

# EMOTIONS AND LEADERSHIP

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RESEARCH ON EMOTION IN ORGANIZATIONS VOLUME 15

# EMOTIONS AND LEADERSHIP

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INVESTOR IN PEOPLE

This volume is dedicated to

To Linda, who always stands by my side.

*N.M.A.*

To my soulmate, my forever love, my light in the world; I am infinitely grateful we found one another. And to those I call family in life and death, I treasure our unending bond of acceptance and love.

*C.E.J.H.*

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# CONTENTS

<i>List of Figures</i>	<i>ix</i>
<i>List of Tables</i>	<i>xi</i>
<i>List of Contributors</i>	<i>xv</i>
<i>About the Editors</i>	<i>xvii</i>
<i>Introduction: Emotions in Leadership</i>	<i>xix</i>

## PART I LEADERS AND MEMBERS

<b>Chapter 1 Power and Emotion Recognition: The Moderating Role of Work Stress</b> <i>Anna Faber and Frank Walter</i>	<i>3</i>
<b>Chapter 2 A Diary Investigation of Daily Emotions, Emotional Display, and Leaders' Authenticity in a Cohort of City Traffic Police</b> <i>Muhammad Ali Asadullah, Usman Abdullah and Ahmad Siddiquei</i>	<i>21</i>
<b>Chapter 3 A Multilevel Study of Leaders' Emotional Labor on Servant Leadership and Job Satisfaction</b> <i>Yan Li, Khalid Mehmood, Xiaoyuan Zhang and Corene M. Crossin</i>	<i>47</i>
<b>Chapter 4 Emotional Intelligence as a Moderator of Emotional Responses to Leadership</b> <i>Marie T. Dasborough</i>	<i>69</i>
<b>Chapter 5 Entrained Engagement? Investigating If Work Engagement Follows a Predictable Pattern across the Work Week and the Role of Personality in Shaping Its Pattern</b> <i>Denisa Luta, Deborah M. Powell and Jeffrey R. Spence</i>	<i>89</i>

**PART II  
LEADERS AND TEAMS**

- Chapter 6 Identifying with the In-group Increases Aggressive Tendencies against the Out-group: The Mediating Role of Schadenfreude**  
*Raja Intan Arifah Binti Raja Reza Shah and Eugene Y. J. Tee* 113
- Chapter 7 Is Support Always Good? Exploring whether Supervisory Support Enhances or Attenuates the Beneficial Effect of Positive Group Affective Tone on Team and Individual Creativity**  
*Nai-Wen Chi* 133
- Chapter 8 The Importance of Empathy as a Distal Leadership Attribute in the Emergence of Leaders in Small Groups**  
*Ronald H. Humphrey, Janet B. Kellett, Randall G. Sleeth, Chao Miao and Shanshan Qian* 159

**PART III  
LEADERS, ORGANIZATIONS, AND CULTURE**

- Chapter 9 The Role of Angel Investors' Emotions in Socially Situated Investment Opportunity Evaluations**  
*Kirsi Snellman and Gabriella Cacciotti* 179
- Chapter 10 Self-uncertainty and Emotional Well-being across Cultures: The Mediating Roles of Social Comparison**  
*Hamidreza Harati, Neal M. Ashkanasy and Mahsa Amirzadeh* 209
- Chapter 11 Developmental Factors Influencing Effective Leaders: A Life Story View of Executive Leadership Development**  
*Jennifer A. Nash* 225
- Appendix* 247
- Index* 249

# LIST OF FIGURES

## Chapter 1

Fig. 1.	The Conceptual Model. . . . .	6
Fig. 2.	Two-way Interaction of Power and Work Stress on Emotion Recognition Accuracy. . . . .	13

## Chapter 2

Fig. 1.	Hypothetical Framework Tested.. . . . .	28
Fig. 2.	Negative Emotions, Surface-acting, and Leadership Authenticity. . . . .	37
Fig. 3.	Negative Emotions, Deep-acting, and Leadership Authenticity. . . . .	38
Fig. 4.	Positive Emotions, Genuine-acting, and Leadership Authenticity. . . . .	39

## Chapter 3

Fig. 1.	Conceptual Model: The Multilevel Model of Subordinates' Job Satisfaction. . . . .	50
---------	--	----

## Chapter 4

Fig. 1.	The Moderating Role of Follower Emotional Intelligence.. . . .	74
Fig. 2.	Interaction – Positive Emotional Responses.. . . . .	80
Fig. 3.	Interaction – Negative Emotional Responses. . . . .	81
Fig. 4.	Interaction – Positive Emotional Responses.. . . . .	82
Fig. 5.	Interaction – Negative Emotional Responses. . . . .	83

## Chapter 5

Fig. 1.	Illustration of All Hypotheses. . . . .	92
Fig. 2.	Work Engagement as a Function of Weekday.. . . . .	100
Fig. 3.	Work Engagement as a Function of Weekday and Trait Neuroticism. . . . .	102

## Chapter 6

Fig. 1.	Proposed Mediation Model. . . . .	120
Fig. 2.	Mediation Diagram for the Relationship of In-group Identification on the Tendency to Aggress against Out-group Member through Intergroup Schadenfreude. . . . .	126

**Chapter 7**

Fig. 1.	The Multilevel Model of This Study. . . . .	136
Fig. 2.	The Interaction between Supervisory Support (SS) and Positive Group Affective Tone (PGAT) on Individual Work Engagement. . . . .	148
Fig. 3.	The Interaction between Supervisory Support (SS) and Positive Group Affective Tone (PGAT) on Team Information Exchange. . . . .	149
Fig. 4.	The Interaction between Supervisory Support (SS) and Positive Group Affective Tone (PGAT) on Team Creativity. .	150

**Chapter 8**

Fig. 1.	Structural Model. . . . .	161
Fig. A1.	Alternative Structural Model using Measures from Only One Peer Rater Rather Than from an Average of Two Peer Raters. . . . .	174

**Chapter 9**

Fig. 1.	The Role of Emotions in Socially Situated Investment Opportunity Evaluation. . . . .	191
---------	---	-----

**Chapter 10**

Fig. 1.	Theoretical Framework. . . . .	216
---------	--------------------------------	-----

**Chapter 11**

Fig. 1.	Conceptual Model of Executive Performance Differentiators: Version 1. . . . .	238
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# LIST OF TABLES

## Chapter 1

Table 1.	Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations. . . . .	12
Table 2.	Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis. . . . .	13

## Chapter 2

Table 1.	Reliability Estimates (Cronbach $\alpha$ ) of the Scales across Four Times. . . . .	30
Table 2.	Model Fit Indices, Convergent Validity at Different Times. . . . .	32
Table 3.	Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlations at Time 1.. . . . .	33
Table 4.	Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlations at Time 2.. . . . .	34
Table 5.	Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlations at Time 3.. . . . .	35
Table 6.	Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlations at Time 4.. . . . .	36

## Chapter 3

Table 1.	Descriptive Statistics and Correlation. . . . .	60
Table 2.	Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results of Subordinates' Job Satisfaction. . . . .	61

## Chapter 4

Table 1.	Descriptive Statistics.. . . . .	78
Table 2.	Moderation Regression - Attributed Intent. . . . .	79
Table 3.	Moderated Regression - Attributed Charisma. . . . .	81

## Chapter 5

Table 1.	Descriptive Statistics and Zero-order Correlations. . . . .	99
Table 2.	Multilevel Models Predicting Changes in Work Engagement over the Work Week. . . . .	100
Table 3.	Personality Moderators Predicting Changes in Work Engagement over the Work Week. . . . .	101

**Chapter 6**

Table 1.	Bivariate Correlations between All Variables. . . . .	123
Table 2.	Process Macro Output in Testing the Relationship between In-group Identification and Intergroup Schadenfreude. . . . .	124
Table 3.	Process Macro Output in Testing the Relationship between Intergroup Schadenfreude and the Tendency to Aggress against Out-group Member. . . . .	124
Table 4.	Mediation Output. The Total, Direct, and Indirect Effects of In-group Identification on the Tendency to Aggress against Out-group Member. . . . .	125

**Chapter 7**

Table 1.	Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations among Variables. . . . .	145
Table 2.	Hierarchical Linear Modeling Results for Individual Creativity. . . . .	147
Table 3.	Hierarchical Regression Results for Team Creativity. . . . .	149

**Chapter 8**

Table 1.	Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations. . . . .	167
Table 2.	Results of Regression Analysis to Investigate Relationship Leadership as a Mediator for Empathy in Predicting Influence. . . . .	169
Table 3.	Results of Regression Analysis to Investigate Task Leadership as a Mediator for Empathy in Predicting Influence. . . . .	169
Table A1.	Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations, Using Measures from Only One Peer Rater Rather Than from an Average of Two Peer Raters. . . . .	174
Table A2.	Results of an Alternative Regression Analysis to Investigate Relationship Leadership as a Mediator for Empathy in Predicting Influence, Using Measures from Only One Peer Rater Rather Than from an Average of Two Peer Raters. . . . .	174
Table A3.	Results of an Alternative Regression Analysis to Investigate Task Leadership as a Mediator for Empathy in Predicting Influence, Using Measures from Only One Peer Rater Rather Than from an Average of Two Peer Raters. . . . .	175

**Chapter 9**

Table 1.	Description of Sample. . . . .	186
Table 2.	Selected Illustrative Evidence. . . . .	187
Table 3.	Data Structure.. . . .	190

**Chapter 11**

Table 1.	Leader Subgroup Representation by Industry. . . . .	231
Table 2.	Organization Representation by Industry. . . . .	231
Table 3.	Gender and Role-level Representation by Industry. . . . .	232
Table 4.	Overall Work Experience, Role, and Organization Tenure Representation by Industry. . . . .	232
Table 5.	Percentage of Outstanding and Average Leaders Demonstrating Competencies. . . . .	233
Table 6.	Comparative Analysis for Effectiveness. . . . .	234
Table 7.	Comparative Analysis for Effectiveness New Findings.. . . .	236

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# INTRODUCTION: EMOTIONS IN LEADERSHIP

In this volume, we present a set of 11 chapters that deal with different aspects of emotions in organizational leadership. While this is somewhat of a “hot topic” at present and recently featured in a special issue of *The Leadership Quarterly* (Connelly & Gooty, 2015), the field continues to remain open to a gamut of research possibilities. Interestingly, however, serious study of how emotions figure in our contemporary understanding of leadership is relatively recent. Indeed, it was not until Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) posed the question as to why organizational behavior and leadership scholars continued to neglect the role of emotions that scholars began to pay serious attention to this issue. This issue was subsequently taken forward by Yukl (1999), who was also the leading textbook author in the field, as well as other leadership scholars at the time (e.g., see Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; George, 2000; Shamir & Howell, 1999). The first journal special issue on the topic was guest-edited by Humphrey (2002). Since then, and in concert with the affective revolution in organizational behavior (Barsade, Brief, & Spataro, 2003), we have seen a virtual explosion of interest in studying emotion and organizational leadership.

The chapters in the present volume are arranged in three parts, corresponding to different level of analysis, roughly consistent with Ashkanasy’s (2003) “five-level” model of emotion in organizations (see also Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017; Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011). In this model, Ashkanasy proposed that emotion in organizations manifests at five levels of analysis: (1) within-person temporal variations in emotion, (2) between-persons individual differences (e.g., emotional intelligence, trait affectivity), (3) interpersonal emotional exchanges (e.g., emotional labor), (4) team-level emotion (e.g., team affective tone, leadership), and (5) emotion as it affects the organization as a whole (e.g., affective climate and culture). While leadership is ostensibly positioned at Level 4 in the model, Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2014) subsequently argued that, because of the ubiquitous nature of leadership, its relationship with emotions appears in fact across all five levels of analysis.

## THE 2018 EMONET CONFERENCE

Similar to the previous volume in this series, the chapters in this volume are drawn from the best contributions to the 2018 *International Conference on Emotion and Organizational Life*, which was held at the University of Illinois in Chicago, IL. (This biannual conference has come to be known as the “Emonet” conference, after the listserv of members.) The peer-refereed conference papers were complemented by additional invited chapters. This volume contains eight chapters selected from

the conference program on the basis of their quality, interest, and appropriateness to the theme of this volume; as well as three invited chapters. As usual, we acknowledge the assistance received from our Emonet conference paper reviewers as well as the “friendly reviewers” who looked at the invited submissions (see the Appendix).

In 2020, the Emonet conference will be held in Lancaster, UK, immediately prior to the 2020 European Group on Organization Studies (EGOS), which is scheduled to be held in Hamburg, Germany. Readers interested in learning more about the conferences or the Emonet list should check the Emonet website <http://www.emotionsnet.org>, where they will find the conference program and paper abstracts.

## THE CHAPTERS

The chapters in this volume are arranged in three parts. In Part I, authors address the role of emotions in leadership at the individual level of analysis, including within-person temporal effects (Level 1 in the Ashkanasy, 2003, model), between-persons effects (Level 2), and interpersonal effects (Level 3). In Part II, attention turns to the group level of analysis (Level 4). Finally, in Part III, authors focus on leadership and emotions at the organization-wide level (Level 5). Following are summaries of the 11 chapters included in this volume.

### *Part I: Leaders and Members*

The authors of the five chapters in Part I outline empirical studies conducted in four different countries (Australia, Germany, Pakistan, and the USA), where they examined different aspects of the way leaders interact and affect individual employees.

In the first chapter of this volume, authors Anna Faber and Frank Walter outline the findings of a survey-based study they conducted in a large transportation company in Germany to understand the way power affects employees’ “emotion recognition accuracy” (ERA), the ability to recognize accurately what emotion others are displaying through their facial expression. The authors argue that research results to date have been mixed and suggest that more attention needs to be given to the likely effect of contingency variables. Drawing on Guinote’s (2007) situated focus theory of power, the authors argue that ERA is negatively associated with individuals’ power (level in the company hierarchy) and hypothesize that the level of stress they experience exacerbates this (negative) relationship. To test their model, Faber and Walker surveyed 117 company workers. Their results supported their hypotheses, in that only employees reporting high stress exhibited a negative relationship between position power and ERA. They conclude that their findings highlight an unexplored effect of stress whereby senior leaders struggle to recognize the emotions being manifested by their employees.

In the following chapter (Chapter 2), Muhammad Ali Asadullah, Usman Abdullah, and Ahmad Siddiquei report on the findings of a daily diary study they conducted in the context of a Pakistani police department. In their research, the authors sought to investigate the effects of positive and negative emotion on three dimensions of emotional labor (surface-acting, deep-acting, and genuine

emotions) and their subsequent impact on both leader and follower perceptions of authenticity. In this study, 69 police officers completed diary entries twice daily – at the beginning and end of their shifts – over two working days, where they reported their emotions (using the PANAS, [Watson, Clark, & Tellegan, 1988](#)) and emotional labor (using scales developed by [Grandey, 2003](#), and [Kruml & Geddes, 2000](#)). Both the participants and their superior officers then rated their leadership authenticity (using the scale developed by [Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008](#)). The results were that, while negative emotions were found to link to deep-acting and surface-acting to self-perceptions of authenticity, both deep-acting and genuine emotion were found to relate to self-perceptions of authenticity.

The following chapter (Chapter 3) also deals with leadership and emotional labor. In it, authors Yan Li, Khalid Mehmood, Xiaoyuan Zhang, and Corene M. Crossin outline a multilevel field study where they examined the moderating effects of three types of emotional labor (surface-acting, deep-acting, and genuine emotion) on the link between servant leadership and followers' job satisfaction. The study involved 180 employees and their leaders working in 16 forms in Pakistan. The authors predicted that the positive relationship between leaders' attentiveness to the needs of their subordinates and the community (via servant leadership) and subordinate job satisfaction would increase if the leaders practice deep-acting or express genuine emotion, but decrease if they practice surface-acting. Employing a multilevel and multisource design, where the leaders rated their emotional labor and employees rated their own job satisfaction and their leaders' servant leadership, Li and her team found support for the relationships they expected. The authors conclude that the effectiveness of leadership practice of servant leadership depends on the type of emotional labor that the leader engages in.

In the next chapter (Chapter 4), author Marie T. Dasborough found that followers' emotional intelligence (EI) moderates their emotional reactions to attributions of leadership intentions and charisma. While scholars have studied EI in relation to work performance, they know less about its effects in work interactions. In her study, Dasborough assessed the EI of 157 undergraduates using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test V2.0 (MSCEIT; [Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2002](#)), which is an ability measure of the construct. She then showed participants video and sent them an email requesting them to work overtime. The letter was sent purportedly from either a self-focused (i.e. manipulative) or an organization-focused leader. The participants then completed measures for the leader's charisma and attributed manipulative intention and emotional reactions (negative/positive) toward the leader. Moderated regression analyses showed that low-EI participants had stronger positive emotions to a charismatic leader and stronger negative emotions to attributed manipulative intention. The finding bolsters the growing theoretical case for the relevance of EI and leadership. Dasborough concludes in the discussion of the practical implications of her findings, which include EI development in employees as a means to facilitate smoother work relations.

In the final chapter of Part I (Chapter 5), authors Denisa Luta, Deborah M. Powell, and Jeffrey R. Spence describe a study where they investigated an

important outcome of good organizational leadership, namely work engagement. In their study, they looked in particular at employees' pattern of engagement over a workweek and predicted that they would find an inverted-U pattern, with high engagement midweek, and lower engagement at the beginning and end of the week. They also predicted that personality (extraversion, conscientiousness, and neuroticism) would affect this pattern, with neuroticism accentuating the effect, and extraversion and conscientiousness attenuating it. In a 10-day daily diary study involving 131 North American employees, they found support for the inverted-U effect and also that the effect was more pronounced for more neurotic employees. It appears that employees with high neuroticism are particularly vulnerable at the beginning and end of the week, something that organizational leaders need to take account of if they keep their employees maximally engaged.

### *Part II: Leaders and Teams*

In Part II, the focus shifts from relationships between leaders and individual employees to the effect leaders have on their teams as a whole. Topics include team identification, team creativity, and leader empathy.

In the first chapter of this section (Chapter 6), authors Raja Intan Arifah Binti Raja Reza Shah and Eugene Y. J. Tee describe a correlational study where they found that intergroup schadenfreude significantly and fully mediates the relationship between in-group identification and aggressive intentions toward out-group members. In this study, the authors conducted an online survey of 123 adult employees in Taiwan where they measured the three focal variables of the study. They also measured participants' gender and the level of interest in politics as control variables. Using regression analysis and applying the Hayes PROCESS macro for analysis of mediation, the authors found support for all theory hypotheses. The study findings increase the understanding of the impact of schadenfreude, which has previously been viewed as a form of passive opportunism. However, this study shows that the phenomenon has a darker side and can be linked to intention of harm toward out-group members. Although the design of the study did not allow causality to be investigated, practical implications include political leaders being more aware of how they express and communicate schadenfreude to their followers.

In the next chapter (Chapter 7), author Nai-Wen Chi proposes a multilevel framework to capture the mechanisms and boundary conditions of the relationships between positive group affective tone (PGAT) and individual/team creativity. Testing the framework involved collecting data from 122 R&D team leaders and 305 team members. Chi found that PGAT facilitates individual creativity through better work engagement and increases team creativity via team information exchange. Moreover, the results showed that high supervisory support can displace the relationship between PGAT and individual/team creativity, leading to less positive effects of PGAT. This study sheds light on competing theories over how supervisory support moderates the PGAT-creativity link. Practical application of the findings includes promoting PGAT through careful selection of leaders and members and provision of team social events. When

PGAT is high, supervisors should step back. Nonetheless, findings also reveal that, when PGAT is low, supervisory support is needed to boost team creativity.

In the final chapter of Part II (Chapter 8), authors Ronald H. Humphrey, Janet B. Kelleth, Randall G. Sleeth, Chao Miao, and Shanshan Qian found that empathy predicts relation and task leadership, which, in turn, predicts influence over group task choice and decisions. In contrast, cognitive ability only relates to task leadership. In their study, the authors used a validated assessment center exercise to determine 174 US undergraduate and graduate students' level of empathy, leadership (task and relation), and influence. Participants worked in groups and measurements were based on peer reports to reduce response biases. Humphrey and his associates analyzed the data using structural modeling and regression and found that empathy as a trait is an indirect but major influence of leader behaviors and eventual outcomes. This finding adds to the new authentic leadership theories, shedding light on the role of the empathy as a distal (trait-like) attribute in leadership. As for practical implications, the authors argue that their results suggest a need for more leaders to receive more empathy training via personal coaching. This would be more suitable than situation-training classes used to develop proximal (state-like) leadership attributes.

### *Part III: Leaders, Organizations, and Culture*

The Chapters in Part III show the interplay of emotions, personal and social contexts, the first among investors in entrepreneurial ventures, the second among different cultures, and the third among organizational leaders.

In Chapter 9, authors Kirsi Snellman and Gabriella Cacciotti describe their phenomenological study of how angel investors evaluate opportunities facing them. They sought to explore how emotions unfold in the investment opportunity evaluation process as investors interact with their social environments. Through interviews with eight angel investors, Snellman and Cacciotti illuminate how emotional arousal of discrete emotions (feelings of excitement, passion, fear of missing out, and trust) acts as a necessary condition for continuation of the investment screening process. That is, while the most important feature of an opportunity for investors was how it scored on multiple rational criteria (idea, team, market, and potential), what was essential is what feeling the opportunity aroused. Moreover, even if both of these criteria are satisfied, a favorable investment decision is not necessarily made. Social validation is also required. This third-party, peer and network consultation appears to validate both the rational criteria and the investors' emotional arousal. Snellman and Cacciotti show how emotion and cognition are inseparable and how their interplay helps integrate cues from personal validation and social validation. The authors expand on their findings through four rich propositions about emotions and investment decision-making. In this, they create fertile ground for further research and policy design.

In Chapter 10, authors Hamidreza Harati, Neal M. Ashkanasy, and Mahsa Amirzadeh, propose a model to understand the dynamics underlying the relationship between emotional well-being and culture. Harati and his colleagues propose that feelings of self-uncertainty are a source of emotion but that the

valence of the emotions that results is determined by the direction of the social comparisons people make. Self-uncertainty is a sense of ambiguity about self, a weakened self-concept, and leads individuals to reduce ambiguity by comparing themselves to others. Social comparison, then, is the natural response to self-uncertainty. They argue further that members of different cultures tend to differ in the direction of their comparisons. Members of “honor” cultures, such as in non-Western countries, tend to compare themselves upward, because they are personal-aspiration oriented and are prone to self-criticism. In contrast, members of “dignity” cultures, such as in Western cultures, compare themselves with downward counterparts because of self-enhancement attitudes. As a result, self-uncertainty is likely to be associated with positive emotional well-being in members of dignity cultures and with negative emotional well-being in members of honor cultures. Moreover, in dignity cultures, this represents a self-enhancement mechanism (downward evaluation and upward affiliation), whereas in honor cultures, this represents a self-criticism mechanism (upward evaluation and downward affiliation). This model is significant in that it proposes a state by situation interaction and, in fact, a culture by state by situation framework. This promises to inform studies of emotions across a broader range of cultures and to provide a more holistic approach to employee’s emotional well-being.

In the final chapter of Part III (Chapter 11), author Jennifer A. Nash outlines how she interviewed 31 executive leaders in four organizations to understand the experiences that contributed to effective leadership over their lifetime. Using semi-structured, critical incident interviews, Nash examined which competencies differentiate the outstanding from average leaders. Three themes emerged: (1) a priority and extended focus on learning and education, (2) an “environmental esthetic” that focuses on creating a positive, caring culture for subordinates, and (3) awareness of others and self, which includes emotional and social intelligence. Nash reports that the extent to which leaders understand the impact their emotions have on others and on the wider organization is a significant differentiator between average and outstanding leaders. She concludes by describing the implications of this for leadership development.

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**PART I**  
**LEADERS AND MEMBERS**

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# CHAPTER 1

## POWER AND EMOTION RECOGNITION: THE MODERATING ROLE OF WORK STRESS

Anna Faber<sup>1</sup> and Frank Walter

### ABSTRACT

*Purpose – Based on the situated focus theory of power, this chapter empirically investigates the relationship between an individual's organizational power position and emotion recognition accuracy (ERA), and it examines individuals' stress experiences at work as a boundary condition for this relationship.*

*Design/Methodology/Approach – Survey data were collected in a field sample of 117 individuals employed across various organizations in Germany. We used an established, performance-based test of ERA and applied hierarchical regression analysis to examine our model.*

*Findings – An individual's power was negatively related with his or her ability to decipher others' emotional expressions among individuals experiencing higher work stress, whereas this relationship was not significant for participants with lower stress.*

*Research Limitations/Implications – Although the cross-sectional study design and data collection within one country are relevant limitations, the*

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*findings promote a better understanding of the complex relationship between power and ERA.*

*Practical Implications – Given the relevance of accurate emotion perception, the results indicate that stressful work environments may be an important risk factor for organizational power holders’ personal and professional success.*

*Originality/Value – The findings advance the literature on power and emotion recognition by highlighting the role of work stress as an important, heretofore neglected boundary condition that may explicate the ambiguous results in prior research.*

**Keywords:** Power; emotion recognition; stress; emotion perception; DANVA; situated focus

## INTRODUCTION

Power, defined as asymmetric control over valued resources, is a prominent topic in recent research in psychology and organizational science (Galinsky, Rucker, & Magee, 2015). This research has shown power to go along with important psychological consequences, distinctly influencing the way individuals think, feel, and act (Galinsky, Magee, Inesi, & Gruenfeld, 2006; Sturm & Antonakis, 2015). In particular, power has been suggested to shape key aspects of interpersonal perception, including the ability to correctly decode and assess others’ emotional expressions (i.e., emotion recognition accuracy (ERA); Galinsky et al., 2006; Schmid Mast & Darioly, 2014).

Such ERA is generally seen as an elementary skill that enables individuals to effectively manage their own and others’ emotions (Joseph & Newman, 2010) and, thus, to build and maintain positive social relationships (Ekman, 2003; Elnenbein, Foo, White, Tan, & Aik, 2007). Moreover, ERA has been associated with important leadership processes and outcomes that are particularly relevant for powerful individuals in organizations, including an individual’s emergence as a leader (Walter, Cole, van der Vegt, Rubin, & Bommer, 2012) as well as formal leaders’ transformational behavior (Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005) and leadership effectiveness (Byron, 2007). Logically, then, it is important to thoroughly understand the potential association between an individual’s power position within an organization and his or her ERA.

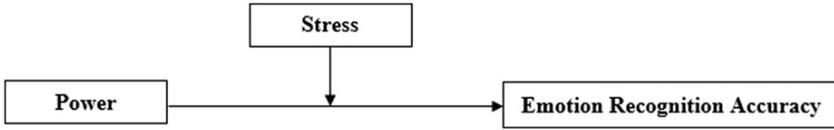
The existing theory and research on power–ERA linkages are rather ambiguous, however. On the one hand, some scholars have suggested that power may promote an individual’s ERA, for example by triggering a global processing style that focuses individuals’ attention on broad patterns rather than details (Schmid Mast, Jonas, & Hall, 2009). On the other hand, various scholars have argued that power may evoke a highly automatized style of information-processing that induces a tendency to stereotype others rather than relying on specific, individuating information (Fiske, 1993; Goodwin, Gubin,

Fiske, & Yzerbyt, 2000), such that power may diminish an individual's emotion recognition (Nissan, Shapira, & Liberman, 2015). Similarly, empirical findings on the power–ERA link have been inconsistent. A recent meta-analysis, for example, did not uncover clear-cut associations between power and different aspects of interpersonal sensitivity, including the recognition of others' expressed emotions (Hall, Schmid Mast, & Latu, 2015). Some studies have illustrated negative relationships in this regard (Galinsky et al., 2006), whereas others reported positive associations between power and emotion recognition (Schmid Mast et al., 2009).

This state of the literature has led scholars to call for research that examines possible boundary conditions that may moderate the power–ERA linkage (e.g., Bombari, Schmid Mast, Brosch, & Sander, 2013; Hall et al., 2015). In fact, Côté et al. (2011) have shown a negative relation between power and ERA, but this relation only manifested among individuals with relatively low agreeableness. Beyond this study, however, research has not systematically examined possible contingency factors, and in particular, the existing literature has not investigated situational (rather than personal) moderators for the role of power on emotion recognition. We believe consideration of such aspects is crucial to more solidly anchor the power–ERA relation within its organizational context and to better understand the complexities underlying this relationship.

This study draws from the situated focus theory of power (Guinote, 2007a, 2010) to address the question *when* power may help or hinder an individual's ERA. This theoretical perspective suggests that increasing power induces individuals to respond more flexibly to situational cues (Guinote, 2017). Specifically, powerful individuals' greater sense of control may lead them to focus on central aspects of their situation to a larger extent and to adapt their cognitive reactions to meet situation-specific requirements (Guinote, 2008, 2013). Higher-power persons may, accordingly, form social perceptions in a relatively situated manner, relying on stereotypes and other cognitive shortcuts in some contexts and on more specific, individuating information in others (Overbeck & Park, 2006). Less powerful persons, by contrast, should exhibit lower cognitive flexibility, because their relative lack of resources and control puts a premium on thorough, controlled information-processing across diverse situations (Guinote, 2007b). Hence, these individuals may have a general tendency to focus on detailed, individuating information when forming social perceptions, independent of contextual characteristics (Stevens & Fiske, 2000).

With increasing power, by contrast, we anticipate situational differences to become more important for an individual's ERA. In particular, we believe work stress is a key contextual boundary condition in this regard, because stress experiences may undermine cognitive processes that are vital for an individual's emotion recognition (Keeley-Dyreson, Bailey, & Burgoon, 1991). Stress has been shown to interfere with individuals' social attention, for example, as people often shy away from additional cognitive effort when highly stressed, concentrating on primary (rather than peripheral) situational aspects to effectively cope



*Fig. 1.* The Conceptual Model.

with their stress experiences (Chajut & Algom, 2003). Integrating predictions from the situated focus theory of power (Guinote, 2007a, 2010) with insights from the stress literature (Kahneman, 1973; Westman, Hobfoll, Chen, Davidson, & Laski, 2004), we therefore cast work stress as an important moderator for the power–ERA linkage (see Fig. 1). We anticipate higher power to diminish individuals’ ERA when they experience relatively high work stress, but not when they experience lower work stress.

We examined this model in a field sample of 117 individuals employed across various organizations, using an established, performance-based test of emotion recognition (Nowicki & Duke, 1994). In doing so, this research strives to shed new light on the complex relation between an individual’s organizational power position and his or her emotion recognition capacity. To better comprehend this association, we aim to illustrate that power–ERA linkages can be adequately understood only within the organizational context in which they are located. Examining the interactive role of power and work stress for individuals’ ERA, in particular, this study extends prior research by illustrating an important, yet heretofore neglected, boundary condition that may explicate the ambiguous findings uncovered in previous work.

## THEORY AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

### *Theoretical Background*

The situated focus theory of power (Guinote, 2007a, 2010) offers a conceptual perspective that may reconcile conceptual controversies around the power–ERA linkage and explicate prior, diverse empirical findings in this regard (cf. Hall et al., 2015). This approach posits that powerful individuals’ privileged position (i.e., their superior control over resources and associated independence) enables them to flexibly respond to their environment to achieve personal goals, selectively considering information that they perceive as crucial and ignoring other inputs (Guinote, 2008). Individuals with relatively high power may, consequently, exhibit pronounced contextual variability in their patterns of social thought and action, deliberately channeling their attention toward key aspects of their situation and the tasks at hand (DeWall, Baumeister, Mead, & Vohs, 2011; Willis, Rodríguez-Bailón, & Lupiáñez, 2011). When considering others’ emotional expressions, we therefore anticipate that power-holders may dynamically switch between quick, superficial, and highly automatized modes of cognition, on the one hand, and slower, more controlled, and

more detail-oriented cognition types, on the other, as is required to meet situational demands.

Powerless individuals, by contrast, are less likely to afford this type of cognitive and behavioral flexibility (Guinote, 2013; Willis et al., 2011). Due to their relative lack of resources, low-power individuals often are highly dependent on others and, thus, they may put a premium on paying close attention to their social environment, largely irrespective of specific contextual and task features (Guinote, 2007b; Stevens & Fiske, 2000). Consequently, the situated focus theory of power would suggest relatively powerless people to generally utilize relatively controlled, deliberate modes of information-processing when considering others' emotional expressions.

Building on these theoretical considerations, we propose that contextual features will moderate the role of power for emotion recognition, with more (rather than less) powerful individuals being more responsive to such features. As outlined in the following, we cast an individual's work stress as an important contingency factor in this regard.

#### *Power and ERA: The Moderating Role of Work Stress*

A broad body of theory and research suggests that individuals' stress experiences may induce them to consider environmental inputs in a more focused and restricted manner (Chajut & Algom, 2003). For example, Kahneman (1973) argued that due to their limited cognitive capacity, individuals generally cope with stressful and highly demanding conditions by focusing on core information related to their main tasks while, at the same time, neglecting more peripheral information. Empirical findings support this notion, with research illustrating that stress can diminish individuals' attention toward external cues and reduce their processing of environmental information (for a review, see Staal, 2004). This restricted attention may lead individuals to neglect social information when highly stressed (Cohen & Lezak, 1977), potentially including others' emotional expressions. Specifically, in focusing on core aspects of direct relevance for their immediate task accomplishment, individuals may regard socioemotional cues as largely irrelevant or even distracting (Chajut & Algom, 2003). Hence, individuals are more likely to ignore others' emotional expressions when they are highly stressed, with potentially detrimental consequences for their ERA (Hänggi, 2004; Keeley-Dyreson et al., 1991).

Importantly, however, we draw from the situated focus theory of power (Guinote, 2010) to suggest that higher-power individuals are more likely than lower-power individuals to follow these stress-induced cognitive tendencies. As outlined before, powerful individuals may possess the resources and independence to flexibly adjust their attention toward aspects they regard as most relevant in a specific situation (Guinote, 2007b). Thus, the situated focus theory would suggest that powerholders are particularly likely to follow impulses toward selective information-processing, as they typically accompany stress experiences (Chajut & Algom, 2003). Pronounced work stress should, by consequence, negatively relate with powerholders' attention to task-peripheral social

cues, in general, and toward others' emotional expressions, in particular. Hence, we conclude that powerful individuals in high-stress conditions are likely to process others' emotional displays in a relatively quick and superficial manner, drawing on general stereotypes rather than specific, individual emotional signals. Under lower-stress conditions, in contrast, individuals generally perceive less need for selective information-processing and restricted attention, because they are able to address environmental demands with relative ease (Chajut & Algom, 2003). In this situation, power-holders may therefore experience little impulse to focus on core task aspects at the expense of socioemotional cues. Thus, consistent with their cognitive flexibility and situational adaptability (Guinote, 2007b), powerholders may be willing to pay greater attention to others' emotional expressions and to process such information in a relatively careful, individuating manner when experiencing less stress. In sum, we therefore expect powerful individuals' ERA to be less pronounced under conditions of higher rather than lower stress.

For individuals with lower power, in contrast, we anticipate ERA to be relatively high, irrespective of their stress experiences. As noted before, these individuals are dependent on resources from their immediate social environment, in general, and from higher-power individuals, in particular (Fiske & Dépret, 1996). Hence, correctly recognizing and deciphering social information (e.g., regarding others' feelings, thoughts, and intentions) is vital for relatively powerless people, because this may help them uncover opportunities for resource acquisition and avoid relevant resource threats (Stevens & Fiske, 2000). In other words, individuals in low-power positions may be predisposed to attend to socioemotional cues to increase situational predictability and control (Fiske & Dépret, 1996) – and they may therefore pay close attention to others' emotional expressions, largely independent of specific contextual features. Hence, contrary to power-holders, lower-power individuals are less likely to perceive socioemotional information as peripheral and irrelevant even when highly stressed, as such information should continue to be critical for the powerless. We would therefore expect little differences in ERA across higher-stress and lower-stress situations, respectively, among individuals with relatively low power.

Integrating these notions, we conclude that increasing power is likely to negatively associate with ERA among individuals that experience relatively high work stress, as powerful individuals (but not the powerless) tend to focus on core task requirements in such context and, thus, to largely neglect others' emotion displays. When experiencing lower work stress, by contrast, both powerful and powerless individuals' ERA should be relatively pronounced, as both types of individuals should retain the motivation to attend to others' emotional expressions. Hence, we expect power and ERA to be largely unrelated under these conditions.

*H1.* Work stress moderates the negative relationship between power and ERA, such that this relationship is more pronounced among individuals experiencing higher rather than lower stress.