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Leader Emotion Management Behavior and Perceived Leader Effectiveness: The Moderating Roles of Gender and Culture

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Leader Emotion Management Behavior and Perceived Leader Effectiveness:
The Moderating Roles of Gender and Culture

by

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A thesis submitted to the School of Psychology of
Florida Institute of Technology
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

Master of Science
in
Industrial/Organizational Psychology

Melbourne, Florida
December, 2016

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Leader Emotion Management Behavior and Perceived Leader Effectiveness:
The Moderating Roles of Gender and Culture

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Abstract

Title: Leader Emotion Management Behavior and Perceived Leader Effectiveness:
The Moderating Roles of Gender and Culture

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A key aspect of successful management includes a leader's responsibility to manage employees' emotions (Leavitt & Bahrami, 1988). This form of management can be reflected in a number of behaviors, such as demonstrating consideration and support for employees, providing frequent emotional "uplifts," and managing interactions and relationships among coworkers (Kaplan, Cortina, Ruark, LaPort, & Nicolaides, 2014). Emotion-related skills and abilities have been supported as critical assets in management (e.g., George, 2000; Pescosolido, 2002). However, this evidence has not been sufficiently verified in a cross-cultural setting. The cultural value of gender egalitarianism, or the degree of gender role differentiation in a society (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004), is hypothesized to moderate the extent to which leader emotion management (LEM) behavior is linked to effectiveness. Although that particular relationship is not supported in this research, exploratory analyses indicated a potential link between gender egalitarianism and gender-based differences in leader emotion management behavior.

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Acknowledgment

I would like to thank Dr. Erin Richard for her brilliance, patience, and support throughout my research. She guided me through every step of conducting this research and writing my thesis, and I am grateful to have her as an advisor and committee chair.

Additionally, I am thankful to Dr. Jessica Wildones and Dr. Christopher Podlesnik for their advice and contributions as committee members. Their feedback helped determine the direction of this research, and is very much appreciated.

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my father who once told me:

“I don’t know where you got all of the determination, drive, and discipline that it has taken to accomplish what you have done... If I had any role at all, I am happy that I have been able to give you the opportunity to be here.”

I would like to take this opportunity to let him know that whatever drive or discipline I might have is inspired by the example he has set for me with his own life. I revere his intellect, humility, and sophistication, among other qualities, and am determined to strive for such merit myself.

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Introduction

Any workplace experience entails some emotional aspect. Whether an employee is stressed about workload, frustrated from not getting along well with a coworker, or proud of an accomplishment, emotions can run high in the workplace. Employee emotions are of interest to organizations because those emotions can have important consequences. For example, employees' emotions can influence job performance, teamwork, leadership, decision making, and creativity (Barsade & Gibson, 2007). Given the significance of emotions in the workplace, researchers have turned to finding practical solutions for effectively managing employees' emotions. One such perspective is to view the leader as a manager of employee emotions (Humphrey, Kellett, Sleeth, & Hartman, 2008; Pescosolido, 2002). Leaders have been shown to hold significant influence, both in the emergence and the management of their followers' emotions (Humphrey et al., 2008; Pescosolido, 2002). Thus, managing emotions is an integral aspect to management. Some argue that emotion management is as important as other managerial roles, such as managing finances (Leavitt & Bahrami, 1988).

Most of the research supporting the significance of leader emotion management and similar topics has been theoretically developed and empirically studied in Western societies. Examining cross-cultural differences in the leader emotion management role is important because other affect-related constructs, such

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as emotional display rules, emotional intelligence, and empathy, have been shown to differ across cultures (e.g., Matsumoto et al., 2009; Ekermans, 2009; Sadri, Weber, & Gentry, 2011). For instance, although emotions are universal, the perception of emotions and norms for emotional expression are contingent upon an individual's cultural background (Matsumoto, 1989). It follows logically that the perception and effectiveness of leader emotion management would vary across cultures, as does the perception of many different leader behaviors (Bono & Barron, 2008; House et al., 2004). The current research endeavors to investigate this idea.

One reason why leader emotion management behavior may have differing effectiveness across cultures is cross-cultural variation in gender egalitarianism, a construct identified by the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research program (House et al., 2004). They define gender egalitarianism as the extent to which a society minimalizes the gender role gap. High gender egalitarian societies experience more gender equality and more women in the labor force and in leadership positions. With women being stereotyped as significantly more emotional than men (Shields, 2002) and empathy being more valued with female leaders (Gentry, Clark, Young, Cullen, & Zimmerman, 2015), we propose that leader emotion management behaviors are more effective in societies where women are more accepted as leaders. Additionally, we put forth that a smaller gap in gender differences in leader

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emotion management behavior effectiveness would be found in more gender egalitarian societies due to more shared gender roles.

Understanding the impact that gender egalitarianism has on the effectiveness of leader emotion management behaviors can be informative and helpful, especially for individuals relocating to another country who seek to be effective leaders. Additionally, individuals working in their home countries outside of Western society could gain a better perspective on these management techniques and to what extent they should be used.

Emotion management is arguably a key aspect to successful leadership (Humphrey et al., 2008; Leavitt & Bahrami, 1988). Moreover, there is a need for cross-cultural theories of leadership in order to discern what is effective in different environments (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002). Tying these two claims together, there exists a void in current theory and empirical work in that little is known about differences in the efficacy of leader emotion management across cultures.

Literature Review

Research Linking Leadership and Follower Emotion

Leadership is intrinsically an emotional process as leaders are tasked with managing the emotions of subordinates in order to maintain an efficient and productive workplace (e.g., Humphrey, 2002; Humphrey et al., 2008). Managers frequently deal with conflict resolution among employees and require a certain degree of interpersonal skill to be successful (e.g., George, 2000). Beyond this,

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extraordinary leaders often execute the responsibility of inspiring and motivating employees, which no doubt entails both management of their own emotions and the evocation of desired emotions in subordinates (e.g., Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011).

Leader emotion management has also been integrated into Affective Events Theory, which posits that work events impact the emotional reactions of employees, and that emotional reactions then impact employees' attitudes and behavior (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Specifically, Humphrey et al. (2008) argue that leaders can either be the cause of the affective event or they can moderate the impact of an affective event for an employee. These authors also argue that leaders can have a substantial impact on the general affective state of subordinates working in a team, and this influence on team affect in turn drives that team's performance. Similarly, Pirola-Merlo, Hartel, Mann, and Hirst (2002) empirically demonstrated that leaders have the ability to enhance team performance by boosting subordinates' moods. In all, four areas of research have focused on the emotional roles that leaders play. These include transformational leadership research, research on leader empathy, research on leader emotional contagion, and research on leader emotional intelligence.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational or charismatic leadership describes leaders who communicate a shared vision of the future, motivate employees to work beyond their own interests, and inspire them intellectually to create change in an

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organization. Theories of transformational leadership include an examination of the emotional relationship between a leader and follower (e.g., Bass, 1985). For example, Ashkanasy and Tse (2000) proposed a theoretical link between emotional intelligence and transformational leadership through the management of self and others' emotions, positing that aspects of transformational leadership such as communicating a vision and intuitive insight reflect an emotional competency in the leader. Similarly, McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) revealed that by inducing optimism in subordinates, transformational leaders were able to increase subordinates' performance and successful goal attainment even while employees were dealing with frustrating work events.

Empathy

Humphrey (2002) describes empathy as “an important trait for leaders who manage with emotion” (p. 494), and Mayer and Salovey (1997) argue that empathy is central to emotional intelligence, described later. A dissertation by Burch (2014) empirically established that leaders who accurately sensed emotion and responded with appropriate empathy were rated as more effective by subordinates. He also found that these leaders had more engaged subordinates. Furthermore, Scott, Colquitt, Paddock, and Judge (2010) empirically determined that empathic managers received less somatic complaints from employees, and that goal progress was more strongly correlated with positive affect in those groups of employees. Thus, leaders displaying empathy have the potential to not only impact employee well-being, but also increase their own effectiveness.

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Emotional Contagion

The connection between leader emotion management and leader effectiveness is made clear by Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011), who stated that “leaders exert much of their influence by influencing the moods of their followers” (p. 218). One way to achieve leader influence on employee emotion is through emotional contagion. Emotional contagion is the spreading of emotions between people (Hatfield, Cacioppa, & Rapson, 1992). For example, Sy, Cote, and Saavedra (2005) found that when leaders were in a positive mood, their group members “caught” that positive mood, which led to greater cooperation among members. However, when leaders were in a negative mood, group members “caught” the negative mood, but put more effort into the task at hand.

Newcombe and Ashkanasy (2002) established that ratings of leaders in a simulated performance appraisal context was influenced more so by their emotional expression than the objective content of their message. Furthermore, through qualitative research, Pescosolido (2002) found that emergent leaders more aptly interpreted what the optimal emotional response would be for the group’s current need and subsequently modeled that response to influence the group. In doing so, the emergent leader was able to create a communal atmosphere of shared emotional experience, demonstrating the utility of emotional contagion.

Emotional Intelligence

Leader knowledge and skills as they relate to emotion are believed to influence a number of crucial outcomes in the workplace, and this belief has

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spurred research and practice (i.e., George, 2000; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Ramchunder & Martins, 2014). Leader emotional intelligence (EI) has garnered substantial support as a key component of effective leadership through such outcomes as the development of common goals, inducing appreciation for work tasks, inducing motivation, optimism and excitement, and creating a meaningful collective identity (George, 2000). EI can be defined as the ability to perceive, use, understand, and manage emotion both in the self and others (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2004). Additionally, Humphrey (2002) proposed one particular aspect of EI—the management of others’ emotions—is a major leadership function.

Leadership effectiveness being augmented by leader EI has also been supported through empirical research. In a review of EI, Walter, Cole, and Humphrey (2011) found that 13 out of 15 studies either partially or fully supported the relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness. Moreover, Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005) demonstrated that leader EI was related to their own performance as rated by superiors. Sy, Tram, and O’Hara (2006) found a correlation between leader EI and subordinates’ job satisfaction and performance ratings. The empirical studies supporting leader emotion skills, such as EI or other forms of emotion management, indicate that emotion is a critical aspect of leadership with noteworthy outcomes.

Theoretical Models of Leader Emotion Management

A more recent line of research on the leader’s emotional role in organizations focuses on leader actions that directly influence their followers’

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emotions. Managers have the influence to either subtly or explicitly affect the emotions of their subordinates in order to maintain workplace stability and increase productivity. This influence is particularly useful during times of change and uncertainty in an organization, when employees are struggling to work together in teams, or when subordinates need to be motivated (Kaplan et al., 2014; Mullins, Cortina, LaPort, Weis, & DiRosa, 2014). These behaviors have collectively come to be categorized as Leader Emotion Management (LEM) in the literature (Kaplan et al., 2014; Mullins et al., 2014). Mullins et al. (2014) describes LEM as “a combination of behaviors that both directly and indirectly influence employees’ emotions” (p. 231).

The LEM construct is closely tied to that of EI (Humphrey et al., 2008). However, the focus with LEM is on the visible, behavioral displays that organizational leaders engage in to manage their employees’ emotions. Such behaviors could be an expression of leaders’ EI but not necessarily. EI, as an intelligence, reflects internal cognitive processes and the associated abilities, rather than behaviors (Kaplan et al., 2014). For example, a leader’s ability to perceive others’ emotions (part of the EI construct) may or may not manifest in that leader’s behavior toward his or her subordinates.

Based on research with military leaders, Kaplan et al. (2014) developed a list of eight LEM behaviors—that is, behaviors that leaders engage in that influence the emotions of their followers. Their eight leader LEM behaviors are as follows: (1) *interacting and communicating in an interpersonally tactful manner*, (2)

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demonstrating consideration and support for employees, (3) using emotional displays to influence employees' behavior, (4) structuring work tasks with consideration for employees' emotions, (5) providing frequent emotional "uplifts," (6) behaving in a fair and ethical manner, (7) managing interactions and relationships among coworkers, and (8) maintaining open and frequent communication (Kaplan et al., 2014).

Interacting and communicating in an interpersonally tactful manner refers to optimizing interactions between manager and subordinate given the characteristics of the subordinate and the situation. Kaplan et al. (2014) proposed that leaders must show a fitting level of tact while displaying the right amount of appropriate emotion and withholding from any disrespectful behaviors.

Demonstrating consideration and support for employees means showing genuine and empowering concern for their subordinates not only during times of change or stress but also in every day interactions. *Using emotional displays to influence employees' behaviors* refers to leader emotional expressions, such as yelling, appearing stern, using inspiring language, and more, that evoke emotional states in their followers.

Kaplan et al. (2014) explain that the main goal with *structuring work tasks with consideration for employees' emotions* is to assign subordinates to tasks and work environments that induce the optimum emotional states to encourage efficient and productive job-related performance. For example, leaders can structure work tasks while keeping in mind that negative affect can be induced by tasks with

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emotional labor (Grandey, 2000), ambiguity, or role stress (Fisher, 2003), and positive affect can be induced by tasks with goal achievement and successful task completion (Basch & Fisher, 2000). Although they may not be able to shield subordinates from all negative emotions, leaders may be able to balance tasks so that positive emotions are induced to help employees recover from negative emotions (Fredrickson, 2001).

In Kaplan et al.'s model, leaders can also *provide frequent emotional "uplifts"* by praising and rewarding employees for exceptional work, and also through their own positive affect and everyday language. *Behaving in a fair and ethical manner* entails demonstrating integrity in actions and decision-making. The main consequences of leaders violating ethical behavior is workplace anger and distrust, which can then lead to employee turnover and absenteeism (Ambrose & Cropanzano, 2003). On the other hand, if leaders act fairly, their employees perceive them as more honest, likable, and trustworthy (Brown & Treviño, 2006).

In order to *manage interactions and relationships among coworkers*, Kaplan et al. (2014) suggest that leaders can establish an environment conducive to optimal affective and performance outcomes, along with managing any disruptions in this environment that develop through coworker interactions. For example, when putting teams together and designing the physical workspace for employees, leaders can recognize the differing characteristics of employees, to promote ideal workplace interactions. Lastly, Kaplan et al. (2014) posit that by *maintaining open and frequent communication*, leaders are providing information and feedback not

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only during times of crisis but also every day, thus conveying a sense of respect for employees and their needs in the organization. This impacts employees because enhanced communication reduces uncertainty, which in turn, reduces employee anxiety (Huy, 2002).

This research utilizes Kaplan et al.'s (2014) model for LEM behaviors; however, for comparative purposes another model will be briefly reviewed. Connelly, Friedrich, Vessey, Klabzuba, Day, & Ruark (2014) developed a conceptual framework for LEM as well. They posit that managing followers' emotions requires specific knowledge, skills, and abilities (i.e., knowledge of emotion norms, emotion recognition skill, ability to regulate own emotions) that are influenced by both individual differences, such as personality and cognitive ability, and situational moderators, such as uncertainty and conflict. From here Connelly et al. (2014) connect LEM to specific leadership domains where LEM is most likely applicable: providing inspirational motivation, resolving conflict, negotiating, providing feedback, assessing risk, making ethical decisions, and thinking creatively to solve problems. Although Connelly et al. (2014) provide a well-founded conceptual framework for LEM, the set of knowledge, skills, and abilities they propose are more likely to serve as antecedents to the explicit behaviors proposed in the Kaplan et al. (2014) model. Because leader behaviors are more observable and more proximal drivers of leader success, the research draws from the Kaplan et al. (2014) model of LEM. Kaplan et al. (2014) also included a set of

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knowledge and skills related to emotion that precede the explicit behaviors

mentioned to provide a comprehensive model for LEM.

Gender Differences in Emotions & Leadership

Any thorough discussion of emotion in leadership contexts would be incomplete without a review of gender differences. In the early 1970s, Schein conducted a line of research concluding that when individuals think about managers, they associate the role with male qualities, an idea often referred to as “think manager-think male” (Schein, 1973; 1975). To elaborate, individuals typically believe that effective leadership entails masculine attributes, such as assertiveness, decisiveness, and dominance (Schein, Mueller, Lituchy, & Liu, 1996). Years later, Schein’s (1973) research was reaffirmed in that descriptions of masculine characteristics remained closer to descriptions of a successful manager than descriptions of feminine characteristics (Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989).

Gender Role Theory (Eagly, 1987) suggests that men are expected to be more agentic and task-oriented, while women are expected to be more communal and socially-oriented. According to Shields (2002), one of the most strongly held gender stereotypes in Western cultures is the judgment that women are more emotional than men. Many argue that this stereotype influences the prototypical view of a leader and therefore stands in the way of women aiming for leadership positions (e.g., Brescoll, 2016). Dolan (2014) proposed that most people think that women do not hold as many leadership positions because they are too emotional.

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Leader prototypes are a key aspect of implicit leadership theories (ILTs) as they were conceptualized by Lord and Mayer (1991). ILTs represent the characteristics that leaders are attributed as well as the perceptions of leaders. Although called “theories,” ILTs are more like sets of individual beliefs about the characteristics that a leader should hold. Essentially, ILTs reflect the expectations that individuals hold their leaders to, based on their prototype of a leader, and therefore ILTs vary across individuals but also show substantial similarities among members of similar groups (e.g., cultures). These expectations are revealed through subordinate ratings of their supervisors, in that an individual tends to rate a leader as more effective when the leader’s characteristics match up with the individual’s prototype for a leader. To clarify, the use of the word *theory* in the rest of this document refers to a proposed explanation or conjecture that is examined through research; however, the term implicit leadership theory refers to a set of beliefs or expectations for leader behavior held by an individual or group.

As Schein et al. (1996) would put forth, many characteristics found in ILTs are stereotypically held by men, such as decisiveness or task-orientation. Building on this theoretical foundation, Role Congruity Theory posits that there exists a bias against women in leadership roles because the stereotypical perception of a woman is incongruent with the qualities that are generally associated with successful leaders—qualities which reflect male stereotypes (Eagly & Karau, 2002). For example, if a female leader is perceived as being sensitive and passive, that would

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be inconsistent with the image of a successful leader needing to be competitive and strong.

Implicit Leadership Theory and Role Congruity Theory help explain why men are more commonly found in leadership roles. Because traditionally masculine characteristics are more acceptable and expected in those roles, women who hold leadership positions are often perceived less favorably than their male counterparts. On the other hand, the LEM behavior represents a leader role that seems more consistent with female stereotypes. According to Sapp, Harrod, and Zhao (1996), “men are expected to focus on controlling task-related discussion, while women are expected to make contributions to social harmony” (p. 66). Continuing with the underlying theory behind Role Congruity Theory, that what is expected is rewarded, it follows logically that compassionate and sensitive displays, as more communal and socially facilitating behaviors, would be more rewarded when they come from female leaders. In fact, these behaviors may be *expected* of female leaders to a greater extent than they are expected of male leaders, and female leaders may be perceived negatively for failing to perform these behaviors. This is, in fact, what empirical research has discovered.

Gentry et al. (2015) examined gender as a moderator of the relationship between empathic concern and potential career derailment. They define empathic concern as leaders’ feelings of warmth, compassion, and concern for others. Given Schein et al.’s (1996) “think manager-think male” theory and Role Congruity Theory, it is likely that when female leaders display empathy, they may simply

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shed light on the incongruity between their feminine characteristics and the masculine characteristics typically associated with successful leaders. On the other hand, if female leaders are displaying compassionate and sensitive behaviors, they may be perceived favorably because their behaviors match expectations for how a woman typically behaves.

Ultimately, Gentry et al. (2015) found that the negative relationship between empathic concern and boss-rated career derailment was statistically significant only for female leaders, showing that empathic behaviors were more valued in female leaders. The negative relationship between peer-rated career derailment and empathic concern was statistically significant for both male and female leaders, but stronger for female leaders (Gentry et al., 2015). Drawing on this literature, it is plausible that because women are stereotyped as more emotional, and because what is expected is rewarded, LEM behaviors may be more valued from female leaders. However, more research is needed to investigate this idea.

Leadership Theory Across Cultures

Leadership and its associated theories are well-supported in empirical research, but most of that research originated in Western societies. It is necessary to continue broadening the scope of leadership theory and ensure cross-cultural viability of these theories. Do ILTs and the “think manager-think male” model discussed earlier hold strong in all corners of the world? Schein et al. (1996) sampled from five different nations and found universal support for their

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hypothesis that men are more likely to be perceived as holding the qualities of a successful leader. Further support for the notion that effective leadership behavior can be relatively stable across cultures comes from literature promoting that attributes of transformational or charismatic leaders are universally endorsed (Den Hartog et al., 1999; House et al., 2004).

Despite these examples, there is a general tendency for cross-cultural research to promote the idea that different cultural groups hold different expectations and perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Den Hartog et al., 1999; House et al., 1999). Lord and Mayer (1991) mention culture can impact the attributes of an ILT prototype. Similarly, House et al. (2002) argue that the development and sharing of ILT profiles are impacted by the societal culture and practices. Thus, ILTs can be differentiated across cultures, and are referred to as culturally endorsed leadership theories (CLTs) (House et al., 2004).

The concept of CLTs was supported by the GLOBE research program, a series of studies conducted by a vast network of researchers across the world in order to investigate organizational leadership in the context of societal and organizational culture and practices (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE studies surveyed thousands of middle managers in three different industries (food processing, finance, and telecommunications) across 62 countries (House et al., 2004). Their work produced nine cultural value dimensions: performance orientation, future orientation, assertiveness, power distance, humane orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and gender

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egalitarianism. These value dimensions help explain cultural differences that can then be studied in the pursuit of understanding differences in leadership across cultures.

Furthermore, the GLOBE research program outline six CLTs, or sets of expected leader behaviors, that are partially determined by cultural practices and values and therefore vary in acceptance across cultures: charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, participative, humane, self-protective, and autonomous (House et al., 1999). Endorsement of the importance of these leader dimensions correlates with different values that societies maintain. Some of the universally endorsed attributes of these styles include, intelligent, decisive, motivational, and trustworthy; while some culturally contingent attributes include, compassionate, sincere, sensitive, and self-sacrificial (House et al., 1999). In other words, some leader attributes were consistent across cultures and others were unique to specific cultures.

House et al. (2002) explain that the central theoretical proposition underlying their GLOBE research is that “the attributes and entities that distinguish a given culture from other cultures are predictive of the practices of organizations and leader attributes and behaviors that are most frequently enacted, acceptable, and effective in that culture” (p. 8). In other words, the differing values that play a role in each culture can provide explanations for not only how leaders behave, but also what leader behavior is preferable and what is most effective in that culture.

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Thus, different leadership CLTs, or prototypes, tend to occur more frequently in certain cultures than others based on the cultures' value profile (House et al., 2002).

A breakdown of the GLOBE project theoretical propositions will expand upon the process of cultural values interacting with leadership effectiveness. When introducing the GLOBE study, House et al. (1999) proposed that acceptance of a leader is more likely to occur when the attributes and behaviors of that leader are consistent with preferred CLTs, and leader acceptance by followers facilitates leader effectiveness. This idea builds on Lord and Maher's (1991) proposition that follower perception of leader effectiveness is necessary in order for a leader to be able to lead beyond their formal position.

An important point within House et al.'s (2004) integrated theory is that a society's shared values influence the behavior of its leaders. Leaders' actions and management styles are impacted by and a reflection of the underlying values of that society. To briefly summarize, there are some universal consistencies, but cultures do vary in what makes an effective leader. Research like the GLOBE project that investigates cultural values can fill a gap in explaining why those differences occur. This is because cultural differences and organizational contingencies are predictive of what leader attributes and behaviors are most effective (House et al., 2002). As mentioned, the GLOBE research program developed nine value dimensions, but the focus of the current research is on gender egalitarianism because of the close theoretical ties between gender and emotion management. Therefore, the gender egalitarianism dimension will be tied into the discussion of differences in LEM

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behavior effectiveness across cultures and examined as a potential moderating
variable.

Gender Egalitarianism

Cultures differ in the value they place on advancement and assertiveness as opposed to cooperation and nurturance; the former being stereotypically masculine traits, while the latter are stereotypically feminine traits (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE studies cultural value dimension of gender egalitarianism captures this differentiation. Specifically, gender egalitarianism is defined as “the extent to which an organization or a society minimizes gender role differences and gender discrimination” (House et al., 2002, p. 5). A society can range from having a large gender role gap, where the advancement and assertiveness traits are highly valued, to a more gender egalitarian society, in which gender roles are overlapping. In an egalitarian culture, both men and women equally participate in “ego” roles (e.g., success, competition) and “social” roles (e.g., caring for others, nurturance) (House et al., 2004). Put another way, the gender egalitarianism dimension determines how cultures believe biological sex dictates roles that people hold in society.

More gender egalitarian cultures see more women in leadership positions, in decision making roles, and in the labor force in general. House et al. (2004) theorized that in high gender egalitarian societies, the value of traits ascribed to women would be more favorable relative to the value of traits ascribed to men, consistent with the convergence of gender roles. Williams and Best (1990) researched gender-stereotyped trait favorability across cultures and found that

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traditionally male traits (i.e., achievement-oriented) were universally rated more favorably and strongly than traditionally female traits (i.e., affiliation-oriented) by university students, although there were some cultural variations. House et al. (2004) found that gender egalitarianism displayed a strong, negative correlation with the differences in the favorability and strength ratings. In other words, across cultures, the male stereotype and its associated traits tend to be rated more favorably (compared to the female stereotype and its associated traits), but the difference was smaller in higher gender egalitarian cultures.

The GLOBE studies offer insight into the CLTs or types of leader that naturally become effective in high gender egalitarian cultures. Specifically, individuals in high gender egalitarian societies endorse participative and charismatic/value-based leadership, whereas they eschew self-protective leadership (House et al., 2004). The participative leadership style describes leaders who tend to include their employees in decision-making processes while encouraging equality and task delegation. Charismatic/value-based leadership, similar to the transformational leadership described earlier, seeks to inspire employees towards a shared vision based on common values while maintaining an intense focus on high performance standards and innovative ideas. Self-protective leadership style refers to leaders who emphasize job security, frequently engage in face-saving behaviors, and focus on procedural aspects of work (House et al., 2004).

To elaborate on a description of the leaders that are effective in gender egalitarian societies, specific leader characteristics that were positively correlated

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with gender egalitarianism include: foresight, enthusiastic, self-sacrificial, egalitarian, delegator, and collectively oriented; while attributes negatively correlated with gender egalitarianism include: self-centered, status-conscious, secretive, evasive, and formal (House et al., 2004). Some of these attributes were commonly agreed upon across cultures (e.g., foresight) but others fell under the culturally contingent category (e.g., enthusiastic, self-sacrificial). Based on these correlations, it follows logically that gender egalitarian societies would value leaders who emphasize open and honest communication and transparency, sacrifice themselves before others, value the group and its harmony, and are capable of motivating and inspiring the employees.

Comparing Gender Egalitarianism to Hofstede's Masculinity Dimension

The GLOBE studies measured their nine dimensions examined at both the societal and organizational level using instructions for items that separately referred to current practices (what is actually being done) versus preferred practices (what people think *should* be done) (House et al., 2004). Hofstede's (1980) dimensions were initially born out of research that utilized a sample from one company, specifically that of IBM employees. Hofstede (2001) initially proposed four dimensions of culture (individualism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity). Later, two more dimensions (long- vs. short-term orientation and indulgence vs. restraint) were added based on more expansive research, and his results were validated through replication studies (Hofstede, 2001). The GLOBE studies sampled middle managers from three different industries and focused on

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leadership effectiveness. The measures used in the GLOBE studies were cross-culturally validated to establish comparability between societies (House et al., 2004). While Hofstede (1980) validated his measures across cultures, later research suggests weaknesses in the generalizability of the masculinity dimension (e.g., Hoppe, 1998; Merritt, 2000).

House et al. (2004) argued that the Hofstede dimension of masculinity produces results that are confusing because the dimension confounds the constructs of assertiveness, gender egalitarianism, humane orientation, and achievement orientation, which House et al. (2004) separate into different dimensions. The masculinity dimension refers to the distribution of values between genders, with the masculine end representing assertive qualities and the feminine end representing modest and caring qualities. According to Hofstede (2001), masculine cultures reward achievement, assertiveness, and competitiveness, whereas feminine cultures focus on harmony, cooperation, and caring for others.

Gender egalitarianism and assertiveness were derived from Hofstede's (1980) masculinity dimension (House et al., 2004). In fact, six of the GLOBE dimensions were derived from Hofstede's (1980) work (House et al., 2002). However, House et al. (2004) found that the gender egalitarianism dimension does not significantly correlate with the masculinity dimension most likely due to the multidimensionality of the masculinity dimension. In other words, the masculinity dimension is so broad and contains so many different constructs that no strong correlation can be found with results with the more narrowly-defined gender

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egalitarianism scale. On the other hand, Hofstede's masculinity dimension items did correlate significantly with their assertiveness dimension items, suggesting that masculinity-femininity may reflect that construct to a greater extent than it reflects gender egalitarianism.

Besides Hofstede's (1980) value dimensions, another established set of seven culture value orientations was developed by Schwartz (2009) in order to further understand culture, without a focus on leadership. House et al. (2004) found a positive correlation between their gender egalitarianism dimension items and the Schwartz egalitarianism scale (House et al., 2004). The Schwartz (2009) egalitarianism dimension reflects a culture that values equality, social justice, responsibility, help, and honesty. The main difference between this and the GLOBE gender egalitarianism dimension is the focus on gender role differences in society and how those relate to values rather than general equality in society.

Due to the GLOBE project's incremental contributions in theory and methodology beyond Hofstede's original accomplishments, this research utilizes the GLOBE results to represent cultural value differences, consistent with research by Den Hartog et al. (1999) and Sadri, Weber, and Gentry (2011). To summarize the discussion above, the value dimension of gender egalitarianism in a culture represents the degree to which biological sex dictates the roles each gender assumes in society. A small gap in gender role differences, more women in leadership positions, and equal treatment and education of boys and girls all signify a high gender egalitarian society (House et al., 2004). In these cultures, participative and

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charismatic leadership styles are more commonly endorsed, along with leaders who are self-sacrificial, enthusiastic, and collectively oriented. In this research, the extent to which a society values gender egalitarianism will be theoretically linked to the effectiveness of leader emotion management behaviors.

Leader Emotion Management across Cultures

A great deal of research supports the idea that individuals have different expectations for how leaders should behave across cultures, particularly in regard to leader emotional displays (e.g., Bono & Barron, 2008; Matsumoto et al., 2008). These differences are believed to impact individuals' evaluations of their leader's effectiveness (House et al., 2004). Matsumoto (1989) put forth that emotions are universal, however the perception and control of expression are dependent on specific cultural backgrounds. Researchers have identified differences in emotional display rules between cultures. Display rules refer to the norms for situational emotional regulation (Ekman & Friesen, 1969). There is evidence that societal and cultural norms determine the expression and regulation of specific emotions in given contexts. For example, Matsumoto et al. (2008) examined differences in emotional display rules across cultures. They found that cultures differed on overall expressivity and norms concerning the expression of specific emotions when dealing with in- versus out-groups (Matsumoto et al., 2008). Similarly, Ekman (1971) determined that American and Japanese undergraduate students regulated emotional display to differing extents. Specifically, Japanese students were more

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likely to hide negative feelings in the presence of others whereas Americans were not.

Possible explanations for differences in emotional expression across cultures are numerous. Cultural norms and values dictate the acceptance of expression of emotions and, therefore, the regulation of those emotions. Following this logic, emotions displayed by leaders are providing different information to individuals in different cultures (Bono & Barron, 2008). Bono and Barron (2008) theorized that U.S. managers would use emotions more tactically than their Japanese counterparts due to underlying cultural differences in assertiveness. They posited that American leaders would be more emotionally expressive while Japanese leaders may mask their emotions to a greater extent. Bono and Barron (2008) theorized that Japanese leaders may be less effective as emotion managers, but point out that it is unknown whether emotion management is important to the Japanese culture. Societal values may place greater importance on the content of communication rather than the corresponding emotional expression. Earlier this review discussed Newcombe and Ashkanasy's (2002) findings that leaders' ratings were influenced more so by the emotional expression than the objective content of their message. Applying Bono and Barron's (2008) theory to this information reveals the possibility that Japanese individuals may find their perception of leaders to be influenced more so by the objective content of their message rather than their emotional expression.

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A major implication of research on cross-cultural differences in expectations for emotional displays is that findings related to emotions and leadership may be highly context-specific. Such findings may not generalize across cultures because the perception of emotions and acceptance of leader emotional expression are culturally influenced. A dissertation by Wan Abdul Rahman (2012) examined the relationship between empathy and leadership effectiveness in both the U.S. and Malaysia. His findings demonstrate that American leaders not only displayed more empathy (i.e., listening to employees and collaborating with them), but that empathy was more valued in terms of leadership effectiveness in the U.S. as opposed to Malaysia, although empathy was considered a part of effective leadership in both nations. Another way of explaining cross-cultural differences in emotions and leadership is to discuss values and beliefs that cultures hold that would impact the effectiveness of emotion management behaviors in leadership.

Most research examining cultural differences uses Hofstede's (2001) cultural value dimensions. In the discussion of emotional expression differences across cultures, Hofstede's (2001) individualism dimension has been thoroughly investigated as an explanatory variable. Hofstede (2011) describes this value dimension as the extent of integration of the individual into groups. In a highly individualistic society, people tend to be independent from others and mainly focus on taking care of themselves. In a highly collectivistic society, the focus is more on group harmony and taking care of others. Matsumoto et al.'s (2008) study on display rules mentioned above used individualism as the value dimension to

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explain differences, finding individualistic societies to be more emotionally expressive.

Additionally, Grandey, Rafaeli, Ravid, Wirtz, and Steiner (2010) found that both individualism and power distance predicted display rules of organizational members across cultures. Power distance is defined as “the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations and institutions accept and expect that power is distributed unequally” (Hofstede, 2011, p. 9). Specifically, Grandey et al. (2010) discovered some support for their hypotheses that it was less acceptable to display anger to supervisors in high power distance cultures and that it was less acceptable to display anger to coworkers in high collectivistic cultures. Therefore, cultural values can influence the expectation for emotional expression in the workplace.

Hofstede’s (2001) masculinity-femininity dimension has also been supported as a potential explanation for differences in emotional expression across cultures. In addition to emotional expression, norms for emotional support and sharing have also been examined for differences across cultures. Paez and Vergara (1995) studied cultural differences in emotion-related norms, concluding that the masculinity dimension was more important than both individualism and power distance in accounting for the most variance in differences between cultures. Feminine cultures held stronger norms for sharing of emotions as well as stronger emotional intensity and expressivity.

To briefly summarize, the literature supports differences in perceptions of effectiveness as it pertains to emotional expression from leaders in different

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cultures, along with general levels of emotion-related norms. Most of this research has used Hofstede's (2001) cultural value dimensions (i.e., individualism, power distance, and masculinity) as moderating variables in their studies or as explanations of their results (i.e., Gunkel, Schlagel, & Engle, 2014; Paez & Vergara, 1995; Wan Abdul Rahman, 2012). Matsumoto et al. (2008) provides evidence that individualism partially explains differences in display rules, while Paez and Vergara (1995) found that masculinity explained more than other dimensions in differences in emotion-related norms. Which value dimension or combination of values provides the explanation for differences in LEM behavior across cultures is still to be debated.

Hypotheses

According to Eagly and Karau (2002), women are more likely to emerge as leaders when the ILT prototype leaves out masculine traits as ideal leader attributes and includes feminine traits as important. It follows logically that women would be more likely to emerge as leaders in gender egalitarian societies due to the difference in value between male and female traits being much smaller. This idea is supported by the fact that there is a positive correlation between gender egalitarian values and the number of women in management or other professional positions in a culture (Paris, Howell, Dorfman & Hanges, 2009). It is likely that women are more accepted as leaders and therefore have the potential to be more effective compared to low gender egalitarian societies.

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From the results of the GLOBE studies, we know the prototype of a successful leader is influenced by culture because societal values and practices can influence the socialization process through which individuals in a society share beliefs (House et al., 2004). In low egalitarian societies, the preferred CLT is likely more consistent with Schein's (1973, 1975) "think manager-think male" theory, in that traditionally male attributes are perceived as congruent with successful leadership, whereas traditionally female attributes are not; however, the more gender egalitarian a society is, the more equally represented we would expect male and female attributes to be within the prototype of a successful leader.

Emotions, emotional displays, emotional understanding, and emotional support fall under the umbrella of traditionally feminine qualities. Although this is a generalization, women historically hold roles that benefit from emotional skills (e.g., child-rearing) and tend to be more social beings than men. According to Gender Role Theory, women are considered more communal and socially-oriented (Eagly, 1987). While maybe not all, at least some LEM behaviors are consistent with a communal focus and maintaining harmony in the workplace by showing consideration for employees' emotions, valuing open and honest communication, and providing emotional uplifts. Thus, LEM behaviors are arguably more consistent with stereotypically feminine behaviors than stereotypically male behaviors.

As discussed in the literature review, cultural value for gender egalitarianism shows a significant and positive correlation with charismatic/value-

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based and participative leadership dimensions, and a significant and negative correlation with self-protective leadership (House et al., 2004). LEM behaviors are consistent with charismatic/value-based leadership, given its characterization as motivational and self-sacrificial, and they are consistent with participative leadership, given that such leaders are communal and involve others in decision-making. LEM behaviors also represent the antithesis of self-protective leadership, as it is described as procedural, conflict-inducing and self-centered (House et al., 2004). Thus, a focus on maintaining social harmony and appealing to and caring about employees' emotions (i.e., LEM behavior) is more consistent with the styles of leadership favored in gender egalitarianism societies, suggesting that LEM behaviors will be valued to a greater extent in these cultures compared to less egalitarian cultures.

With more women in leadership positions and preferred CLTs that contain a more blended mix of male and female attributes, a prediction can be made that higher gender egalitarian societies place more value on LEM behaviors. A dissertation by Wan Abdul Rahman (2012) provides some initial support for this argument. He found that American leaders had significantly higher empathy compared to Malaysian leaders, and that empathy more significantly influenced leadership effectiveness in the U.S. compared to Malaysia. According to the GLOBE research program, the U.S., with a score of 5.06, values gender egalitarianism more than Malaysia, at 3.78, on a range from 3.18 to 5.17 (House et al., 2004). Therefore, empathy was more valued as an attribute of an effective

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leader in a higher gender egalitarian culture. An empathic leader is described as one who is sensitive to others' differences, listens to others, facilitates interactions and communication, and understands others' emotions (Wan Abdul Rahman, 2012).

There is clear conceptual overlap between this and the leader emotion management construct, although the LEM construct is broader.

To briefly summarize, this research will test the hypothesis that gender egalitarianism positively predicts the extent to which LEM behaviors are valued in a society. This hypothesis is based on the assumption that culturally endorsed leadership theories (CLTs) in more egalitarian societies are more likely to include both male and female qualities (rather than just feminine qualities).

Hypothesis 1: Gender egalitarianism will moderate the positive relationship between leader emotion management behaviors and perceived leader effectiveness, such that the relationship will be stronger in countries high in gender egalitarianism.

The current research also puts forth the idea that CLTs in high gender egalitarian societies are less consistent with Schein's (1973, 1975) "think manager-think male" model compared to CLTs in low egalitarian societies. As such, the behavioral expectations for male and female leaders should diverge to a lesser extent in high gender egalitarian societies.

Schein et al. (1996) examined the "think manager-think male" model across five countries – Japan, China, U.S., Great Britain, and Germany – and concluded that they had found support for the model as a universal phenomenon. They asked

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male and female management students in Japan and China to rate general characteristics of women, men, and successful middle managers. The authors then compared their results to previous studies by Schein and Mueller (1992) and Schein, Mueller, and Jacobson (1989) that examined the U.K. and Germany, and the U.S., respectively. Indeed, Schein et al. (1996) found significant correlations between the description of men in general and that of successful middle managers. Additionally, they found that the difference between descriptions of “men in general” and “successful middle managers” was significantly smaller than the difference between “women in general” and “successful middle managers” in all countries besides the U.S. Women in the U.S. did not perceive a significant difference between a description of women in general compared to a description of a successful middle manager (Schein et al., 1996).

Following the argument put forth in the current research, the gap between male characteristic-manager characteristic correlations and female characteristic-manager characteristic correlations would be expected to lessen with increasing national levels of gender egalitarianism. Examining data reported by Schein et al. (1996), this trend is almost fully supported with the exception of the ordering of U.S. and the U.K. gaps. Table 1 is an adapted table from the Schein et al. (1996) paper that is modified to include calculations reflecting the trend in gap discrepancies by country. When the gap between male-manager and female-manager correlations is averaged across participant gender, the largest gaps are observed in China, followed by Japan, Germany, the U.K., and the U.S. This trend

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is in almost direct alignment with these countries' gender egalitarianism scores, with the exception of the U.K. and U.S., such that countries higher in egalitarianism showed smaller gaps. These countries' gender egalitarianism values (House et al., 2004) are as follows: China (3.68), Japan (4.33), Germany (East, 4.90; West, 4.89), U.K. (5.17), and the U.S (5.06).

This data depicts the robustness of the “think manager-think male” model, while at the same time demonstrating a trend linking gender egalitarianism to smaller gender-based differences in leadership expectations. In their discussion, Schein et al. (1996) mention the degree to which women rate the description of women in general similar to that of successful middle managers may be due to the extent of participation of women in management in their country. They encourage further research to examine that potential effect and also recommend that future research expand the sample and geographical range of study. The current research aims to expand upon the research of Schein et al. (1996) using data from managers in more than thirty countries.

According to Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), women should be more accepted in leadership positions when their behavior is consistent with *both* leader prototypes and with role expectations for females within a culture. With a minimization of gender role differences in egalitarian cultures, there should be less contradiction between these expectations. In highly egalitarian cultures, men and women equally share emotional roles both in the home and at work (House et

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al., 2004). They can both be tender and soft, or agentic and decisive (House et al., 2004).

It is commonly believed that men and women differentially express emotions, in that men control their emotional displays to a larger extent than women (Brescoll, 2016). According to Dolan (2014), there are traditionally fewer women in leadership positions because they are considered too emotional for a job that requires level-headed decision making. However, if the expectations for emotional expression do not significantly differ between men and women in gender egalitarian societies (due to an even distribution of emotional roles between genders), the stereotype that women are too emotional for leadership roles should be reduced.

As noted in the literature review, Gentry et al. (2015) found that empathic concern negatively predicted career derailment, and it did so more strongly for female leaders than male leaders. In other words, behaviors displaying empathy were valued in leadership roles, but more so for female leaders than for male leaders. Although this contradicts the “think manager-think male” leader prototype, it is somewhat consistent with Role Congruity Theory because it reflects the idea that a stereotypically feminine characteristic (empathic concern) is more highly valued in females than in males.

If empathy is more valued from female leaders because of role congruity, then without such gender-based role differentiation, empathy should be similarly valued from male and female leaders. Thus, the current research is based on the

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idea that if Gentry et al. (2015) had examined more than one country, they would have found that the moderating effect of leader gender on the relationship between empathic concern and career derailment would be stronger in less gender egalitarian societies and weaker in more gender egalitarian societies.

The current research will explore the possibility of a significant three-way interaction between gender, LEM behaviors, and nation-level gender egalitarianism on perceived leader effectiveness. Extrapolating from theory above, with gender role differences minimized and CLTs that contain attributes of both men and women, LEM behaviors should be considered effective regardless of whether the leader is male or female. On the other hand, this research is predicated on the argument that, in less gender egalitarian societies, LEM behaviors should be more valued in female leaders than in male leaders due to the fact that LEM behaviors are more consistent with the communally-oriented stereotype of women. To clarify, this research does not posit that there will be no gender-based differences in the effectiveness of LEM behaviors in high gender egalitarian societies, but that the gap in effectiveness will significantly lessen as a society values gender egalitarianism more highly.

Hypothesis 2: There will be a three-way interaction between leader emotion management behaviors, leader gender, and nation-level gender egalitarianism, such that gender-based differences in the effectiveness of leader emotion management behavior will be smaller in high gender egalitarian societies and larger in low gender egalitarian societies.

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Method

This study utilizes an archival database from a pre-existing measure called BENCHMARKS®¹. This measure was used by the Center for Creative Leadership, an international organization that provides a variety of programs and products that aim to develop leadership. It served as an assessment in a developmental training program for leaders and originally consisted of 115 items. The data is multi-source with ratings from the managers themselves, their superiors, peers, and subordinates. Items are rated on a Likert-type scale, with a variety of item-specific response scales. Items rated on different response scales will be standardized.

This study used data from measures that were completed in English only, despite being a multi-cultural database. Data was examined from managers working from their home country, but only countries that had a gender egalitarianism score from the GLOBE (House et al., 2004) study were included. These contingencies or variations thereof were used in similar research examining this particular dataset (i.e., Sadri et al., 2011). Other variables collected and available for examination included: leader gender, age, organization, job tenure, and organizational level.

Participants

Upon narrowing the dataset following the above contingencies, 10,535 leaders from 46 countries remained. Because the majority of these participants

¹ BENCHMARKS® is a registered trademark of the Center for Creative Leadership.

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(84%) were from the United States, 650 of the American leaders were randomly chosen to represent the United States in the dataset. This number was decided upon due an existing precedent set by Sadri et al. (2011) in reducing cross-nation sample size inconsistency in their study. This reduction left a total of 2,532 leaders in our sample. Of these leaders, 74% were male and the average age was 42 years old.

Measures

Leader Effectiveness. The target measure of performance analyzed in this study are leader performance and promotability as they are perceived by the leader's peers. The goal was to understand how a leader's emotion management behaviors impact how effective and promotable their colleagues believe that leader to be, as opposed to an objective measure of effectiveness. In order to examine this variable, peer ratings of the leader were examined. This section of the measure had the instructions "for research purposes only," which informed the respondents that these ratings would not be seen by the leader and they could answer honestly.

Three specific questions assessed leader effectiveness, rated on a 5-point Likert scale: (1) "How would you rate this person's performance in his/her present job" (1 = *among the worst*, 5 = *among the best*); (2) "Where would you place this person as a leader relative to other leaders inside and outside your organization" (1 = *among the worst*, 5 = *among the best*); and (3) "What is the likelihood that this person will derail (i.e., plateau, be demoted, or fired) in the next five years as a result of his/her actions or behaviors as a manager" (1 = *not at all likely*, 5 = *almost certain*; reverse-coded).

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Additionally, three questions assessed promotability within the same “for research purposes only” section. These were also rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all likely*, 5 = *almost certain*): (1) “being promoted into a familiar line of business,” (2) “being promoted in the same function or division (moving a level up),” and (3) “being promoted two or more levels.” The results of these items were aggregated to produce peer ratings of leader effectiveness and promotability.

Leader Emotion Management Behaviors. Subordinate ratings of LEM behaviors were gathered using the BENCHMARKS® measure. Two researchers independently examined the BENCHMARKS® items for relevance to the LEM behavior construct as defined by Kaplan et al. (2014). Out of the 115 items, 28 were considered relevant by both researchers, and 40 additional items were marked as relevant by one of the researchers. This agreement translates into an interrater reliability of 65.2%. After this process, the researchers met to discuss the 40 items on which they originally disagreed. Two reasons seemed to drive the initial disagreement on these items. First, one researcher had included items that could be reverse-coded, whereas the other had not; the researchers agreed to retain those items in the item pool. Second, one researcher had included items that focused more on the leader rather than an interaction between leader and subordinate (e.g., “actively seeks opportunities to develop professional relationships with others”). These items had a social/communal focus, but the direct impact on subordinates’ emotions was less clear. These items were discarded after agreeing the LEM

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behaviors should focus solely on leader-follower interaction that are believed to impact follower emotion.

At the conclusion of the item selection process, 61 items were included in the proposed measure of LEM behaviors. These items were judged to reflect LEM behaviors as they were described in the Kaplan et al. (2014) model. A few examples of these items include, “encourages direct reports to share,” “provides prompt feedback both positive and negative,” and “is a visionary able to excite other people to work hard.”

As a reminder, the Kaplan et al. (2014) model contained eight categories of LEM behaviors. The model was developed by examining other similar literature and research models (Kaplan et al., 2014); however, it is still unclear whether these behaviors represent conceptually distinct factors or one overarching LEM construct. Mullins et al. (2014) further examined the Kaplan et al. (2014) model, and developed a corresponding measure. However, these authors concluded that “there was a great deal of empirical overlap among the dimensions... [and they] did not feel that [their] sample size was adequate for a confirmatory factor analysis” (Mullins et al., 2014, p. 249). Because the Kaplan et al. (2014) framework encompasses a wide variety of emotion-related leader behavior, we felt an exploratory factor analysis was called for to examine the dimensionality of our scale for the purposes of this research. The findings from this analysis are reported in the *Results* section of this document.

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Gender Egalitarianism. In order to ascertain gender egalitarianism for each country, the published scores from the GLOBE (House et al., 2004) study were used. The GLOBE study measured nine cultural dimensions on two scales. The first scale reflected what that culture values (what people think *should* be done). The second scale reflected current practices (what is actually being done). In the current study, both values and practices were examined when assessing gender egalitarianism. The norms in current practices could lead individuals to be accustomed to certain behaviors and therefore reward those most common. On the other hand, individuals could rate leaders on how they think leaders should behave. For these reasons, both scales were used.

Results

Exploratory Factor Analysis

As previously mentioned, the first step of the analysis was to conduct an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in order to determine the dimensionality of the LEM behavior items selected from the BENCHMARKS® measure. For the purposes of this analysis, one direct report was randomly sampled for each leader in order to ensure that the data were not multilevel (i.e., direct reports nested within leaders). The EFA was then conducted on this subsample of ratings using a maximum likelihood extraction method, based on the recommendations of Costello and Osborne (2005). An oblimin rotation was used due to the assumption that the multiple dimensions of LEM behavior would correlate with one another.

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Initial analysis revealed that the scree plot suggested a three-factor solution. However, the pattern matrix indicated that the third factor only consisted of items that strongly cross-loaded on the first two factors. In an attempt to achieve a cleaner factor structure, items that cross-loaded relatively equally on more than one factor were dropped. We conducted several iterations of the analysis, eliminating cross-loading items, until we came to a clear solution where all items loaded strongly ($>.30$) on only one of three factors.

The first factor was labeled “Regulating Emotional Reactions,” and consisted of 37 items. The strongest loading items (those with a correlation above .60) seemed to be assessing leader behaviors that manage employees’ emotional reactions to events. These behaviors are an attempt to regulate the emotions of employees in response to an event rather than behaviors that instigate the emotional event itself. Examples of these items include, “is straightforward with individuals about consequences of an expected action or decision” and “helps people learn from their mistakes.” The items with a loading less than .60 did not as directly assess such behaviors (e.g., “gets things done without creating unnecessary adversarial relationships), and were eliminated in the effort to assess a clearly defined construct and reduce the number of items. The final Regulating Emotional Reactions subscale contained 31 items.

The second factor was labeled “Conflict Management,” and consisted of 13 items that were all reverse-coded. These items assessed leader attributes and behaviors that either caused negative emotional events or poorly managed

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employees' reactions to negative events. Most of these items reflected poor conflict management and a lack of consideration for others. Examples of items include, "does not resolve conflict among direct reports," "adopts a bullying style under stress," and "orders people around rather than working to get them on board."

The third factor was labeled "Warmth," and consisted of 4 items. This scale appeared to assess the extent to which leaders were generally friendly and genial. Examples of these items include, "has a warm personality that puts people at ease" and "has a pleasant disposition."

Reliabilities were conducted for all three subscales. Cronbach's alphas for the "Regulating Emotional Reactions," "Conflict Management," and "Warmth" scales were .97, .95, and .91, respectively. Additionally, normality and outliers were checked for the subscales. All hypotheses were tested separately for each of the subdimensions in order to uncover any differences between the subdimensions in their relationships with the other variables of interest.

Hypothesis Testing

Table 2 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations of variables aggregated to the nation-level. This study conducted multilevel modeling using Mplus Version 7.4 in order to analyze person-level data nested within nations. The model for the first hypothesis in this study examines two variables at two separate levels of analysis. The first level contains the person-level variables of LEM behaviors and leader effectiveness. The second level contains the nation-level variable of gender egalitarianism. The interaction examined here is the impact that

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the second-level variable, gender egalitarianism, has on the relationship between the two first-level variables, LEM behaviors and leader effectiveness.

The first hypothesis, which stated that gender egalitarianism will moderate the positive relationship between LEM behaviors and perceived leader effectiveness, was not supported for any of the three subscales. See Table 3, rows 1-12 for these results. Neither gender egalitarianism values nor gender egalitarianism practices significantly predicted the level-1 relationships between the LEM subdimensions and peer-rated performance or promotability.

The second hypothesis added another person-level variable, gender, creating a three-way interaction hypothesis. That is, the person-level interaction between leader gender and leader emotion management behaviors on leader effectiveness was proposed to be moderated by the nation-level variable of gender egalitarianism. Hypothesis 2 was not supported for any of the three subscales. See Table 3, rows 13-24 for these results. Neither gender egalitarianism values nor gender egalitarianism practices significantly predicted the gender \times LEM interaction on leader effectiveness ratings.

Exploratory Analyses

Besides testing the hypotheses as specified, we conducted exploratory analyses to further investigate gender-based differences in LEM behavior and their relationship with GE. Removing perceived leadership effectiveness from the equation, we checked to see if gender egalitarianism would moderate the gender gap in LEM behaviors themselves. This analysis produced a few significant results

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(see Table 3, rows 28, 30, and 32). Nation-level value for gender egalitarianism (but not gender egalitarian practices) significantly moderated the relationship between gender and the composite of the three leader emotion management subscales ($\gamma = .26, p < .01$), the conflict management subscale ($\gamma = -.20, p < .05$), and the warmth subscale ($\gamma = .32, p < .01$). See Figures 1, 2, and 3 for depictions of the above results. This LEM composite scale was created by reverse coding the Conflict Management subscale items, then averaging the three subscale scores; Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .98.

The general pattern of results suggests that female leaders engaged in a higher level of LEM behavior than male leaders, but only in nations with high value for gender egalitarianism. Although the interactions were significant, the simple effect of gender on the Conflict Management and Warmth subscales was nonsignificant at both 2 *SD* below and 2 *SD* above the mean for gender egalitarianism value. For the composite LEM scale, the gender difference was significant at high (+2 *SD*) gender egalitarianism value only ($b = .30, p < .05$).

Discussion

This research endeavored to examine a potential moderating role that the cultural value of gender egalitarianism might have on the perceived effectiveness of leadership behaviors that manage employees' emotions. We hypothesized that leader emotion management would be perceived as more effective in higher gender egalitarian societies, and that any-gender based differences in this effectiveness would be smaller in higher gender egalitarian societies. We benefitted from access

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to an archival database of leaders from several cultures provided by the Center for Creative Leadership. Our sample was substantial, consisting of 2,532 leaders from 46 countries. Additionally, as Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff (2003) recommend, ratings were taken from multiple sources. Thus, common method bias was not a concern. Our dependent variable was peer-rated, our independent variable was subordinate-rated, and our moderator was from a separate study of nation-level differences. Nevertheless, the hypotheses were not supported.

Despite the strengths of this research, there are a number of limitations that could have influenced the results. One shortcoming is that because the relationships examined were cross-sectional correlations, causal effects cannot be determined (Kenny, 2004). Thus, even though our exploratory analyses suggested gender \times culture interactions, it is possible that another variable could be causing the relationships of interest. It is also possible that third variables created enough error in the data to prevent us from finding significant support for the hypotheses.

The sampling of leaders from the population was also not random and therefore may not generalize to all leaders. For example, the participants in our study could have chosen to take part in the leadership development program based on a previous awareness and proficiency at behaviors related to those included in the leader emotion management construct. This example seems unlikely given that leader emotion management was not a criterion for the development program; however, the leaders involved in the leader development program could possess characteristics (e.g., learning orientation) that differ from leaders in the general

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population. Another limitation is that there was an overrepresentation of some countries in this study, due to an inconsistency in sample sizes from each nation. An attempt was made to reduce the worst case of overrepresentation (leaders from the United States), however sample sizes still differed substantially between nations.

Additionally, it is possible that the Kaplan et al. (2014) model of leader emotion management is too broad in the manner it was developed because leadership behaviors that influence employees' emotions can take on a number of different forms and complicated interactions. There may be a distinction between managing emotions in a positive way (e.g., providing a motivational uplift) and managing them in a negative way (e.g., inducing anxiety in order to get an employee to put more effort into a task). A leader's intentions in managing others' emotions are also relevant: managing emotions with the goal to increase production could have very different effects than managing emotions with the goal of enhancing employees' well-being. Additionally, some behaviors from the Kaplan et al. (2014) dimensions could theoretically take place with no intention of managing an employee's emotion at all. For example, a highly emotional leader could display anger due to a lack of self-regulation, and in turn influence that employee's work ethic. It is unclear whether a leader who unintentionally influences a follower's emotions is actually engaging in LEM.

Finally, there exists some conceptual overlap between leader emotion management and similar constructs, such as leader empathy, due to the broad

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nature of the Kaplan et al. (2014) model. In this case, empathic behaviors correspond with the behavioral displays of providing consideration and support for employees. Future research will need to empirically distinguish between the LEM behavior construct and similar constructs, as well as the extent to which LEM predicts leader effectiveness over and above similar constructs.

Moving forward, developing a more parsimonious model of leader emotion management that takes these distinctions into consideration would aid research in this area. For example, a new model could focus on leadership behaviors that intentionally induce either positive or negative emotions in employees with a specific goal in mind (e.g., improving performance vs. improving well-being). Also, the measure used in this research extracted items from an archival measure. This process may not have tapped into the construct as desired, and further scale development and validation would enable further examination of this construct. Ideally, a measure would be developed specifically for the purpose of measuring LEM as it is defined (or as it is redefined, according to the distinctions mentioned above). The only LEM measure to have been created thus far called into question “whether there is any benefit in making such fine-grained distinctions” due to the “degree of relationship among the dimensions” (Mullins et al., 2014, p. 249). It is unclear whether the substantial overlap found by Mullins et al. (2014) was idiosyncratic to that particular measure or whether it was indicative of the nature of the LEM construct in general.

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Furthermore, the use of a GLOBE dimension for cultural value assumes that nations' borders align with cultural boundaries, which ignores within-country differences in values and practice that might arise with different sub-groups, or even within different industries and organizations. Additionally, only one value dimension was examined in this research; there might be other dimensions that influence the variables in question. For example, the assertiveness or humane orientation dimensions might moderate the perceived effectiveness of leader emotion management behaviors. These values are conceptually linked to gender egalitarianism and also originated from Hofstede's (1980) masculinity dimension (House et al., 2004). Thus, future research could examine these dimensions in relation to leader emotion management.

The findings from our exploratory analyses indicate a conceptual link between gender egalitarianism and leader emotion management when looking at gender differences. A culture's value for gender egalitarianism significantly predicted gender-based differences in LEM for three of our scales: the new LEM composite scale, the Conflict Management subscale, and the Warmth subscale. Consistent across the results for all three scales are the results for female leaders in high gender egalitarian cultures engaging in more warm, LEM leadership and less bullying, poor conflict managing leadership.

For the new LEM composite scale, the relationship between gender egalitarianism and LEM was positive for female leaders, but there were little to no LEM differences across countries for male leaders. In other words, female leaders

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in high gender egalitarian societies engaged in these behaviors more frequently than female leaders in low gender egalitarian societies. Male leaders did not engage in different levels of LEM in different cultures. In low gender egalitarian societies (two standard deviations below the mean), female leaders exhibited similar levels of LEM as did male leaders. One interpretation of these results is that in low gender egalitarian societies, female leaders feel pressure to act as male leaders do, but in high gender egalitarian societies, they feel comfortable engaging in LEM behaviors. This could be because LEM behaviors are considered more feminine, but feminine behaviors are more accepted in high gender egalitarian societies.

For the Conflict Management subscale, there was little difference between genders in low gender egalitarian societies, while female leaders scored lower than male leaders in high gender egalitarian societies. For male leaders, the results again remained relatively level across cultures. It is important to remember this subscale measured leader attributes and behaviors that either caused negative emotional events or poorly managed employees' reactions to negative events. Therefore, these scores reflected negative leadership skills. The Conflict Management results can be explained if female leaders, in an attempt to overcompensate for gender and reflect more masculine leadership, engage in more assertive behaviors, and in turn, increase the risk of poor conflict management or leadership that is perceived as bullying.

For the Warmth subscale, results mirror those produced from the new LEM composite scale, which intuitively makes sense due to warm, friendly behaviors

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being consistent with the positive behaviors of LEM. In low gender egalitarian societies, female leaders displayed these warm behaviors slightly more than male leaders. However, female leaders engaged in even more genial, friendly behaviors in high gender egalitarian societies. Male leaders did not engage in different levels of these behaviors across cultures. This finding is conceptually very similar to that from the new LEM composite scale, in the sense that female leaders feel more comfortable engaging in behaviors that may be considered feminine when they are in more gender egalitarian environments.

Implications

In closing, the findings of this research fell short of supporting the notion that gender egalitarianism influences the perceived effectiveness of leader emotion management behaviors as hypothesized. However, these findings do not prove that gender egalitarianism does not have the proposed effect. Some suggestions to improve upon this research were mentioned in the previous section. Despite the lack of significant findings, the implications of examining this idea further still stand. The exploratory findings imply value for gender egalitarianism is related to gender-based differences in leader emotion management. This notion demands further investigation and partially supports the underlying purpose of this research.

This research can still provide an awareness for practicing leaders when it comes to employee emotion management due to potential implications of cross-cultural differences in leader emotion management between genders. The significance of leaders managing employees' emotions is demonstrated by the

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widely seen empirical and theoretical work promoting the need for leaders to motivate employees, develop trust, encourage cooperation, and display consideration and support (e.g., George, 2000; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Tucker & Russell, 2004). Future research can expand this focus with further comparison of varying cultures around the world, as is called for in an era of globalization. Furthermore, as modernization closes the gap between genders in the workplace, the role of gender egalitarianism on the effectiveness of certain leadership behaviors will continue to be of importance.

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Tables & Figures

Table 1

Adapted from Schein et al. (1996)

Source	China	Japan	Germany ¹	U.K. ¹	U.S. ²
Male Participants					
Managers and Men	.91**	.54**	.74**	.67**	.70**
Managers and Women	-.04	-.07	-.04	.02	.11
Gap for Male Participants	.95	.61	.78	.65	.59
Females					
Managers and Men	.91**	.68**	.66**	.60**	.51**
Managers and Women	.28**	-.04	.19*	.31**	.43**
Gap for Female Participants	.63	.72	.47	.29	.08
Gap averaged across participant gender	.79	.67	.63	.47	.34

¹Results from Schein & Mueller (1992).

²Results from Schein et al. (1989).

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

Table 2

Means, standard deviations, and correlations among variables aggregated to the nation-level.

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Performance	0.18	0.11	-						
2. Promotability	3.62	0.13	.87*	-					
3. GE value	4.87	0.35	.26*	.29*	-				
4. GE practice	3.44	0.26	-.14*	-.14*	.34*	-			
5. Regulating Emotional Reactions	3.90	0.11	.48*	.55*	.07*	-.13*	-		
6. Conflict Management	1.71	0.10	-.49*	-.49*	-.51*	-.28*	-.69*	-	
7. Warmth	4.06	0.15	.50*	.60*	.46*	.10*	.71*	-.79*	-

* $p < .01$.

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Table 3

Results

	Hypothesis	Relationship tested	Estimates
1.	H1Aa	GE practice moderating Regulating Emotional Reactions to peer-rated performance	.19(.14)
2.	H1Ab	GE practice moderating Regulating Emotional Reactions to peer-rated promotability	.11(.25)
3.	H1Ac	GE value moderating Regulating Emotional Reactions to peer-rated performance	.10(4.67)
4.	H1Ad	GE value moderating Regulating Emotional Reactions to peer-rated promotability	.10(.41)
5.	H1Ba	GE value moderating Conflict Management to peer-rated performance	-.06(.35)
6.	H1Bb	GE value moderating Conflict Management to peer-rated promotability	-.04(.08)
7.	H1Bc	GE practice moderating Conflict Management to peer-rated performance	-.10(.23)
8.	H1Bd	GE practice moderating Conflict Management to peer-rated promotability	-.01(.10)
9.	H1Ca	GE practice moderating Warmth to peer-rated performance	.09(.10)
10.	H1Cb	GE practice moderating Warmth to peer-rated promotability	.05(4.92)
11.	H1Cc	GE value moderating Warmth to peer-rated performance	.02(.07)
12.	H1Cd	GE value moderating Warmth to peer-rated promotability	.04(.38)
13.	H2Aa	GE practice moderating Regulating Emotional Reactions interaction with gender to peer-rated performance	-.43(.26)
14.	H2Ab	GE practice moderating Regulating Emotional Reactions interaction with gender to peer-rated promotability	-.30(.34)
15.	H2Ac	GE value moderating Regulating Emotional Reactions interaction with gender to peer-rated performance	-.12(.24)
16.	H2Ad	GE value moderating Regulating Emotional Reactions interaction with gender to peer-rated promotability	.11(.13)
17.	H2Ba	GE practice moderating Conflict Management interaction with gender to peer-rated performance	.27(.21)

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Table 3 Continued

18.	H2Bb	GE practice moderating Conflict Management interaction with gender to peer-rated promotability	.03(.22)
19.	H2Bc	GE value moderating Conflict Management interaction with gender to peer-rated performance	.21(.20)
20.	H2Bd	GE value moderating Conflict Management interaction with gender to peer-rated promotability	-.12(.15)
21.	H2Ca	GE value moderating Warmth interaction with gender to peer-rated performance	-.02(.22)
22.	H2Cb	GE value moderating Warmth interaction with gender to peer-rated promotability	.11(.18)
23.	H2Cc	GE practice moderating Warmth interaction with gender to peer-rated performance	-.24(.24)
24.	H2Cd	GE practice moderating Warmth interaction with gender to peer-rated promotability	-.13(.27)
25.	Exploratory	GE practice moderating gender to Regulating Emotional Reactions	.12(.08)
26.	Exploratory	GE value moderating gender to Regulating Emotional Reactions	.26(.42)
27.	Exploratory	GE practice moderating gender to Conflict Management	-.15(.09)
28.	Exploratory	GE value moderating gender to Conflict Management	-.20(.09)*
29.	Exploratory	GE practice moderating gender to Warmth	.08(.08)
30.	Exploratory	GE value moderating gender to Warmth	.32(.09)**
31.	Exploratory	GE practice moderating gender to new leader emotion management scale	.13(.07)
32.	Exploratory	GE value moderating gender to new leader emotion management scale	.26(.05)**

Estimates include standard error estimates in parentheses.

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

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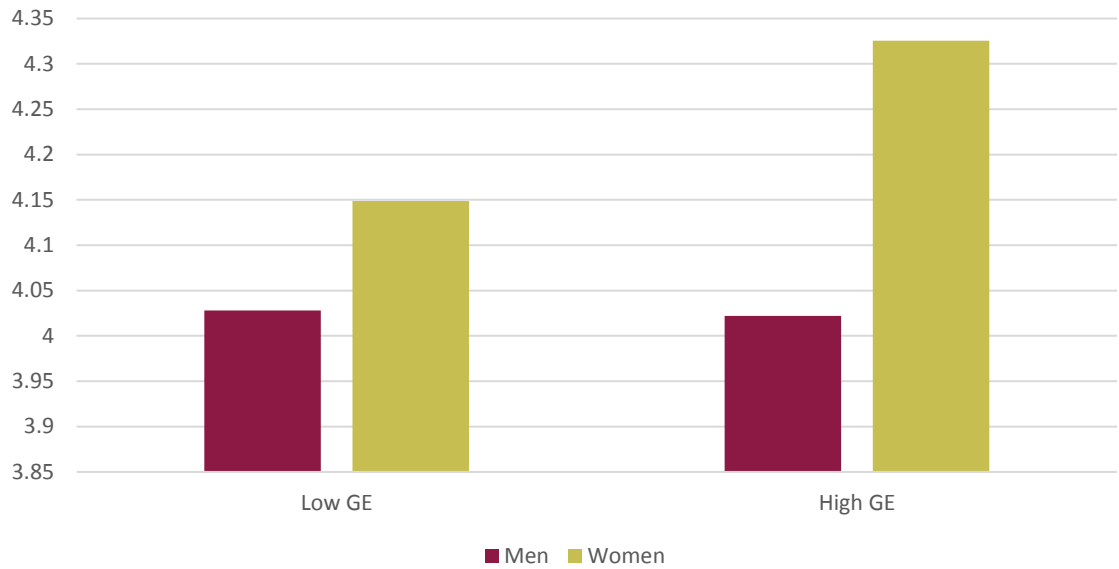


Figure 1. The interaction between Gender Egalitarianism & Leader Emotion Management (LEM composite scale).

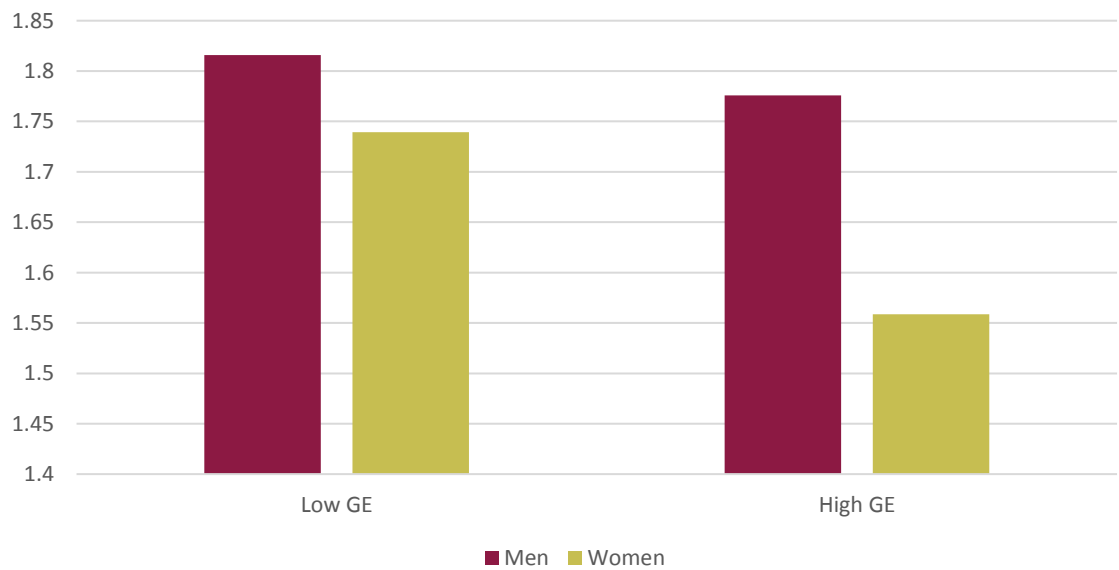


Figure 2. The interaction between Gender Egalitarianism & Leader Emotion Management (Conflict Management subscale).

LEADER EMOTION MANAGEMENT ACROSS CULTURES

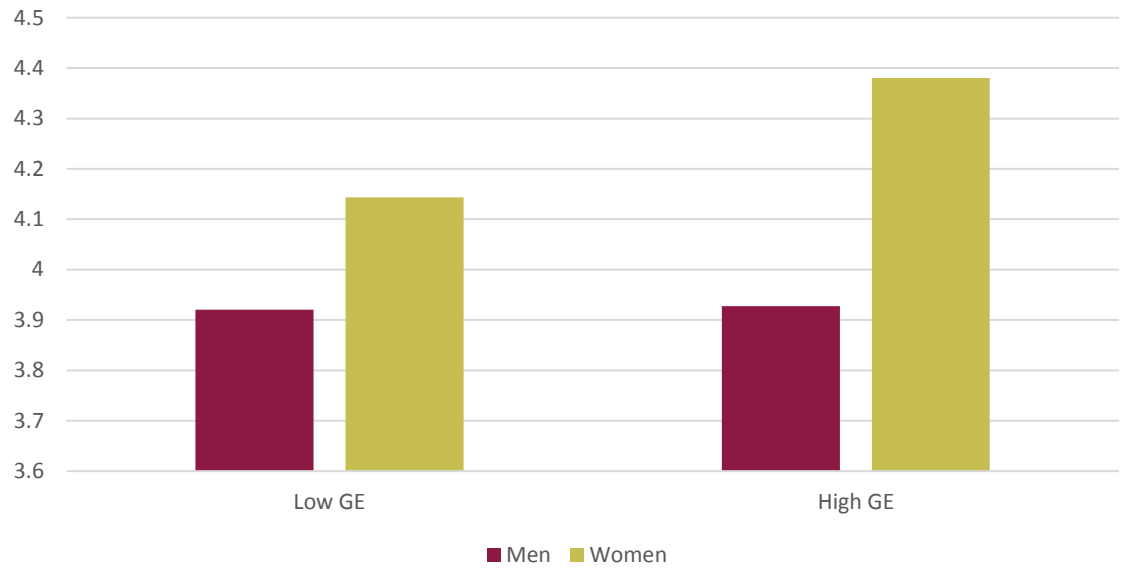


Figure 3. The interaction between Gender Egalitarianism & Leader Emotion Management (Warmth subscale).