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LEADER-FACILITATED EMOTION MANGEMENT IN CONTEXT:

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LEADER-FACILITATED EMOTION MANGEMENT IN CONTEXT:
EMPATHY & SKILL

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

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Table of Contents

Acknowledgments iv
List of Tables vii
List of Figures viii
Abstract ix
Introduction 1
  Leaders as Managers of Followers' Emotions 4
  Emotion Management and Different Outcomes 6
    Perceived Leader Effectiveness 8
    Work-related Stress 9
    Follower Creative-Problem Solving 10
  Leader Empathy 13
  Organizational Crisis 16
  Leader Messages in Context 17
Method 20
  Sample & Design 20
  Procedure & Manipulations 21
    Crisis Manipulation 22
    Anger Induction 23
    Emotion Management Strategy Manipulation 23
    Empathy Manipulation 23
    Manipulation Checks 24
  Study Measures 25
    Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness 25
    Work-Related Stress 25
    Creative Problem-Solving 26
    Covariates 27
  Analyses 27
Results 28
  Manipulation Checks 29
    Crisis Manipulation 29
    Anger Induction 30
    Empathy Manipulation 30
    Emotion Management Strategy Manipulation 30
  Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness 31
  Work-Related Stress 32
  Creative Problem-Solving Performance 33
Discussion 36
  Theoretical Implications 39
  Practical Implications 42

Limitations 44
Future Research 46
Conclusion 47
References 49
Appendix A 67
Appendix B 69
Appendix C 72
Appendix D 73
Appendix E 74
Appendix F 77
Appendix G 83
Appendix H 85
Appendix I 87
Appendix J 89

List of Tables

Table 1 61
Table 2 62
Table 3 63

List of Figures

Figure 1 64
Figure 2 65
Figure 3 66

Abstract

The balance between leader emotional skills and ability is not well understood. Leaders who recognize and understand emotions appear in the research as more competent and successful. Applying emotion management strategies, however, may also benefit leaders from a skills-based perspective. Using an existing, intrapersonally-oriented taxonomy of emotion management strategies this study examined leader-facilitated emotion management behaviors in light of follower attitudes, stress, and performance. Whereas interpersonal emotion management is influenced by social and contextual forces, empathic tone of strategy delivery and organizational crisis were examined as moderators. Three different models predicted the organizational outcomes tested: leader effectiveness, workplace stress, and creative problem-solving. Leader-facilitated emotion management is seen as an indicator of effective leadership, but the extent to which a strategy buffers emotion is contingent upon empathic deliver and context. Effective application of emotion management strategies appears to be increased when the leader is emotionally competent.

Keywords: creative problem-solving; emotional intelligence; leader-facilitated emotion management;

Leader-Facilitated Emotion Management in Context: Empathy & Skill

Introduction

Since the publication of Hoschild's (1983) book, "The Managed Heart," provided an insightful and callously realistic analysis of emotions and emotion management in the workplace, researchers and practitioners alike have been striving toward better understanding and acceptance of emotions at work. Paradoxically, acceptance of emotions in the workplace is largely dependent on emotion management. Emotion management has many forms (Gross, 1998; Larsen, 2000), producing functional or dysfunctional outcomes. Leaders play an important role in helping followers achieve functional outcomes (Boss & Simms, 2008; George, 2000; Ostell, 1996). Leaders make sense of the circumstances under which emotions are elicited and, based on those circumstances, provide recommendations for how followers' cope with felt emotions (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002).

Multiple theoretical perspectives have described leadership as an emotional process (Bass, 1985, Conger, & Kanungo, 1998, House, 1977, Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). Leaders use emotions to evoke intended reactions and behaviors in followers, relying on those reactions to achieve certain objectives (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Barsade, Brief, Spataro, 2003; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Humphrey, 2002). Leadership scholars imply that emotion management is synonymous with effective leadership (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Erez, Misangyi, Johnson, LePine, & Halverson 2008; George, 2000; Pescosolido, 2002, 2005; Pirola-Merlo, Hartel, Mann, & Hirst, 2002). Followers, in turn, benefit from emotion management. Emotion management strategies that promote healthy expression of one's emotions facilitate

service performance (Goldberg & Grandey, 2007), enhance job satisfaction (Cote & Morgan, 2002), and reduce stress levels (Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner, 2005) and intentions to quit (Cote & Morgan, 2002). Leaders use a variety of tactics to minimize dysfunctional follower emotional expressions and facilitate positive ones (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010), yet no empirical studies have examined intentional leader efforts to manage follower emotions.

The purpose of the current investigation is to compare different leader-facilitated emotion management strategies, and to do so with an eye toward follower outcomes. Leader-facilitated emotion management is the act of suggesting and initiating emotion management strategies by the follower. Skilled leaders possess a repertoire of tactics for addressing follower emotional responses and emotion-inducing situations. The identification and examination of emotion management behaviors is a necessary step in the progression of emotion in leadership research (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010). In examining such behaviors, we draw upon an existing taxonomy of emotion management strategies defined by Gross (1998). Two strategies in particular, cognitive reappraisal and suppression, are examined for their distinctive structure (Gross, 1998), frequency in the literature (e.g. Grandey, 2000; Gross, 1999; Poldrack, Wagner, Ochsner, & Gross, 2008), similarity to emotion labor constructs deep and surface acting, respectively (Grandey, 2000), and prevalence in leader-member dyadic relations (Diefendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008). Anecdotal evidence also suggests that leaders regularly employ these two by asking followers to think about the situation from a different perspective or forget it altogether.

Affect, and the management of one's affect, can be manifest differently via diverse outcomes (Forgas, 1995; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Emotion has a much more persistent influence on complex task performance (Forgas, 1995), whereas its influence on attitudes naturally weakens over time (Wilson & Hodges, 1992). The relationship between emotion management strategies and different outcomes may not be equivocal. Multiple outcomes are useful in determining the full extent of an emotion management strategy's benefit. Thus, the current investigation considers different follower outcomes – attitudes, stress, and performance.

A secondary purpose of this investigation is to examine leader-facilitated emotion management in context, considering how situational constraints and leader characteristics shape follower attributions of the leader. Various researchers have suggested that leader-facilitated emotion management is simply more relevant under certain contextual circumstances than others (Antonokis, Ashkanasy, & Dasborough, 2009; Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Cherniss, 2010) and consistent with certain leadership styles (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000). Two variables, in particular, are examined in this study: organizational crisis and leader empathy. These factors are considered in light of theories relevant to the leader-member dynamic involved in managing emotions. Crisis reform theory (Boin & Hart, 2003) is used as a foundational framework to suggest crisis polarizes the structural effects of certain emotion management strategies. Leader empathy has been described as a core competency underlying emotion management (Humphrey, 2002; Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2007). The idea that empathy fundamentally shapes a follower's reaction to and acceptance of leader emotion management behaviors is considered via attribution theory (Weiner 1974) and leader categorization theory (Lord,

1985). Finally, implicit messages communicated via leader emotion management strategies are also considered. Leader words and actions send a message about the leader with regard to their emotional competence and intent (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Bryman, 1992; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002; Erez, Misangyi, Johnson, LePine, & Halverson, 2008; Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004; Lewis, 2000; Lord & Maher, 1991; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002). These messages have implications for the interpersonal emotion management process, influencing whether followers accept the strategy, how they interpret the strategy, and execution of the strategy.

Leaders as Managers of Followers' Emotions

Leaders, because of their central positioning throughout organizations, are well-positioned to anticipate, recognize, and help manage emotion-evoking events (Humphrey, 2002). Humphrey (2002, p. 497) asserted "Naturally, a complete listing of important leadership functions would include planning, organizing, controlling, and so forth. However…managing group members' emotions is not a peripheral task with little relevance to productivity, but is instead one of the main ways leaders influence performance." Leader-facilitated emotion management is a central component of the dyadic leader-follower relationship (Riggio & Reichard, 2008). It is tempting to think that emotion management is only needed under conflict-laden or highly emotionally charged circumstances. However, emotion management is a daily occurrence for leaders (George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002).

Strategies by which leaders facilitate emotion management are not well-documented. Conflicting research reports with regard to the influence of emotional intelligence (Antonokis, 2003, 2004; Roberts et al., 2006; Van Roy & Viswesvaran,

2004) highlights the need to investigate leader emotion management strategies at a discrete level. One potentially useful framework for examining emotion management in a leadership context (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Williams, 2007; Wong & Law, 2002) is Gross's emotion management taxonomy (Gross, 1998). While these strategies were proposed toward an intrapersonal objective, evidence suggests that strategies like those proposed by Gross are well-suited for interpersonal application (Francis, 1997; Lively, 2000; Thoits, 2004). Furthermore, Gross's process-based framework is useful for examining leader and follower responses to affective events at work (Diefendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008).

According to Gross (1998), emotion regulation occurs at different point in the emotional process. Emotion regulation can be antecedent-focused, strategies aimed at changing the emotional experience, or response-focused, strategies aimed at modulating or suppressing emotional responses to emotional experiences. The point at which regulation occurs defines the strategy. Thus, within these broader categories, multiple sub-categories of strategies exist, including: (Antecedent) situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, cognitive change, and (Response) response modulation.

Two of these strategies, reappraisal and suppression, have been the subject of a growing number of empirical studies looking at the effects of emotion management. Reappraisal is the process of changing one's interpretation and experience of a situation in a way that minimizes the emotional impact (Gross, 1998). It often involves thinking about the situation from a different perspective, or examining one's ability to control a situation. While it is a cognitively taxing process, it can result in cognitive and

physiological resource preservation by creating congruence between one's inward experience and outward expression (Grandey, 2000; Grandey et al., 2005; Gross & John, 2003; John & Gross, 2007). Suppression, alternatively, is the inhibition of behavioral, cognitive, and physiological responses to an emotion-inducing event. From the standpoint of intrapersonal outcomes, this strategy has been linked to detriments in performance and health risks. Suppression creates incongruent internal and external expression of emotions, depleting cognitive and physiological resources (Grandey, 2000; Grandey et al., 2005; Gross & John, 2003).

Emotion management from an interpersonal perspective is a much different process. Managing another person's emotions requires comprehensive awareness of socio-contextual and relational factors. Attributions of intentionality, for one, seem to play a role in the leader-follower emotional exchange process (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002). Leader's viewed as being pseudo or fake will likely not be as successful in applying emotion-management strategies, despite the apparent benefits of an emotion management strategy. Conversely, leaders who are perceived as being true or authentic might see benefits of applying strategies like suppression. Examination of leader-facilitated emotion management requires consideration from an interpersonal perspective.

Emotion Management and Different Outcomes

Leader-facilitated emotion management may be examined via multiple outcomes. According to Affective Events Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), emotion differentially influences one's attitudes, judgments, and behaviors. Appraisal-based theories of emotion suggest cognitive interpretations of emotional events are a key part of

emotional experiences (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1991; Scherer, 2001; Siemer, Mauss, & Gross, 2007; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Weiner, 1986). Different emotions are associated with different appraisal dimensions such as certainty, threat, control over the event, and others. Appraisals influence subsequent judgments, decisions, and behaviors differentially. Thus, the underlying mechanisms linking emotion and emotion management to different types of outcomes are outcome-specific. Multiple outcomes should be examined to determine the benefit of emotion management under contextual constraints. Moreover, a more complete understanding of emotion management is accomplished via examination of multiple variables.

The relationship of emotion to different individual outcomes depends on the underlying link of emotion appraisals to the outcome. Work-related attitudes, which are often proximally constructed (Wilson & Hodges, 1992), are not as susceptible to past emotions. Moreover, attitudes are rooted more in perceptions and less in emotion (Wilson, Hodges, & LaFleur, 1995). Work-related stress and creative problem-solving are the function of physiological and cognitive processes, which are more intricately tied to affective mechanisms, conversely. Emotion does effect perception and attitude, (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), but is more intricately and pervasively tied to complex outcomes than simple ones (Forgas, 1995; Forgas & George, 2001). According to Forgas, forming an attitude about one's leader require only reconstructive judgments, which are not as explicitly linked to affect and its underlying mechanisms. Creative problem-solving, in contrast, is a constructive process, with which affect is tightly woven. Stress, likewise, is deeply rooted in affective mechanisms, as certain emotion appraisals create physiological symptoms tied to stress (de Jonge & Dormann, 2003) or can be the cause for stress

directly (Lazarus, 2006; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). In the context of this experiment, the foregoing annotations suggest that outcome plays a role in assessing the adequacy of an emotion management strategy.

Perceived Leader Effectiveness. Leaders use emotion and emotion management to shape follower perceptions and attributions of themselves and the organization (George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002; Riggio & Reichard, 2008). Emotionally-driven attributions are paramount to healthy relationship forming between leader and follower (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995; Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002). Skilled leaders recognize the emotional and social influences in the leader-follower dyadic relationship, and attempt to shape perceptions and attributions attributed to those influences using effective emotion management tactics. While the investigation of strategies at the interpersonal level has not been conducted, previous research suggests that effective and positive emotion management does result in strengthened leader-follower dyadic relationships and higher ratings of leader effectiveness (Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Sy, Cote, & Saavedra, 2005).

Effective emotion management strategies are said to be those that demonstrate care, compassion, and understanding for the subordinate (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Gooty et al., 2010). These strategies result in greater trust and confidence in the leader, and attitudes that the leader is competent (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002). Reappraisal is one such strategy that, when applied intrapersonally, has been linked to perceptions that the other individual cares for and understands the perspective of the individual (Williams, 2007). Moreover, perspective taking, a component of reappraisal, promotes trust and commitment between individuals (Williams, 2007). Research suggests leaders that

facilitate deep acting, or the positive expression of one's emotions, enhance follower satisfaction and commitment (Wong & Law, 2002). Conversely, suppression is a strategy that inhibits expression of one's true emotions (Gross, 1998), suggesting that the person who facilitates such a strategy does not care as much about the other's emotions and emotional experiences. Followers and leaders alike who suppress emotions were more likely to perceive their dyadic relationship as being lower in quality in a survey by Glaso & Einarsen (2008). Considering the above findings and observations, we propose the following:

H1: *Leader-facilitated emotion management will significantly influence perceptions of leader effectiveness. Leader-facilitated reappraisal will result in significantly higher perceptions of leader effectiveness than suppression.*

Work-related Stress. Workplace stress is defined as cognitive, behavioral, and physiological reactions to personally-antagonistic elements of one's workplace (Cox & Griffiths, 2010). Stress can be brought about via multiple factors, but certainly cognitive and emotional strain play an important role (Danna & Griffith, 1999; de Jonge & Dormann, 2003; Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000). Leader-facilitated emotion management may influence the level of work stress one experiences via these mechanisms. Moreover, leader emotion management may, because of the underlying structural elements of an emotion management strategy or through perceived attributions, deplete important cognitive and emotional resources – resources that support one's interpersonal and cognitive abilities. In one study, Grandey, Fisk and Steiner (2005) found that French and American employees who suppressed emotions across a variety of service jobs functioned less effectively at work because of emotional and cognitive resource

depletion. Resource depletion is linked to higher stress (Brotheridge & Lee, 2002; Grandey, 2000; Richards & Gross, 2000). Moreover, suppression has been directly linked to physiological arousal symptoms associated with work-related stress (Butler et al., 2005; Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Cote, & Morgan, 2002; Diefendorff & Richard, 2003; Gross & Levenson, 1993, 1997; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Conversely, management strategies that promote positive expression of one's emotions (i.e. reappraisal) have been linked with reduced job strain and stress (Barsade, Brief, & Spataro, 2003).

Affective climate, which in intricately tied to workplace stress and well-being (Carr, Schmidt, Ford, & Deshon, 2003) is influenced by leader emotion management actions and messages (Ozcelik, Langton, & Aldrich, 2008). Suppression may lead to perceptions that emotions are unacceptable, resulting in additional resource depletion, and subsequent work stress, whereas reappraisal may send a message that the environment is likely more autonomous and less constraining.

Follower Creative-Problem Solving. Leader behaviors, including those related to the recognition and management of follower emotions, are empirically linked creativity in the workplace (e.g. Mumford, Scott, Gaddis, & Strange, 2002; Redmond, Mumford, & Teach, 1993; Zhou, 2003; Zhou & George, 2003). Creative-problem solving has been defined as producing solutions to extant problems that are both novel and useful (Ghiselin, 1963; Mumford, Mobley, Uhlman, Reiter-Palmon, & Doares, 1991; Oldham & Cummings, 1996; Zhou & George, 2001). This level of cognitive functioning requires both motivation and systematic information processing. Leaders who facilitate effective emotion management are able to help refocus and re-motivate followers, as well as create

functional emotional experiences, or those that promote information processing (Frijda, 1986). For example, Moss, Dowling & Callanan (2009) applied a framework of self-regulation to transformational leadership behaviors, suggesting that leaders engage in intrapersonal regulatory behaviors with followers that, in turn, inculcates and promotes their own regulatory behaviors. They found that follower self-regulation facilitates complex task performance amidst affective events and reactions. Emotion management strategies used by a leader can influence both a follower's motivation and ability to process information by assisting followers in the buffering of debilitating emotions.

Creativity in problem-solving is accomplished via multiple steps (Mumford, Mobley, Uhlman, Reiter-Palmon, & Doares, 1991), including: identification of creative problems, information gathering, idea generation, idea evaluation and modification, and idea implementation. Negative, high-active emotions, such as anger, are defined by appraisal dimensions that disrupt information processing and other cognitive processes fundamental to the creative problem-solving steps (Lerner & Keltner, 2001; Lerner & Tiedens, 2006; Tiedens & Linton, 2001). Unsystematic analysis of information cripples creativity by blocking awareness of creative problems and access to relevant information. Traditional analysis of creativity generally concluded a negative relationship between negative mood and early-state creative problem-solving (Isen & Baron, 1991). Yet, extreme positive emotions may also cripple early and late-stage creative problem-solving (Vosburg, 1998). De Dreau, Baas, & Nijstad (2012) provided some clarity in a recent chapter by explaining that activation levels of discrete emotions disrupt creativity. More specifically, emotions that are defined by moderate levels of activation promote greater creativity because they: 1) encouraging task engagement and motivation, and 2) are

associated with neurological phenomena which improve working memory, cognitive flexibility and sustained attention. According to De Dreau and colleagues (2012) review asserts a curvilinear relationship between emotion activation and creativity – high or low levels of activation prove detrimental to creativity. Anger, a highly-active emotion, would lead to less creativity via these two mechanisms under their model.

Leaders appear to play an important role in motivating individuals and removing emotional obstacles that disrupt performance (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Connelly & Ruark, 2010; Grossman, 2000; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Pirola-Merlo, Hartel, & Mann, 2002). Leader-facilitated emotion management may be one path through which leaders can promote complex task performance. Whereas previous research has examined the link between emotion abilities and follower performance (Zhou & George, 2003), the current study examines specific emotion management strategies – considering how the properties or function of different strategies addresses the mechanisms linking emotion and creative problem-solving. Reappraisal preserves cognitive and emotional resources necessary for information processing and sustained effort, suggesting that this strategy, applied inter-personally, would improve creative problem-solving performance (John & Gross, 2004; Gross & John, 2003). Systematic processing is essential to complex task performance (Maheswaran & Chaiken, 1991; Payne, 1976; Tiedens & Linton, 2001). Suppression, alternatively, depletes cognitive resources and increases chances of emotional exhaustion (Grandey, 2003), which has been shown to decrease performance on work tasks (Goldberg, & Grandey, 2007).

Creative problem-solving, along with stress, will be grounded in the degree to which the strategy effectively buffers the emotional response and creates optimal

emotional states via affective messages. Conversely, evaluations of leader effectiveness will be heavily grounded in the participant's reaction to the leader's strategy. In essence, a follower may react favorably toward a leader because the perception that they were trying to help the follower, but the leader's action may not actually benefit the follower vis-à-vis stress and performance. Uncovering the effects of leader-facilitated emotion management on higher-order processes must be accomplished through consideration of those periphery factors (e.g. leader characteristics and context) that influence the emotion-altering properties of emotion management strategies.

Leader Empathy

Facilitated (interpersonal) emotion management differs from intrapersonal management – context and socio-relational factors influence execution and outcome of emotion management strategies (Cote, 2005). Emotions are an important and informational component of social existence (Keltner & Haidt, 1999; Van Kleef, De Drue, & Manstead, 2010), and effectively managing others' emotions may depend on taking the social context into account. Followers are not likely to execute emotion management strategies delivered interpersonally the same as they would intrapersonally because they would be doing so in light of the socio-contextual factors (e.g. whether the stakes are high) and their relationship with the leader. Thus, the leader's exchange with the follower in facilitating emotion management is likely to influence follower acceptance and execution of the strategy offered by the leader.

After negative emotion-evoking events, individuals often need social support, understanding, and reassurance (Rime, 2007). One source of such support for followers is the leader. Leaders possessing a higher level of empathy better understand the emotions

their followers experience and therefore may be better able to support followers (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Stodgdill, 1965; Yukl, 2002). Empathy, defined as "the ability to comprehend another's feelings and to re-experience them oneself" (Salovey & Mayer, 1990, p. 194), is a critical characteristic for emotionally intelligent leaders (Humphrey, 2002; Humphrey, Kellet, Sleeth, & Harman, 2008). Moreover, this characteristic likely has an influence on the leader-member emotion management exchange. Empathy creates resonance with followers and is indicative of leaders who are able to take other's perspectives (Goleman, Boyatzis, & Mckee, 2002). Thus, empathy shapes expectations of leader behavior, which, in turn, influences attributions about leader with regard to their attempts to manage follower emotions.

Drawing from attribution theory (Weiner, 1974), researchers have suggested that follower reactions to leader verbal messages and behavior are attribution-driven (Ferris et al., 1995; Yukl, 2002). A leader's actions are interpreted in light of attributions or expectations for leader behavior (Meindl, 1995). Leaders who display empathy send a message that they will engage in behaviors that support, uplift, and demonstrate consideration. Pescosolido (2002) found that group members expected leader-like figures who demonstrated empathy to also engage in positive emotion management behaviors. Empathy communicates a message that leader is emotionally competent.

Attitude is a collection of perceptions, which have a less salient link to emotion appraisals. Empathy will likely have a strong influence on attitudes toward the leader regardless of emotional reactions created by interactions between management strategy and display of empathy. Display of empathy after an emotion-eliciting event may have an influence on perceptions of leader effectiveness, despite less optimal management

strategy recommendations (suppression), because attitude, unlike stress and complex task performance, can easily overcome affective influences when requested (Wilson & Hodges, 1992). Empathy is conceptually and empirically linked to perceptions of effective leadership (House & Podsakoff, 1994; Yukl, 2002). Thus, the next hypothesis is considered:

H2: *High v. low levels of displayed empathy by the leader will significantly increase ratings of leader effectiveness.*

Leaders who display empathy are considered more emotionally intelligent and are more successful at achieving organizational objectives (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006). Wolff, Pescosolido, and Durskat (2002), using a team-based protocol, found that empathy facilitated a leader understanding other's emotions and perspective taking, antecedents of emotion management. Emotions can be diffused simply through supportive communication after emotion-evoking event (Rime, 2007). Thus, empathic concern for a follower after a negative event can itself be a form of emotion management. Alternatively, empathy by a leader may increase receptivity and the likelihood that an emotion management strategy is accepted. Being told to suppress one's emotions probably communicates a different message when the recommendation to suppress is done so with an empathic tone. Does this shift in message shape follower appraisals and subsequent emotion management process? Empathy may signal that the suppression of the emotions is only temporary and that the follower is still able to discuss and share emotions, because empathy signals reassurance, recognition, and acceptance (Katz, 1963). These observations suggest that the negative effect of leader-facilitated suppression may be buffered by the demonstration of empathy or that empathy itself will

reduce the negative emotion consequences on work-related stress and performance. Thus, the next hypotheses are proposed:

H3a: *Leader empathy will moderate the effects of leader-facilitated emotion management, such that high leader empathy will buffer the negative influence of suppression on work-related stress and act as an emotion management strategy when no management strategy is present.*

H3b: *Leader empathy will moderate the effects of leader-facilitated emotion management, such that high leader empathy will buffer the negative influence of suppression on creative problem-solving and act as an emotion management strategy when no management strategy is present.*

Organizational Crisis

During times of crisis, when unexpected events threaten an organization's stability and viability (Pearson & Clair, 1998), heightened emotions, such as anger and frustration, are common (Humphrey, 2002; Lewis, 2000; Tiedens, Ellsworth, & Mesquita, 2000). Followers in the midst of a crisis look to the leader for clarity, direction, and guidance (Hollander, 1961; Pescosolido, 2002; Yukl & Howell, 1999). Boin and Hart's (2003) Crisis Reform Theory suggests that the increased follower attention during a crisis amplifies the effect, for better or worse, of the leader's actions. Moreover, follower-based, perceptual models of leadership suggest that factors beyond the leader, including context, influence the extent to which followers heed leader directives (Bryman, 1992; Lord & Maher, 1990). Indeed, followers experiencing feelings of uncertainty and urgency encourages acceptance and application of leader suggestions.

Managing follower's emotions during crisis, along with other emotional abilities, is at the heart of effective crisis management (Boyatzis et al., 2004). Pescosolido (2002) examined leader emotion management in teams and found that leaders used emotion management as a way to communicate messages about themselves and their ability to manage crisis situations. Emotion management behaviors during crisis are highly visible. The "window of opportunity" for leaders may increase the potency of facilitated emotion management strategies by increasing receptiveness of such strategies. Moreover, crisis-induced desperation or a "try-anything" mentality, likely prompts followers to readily accept and apply leader emotion management suggestions. Under these conditions, reappraisal and suppression strategies would be more readily applied and the effects of each would be more strongly manifest on stress and performance.

H4a: *Organizational crisis will enhance the effects of leader-facilitated emotion management on work-related stress, such that suppression will lead to higher stress under crisis and reappraisal will lead to less stress.*

H4b: *Organizational crisis will enhance the effects of leader-facilitated emotion management on creative problem-solving, such that suppression will lead to poorer problem-solving under crisis and reappraisal will lead to better problem-solving.*

Leader Messages in Context

According to the Emotions as Social Information (EASI) model (Van Kleef, De Drue, & Manstead, 2010) individuals base decisions about others on emotional messages. Moreover, these decisions are influenced by the context (e.g. whether it is cooperative or competitive). A basic premise of this model is that individuals use affective messages

increasingly as ambiguity escalates. Emotions are used extensively in organizations to make sense of people and the environment, as organizations operate under complex circumstances (Schneider & Somers, 2006; Uhl-Bien, Marion, & Mckelvey, 2007). Followers will seek to interpret their leader's emotional messages conveyed through emotion management and emotional understanding (i.e. leader empathy). Moreover, followers will interpret intentionality by these emotional messages (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002). If leaders are judged as being consistent and congruent vis-à-vis emotional messages, followers are more likely to attend to and internalize emotion management suggestions.

During crisis, individuals have expectations for socio-emotional leader behavior, namely: leaders should take responsibility for what is happening to subordinates (Madera & Smith, 2009), and should demonstrate concern and compassion (Pescosolido, 2002; Yukl, 2004). Demonstration of empathy, a direct message, and the emotion management strategy suggested, an indirect message, influence follower perceptions of whether expectations are being met. During crisis, followers are particularly susceptible to affective messages (Gaddis, Connelly, Helton-Fauth, 2004; Lewis, 2000; Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002). While the aforementioned observations suggest that leader empathy would send a positive message about leader intentions and would be consistent with follower expectations during crisis, and that the same benefits might be observed with leader-facilitated reappraisal, the interaction of empathy and management strategies under crisis presents a more complicated conclusion. Empathy may benefit the leader trying to facilitate suppression, but only if the demonstration of empathy and suppression communicates a message about the leader's intentions that are consistent with crisis-

induced expectations. In a crisis situation, followers might react favorably to suppression when the leader is also empathic because it is consistent with the expectation that the leader shows compassion and takes responsibility. This favorable impression may buffer the effects of emotion on work-related stress levels and creative problem-solving performance. In contrast, leader empathy and suppression in a non-crisis situation is not warranted, given the absence of expectations for care and responsibility-taking, thus creating an incongruent match. Telling a follower that you care about them and their situation and them suggesting they show no emotion is incongruent. Failure to demonstrate empathy during crisis can be equally damaging. For example, political leaders have been criticized (e.g. Pres. Obama) for not showing enough empathy during times of economic crisis, undermining their ability to influence citizen's perceptions of emotion-evoking events related to the crisis.

Perceptions that the leader is not acting in a manner consistent with follower expectations, or is behaving in an unauthentic way, likely influences the extent to which facilitated emotion management strategies are accepted and executed by followers. Incongruent messages are particularly damaging to the leader-member relationship (Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002). Conversely, congruent, positive messages from the leader may buffer emotional responses regardless of strategy (Rime, 2007). Leader delivery characteristics (empathy) and contextual factors (crisis) influence the extent to which certain leader-facilitated strategies are effective for buffering the negative relationship between emotion and work-related stress and performance. Reappraisal is an effective strategy for managing emotions that may overcome these complex interpersonal

emotion management issues, but suppression is likely greatly benefited or increasingly diminished by affective messages. Thus, the following hypotheses are considered:

H5a: *Organizational crisis, leader empathy, and leader-facilitated emotion management will form a three-way interaction influencing work-related stress. High empathy under crisis will align with follower expectations and send a positive message that lowers work-related stress when suppression is facilitated. Low empathy under crisis will worsen the relationship of suppression to work-related stress.*

H5b: *Organizational crisis, leader empathy, and leader-facilitated emotion management will form a three-way interaction influencing creative problem-solving. Leader empathy under crisis will align with follower expectations and send a positive message that enhances creative problem-solving when suppression is facilitated. Low empathy under crisis will worsen the relationship of suppression to creative problem-solving.*

Method

Sample & Design

Two-hundred and forty-five undergraduate students from a large, public Midwestern university participated in the study. The average age of participants was 19 (SD = 2.66) and 62% percent of the sample was female. The majority of participants were Caucasian (76%). Students received 2 class credits for participation. Eight participants were dropped from final analyses for a lack of effort (self-reported 1 to 2 on 5-point effort scale) or because the anger induction did not work for those participants (self-reported 1 to 2 on a 5-point anger scale). The final sample size was 237. The

experiment adopted a 3 (reappraisal vs. suppression vs. not management) x 2 (crisis vs. no crisis) x 2 (high empathy vs. low empathy) full factorial design. Participants were randomly assigned to one of 12 conditions. There were no significant differences between conditions with regard to self-reported levels of fatigue of effort.

Procedure & Manipulations

Study sessions were conducted over a 2 hour period in a laboratory-based environment. Participants voluntarily registered for the study based on a vague description of the purpose. Upon arrival at the research laboratory, participants were screened for prior participation and asked to provide informed consent. Participants then received a brief description of study protocol – low-fidelity vignette requiring mentally stepping into the role of a university recruitment specialist. This task was unique to this study and involved a task that undergraduate students could easily identify with. Indicative of such interest, participants reported a high level of engagement (M=4.34 out of 5).

Participants were, in sequential progression, given 3 sets of materials. The first set consisted of covariate measures. The third set included the leader effectiveness rating scale, the work-related stress scale, a post-questionnaire, and a demographic measure. Before leaving the study, participants were given the opportunity to complete a mood-enhancing task (Isen, 1984), to eliminate any remaining study-induced affect.

The second set included the low-fidelity vignette, which was the main study task. Low-fidelity exercises have demonstrated similar predictive values on work-related outcomes as simulated, high-fidelity exercises (Motowidlo, Dunnette, & Carter, 1990). Participants assumed the role of a university recruitment specialist at a fictitious

university, similar in description to the one they attended at the time of the study. To facilitate perspective-taking and full engagement by participants, a description of the position, department, and organization background was provided (see Appendix A). Study manipulations were embedded in the low-fidelity exercise through variations in the introductory information provided participants, and fictitious memos and emails. Gender for the fictitious main character and their immediate supervisor was neutral and characters were assigned gender-ambiguous names. Following study manipulations, but before the administration of the third packet, participants were asked to complete a creative problem solving-task related to the low-fidelity exercise. The flow and description of each manipulation is described below.

Crisis Manipulation. Contextual information and the imminent problem facing the fictitious character were described in writing to participants after reading background information on the fictitious role. The content of this section varied as function of crisis manipulations. In the crisis condition, participants were provided with a description of unstable, organization-threatening circumstances facing the university and department, including: 13% drop in enrollment, historical budget cuts, imminent 4% additional budget cuts, 15% tuition increase for students, university layoffs and furloughs, and threats of layoffs on the participant in their fictitious role. In the non-crisis condition, participants were told that the organization was facing stable, non-threatening circumstances. These circumstances included a 2% cut in enrollment, no current budget cuts, inflation-consistent tuition increase of 3%, and no current layoffs. In both circumstances the university leaders sought a proposal for a new recruitment system to improve their existing one (see Appendix B).

Anger Induction. To examine the buffering effects of leader-facilitated emotion management under context, anger was induced in all participants. This was accomplished via simulation of a recruitment system proposal to the director of admissions, the governing figure in their department. Once submitted, participants read that the proposal would be reviewed by the director and university officials, including the president. Next, participants received a memo from the university president congratulating the director on the excellent proposal they developed, without mention to the work performed by the participants.

Emotion Management Strategy Manipulation. An email from the participant's direct supervisor followed the anger-inducing memo. In the email, the supervisor either suggested one of two emotion management strategies (reappraisal or suppression) or sent a follow-up email with no direct suggestion about how to manage their emotional response. In the reappraisal condition, the leader directed participants to consider alternative motives for the director's behavior, including threats or pressure placed on the director, or that the situation may have been caused by a misunderstanding that would be resolved. Considering Gross's (1998) definition, the goal was to help participants appraise the situation in a different way. In the suppression condition, the leader directed participants to inhibit expression of the emotion by "putting it behind" them and encouraging them to show positive expressions. Finally, in the no strategy condition, the leader sent a quick note acknowledging the emotion-evoking situation, but provided no emotion management suggestions.

Empathy Manipulation. Also manipulated in the supervisor's email was level of leader empathy. Empathy was demonstrated through the tone and peripheral content of

the email. In the high empathy condition, the leader demonstrated understanding of participant's anger, as well as communicated a general tone of compassion and concern. In the low empathy condition, the leader was affectively-removed, quick to point out only the most obvious facts, and did not demonstrate high levels of concern and compassion. Examples of the high and low empathy supervisor's email, and the emotion management strategies under each condition, can be seen in Appendices C and D.

Manipulation Checks. Checks of each of the 3 manipulated variables and the anger induction were completed after all study measures. Two questions, "How angry were you" and "Did you feel like you were treated unfairly", were used to measure anger. These questions were on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Not at All) to 4 (Very Much). The crisis manipulation was also assessed using two questions on the post-questionnaire, "To what extent is the University being hurt by the recession" and "To what extent is your job being threatened." These questions were on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Not at All) to 4 (Very Much). Similarly, the empathy manipulation was assessed across two questions, namely: "To what extent was the leader sympathetic" and "To what extent did the leader care". These questions were on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Not at All) to 5 (Great Extent). A combination of checks was used for the emotion management strategy manipulation. First, independent raters, using benchmark rating scales, rated the content of the supervisor's emailed strategy. Benchmark rating scales were developed from Gross' (1998) construct definitions of reappraisal and suppression. Rating all the email messages on a 5-point Likert scale (1=low, 5=high), raters scored the emails on the degree to which a reappraisal or suppression strategy was applied. Interrater reliabilities (ICC) were high, .96 and .95, for reappraisal and

suppression, respectively. Finally, participants also wrote out a response to their supervisors email. Independent raters (a different set than those who rated the email content) rated, on a 5-point Likert scale (1=no emotion management, 5=much emotion management), the extent to which the content of the participant's response indicated that they managed their emotions. Interrater reliability (ICC) estimates for this rating was .84.

Study Measures

Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness. An eight-item, adapted measure of participant's attitude toward the leader regarding their abilities and competence (Chemers et al., 2000) was used to assess follower attitudes about the effectiveness of the leader. Items included: "the leader encouraged creativity and innovation," "the leader provided sound advice that was helpful," and "the leader helped me to think critically". Participants responded to each item on a 5-point Liker scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Because this measure was significantly adapted from an earlier version, confirmatory factor analysis, using maximum likelihood estimation, was completed. Results confirmed a one-factor structure ($\chi^2 = 71.85$, $p < .001$). Using eigenvalues, 1 factor explained 51% percent of the variance. The Cronbach's alpha value (.85) for this measure suggested that this measure was internally reliable.

Work-Related Stress. The job stress scale (Maslach, Schaufeli, & Leiter, 2001) was adapted for the current study to measure work-related stress. The scale was comprised of eight items, including: "there is strain from working in this organization," "I feel pressured in my job," and "I feel overwhelmed by my work." Participants responses were obtained on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Because this measure was significantly adapted from an earlier version,

confirmatory factor analysis, using maximum likelihood estimation, was conducted. Results suggested that a two-factor structure was more appropriate for this measure (χ^2 = 14.68, p = .33). Two eigenvalues were higher than 1 and the two factor structure accounted for 53% of the variance. Three items loaded higher on the 2nd factor and were subsequently dropped from analyses, resulting in a four-item measure. Cronbach's alpha for this shortened measure was .73.

Creative Problem-Solving. The concluding activity in the low-fidelity exercise is the creative problem-solving task whereby participants are asked to develop a new university recruitment system. Several prompt questions (e.g. consider what resources you could use to establish this system? who would you target in this new system?) were posed to help facilitate responses, but not provide specific guidance for the plan details. Responses were open-ended and rated on two performance dimensions, namely: solution quality and originality. Quality was defined broadly as the degree to which the plan elements were important, detailed, and implementable. Originality of the plan was defined as the extent to which the plan included unique elements that were feasible (Lonergan, Scott & Mumford, 2004). These dimensions are the standard for scoring creative solutions in the creativity literature (Ghiselin, 1963; Mumford, Mobley, Uhlman, Reiter-Palmon, & Doares, 1991).

Quality and originality dimensions were scored using benchmark scales developed by the principle investigator. The author completed a literature review, appraising relevant construct definitions and previous examples of performance to develop high quality benchmarks. After reviewing all the relevant information, consensus was reached for what would qualify as a benchmark for the established dimensions.

Benchmarks were placed on 1 (low) to 5 (high) rating scales. Three doctoral level I/O psychology graduate students independently rated the open-ended solutions using these scales. Raters received three hours of initial frame-of-reference training (Bernardin & Buckley, 1981) to familiarize themselves with the dimension definitions, benchmarks, and the typical responses elicited. Twenty solutions were chosen at random to establish initial interrater reliability estimates, which established whether any additional training was needed. Intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) values were high and raters proceeded to rate the remaining solutions. Intraclass correlation coefficients (ICC) for quality (.88) and originality (.84) demonstrated reliability among raters.

Covariates. A measure of divergent thinking was included to account for any inherent creative-problem solution ability. This measure, named Consequences "A" (Guilford, 1950), consists of 5 hypothetical problem scenarios for which participants list off as outcomes as possible. Overall score is the function of both the raw number of the responses (fluency) and the number of distinct response categories (flexibility). The Pearson correlation between these two dimensions was .88 ($p < .001$).

Additionally, a demographic form was administered to collect basic demographics, including: age, gender, English language ability, university major, etc. to be used in eliminating potential experimental confounds.

Analyses

Preliminary descriptive analyses were conducted and correlations obtained to gain a general understanding of the direction and size of study relationships – to what extent did leader-facilitated emotion management influence subsequent follower attitudes, stress, and performance, accounting for interactions with context and delivery. Analysis

of Variance (ANOVA) and Independent t-tests were used to assess the adequacy of study manipulations. When the manipulation involved three or more levels, ANOVA was used to determine a significant group difference, and follow-up post hoc analyses were applied to understand those differences.

A general linear model (GLM) approach applied to analyze study hypotheses. Because independent variables were categorical, the dependent variables were interval, and covariates were included in the model, a series of 3 x 2 x 2 Analysis of Covariance (ANOCOVA) and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANCOVA) tests were conducted. *F* ratios, degrees of freedom, *p* values, and effective sizes (η^2_p) are reported. The shared variance between creative problem solution quality and originality warranted MANCOVA. Separate univariate analyses for quality and originality were conducted after the influence of independent variables on both, taking into account their shared relationship, was analyzed using MANCOVA. Main effects were compared using contrast tests, whereas adjusted cell means for interactive effects were examined using Least Square Difference (LSD) post hoc tests. Homogeneity of variances was analyzed using Leven's Test of Equality of Error Variances. Because covariates were included in the model, the homogeneity of covariate regression slopes for the respective dependent variables was assessed. Only covariates significant at the $p < .05$ level were retained in the hypothesis tests.

Results

Keeping with the study hypotheses, cell means are reported at the main, two-way interactive and three-way interactive level (see Table 1). Correlations among study dependent and covariate variable are presented as Table 2. High correlation coefficient

between creative problem solution quality and originality ($r = .81$, $p < .01$) suggests multivariate analysis of variance. Furthermore, the significant correlation between creative problem solution quality, originality, and the covariate divergent thinking suggests it would be an appropriate control variable for models including performance variables. Age, one of the demographics collected, also demonstrated a significant correlation with these and was included in tests with performance as the dependent variable.

INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

INSERT TABLE 2 ABOUT HERE

Manipulation Checks

Crisis Manipulation. Questions on a post-questionnaire served as a check on whether crisis was adequately manipulated. On the question, "To what extent is the University being hurt by the recession," participants in the crisis condition indicated a significantly higher level ($M = 3.41$, $SD = .59$) than participants in the non-crisis condition ($M = 2.50$, $SD = .65$, $t\ (235) = 11.32$, $p < .001$). On the question, "To what extent is your job being threatened," participants in the crisis condition indicated a significantly higher level ($M = 3.16$, $SD = .78$) than participants in the non-crisis condition ($M = 2.47$, $SD = .81$, $t\ (235) = 6.61$, $p < .001$). These values suggest that

participants in the crisis conditions perceived the university and their job as being less stable, a key indicator of organizational crisis (Milburn, Schuler, & Watman, 1983).

Anger Induction. Participants indicated a high level of anger on the questions, "How angry were you," (M = 3.74, SD = .55) and, "Did you feel that you were treated unfairly" (M = 3.74, SD = .50). Considering these values were obtained on a 4-point Likert scale, with 4 being the highest, it appears that all participants experienced anger and feelings of unfairness, a key appraisal of anger (Kuppens, Van Mechelen, Smits, & De Boeck, 2003). Whereas the goal was to induce anger in all participants, a one-way ANOVA was computed to confirm that reported anger levels did not differ across groups. With responses to the question, "How angry were you," tested as a DV, no significant differences were found between cell means (F (11, 225) = 1.24, p = .26). Using responses to the question, "Did you feel that you were treated unfairly," as a DV, no significant differences were found between cell means (F (11, 225) = .59, p = .84).

Empathy Manipulation. Using the post-questionnaire items as a check on whether empathy was manipulated at the level intended, two separate *t*-tests were conducted. Participants in the high-empathy condition responded to the question, "To what extent was the leader sympathetic," significantly higher (M = 3.19, SD = 1.27) than participants in the low-empathy condition (M = 2.13, SD = 1.14, t (235) = 6.74, $p < .001$). Participants in the high-empathy condition also responded to the question "To what extent did the leader care," significantly higher (M = 2.94, SD = 1.23) than participants in the low-empathy condition (M = 2.08, SD = 1.08, t (235) = 5.73, $p < .001$).

Emotion Management Strategy Manipulation. Content ratings of the supervisor's email, which contained the emotion management strategy, were examined

using a one-way ANOVA. Results suggest a significant difference between conditions (reappraisal, suppression, no management) on the extent to which the content of the email was reappraisal-oriented (F (2, 3) = 343.13, $p < .001$). Raters indicated that the content of the supervisor's email was significantly more reappraisal-oriented in the reappraisal condition (M = 4.34, SD = .01) than in the suppression condition (M = 1.34, SD = .01, $p <$ .001) and the no management condition (M = 1.17, SD = .24, $p < .001$). However, no difference was found between the suppression and no management condition on content ratings of reappraisal (p = .30). Rating the degree to which the email content was suppression-oriented, raters rated the email content in the suppression condition (M = 3.83, SD = .24) significantly higher than in the reappraisal (M = 1.50, SD = .17) and the no management condition (M = 1.50, SD = .71, F (2, 3) = 17.82, $p < .05$). No difference between the reappraisal and no management conditions was found (p = 1.0).

Open-ended participant responses to the leader were coded for the extent to which emotion management was executed. A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine whether those in the suppression and reappraisal conditions demonstrated more emotion management than those in the suppression condition. Results show that a significant group difference was found (F (2, 234) = 14.43, $p < .001$). Comparison tests reveal that participants in the reappraisal (M = 2.52, SD = .89) and suppression (M = 2.58, SD = .84) conditions were rated as having managed emotions to a significantly greater extent than those in the no management condition (M = 1.92, SD = .80, $p < .001$).

Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness

Using ANOVA, the amount of variance attributed to emotion management strategy condition assignment was examined. Moreover, whether the leader displayed

empathy was also examined as a causal factor for leader effectiveness ratings. Results support these hypotheses 1 and 2 (see Table 3). Specifically, ratings of the leader varied significantly by the emotion management strategy facilitated (F (2, 235) = 7.10, p =.001, η^2_p = .06) and whether empathy was demonstrated in strategy facilitation (F (1, 234) = 23.63, p < .001, η^2_p = .10). As expected, higher empathy (M = 3.45, SD = .80) led to higher evaluations of the leader than did low empathy (M = 2.96, SD = .78). Conversely, contrast tests between emotion management strategy conditions show that those in the reappraisal condition (M = 3.34, SD = .74) did not significantly differ from those in the suppression condition (M = 3.33, SD = .86), but that both were significantly higher than those in the no-strategy condition (M = 2.92, SD = .81, p < .001). This finding suggests partial support for hypothesis 1.

Levene's test of equality of error variances was non-significant (p = .558), supporting the use of ANOVA.

INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

Work-Related Stress

Work-related stress levels were examined using ANOVA. Levene's test of equal error variances was non-significant (p = .28), suggesting this was an appropriate test. The extent to which leader empathy or organizational crisis moderate stress was tested, as well as the three-way interaction between these variables. Result show that leader-facilitated emotion management was moderated by the degree of leader empathy (F (2, 237) = 3.91, p =.02, η^2_p = .03), in support of hypothesis 3a, but not organizational crisis

(see Table 3). Thus, the null was retained for both hypothesis 4a and 5a. Leader-facilitated emotion management strategies helped participants lower stress levels depending on whether the strategy was delivered with high or low empathy. Figure 1 shows the plotted means, which suggest suppression is an effective strategy for minimizing work-related stress, but only when the leader facilitates suppression while displaying empathy. Contrast tests confirm that suppression paired with empathy (M = 3.03, SD = .83) led to significantly lower stress levels than all other conditions ($p < .05$) except for reappraisal and empathy (M = 3.26, SD = .65). However, high empathy did not significantly lower stress levels for those who received the reappraisal strategy (p = .16).

INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE

Creative Problem-Solving Performance

Leader-facilitated emotion management strategies, leader empathy and/or organizational crisis, were examined with regard to follower creative problem solutions using MANCOVA and ANCOVA procedures. A high correlation between problem solution quality and originality warranted multivariate analysis. Using Wilk's Lambda estimate, a significant three-way interaction between emotion management strategies, leader empathy, and organizational crisis was found (F (4, 430) = 4.39, p =.002, η^2_p = .04), in support of hypothesis 5b. Box's test of equality of covariance matrices was non-significant (.426), supporting the use of MANCOVA for the current data. All two-way interactions were not significant when including a third variable, refuting hypotheses 3b and 4b. Follow-up univariate tests revealed a similar pattern. Creative problem-solution

quality varied by a significant three-way interaction (F (2, 216) = 8.56, $p < .001$, η^2_p = .07). The three-way interaction model of creative problem-solution originality was also significant (F (2, 216) = 4.83, $p < .009$, η^2_p = .04) (see Table 3).

Post hoc comparison tests using Least Square Difference (LSD) estimates reveal the significant patterns in the data. Plotted means with confidence intervals can also be seen in Figures 2 and 3 for solution quality and originality respectively. Comparison tests demonstrate complex conclusions with regard to suppression. Under crisis circumstances, high leader empathy paired with leader-facilitated suppression led to the highest average solution quality (M = 3.03, SD = .68), whereas high leader empathy paired with leader-facilitated suppression under non-crisis circumstances produced the lowest average solution quality ratings (M = 2.21, SD = .59, $p < .001$). The Cohen's D value between the adjusted means was d = 1.29, with an effect size of r = .54. Leader-facilitated suppression with high empathy under crisis led to significantly higher quality scores than three other conditions (reappraisal with high empathy under non-crisis, suppression with low empathy under non-crisis, no management with low empathy under crisis). Leader-facilitated suppression paired with high empathy was significantly lower than all conditions except no management with low empathy under non-crisis circumstances. Additionally, low empathy paired with suppression produced exactly opposite results with regard to solution quality, as this was more effective under non-crisis circumstances (M = 2.85, SD = .58) than crisis circumstances (M = 2.45, SD = .68).

INSERT FIGURE 2 ABOUT HERE

INSERT FIGURE 3 ABOUT HERE

Comparison tests revealed a similar pattern of results for solution originality. Low leader empathy paired with leader-facilitated suppression under non-crisis led to the highest average solution originality ratings (M = 2.82, SD = .63) and high leader empathy paired with leader-facilitated suppression under non-crisis circumstances produced the lowest average solution originality ratings (M = 2.17, SD = .70). This was a significant difference ($p < .001$, d = .98, r = .44).

Aside from plotting the two-way interactions, separate interactions were tested for leader-facilitated emotion management and leader empathy at both the non-crisis and crisis levels, per Roger's (1995) recommendation. Controlling for crisis level, a significant interaction was found for leader-facilitated emotion management and leader empathy in the crisis (F (2, 106) = 3.94, p = .02, η^2_p = .07) and non-crisis (F (2, 107) = 4.98, p = .009, η^2_p = .08) conditions on solution quality. The same significant pattern was found for solution originality.

Finally, homogeneity of the separate covariate-dependent variable slopes was examined to justify the adjustment of cell means using an average regression slope in the univariate tests for both solution quality and originality. Testing all possible two-way interactive combinations of the study covariates, age and divergent thinking, with study independent variables on solution quality, results show the regression slopes do not significantly differ ($p > .05$). Likewise, no significant covariate-IV interactions were

significant with solution originality in the model ($p > .05$), supporting the use of a single covariate-DV regression slope to adjust cell means in the ANCOVA models.

Discussion

The purpose of this research was to examine the emotion-buffering influence of leader-facilitated emotion management strategies on follower attitude, stress, and performance. Moreover, the intent was to examine these emotion management behaviors in context, taking into account situational influences and delivery style. Study findings reveal three outcome-specific models. First, the influence of leader-facilitated emotion management on follower ratings of leader effectiveness is best described by a main effects model, in which both leader-facilitated emotion management and high leader empathy led to higher ratings of the leader. Consistent with previous, ability-based studies on leader emotion management (Humphrey, Pollack, & Hawver, 2008; McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Sy, Cote, & Saavedra, 2005), followers perceived attempts to recognize and manage emotions as markers of effective leadership. Participants also saw empathy demonstrated by the leader as an indication of their effectiveness. Individualized theories of leadership (e.g. Dansereau, et al., 1995; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) highlight the importance of emotional sensitivity and concern as impetus for being seen as an effective leader. Underscoring the importance of emotional intelligence to effective leadership, George (2000) and Lewis (2000) agree that empathy creates a cooperative, trust-engendering bond between leader and follower. In the context of the current study, empathy and leader-facilitated emotion management engendered perceptions that the leader was capable and trustworthy.

The relationship of leader emotion management strategies to follower work-related stress was best explained with leader empathy as a moderating factor. Consistent with Affective-Events Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), emotion and affect influence various outcomes differentially. While participants reported the leader to be effective, regardless of the facilitated strategy and context, the extent to which the leader's approach minimized stress levels was more complex. Drawing upon attribution theory (Weiner, 1974), we expected high leader empathy to shape appraisals of the leader, which would change the subsequent reactions to the leader's suggested emotion management strategy. The findings demonstrate that leader empathy and leader-facilitated emotion management minimize follower stress levels, but that the effect is more profound for leader's facilitating suppression. The findings, alternatively, show that high empathy alone, with no emotion management, leads to higher stress levels. Empathy may signal that the leader is a competent, and has the emotional skills to help the subordinate, which leads to greater acceptance of suppression as a strategy, and may even change the extent to which this strategy creates incongruence between inner and outer expression. Indeed, empathy signals perspective taking (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006), and may help shift follower appraisals of affective events. Transformation of appraisals encourages suppression of emotions through dissipation. Under these conditions, it appears that suppression can be a very effective, short-term emotion management strategy.

Like stress, affect has an infused influence on complex task performance (Forgas, 1995). In the context of this study, leader-facilitated emotion management strategies were found to be effective only after taking into account leader delivery characteristics and

context. Affective messages, perceived through emotion management suggestions and empathic concern, may be the conceptual key to understanding this outcome. The crisis situation created a window of opportunity (Boin & Hart, 2003) for the leader to effectively manage emotions and facilitate performance. However, this effect was contingent upon the congruency of the message communicated via the leader's actions. Suppression was the most effective short-term emotion management strategy, inasmuch as it created an affective message congruent with context. Reappraisal, additionally, was mildly effective for buffering the effects of emotion on performance, but regardless of context and leader empathy. More research is needed, but the pattern here suggests that reappraisal may be a more stable emotion-management strategy.

A key revelation in this manuscript is that suppression, from a short-term perspective, can be an effective interpersonal emotion management strategy. This conclusion opposes overwhelming evidence that intrapersonal suppression has negative effects for one's well-being and performance ability (Grandey, 2000; Grandey et al., 2005; Gross & John, 2003). Moreover, it is counter to intuition – suppression inhibits expression, which should have negative consequences. What these findings suggest, however, is that interpersonal or facilitated emotion management may be vastly different than intrapersonal emotion management. Indeed, interpersonal emotion management takes into account context, and the relationship between involved parties plays a role in whether the strategy is effectively applied and serves its functional purpose (Cote, 2005). Intrapersonal suppression may be viewed as functional under certain contextual constraints (e.g. crisis) or may encourage healthy expression of emotions if the leader's delivery is empathic. Leaders who display empathy may be able to use a greater

repertoire of emotion management strategies, as the empathy alone is powerful mechanism by which emotion is managed appropriately. Suppression in this light can be seen as removing roadblocks for follower success. According to the Path-Goal theory of leadership (House, 1971), effective leaders remove roadblocks that inhibit goal-achievement and performance. Followers may view suppression as a roadblock-removing tactic, and thus be effective if consistent with expectations and delivery.

Theoretical Implications

Whereas this examination was among the first of its kind – an analysis of the emotion management tactics facilitated by leaders – the results add substantial clarity in some areas of leadership and emotion theory, and beg specific questions in others. While some leadership theory, and certainly emotional intelligence (EQ) literature (e.g. Goleman, 1995), paints a broad, effusive picture of emotion in leadership, these results suggest that not all emotion management strategies and tactics are equal. Indeed, leaders themselves have very different emotion management styles (Diefendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008), and may choose different routes for regulating emotions, even if their emotional awareness ability is equally high. The strategy applied by leaders to facilitate emotion management has implications for employee attitudes, stress-levels, and performance. Distinguishing between emotion management strategies may even delineate a somewhat muddled picture of the value of EI beyond other personality and intelligence constructs (Antonokis, 2003, 2004; Conte, 2005; Locke, 2005). Studies of emotional intelligence or emotional abilities have overlooked the leader behaviors associated with these processes – a significant value of this study. Emotion management is a multi-dimensional construct, and should be represented as such in the literature. Some have

alluded to the specific strategies leaders might use (Lopes et al., 2006; Ostell, 1996; Thoits, 1996), but a taxonomy of behaviors does not yet exist.

To say that this research conclusively puts an end to the idea that emotional abilities are important for effective leadership, however, would be a hyperbolic statement. In fact, the findings support just the opposite; certain strategies are preferred and appear more effective, but only in light of certain contingencies like context, delivery, and tone. The results suggest that leaders must have a broad understanding of the emotional process and the influence that the situation has on facilitated emotion management, or emotional competence. Lopes, Cote, and Salovey (2006) in an article discussing the merits of training leader emotion management strategies, maintain that leaders must have a keen awareness and knowledge of emotions, as well as an understanding of emotion-evoking situations in context to be successful mangers of emotions. Emotion management is a complex skill and one that requires the same adeptness to develop as other complex skills. Cherniss (2010) in a recent review stressed the importance of context on recognizing and managing one's own and others' emotions. Moreover, Cherniss (2010) contends that emotion management is as much skill as it is ability, requiring both for one to be an effective manager of emotions. Theoretical advances in the area of emotion management should look more closely at the interplay between emotion ability and skill, and to do so with an eye toward context.

Emotion management, from an interpersonal context, is in the eye of the beholder, these findings suggest. Individuals understand and give meaning to another person's actions via their attributions, especially in affectively-potent situations (Thomas & Pondy, 1977). Whereas emotion is defined by a set of appraised meanings (Smith &

Ellsworth, 1985; Frijda, 1986), emotion management also carries certain meaning. Reappraisal might send a message that an individual is optimistic and can look from an alternative perspective to better understand an affective event, whereas suppression might communicate that the individual does not feel comfortable expressing emotion. Reappraisal is associated with healthy affect patterns and positive social interactions, whereas suppression is associated with negative interpersonal functioning and carries a negative connotation (John & Gross, 2004). Interpersonally, these same negative and positive associations may remain, unless the follower interprets the emotion management differently based on previous experiences with the leader or the situational context. When the leader displayed empathy and sent a message consistent with expectations, the perception of suppression changed to appear less negative, and more functional. Dasborough & Ashkanasy (2002) discuss concern for the follower as being a major determinant of attributions that the leader is true or pseudo, a factor that influences the quality of the leader-member exchange. Follower attributions shape the message communicated by the emotion management strategy in a positive or negative direction. Followers may think suppression is not stifling when the leader demonstrates empathy, but rather that the leader has their best interests in mind and that suppression is a functional strategy that will help them maintain their goals.

Finally, the findings of this study beg the question, "Which is more important: the leader's emotion management strategy or the message they communicate?" While it appears certain strategies are beneficial in some contexts, the benefit is rooted in sending the appropriate message. Newcombe and Ashkanasy (2002) found that leaders who sent an affectively congruent message in giving feedback were able to develop a stronger

rapport with followers. The authors argue that sending an incongruent message is evidence of pseudo-leadership, which leads to diminished trust. Congruence between the leader's affective message and the follower's expectations is also a signal to the follower the leader is adept and is competent to provide meaningful emotion management strategies. Moreover, leaders perceived as being more competent and sincere gain more influence power over their followers (Yorges, Weiss, & Strickland, 1999; Yukl, 2002). The findings in the current study suggest that leaders who possess emotional competence – are aware of emotions, sensitive to their expression, and understand how they are properly infused into one's leadership – are more effective at applying specific emotion management strategies because they understand how to craft an appropriate message. Empathy is one 'emotional competence' that appears to benefit leaders under in certain contexts.

Practical Implications

While it would be difficult to make a direct recommendation about the type of management strategy leaders should be trained up on from these findings, the results do make it clear that leaders must learn to send the right message. This, it should be noted, is not a nebulous synopsis, but a practical recommendation for any leader who wants to be seen as more emotionally competent. Leaders must be equipped with skills for solving social issues in the workplace (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000) – an environment in which emotions are likely to be regularly experienced (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995) – but also be adept at applying different strategies. Developing interpersonal skills and, more specifically, emotion management skills should be grounded in perspective-taking and situational awareness (Lopes et al., 2006). Leaders

must be able to recognize situational elements, and have enough foresight to recognize the message their actions send, before choosing an emotion management strategy.

The current results provide insightful recommendations for leadership and emotions in crisis situations. Under crisis or other threatening events, individuals face immense threat and pressure, which may cause a recoiling response – more aggression, less cognitive and motivational flexibility, less willingness to work with others (Staw, Sandelands, & Dutton, 1981). Hermann's (1963) early review of the consequences of organizational crisis suggests that organizational leaders restrict autonomy and communication during crisis. Leaders, therefore, have a predisposition to be less empathic during crisis – to engage in less perspective taking and more selfish thinking. The results here support the argument that empathy during crisis is an effective tactic, as it fosters perceptions that the leader cares and is willing to take responsibility – key elements for the effective leadership during crisis (Bass, 1990; McCall, Lombardo, & Morrison, 1988). Leaders must be willing to demonstrate empathy during crisis if they are able to effectively manage emotions, and buffer negative effects of such emotions.

Leaders should also be mindful of the advantages of displaying empathy, but recognize that it must be used judiciously. Empathy, which enables individuals understand other's emotions and is linked to emotional awareness, is associated with emotional intelligence (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Empathy fosters appraisal shaping bonds between the leader and follower that strengthens their relationship (Green & Mitchell, 1979). Mahsud, Yukl, & Prussia (2010) found in a recent study that leader displays of empathy and relations-oriented behavior strengthened leader-member exchange. Indeed, these findings suggest that empathy is an important attribute for

emotion management. However, these results also show that leaders should be judicious in their use of empathy, recognizing that incongruent or inappropriate displays of empathy may be signs that the leader is not genuine, and have negative consequences.

Development of interpersonal or emotional skills has been widely suggested, yet few reputable programs offer such services (Riggio & Lee, 2007). Moreover, the evidence of training effectiveness in such cases is virtually non-existent. One problem is that most of the EI literature investigates emotional abilities. Lopes and colleagues (2006) were some of the first scholars to suggest training of emotion management skills, but no empirical work has been done to enable the development of a taxonomy on which a training program could be created. Research experiments such as the current study contribute to the development of an emotion-management skills taxonomy.

Limitations

While the findings in the study were generally conclusive and based on sound practices, a few limitations should be noted. First, generalizability of results may be somewhat limited given the use of a student sample. We believe, however, that generalizability should be robust to sample differences as the focus of the study was on emotional and cognitive processes relevant to all employees across occupations and demographics. Student samples and employee samples show few differences on cognitive processes inherent in decision-making and problem-solving (Bernstein, Hakel, & Harlan, 1975). Additionally, to limit generalizability concerns in the current study, the main performance task was designed to match the skills and interests of the student sample.

All study manipulations and tasks were delivered via pencil-and-paper methods as part of a low-fidelity vignette. The task facing students was a hypothetical task and no

real interactions between a participant and a leader took place. Low-fidelity tasks, however, have demonstrated the same validity as high-fidelity tasks in employment contexts (Motowidlo, Dunnette, & Carter, 1990). Still, the manipulation of emotion, context, empathy, and emotion management strategies using paper-based methods may limit the generalizability of the findings, as research has shown communication medium to alter reactions and experiences (Jonassen & Kwon, 2001). Future research should examine leader-facilitated emotion management in real-time, observing the strategies adopted by leaders and their real-time consequences. Paper-based emotion inductions are common in emotions research (e.g. Lerner, Gonzalez, Small, & Fischhoff, 2003; Lerner & Keltner, 2001), which quells concern.

Finally, because this study adopted a laboratory-based, full-factorial design, a limited number of strategies, moderating variables, and outcomes were assessed. While reappraisal and suppression have been of significant interest in the literature (John & Gross, 2007) and are commonly used strategies in the workplace (Diefendorff, Richard, & Yang, 2008), they are only two of a wide-range of strategies spanning not only Gross's dimensions, but separate taxonomies (Larsen, 2000). Other contextual variable might also influence the extent to which an interpersonally applied emotion management strategy is effective, including: competitive vs. cooperative climate, high vs. low power culture, ethical climate, close vs. distal relationships, and organizational complexity. Finally, additional leader-follower outcomes may be useful for determining the effectiveness of leader-facilitated emotion management, including: team performance, organizational commitment, emotional climate, workplace deviance, conflict resolution, and team building.

Future Research

The current study was conducted over a short period of time relative to the natural evolution of interpersonal, affective relationships. Leader-follower relationships are not defined by one single emotional experience, but rather shaped through multiple interactions. The findings of this study address the short-term effects of leader-facilitated emotion management. These results also suggest follower appraisals to be an important moderator of key study relationships. Across time and frequent interactions, those appraisals shift based on a collection of experiences – experiences that are categorized with hindsight. Emotion management strategies, specifically reappraisal and suppression, are thought to have very different personal outcomes for each, including one's well-being, satisfaction, relationship with others (Gross, 2002; Gross & John, 2003), and affective experiences at work (Liu, Prati, Perrewe, & Brymer, 2010). Longitudinal research on this topic might come to a very different set of conclusions regarding effective emotion management strategies. Affective liking and positive perceptions of an emotion management strategy, coupled with functional physiological cognitive responses, may, over time, alter follower appraisals and, ultimately, the leader's ability to functionally manage emotions. Longitudinal studies suggest that strengthened positive perceptions between leader and follower have incremental, positive effects on member satisfaction and performance (Bauer, & Green, 1996; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993).In the current study, leader-facilitated reappraisal led to the highest ratings of leader effectiveness. In a longitudinal examination, the positive reactions to such a strategy may pay incremental dividends. Suppression, conversely, may have short-term benefits, but if overused will send a message that the emotional climate is a closed one (Kahn, 1993,

1998; Ozcelik, Langston, & Aldrich, 2008), which may have negative long-term consequences for performance.

The surprise findings for leader-facilitated suppression, however, deserve additional attention in the emotional labor literature. Surface acting, the suppression of emotional expressions (Grandey, 2000) has repeatedly been linked to negative outcomes (e.g. Grandey, 2003; Grandey, Fisk, & Steiner, 2005). This is an intuitive finding and is consistent with emotion management research. Yet, these findings suggest that surface acting, which is often an organizationally or leader-imposed emotion management tactic, may be functional when moderated by organizational or leader policies, behaviors, or messages that minimize the incongruence created by suppression. Prati and colleagues (2009) found that other emotional competencies (emotional awareness, recognition) attenuated the relationship between surface acting and strain. Thus, creating awareness may minimize the negative outcomes associated with surface acting. In another study, Johnson and Spector (2007) found autonomy to minimize the negative effects of surface acting. Leader empathy appeared to alleviate burdens created by surface acting in the current study. Future research should expand the number of moderators tested with regard to the emotional labor-organizational outcomes relationships, which could include: leader support, affective congruence, clarity of expectations, supportive climate, and knowledge of organizational goals, objectives, and results. Surface acting may, in fact, serve a functional purpose if it is contextualized.

Conclusion

Emotions are frequent in organizations and certainly within leader-follower relationships (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Leaders, as a product of their position in

organizations, are uniquely able to help followers cope with their emotions. The ability to effectively manage member emotions has been characterized as one of the most important functions tasked to leaders (George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002). This study addressed a glaring gap in the emotion management literature, namely, what types of emotion management behaviors do leaders use and what are the discrete effects? While the individual effects demonstrated in this study suggest one strategy may be preferred, the combination of findings paints a more complicated picture – one that supports claims that emotional competence is inherently intertwined in the quality of leader-follower dyadic relationships. Nevertheless, we hope that this research will stimulate additional research in the area and encourage the movement toward a skill-based paradigm.

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Table 1

Cell Means and Standard Deviations at the Main Effect, Two-Way Interaction, and Three-Way Interaction Level

	Leader Effectiveness			**Workplace Stress**			**Quality**		**Originality**	
	M	SD		M	SD		M	SD	M	SD
Emotion Management			***Empathy***			***Crisis***				
No Management	2.92	.81	*Low*	3.41	.64	*No Crisis*	2.41	.82	2.22	.79
						Crisis	2.78	.65	2.51	.63
			High	3.63	.65	*No Crisis*	2.64	.72	2.34	.53
						Crisis	2.56	.65	2.25	.62
Suppression	3.33	.86	*Low*	3.59	.51	*No Crisis*	2.85	.58	2.82	.63
						Crisis	2.48	.73	2.42	.79
			High	3.14	.65	*No Crisis*	2.21	.59	2.17	.70
						Crisis	3.03	.68	2.79	.66
Reappraisal	3.34	.76	*Low*	3.62	.61	*No Crisis*	2.58	.55	2.59	.79
						Crisis	2.83	.75	2.55	.76
			High	3.48	.55	*No Crisis*	2.58	.61	2.48	.74
						Crisis	2.73	.84	2.64	.75

Table 2

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Study Covariate and Dependent Variables

Study Variables		M	SD	1	2	3	4	5
1	Work-Related Stress	3.34	.72					
2	Leader Effectiveness	1.25	.82	-.26**				
3	Problem Solution Quality	2.63	.70	-.10	.10			
4	Problem Solution Originality	2.48	.72	-.12	.06	.80**		
Covariates								
5	Divergent Thinking	57.9	15.0	-.01	.10	.14*	.10	
6	Age	19.0	2.66	.04	-.08	.20*	.23**	.-.13

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Univariate Results of Study Independent Variables on Follower Outcomes

	Leader Effectiveness			**Workplace Stress**			**Quality**			**Originality**		
	F	P	η^2_p	F	P	η^2_p	F	P	η^2_p	F	P	η^2_p
Study Variable												
Emotion Management	7.10	.00	.06	.73	.48	.01	.44	.65	.00	2.70	.07	.02
Leader Empathy	23.63	.00	.10	3.16	.08	.02	.13	.72	.00	.70	.40	.00
Crisis	.12	.73	.00	1.11	.29	.01	6.32	.01	.03	1.17	.28	.01
Emotion Management x Leader Empathy	.86	.43	.01	3.91	.02	.03	.08	.93	.00	.14	.87	.00
Emotion Management x Crisis	.49	.62	.00	1.09	.34	.01	.42	.66	.00	.25	.78	.00
Leader Empathy x Crisis	.16	.69	.00	2.82	.09	.01	.83	.37	.00	1.38	.24	.01
Emotion Management x Leader Empathy x Crisis	.06	.94	.00	.92	.40	.01	8.56	.00	.07	4.83	.01	.04

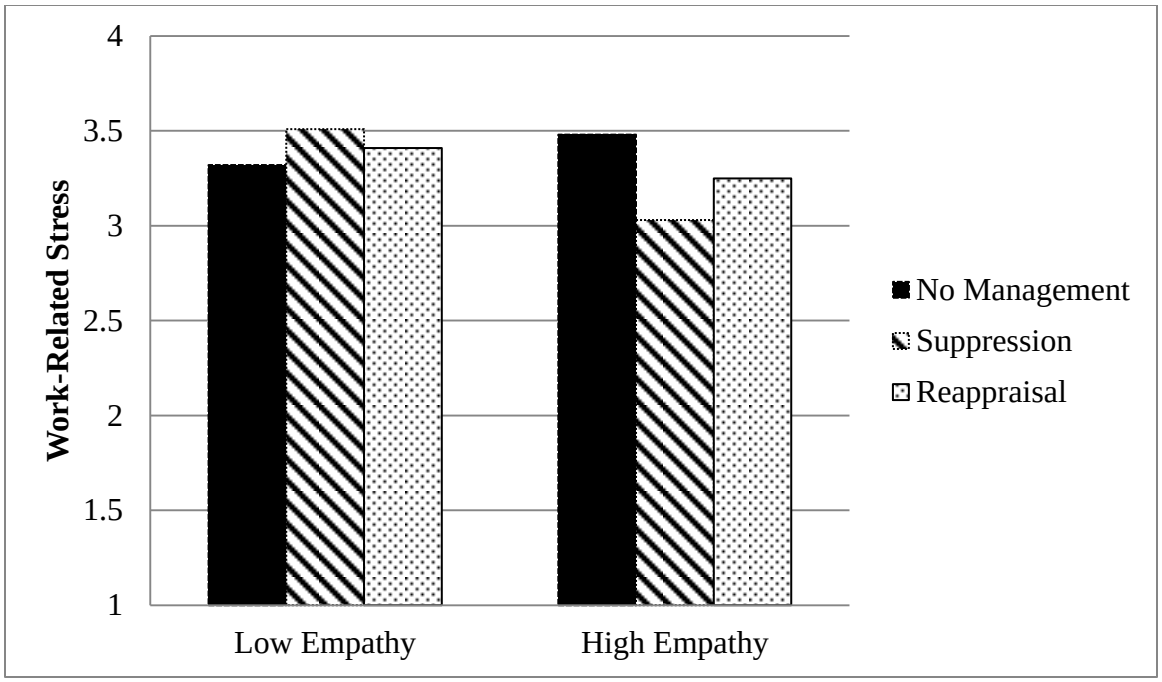


Figure 1. Two-way interaction between leader-facilitated emotion management and leader empathy on work-related stress.

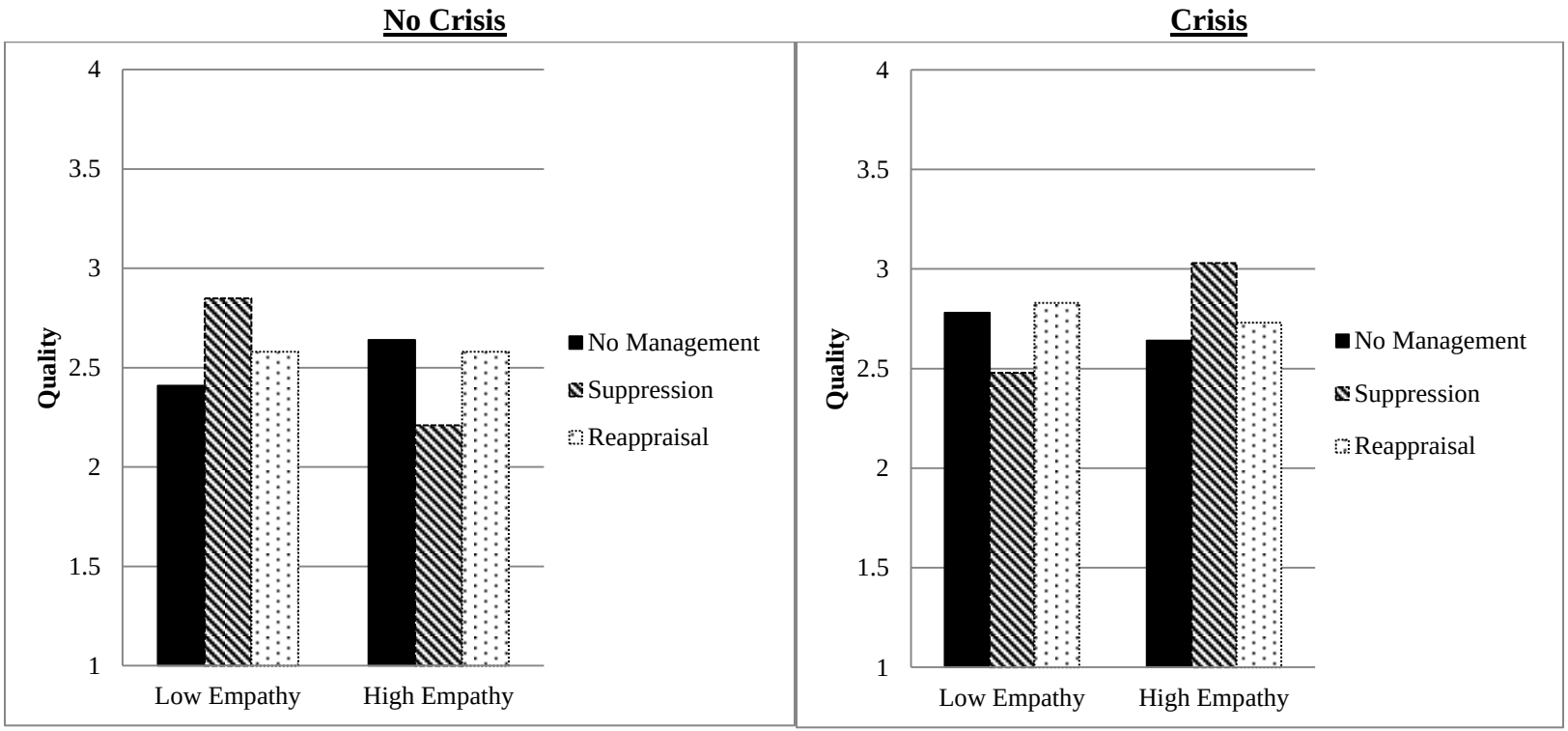


Figure 2. Three-way interaction between leader-facilitated emotion management, leader empathy, and crisis on creative problem-solution quality.

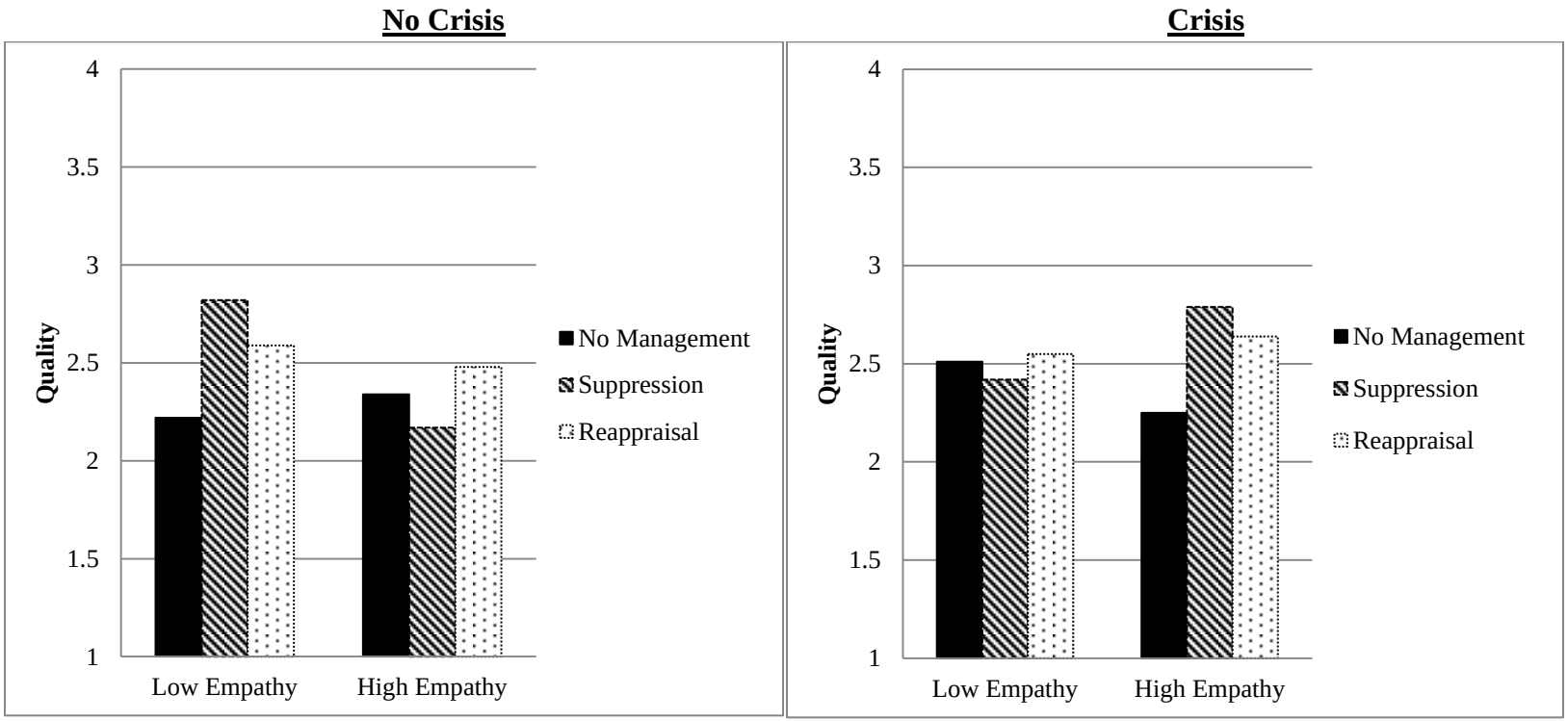


Figure 3. Three-way interaction between leader-facilitated emotion management, leader empathy, and crisis on creative problem-solution originality.

Appendix A

Position Background Information

Washington University Recruitment Scenario

Organization Background

Washington University is a large public university that enrolls around 25,000 people. It was established around the turn of the twentieth century and has a strong reputation among the nation's public universities. Washington has always enjoyed large enrollment classes as it offers a wide-range of academic degrees, low tuition, and has an excellent academic reputation. The school maintains somewhat rigorous admission standards, but this has only made the school more attractive to new students. Washington is recognized for its nationally ranked athletics system, which it also uses to attract prospective students.

Washington University's appeal extends to the local community. The city has a thriving cultural district and night-life that keep students entertained. Community leaders work hard to make sure that students feel welcome and that local activities are organized year-round. Local citizens seem to enjoy the college population and regularly support campus functions. Truly, Washington is located in a typical "college town."

Personal Background

You are **Pat Sayers**, a recruitment specialist at Washington University. After obtaining a bachelor's degree in recruitment management 7 years ago from Washington University, you were hired as one of the university's recruitment specialists. You have stayed on at Washington U. because you enjoy the responsibilities of your position; meeting with large groups of students and their families to discuss educational and career opportunities. While all of your original colleagues have moved on to higher paying jobs, you have remained loyal to Washington. Other opportunities certainly presented themselves over the years, and you have seriously considered moving on to more "career oriented" jobs, but you always decided to stay on at Washington with the hope that you could move up into a top administrator's role in the admissions and recruitment office.

Your Primary Responsibilities Include:

- Advise students and families regarding educational options and admissions policies
- Visit schools and colleges to speak with groups or individual students to develop partnerships between University and those institutions
- Organize community workshops, retreats, and special events to promote university

- Design and implement recruitment systems targeting large groups of prospective students
- Evaluate recruitment systems for utility and impact
- Create and distribute a range of promotional materials designed for recruitment efforts
- Prepare reports and proposals regarding recruitment activities
- Respond to inquiries from students and external institutions
- Assist with the formulation, development, implementation of admissions-related policies

Department

Your position is one of ten such positions in the Admissions Office at Washington University. Aside from recruitment efforts, the admissions office also manages admission applications, transcript evaluations, placement of advanced standings, and residency issues. The Admissions office had steadily grown in the number of personnel during your first four years of employment as the number of students increased. Recruitment efforts have expanded to all fifty states and multiple foreign countries, in which institutions have developed exchange ties with Washington University.

Appendix B

Crisis Manipulation Contextual Information

Current Situation (Crisis Condition)

Recently, Washington University's enrollment has been cut 13% as a result of the economic recession. The falling enrollment, plus state education budget cuts have forced the university to make a series of internal budget cuts over the past two years, which has led to the elimination of administration, untenured faculty, and academic systems. This next year an additional 4 percent university-wide cut will be made. The university has tried numerous approaches to maintain enrollment, including heavy advertising systems, low-income scholarships, and avoiding large tuition hikes. This next year, though, the university plans on raising tuition by 15 percent, its largest increase ever, to offset the mounting budget deficits.

Your office, obviously, has been one of the hardest hit by the falling enrollment and economic recession. The budget cuts have forced a number of layoffs in the Admissions Office, mostly among admission officers and administrative personnel. The university had hoped to maintain the current number of recruitment specialists for fear that it might further harm enrollment, but the latest cuts have resulted in the laying off of a number of the recruitment specialists. You are grateful that you still have a job, but worry that you could be next if things get worse. The lay-offs have put your team in a tough situation, especially since the University announced that they are seeking a complete overhaul to the University's recruitment system. The university administrators feel that the existing system is non-systematic, disorganized and focuses on issues no longer important to current students. In fact, University Officials expect to see a new recruitment system in just a couple of months, so that the new system can be implemented during the next academic year.

Washington University's Director of Admissions has asked that the recruitment specialists work together on a proposal for the new recruitment system. You were told that the proposal should outline the specific elements of the new recruitment system, which you will develop once a proposal is approved. The University has outlined some key objectives that they would like the new recruitment system to meet, which you are asked to consider in both your proposal and subsequent system plan. Those objectives were as follows: *(turn to next page)*

Current Situation (No Crisis Condition)

Recently, Washington University's enrollment has been cut 2% as a result of the economic recession. The non-improving enrollment has worried University Officials, who fear that further decline could lead to larger budget cuts, which would lead to the

elimination of university personnel. The university considered a small budget cut for this next year, but has been able to find funds to preserve the existing budget. The university has tried numerous approaches to maintain enrollment, including heavy advertising systems, low-income scholarships, and avoiding large tuition hikes. This next year, though, the university plans on raising tuition by 3% percent to protect against any future budget cuts.

Your office, obviously, has been somewhat influence by the slight dip in enrollment and the economic recession. The possibility of budget cuts has been the cause for cuts in recruitment advertising, and for cutting non-essential recruitment positions. The University hopes to maintain the current number of recruitment specialists for fear that any changes might further harm enrollment. Plus, recruitment specialists will be needed in the coming year since the University announced that they are seeking a complete overhaul to the University's recruitment system. The university administrators feel that the existing system is non-systematic, disorganized and focuses on issues no longer important to current students. University Officials expect to see a new recruitment system in a year or two, so that the new system can be implemented in a couple of academic years.

Washington University's Director of Admissions has asked that the recruitment specialists work together on a proposal for the new recruitment system. You were told that the proposal should outline the specific elements of the new recruitment system, which you will develop once a proposal is approved. The University has outlined some key objectives that they would like the new recruitment system to meet, which you are asked to consider in both your proposal and subsequent system plan. Those objectives were as follows:

- Identifies prospective students who represent the best fit for Washington University
- Develops a strategic system to coordinate recruitment efforts between university recruiters, departments, and university systems
- Establishes formal relationships with local high schools and community colleges
- Includes the development University advertisements that emphasize both academic success of students and quality of life
- Includes the development external and internal feedback systems for recruitment system

You work tirelessly on the proposal, which addressed the specific criteria listed above. The proposal is meticulously put together, addressing the costs and benefits of different recruitment initiatives and programs. You, and your boss, believe that it provides more

than enough information for the University Administrators to make a decision on whether you should proceed with the new recruitment system. The proposal is delivered to the Director of Admissions on time, and he tells you that he will be meeting with the University President and other officials in the next couple of days to review the proposal. Given the current situation, you hope that everyone is pleased with the work you have done. Also, you hope that this proposal could be what you need to get recognized and receive a much deserved promotion

A week passes and you receive a group email from the University President, which was sent to all members of the University Admissions office, and is as follows: *(turn to next page)*

Appendix C

Leader-Facilitated Emotion Management Manipulation Email with Low Empathy Tone

From : Casey Smart <csmart@csu.edu>
To : Pat Sayers<psayers@csu.edu>
Subject : Recruitment System Proposal?

Hey Pat,

Well, it seems as if the director has taken matters into their own hands. I find the whole situation interesting, but this is the decision that she has made and you'll need to accept it.

(Reappraisal) I'm not entirely sure why the director did this, but I figure it had something to do with his own job security. He might have been feeling some pressure from University officials, and decided that he needed to take credit for this proposal with the hopes that it would boost his image. He might have also felt justified in taking credit for this proposal since he is our director. He must have had some important reason to act the way he did. It could be that he didn't even try to take credit, but that the University Officials assumed he put the proposal together since it came from him. I'm trying to better understand the situation so that we can move forward.

(Suppression) I'm going to try and put the situation behind me. What's done is done. We still have a job to do, and I don't want this situation to interfere with that. I know that if you dwell on this unfortunate event it will do no good. I'm trying to maintain a positive attitude through it all and I would encourage you to do the same.

Sincerely,
Casey

p.s. I've attached a form on which you can provide ideas and details for the new recruitment system. I'll need a lot of help and input on this so please take some time on it.

Appendix D

Leader-Facilitated Emotion Management Manipulation Email with High Empathy Tone

From : Casey Smart <csmart@csu.edu>
To : Pat Sayers<psayers@csu.edu>
Subject : Recruitment System Proposal?

Hey Pat,

I can't believe how this situation has played out. I would have never thought that something like this could ever have happened. I totally understand your anger, as I am also very angry that we are not getting due credit. It is really too bad that you won't be properly recognized because you do really good work and deserve to be promoted.

(Reappraisal) I'm not entirely sure why the director did this, but I figure it had something to do with his own job security. He might have been feeling some pressure from University officials, and decided that he needed to take credit for this proposal with the hopes that it would boost his image. While I think it is hard to imagine, he might have also felt justified in taking credit for this proposal since he is our director. It's baffling, but I just keep thinking that he had some important reason to act the way he did. Maybe it's naïve of me, but it could be that he didn't even try to take credit, but that the University Officials assumed he put the proposal together since it came from him. I hope that this is the case, and that we can fix things. I'm trying to better understand the situation so that we can move forward.

(Suppression) As bad as I feel about the situation, especially for you, I'm going to try and put the situation behind me. What's done is done. We still have a job to do, and I don't want this situation to interfere with that. You are the best recruitment specialist we have, and I know that if you dwell on this unfortunate event it will do no good. I'm trying to maintain a positive attitude through it all and I would encourage you to do the same.

Sincerely,
Casey

p.s. I've attached a form on which you can provide ideas and details for the new recruitment system. I'll need a lot of help and input on this so please take some time on it.

Appendix E

Post Questionnaire Measure

Instructions: Please circle the appropriate response.

1. To what extent was the university being hurt by the economic recession?

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	MUCH	VERY MUCH

2. To what extent was your job being threatened?

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	MUCH	VERY MUCH

3. To what extend did you feel angry that the credit for the ideas for your proposal were inappropriately taken?

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	MUCH	VERY MUCH

4. To what extend did you feel like what happened to you was unfair?

1	**2**	**3**	**4**
NOT AT ALL	SOMEWHAT	MUCH	VERY MUCH

5. To what extent did you think about your boss' suggestions in dealing with the Director taking credit for the proposal?

1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
NOT AT ALL		MODERATE EXTENT		GREAT EXTENT

6. To what extent did you find your boss' suggestions helpful in dealing with the Director taking credit for the proposal?

1	2	3	4	5
NOT AT ALL		MODERATE EXTENT		GREAT EXTENT

7. To what extent do you think your boss was sympathetic to your situation in deal with the Director taking credit for the proposal?

1	2	3	4	5
NOT AT ALL		MODERATE EXTENT		GREAT EXTENT

8. To what extent do you think your boss really cared that the Director took credit for the proposal?

1	2	3	4	5
NOT AT ALL		MODERATE EXTENT		GREAT EXTENT

9. To what extent did you find the activities in this experiment interesting and engaging?

1	2	3	4	5
NOT AT ALL		SOMEWHAT		VERY MUCH SO

10. To what extent did you try to fully complete all the activities in this experiment?

1	2	3	4	5
NOT AT ALL		SOMEWHAT		VERY MUCH SO

11. To what extent did you find that developing a new recruitment system was interesting and engaging?

1	2	3	4	5
NOT AT ALL		SOMEWHAT		VERY MUCH SO

12. How challenging was it to provide ideas for a new recruitment system?

1	2	3	4	5
NOT AT ALL		SOMEWHAT		VERY MUCH SO

13. When you were providing details and ideas for a new recruitment system, how important was it to you that you found the best solutions for the outlined issues and objectives?

1	2	3	4	5
NOT AT ALL		SOMEWHAT		VERY MUCH SO

14. To what extent did you find the study scenario to be interesting and engaging?

1	2	3	4	5
NOT AT ALL		SOMEWHAT		VERY MUCH SO

15. How tired were you after finishing the final open-ended writing task?

1	2	3	4	5
NOT AT ALL		SOMEWHAT		VERY MUCH SO

Appendix F

Divergent Thinking Scale - Consequences

CONSEQUENCES

In this task you will be presented with 5 different questions. We would like you to generate as many responses to these questions as possible. Each question has 4 sample responses to get you started. **Do not use the sample responses in your answers**.

You will have **2 minutes** to work on each question. The proctor will instruct you when to begin and when to stop working on each question.

SAMPLE QUESTION:

What would be the results if people no longer needed or wanted sleep?

SAMPLE RESPONSES:

1. Get more work done
2. Alarm clock not necessary
3. No need for lullaby song books
4. Sleeping pills no longer used
5. _____

Of course, there are many other possible answers that could have been written.



Stop

Do not turn the page until instructed to do so.

LIST AS MANY CONSEQUENCES AS YOU CAN.

What would be the results if it appeared certain that within three months the entire surface of the earth would be covered with water, except for a few highest mountain peaks?

Sample Responses:
a. Everyone will move to mountain peak.
b. Increased sale of boats.
c. Business failure
d. Panic

Start Time: _____

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____

Stop Time: _____

LIST AS MANY DIFFERENT CONSEQUENCES AS YOU CAN.

What would be the results if everyone lost the ability to read and write?

Sample Reponses:
a. No newspapers or magazines
b. No libraries
c. No mail or letters
d. T.V. sales increase

Start Time: _____

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____

Stop Time: _____

LIST AS MANY DIFFERENT CONSEQUENCES AS YOU CAN.

What would be the results if human life continued on earth without death?

Sample Reponses:
a. Overpopulation
b. More old people
c. Housing shortage
d. No more funerals

Start Time: _____

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____

Stop Time: _____

LIST AS MANY DIFFERENT CONSEQUENCES AS YOU CAN.

What would be the results if the force of gravity were suddenly cut in half?

Sample Responses:
a. Jump Higher
b. More accidents
c. Less effort to work
d. Easier to lift things

Start Time: _____

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____

Stop Time: _____

LIST AS MANY DIFFERENT CONSEQUENCES AS YOU CAN.

What would be the results if suddenly no one could use their arms or hands?

Sample Responses:
a. Learn to use feet more
b. No need for gloves
c. Clothing would be changed
d. Couldn't drive cars

Start Time: _____

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____
16. _____

Stop Time: _____

Appendix G

Perceptions of Leader Effectiveness Scale (adapted from Chemers et al., 2000)

Please answer following questions about your boss, Jeff, using the following scale 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

1. The boss encouraged creativity and innovation.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

2. The boss was helpful in accomplishing my tasks.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

3. The boss was qualified to be the boss.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

4. The boss was able to motivate me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

5. The boss encouraged a positive outlook.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

6. The boss managed conflicts in a positive manner.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

7. The boss provided sound advice that was helpful.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

8. The boss helped me to think critically.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

Appendix H

Work Related Stress Measure (adapted from Maslach et al., 2001)

Please answer the following questions about your feelings towards your job as a university recruiter at Central State University using the following scale 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

1. This job is emotionally draining.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

2. Working in this organization is a source of frustration to me.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

3. There is strain from working in this organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

4. I feel motivated to go to this job.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

5. I feel pressured in my job.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

6. I am discouraged about my position in this organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

7. I feel overwhelmed by my work.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

8. I feel frustrated with my position in this organization.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

Appendix I

Demographics Survey

Instructions: Please fill or circle the appropriate response

1. What is your age: _____

2. What is your gender?
   A) Male
   B) Female

3. What is your ethnicity?
   A) Caucasian
   B) Asian
   C) Hispanic
   D) African-American
   E) Native American
   F) Other_____

4a. Is English your first language?
   A) Yes
   B) No

4b. If NO, how proficient are you in English?
   A) Bilingual
   B) Full proficiency
   C) Moderate proficiency
   D) Limited proficiency
   E) Elementary proficiency

5. What is your major? _____

6. What year in school are you?
   A) Freshman
   B) Sophomore
   C) Junior
   D) Senior
   E) Other_____

7. How many psychology classes have you taken thus far?

A) None
B) 1-2
C) 3-4
D) 5-6
E) More than 6

8. Did you know about the activities you would have to perform during this experiment prior to participation (i.e., were you told by anyone)?

1	**2**
YES	NO

9. Did you believe in the described purpose of the study?

1	**2**
YES	NO

10. Now that you've completed the experiment, please describe in 2-3 sentences the purpose of this study (i.e., what researchers are examining in this study).

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

11. Have you had any involvement in campus recruitment activities? (circle one)

A) Yes B) No

Appendix J

Creative Problem-Solving Task

Instructions:

Using the objectives listed, write down the ideas and details you have for a new recruitment system. Essentially, discuss how and what you would do to persuade prospective students to come to Northern Plains University? Consider what resources you could use to establish this system? What would you promote? Who would you target in this new system? How would the system vary for different types of students? How would you best establish contact with the prospective students? What factors could de-rail or harm the success of the system?