particular leadership construct (e.g., transformational leadership [TL] or charismatic leadership) and/or a measure of leader emergence or effectiveness (e.g. Coté, Lopez, Salovey, & Miners, 2010; Harms & Credé, 2010; Wolff et al., 2002). Although research on emotional intelligence has been useful in understanding leadership (e.g., George, 2000, but also see Antonakis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009; Kaplan, Cortina, & Ruark, 2010), our focus here is more so on the behavioral nature of emotion management.

For the most part, studies investigating EI with respect to leadership treat EI as a unitary and stable predictor construct (see Harms & Credé, 2010 for examples) of a given index of leader effectiveness (see studies above). Although Mayer and Salovey (1997) describe four branches of EI (accurately perceiving emotions in oneself and others, using emotions to facilitate thinking, understanding emotional meaning, and managing emotions of oneself and others), studies rarely address these separate components. Also, the branches themselves are quite broad and represent sets of mental abilities, not leader behaviors. As such, studies examining EI generally do not address or tease apart "what about EI" and/or "what parts of it" are related to what aspects of emotional leadership behavior (see Jordan, Dasborough, Daus, & Ashkanasy, 2010 for similar recognitions and point).

Juxtaposed with this work on EI are various streams of research relevant to leaders as emotion managers. This work includes research on diverse topics such as: the effects of leader emotional displays (Connelly & Ruark, 2010; Dasborough, Ashkanasy, Tee, & Tse, 2009; Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005); the emotional consequences of leader decision-making (De Cremer, 2007) and communication (Dasborough, 2006), and the role of leaders in establishing emotional norms (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995) and providing emotional support (Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). Studies on these topics are important because they offer a more nuanced view of the role of leaders in emotion management. However, because these studies examine different processes and variables, it would be useful to have a framework that brings them together.

We note that there have been some other recent models attempting to bring some clarity to this literature. In an important paper on organizational emotion management behavior, Williams (2007) integrated several theoretical models in explicating the interpersonal processes and behaviors that allow for the development of trust. In a paper especially relevant to the current one, Humphrey and colleagues (2008) forwarded a model suggesting that leaders can be the original source of an affective event and also can help or hinder employees' ability to cope with affective events at work. These authors also describe the key role of empathy, emotion recognition, and emotional expressiveness in emotionally intelligent leadership. Also, Ashkanasy and colleagues have discussed leader emotion management across various levels of analysis (e.g., Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2008), providing important insights into leadership and emotions. Additionally, van Knippenberg and co-authors (2008) provide a summary of leaders as sources of employee emotions, integrating work from various areas. In a different context, Little and colleagues drew from theories of emotion regulation and coping in investigating how employees respond to customer emotions (Little, Kluemper, Nelson, & Ward, 2013).

These models all discuss important components of (leader) emotion management, and we draw from some of them below. Although certainly all informative, these models, taken in isolation or together, still do not provide a complete picture of leader emotion management. They all are narrower than what we present here. As such, they provide the ingredients from which we partially have crafted the current model. What is lacking, and what we attempt to provide here, is a thorough explication of 1) the nature (i.e., the constituent dimensions) of leader emotion management, 2) the specific predictors of those particular dimensions, 3) the outcomes those dimensions impact, and 4) the moderators of these two sets of linkages.

To these ends, the remainder of this paper unfolds as follows. First, we define key terms and provide an overview of the proposed theoretical model. Next, we discuss eight broad sets of behaviors that constitute effective leader emotion management as well as the consequences that follow from these behaviors. We then propose various knowledge and skills that are relevant to leader emotion management and, by implication, to individual and organizational outcomes (see Fig. 1). Next, we discuss feedback loops in the model as well as individual and contextual moderators that operate at various points in the model (see Fig. 2). The paper concludes with a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the current model.

3. Conceptualizing emotion and leader emotion management (EM)

First, our wording regarding the emotion concept warrants mention. Here, we are interested in state affect (i.e., fleeting affective experiences), not trait affect, which is a more stable individual characteristic. In speaking of state affect, we generally use the term "emotion" throughout the manuscript. While both emotion and moods represent affective (i.e., feeling) states, they can differ phenomenologically. Emotions represent acute, intense, and ephemeral reactions to some event (e.g., being publically chastised by one's leader; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Mood, in contrast, is a more diffuse and longer-lasting affective state. People generally are aware of their emotions, whereas the experience of moods can occur in the background and without triggering conscious awareness (Watson, 2000). This said, the distinctions between mood and emotion are not entirely clear, either from an experiential perspective or in terms of function (cf., Ekman & Davidson, 1994). In general, the valence of affect, rather than the intensity, predominates in terms of impacting behavior (Russell, 2003) Also, the two experiences are often intertwined temporally, as moods (e.g., "feeling a little down") can morph

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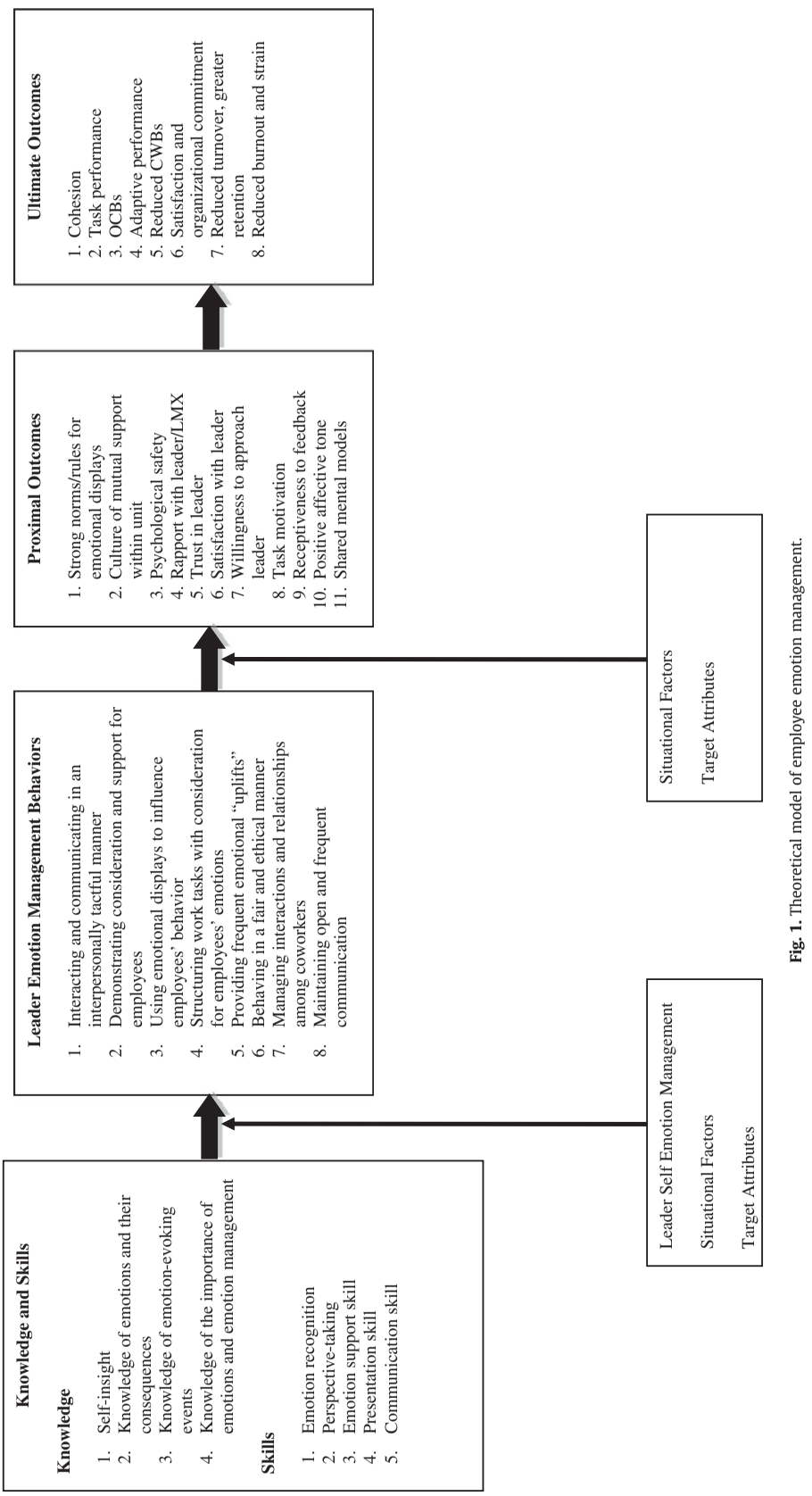

Fig. 1. Theoretical model of employee emotion management.

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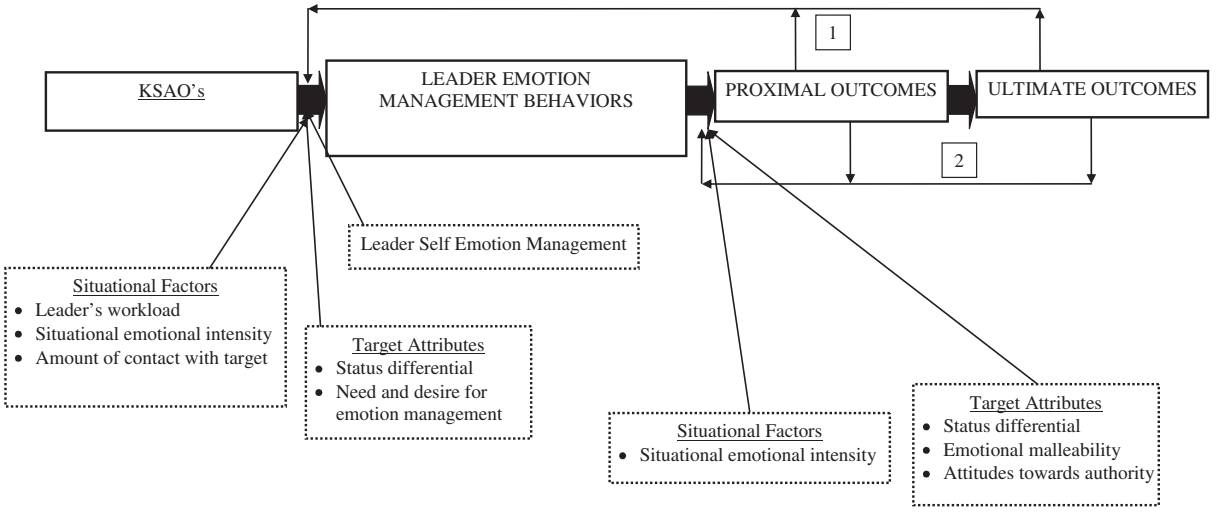

Fig. 2. Feedback loops and moderators within the theoretical model of emotion management.

into full-blown emotional experiences (e.g., feeling depressed) and emotions can dissipate into residual moods (e.g., Watson, 2000). Given these considerations, although we primarily use the term emotion, we also draw from and integrate research on mood.

Second, with respect to leader emotion management, we define it as, "*the processes and behaviors involved in assisting employees in regulating their emotional experiences so as to facilitate the attainment of organizational objectives*." Although we primarily are interested in the behaviors themselves, we do expect some correspondence between the behaviors and followers' perceptions of them. Worth noting, though, is that leaders and their employees can hold vastly different views of leader emotion management (Toegel, Kilduff, & Anand, 2013). Also important to note is that we discuss LEM at the individual (i.e., leader) level of analysis. As such, we would expect some degree of convergence among subordinates' ratings of a given leader (Chan, 1998). That said, implicit in our model (e.g., see the section on moderators) is that LEM also can vary among (i.e., at the dyadic level) and within subordinates (i.e., at the episodic level). Thus, although we mostly deal with between-person differences in LEM, we recognize that it also can vary within leaders. We elaborate on these issues in the final section of the paper.

4. Overview of the model

The conceptual model appears in Figs. 1 and 2. Beginning at the left of Fig. 1, the model implies that various knowledge and skills predict leaders' success in executing eight sets or categories of emotion management behaviors. Continuing with Fig. 1, these leader emotion management behaviors then foster various proximal and ultimate outcomes. As is the case with our connecting specific antecedents to particular leader behaviors, the linking of those behaviors to certain outcomes (but not others) is, perhaps surprisingly, also fairly unique. In most cases, studies address the relationship between an index of emotionally relevant leader behavior and a particular outcome (e.g. leader or unit performance, attitudinal outcomes) without recognition of other outcomes for which that behavior may have null, or even contradictory, effects.

The model also incorporates two sets of moderator variables as well as two feedback loops (See Fig. 2). The moderators represent contextual and individual variables that impact the relationships among leader KSAOs and leader emotion management behaviors and between those behaviors and their outcomes. Finally, the feedback loops represent the dynamic nature of leader–employee affect relations.

5. Emotion management behaviors

At the core of the model are eight specific categories (i.e. dimensions) of leader behaviors; the various knowledge and skills then are predictive of successful execution of these sets of behaviors. These eight categories of behaviors represent aspects of leader performance that correspond to workplace situations and leader functions in which successful emotion management is most likely to be necessary and consequential. Consistent with Humphrey and colleagues' conceptualization of leader emotion management (Humphrey et al., 2008), these behaviors entail both generating employee emotion and helping employees handle emotions.

We generated these categories by reviewing research from various areas, especially research on the sources of workplace emotions (e.g., Basch & Fisher, 2000; Elfenbein, 2007), leader behavior as a precursor to such emotions (e.g., Dasborough, 2006; Humphrey et al., 2008; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004), and leaders as emotion managers (e.g., Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2008; Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006). In reviewing these literatures, we catalogued the emotion-evoking events and the emotion-relevant leader behaviors. We then sorted these events and behaviors into sets of categories, arriving at the eight broad dimensions of LEM presented here. We endeavored

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to ensure these categories represented similar levels of abstraction. Although others have focused on particular behaviors and/or dimensions (e.g., Thiel, Connelly, & Griffith, 2012), this is the most comprehensive conceptualization of which we are aware.

Performance in emotion-relevant situations is a function of leaders successfully exhibiting the behaviors composing these categories. For instance, the category of structuring work tasks with consideration for employees' emotions encompasses discrete behaviors such as 1) refraining from appointing overly challenging tasks to emotionally exhausted workers and 2) setting specific, manageable goals for workers. That the set of behaviors itself is multifaceted also suggests that different attributes are predictive of the various constituent behaviors. For example, knowledge of emotions and their consequences is likely more important for the first behavior while communication skill should be more important for the latter.

Drawing from affective events theory (AET; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), one can conceive of these behaviors as emotionally-laden events that employees experience. The leader may be reacting to an employee emotional expression or acting proactively to try to foster, dampen, prevent, etc. an emotion. Also consistent with AET, leaders' behaviors can have more immediate affective consequences (e.g., immediate changes in task effort owing to the leader inducing hope or pride in employees) and can impact longer-term outcomes through their mediating impact on employee judgments and attitudes (e.g., about the leader). Notably, given behaviors can, at times, produce conflicting affective states in the short- versus long-term. Consider again the category of structuring work tasks with consideration for employees' emotions. To facilitate successful completion of the relevant task, the proficient leader will choose and generate the appropriate affective states among employees (Connelly & Ruark, 2010; Thiel et al., 2012). Emotions that sometimes are facilitative of performance, though, such as moderate anger or anxiety (Fitness, 2000), also can foster short term negative attributions about the leader and one's job, organization, etc. (Lewis, 2000). Despite these potentially aversive reactions, the leader proficient in emotion management recognizes that his or her actions ultimately can yield benefits to the employees and the unit, such as greater self-efficacy, improved later performance, and trust in the leader's assessment of the employee's ability (Reichard & Riggio, 2008; Van Kleef et al., 2009). Leaders who engage in effective emotion management are not callous or "unfeeling." On the contrary, they are supportive, preventing any undue distress, and ensuring employee learns from the relevant experience.

This construct space can be conceptualized at various levels of abstraction, ranging from a list of very specific behaviors (e.g. attending to employees' distress following an organizational crisis) to a broad, all-encompassing one (e.g., leader emotion management or transformational leadership). In our view, the former is too narrow to provide for broad, generalizable conclusions while the latter is too general and is unsatisfying from both a scientific and practical perspective (cf., Austin & Villanova, 1992). Our goal here was to conceptualize emotion management at a level of abstraction somewhere between these two extremes and, in doing so, to balance richness and complexity with parsimony.

Below, we elaborate on the nature and significance of each of these eight categories of leader emotion management, discussing the nature of their constituent behaviors and their relationships to the various outcomes. Throughout this and other sections of the paper, we highlight the specific relationships (e.g., between a given set of behaviors and various outcomes) that we regard as most likely and important. These examples are illustrative, not exhaustive.

5.1. Interacting and communicating in an interpersonally tactful manner

This set of behaviors refers to leader–subordinate interaction that is optimal given the emotion-relevant requirements of the situation and the characteristics of the subordinate. It includes demonstrating appropriate tact during specific leader functions, such as providing feedback (e.g., Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004) and during the seemingly mundane everyday interactions that largely dictate workers' emotions (Reichard & Riggio, 2008).

A large component of this category entails acting in an interpersonally just manner and refraining from disrespectful or demeaning behaviors. Research consistently demonstrates that such behaviors are among the most significant causes of negative emotions such as humiliation, shame, and/or anger (Boudens, 2005). Especially telling, Grandey, Tam, and Brauberger (2002), found that one-fourth of workplace anger incidents were the consequence of personal attacks or incivility by supervisors. Such findings are consistent with data indicating that a significant percentage of workers report being victims of "abusive supervision" (Tepper, 2007). It is important to note, however, that high performers on this dimension can appear stern or harsh as appropriate; they are never abusive or demeaning though.

The emotions generated by this category of behaviors have significant implications for employee and organizational outcomes (see Fig. 1). First, these behaviors can have immediate and direct influences on behavior, as employees may respond by decreasing task-related effort, engaging in retaliatory counterproductive behaviors (e.g. theft, violence, Duffy, Ganster, & Pagon, 2002), and/or participating in fewer organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) (e.g., helping teammates, Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007). In addition to these direct linkages to performance, this set of behaviors also can impact employees' emotional well-being and, in turn, outcomes such as subsequent performance, health, and intent to remain in the organization (Bowling & Beehr, 2006). Finally, these supervisor behaviors directly impact judgments of the leader and, correspondingly, the leader's ability to influence employees' emotions in the future (Dasborough et al., 2009).

5.2. Demonstrating consideration and support for employees

Simply refraining from disrespectful behaviors is not tantamount to demonstrating considerate ones (Rooney & Gottlieb, 2007). Leaders can show considerate behavior through fulfillment of various support functions (e.g., providing emotional, informational, and instrumental support; Humphrey et al., 2008; Viswesvaran et al., 1999). Considerate behaviors should not only occur during times of crisis or stress, but should be incorporated into every day leader–follower interactions (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008). These efforts must

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appear genuine with the follower interpreting the leader's behavior as altruistic and not for personal gain. Also, leader support should be empowering so that followers can develop skills that allow them to handle future emotionally charged situations on their own (Thiel et al., 2012).

The provision of such support serves several functions. With respect to its immediate benefit, such support can assist subordinates in persevering through an emotionally-trying performance situation. Providing effective support in times of need also serves additional, longer-term purposes which facilitate the leaders' subsequent attempts to influence emotions (Dasborough et al., 2009). First, such support is an important predictor of employee emotions and emotional well-being. For instance, Boudens (2005) found that personal support and solidarity were among the most common sources of positive workplace emotions. Similarly, Dasborough (2006) reported that leader awareness behaviors were common sources of various positive emotions including comfort, calmness, and happiness. Owing to this greater well-being, the leader's role in providing future support will be diminished, as the employee will have less need for support and will have developed skills to cope with subsequent distress.

Second, the leader's use of empowering, considerate behavior typically strengthens the leader–follower relationship by generating increased rapport, trust, and satisfaction (Ng & Sorensen, 2008). In turn, when the leader does need to provide support in the future, those attempts should be well-received and more efficacious (Humphrey et al., 2008). Finally, such support, and the favorable affective reactions that follow, have organizational implications including improved job attitudes and reduced turnover (Ng & Sorensen, 2008).

5.3. Using emotional displays to influence employees' behavior

This set of behaviors entails leaders using explicit emotional displays to impact employees' immediate behavior. These displays can take various forms, such as yelling to induce anxiety or excitement, appearing stern to evoke a sense of gravity, et cetera (Van Knippenberg et al., 2007). They also could include using inspiring language or appearing sanguine to increase motivation. In each case, the leader is attempting to influence subordinates' behavior by evoking a certain emotional state. Effective leaders select and put on “emotional performances” (e.g., Humphrey et al., 2008) with the nature of the performance dependent on its function.

These displays serve various functions and result in several important outcomes. First, and most immediately, the leader may use these exhibitions to induce emotions to directly impact followers' job-related behavior (e.g., Fitness, 2000; Sy et al., 2005). As is now well-documented, leaders' emotional displays impact followers' affect, motivation, and cognitions (e.g., expectancy) and, in turn, their task-related effort and performance (e.g., George, 1995; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). In addition to facilitating performance outcomes, leaders also can use these exhibitions in the hopes of facilitating functions such as helpfulness or cooperation (Bono & Ilies, 2006; George & Brief, 1992) or instilling feelings of guilt or remorse when admonishing someone for counterproductive behavior (e.g., Klinnert, Campos, Sorce, Emde, & Svejda, 1983).

These displays also can serve several, more distal purposes. First, such leader displays can impact the way employees perceive organizational events (e.g., Fineman, 2000). Witnessing these leader reactions and emotional displays then helps employees “make sense” of the events and provides them with insight into the priorities of the leader and of the organization (see Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Also, such affective displays can impact subordinates' perceptions of and judgments about the leader (e.g., Lewis, 2000; Van Kleef et al., 2009; Visser et al., in press). These perceptions and judgments, once formed, then impact the leaders' ability to manage those subordinates' emotions in the future.

5.4. Structuring work tasks with consideration for employees' emotions

This category contains a broad set of interrelated behaviors meant to impact task-related affect and, in turn, behavior. One of the objectives of the effective leader is to create affective conditions that will facilitate effective task performance. While there is a voluminous literature on the relationship between task characteristics and job attitudes (Warr, 2007), studies explicitly examining affect are rare. Those that do exist focus almost exclusively on a small set of emotional reactions, most notably distress and anxiety (Warr, 2007). The few studies that have examined other affective outcomes clearly document the importance of task characteristics on worker emotional experience. For instance, Mignonac and Herrbach (2004) documented that task-relevant occurrences were the most frequently experienced positive and negative workplace events. Basch and Fisher (2000) replicated this finding for positive emotions but not negative ones. Also, both Saavedra and Kwun (2000) and Fisher (2003) found that job characteristics explained significant variance in activated positive and negative affective reactions.

Research has identified several important findings in this area. First, and perhaps surprisingly, these studies find that job characteristics are at least as strongly related to positive as to negative affect (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Saavedra & Kwun, 2000). Thus, leaders cannot simply structure tasks to avoid negative emotions (e.g., by reducing workload or role stress); fostering positive ones is just as significant. Second, these studies reveal specific task characteristic–affect relationships. Positive affect is most likely to follow from successful task completion and goal achievement (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Mignonac & Herrbach, 2004) whereas negative affect follows from role stress (Fisher, 2003), emotional labor (Grandey, 2000), non-challenging work, and ambiguity (Fisher, 2003; Saavedra & Kwun, 2000). Leaders competent in managing emotions recognize these specific relationships and can structure and adjust tasks with these connections in mind.

Creating the appropriate affect serves two main functions. First, it can facilitate immediate performance (Humphrey et al., 2008). Also, it can facilitate various longer-term outcomes. Employees who must overcome challenges, for instance, can develop greater self-regulatory skills and self-efficacy (Maddi, 2002). Also, the cumulative positive affect that follows from task success can translate

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into more positive job and organizational attitudes (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). The leader proficient in emotion management recognizes these short- and long-term implications of creating certain affective states and consciously generates them.

5.5. Providing frequent emotional "uplifts"

The inclusion of this category of behaviors is predicated on the notion that employees generally should enjoy positive emotional states, both for ethical and humanistic reasons, as well as to enhance performance (Kaplan, Bradley, Luchman, & Haynes, 2009). Such uplifts can take various forms. First, leaders can provide praise and recognition of employees. Such acts are among the most frequent causes of positive workplace emotions (Basch & Fisher, 2000; Boudens, 2005). It is also worth noting though that such praise, if excessive or unwarranted, can lose its emotional impact (Bowling, Beehr, Wagner, & Libkuman, 2005).

In addition to overt praise, leaders can provide these uplifts through everyday language and demeanor (Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008; Keltner & Haidt, 1999). Evidence indicates that leader affect has a direct influence on employee affect and the affective climate of the unit (e.g., George, 1995). Leaders can spread their affect through more direct means, such as using humor and storytelling (Priest & Swain, 2002) or through non-conscious processes, as employees mimic and adopt leaders' subtle affective cues (e.g., Barsade, 2002; Bartel & Saavedra, 2000). Finally, leaders also can foster positive cognitions about work, such as having employees consider (or document) aspects of their jobs about which they are grateful—thereby leading to greater positive affect (Kaplan et al., 2013).

Considerable research documents the importance of such uplifts. These ostensibly trivial mood enhancements are more frequently and strongly related to workplace affect than are more traditional rewards such as raises and promotions (e.g., Dasborough, 2006; Pirola-Merlo, Härtel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002). Thus, we propose that a large but underappreciated component of leader emotion management is enacting seemingly small mood inducements that, in the aggregate, can yield important effects on worker well-being, affective climate, and individual and group productivity (Bartel & Saavedra, 2000; George, 1990). Moreover, such behaviors should influence workers' satisfaction with the leader both due to the positive moods that employees later associate with the leader (e.g., Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008) and to the employees' recognition that the leader is concerned with their emotional well-being (Viswesvaran et al., 1999).

5.6. Behaving in a fair and ethical manner

This set of behaviors refers to leaders acting and making decisions in a manner that is fair and ethical and that demonstrates integrity (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Using the traditional terminology from the fairness (i.e., justice) literature, just leaders make decisions that are fair in a distributive (i.e., equitable) and procedural manner. The third aspect of fairness, interactional fairness, is more interpersonal in nature and therefore is more relevant for Dimension 1 above.

The importance of leaders acting in a fair manner for employees' attitudinal, motivational, and health outcomes is well-established (see Van Knippenberg et al., 2007). Recently, scholars have broadened this literature by examining the influence of fairness specifically with regard to the affective and emotional consequences of (un)fair decisions (De Cremer, 2007; Weiss, Suckow, & Cropanzano, 1999). Such research clearly documents that the experience of fairness, and especially unfairness, is an emotional one. For instance, studies (e.g., Barsky & Kaplan, 2007; Weiss et al., 1999) demonstrate a consistent link between fairness perceptions and negative affective reactions such as anger and frustration. Similarly, the provision of fair treatment repeatedly has been linked to positive affect such as happiness (Weiss et al., 1999).

The second set of behaviors concerns leaders acting in a way that demonstrates integrity and that is consistent with their stated values. These are behaviors that are not merely fair, but are also seen as admirable, altruistic, or even courageous (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Specific examples of such behavior include leaders "going to bat for employees" with upper management, "having their employees' backs", "walking the walk," and ensuring that a unit operates in a socially responsible manner (Rooney & Gottlieb, 2007). On the opposite pole, leaders failing to demonstrate such integrity engage in behaviors such as theft, indolence, demonstrating arrogance, or "cooking the books" (Brown & Treviño, 2006).

Studies also demonstrate the emotional significance of leaders' actions with respect to this second set of behaviors. For instance, Fitness (2000) found that "morally reprehensible" acts (e.g., by leaders or coworkers) were the second most common source of employees' workplace anger. Examples of these acts included being dishonest, stealing, cheating on expenses, and having a sexual relationship with a supervisor or subordinate. Notably, while some of these instances were also associated with judgments of unfairness, others caused anger simply because they were "wrong." In another study, Pelletier and Bligh (2008) found that employees reported experiencing various negative emotions, such as fear, anger, and frustration owing to organizational leaders' inappropriate behavior during a highly publicized ethical scandal.

The emotional reactions from these two sets of leader behaviors have significant consequences. First, they have a direct influence on employees' perceptions and judgment of the leader. Perceptions of leader fairness and integrity are among the key determinants of leader–subordinate relationships and of how employees judge the leader. Employees judge leaders who act in a more fair and ethical manner as more honest, trustworthy, and likable (Brown & Treviño, 2006). Conversely, leaders who act in a less fair or ethical manner foster reactions of distrust and even hatred (Dasborough, 2006) not only in subordinates who witnessed the behavior but also in those who were not party to the event (Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004). These emotional reactions, partly through their impact on these judgments of the leader, in turn impact employee behaviors, such as turnover and absenteeism (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003). Also, workers who witness ethical behavior in their leader are inspired to act in a principled and courageous fashion themselves (Worline, Wrzesniewski, & Rafaeli, 2002).

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5.7. Managing interactions and relationships among coworkers

Coworker interactions and relations are among the most common cause of workplace emotions (e.g., Basch & Fisher, 2000). Several streams of research are suggestive of the importance of affect derived from coworker relations for consequential work outcomes. For instance, affect may partially underlie the relationships between coworker support and outcomes such as greater satisfaction, reduced turnover, and enhanced performance (see Warr, 2007). Supportive of this idea, studies reveal that positive group mood is predictive of greater cooperation and group effectiveness (e.g., George, 1995). Moreover, that positive affect predicts helping and supportive behaviors (e.g., George, 1991) may mean that the converse is true as well. To the degree that receiving help fosters positive emotions and that helping begets helping, the relationship between mood and helping is likely reciprocal (e.g., Hareli & Rafaeli, 2008).

Leaders can manage colleague relations and resultant emotions through two broad classes of behaviors. First, leaders can create interpersonal environments that will yield maximum affective and performance outcomes. Specific leader acts include configuring the physical work space and composing project teams with consideration for the unique characteristics of employees and the affective and performance-related implications of employee interactions.

The second class of behaviors involves the management of subsequent affect that results from coworker interactions. Success here hinges upon leaders accurately recognizing emotions displayed by employees and identifying and addressing the causal factors. In order to foster self-reliance, leaders should try to promote employee development of relationship and EM knowledge and skills (Egan, 2002). The leader's job is not to solve interpersonal problems, but to facilitate development of capabilities that allow subordinates to solve such problems themselves. These facilitative behaviors can include helping employees identify their own emotions, encouraging them to consider other parties' perspectives, and teaching conflict management techniques (e.g., De Dreu, Nauta, & Van de Vliert, 1995). Both of these sets of behaviors relate to understanding individual employees' needs and tendencies. They also relate to the individualized consideration component of transformational leadership (see Avolio & Bass, 1995).

5.8. Maintaining open and frequent communication

The final category of EM behavior entails leader engagement in frequent and open communication. While important in all instances, the provision of information is especially significant during times of change and uncertainty (e.g., change of leadership, during acquisitions and mergers), as these periods are characterized by intense and enduring mixed emotions such as fear, anger, and excitement (Kiefer, 2002). Supplying clear and timely information during these times can impact emotional reactions in several ways and, through these reactions, can also influence several resultant outcomes.

First, leaders who provide such communication can reduce uncertainty, in turn mollifying anxiety (e.g., Huy, 2002) and sometimes even fostering a sense of hope about an ostensibly negative event (e.g., downsizing; Kiefer, 2002). Second, leader communication can produce more accurate appraisals of the change, thereby allowing employees to utilize more effective planning and coping strategies (Paterson & Härtel, 2002). Even if such messages contain unfavorable information, leaders providing this information show respect toward employees and help employees prepare for changes and develop coping resources (Hay & Hartel, 2000).

In turn, employees' resultant emotions (or attenuated emotions) from receiving this information should have behavioral consequences. With regard to potentially negative outcomes, the provision of honest and accurate information should decrease distress, thereby allowing workers to focus more so on relevant work tasks (Beal, Weiss, Barros, & MacDermid, 2005). In the case of positive changes, resultant optimism and enthusiasm can lead to increased effort and persistence, and in turn performance.

Finally, effective communication serves a symbolic function by demonstrating the leader's and perhaps the organization's respect for employees' informational and emotional needs. In turn, employees' view the leader as more fair and trustworthy (Van den Bos & Lind, 2002) and are therefore less likely to engage in the counterproductive or retaliatory behaviors that less just treatment can foster (e.g., Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005). In addition to impacting these judgments of leader fairness and ethicality, open and honest communication also influences judgments about the leaders' courage and integrity. Supervisors frequently refrain from sharing negative information out of fear for inciting hurt or angry reactions (see Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004 for examples). However, doing so may lead to anger and frustration among employees, not only because they fail to receive useful information but also because they infer that the leader sees them as “weak” and unable to shoulder bad news (Brown & Treviño, 2006). In short, effective management of these affective reactions should improve attitudinal and behavioral responses at the individual, team, and organizational level.

6. Knowledge and skills predictive of leader emotion management

Above, we outlined the criterion space in proposing that leader emotion management consists of eight fundamental categories of interrelated leader behaviors. Below, we discuss various leader knowledge and skill factors and their proposed relationships with those LEM categories. Worth emphasizing is that, as with the effects of the behaviors, there certainly is research linking personal characteristics to emotion management. However, here too, that literature is quite muddled. Some models treat personal characteristics as essentially isomorphic with emotion management behavior (e.g., emotion management is one of Mayer & Salovey's, 1997 four branches of EI). Other studies focus on specific skills knowledge and skills (e.g., emotion recognition) in isolation, making no attempt to place the antecedents or relationships under investigation into an established or more comprehensive model. As such, our objective here was to bring some clarity, precision, and cohesion to this area by proposing these more specific and precise linkages. The factors that are most relevant to leader emotion management and their proposed linkages with the eight EM categories of behavior appear in Fig. 1.

Please cite this article as: Kaplan, S., et al., The role of organizational leaders in employee emotion management: A theoretical model, *The Leadership Quarterly* (2013), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.015

Our focus is on malleable knowledge and skills, not on stable, dispositional leader attributes (e.g., personality traits, mental abilities). These more stable characteristics are considered exogenous to (the antecedents in) the current model (cf., Campbell, 1990). We chose to concentrate on knowledge and skills for several reasons. First, they are the more proximal predictors of behavior. Second, focusing on leader knowledge and skills provides a greater contribution to the literature, as there is less known about them, relative to dispositional characteristics, as predictors of leader emotion management (see Gooty et al., 2010 for supportive evidence). In particular, this focus on more adaptable characteristics represents a marked deviation from the emotional intelligence literature. There, the focus generally has been either on sets of traits (e.g. personality ones; Petrides & Furnham, 2003) or on sets of relatively stable mental abilities (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Finally, these knowledge and skills are more pliable, and therefore trainable, than are stable individual differences (Zaccaro, 2007).

Also of note, although we discuss these knowledge and skills independently, they obviously do not operate in isolation with regard to leader emotion management. Insofar as the categories of LEM entail various behaviors, successful execution of the entire category requires possession of the characteristics facilitative of each behavior (for evidence of this point, see Kellett et al., 2006; Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005). Thus, one should keep in mind that the effects of these characteristics may often be interdependent or multiplicative. Finally, we recognize that many of these knowledge and skills have some relevance to all dimensions. Here, we focus our attention only on those connections that are most relevant and/or that may require explanation. We first describe four knowledge factors. Knowledge here refers to declarative knowledge or knowledge about facts and things (Campbell, 1990).

6.1. Knowledge factors related to leader emotion management behavior

6.1.1. Self-insight

Self-insight refers to, "the nature of our understanding regarding important aspects of the self-system" (Klimoski & Hu, 2011, p.54). We use self-insight and self-awareness interchangeably here. In the present context, these terms refer specially to awareness of one's characteristics, tendencies, and current emotions as they relate to emotion management. The characteristics and tendencies to which self-insight might be applied include not only the other KSAOs listed in the model (e.g., emotion recognition, emotion support skill), but also other personal factors that could impact delivery of emotion management such as attitudes towards particular demographic groups or specific coworkers. Self-insight also includes awareness about one's current circumstances, especially in terms of one's affective state and how that state may impact interactions and relations with others (Keltner & Haidt, 1999).

Studies consistently reveal the benefits of self-insight on leader effectiveness (e.g., Klimoski & Hu, 2011). In the current context, self-insight enables leaders to accurately assess their own strengths and weaknesses as they relate to EM. For example, leaders who accurately perceive their well-developed emotion support skills should have high levels of efficacy in delivering effective emotional social support, and therefore will rely on this behavior as a primary mechanism for achieving outcomes such as rapport and interpersonal trust. Another leader, who accurately recognizes a lack of this skill, instead may choose to provide more instrumental (as opposed to emotional) support. Conversely, leaders who overestimate their emotion support skills may inappropriately attempt to provide emotional support, thereby decreasing rapport and future influence with that employee.

A second benefit of self-insight for leaders is that it allows them to select situations and behaviors that maximize emotion benefits based on the their current emotional state. Consider, for instance, a middle manager who just learned of being denied a promotion, and, in turn, decides to reschedule a feedback meeting because he recognizes that his current anger may impede his capacity for delivering appropriate feedback (e.g., Gaddis et al., 2004). That he recognizes his anger reflects self-insight; that he also recognizes the source and the potential effects of such anger reflects knowledge of emotions, which we discuss below.

Through these mechanisms, self-insight plays a key role in several of the categories of emotion management. First, as evident in the feedback example above, self-insight should allow leaders to behave in a manner that is consistent with the interpersonal factors that impinge on a given situation. In particular, leaders with greater self-insight not only can understand their own characteristics and tendencies but also can better understand others' behaviors and emotions and, in turn, choose the appropriate strategy to address them (Snyder, 1974).

Self-insight also may be significant is demonstrating consideration and support for employees. Self-insight facilitates real-time monitoring of one's own emotions and behaviors, as well as those of others' (Klimoski & Hu, 2011), and is an important determinant of interpersonal effectiveness (Snyder, 1974). Similar to the logic above, then, leaders with better awareness should be especially effective both in detecting the emotional needs of others and in tailoring behaviors for specific scenarios and employees (Liu, Lepak, Takeuchi, & Sims, 2003).

Finally, self-insight should relate to effectively using emotional displays to influence employee behavior. Such insight can aid leaders in determining the displays that they should adopt to facilitate the desired performance ends. Being aware of one's charisma, for example, would allow the leader to draw from that characteristic in bringing about the intended performance. Conversely, leaders who accurately recognize their lack of charisma may choose a alternative strategy, defer to a more adept colleague to incite the intended motivation, and/or recognize a need to improve this knowledge (Klimoski & Hu, 2011).

6.1.2. Knowledge of emotions and their consequences

This knowledge concerns recognition of the nature and outcomes of different discrete emotions. While potentially useful for all categories of LEM, this knowledge should be especially important for two of these categories. First, it should aid in demonstrating consideration and support, especially in times of affective distress. Specifically, such knowledge can help in identifying the type of response that best suits the particular emotion (Burleson, 2003). Consistent with this notion, Thiel and colleagues (2012) found that the effects (in terms of subordinate behavior and appraisals of the leader) of leaders suggesting different self-regulatory strategies

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after subordinates experienced negative affect differed depending on which discrete emotion they experienced. This knowledge factor also enables leaders to use emotional displays to influence specific employee attitudes and behaviors. In a recent study supporting this point, Visser and colleagues (in press) showed that both leader sadness and happiness can improve subordinate task performance, with the effect dependent on the nature of the task. The leader knowledgeable about the effects of specific emotions can choose and leverage the appropriate ones to display.

6.1.3. Knowledge of emotion-evoking events

We define this as knowledge regarding the factors and circumstances most likely to engender workplace emotions. This includes knowledge of both work and non-work sources of emotions and of the emotional consequences those sources tend to generate (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). This latter aspect is closely tied to knowledge of emotions and their consequences.

Because this characteristic focuses on emotionally evocative events, its usefulness extends to all EM behavioral categories. Possessing this knowledge will enable leaders to anticipate employees' likely reactions to different events and circumstances and therefore prepare appropriate interventions to address or capitalize on those emotions. Also, when paired with knowledge about employee's idiosyncratic tendencies, knowledge of emotionally evocative events will allow a leader to select or modify situations accordingly for each specific employee. For example, a leader able to predict likely emotional responses from employees for a particular task will attempt to structure the task so it requires sufficient attentional and information processing resources and prevents unnecessary boredom and fatigue while also ensuring that it is not so demanding that is causes distress. In other words, the leader will structure the task in a way that promotes beneficial emotions and avoids detrimental ones.

6.1.4. Knowledge of the importance of emotions and emotion management

A leader possessing this knowledge is aware that individual, team, and organizational outcomes are affected by workplace emotions and that certain leader behaviors are needed to foster those emotions and facilitate their connection to outcomes (Humphrey, 2008). This factor works in conjunction with other factors. In fact, if a leader utilizes this factor independent of other knowledge factors, the application may yield limited benefit or even harm to the employee (Burleson, 2003). Unlike other factors in our model, this factor determines a leader's willingness to engage in emotion management functions rather than his or her capacity to do so. Thus, although we call it a knowledge factor here, it also contains a motivational component.

The literature provides indirect support for the relationship between this factor and leader emotion-relevant behaviors. For example, the fact that leaders differ in the degree to which they are inspirational (Bass & Riggio, 2006), supportive (Viswesvaran et al., 1999), and sensitive (Tepper, 2007) implies that leaders differ in awareness regarding the importance of workers' emotions and in their own role in impacting those emotions. Additionally, studies linking emotional intelligence to leader effectiveness (e.g., Côté & Miners, 2006) suggest the importance of this knowledge, given that it is part of the EI concept (Mayer & Salovey, 1997).

In addition to its utility in responding to acute events, this knowledge also should help in the longer term. Leaders recognizing the importance of emotions should endeavor to facilitate employees' self-development of emotion management. For example, while leaders may recognize that some tasks will elicit negative emotions such as frustration or anger, a leader may fail to provide additional support and guidance for employees whose EM skills with respect to these emotions they wish to develop.

6.2. Skills related to leader emotion management behavior

Knowledge is often necessary but not sufficient to enact effective emotion management. Leaders attempting to translate such knowledge into effective action also must possess specific skills. It is these skills which are the more proximal determinants of performance (Dudley & Cortina, 2008). Skills fall into various categories, such as psychomotor, physical, or interpersonal, and are applicable across various specific contexts or domains (Dudley & Cortina, 2008). In our model, we are interested in those skills that enable leaders to implement effective emotion management. As with knowledge factors, skills are trainable unlike more stable ability or personality factors.

As with the knowledge factors, and perhaps even more so, these skills are not orthogonal to each other. Many of them are conceptually related and entail some of the same more specific proficiencies (e.g., active listening, maintaining appropriate eye-contact). This overlap is consistent with the well-documented diversity in the terminology used to describe or catalogue these skills (e.g., interpersonal skills; cf., Spitzberg & Cupach, 2002) and with the fact that existing taxonomies of these skills vary considerably in their dimensionality and in the level of abstraction at which such skills are discussed.

6.2.1. Emotion recognition

Emotion recognition reflects the capacity to accurately recognize others' emotional states. Specifically, it entails a joint process of identifying others' emotional expressions and then accurately classifying the emotions underlying those expressions (Ickes, 1993). Because emotional expression occurs both verbally and nonverbally (e.g., Ekman, 1993), emotion recognition requires competence with respect to decoding both types of behaviors and interpreting their meaning in light of each other (Burleson, 2003). It also includes recognizing and interpreting the absence of overt behavior due, for example, to one's apprehension to speak or one's use of "the silent treatment" (Clark & Taraban, 1991).

Proficiency in recognizing others' emotions represents one of the fundamental interpersonal competencies that partially underlie effective social functioning and influence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). In the current model, the primary importance of this skill is that it provides information about the discrepancy between where employees "are" versus where they "should be" emotionally. The "should be" aspect reflects the emotional state that the leader deems most beneficial with respect to the individual and his/her activities

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(Humphrey, 2008). Research indicates that proficiency in emotion perception or recognition is related to various leader-related outcomes such as perceived leader effectiveness (Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003) and transformational leadership (Rubin et al., 2005).

While emotion recognition arguably is important for each of the eight EM categories of behavior in our model, we highlight its role here in three specific categories for which it may be of greatest consequence. First, it should help leaders interact in an interpersonally sensitive manner, especially during potentially affect-laden situations such as feedback sessions (Gaddis et al., 2004). Moreover, leaders who are able to recognize when they or coworkers have upset or offended an employee can engage in corrective emotion management behaviors, such as apologizing to, and having an open conversation with, the offended party.

Second, emotion recognition likely is essential for demonstrating support and consideration for employees. Research from the counseling domain documents that decoding and interpreting emotional expressions are fundamental aspects of the support process (Costanzo & Philpott, 1986). Upon recognizing employees' counter-productive affective states, leaders then can use other skills such as emotional support skill in addressing those emotions. Additionally, gauging employees' emotional reactions provides the leader insight into how each employee experiences and makes sense of specific circumstances and of life in general (Pescosolido, 2002). Leaders who fail to accurately recognize these states will miss the opportunity to provide support or to develop employees' emotion management proficiencies.

Third, emotion recognition skill is essential when leaders implement emotional displays to influence employee behavior. The skill allows a leader to select the most efficient EM behavior based on the discrepancy between the employee's current emotional state and the ideal state for current conditions (Humphrey, 2008). In addition, the skill allows leaders to assess the effectiveness of the EM behavior and, when needed, to formulate a new strategy.

6.2.2. Perspective-taking

Perspective-taking skill is the capacity to appreciate/view the world from another's perspective or viewpoint. While perspective-taking is related to empathy, the two are not synonymous (Gooty et al., 2010). Perspective-taking reflects a cognitive process of "putting oneself in another's shoes", while empathy (or empathetic concern) reflects sharing the affective experience of the other individual (Davis, Hull, Young, & Warren, 1987). We focus on perspective-taking here because we consider it a more malleable characteristic than is empathy, which often is regarded as a stable individual difference (e.g., Kellett et al., 2006).

The primary importance of perspective-taking skill here is that it enables the leader to gauge employees' viewpoints and perspectives. With regard to our theoretical model, we are most interested in those viewpoints, et cetera, which precede or follow from workplace emotions. The ability to gauge these viewpoints then allows a leader to tailor subsequent actions that match those views. In sum, the skill allows the leader to formulate, monitor, and potentially modify the appropriate emotion management behaviors.

While the skill is useful across all EM categories, we will highlight a less obvious connection—that involving frequent and open communication. This skill provides leaders with the knowledge of the content and frequency of communication an employee requires for a particular situation. Appropriate communication content and frequency is dictated by the type of situation (Paterson & Härtel, 2002) and, as such, a leader will likely need to use perspective taking in order to tailor content and frequency to each situation–employee combination. In essence, a leader will likely adopt a different communication pattern when an employee approaches the leader for emotion support (Burleson, 2003) versus when the impact of a practice or decision on employees' (potential) emotions may not be as immediately obvious or salient. An example would be a situation in which a leader must decide what to communicate to employees regarding the restructuring of organizational policies. On one hand, a leader may fail to recognize the emotional nature of the situation or may not communicate unfavorable changes due to hesitancy of imparting bad news (Maitlis & Ozcelik, 2004). However, a leader possessing perspective taking skills would understand affective benefits of reducing uncertainty.

6.2.3. Emotion support skill

Emotion support skill represents competency in helping others to manage their emotions and the sources of those emotions. This skill subsumes or consists of several more specific verbal and nonverbal proficiencies, such as empathic accuracy, engaging in active listening, using verbal and nonverbal prompts to solicit information, and developing others' self-insight (Burleson, 2003; Egan, 2002). With regard to the content of supportive interactions, skilled supporters demonstrate care, concern, and interest (Cutrona & Russell, 1990) and avoid engaging in acts such as discounting people's distress or blaming them, which are almost universally harmful (Burleson, 2003).

This is a complex and multifaceted skill. It entails more than simply the ability to allay immediate distress; it also represents leaders' capacity to assist others in identifying and developing resources that will enhance their longer term resources and well-being (Thiel et al., 2012). Leaders possessing emotion support skills are able to increase feelings of autonomy and self-worth instead of engendering those of incompetence, neediness, or even resentment. They allow others to grow from, instead of necessarily avoiding, adversity. Owing to these realized strengths and resources, individuals then are better equipped to address, or perhaps prevent, subsequent challenges (Egan, 2002).

Emotion support skill is perhaps most integral for demonstrating consideration and support. Indeed, several studies reveal that possessing emotion support skills positively predicts attempts at providing support (Burleson & MacGeorge, 2002). Also supportive of this link are findings indicating that trained therapists vary in their emotional support skills as well as their effectiveness in bringing about salubrious outcomes (Ellis, 1984).

Of the other EM categories, this skill also seems important for assigning and structuring work tasks. For instance, by assigning emotional "stretch tasks" (e.g., public speaking, having to provide critical developmental feedback), the leader can help employees develop efficacy and arguably greater self-worth. Similarly, leaders of employees who are expected to exhibit certain emotions (e.g., those in customer service positions; Little et al., 2013) may be able to aid those individuals in strengthening their interpersonal coping

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strategies. Also, given their expressions of caring and support, leaders with emotion support skills provide encouragement and support while employees are working on those challenging tasks (Dudley & Cortina, 2008).

6.2.4. Presentation skill

Presentation skill is defined as the capacity to portray desired outward expressions to achieve desired social outcomes. These expressions can be emotional in nature, but are not necessarily so. This skill is related to ones such as "role-playing" and impression management (Riggio et al., 2003). What distinguishes this skill from other interpersonal ones in the model (e.g., communication skill) is that it is much more deliberate and controlled (Greene, 2003). As such, it draws largely on self control and self-regulatory mechanisms (Gross, Richards, & John, 2006). While all social interaction arguably is goal-directed, leaders obviously do not always act with the explicit intention of altering others' judgment or behavior. In applying presentation skills, one explicitly uses these skills to achieve some social objective.

Presentation skill actually subsumes a number of more specific proficiencies whose roles in the presentation process typically play out in a sequential fashion. First, one must determine which outward appearance will be most effective and appropriate (Humphrey, 2008). An important, but often overlooked part of this process is the awareness that one's inner feelings do not need to coincide with outward expression. With regard to the actual displays one exhibits, successful presentation requires tailoring various aspects of one's verbal and nonverbal behaviors. Enacting these behaviors generally entails "dampening" one's outward expressions, to appear serene or somber, for instance, or amplifying them, to appear angry or excited (Côté, 2005). However, these behaviors also can create appearances that are "non-emotional", such as trying to appear intellectual or tough. Also, important to emphasize, though, is that deliberate attempts to manufacture a given appearance can have drawbacks. Such "engineered" appearances can appear disingenuous and, in turn can be, unsuccessful, if not deleterious (Thiel et al., 2012). Also, such attempts draw heavily on self-regulatory capacity and can cause strain (see Gross et al., 2006) and compromised leader performance over time (Beal et al., 2005).

Presentation skill, like other KSAOs, likely is related to several EM behaviors. First, presentation skills should enable leaders to effectively craft emotional displays. In fact, consistent with the literature on interpersonal skills, the skills largely overlap with the performance domain (see Burleson, 2003). More specifically, these particular proficiencies should allow leaders to choose and implement appropriate displays and to use these displays effectively. For instance, leaders who are socially perceptive can determine when different displays would be relevant and valuable (Humphrey, 2008).

Presentation skill also should be important for providing frequent emotional uplifts. The rationale here is similar to that described above, However, providing these emotional uplifts likely requires some unique presentation skills. For instance, one way to increase employees' immediate positive affect is through the use of narrative, such as stories or metaphors (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Thus, one might consider "storytelling" or its constituent skills to be important in such situations. Similarly, to the degree leaders are skilled in using humor, they can use it to provide these uplifts (Priest & Swain, 2002). Also, research on charismatic leadership suggests that the use of certain forms of language, such as using visionary terms or alliteration, enhances positive affect (Bono & Ilies, 2006). The leader possessing this skill considers and executes the behavior while those lacking this skill are deficient in one or both of these respects.

6.2.5. Communication skill

Communication skill is defined as proficiency in conversing and in delivering clear messages. This skill shares similarities with emotion support skill and presentation skill but refers specifically to skills one utilizes in common everyday interaction. This skill is not directly relevant for purposes of support, persuasion, or influence. Instead, it is germane to more common and seemingly mundane interactions, such as office conversations or task supervision. Thus, the distinction between this skill and the other interpersonal skills is largely in terms of functionality and motivation (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2002).

Communication skill consists of a large number of more specific verbal and nonverbal capabilities. Examples of these capabilities include the appropriate use of vocal characteristics (e.g., pitch, tone), eye contact, and active listening. Relevant studies in this arena generally link leaders' scores on a measure of interpersonal or communication skill to a global measure of effectiveness (Riggio & Reichard, 2008). Here, we attempt to extend that work by discussing two particular sets of LEM behavior for which communication skill should be of greatest consequence, recognizing that such skills likely play a role in most of the categories. First, communication skill likely is integral to interacting and communicating in an interpersonally sensitive manner consistent with interpersonal factors. In fact, many of the leader behaviors that employees report as insensitive, such as harassing and bullying behaviors (Tepper, 2007), directly reflect a lack of communication skill (Dasborough, 2006). Conversely, leaders who are proficient with respect to skills such as active listening and politeness, and who use appropriate vocal tone can interact in a more sensitive manner and thereby engender a sense of affiliation and rapport (Brown & Levinson, 1987). In addition, proficiency in altering verbal and nonverbal communication when interacting with different demographic groups enables leaders to interact in an appropriate versus an offensive manner.

Second, communication skill should be particularly beneficial for structuring employees' work tasks. These skills likely are helpful in explaining and conveying information in a clear and comprehensible manner that should allow leaders to structure tasks effectively. As discussed above, receiving unclear or insufficient information about a task is one of the most frequent and noxious source of employees' negative affect (e.g., anxiety and frustration) is their perceived lack of information or resources to complete task assignments (Dasborough, 2006).

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7. Moderators of the effects of KSAOs and of EM categories of behavior

We have presented evidence supporting the linkages in our model, namely those between leaders' attributes and sets of EM behavior and those between these behavioral categories and valued outcomes (see Fig. 1). However, recent reviews of emotions and leadership (Gooty et al., 2010; Walter et al., 2011) clearly document that various moderating factors impact the existence, direction, and/or magnitude of relationships involving these two sets of linkages. In particular, Walter and colleagues explicitly make the point that the findings on EI and leadership are extremely mixed and seem to vary considerably across leader behaviors and across various moderating factors. We discuss these moderating factors below.

7.1. Situational emotional intensity

Situational emotional intensity (SEI) refers to the degree to which the characteristics of the situation are affectively evocative. We suggest that SEI strengthens relationships between leader attributes and LEM, the reason being that low intensity situations require less dramatic emotion management, resulting in less between-leader variance in emotion management itself. Because there is less variance, there should be weaker relationships with leader characteristics. High SEI situations are more readily detected, and their consequences are more salient to the leader and employees. As such, leaders who appreciate the importance of emotions often spend more time engaging in emotion management in such conditions. Indirect support for these ideas comes from a recent meta-analysis showing that the EI–job performance relationship is stronger in jobs requiring more emotional labor (Joseph & Newman, 2010).

However, it is also important for leaders to monitor low SEI conditions and engage in emotion management behaviors as necessary. For example, in discussing knowledge of emotion-evoking events, we suggested that leaders may fail to appreciate the significance of "smaller" uplifts and daily hassles. Nevertheless, the frequency of mundane events gives them a substantial cumulative effect (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Thus, although emotion management and the leader attributes that predict it may be of greater importance and urgency when SEI is high, their importance does not disappear when SEI is low.

SEI is also relevant for relationships between LEM and proximal outcomes in the model. The reasoning is similar to that above. When SEI is high, emotion management is urgent and important. Failure to execute emotion management behaviors can have an immediate negative impact on factors such as safety, trust, and motivation (e.g. Dasborough, 2006)). If high SEI is common then such failure eventually influences norms and culture (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). When SEI is low, the need for emotion management, although still present, is less salient, thus weakening the relationship between emotion management and proximal outcomes.

7.2. Leader workload

Workload is a second situational factor that should impact the leader's ability to engage in LEM. Central to several theoretical frameworks (e.g., conservation of resources theory, cognitive load theory) is the notion that humans possess a finite reservoir of cognitive and attentional resources for task performance (e.g., Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989). Leaders must allocate resources to behaviors that have the greatest impact on outcomes for a particular event. As such, a leader may forego essential EM behaviors for typical, and often used, managerial behaviors in order to influence their employees. This reliance on default behaviors may be most likely to occur when leaders' resources (e.g., time, energy) are depleted and when leaders are more focused on the potential harm in not completing present tasks than on the potential gains that enacting EM behaviors may foster (see Hobfoll, 1989). However, leaders possessing higher EM proficiency will identify the importance and utility of such behaviors in even highly taxing situations, and thus, will allocate enough resources to carry out EM behaviors.

It is worth mentioning, though, that a key benefit of effective long term emotion management is that it decreases the need for emotion management in any given instance. This is because long term emotion management results in norms, culture, and trust levels that are partially self-sustaining (Van Maanen & Kunda, 1989). As such, a spike in leader workload, causing a temporary decrease in EM, may not always produce such deleterious effects.

7.3. Self emotion management

Leaders unable to manage their emotions may find it difficult to manage those of others (Beal et al., 2005; Humphrey, 2008). For example, a leader may have the skills necessary to manage interactions among coworkers, but if that leader is unable to curb his or her own anger or anxiety in interactions with those coworkers, then those efforts are unlikely to have their intended effects. Research on authentic leadership suggests that behaviors that are inconsistent with previous behaviors or with previously stated values are often seen as disingenuous (Luthans & Avolio, 2003). In turn, such behaviors can have the opposite of the effect intended, even if executed by a leader who is otherwise skilled (Reichard & Riggio, 2008).

Self emotion management is also important from a modeling perspective. To some extent, subordinates learn normative behavior by observing the behavior of leaders (Diefendorff & Richard, 2003). If leaders react to unexpected obstacles with frustration and negative affect, then subordinates are likely to do the same, regardless of the leader's efforts to convince them to do otherwise (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995).

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7.4. Subordinate attitudes toward emotion management

The degree to which emotion management is effective is partly a function of the subordinate's attitudes. Subordinates with negative attitudes toward authority generally are less likely to respond positively to emotion management. Apart from attitudes toward authority, there is likely variability in attitudes toward emotion management particularly. Some subordinates are likely to refrain from seeking emotional guidance or would be resentful of efforts to influence their emotions (e.g., Deelstra et al., 2003). Others will embrace guidance and gladly pursue an emotional direction that the leader encourages. As such, a given set of leader skills may result in effective emotion management for one subordinate (i.e., one with positive attitudes toward emotion management) and ineffective emotion management for another. Likewise, a given set of emotion management behaviors may result in positive outcomes for one subordinate and negative outcomes for another.

7.5. Emotional malleability

The final attribute, the degree to which an employee's emotional state is malleable, impacts the effectiveness of a leader's emotion management behavior on subordinates. Because emotions are driven, in part, by stable individual differences (e.g., George, 1990), we propose that these individuals differences also limit the effectiveness of a leader's emotion management attempts. As such, it becomes even more important for leaders to be able to accurately perceive the subordinate's emotional characteristics to help shape the EM behavior, and to evaluate the effectiveness of their attempts, which may inform a different approach. For example, a leader proficient in EM might approach an employee who is experiencing anxiety due to a situational event (e.g., looming layoffs) differently than she would approach (or not approach) an employee with a dispositional tendency to experience anxiety who is anxious despite any salient trigger.

8. Additional moderators

In addition to those factors described above, several other moderators likely impact the linkages between knowledge and skills and the EM behaviors and between those behaviors and relevant outcomes. Other likely candidate moderators, which we also list in Fig. 1, are the status differential between the leader and followers(s); the amount and nature (e.g., medium) of contact between the leader and follower(s); the degree to which the situation allows for, versus constrains, emotional expression; and the follower's attitude toward authority. Each of these factors likely impacts the degree to which the leader attributes impact EM behavior and/or the extent to which such behavior manifests in changed outcomes. While space limitations prevent us from elaborating on each of these ideas, we submit that empirical examinations of them are essential to develop a more refined and accurate understanding of leader EM.

8.1. Nonrecursivity

Although our emphasis thus far has been on static and short term linkages, we have mentioned at various points that emotion management involves dynamic relationships and has long term consequences (see Ashkanasy & Jordan, 2008; Tse & Ashkanasy, 2008 for similar ideas). Specifically, both the proximal outcomes and the ultimate outcomes of emotion management influence subsequent iterations of causal linkages in the model.

Proximal outcomes can influence both the linkages between leader attributes and emotion management and the linkages between emotion management and subsequent proximal outcomes (see Fig. 2). Consider, for example, the proximal outcome of Culture of Mutual Support Provision within the Unit. Leader attributes such as perspective-taking skill influence emotion management processes such as Providing Frequent Emotional Uplifts which in turn promote the culture of mutual support. The culture is, to some degree, self-sustaining and even self-nurturing (Dasborough et al., 2009). Quid pro quo relationships are replaced by communal relationships in which participants feel responsible for helping each other and cooperating, further increasing assistance and cooperation (Clark & Mills, 1979). Shared values promote confidence as group members are assured of the intentions and objectives of others, rendering them more likely to invest in promoting the organization and performing well (Dasgupta, 1988). Of course, this culture is likely to deteriorate in the absence of effective leadership, but once the culture is in place, the decreased need for emotion management loosens the linkages involving it.

Ultimate outcomes have a similar effect (see Fig. 2). Group cohesion, for example, can generate some of the benefits that otherwise accrue from the execution of emotion management processes. Once group cohesion is established, less emotion management is required of the leader. As a result, linkages involving emotion management are loosened. Once again, however, cohesion is likely to deteriorate over time without leader involvement, resulting in increased need for emotion-relevant leader attributes and for emotion management.

9. Future directions

In this paper, we have attempted to integrate and extend various literatures from the psychological and management realms into a comprehensive model of leader emotion management relevant for today's workplace. Important to emphasize is that, in trying to be inclusive and comprehensive, our presentation was, by necessity, somewhat broad at points. As such, in this final section, we offer

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some practical research strategies for researchers to follow in testing, advancing, and providing more nuance to the model and specific linkages.

We could envision several types of studies to validate, revise, and provide additional insight into the model. First, we would call for more qualitative studies and investigations using behavioral observation methods. We could imagine, for example, studies where both leaders and employees keep logs or journals of the leader's emotion management behavior over some period of time. Also, we could envision observational studies in which leader–employee interactions are video-recorded and then each party comments on his or her assessment of the interaction. Using these techniques would provide rich and nuanced data that could address several important questions. For instance, such investigations could reveal which antecedent conditions precede the enactment and appropriateness of the various behaviors described above. Very likely, contextual factors (e.g., leader workload) and employee behaviors (e.g., type and degree of emotional expression) result in different leader behaviors (or lack thereof). Also, almost certainly, the management of different discrete emotions (e.g., anger versus sadness versus anxiety) elicit different behaviors, and likewise, different behaviors vary in their effectiveness across various emotions. Such studies could directly speak to these issues. They also could reveal which behaviors impact which immediate outcomes in the model. Finally, these studies could show when, why, and to what degree, leaders and employees share similar perceptions about the enactment and appropriateness of different behaviors (for different circumstances and emotions).

More traditional experience sampling studies (i.e., survey ones) could be used to address some of the same questions. ESM studies would provide more observations, but somewhat less rich data than qualitative or observational ones. Thus, if one's interest is primarily in determining the degree to which leader's EM behavior varies across contexts, time, subordinates, and/or employees' discrete emotions, ESM would seem preferable (Beal & Weiss, 2003). In contrast, primary interest in the intra- and interpersonal dynamics involving specific scenarios and/or leader–subordinate interactions would call for a qualitative or observational approach.

In addition to addressing the issues above, ESM studies would seem especially well-suited to studying the knowledge, skill–behavior linkages proposed above. Leaders could complete various measures and those ratings could be correlated with employees' perceptions of the leaders' emotion management behavior. A programmatic stream of ESM studies could lead to revisions in these proposed linkages and, perhaps more fundamentally, to the proposed dimensionality of the LEM construct space.

Laboratory studies would appear useful for exploring the components of the model for which manipulation might be possible. As an illustration of this approach, researchers conducted a pair of studies addressing the two major sets of linkages in the model.[1] In the first study, participants completed several knowledge and skill measures and then had to manage the ostensible emotions of subordinate confederates who acted out various emotional episodes (e.g., a conflict event, a confederate complaining of boredom). Judges then viewed videotapes of each session and rated the leader on a set of LEM behaviors. In this way, relationships among the various KSAO's and the specific behaviors could be examined. In the second study, the confederates were the leaders. They enacted different levels of several EM behaviors. Using a factorial design, the researchers then assessed the effectiveness of different (levels of) LEM behaviors for various outcomes (e.g., task performance, satisfaction with the leader). This paradigm also allows for manipulating any number of moderating factors (e.g., specific emotions to be managed, task complexity, time pressure). We would call for a programmatic approach using designs like these to help validate and refine the proposed model.

As alluded to above, another critical direction for future research is to take into account distinctions among affective states. Here, in trying to be inclusive, we also necessarily had to speak in somewhat general terms about the nature of affective experiences that leaders must address. Recent research documents that affective states vary in several respects (e.g., valence, the nature of associated appraisals and action tendencies; Lerner & Keltner, 2000). We see the present study as suggesting several specific directions here. First, studies need to address whether specific knowledge and skills are associated with specific emotions. Consistent with the prevailing paradigm (e.g., Mayer & Salovey, 1997) we considered skills like emotion recognition and emotion support skill as generic. We are unaware of management studies looking at a topic like within-person variability in emotion recognition across different emotions. Other directions that follow from this model would involve exploring which emotions elicit which leadership behaviors and which behaviors are more or less effective for which types of emotions. Again, relevant literature has not provided compelling answers to these questions.

The present discussion about LEM also begs for theoretical and empirical work examining the relationships among the proposed categories of LEM behavior and existing dimensions of leader performance. Emotions and emotion management as part of concepts like transformational and authentic leadership (e.g., Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Bass & Riggio, 2006; George, 2000). However, as we indicated in the beginning of the paper, such studies have been rather general and non-specific in delineating the specific processes and behaviors that constitute emotion management and also in terms of the specific linkages between KSAOs, emotion management performance, and resultant outcomes. While we recognize a degree of overlap between emotion management and existing concepts, we argue that EM represents a distinct, and potentially a more researchable, notion. For instance, leaders who primarily act in a more transactional manner would not be as effective in executing various sets of emotion management behavior in the model (Harms & Credé, 2010). On the other hand, there is no reason why a transactional leader could not possess the knowledge and skills necessary to execute some of these emotion management categories. Propositions like these, however, require empirical examination.

We also see this model as having potential practical importance. In particular, the validation efforts described above could be used to inform specific human resources practices for commercial organizations, the military, the government, and in the non-profit sector. For instance, following empirical verification of the emotion management performance space, researchers and/or practitioners could develop measures specifically designed for the evaluation of leader emotion management performance within the context of a specific organization or across organizations. Furthermore, results speaking to the specific leader attribute–emotion management

[1] The present authors conducted this research. To ensure anonymity in the review process, the authors do not disclose their names here. If the paper ultimately is accepted for publication, the authors will provide their names in the text and the citation in the reference list.

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performance linkages could guide organizational decisions regarding which specific knowledge and skills to train or to consider in selection decisions. That is, based on consideration of the essential emotion management dimensions in a particular job (e.g., based job analytic results), organizations then could work backwards in targeting the most relevant predictor variables.

Related to this, the current model, and particularly our identification of the relevant knowledge and skills, could also aid practitioners in developing training programs specifically tailored to enhance these attributes. Unlike some other knowledge and skills, enhancing these emotional and interpersonal proficiencies oftentimes requires novel and long-term training approaches (Segrin & Givertz, 2003, but also see Kotsou, Nelis, Gregoire, & Mikolajczak, 2011). For instance, methods such as role-playing and being able to regularly practice and apply the knowledge and skills in "everyday" life are particularly useful for the development of these proficiencies (Segrin & Givertz, 2003). Our hope is that the current model not only will inform those efforts, but that they in turn can be used for further model verification and refinement.

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Please cite this article as: Kaplan, S., et al., The role of organizational leaders in employee emotion management: A theoretical model, *The Leadership Quarterly* (2013), http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.015