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Department of Marketing

EXPLORING LEADERS' STRATEGIES FOR MANAGING
NEGATIVE EMOTIONS OF SALES PEOPLE

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Business Administration

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Abstract

The aim of this thesis is to explore the practice of leader strategies to manage and influence employees' emotions and its implications. Emotion has emerged as a key field in organisational behaviour, particularly pertaining to leadership. Managing followers' emotions is critical for leaders since employees' emotions are directly related to job performance. Most studies focus on measuring the high level relationship between the constructs of emotions and leadership and there is little research on how leaders deliberately manage the emotions of their followers.

This qualitative study explores sales leaders' practices for managing followers' negative emotions through a case study method using semi-structured interviews and critical incident technique. 32 sales leaders are interviewed from one of the top logistics companies; 89 critical incidents are identified where these leaders were challenged with managing their followers' emotions.

The findings of this research show that leaders consider changing employees' negative emotions a key function of leadership. The critical incidents demonstrate that leaders face both business and personal problems. Dealing with business situations requires strategies that involve more changing the problem or its meaning, while personal situations require strategies for reducing the intensity of the emotions.

The findings also demonstrate that the existing models of emotion regulation do not cover all of the strategies that leaders use to effectively manage followers' emotions. Therefore, a proposed comprehensive set of strategies that leaders can use is presented together with contextual factors that leaders should consider when managing followers' negative emotions, including the use of short-intermediate strategies and person focused strategies.

This study is among the first to qualitatively explore how leaders actually manage followers' negative emotions. A recommended set of strategies is presented to help leaders regulate and deal with negative or dysfunctional emotions. The findings provide clarification on what strategies leaders can use and how this practice can be improved.

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Abbreviations

CIT	Critical Incident Technique
CMS	Clyde Mood Scale
ECI	Emotional Competency Inventory
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EIA	Emotional Intelligence Appraisal
EQ	Emotional Quotient
EQ-I	Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Quotient Inventory (Bar-On 1997)
ER	Emotional Regulation
EROS	Emotion Regulation of Others and Self
ESAP	Emotional Skills Assessment Process
FFM	Five Factor Model
GMA	General Mental Ability
IAR	Interpersonal Affect Regulation
IEM	Interpersonal Emotional Management
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
LPI	Leadership Practices Inventory
MEIS	Multifactor Emotional Intelligence Scale
MMEO	Multi Level Model of Emotions in Organization
MSCEIT	Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test
MSCEIT V.2	Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test Version 2
MLQ	Multi Factor Leadership Questionnaire
MLQ (Form 5X)	Multi Factor Leadership Questionnaire 5 Factor Scale
SDR	Socially Desirable Responding
SREIT	Self Report Emotional Intelligence Test
SSI	Social Skills Inventory

SUEIT	Swinburne University Emotional Intelligence Test (Palmer & Stough, 2001)
TL	Transformational Leadership
TMMS	Trait Meta-Mood Scale
UMM	Unconstructive Mood Matching
WLEIS	Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (Wong & Law, 2002)
WPQei	Work Profile Questionnaire

Chapter 1: Introduction & Background Information

1.1 Background Information and Research Aim

The interest in the role of emotions in organisational behaviour has increased significantly in the last twenty years, especially in the leadership field. To illustrate, the leading journal on leadership 'The Leadership Quarterly', dedicated a special issue to emotions and leadership in 2002 (Bono and Ilies 2006). This emphasis shows that emotions and leadership are interrelated through different aspects and that research on emotions and leadership is just beginning (Humphrey 2002).

Leadership could influence performance through the use of emotions. For example, Priola-Merlo et al. (2002) show empirically that leaders have an impact on team's emotional climate, which consequently leads to increased performance. Humphrey (2002) on the other hand notes how managing followers' emotions is a key tool to improve productivity.

The role of emotions in leadership is especially noticeable in transformational leadership (TL), where leaders communicate with their followers using emotional messages (Bass 1985). Transformational leaders change followers' emotions to increase their motivation (Megerian and Sosik 1997). Therefore managing followers' emotions could be a key element of TL. Indeed, in their review of the empirical research on the relationship between TL and emotional intelligence (EI), Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) found that emotions are the link between TL and group outcome. They also found that there is strong link between emotional management and transformational leadership, and that leader emergence requires managing emotions.

In short, there is agreement in the literature that effective leadership requires managing and arousing team emotions, especially in the case of TL. Nevertheless, the literature does not explain what kind of strategies leaders can use to manage their followers' emotions. Furthermore, there is no model or framework explaining what kind of strategies to use in certain situations versus others, and why. In other words, there is lack of research about the "how", "why", and "when" of leaders' emotion management strategies that accounts for the context dependent nature of dealing with emotions.

Thus, there is a gap in the literature regarding how leaders should manage their followers' emotions and further research is needed in this area (Matthew et al. 2002, Waldman et al. 2011, and Riggio and Reichard 2008, Haver 2013; Little et al. 2012). For example, Wong and Law (2002) recommended further research on the topic of regulating emotions in the work environment and the development of strategies that can be implemented according to context and type of job.

In their review of the literature about the role of emotions in leadership, Gooty et al. (2010) also recommended theoretical work on emotions and leadership, particularly regarding how to manage one's own and others' emotions. They suggest that future research should explore what kind of strategies work within specific contexts, instead of testing the global effectiveness of these strategies.

Sales Leadership and Managing Followers' Emotions

Sales people's positive emotions can have a positive impact on performance through increased sales during sales encounters, repeated future sales, and increased word of mouth recommendations (Rafaeli and Sutton 1987, Tasi 2001, Tan et al. 2003, Mishra 2015). On the other hand, sales people can face emotional challenges for different reasons when dealing with customers. For example, sales people and key account managers may experience emotional lows when losing a request or bid (Brown et al. 1997, Mulki et al. 2015). If a sales person's negative emotion lasts for a long period, this could lead to reduced sales efforts and/or decreased customer interest in buying (Kidwell et al. 2011, Verbeke 1997, Verbeke & Bagozzi 2002).

Therefore, a leader's role in managing his or her salespeople's negative emotions could ensure that sales people express more positive emotions by turning their negative emotions into positive emotions, which could lead to a higher sales performance (Mulki et al. 2015). Thus, exploring leader strategies to manage team members' negative emotions within a sales context is relevant, as these leaders could limit their sales employees' emotional lows to ultimately improve performance.

1.2 Research Objective and Key Questions

Based on the above, this research aims to contribute to the literature by exploring and investigating the practice of leaders' strategies for managing followers' emotions. It aims to

develop more understanding of the practice of emotional management strategies and if/how the selection of these could be influenced by different affective events or emotional stimulus and any other contextual factors.

This research focuses on leaders within sales since Wong and Law (2002) suggest studying emotional management strategies within the context of specific jobs. This aim answers the demand of scholars to develop theoretical work for leaders to manage their team members' emotions. Furthermore, it could offer leaders and managers a toolbox and a comprehensive set of strategies that they can use to manage their teams' emotions to drive team and organisational performance. Therefore the key research questions in this study are:

1. How do leaders view the importance and limitation of managing followers' emotions and how do they explain its overall approach?
2. How do contextual factors like affective events and discrete emotions that leaders face when dealing with followers' emotions impact ER strategies?
3. How do leaders actually manage and regulate their followers' emotions?
4. How do leaders' actual strategies used compare to existing ER theory? And what are the implications of potential differences on both the practice and theory of leader ER?
5. What insights could be gained from the practice of leader ER about ER strategies effectiveness?

1.3 Research Methods

Since this study is explanatory in nature, qualitative methods are used to explore the practice of leaders' strategies to manage followers' emotions. The research methods adopted a case study strategy using semi structured interviews and critical incident techniques.

The case study is focused on a global logistics company where 32 sales leaders were interviewed to explore the practice of emotion management from their perspectives (i.e. how they view the regulation of their followers' emotions and how they accomplished this). In total, the interviews resulted in 83 qualified critical incidents. Each of these incidents included an experience where the leader had to change or regulate one of his salespeople's negative emotions which included the emotional stimulus that caused the emotion, the approach he or

she used to change the emotion, and the impact of this approach. These critical incidents were then coded in two cycles for analysis.

1.4 Thesis Structure

This thesis starts with a review of the literature on emotions and leadership, the literature on managing other emotions is then discussed along with leaders' emotion management to clarify the gap in the literature to be addressed. It then proceeds to explore, through qualitative studies, the practices of emotion regulation used by leaders to explore strategies and how context could affect the selection and impact of these strategies.

The first section of this literature review explains the importance of emotion regulation, particularly in a sales context, and then explains and analyses two key concepts involved in influencing and changing others' emotions: emotional intelligence and transformational leadership. Chapter three then goes deeper to explore the body of knowledge of emotion regulation (or emotion management), exploring different strategy models and their effectiveness.

Chapter four presents the gap demonstrated in the literature review and defines the research aim and research questions. Chapter five describes the methodology used in this study. The philosophical approach is explained along with the study design and the methods of data collection and analysis.

Finally, chapter six presents the key findings from this research. The insights of these findings and the implications to leaders are elaborated on in chapter seven. The conclusion chapter summarizes the research, including its contribution and limitations, and recommends areas for future research.

Chapter 2: Importance of Emotion Regulation; Emotional Intelligence and Transformational Leadership

Introduction

This chapter sets the stage of the literature review and the overall study by introducing the importance of emotion regulation (ER) in sales. Next, it explores two key concepts that are related to emotions in leadership: emotional intelligence (EI) and transformational leadership (TL) in order to explore how leaders interact with and manage emotions. These two constructs that have captured the attention and focus of academics and professionals alike, are acknowledged as potential predictors of job performance and effective leadership. More importantly, both constructs include elements about managing or arousing others' emotions. Therefore, it is beneficial for this study to synthesize the literature around these concepts by focusing on the link between them in order to highlight the areas of managing and arousing others' emotions.

Although there are many different leadership theories, TL has dominated the leadership literature for the past two decades (Brown and Moshavi 2005). More studies have explored TL and charismatic leadership (charismatic leadership considered a key component of TL), than all of the other leadership theories combined (Judge & Piccolo 2004). Likewise, the interest in EI and its impact on leadership has also flourished in the past two decades. In fact, the concept has become a standard in general psychology, applied psychology, and business (Antonakis et al. 2009). The rise in popularity of EI is mainly attributed to the fact that cognitive intelligence only predicts a small part of performance. Thus, EI has gained popularity as a potential determinant of the remaining part of the equation (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran 2004).

Many researchers have explored the relationship between EI and TL because TL has a greater focus on emotions than other leadership theories (Yukl 1999). Yet, many studies have failed to identify predictive factors of TL (Herms and Crede 2010). As a result, interest in exploring the link between EI and TL has increased. For example, Brown and Moshavi (2005) suggest that interest in EI was fueled by the need to explore the "X" factor of TL prediction; they propose that EI is either an antecedent or a moderator of TL, or it is independent of TL. This

chapter will further discuss EI, TL, and the relationship between these two constructs to highlight the emotion influence part in these concepts which can be a stepping stone to explore managing emotions in leadership.

Section 1 explains the importance of emotions and emotion regulation in sales, where salespeople's emotions influence performance. Section 2 explains what EI is and compares the different schools of thought within this construct. One school of thought is the ability model, which limits EI to emotional abilities. The other school of thought is a mixed model, which includes most of the non-cognitive abilities and traits (e.g. personality traits and social abilities) under the construct. Although the mixed model approach is often used in consultancy work, it has been criticized for its very limited incremental validity compared to well-established personal difference constructs, like the big five personality test. Moreover, this section explains the various stream of EI scales and the key differences between them. Studies showing that EI predicts different outcomes, including job performance and leadership effectiveness, are also summarized.

Section 3 focuses on transformational leadership by defining TL, providing an overview of its background, and explaining its benefits. In section 4, the relationship between emotion and leadership is explored. The review continues to look closely at this relationship and exemplifies many studies that confirm a positive correlation. Finally, this section focuses on the relationship between EI and TL.

2.1 Setting the Stage: Importance of Emotion Regulation

2.1.1 Emotion Regulation in Organisations

Many researchers highlight the importance of leadership emotion management in organisations. The advocates for leader emotion management highlight the importance of managing dysfunctional and negative emotions and the benefit of eliciting positive and functional emotions. The term functional emotion used here refers to the emotions that can best serve to achieve goals. Emotions are part of daily work for each member of an organisation.

Ostell (1996) notes that if emotions, mainly dysfunctional ones, are extreme and tenacious they may have a negative impact on behaviour. He argues that dysfunctional emotions have a strong negative impact on mental processes, performance, and interpersonal relationships. He also argues that managers need to change these emotions to ensure that employees do not behave in negative ways in response to them.

On other hand, the seminal work of Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) explains the importance and benefits of eliciting positive and functional emotions; they note that most of the theories of motivation failed to include the impact of emotion. The lowest level of involvement of an employee is physical then cognitive, which is the focus of motivation theories. On the other hand, the highest level of involvement according to them is emotional. For example an employee would forget dinner while being emotionally involved in his work, which is high engagement. Having high personal engagement...and “flow”...makes an individual engaged in their work physically, cognitively, and emotionally (Ashforth and Humphrey 1995).

According to Ashforth and Humphrey (1995, p.110):

“The common theme underlying these perspectives is that strong motivation and psychological involvement are not possible without an emotional connection to the work or work context. The traditional focus on effort (behavior) and expectations (cognition) addresses the hand and the head of the individual, but not the heart.”

Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) argue that the process of TL is about evoking, framing, and mobilizing emotions, whereas transactional leaders are more about cognition. They recommend that future researchers study emotional change on individuals, groups, and organisational levels since real dedication and engagement are possible only when employee is emotionally involved in work. In short, leaders’ emotion management is key to reduce or change negative emotions and subsequent unproductive behaviour, and to elicit positive and functional emotions, which could lead to better engagement.

2.1.2 Emotion Regulation in Sales

EI is considered a key skill for salespeople (Sojka et al. 2002, Manna et al. 2004) since salespeople’s EI correlates with high performance (Gignac et al. 2012) and high customer orientation (Rozell et al. 2004). Kidwell et al.’s (2011) study shows that salespeople’s EI correlates with sales performance in real estate and insurance selling. Highly emotionally

intelligent salespeople are more effective at customer-orientated selling and are better at influencing customer decision. Furthermore, Kidwell et al.'s (2011) study shows that emotions and emotion regulation are important for salesperson attitudes and behaviours.

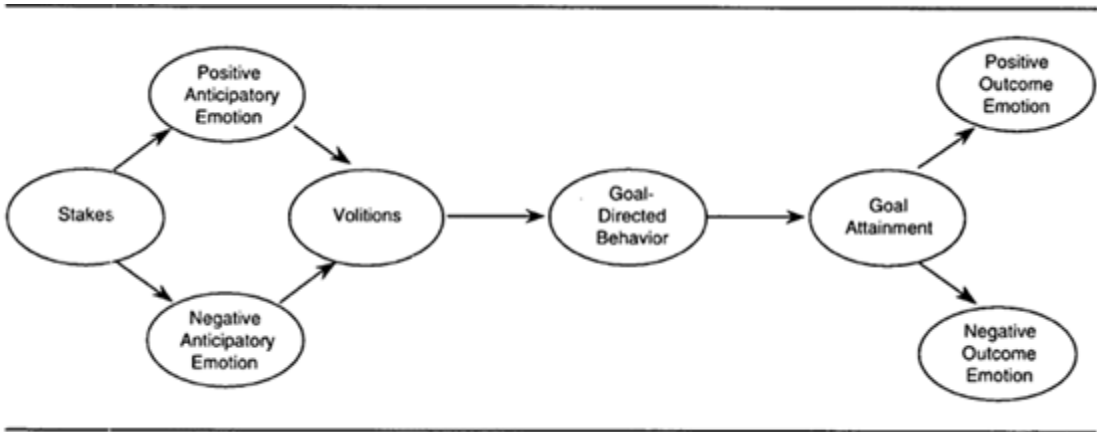
Despite the fact that the research on emotion in sales is limited (Kidwell et al. 2011, Bande et al. 2015), emotion is a key psychological factor that impacts salespeople's behaviour and performance (Bande et al. 2015). Emotions influence salespeople's motivation, which is critical to sales performance (Badovick et al. 1992). Brown et al.'s (1997, p. 39) study concludes that "emotions are an important driving force behind sales force motivation.". Their findings show that despite the fact that sales literature used to focus on cognition when it comes to motivation, "salespeople act on their feelings as well as on their thoughts" (Borwn et al. 1997, p. 47).

Sales professionals use emotions during sales activities to ensure positive results (Kidwell et al. 2011). Brown et al. (1997, p. 39) explain how "emotions constitute a powerful psychological force that can affect behaviour and performance in important ways".

Furthermore, success or failure in goal attainment could lead to positive or negative emotions respectively which could impact future sales activities.

Salespeople are subject to emotions because of their interactions with customers and because of the nature of their organisational role as boundary spanners within organisation (Verbeke 1997). A salesperson's emotion influences the quality of this interaction, which consequently impacts sales performance and salespeople's turnover rate (Verbeke 1997).

Figure 3.1: Effects of Anticipatory Emotions on Salesperson Intentions, Behaviour, and Performance: A Conceptual Model (Brown et al. 1997)



Salespeople who are good at transmitting and receiving emotions have higher sales performance. Their emotions can be an asset that could lead to higher performance in the sales context through emotional contagion (Verbeke 1997) where positive emotions like optimism increase their sales performance (Seligman and Schulman 1986).

Selling “is a profession in which emotional highs and lows are commonplace” Brown et al. (1997, p. 39). Mulki et al. (2015, p. 627) echo this by explaining that: “on the customer's side, salespeople experience emotional crests and valleys on a regular basis”. For example, salespeople face rejection and other situations, which could lead to negative emotions. Certain events like not making sales quotas lead to emotional reactions that affect subsequent motivation (Badovick 1988, 1990). Furthermore, emotionally sensitive salespeople can experience burnout through stress, which leads to negative performance (Verbeke 1997).

The nature of sales work makes salespeople experience emotional exhaustion, which is a key factor of burn out (Bande et al. 2015). Kemp et al. (2012, p. 24) note that emotionally exhausted salespeople become less motivated: “emotionally exhausted salespeople often exhibit little motivation on the job, which can lead to poor performance. Results from our study demonstrate the negative relationship between emotional exhaustion and motivation”.

Verbeke and Bagozzi (2002) conducted a study with 458 salespeople who were selling financial services. They found that during their selling activities salespeople experience negative emotions such as shame and embarrassment, which leads to avoidance behaviour and consequently negatively affects performance, as defined by sales volume and the quality of sales interactions with customers.

Importance of Regulating Salespeople Emotions

Given the importance of emotions in sales as explained above, managing salespeople’s emotions is key since as Kemp et al (2012, p.24) put it: “...the salesperson may be subject to a number of stressors. As a result, emotional factors including a salesperson's capacity to regulate his/her emotions can play an important role in success”.

Schweingruber (2005) shows that for salespeople managing emotion is important. Mulki et al. (2015, p. 628) show that sales people emotion regulations leads to less interpersonal conflict and stress and to higher performance:

“The findings of the present study show that regulation of emotions is critical for reducing interpersonal conflict and for effective job performance. Regulation of emotions is found to impact job performance directly, as well as indirectly, by reducing felt stress. ... regulation of emotions can help a salesperson in creating more professional work environments, and to ensure support from colleagues in order to meet customer needs”.

Brown et al. (1997, p. 47) explain that some sales managers do not realize the power of salespeople emotions and recommend that they do become aware of “the level of emotional intensity that salespeople experience during various phases of the selling cycle” which could lead to more effective management. Kemp et al. (2012, p. 25) explains the importance of managing salespeople emotions in their study too:

“Given the myriad of emotions, including negative emotions salespeople may experience frequently on the job (e.g., stress, rejection, anxiety and loneliness), managerial styles that significantly consider salespeople's emotions can serve to facilitate successful selling behaviors in salespeople.”

Sales manager need to have a holistic view of salesperson by seeing the “whole person” i.e. both his cognitive and emotional sides as they both influence salesperson’s motivation and action (Brown et al 1997, p. 48): “Emotion is likely to be important in determining job behaviors, attitudes, and outcomes, and it represents virtually unexplored territory for sales and marketing managers.”. Therefore it is important to research strategies to manage negative emotions which could increase motivation and productivity and reduce turnover (Brown et al 1997).

Sales managers should observe closely highly emotionally sensitive salespeople since they are more exposed to burnout (Verbeke 1997). Indeed Mulki et al. (2015, p. 628) recommend that sales leaders and companies help salespeople manage their negative emotions:

“Organisations and sales managers can aid salespeople in regulation of emotions to manage conflict by creating conflict management mechanisms, and training salespeople on them.”

In short, emotions are key to sales performance therefore managing them could help salespeople achieve results by reducing the negative emotions and increasing salespeople positive emotions. Given the importance of emotion regulations, the remaining of this chapter will investigate two theories which include a factor of managing or influencing others emotions: EI and TL.

2.2 Emotional Intelligence

EI is a field of study that has evolved over time and consists of two main schools of thought that define and measure the concept differently. Measurements of EI have been further divided into three different streams. This variation has resulted in some difficulty when comparing and analyzing data across studies. The concept and history of EI, the different schools of thought, and the different forms of measurement are discussed in this section.

Emotional intelligence background

While emotions at work have been overlooked in the literature (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran 2004), the history of EI goes back to 1920. Thorndike (1920) coined the term social intelligence, defining it as the ability to understand and manage people. To add to this concept, Gardner (1985) stated that cognitive abilities alone do not predict performance. He popularized the idea of multiple intelligences which included intrapersonal intelligence. Intrapersonal intelligence is defined as the ability of an individual to understand and appreciate his or her emotions. Since then, the interest in EI and its impact has flourished and has become a standard in general psychology, applied psychology, and business (Antonakis et al. 2009).

As previously mentioned, this rise in popularity of EI was fueled by the fact that cognitive intelligence predicts only a small part of performance. Thus, EI has gained popularity as a potential determinant of the remaining part of the equation (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran 2004). Researchers turned to emotions to understand the remaining part of the equation because of a cultural shift where emotions began to play a role in society and science. Previously, emotions were overlooked because society and science were solely focused on cognition (Mayer et al. 2004). The first articles to coin the concept and definition of EI were Mayer et al. (1990), and Salovey and Mayer (1990). Mayer (2001) presents an overview of the emergence of EI in the literature beginning in the twentieth century and dividing this emergence into five stages:

- Stage 1 1900-1969: Intelligence and emotions became separate and narrow fields
- Stage 2 1970-1989: Researchers begin to explore the link between emotions and thoughts; non-verbal communication; and Gardner's multiple intelligences, including intrapersonal and interpersonal. The interest in social intelligence began and the term emotional intelligence was coined.

- Stage 3 1990-1993: The foundation of emotional intelligence emerged through a series of articles by Mayer and Salovey and researchers were first able to measure EI.
- Stage 4 1994-1997: Popularization and broadening of the concept, starting with Goleman's (1995) book on EI, followed by a Time magazine article and the development of EI personality scales.
- Stage 5 1998- Present: Institutionalization of EI through research focusing on refining the concept, developing new measures, and publication of peer reviewed research.

Emotional intelligence definitions

The EI construct is controversial in the literature. Cho et al. (2015) note this disagreement in the literature by explaining that despite the advances, “the construct is still being questioned ..., because of divergent and seemingly contradictory theoretical definitions of EI” (Cho et al. 2015, p. 1241). Rahman et al. (2016) note that because EI has become a buzzword in the social science, “there are as many definitions as there are people who have attempted to define it” (Rahman et al. 2016, p. 239).

Overall, there are two schools of thought which define and measure EI differently. The first school of thought, the ability models, is best represented by Mayer, Salovey, and colleagues (Mayer et al., 2004). Salovey et al. (2000) define EI as a “fairly well-defined set of emotional processing skills” (Mayer et al. 2004, p.197). This includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access and generate emotions so as to assist thought, to understand emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth (e.g. Mayer & Salovey 1997). Thus, the ability models define EI as the ability or capacity to perceive, understand, use, and manage emotions. This construct can be measured objectively through performance tests, much like other types of intelligences such as cognitive intelligence (IQ). In short, according to this school of thought, EI is defined as “constellation of abilities concerning the recognition, comprehension, regulation and employment of emotions in different circumstances.” (Fiori 2015, p. 170).

The second school of thought is the mixed model, best represented by Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1998). According to this model EI is defined as “encompassing multiple aspects of personal functioning that are more loosely related to emotion” (Matthews et al. 2002, p 515). Goleman (1998), representing the mixed model approach, defines EI as “the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing

emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships” (Goleman 1998, p. 317). This model opposes cognitive abilities and includes character traits, relationships, and social skills. Bar-On (1997) also represents a model of mixed EI, defining EI as “an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influence one’s ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures” (Bar-On 1997, p 14). Therefore, both Goleman (1998) and Bar-On (1997) broaden the scope of EI from a narrow focus on the ability to perceive, understand, use, and manage emotions, to include a set of positive traits and characteristics that are required to be successful on a social and professional level.

While these two schools of thought are explained in further detail in the next section, it is also important to highlight other EI definitions in the literature that do not belong to the creators of these models, because they may provide different perspectives on EI. For example, Ashkanasy and Daus’ (2002) definition, which is in line with Mayer et al. (2004), states that “emotional intelligence involves, at least in part, a person’s abilities to effectively identify and to perceive emotion (in self and others), as well as possession of the skills to understand and to manage those emotions successfully.” p 81. In another example, Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) define EI as “the set of abilities (verbal and nonverbal) that enable a person to generate, recognize, express, understand, and evaluate their own and others emotions in order to guide thinking and action that successfully cope with environmental demanded and pressures” p 72.

Two conceptual models within the emotional intelligence research

As described in the previous section, the various views of EI within the literature are diverse and controversial. Some researchers believe that EI is the key factor for determining job performance and is far more important than cognitive capabilities (Goleman 1995, 1998). At the other extreme, EI is not considered to bring additional value to job performance beyond other established concepts in the psychology literature such as the big five personality traits and cognitive abilities. This variance may be explained by the fact that there are multiple models of EI within the literature. Both proponents and opponents of EI do not differentiate between these constructs since they are labeled with the same name: Emotional Intelligence. Thus, every time the term EI is mentioned in the literature, one must identify which stream of EI they are referring to because the definition of EI has been broadened by different authors since its inception (Mayer 2001).

There are a number of different classifications that researchers use to study EI. One example is Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) who categorize the EI research and associated measures into three streams:

- Stream 1-ability based model: based on the four branches abilities model and measured using the MSCEIT scale (Mayer and Salovey 1997) ,which relies on a performance test that is similar to cognitive tests (IQ)
- Stream 2-self and peer report measures: based on the Mayer-Salovey concept of EI representation (Schutte et al. 1998, Wong & Law 2002 all cited by Ashkanasy & Daus 2005)
- Stream 3-mixed model: covers components not included in Salovey and Mayer’s model, including personality and social competences and behavioural preferences (Goleman 1995, 1998; Bar-On 1997).

Most of the authors in the EI field agree on a conceptual division between the ability model and the mixed model (Muyia 2009; Brackett and Mayer 2003; Mayer 2001). For example, Mayer (2001) classifies EI into two streams. The first is defined as “intelligence involving emotions” while the second is “the popularized, mixed approaches” which broadened the concept by adding skills and competencies (Mayer 2001, p 9).

The ability models are considered the closest to cognitive intelligence as they correlate with its measures. For example, IQ is measured based on performance with the assumption that this ability could develop over time like EI (Muyia 2009). On the other hand, the mixed model is presented by the work of Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1995) and are considered the non-cognitive intelligence. Their work includes reliable and factorial validity, standardized scales, and the use of self-report as methods of assessment. The mixed model is used widely in practice while the ability models have stronger theoretical foundations (Ashkanasy & Daus 2004).

Emotional intelligence impact and benefits

This section explains the impact and benefits of EI which could be divided into three main areas: overall performance, organisational commitment, and leadership.

EI impact on overall performance

Some researchers such as Goleman (1995) consider EI the best predictor of performance, claiming that it can predict outcomes more than IQ. However, Mayer et al. (2004) criticize such claims; they believe that statements like this harm the EI field and recommend researching the predictive impact of EI instead.

Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) performed a meta-analysis on the predictive validity of EI including 69 independent studies; samples sizes within the included studies varied from 13 to 1125. Their findings demonstrated a correlation between EI and performance in most situations. Overall, EI predicted performance in work, academic, and life settings. Research on the benefits of EI in this literature review is divided into three key areas: job performance, social benefits, and leadership. Studies showing that EI is a predictor of leadership are introduced briefly here and further discussed in the next chapter of this thesis. In their meta-analysis, Van Rooy and Viswesvaran (2004) state that EI is a construct that can predict performance and that it is worthwhile to conduct further research in this area. The heterogeneity within their sample enhanced the generalizability of these findings.

Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) and Muiya (2009) also note that there are empirical studies demonstrating that high EI is positively correlated with job performance. For example, Mayer et al.'s (2004) findings show that individuals with high EI write better vision statements, solve problems despite having a lower IQ, have higher academic performance, and have better communication, all of which have a positive impact on performance. Customer relationships are also correlated with EI which impacts customer satisfaction, particularly in the case of customer facing employees (Mayer et al. 2004). In addition, Lopes et al. (2006) used the ability model scale, MSCEIT, to show that high EI individuals benefit from higher interpersonal facilitation and stress tolerance, and that EI predicts rank and merit increase. Finally, Janovics and Christiansen (2001) cited by Muiya (2009) note that there is a correlation between EI and job performance based on a supervisor's rating.

Research suggests that EI is directly related to behaviour, academic achievement, and relationships. For example, a number of studies have demonstrated that EI is inversely correlated with negative or deviant behaviour and poor relationships (Brackett et al. 2004; Trinidad and Johnson 2002; Brackett and Mayer 2003). Trinidad and Johnson (2002) propose that this relationship could be caused by an ability to read others and a desire to avoid and

resist unwanted peer pressure. The relationship between academic achievement and EI has also been explored in adolescents and college students. Bracket and Mayer (2003) found that EI is inversely correlated to academic achievement by investigating the impact of low EI using different EI scales including performance-based and self-report measures. Likewise, the managing emotions branch of MSCEIT is associated with positive relations with others, perceived parental support, and a lower chance of negative contact with close friends. These effects were observed beyond those of the big five and verbal intelligence (Lopes et al. 2003; Lopes et al. 2005). EI also has a direct relationship to happiness and the ability to manage stress (Gohm et al. 2005).

While reviewing the literature on the impact of EI, Mayer et al. (2004) note that high EI is associated with quality relationships with friends, attractiveness, social sensitivity, and stress management. Highly emotional intelligent people have better and richer relationships than those with lower EI. They are open, social, highly cooperative, and they tend to value family and friends. On the other hand, people with low EI are more likely to engage in problem behaviour, harassment, violence, tobacco, drugs use, and destructive negative behaviour.

EI impact on organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is “the degree to which an employee identifies with a particular organisation and its goals, and wishes to maintain membership in an organisation” Robbins and Judge (2013, p75). Meyer and Allen (1991) proposed a three-component model of organisational commitment (TCM) which consists of the following elements (Meyer and Morin 2016):

- Affective commitment: affective attachment to the organisation, which includes emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation
- Continuance commitment: perceived cost of leaving the organisation
- Normative commitment: sense of obligation to stay

Emotional intelligence is significantly and positively related to organisational commitment while emotion self-regulation has a significant effect on organisational commitment (Güleryüz et al. 2008). Some studies have explored the relationship between emotional labour and organisational commitment. Surface acting has a significant negative relationship with OC, while deep acting has no significant relationship with it (Yang and Chang 2008). EI is

strongly correlated with organisational commitment in cases that require high emotional labour, though this is not the case with low emotional labour (Wong and Law 2002). Johar and Shah (2014) show that EI and OC are correlated and that this correlation applies to EI individual branches and OC.

Qureshi et al. (2015) show that leader emotional intelligence correlates with employee affective commitment, and it has a poor impact on continuous commitment and a strong impact on employee normative commitment. Long and Kowang (2015) found through their study that leader EI correlates with followers' OC. All leader EI elements have this correlation with OC. Humphreys et al. (2003) state that follower's EI correlates with OC more than leader EI. In short, the literature seems to confirm the correlation between EI and organisational commitment in the case of leaders' and followers' EI.

EI impact on leadership

The literature suggests that EI is positively correlated with strong leadership ability, particularly with respect to organisational behaviour. According to Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) EI is highly correlated with leadership, especially TL which will be described in section three of this chapter:

“Clearly, and possibly to the surprise of the detractors of emotional intelligence, the emerging empirical evidence supports the link between leadership ability (particularly transformational leadership) and the abilities-based model of emotional intelligence. This is plainly an exciting area of research in organizational behavior, and where the abilities model of emotional intelligence appears to continue to have great potential.” (Daus and Ashkanasy 2005, p.460).

According to Mayer et al. (2004), a leader's EI is measured by emotional awareness and emotional understanding and has a positive impact on employees' commitments to their companies. For instance, high EI scorers are better at writing vision statements and this is particularly true in work where positive personal commitment is important (Mayer et al. 2004). This relationship is relevant since writing vision statements is an important leadership task.

In their investigation of the empirical research, Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) found that emotions are crucial for success in all stages of leadership. They also found that emotions are

the link between TL and group outcome, and that EI is crucial for effective leadership. According to them, there is strong link between emotional management and TL. Furthermore, leader emergence requires managing emotions and TL is linked to understanding emotions. Of interest, leaders with high emotional understanding underrate their own leadership, while those with low emotional understanding overrate their leadership. Studies covered by Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) are presented and summarized in table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1: Summaries of Studies on Relationship Between Leadership and EI (Based on Daus and Ashkanasy 2005)

Authors	Type	Focus	Summary
George (2000)	Conceptual	Leadership	There is strong tie between EI and leadership
Ashkanasy and Tse (1998)	Conceptual	Leadership	Emotions are crucial in all stages and are the link between transformational leadership and group outcome
Prati et al. (2003)	Conceptual	Leadership	EI is crucial for effective leadership and results
Daus & Ashkanasy (2005)	Conceptual	Leadership	Strong link between specific elements of EI; emotional management and transformational leadership
Daus and Harris (2003)	Empirical	Leadership	EI is linked to leader emergence especially managing emotions and transformation leadership especially understanding emotions
Coetsee & Schaap (2004)	Empirical	Leadership, Transformational Leadership	Link between EI and transformational leadership especially identifying and managing emotions EI's managing emotions is linked to transactional leadership EI's using emotions is inversely linked to using emotions
Rubin, Munz, and Bommer (2004)	Empirical	Leadership, Transformational Leadership	Emotions recognition together with positive affectivity and agreeableness predicted transformational leadership
Cote' et al. (2004)	Empirical	Leadership	EI is strongly linked to supervisor rated leadership potential and marginally related to peer potential even when controlling the big five, cognitive and other variables
Giles (2001)	Empirical	Leadership	Team members of leaders with higher Emotional management have more commitment to the organisation and its vision
Collins (2001)	Empirical	Leadership	Leader with high Emotional understanding underrate their own leadership while those with low emotional understanding overrates their leadership

Conceptual exploration of EI ability model

The ability model is considered the foundation of the mixed model approach to EI. Therefore, it is important to explain the key elements of this construct before moving on to discuss the mixed model. Based on their review of the literature, Mayer et al. (2004) describe the four branch model or ability model as consisting of the following abilities:

- Perceiving emotions: “non-verbal perception and expression of emotion in the face, voice, and related communication channels” p 199. This ability is measured through identifying emotions in faces and pictures of landscapes or designs. p. 200
- Using emotions to facilitate thought: how to use specific emotions to assist with certain types of thinking, such as problem solving. This ability is measured through sensation by comparing “emotions to tactile and sensory stimuli”, and facilitation by identifying the types of emotions that best serve specific thinking. p.200
- Understanding emotions: ability to analyze emotions, to reflect on their trends, and to understand their outcomes. This ability is measured through changes, by knowing the circumstances that lead to an increase or decrease of emotional intensity, or by identifying circumstances that change one emotion into another emotion. This is accomplished by identifying the emotions that “are involved in certain complex affective states” p. 200
- Managing emotions: this branch involves the rest of the personality; emotions are managed “in the context of the individuals’ goals, self-knowledge, and social awareness.” P 199. This ability is measured through emotion management, by asking people “how they would maintain or change their feelings” in certain circumstance, and through emotional relationships by asking people “how they manage other’s feelings” to achieve a certain goal p. 200.

According to Mayer et al. (2004), EI meets the standard of traditional intelligence since it can be operationalized (i.e. has correct answers), has patterns of correlations, and develops with age p. 200.

Conceptual comparison of ability model and mixed model

Dulewicz and Higgs (2000) compared the elements of EI according to various emotional concepts and found that the four branches ability model is more focused on the ability elements of EI than the mixed model (Goleman, 1995, 1998) which includes many other personality, character, and social skills. Gowing (2001) differentiates within the EI literature between EI and emotional competences. According to him, EI is the ability to understand and use emotions. On the other hand, emotional competence is “the personal and social skills that lead to superior performance in the world of work” pg. 85. In summary, according to Gowing (2001) the other models include abilities that are presented within the ability model. Therefore, the latter could be considered the foundation of all the other EI measures (Gowing 2001).

Conceptual criticism of emotional intelligence

According to the EI book by Matthews et al. (2002), which is considered a comprehensive authoritative source on EI” (Landy 2005), there are psychometric, conceptual, theoretical and applied issues in the EI field. One example that was previously discussed is the lack of standardization when defining EI. Specifically, the difference between the ability model (Salovey et al. 2000) where EI is a “fairly well-defined set of emotional processing skills” and the mixed model (Goleman 1995 and Bar-On 1997) where EI is “encompassing multiple aspects of personal functioning that are more loosely related to emotion” (Matthews et al. 2002, pg. 515). They are both considered to be lacking a strong foundation based on the emotional intelligence literature.

There has been more criticism about EI. For example, some point out that EI is not adequately defined and that its application is flawed (Locke 2005). Others (Landy, 2005) support these ideas, stating that the current evidence demonstrating a link between EI and work performance exists mostly outside scientific research. According to them, most of the research conducted to demonstrate the impact of EI on performance is proprietary and inaccessible. They also state that EI has a stronger association with social intelligence than performance. Finally, some researchers have concluded that the measures of EI cannot be considered reliable until further research is conducted (Conte, 2005).

Mayer et al. (2004) and Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) point out that the majority of the criticism about the reliability and scientific validity of EI are more relevant to the mixed

model than the ability model. This is because the mixed model approach to EI does not separate emotional intelligence from other elements of personality and character traits. Therefore, they defend the EI research against these three main criticisms and urge critics to differentiate between these two streams.

To dispute Locke's critique that EI is not adequately defined and that its application is flawed (Locke 2005) they note that in the abilities four branches model EI is based on the theory of emotions and the impact of emotion in organisational behaviour, which is distinct from social intelligence. They add that since it is an evolving area, further research is needed to completely comprehend the nature and impact of emotional intelligence (Ashkanasy and Daus 2005).

In defense against the critique about EI (e.g. Locke 2005, Landy 2005 and Conte 2005), Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) note that these critics belong to the old school of organisational behaviour, where emotion was not thought to impact organisational behaviour. The followers of this old school approach do not consider the latest research on emotions when constructing their arguments. This latest research shows that EI has a large impact on cognitive thought processes. Furthermore, these critics do not differentiate between the abilities four branches models and other models, where the former is the most scientifically based (Ashkanasy & Daus 2005).

Finally, Ashkanasy and Daus 2005 emphasize that criticism from Conte (2005), that the measures of EI cannot be considered reliable until further research is conducted, confuses Mayer and Salovey's (2004) model of EI with the other models. The other models, they argue, are not as reliable as the abilities measure of EI, MSCEIT. They acknowledge, however, that this measure is not without its challenges as stated by both the creators and the critics (Ashkanasy & Daus 2005).

In short, most of the criticism about EI is related to the mixed model as they include elements which are measured in other well-established tests like the personality big five. The ability model's theoretical foundation is defined by the ability to identify, perceive, understand, and manage emotions. This is considered the most appropriate model to explore the construct of EI.

Summary of emotional intelligence

This section explored the background and the definitions of EI according to different researchers. It has shown that there are different streams of EI research that can be classified conceptually into two models: the ability model and the mixed model. The findings on the benefits of EI in different areas such as job performance, social behaviour, organisational commitment and leadership are highlighted. These findings demonstrate the predictive value and impact of EI. Furthermore, the conceptual exploration of the scales demonstrated that the mixed model includes elements of well-established constructs, such as the personality big five and other social competencies. On the other hand, the ability model is considered the most theoretically sound of the two. Both models however include the managing emotions element which is the subject of this study.

2.3 Transformational Leadership

Research has shown that there is a link between EI and transformational leadership (TL). TL, the most widely studied form of leadership is discussed in this section. TL is a form of leadership that improves job performance in followers including sales (MacKenzie et al. 2001). The definition of TL, how it is measured, and common criticism of the TL research are discussed in this section.

Transformational leadership: definition and elements

Bass (1999) defined TL by comparing it to transactional leadership, “transformational leaders uplift the morale, motivation, and morals of their followers, transactional leaders cater to their followers’ immediate self-interests” p.9. TL dominated the leadership literature for two decades and its evolution was the result of dissatisfaction with the previous models of leadership (Brown and Moshavi 2005). The theory of TL includes the following components:

Transformational leadership - consisting of the following factors: idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavioural), individual consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation.

Transactional leadership - consisting of three factors: contingent reward, management by exception – active, and management by exception – passive.

Non-leadership or laissez-faire: consisting of one factor.

According to Bass (1999), TL's five key elements are composed of different factors as follows:

- Idealized influence (attributed) - perceived confidence, social charisma, and commitment to higher order.
- Idealized influence (behavioural) - charismatic action based on values, beliefs, and ideals.
- Individual consideration - attending to the needs of followers through socio-economic support. This includes: mentoring followers, maintaining frequent contact, encouraging followers to self-actualize, and empowering followers.
- Inspirational motivation - inspire and appeal by setting challenging goals and communicating optimism about goal achievement.
- Intellectual stimulation - behaviours that challenge followers' assumptions and make them think creatively, take risks, and participate intellectually.

Transformational leadership background

The TL theory is believed to be the most prominent theory within the current leadership research (Judge and Piccolo 2004). Charismatic and transformational leadership are the most researched leadership theories in the last fifteen years and they have led to superior performance above expectations (Avolio et al., 2009). Judge & Piccolo (2004) found, when researching the PsycINFO database, that there are more published studies on transformational leadership and charismatic leadership than on all studies published on other popular leadership theories combined. In their review of the ten years of research in the *Leadership Quarterly*, Lowe and Gardner (2000) noted that for twenty-five years researchers were "trapped" by focusing "on two factor persona and task orientation" where unconscious and affective sides of leader-follower interaction have been "virtually ignored" p. 502. They note that the work of Burns (1978) and House (1977) reawakened the interest in the charismatic and affective side of leadership and that this focus did revitalize the field.

In 1978, Burns introduced the TL concept in a political context by differentiating between transformational and transactional leadership; the former focuses on transcending personal needs for a higher order goal and the latter deals with exchanging resources. Subsequently, Bass (1985) took the TL concept from Burns, made developments and refinements on it and introduced its measurement. While Burns presents transformational leadership and

transactional leadership as mutually exclusive concepts, Bass (1985) notes that transformational leadership and transactional leadership are separate constructs and consequently could co-exist and complement each other. Bass further developed and explained the concepts and the tasks involved in both types of leadership (Judge and Piccolo 2004).

Moreover, Bass (1998) considers that TL is developed on the foundation of transactional leadership, that TL cannot replace transactional leadership, and that the most effective leaders are both transformational and transactional (Bass 1999 cited by Judge & Piccolo 2004). Avolio (1999) considers transaction the foundation of transformation (Avolio 1999 cited by Judge & Piccolo 2004). According to Avolio (1999), in transactional leadership employees are led to meet expectations and are rewarded for it. Alternatively, TL makes employees deliver and perform beyond expectations (Bass 1998 cited by Judge & Piccolo 2004). Judge and Piccolo's (2004) findings, based on their meta-analysis, show "important support for the validity of transformational as well as contingent reward and, to some extent, laissez-faire leadership. The validity of transformational leadership, in particular, seems to generalize across many situations, including when it is studied in rigorous settings" p. 765. Bass (1985) notes that through the charismatic element of TL, "followers develop intense feelings about them, and above all have trust and confidence in them. Transformational leaders may arouse their followers emotionally and inspire them to extra effort and greater accomplishment" p. 39. TL is about both ensuring alignment between subordinates' interests in self-development and transcending beyond self-interest to a higher purpose, which is the interest of the group, organisation, or society (Bass 1995).

The impact of transformational leadership

Within the leadership literature, there are significant findings that suggest that charismatic and transformational leadership "account for more variance than any of the traditional leadership models" (Avolio et al. 2009, p. 766).. This is because TL focuses on transcending beyond an exchange of resources to a higher order and the emotional aspect of subordinate needs (Avolio et al. 2009). For example, Lo et al. (2010) found that two elements of TL, idealized influence and inspirational motivation, correlate positively with personal commitment to change and motivate followers to perform highly cognitive tasks. They also found that having meaningful work is positively correlated with TL. Likewise, Grant (2012) found that TL is more effective in increasing subordinate performance when followers interact with the

beneficiary of their work and consequently reinforce the meaning of their tasks. This leads to increased performance. According to him, perceived prosocial impact mediates the impact of TL on performance.

McCull-Kennedy (2002) reported that TL predicts followers' performance, a relationship which is mediated by frustration and optimism. TL increases performance indirectly through boosting optimism. While low levels of TL leads to high levels of frustration, high levels of frustration have a negative impact on performance. The negative impact that frustration has on performance is higher than the positive impact of optimism. Nevertheless, TL can reduce frustration levels. Although there are times where TL may not be appropriate, it is a leadership style that can make followers achieve much higher productivity than what can be attained through transactional leadership (Bass 1985).

There is also empirical evidence supporting the fact that TL has a greater impact on employee satisfaction and performance than transactional leadership (Bass 1985). Dvir et al. (2002) found that experimental leaders receiving TL training have a more positive impact on direct follower development and indirect follower performance than control leaders who received eclectic leadership training. Walumbwa et al. (2008) show that TL is correlated with means efficacy. Followers' means of efficacy correlate with performance as rated by leaders. They also found that means of efficacy moderate the impact of identification and self-efficacy on performance. Finally, Boerner et al. (2007) show that TL increased followers' performance through organisational citizenship behaviour, and increased their motivation through opening debates about task related issues.

Tims et al.'s (2011) findings show that TL improves employees' engagement in work mediated by optimism, while self-efficacy did not mediate this relationship between TL and work engagement. They note "daily fluctuations in transformational leadership may also influence employees' self-beliefs (i.e., personal resources) and work experiences (i.e., work engagement) p. 129. Employees become more engaged in their work when their supervisor is able to boost their optimism through his or her transformational leadership style. In addition, Zhu et al. (2009) show that TL is correlated with followers' work engagement; particularly when a subordinate is creative, innovative, and proactive.

Avolio et al. (1988) show that TL and active transactional leadership both result in increased organisational effectiveness and improve financial performance. Bass et al. (2003) also show that both active transactional leadership and TL positively predicted unit performance. Jung et al. (2003) further demonstrated that TL has a direct and positive link with organisational innovation, and correlates significantly with empowerment and climate, which supports innovation. They suggest that companies can increase innovation by ensuring their leaders develop their transformational leadership behaviour through training and mentoring.

Erkutlu (2008) provides further support for the link between TL and organisational effectiveness by demonstrating a correlation between leadership and organisational effectiveness in the hospitality industry. Gumusluoglu and Ilsev (2009) found that TL has a positive impact on individual and organisational creativity. On the individual level, it increases creativity by psychological empowerment. Moreover, Jung et al. (2008) found that CEOs' TL has significant a positive impact on organisational innovation. Moderating effects were: uncertainty of environment and competitive environment, supportive climate for innovation, low formalization, and low centralization. On the other hand, empowerment is a negative moderator between CEOs' TL and organisational innovation. The authors justify this by stating that TL needs to have a balance between empowerment for their followers and creating structure and control for goals.

Walumbwa et al. (2004) show that TL correlates with high collective efficacy and the latter mediates the link between TL and job attitudes. Likewise, Schaubroeck et al. (2007) found that TL impacts team performance mediated by team potency, meaning the teams' beliefs about their capabilities.

Since TL is associated with emotional bonds, Dvir et al. (2003) researched the impact of TL on emotion focused versus cognition focused aspect of followers' worlds. Their findings demonstrated that vision formulation were related to emotion- focused affective commitment and were not related to cognition-focused continuance commitment. Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) cited by Avolio et al. (2009) suggested that TL nurtures followers to develop and become leaders with time. Bass reiterates this point by stating that "he or she can generally inspire them by emotional support and appeals that will transform their level of motivation beyond original expectations. Such a leader can sometimes also inspire followers by means of intellectual stimulation. The charismatic leader can do one or the other, or both" P. 35. He

adds “on the other hand, subordinates who pride themselves on their own rationality, skepticism, independence, and concern for rules of law and precedent are less likely to be influenced by a charismatic leader or the leader who tries to use emotional inspiration. “Subordinates who are egalitarian, self-confident, highly educated, self-reinforcing, and high in status are likely to resist charismatic leaders.” (Bass 1985, p 39).

Evidence suggests that the nature of TL is context dependent. For example, Esfahani and Soflu (2011) found that TL is highly correlated with EI and personal considerations are the most accurate predictor of TL.

Transformational leadership scale

As presented in the previous section, there are many scales used for assessing EI and there is disagreement about what the construct represent in the literature, this is not the case in TL. The TL literature agrees on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the most reliable scale to assess TL. While the scale has gone through refinement, the latest current scale, MLQ (Form 5X), is considered a “valid and reliable instrument that can adequately measure the nine components comprising the full-range theory of leadership” (Antonakis et al. 2003, p. 286).

The TL scale, MLQ, is considered reliable and correlates with leadership effectiveness (Lowe et al., 1996 and Bass et al., 2003). It is a psychometrically sound instrument (Sosik and Megerian, 1999) and one of the most commonly used scales for measuring both transformational and transactional leadership (Tejeda 2001). Judge and Piccolo’s (2008) meta-analysis shows the instrument validity for “transformational, contingent reward, and to some extent laissez-faire leadership” P. 765. A meta-analysis which included over 100 studies using MLQ demonstrated that the scale is reliable and valid (Lower et al. 1996).

A quick review of the evidence makes it clear that the MLQ scale is valid and reliable. For example a meta-analysis that included 22 peer-reviewed papers and 17 unpublished works found that MLQ scales are reliable and significantly predict work performance (Lowe, Kroeck, and Sivasubramaniam 1996). Likewise, Antonakis et al. (2003) conducted an empirical study using two major samples (N1=3368 and N2=6525) where they confirmed that “the current version of the MLQ (Form 5X) is a valid and reliable instrument that can adequately measure the nine components comprising the full-range theory of leadership” P.

286. Finally, Antonakis et al. (2003) clearly iterate this point by noting that the validity of the MLQ measure has been demonstrated significantly by dozens of studies using both objective and subjective assessment. They also note that there is no controversy regarding the predictive aspect of TL.

Antonakis et al. (2003) notes that there are other researchers who recommend adding more elements to the MLQ; however, the scale was not intended to include all aspects of leadership. He concludes: “Although the MLQ (Form 5X) and indeed any leadership survey instrument will never account for all possible leadership dimensions, it represents a foundation from which to conduct further research and to expand our understanding of the ‘‘new models of leadership’’ P. 286.

Transformational leadership criticism

Bono et al. (2012) found that the personality of the rater (agreeableness, openness, extraversion, and conscientiousness) influences the rating of transformational leadership. They also note that “disagreements among raters about leaders' behaviors are not due solely to random error and may instead reflect true differences either in (a) the behaviors leaders exhibit toward individual followers or (b) personality-related differences between followers in attention to and recall of leadership behaviors” P. 132.

Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) note that some criticized TL as being unethical, to which they respond by differentiating between authentic transformational and pseudo-transformational leadership. Authentic transformational leaders’ “actions aim toward noble ends, legitimate means, and fair consequences” p. 211. Avolio et al. (2009), discuss how “future leadership intervention research should now consider identifying appropriate criteria based on the core propositions in leadership theories. Thus, with respect to transformational leadership theory, one would expect future research to obtain performance measures that measure individuals or groups ‘performing beyond expectations.’” P. 780.

Summary of transformational leadership

Bass (1995) acknowledges that there are many studies confirming the positive outcomes of TL and the hierarchy of these outcomes, from TL, to transactional leadership, to laissez faire leadership. However, he requested more research on why TL develops the commitment, loyalty, involvement, and performance of followers; what is contextual about TL; and what is

the thought processes for leaders to become transformational. The next section explores these ideas through the lens of EI, by examining the relationship between the two constructs as a potential path to understanding these issues. Most importantly it will provide clarity on the relationship between emotional abilities and TL.

2.4 Exploring the Link between EI and TL

This section explores the body of knowledge on the relationship between EI and TL. It starts by looking at the links between leadership and emotions and then discusses the specific relationship between TL and EI.

Leadership and emotions

In their review of the leadership literature in the *Leadership Quarterly* journal, Gardner et al. (2010) highlight how emotions emerged as a new focus area in the leadership literature starting in 2000. Humphrey et al. (2008) argue that leadership is partly an emotional labour since it is about influencing followers' moods and motivations. This opens the door to link the research on emotional labour to leadership. In their paper, they also propose that effective leaders express a wide variety of emotions and that followers are directly influenced by leaders' negative and positive emotions in challenging situations. While they urge researchers to test their propositions empirically, they note that leaders need to display more emotions to be more effective.

Pescosolido (2002) proposes that emergent leaders are managers of their teams' emotions since they are more concerned with influence than authority. Such emergent leaders develop emotional responses during challenging or critical times, which could provide confidence and direction to the whole group to take action and move forward. By doing so, group members are influenced and use the emergent leader's response as a cue to their own responses. He links such acts to leader's empathy, norms about emotional expression, and uncertainty about group performance. Pescosolido (2002) developed qualitative research on this phenomenon, looking at the impact of such behaviour on group dynamics.

Understanding emotions, the ability to express them, and emotional awareness, results in effective leadership (Ashkanasy & Humphrey 2011). In order to better understand leadership there is a need to better understand the role of emotions in organisations. Ashkanasy and

Humphrey (2011) add that even though Antonakis et al. (2009) disagree with their view about the EI relationship to leadership, they do agree that emotions are a critical element in leadership.

Based on a review of the literature, Riggio and Reichard (2008) argue that emotional skills, defined by emotional expressiveness, emotional sensitivity, and emotional control, are critical for effective leadership. They defined these emotional skills as follows:

- Emotional expressiveness - the capability to communicate nonverbally, especially when sending emotional messages
- Emotional sensitivity - the capability to receive and interpret nonverbal and emotional expressions of others
- Emotional control - the capability to regulate nonverbal and emotional expressions

They note that emotional expressiveness is used by leaders to motivate, inspire, and spread positive emotions. Furthermore, leaders use emotional sensitivity to understand employees' needs and feelings and to establish rapport. Emotional control regulates inappropriate emotions and changes the intensity or the expression of strong emotions. According to them, "emotional skills are related to the ability to accurately express, read, and understand emotions; all of which are components of EI. However, EI is broader than the emotional skills approach, since it also includes the ways that emotions inform mental processing. Emotional skills represent the more "social" elements of EI in that they focus on how emotions are conveyed between or among individuals in social interaction." (Riggio and Reichard 2008, pp. 170-171).

Kellett et al. (2006) demonstrated that emotional ability is indeed linked to effective leadership. They prove through an empirical study that emotional abilities are associated with relationship leaders' emergence, while cognitive and emotional abilities are associated with task leaders' emergence. The authors note that while emotional abilities are important for leadership they are also contextual. They also note that emotional expressiveness and emotional awareness of self and others are mediated by empathy in both task and relations leadership.

In short, there is agreement in the body of literature that emotions are indeed a key factor in leadership, from leadership emergence to leadership effectiveness. Therefore, studying

leadership necessitates looking at it from an emotional side too. In the next section, studies that explore the relationship between TL and emotions are analyzed and summarized.

TL and emotions

Kellett (2002) proposes that leadership is exhibited through two main routes. The first is emotional abilities like empathy and the second is mental abilities like complex task performance. Yukl (1999) notes that transformational and charismatic leadership differ from other leadership theories in that they focus on emotions rather than cognitive abilities. This explains how transformational and charismatic leaders are capable of creating meaning for events, such that they “influence followers to make self-sacrifices, commit to difficult objectives, and achieve much more than was initially expected” p. 286. Bass (1985) notes that through the charismatic element of TL, “transformational leaders may arouse their followers emotionally and inspire them to extra effort and greater accomplishment” p. 39. Bass (1985) considers inspiring and arousing emotions in followers a key element of TL since its “inspirational influence on them is emotional” p. 35. He notes however, that transformational leaders can also use intellectual stimulation to inspire followers by using it independently or in combination with emotional inspiration (Bass 1985).

TL is a process of leading by creating enthusiasm and infusing inspiration, creating intellectual and emotional stimulation, and possessing and infecting others with a strong vision, rather than giving orders or directing. Transformational leaders are also dedicated to developing nurturing relationships with those whom they lead (Channer & Hope, 2001). Bass (1985) notes:

“the ability to inspire -arouse emotions, animate, enliven, or even exalt-is an important aspect of charisma. Inspirational leadership involves the arousal and heightening of motivation among followers. Followers can be inspired by a cold, calculating, intellectual discourse, the brilliance of a breakthrough, or the beauty of an argument. Yet it is the followers’ emotions that ultimately have been aroused. Followers may hold an intellectual genius in awe and reverence, but the inspirational influence on them is emotional” P. 35

In the transformational and charismatic theories leadership influence is, in part, arousing emotions in followers (Yukl 1999). Charisma, a key element of TL, is the result of emotional

interaction between leaders and team members (Wasielewski 1985, cited by Carmeli 2003). Megerian and Sosik (1997) add that:

“According to Bass (1985), over sixty percent of the impact of TL on followers’ effectiveness is explained by charisma, the strong emotional reaction to, identification with, and belief in a leader by followers. Charismatic leaders, who hold strong emotional convictions regarding their values and beliefs, are likely to be emotionally expressive in their communication with followers. Display of emotions by leaders may result in a) leader verbal and or non-verbal behaviors, and b) emotional reaction in followers.” P. 38.

For example, Bono and Ilies (2006) found that charismatic leaders convey more positive emotions than less charismatic leaders. This effect was measured by the number of positive words used and positive emotions expressed in speeches. These positive emotions spread good moods among team members, which could be transmitted even in short and casual contacts between the leaders and followers. They note that both the emotions conveyed by leaders and team members’ moods have an impact on the perception of the leader’s effectiveness and attraction.

Transformational leaders communicate with their followers using emotional messages (Bass 1985). Burns (1978) cited by Megerian and Sosik (1997) notes that emotions play four key roles in the leadership process. TL involves arousing emotions in followers causing them to take action collectively. Therefore, TL develops followers into self-leaders by creating emotional tension in followers to pursue innovative change, using emotions to strengthen the emotional link between leaders and followers, and using empathy to understand their needs and values. According to them “transformational leaders may purposely manipulate emotions to initiate important motivational, persuasive, relational, and consideration effects on followers” P. 38.

Megerian and Sosik (1997) note the following important points: “To the extent that emotions are integral to charismatic and TL behaviors..., a leader’s ability to manage his or her emotions may be predictive of subsequent exhibition of TL behaviors” p. 39. Furthermore, “emotional management traits, such as emotional control...and self-monitoring ability...have been proposed to be related to charismatic and transformational leaders.” P. 35. Clearly, there

is a need to include emotions in the research of TL (Ashforth & Humphrey 1995 cited by Dasborough and Askhanasy 2002).

Humphrey (2002) proposes that team members who have high emotional self-management abilities are potentially more developed to become leaders than those who do not. Moreover, members who are empathetic and have a strong ability to manage emotions could emerge as transformational leaders. He notes that managing team emotions is a key leadership task, proposing that the two most important emotions for leaders to manage are optimism and frustration. He also argues that those who have expressed positive emotions are better at leadership than those who express negative emotions, and that the emotions displayed are seen by followers as a sign of intention and sincerity.

As demonstrated above, there is a significant number of studies in the body of literature of TL that highlight the importance of emotions in TL. TL is all about charisma and influence and emotions play a big role in creating these, which consequently leads to TL behaviour. In the next sections the relationship between EI and TL is explored to understand the link between these two constructs.

Relationship between EI and TL

This chapter described how the EI construct includes many emotional skills and abilities. Therefore, there is a need to explore the link between TL and EI. The interest in exploring the relationship between TL and EI has resulted from studies failing to demonstrate factors that predict TL (Harms & Crede 2010). Brown and Moshavi (2005) suggest that the interest in EI was fueled by the need to explore the “X” factor of TL prediction. Kuepers and Weibler (2005) argue that an understanding of the factors that predict TL is indeed needed to explore this relationship. Megerian and Sosik (1997) propose that EI is linked to all TL elements. They urge future researchers to “examine the effects of the components of EI on leader exhibition and follower perception of transformational leadership behaviors most related to EI (e.g., inspirational motivation, individualized consideration)” P.44.

Likewise, Dasborough and Askhanasy (2002) describe EI as having unexplored potential for understanding how leadership perception is developed. Indeed, the body of literature includes a large number of studies that explored the relationship between the TL and EI constructs.

These studies can be divided into conceptual studies and empirical studies. This section explores the conceptual studies on the links between the two constructs.

In a conceptual paper, Brown and Moshavi (2005) suggest that there could be a potential link between TL and EI and they propose three different hypotheses:

- EI is an antecedent of TL in particular emotional awareness
- EI is a moderator of TL i.e. TL is stronger with higher EI
- EI is independent of TL i.e. predicts different outcomes

They recommend using the ability model of EI (Mayer et al. 2003) as the most suitable model to explore the relationship between EI and TL. Sosik and Megerian (1999) note that high EI leaders have more confidence in their ability to control and influence events. Therefore, high EI leaders provide adequate focus on individual needs, stimulate intellectually, and motivate their followers. Brown and Moshavi (2005, p. 868) suggest that EI abilities are in line with three elements of TL: individualized consideration, intellectual stimulations, and inspirational motivation.

George (2001) argues that, by looking at the leadership literature most aspects of leadership effectiveness are directly related to EI. These aspects are “development of collective goals and objectives; instilling in others an appreciation of the importance of work activities; generating and maintaining enthusiasm, confidence, optimism, cooperation, and trust; encouraging flexibility in decision making and change; and establishing and maintaining a meaningful identity for an organisation” p. 1027.

Prati et al. (2003) agree with this line of thought arguing that EI is of critical importance for effective leadership. They propose that the emotionally intelligent team leader stimulates group motivation in followers and rely on charisma and other transformational behaviour to improve performance. They recommend that future research explore these propositions.

In short, the literature shows there is a potential link between TL and EI. This is due to the fact that TL relies on emotions to initiate transformative behaviour.

Summary of the link between EI and TL

This section showed how there is agreement in the literature that emotion is important to leadership and that TL relies on emotions to inspire followers. However, much of the work that has been conducted in the research on leadership and emotions has focused on empirically measuring the link between emotions and leadership constructs (Gotty et al. 2010).

For example, measuring the link between EI and TL has attracted many researchers to investigating the predictive value of EI in TL (Herms and Crede 2010) and the empirical research on the link between EI and TL is almost saturated. Yet, there is a shortage of information in the literature explaining how emotions and leadership interact. To understand this interaction, there is a need to explore how individual (instead of aggregated) abilities influence and interact with leadership. Fiori and Antonakis (2011) for example, suggest using a single ability as an independent measure instead. Among these abilities, managing emotions is considered a key leadership task (Gotty et al. 2010), which leads to transformation and could be an appropriate area to explore.

Conclusion

This chapter set the stage for this study by explaining the importance of emotion and emotion regulation especially in the sales context, as the literature shows that salesperson's emotions influence sales performance. Then, this chapter explored EI and TL, the two constructs that have been associated with emotionality in leadership. We found that EI includes the ability to manage emotions as a key factor, while TL includes the ability to induce emotions in others. Thus, both concepts contain an element of influencing others' emotions. This literature on EI and TL however, does not explain the how and why of influencing others' emotions. Therefore, the next chapter narrows down the focus to review the literature of managing others' emotions within the field of psychology by exploring existing emotion regulation models of self and others. This will identify how they could be adapted to the leadership context and how the usage of these strategies could vary per context and situation.

Chapter 3: Leader Emotion Management

Introduction

The last chapter reviewed the literature of emotionality in leadership by exploring EI and TL theories, the two constructs that contain the managing and influencing of others' emotions. These theories nevertheless, do not explain the specific strategies that leaders could use. Therefore this chapter moves from high level emotion and leadership constructs (EI and TL) to the emerging field of managing and influencing emotions. Before reviewing this literature, it is important to introduce some key concepts and terms which are important for emotion regulation, including emotions, affect, discrete emotions, and affective events. After introducing these concepts, this chapter explores the field of emotion regulation and the strategies that leaders can use to manage followers' emotions.

3.1 Definitions

3.1.1 Affect, Emotion, Mood, and Trait

It is important to define emotion so that it can be compared to other similar constructs in the literature including affect, moods or state affect, and trait or dispositional affect. While there is still disagreement in the literature regarding the definition of emotional competencies (e.g. emotional intelligence), there is agreement on the definition of affect, mood, and emotions.

The literature defines emotion as the “organized mental response to an event or entity”. They “are shorter, target-centered and more intense than moods” and “are associated with different assessments of the emotion inducing event, person, or situation.” They “are transient, intense reactions to an event, person or entity.” (Gooty et al. 2010) p. 980. Affect, on the other hand, is defined as longer emotional experiences and includes either state affect (mood) or dispositional affect (trait). Emotions are the shortest, moods last longer, and trait affect is the longest. Moods are triggered in the cognitive background without specific reason, are lower in intensity and longer in duration than emotions. Trait affect is fixed; this influences the evaluation of occurrences between negative and positive (for a review based on literature, see Gooty et al. 2010, p. 980-981).

Discrete emotions

To study the influence of emotions on leadership many researchers have explored the effect of individual or discrete emotions. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) summarize the studies on key categories of discrete emotions, as there are different perspectives on the categorization of emotions (Ekman 1992; Plutchik 1994; Izard 1977; Shaver et al. 1987 cited by Weiss and Cropanzano 1996).

Ekman (1992) notes that there are at least six basic emotions: anger, fear, sadness, enjoyment, disgust, and surprise. Plutchik (1994) on the other hand proposes eight groups of emotions: joy, sadness, acceptance, disgust, fear, anger, expectation and surprise. Izard (1977) proposes ten categories which are fear, anger, enjoyment, interest, disgust, surprise, shame, contempt, distress, and guilt.

Shaver et al. (1987) on the other hand developed a semantic classification of emotions to reduce them into limited categories. They proposed six categories love, joy, surprise, anger, sadness, and fear. These categories include the following specifically:

1. Anger - disgust, envy, exasperation, irritation, torment
2. Fear - alarm, anxiety
3. Joy - cheerfulness, contentment, enthrallment, optimism, pride, relief, zest
4. Love - affection, longing, Lust
5. Sadness - disappointment, neglect, sadness, shame, suffering, sympathy
6. Surprise - no specific emotion provided

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) explain how all these classifications overlap when comparing the lists. On the other hand, Watson et al. (1988) developed and validated a brief measure of positive and negative affect called the Positive and Negative Affect Scales PANAS which includes ten negative emotions grouped as per the following five categories:

1. Distressed - distressed, upset
2. Angry - hostile, irritable
3. Fearful - scared, afraid
4. Guilty - ashamed, guilty
5. Jittery - nervous, jittery

The key criticism to this scale is that it is limited to high arousal emotions, is not specific to work context, and is usually used to measure trait affect (stable disposition of emotion) instead of state affect which is emotion experienced at given time (Van Katwyk 2000).

Van Katwyk (2000) proposes another scale, the Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS) which includes in addition to the pleasurable -displeasurable emotion (negative-positive) dimension. The dimension of high to low arousal where high and low arousal for negative emotions includes the following:

- High arousal - furious, angry, frightened, anxious, and disgusted
- Low arousal - depressed, discouraged, gloomy, fatigued, and bored

According to Van Katwyk (2000), the JAWS “offers the most comprehensive assessment of job-related affect and should relate to a wide range of job stressors and strains, as well as other organisational variables.” p. 224 JAWS was used in a study that explored how employees regulate their negative emotions at work (Diefendorff et al. 2008). In this study, negative emotions were divided into three categories according to their level of activation or arousal based on Van Katwyk et al. (2000) as follows:

- High activation - angry, anxious, disgusted, frightened, and furious
- Moderate activation - annoyed, confused, frustrated, intimidated, and miserable
- Low activation - bored, depressed, discouraged, fatigued, and gloomy

Finally, Diener et al. (1995) classify discrete emotions into four categories as follows:

1. Fear - includes the emotions of fear, worry, anxiety, and nervousness
2. Anger - includes the emotions of anger, irritation, disgust, and rage
3. Shame - includes the emotions of shame, guilt, regret, and embarrassment
4. Sadness - includes the emotions of sadness, loneliness, unhappiness, and depression

These four categories were used and confirmed in an empirical study by Tronvoll (2011) who added one more category, frustration. This category includes the emotions of frustration, resignation, powerlessness, and despair. While there are similarities among the different classifications, Diener et al. (1995) and Tronvoll (2011) studies cover most of the emotions.

3.1.2 Affective Events Theory

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) developed the affective events theory as a unique theoretical approach to studying job satisfaction. This theory focuses on affect in the work place and how the structure, causes, and consequences of affective events influence job satisfaction and work performance. Affective events theory posits that affect levels fluctuate over time and can be measured in terms of internal components (mood) and external components (emotional events) (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996). Supporting evidence of this theory demonstrates that the cumulative effect of emotional states lie at the core of employee behaviour in organisations. The work environment, nature of the job, daily work events, and an individual's personal disposition results in the experience of positive or negative emotions. The effect of those emotions over time, directly influence employee's work attitudes and affect driven behaviour such as impulsive acts, spontaneous helping, and transient effort (Ashkanasy and Daus 2002).

According to researchers who study affective events theory, sadness emotions such as depression or unhappiness are strongly associated with negative emotions and intention to leave the job. Moreover, studying the effect of specific emotions on work attitudes and behaviour has led to advancements in this field. For example, researchers have found that common cause of negative affect is mistreatment by customers (Grandey et al. 2007). Despite the advancements in this field, further research is needed to fully understand the how affect influences job performance and how leaders can use this information to create a positive work environment (Brief and Weiss 2002).

On the other hand, the research of Diefendorff et al (2008) found that issues not related to work (e.g. personal) could lead to negative emotions, which is not widely acknowledged and researched in the literature:

“Interestingly, the second most commonly reported event category involved the experience of personal/physical problems that individuals brought to work with them. This finding coincides with prior research suggesting that non-work events can “spill over” to impact individuals at work (e.g., Judge, Ilies, & Scott, 2006). However, the notion that non-work events contribute to emotion regulation at work has not been widely recognized. Perhaps interventions designed to help employees cope with negative emotions might benefit from the inclusion of

methods for dealing with personal problems that they bring to the job.” (Diefendorff et al 2008, p. 506).

3.2 Emotion Regulation Models

Several fields are related and could be applied to leaders’ strategies for managing followers’ emotions. These areas include:

- Emotional labour leadership: through emotional contagion, leading with emotional labour, influence followers’ emotions
- Charismatic leadership: leadership behaviour that relies on charisma to evoke positive emotions in followers through the use of vision statements, metaphors, and stories and myths.
- Self-emotion regulation: this model includes strategies that are used for self-regulation, which can be adapted to managing others’ emotions
- Interpersonal emotion regulation: emerging models that include strategies for managing others’ emotions
- Follower emotion regulation: while interpersonal emotion regulation explores strategies for managing others’ emotions, this section presents a model of strategies for managing specifically followers’ emotions.

Each of these models is explained and analysed in the next sections in order to compare them. The section then concludes with a potential gap in leader strategies for managing followers’ emotions.

3.2.1 Emotional Labour Leadership

Goleman (2001) notes the effect of leader emotion contagion; “emotions are contagious, particularly when exhibited by those at the top, and extremely successful leaders display a high level of positive energy that spreads throughout the organisation” p. 38.

Sy et al. (2005) show that leaders’ emotions are contagious and significantly influence team affective tone, which consequently leads to greater efforts from a team perspective. Leaders’ negative moods lead to negative moods of their followers. Likewise, leaders’ positive moods lead to positive moods in their followers, which results in a positive impact on performance.

Epitropaki (2006) cited by Humphrey et al. (2008) show that leaders' emotions are more contagious to their followers than followers' emotions are contagious to their leader, arguing that this is caused by the team being focused on their leadership.

Cherlunik et al. (2006) show through two empirical studies how emotional contagion transmits emotions between a leader and his or her followers. Johnson (2007) also demonstrated how a leader's positive or negative affect is contagious to followers who replicate the emotion display of leader. Totterdell (2000) shows how this emotional contagion works in professional sports teams and Volmer (2012) conducted a laboratory study which included 63 students and concluded that "leaders influence team members' individual mood, group affective tone, actual team performance, and potency" p. 203.

Erez et al. (2008) conducted a lab study and a field study where they found a leader's positive affect was transmitted to followers. Madera and Smith (2009) who studied the impact of leaders' expressions of anger and sadness in crisis situations concluded that leaders' negative emotions influenced followers' evaluations of their leader's effectiveness, which is mediated by follower negative emotion due to emotional contagion.

George and Bettenhausen (1990), who found that leaders' positive emotions lead to less turnover and more pro-social behaviour in their followers, also demonstrated the impact of emotional contagion, which results in increased sales performance. Gooty et al. (2010), note that leaders' positive moods seem to impact on followers' emotions more than negative moods. Barsade (2002) showed that leaders' positive moods lead to positive moods in followers, better task performance, and less conflict. The intensity and arousal of the leaders' moods do not seem to have a great impact, while valence of emotions does. Sy et al. (2005) show that when leaders are in a positive mood, their followers experience positive moods too and they have better cooperation. Bono and Ilies (2006) research shows that leader's emotional expressions are transmitted to followers through contagion. In short, by displaying positive emotions, leaders can positively influence their followers, leading to positive behaviour and improved performance through emotional contagion.

Grandey et al. (2007) note that emotional labour could be performed both internally, within an organisation through colleagues, and externally outside of an organisation through customers. Humphrey (2008) considers that leading with emotional labour is the key to manage one's

own and others emotions through emotional contagion. Therefore, looking at emotional labour is crucial to further understand how leaders can influence their followers' emotions.

Emotional labour is about managing self-emotions and self-emotion expression to ensure that individuals comply with the emotional exhibition rules of the job (Gooty et al 2010). While emotional labour includes two main strategies, reappraisal and suppression, which are based on the emotion regulation literature (Gross 1998) the terminology is adapted for the context of emotional labour as follows:

- Surface Acting - faking positive emotions e.g. using this strategy the employee would pretend to be exhibiting an emotion without truly feeling it
- Deep Acting - using reappraisal to change their emotions i.e. the employee would be reappraising the event or stimulus and then feeling the emotions before expressing it

Humphrey et al. (2008) adds another type of emotional labour strategy which is genuine emotional expression. In this case, the employee felt emotions already meet the required context for serving the customer. Therefore he or she would express his or her true emotion. This strategy is considered more effective and to have even more impact than deep acting. Humphrey et al. (2008) summarize the research on emotional labour in three main areas, including:

- Customer service jobs e.g. customer service staff, where positive emotions should be displayed.
- Caring professions e.g. nursing, where sympathy and concern should be displayed.
- Social control jobs e.g. bill collectors, police man, bouncers, where negative emotions like anger and irritation should be displayed.

While these are the main emotional labour categories, employees seem to use emotional regulation in their daily work to fit the environment and culture within an organisation. Kramer and Hess (2002) for example, studied the communication rules for the display of emotions within an organisation. They found that individuals practice emotional management in order to stay professional, thereby ensuring that both negative and positive emotions are displayed in an acceptable manner. They observe “professional behavior seems to involve masking negative emotions as neutral and exhibiting appropriate control of positive

emotions” p. 78 This could mean that emotional labour is actually being performed continuously by employees, whether in emotional labour work or just normal work, to conform to the rules of the environment.

Indeed, Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) propose that there are four ways organisations constrain the expression of emotions at work to conform to environment: neutralizing, buffering, prescribing, and normalizing. There are several side effects associated with emotional labour such as surface acting, which includes stress and negative psychological outcomes like emotional exhaustion (Humphrey et al. 2008). For example, emotional labour in customer service and caring professions leads to burn out.

Leaders’ emotional expressions influence followers’ moods and performance. For example, George (1995) found that teams led by managers who have positive moods achieved higher performance. Lewis (2000) found that displays of negative emotions lead to negative affect in followers and lower perceived level of leader effectiveness. Humphrey et al (2008) define leading with emotional labour as “the process by which leaders use emotional displays to influence followers” p. 155. It uses the regulation strategies of emotional labour to change and influence through emotional display of followers by producing the appropriate emotional expression (Humphrey et al. 2008). Pescosolido’s (2002) findings show that emergent leaders influenced others emotions through role modeling the required emotional response. Humphrey et al. (2008) noted that leaders must use emotional labour and emotional regulations to control their own emotions. Therefore, leaders can use the emotional labour techniques to influence their followers through emotional contagion.

Goleman (1998) argue that leaders create resonance or synchronization with their team members first, and then move with their followers into a productive state through emotion contagion. Cote and Hideg (2011) argue that emotional display is a tool to influence others: “Leaders may use deep acting, for example, by thinking about uplifting moments to amplify both their internal experience and public display of confidence. Surface acting leads to less liking, less rapport and an increase in the blood level.” P. 58.

Batchelor’s (2011) findings show that leaders must monitor their behaviour to display genuine emotions when appropriate, or use deep acting when not, thus avoiding surface acting. Leaders who use deep acting are rated as more transformational compared to those who do

not. Leaders influence team emotions since in challenging times followers look to the leader's emotions and model them when there is uncertainty and ambiguity. In such cases, optimism instills positive emotions and confidence, while the display of negative emotions leads to negative emotions and frustration (Humphrey et al. 2008).

Leaders positively or negatively influence team emotions, which leads to a positive or negative impact on performance. Nevertheless the decision about which emotion to display is a much more complex process compared to emotional labour where different emotions are expected from the employee. Furthermore, leadership also requires a vast range of emotional displays which include positive and negative including emotions like happiness, anxiousness, pride, anger, frustration, satisfaction, friendliness, irritation, sympathy, and compassion. Thus, leadership requires all types of emotional labour strategies. For example, customer service is mostly about being positive and cheerful, whereas leadership requires displaying different emotions (Humphrey et al. 2008). Table 3.1 below is a comparison summary of how leadership applies and could apply emotional labour compared to other professions like customer care, caring professions, and social control.

Table 3.1: Comparison of Emotional Labour in Professions versus Leadership (Humphrey et al. 2008)

	Customer service	Caring professions	Social control	Leaders
Emotions experienced	Happiness, anxiousness, frustration, friendliness, positiveness	Sympathy, caring, compassion, Concerned	Anger, fear, frustration, aggression, irritation, powerful	Happiness, anxiousness, pride, anger, frustration, satisfaction, friendliness, irritation, sympathy, compassion
Frequency	Multiple customers needing brief attention	Multiple clients or patients needing moderate attention	Variable - not busy to very busy	Variable - not busy to very busy
Intensity	Low to moderate	Moderate to high	Variable - low to high	Variable - low to high
Variety	Monotonous	Multiple scenarios	Multiple scenarios	Multiple scenarios
Duration of surface Interaction	Brief and repetitive	Either brief or potentially lengthy	Variable - brief to very lengthy	Variable - brief to very lengthy
Need for surface Acting	High need for superficial emotional displays	Occasional need for high surface acting	High need for surface acting	Frequent need for high surface acting
Need for deep Acting	Low need for deep acting	High need for acting	Occasional need for deep acting	Occasional need for deep acting
Role identification	Low to moderate	Moderate to high	Variable - low to high	Generally high
Example of emotions displayed	Friendliness - "Service with a smile" Anxiousness - "I'll be with you in a few minutes"	Sympathy - "I am so sorry for your loss" Compassion - "Here, let me help you with that"	Irritation - "Please leave the premises" Anger - "Your bill is overdue" Aggression - "You are under arrest!" Fear - "Drop the weapon!"	Pride - "You are being promoted" Frustration - "Get your monthly report to me as soon as possible"

According to Humphrey et al. (2008) "leaders must read their subordinate's emotions and express their emotions in an effective manner by using deep acting or genuine emotions and restrain from using surface acting which would lead to workplace more productive and enjoyable for both leaders and followers" p.164 (Humphrey et al. 2008). They need to use all types of strategies of emotional labour to express different types of emotions depending on the situation. Humphrey et al. (2008) proposes that leaders who have high EI are more capable of using emotional labour than those who do not.

Emotional labours, according to Gardner et al. (2009), “induce or suppress feelings to sustain an outward expression that produces the proper state of mind in others and calls for a coordination of mind and feelings” p. 466. Looking at emotional labour from a leadership perspective is rare and indirect, according to Gardner et al (2009). According to them, leaders face situations where they need to display certain emotions; therefore, they need to perform emotional labour in different cases like crises. They highlight the dilemma of being authentic while still being able to manage their emotional reactions.

In short, the field of emotional labour leadership is emerging quickly by applying and updating the emotional labour processes and concepts into the leadership context. As noted, leadership requires the skills to elicit a wide scope of emotions and consideration of many factors to ensure success.

3.2.2 Charismatic Leadership

Humphrey et al. (2008) note that "charismatic theories of leadership attribute a central role to emotional expressiveness, and charismatic leaders deliberately express emotions to influence their followers". Mio et al. (2005) cited by Humphrey et al (2008) show that charismatic leaders arouse emotion in their followers using metaphors and other tools. Groves (2005) shows that leaders who express their emotions are rated as more charismatic than those who do not. Tsai et al. (2009) show that TL leads to better performance and cooperation between workers through positive team moods; therefore according to them the transformation leadership style creates positive emotions.

Leadership behaviour influences followers' emotions and is classified into favorable and unfavorable behaviours. The favorable behaviours include charismatic and supportive leadership styles, which influence followers through positive emotions. On the other hand, the unfavorable behaviours include abusive supervision and autocratic leadership with low justice distributive style, which leads to negative affect in followers (Gooty et al 2010). Erez et al. (2008) cited by Gooty et al. (2010) show that leaders' charisma leads to positive affect of followers and that leaders' expressed affect has an impact on followers' affect, while felt affect does not (Gooty et al. 2010).

Charismatic leadership is considered the most researched leadership style that arouses followers' positive emotions. Charisma influences followers' affect, yet how leaders exhibit

charisma is not well known (Gooty et al. 2010). On the other hand, Antonakis et al. (2012) show that there are charismatic leadership techniques which are divided into two groups: verbal and non-verbal. The verbal ones are: metaphors, analogies, stories, anecdotes, contrast, rhetoric, questions, and three part lists, expressions of moral conviction, reflections of the group's sentiments, the setting of high goals, and conveying the confidence of achieving goals. The non-verbal techniques include animated voice, facial expressions, and gestures.

Some researchers notice that imagery in speeches elicits positive affect, which is the case where charisma ratings increase (Naidoo & Lord 2008 cited by Gooty et al. 2010). Cherulnik et al. (2001), show that charismatic leaders are more expressive by demonstrating visual attention towards an audience, as well as frequency and intensity of smiling. This in turn makes followers more positive and expressive (Gooty et al. 2010). Damen et al. (2008) cited by Gooty et al. (2010) show that followers rate high on charisma when they display positive emotions and that intensity and arousal are as important as valence (positive and negative), which might explain why these are important in charismatic leadership.

Humphrey et al. (2008) add that a positive affect event is another strategy for leading with emotional labour and this is based on the positive affective events theory. Through this, leaders can influence and manage their team's emotions by creating affective positive events into the workplace.

Therefore, as explained above, charismatic and transformational leaders can elicit positive emotions in their followers through different ways. Reviewing the literature (Humphrey et al. 2008, Gooty et al. 2010), there are many tools that leaders can use to elicit emotions. These tools are grouped into the following categories:

Metaphors - charismatic leaders use metaphors to arouse emotions in their followers

Vision statements - vision statements engage followers' emotions

Laughter - laughter in meetings is used strategically by team leaders and managers to induce many positive effects including reducing the hierarchical asymmetry of the interactions, reduce tension in challenging situations, having remedial capacity in face-threatening or embarrassing situations, increase feelings of closeness and collegiality, which ultimately leads to achievement of organisation goals

Symbolic management - symbols consist of the use of metaphors, stories, myths, language, and acts. Managers can rely on symbols to create arousal by evoking emotions. Symbolic management according to them makes individuals feel moved without understanding how or why. Imagery in speeches: this elicits positive affect where charisma ratings increase. Visual attention towards an audience and frequency and intensity of smiling makes followers more positive.

In short, while charismatic leaders make their followers feel good through the use of imagery, story-telling, and non-verbal cues and other strategies highlighted above, there are many additional areas that require further research as noted by Gooty et al. (2010):

“Are there other leader behaviors that could be charismatic beyond imagery, storytelling and positive affective displays? Are there other cognitive influences that lead to charisma attributions, which, in effect, could also instigate follower positive affect? For example, are leaders who espouse their values more charismatic? Could it be that leaders who take a strong stance on an unjust phenomenon are more charismatic? Are there boundary conditions on the effects of charismatic leadership in eliciting follower positive affect?” (Gooty et al. 2010, p. 990)

3.2.3 Self-Emotion Regulation

While self-emotion regulation is about managing one’s own emotions, it could be considered the theoretical foundation for managing others emotions. This is because many researchers use and refine self-emotion regulation for this purpose (Little et al. 2012; Thiel et al. 2012; Chase et al. 2014). In this section, Gross’ (2002) emotion regulation (ER) model and its key underlying strategies are explored.

According to Gross (2002), ER refers to processes by which we influence what emotions we have, when we have them, and how we experience and express them (Gross 2002, pp. 281–282). Koole (2009) defines ER as “people’s active attempts to manage their emotional states”. It “subsumes the regulation of all states that are emotionally charged, including moods, stress, and positive or negative affect.” p. 10. Another definition of ER is provided by Eisenberg et al. (2000) who define ER as “the process of initiating, maintaining, modulating, or changing

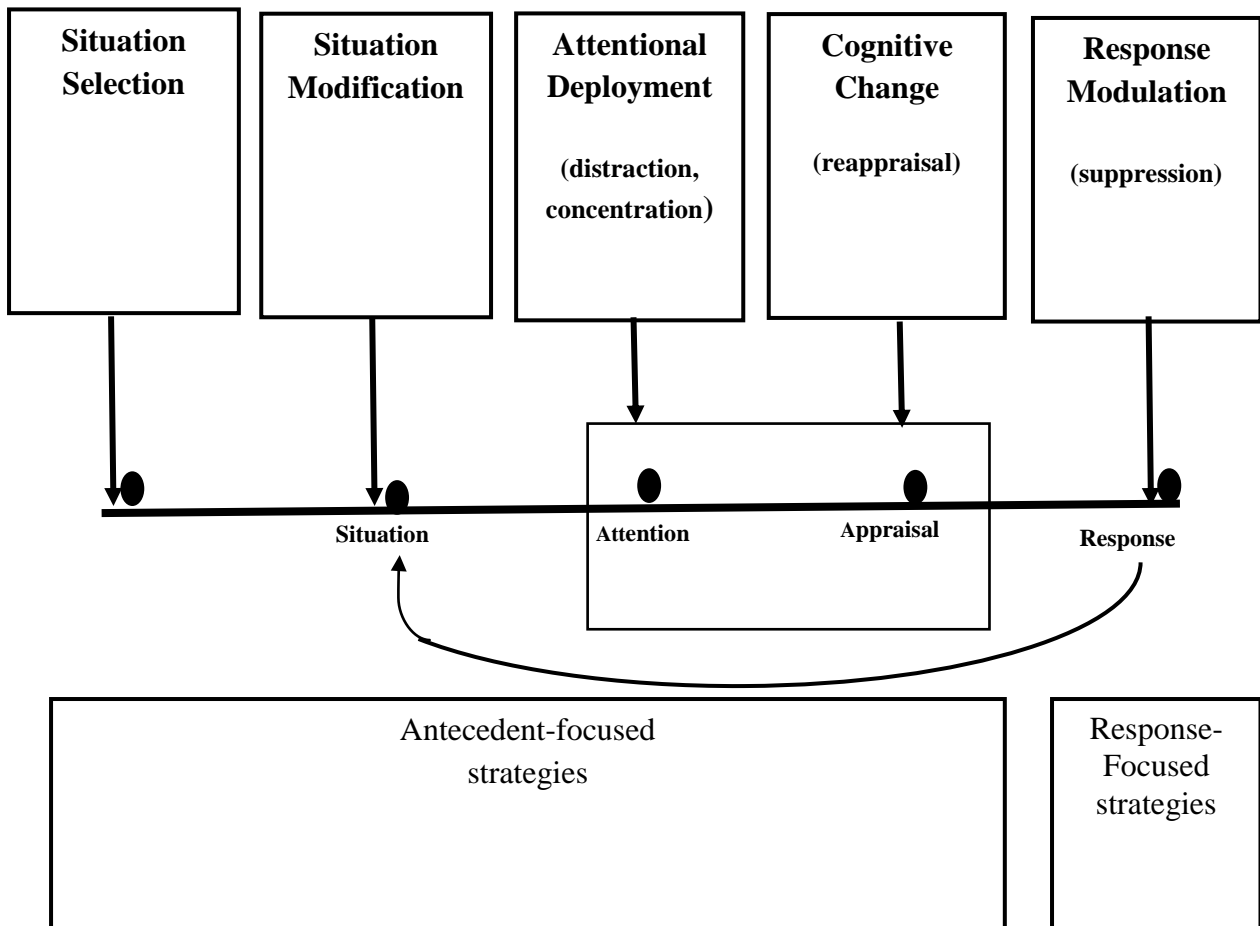
the occurrence, intensity, or duration of internal feeling states” (Eisenberg et al. 2000, p. 137 cited by Niven et al. 2012).

Gross (1998) developed a process model for the conceptualization of ER. This model is the most widely used and most cited ER model (Gooty et al. 2010; Webb et al. 2012). It is divided into two groups of strategies: antecedent-focused strategies and response focused strategies. Antecedent focused strategies are strategies including situation selection, situation modification, attention deployment, and cognitive change; they are used to influence or change the experience of the emotion. Alternatively, the response focused strategy, response modulation or suppression, is focused on changing or suppressing the emotional expression. These strategies are explained below and represented in figure 3.2.

- Situation selection is a strategy for regulating emotions by “approaching or avoiding certain people, places, or objects.” (Gross 1998, p.283)
- Situation modification is defined as “active efforts to directly modify the situation so as to alter its emotional impact” (Gross 1998, p.283)
- Attentional deployment is the strategy of “changing attentional focus may be grouped loosely under the headings of distraction, concentration, and rumination.” (Gross 1998, p.284)
- Cognitive change or reappraisal is a strategy that “consists of modifying ...cognitive steps or evaluations” through reframing and reappraisal for example. (Gross 1998, p.284)
- Response modulation is a strategy through which one influences “physiological, experiential, or behavioural responding.” (Gross 1998, p. 285)

The above strategies have been studied in terms of effectiveness especially cognitive change and response modulation strategies. In the next section, the effectiveness of the strategies in the literature is explored.

Figure 3.2: Gross' Process model of emotion regulation (Webb et al. 2012)



Effectiveness of ER strategies

Gross and John (2003) investigated the effectiveness and impact of Gross' two main ER categories, reappraisal and suppression, in relation to different areas including well-being and social relationship. When studying the long term implications of these categories on well-being they found that suppression is negatively correlated with life satisfaction, self-esteem, optimism, and well-being. Measures consisted of environmental mastery, autonomy, personal growth, purpose in life, self-acceptance, and positive relationships with others. Suppression

was also positively correlated with depression scales. On the other hand, reappraisal had the complete opposite effect. Reappraisal was positively correlated with life satisfaction, self-esteem, optimism, and other well-being areas and was negatively correlated with depression scales.

Gross and John (2003) also studied the impact of reappraisal and suppression strategies on interpersonal functioning. They found that reappraisal is positively correlated with sharing emotions with others (positive emotions and negative emotions), close relationships, and likeability by peers. Reappraisal was also moderately correlated with social support. Suppression, on the other hands, was negatively correlated with these factors. Furthermore, Butler and Gross (2009) found that emotional suppression leads to increases in physiological reactions and declines in cognitive functioning at the personal level, and to lower levels of rapport and affiliation and increase blood pressure for members of social interactions. Indeed, Webb et al (2012) note that except in the cases where reappraisal is not doable, suppression is not the preferred method.

Parkinson and Totterdell (1999) developed a taxonomy for categorizing ER strategies, which led to two groups: cognitive strategies (using thought) and behavioural strategies (using action). Augustine and Homenover's (2009) meta-analysis found that behavioural strategies are more effective than cognitive strategies (Webb et al. 2012).

Likewise, Aldao et al's (2010) meta-analysis looked at the effects of six emotion strategies on symptoms of psychopathologies (anxiety, depression, eating and substance related disorders) including: acceptance, avoidance, problem solving, reappraisal, rumination, and suppression. Acceptance and problem solving were negatively correlated with psychopathological symptoms like anxiety, depression, eating, and substance related disorders. Avoidance and rumination were associated with psychopathological symptoms. Suppression was positively associated with these disorders while reappraisal was negatively associated.

Koole's model (Koole 2009) classifies ER strategies based on the target of the strategy and function. The targets include attention (focus), knowledge (meaning), and embodiments (physiology). The function of ER includes hedonic needs (increasing joy, reducing pain), external goals (modifying emotions for goals, task or norm) and person oriented function. These two dimensions, target and function, lead to nine different areas of ER strategies.

Overall, they are distinguished between cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. Using his model and relating it to the effectiveness of Gross' process strategies, attention and knowledge strategies are more effective than embodiment strategies. These strategy types are summarized in table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2: Koole's Classification of ER Strategies (Koole, 2009)

Psychological Function			
	Need-oriented	Goal-oriented	Person-oriented
Emotion-Generating System			
Attention	Thinking pleasurable or relaxing thought (Langens & MÖrth, 2003); Attentional avoidance (Derakshan et al., 2007)	Effortful distraction (Van Dillen & Koole, 2007); Thought suppression (Wenzlaff & Wenger, 2000).	Attentional counter- regulation (rothermund et al., 2008); Meditatio (Cahn & Polich, 2006); Mindfulness training (Brown et al., 2007).
Knowledge	Cognitive dissonance reduction (Harmon- Jones & Allen, 1999); Motivated reasoning (Kunda, 1990); Self defense (Tesser, 2001).	Cognitive reappraisal (Gross, 1998 ; Ochsner & Gross, 2008).	Expressive writing (Pennebaker, 1997); Specification of emotional experience (A. Neumann & Philippot, 2007); Activating stored networks of emotion knowledge (Tugade et al., 2006).
Body	Stress-induced eating (Greeno & Wing, 1994); Stress-induced affiliation (Taylor et al., 2000).	Expressive suppression (Gross, 1998); Response exaggeration (Schmeichel et al., 2006) Venting (Bushman et al., 2001).	Controlled breathing (Phillippot et al., 2002); Progressive muscle relaxation (Esch et al., 2003).
Note: Cited articles refer to relevant empirical demonstrations or literature reviews			

Cognitive strategies are more effective in the case of goal oriented ER: "Taken together, the advantage of cognitive over bodily strategies of emotion regulation appears to be specific to goal-oriented emotion regulation and does not apply across all known emotion regulation strategies." (Koole 2009, p. 35)

In their meta-analysis of 306 experimental studies, Webb et al. (2012) reviewed the effectiveness of ER strategies and they found the following:

- Attention deployment has no effect on emotion change.
- Response modulation has a small effect on emotion change.
- Cognitive change has a small to medium effect on emotion change.

They then looked deeper into these studies and classified each of these strategies into sub-strategies. The authors looked at combining two taxonomies of approaches: the top down theoretical taxonomy and bottom up empirical taxonomy based on studies about strategies. This ensured that the strategies that people use and the overall theoretical literature are included. Subsequently, Web et al (2012) used Gross' process model combined with Koole's model, Parkinson and Totterdell's taxonomy, and other theoretical perspectives like rumination, mindfulness, and self-immersion versus self-distance processing. Their categorization led to strategy classification from overall strategies to specific and sub strategies.

This resulted in classification of each of these strategies into sub-strategies: seven attention deployment sub-strategies, four response modulation sub-strategies, and four cognitive change sub-strategies. Comparing these sub-strategies, they found that there is significant variation in their effectiveness. In attention deployment, the meta-analysis showed that distraction was effective while concentration was not. They found that suppression of emotional expression was effective while suppression of experiences or thoughts was not. Reappraising the emotional response was less effective than reappraising the emotion's stimulus and both of them were less effective than reappraisal using perspective taking.

They also found several moderators for the effectiveness of these strategies. These moderators include the type of emotion, frequency of use, purpose of strategy, study design, and characteristics. Webb et al. (2012) concluded that the most effective strategies are reappraising the emotional stimulus, perspective taking, and active distraction. Impett et al. (2012) show that suppression in relationships has costly side effects including: decreased emotional well-being, reduced quality and satisfaction of relationships, and thoughts of

breaking up between partners. Authenticity was a mediator between suppression and these consequences, as people do not feel that they are authentic when they suppress their emotions.

Summary of ER strategies

In summary, cognitive change seems to be the most effective strategy and this strategy is even more effective when using perspective taking and reappraising the emotional stimulus (Webb et al. 2012). In addition, problem solving and acceptance strategies seem to be effective strategies based on Aldao et al's (2010) study. On the other hand, suppression seems to be a strategy, which has drawbacks and side effects in many aspects. Since emotion self-regulation is taken as foundation for managing others emotions (Niven et al. 2009, Niven et al. 2012, Little et al. 2012), this summary of ER strategies is beneficial when looking for effectiveness and impact of managing others emotions in the next sections.

3.2.4 Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

Niven et al. (2012) developed a model for emotional management of others, called interpersonal affect regulation, defined as “deliberate attempts by one social entity known as the ‘agent’ to change the emotions or moods of another social entity known as the ‘target’” (Gross & Thompson 2007). The interest in interpersonal affect regulation was the result of its inclusion in the theories of EI (Niven et al., 2012). Indeed, managing others emotions is considered together with managing one's own emotions as one of the four EI abilities described in the previous chapter and George (2000) considers managing emotions a key function of leadership. The management of others' emotions has been studied in different contexts including social contexts, support groups, and work settings (hospitals, law firms, retail, and prisons) (Niven et al., 2012). Niven et al. (2009) note that deliberate affect regulation occurs through a conscious strategy that requires intent, awareness, and monitoring. This has traditionally been viewed from the perspective of emotional self-management (e.g. Gross' model of ER). However, research on managing others' emotions has recently increased in popularity.

Interpersonal affect regulation occurs within dyadic relationships when agents and targets are a single person and between larger social groups, such as support groups who regulate the emotions of its members. The aim of using interpersonal affect regulation may be to achieve more than just changing emotions. For instance it could include giving care, changing attitudes or behaviours, or meeting role requirements. Nevertheless interpersonal affect

regulation is a distinct construct because the main aim is to influence or change others' emotions (Niven et al. 2012).

Reviewing the literature, there are two established models for regulating the emotions of others. These are the Interpersonal Affect Regulation (IAR) (Niven et al. 2009) model and the Interpersonal Emotional Management (IEM) model (Little et al. 2012). These two models are based on two different theoretical foundations; nevertheless, they are both developed to categorize and measure the emotional regulation of others.

Interpersonal Affect Regulation (IAR)

Although there have been many studies on interpersonal affect regulation, there has not been any effort to develop a comprehensive list of strategies or to classify them. This, however, is crucial for comparing strategies and evaluating which ones are the most effective (Niven et al., 2009). Niven et al. (2009) classified strategies by their motives and means where the main motive is to change another person's affect. The authors reviewed the literature of controlled interpersonal affect regulation and different streams of interpersonal processes in social and applied psychological domains (e.g. social support, impression management, interpersonal influence, bullying, and emotional labour), which resulted in a comprehensive number of strategies for regulating others' affects.

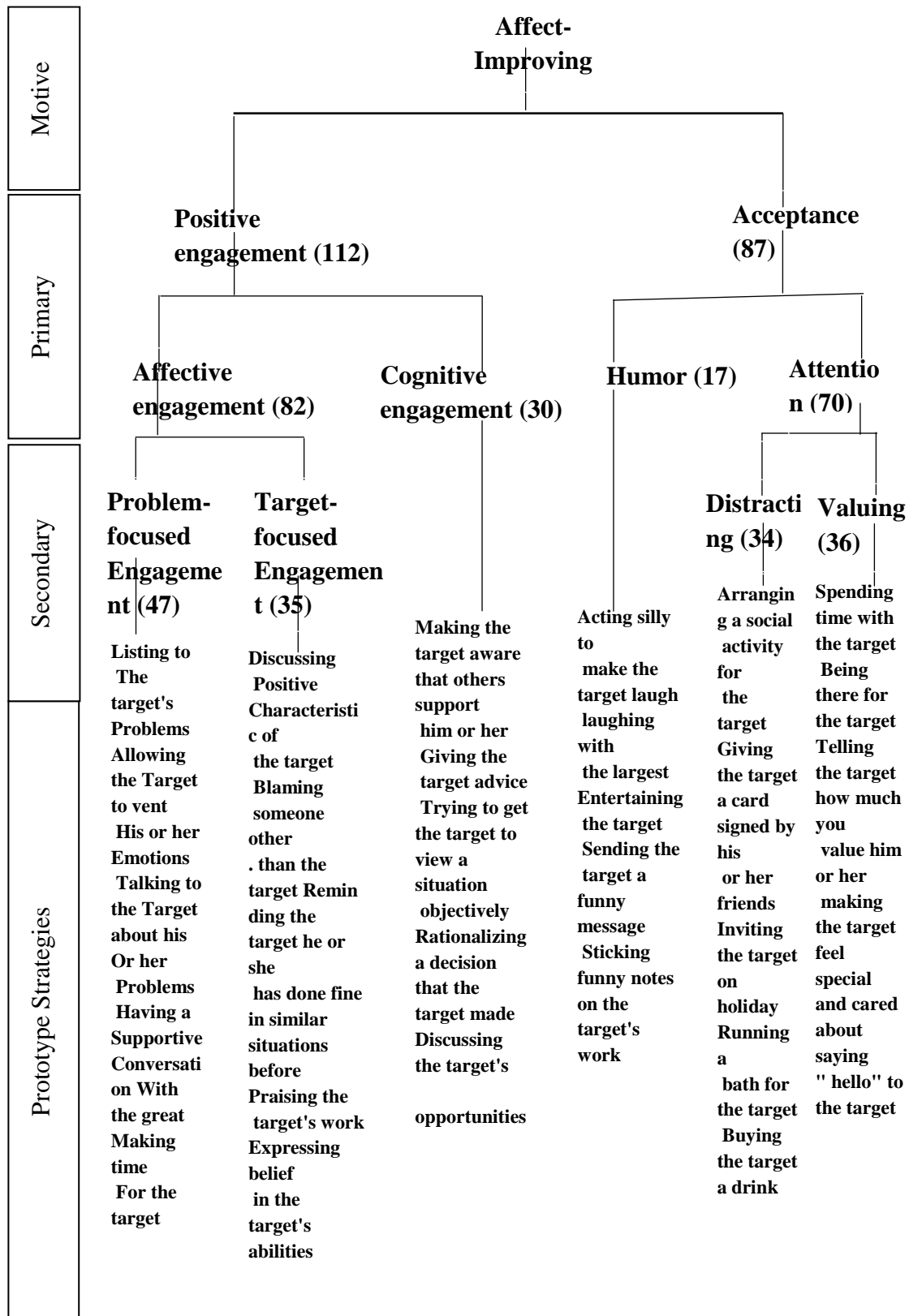
Niven et al. (2009) classified strategies according to Parkinson and Rotterdell's (1999) classification system. In this system, the first dimension includes strategies on the implementation level, either cognitive or behavioural. The other dimension includes strategies that make someone engage in situations, or affect states, or changes attention from the current situation. They added one dimension into this, which is affect improvement versus affect worsening. For the focus of this research, since the scope is looking at how leaders can improve their followers' emotions, only the improvement of negative emotions classification of strategies is considered in this literature review.

Niven et al. (2009) acknowledge that the two existing models of ER are Gross (1998) and Parkinson and Totterdell (1999) and based their classification of ER on the latter instead of Gross (1998). They note the following to justify this decision:

“Parkinson and Totterdell’s (1999) classification concerns the regulation of affect (in our terms, emotions and moods), whereas other relevant models have focused on selected components of affect. Gross’s (1998) model, for example, focuses on the regulation of emotions, with regulation types including selection and modification of situations that could give rise to emotions. Such categories may not be as appropriate when considering the regulation of mood states, which, unlike emotions, do not always occur in response to particular events (Parkinson, Totterdell, Briner, & Reynolds, 1996)” Niven et al. 2009, p 500.

As presented in figure 3.3 below, in their final classification of the regulating others affect, Niven et al. (2009) propose the following strategies:

Figure 3.3: Hierarchical Structure of the Strategies (Niven et al. 2009)



Engagement strategies

Affective engagement - directly trying to improve the way the target feels about a situation

e.g. allowing the target to vent

Problem-focused strategies e.g. listening to the target's problems

Target-focused strategies e.g. pointing out the target's positive characteristics

Cognitive engagement - trying to change the way the target thinks about a situation in order to improve the target's feelings e.g. giving the target advice

Relationship-oriented Strategies

Attention - giving the target attention to communicate validation e.g. making it clear that you care about the target

Valuing e.g. making the target feel special

Distraction e.g. arranging an activity for the target

Humor - being humorous towards the target to communicate validation - e.g. joking with the target

According to Niven et al. (2011), the scale EROS (Emotion Regulation of Others and Self) was developed based on the above model and classification includes the following strategies to regulate other's emotions:

I spent time with someone

I listened to someone's problems

I discussed someone's positive characteristics

I did something nice with someone

I gave someone helpful advice

I made someone laugh

When analyzing this model one may notice that it does not include strategies to change the situation or the problem, which is one of the strategies of Gross' emotion self-regulation model.

Interpersonal Emotional Management

Little et al.'s (2012) Interpersonal Emotional Management (IEM) model is based on Gross' (1998) well established model of emotional self-regulation, and is modified for the use of

interpersonal ER. They acknowledged that there are two theoretical frameworks for emotional regulation of others: one based on Gross (1998), and Niven et al (2009). They developed the IEM scale based on Gross’ theoretical model of ER instead of Niven et al. (2009). They justified using Gross’ theoretical framework in their study since Gross’ model is more developed and assess strategy effectiveness.

IEM Strategies, definitions and examples

Table 3.3 below explains the key strategies within the IEM model, their definitions, and practical examples of how these are used.

Table 3. 3: Strategies for Interpersonal Emotional Management (Little et al. 2012, p. 409)

Strategy	Definition	Example
Situation modification	Modifying or changing the situation by removing some or all of the emotion provoking elements (Gross, 1998).	A vice president of a large financial institution dealing with anger and frustration felt by clerical workers worked behind the scenes to secure a transfer of one of the clerical workers reporting to a difficult individual (Frost & Robinson, 1999).
Attentional Deployment	Selecting which aspects of the situation to focus on by distracting attention away from the elements of a situation that are harmful to goals, concerns, or well-being, or by moving away from the situation entirely (Gross, 1998)	An agent may use humour (acting silly, to make the target laugh) or other means (offering to buy the target a drink) as ways of distracting targets to improve their emotions (Niven et al., 2009).
Cognitive change	Selecting which of many possible meanings will be attached to the situation, reappraising or reinterpreting the situation as having less potential for harm to goals, concerns, and well-being (Gross, 1998).	A supervisor who plays the front man for an abusive CEO. When subordinates get angry with a CEO and vent to this supervisor, he points out that the CEO wants what was best for the organisation, reappraising the CEO’s demands and intimidation techniques (Frost & Robinson, 1999).
Modulating the emotional response	Suppressing emotional responses by directly influencing physiological, experiential, or behavioural responding (Gross, 1998).	To calm down an employee when upset, a supervisor may say something like ‘relax’ or ‘it’s not that big of a deal’ or ‘calm down’.

Comparison of IAR and IEM models and application to leadership

Table 3.4 below compares the two models of interpersonal regulation of emotion: IAR and IEM. As per the table there are some strategies that the two models have in common and other strategies that do not exactly match. For example, situation modification in the IEM model

does not exist in the IAR model, as there are no strategies that explore methods for changing the situations. Modulating the emotional response, defined as “directly influencing physiological, experiential, or behavioral responding” (Gross 1998, p. 285) does not correspond to another strategy in the IAR model.

There are also some strategies in the IAR model that do not exist in the IEM model. For example, the problem focused positive engagement strategy, which focuses on ways to listen to the target’s problems, allowing him or her to vent emotions, or talk about the problem. This strategy cannot be categorized as situation modification since it does not change the problem. Also, it is not considered attentional deployment because the problem is shared - not avoided, it is not cognitive change and it does not change the perception of the problem. In addition, this strategy does not correspond with modulating the emotional response since the latter is about suppressing the emotion, while the problem focused positive engagement strategy is about listening and allowing. Another strategy that does not match with the IEM is the relationship oriented strategy, attention – valuing, which looks at giving attention to the person who is experiencing an emotion and spending time with that person to value him. Thus, it does not match with situation modification, attentional deployment, cognitive change, or modulating the emotional response.

Summary of models for managing others’ emotions:

Based on the above information, it is important to explore both models’ strategies to see how they differ and intersect in practice within the context of leadership, and how leaders could use these strategies to manage followers’ emotions. Some of the questions that need to be explored are:

- How do these strategies relate to the practice of leader emotion management of followers and how context and discrete emotions could influence the use of strategies?
- How would this impact both models and would there be a more comprehensive model of strategies which could include and structure strategies from both framework?
- What is the implication of this on leaders practice of regulating followers’ emotions?

These questions will be discussed further in the research aim and objectives chapter.

Table 3.4: Comparison of IEM and IAR Strategies

IEM Strategies	Defintion	Examples	Similar IAR Strategies	Defintion	Examples	Comparison
Situation modification	Modifying or changing the situation by removing some or all of the emotion provoking elements (Gross, 1998).	A vice president of a large financial institution dealing with anger and frustration felt by clerical workers worked behind the scenes to secure a transfer of one of the clerical workers reporting to a difficult individual (Frost & Robinson, 1999).	NA	NA	NA	NA
NA	NA	NA	Positive Engagement Stratey- Problem Focused	Giving the target attention to communicate validation, e.g., making it clear that you care about the target	Listening to the target’s problems Allowing the target to vent his or her emotions Talking to the target about his or her problems Having a supportive conversation with the target Making time for the target	NA
Attentional	Selecting which aspects of the situation to focus on by distracting attention away from the elements of a situation that are harmful to goals, concerns, or well-being, or by moving away from the situation entirely (Gross, 1998).	An agent may use humour (acting silly, to make the target laugh) or other means (offering to buy the target a drink) as ways of distracting targets to improve their emotions (Niven et al., 2009).	Positive Engagement Strategies- Target Focused	Target-focused strategies, e.g., pointing out the target’s positive characteristics	Discussing positive characteristics of the target Blaming someone other than the target Reminding the target he or she has done fine in similar situations before Praising the target’s work Expressing belief in the target’s abilities	Similar
deployment			Relationship Oriented Strategies - Attention - Distraction	distraction (prototype strategy “arranging a social activity involving the target”)	Arranging a social activity for the target Giving the target a card signed by his or her friends Inviting the target on holiday Running a bath for the target Buying the target a drink	Similar
NA	NA	NA	Relationship Oriented Strategies - Humor	Being humorous towards the target to communicate validation, e.g., joking with the target	Acting silly to make the target laugh Laughing with the target Entertaining the target Sending the target a funny message Sticking funny notes on the target’s work	Similar
NA	NA	NA	Relationship Oriented Strategies - Attention - Valuing	valuing (prototype strategy “spending time with the target”)	Spending time with the target Being there for the target Telling the target how much you value him or her Making the target feel special and cared about Saying ‘hello’ to the target	NA
Cognitive change	Selecting which of many possible meanings will be attached to the situation, reappraising or reinterpreting the situation as having less potential for harm to goals, concerns, and well-being (Gross, 1998).	A supervisor who plays the front man for an abusive CEO. When subordinates get angry with a CEO and vent to this supervisor, he points out that the CEO wants what was best for the organization, reappraising the CEO’s demands and intimidation techniques (Frost & Robinson, 1999).	Cognitive engagement	Trying to change the way the target thinks about a situation in order to improve the target’s feelings	Making the target aware that others support him or her Giving the target advice Trying to get the target to view a situation objectively Rationalizing a decision that the target made Discussing the target’s opportunities	Similar
Modulating the emotional response	Suppressing emotional responses by directly influencing physiological, experiential, or behavioural responding (Gross, 1998).	To calm down an employee when upset, a supervisor may say something like ‘relax’ or ‘it’s not that big of a deal’ or ‘calm down’.	NA	NA	NA	NA

Three Classes of Needs for Regulating Negative Emotions

Rime (2007) explains how there are three classes of needs of negative emotion regulations. His classification of these needs provides leaders with insights on how they can satisfy these needs when regulating followers' emotions. Rime's classes of needs are divided between socio-affective, cognitive, and action needs.

Socio-affective Needs Class:

- Appeasement, comfort, love, care, contact
- Social support and back up in action
- Understanding, recognition, social validation, social integration
- Support, esteem, reassurance

Cognitive Needs Class:

- Abandonment of goals, reorganisation of motives
- Modifying schemas and representation
- Re-creation of meaning, restoration of the symbolic system
- Reframing, new appraisal of the emotional event

Action Needs Class:

- Concrete help and assistance
- Re-creation of meaning, restoration of the symbolic system
- Restoration of mastery and control through action
- Successful experience through action

Rime (2007) explains how meeting several of these needs results in a better chance of overcoming the emotional experience. Emotional regulation needs show that when someone is having negative emotions, they have socio-affective needs not just cognitive needs. These include the need to be cared for, loved, comforted supported, backed up, understood, validated, and reassured. Beyond changing the situation, the action needs show that the person experiencing negative emotions has concrete help and assistance, is in control, or can have a

successful experience through action. These two needs classes (socio-affective and action) could be especially relevant in a working environment.

Person Focused Versus Emotion Focused

In a recent study, Thiel et al. (2014) explored the effectiveness of two ER strategies, reappraisal and suppression, together with empathy. Empathy is considered, according to them, a person-focused strategy meeting socio-affective needs, as per Rime's needs classes (Rime 2007), in a simulated crisis situation, which induced anger in the followers. They found that suppression used together with empathy is effective. Cote's (2005) social interaction model proposes that emotion self-regulation is different than emotion regulation of others as the first is focused on internal processes while the second involves relationships. The social interaction model is more "complex and comprehensive" than the self-regulation model p. 524.

Cote (2005) cited by Thiel et al (2014) proposes that there are two key elements of the ER of others. They suggest that the intention of the emotion manager, as seen by the person experiencing the emotions, plays a big role in the effectiveness of the strategy. Therefore in the case of leaders, they need to ensure that this relationship element is taken into consideration when they are in the process of managing their followers' emotion. In Thiel et al.'s (2014) study, they called this relationship aspect person-focused emotion strategy (e.g. empathy) compared to the emotion-focused emotion strategy (e.g. suppression, reappraisal, focus deployment).

3.2.5 Followers Emotion Regulation

A key conceptual paper in the literature on leaders' strategies for managing followers' negative emotions is the work of Ostell (1996). Ostell explored how leaders can manage negative emotions of employees and colleagues. In his study, he notes that there is lack of research on how managers can manage emotions in a working environment. He developed a model based on three sources: science, research as a psychotherapist, and experience as a management consultant. He considered his recommended strategies to be directive instead of perspective, i.e. good practices which could increase success in managing emotions.

While emotions are part of daily work for each members of the organisation, Ostell (1996) notes that if emotions, mainly dysfunctional ones, are extreme and tenacious they may have a negative impact on behaviour. While he notes that emotional reactions could be the result of events at work as well as from non-work environments, he argues that dysfunctional emotions have a strong negative impact on mental processes and lead to bad performance and interpersonal relationships. He argues that managers need to change these emotions to ensure that employees do not behave in negative ways and that such emotions do not increase in intensity, which would lead to more negative consequences.

Examples of a consequence of dysfunctional emotions is not taking action due to strong anxiety, bad behaviour in the case of anger, and/or depression where they could either manipulate others or hurt themselves. Ostell (1996) criticizes many books about coaching and counseling because they do not account for managing emotions. He notes that there is a gap in the literature regarding handling different emotions for managers in work environments. He notes that “there is a significant gap in the clinical and counselling literature on how to handle different emotions... this gap is even greater in the literature for managers in business and industry” p. 530.

Ostell (1996) developed strategies, tactics and principles for managers to manage negative (dysfunctional) emotional behaviour at work including anger, anxiety, and depression. His proposed model for managing negative emotions, which he calls ‘managing dysfunctional emotional behaviour’ is defined as “strategies and tactics a manager employs in order to influence others (e.g. colleagues, staff) to control their emotional responses so that they can react more adaptively to their circumstances” p. 528. Ostell’s work is focused mainly on managing others emotions in dyadic relationship, i.e. between a manager and a colleague or a manager and his follower. He provides typical features of three key negative emotions, anxiety, depression, and anger, and proposes that managers need to sense emotional states from different sources before accurately identifying the emotion.

General principles for managing negative emotions

When dysfunctional emotional reactions are caused by a problem, the first step is to manage the emotion before fixing the problem that caused it (Ostell 1996). For example, if a machine is missing that must be bought and an employee is angry because of this, the manager needs to manage the anger first and then fix the problem. Otherwise performance will decrease and relationships at work will suffer. This is because, if this equipment needs time to be purchased, then it is crucial to change the emotion and not wait until it is purchased.

Ostell (1996) explains two wrong approaches that leaders take when dealing with emotions, which are Unconstructive Mood Matching (UMM) and Confrontational Mood state CMS. UMM is responding to others with a negative emotional state similar to the one that they expressed which leads to negative results. For example, responding to someone in a negative way would lead to another negative reaction and perpetuate the negative state: “UMM generally makes those who ‘mood-match’ less able to act constructively” pg. 535. The second wrong approach, CMS, involves dealing with negative emotions by confronting others in a dysfunctional emotional way, which leads also to negative consequences.

Instead of using UMM or CMS, Ostell proposes that managers model the reaction that they want to see in their followers. Such modelling does not include criticizing, ignoring, avoiding, or advising. It is about modeling an emotional state that could help them to address the problem or circumstances in a more resourceful state resulting in beneficial actions. Ostell (1996) notes that the appropriate strategy for managing emotions will depend on the circumstances and the specific emotion itself; every emotion must be managed differently. Thus, managers need to identify emotions and the processes that create them, through his or her perceptions and self-talk.

According to Ostell, the leader faces a dilemma between individual needs and organisational goals for which the leader is responsible and requires empathy. Sympathy is about exhibiting the same feeling, it encourages that person to maintain their current emotion or even makes it worse through UMM. Empathy on the other hand is about “understanding and communicating this understanding to the other person” without indulging in the negative emotion p. 535.

Empathizing, therefore, includes understanding how and why the person is feeling a certain

emotion, showing acceptance without having to agree on their views or actions, refraining from criticism and blame, and encouraging them to react more resourcefully to the situation. Empathy ultimately conveys respect or positive regard for the other person.

Ostell provides guidelines when dealing with disruptive emotions, starting by focusing on dealing with the emotional expression that could lead to disruptive behaviour. Second, he recommends referring the employee to professional help when dealing with recurring emotional problems. Third, he states that leaders must focus on changing the disruptive behaviour not the personality of the person. Fourth, he recommends not labeling the employee based on his emotions, as “depressed” or “neurotic” for example. Fifth, he suggests keeping the process confidential, and finally he states that leaders should use skillful behaviour to help the employee rather than using “line authority”. He recommends providing training for managing dysfunctional emotions: “it is important that investment in interpersonal skills training for managerial staff, including the skills of emotion management, is high on the training agenda in the same way as is technical training” (Ostell 1996, p. 553).

Short-intermediate strategies for managing dysfunctional emotions

Ostell (1996) proposed two models of emotional management, these are: palliative or short term management of emotions and corrective or long term management of emotions. The following immediate-short term strategies could be applied to most situations prior to working on a long term adaptive strategy:

- Acknowledge the problem and indicate an understanding of how they are feeling
- Understand the exact emotion
- Show willingness to help
- Offer supportive information or opinions when suitable
- Avoid being judgmental , critical, and using UMM and CMS

Agree on provisional action until a corrective strategy is determined, or proceed to create one. Since these strategies are easier to apply than adaptive strategies and they are often successful on their own, it may save the leader time and energy to apply these strategies before attempting

corrective or adaptive strategies. In addition, many of these strategies are also precursors to the successful use of long term strategies.

Corrective or Adaptive Strategies

Ostell (1996) provided corrective and adaptive strategies for three dysfunctional emotions anger, anxiety and depression. Angry thinking patterns consist of holding inflexible and demanding beliefs and values. In this case the role of the leader is to help the employee hold these beliefs and values as preferential or functional matters, instead of demanding them by force. Not meeting these beliefs and values can damage relationships. Anxiety thinking patterns include 'something bad might happen' or 'something pleasant might not happen'. Strategies proposed by Ostell (1996) to manage this include helping the employee believe that the bad occurrence has less probability of happening compared to what they believe, that the consequences are less severe than what they think, and that they have the ability to deal with this. Depression thinking patterns are usually the inability to influence or control events or the happening of a potential bad occurrence. The strategies that leaders could use for managing depression is to set achievable goals and pursue them in a non-perfectionist manner, help employees accept life realities and let go of the past, help create and plan actions to achieve their goals so they will not feel hopeless or helpless. Once the short-term strategies have been applied, these adaptive strategies can be used to help employees manage their emotions.

Tactics for managing negative emotions

Ostell (1996) provided the following tactics for applying the above strategies when managing negative emotions:

- **Reflective:** Brief statements from the leader that summarizes and reflects back the emotional content of the followers' comments. They need to be expressed without evaluation or criticism.
- **Apologies:** Admission of error or expression of regret when dealing with angry followers, due to a mistake by a leader for example.
- **Permission:** Allowing the emotional expressiveness of the followers e.g. saying "It's alright" when a follower is crying.

- **Silence:** This tactic could be used together with reflection or permission to encourage employees to talk about the issue at hand.
- **Conditional Assistance:** This tactic could be used to lessen the emotional expression to focus on solving the problem on hand. For example, the leader could say: “If you talk more slowly, I will be able to help.”
- **Normalizing:** This could be used to make followers feel that the emotion they are experiencing is normal.
- **Challenging:** This could be used when there is inconsistency between what the employee is saying and feeling (pretending he is happy) and his tone of voice or facial expression (looking angry).
- **Asserting boundaries:** When an employee’s emotional reaction can create bad consequences, the leader can make him or her aware of boundaries and ask him or her to stop.
- **Time-out:** Stopping the whole interaction when a situation is getting very emotional (e.g. confrontation) is a tactic to allow the issue to be dealt with later when there is less emotional charge.

Ostell notes that these tactics could be appropriate for certain situations and not helpful in others. He provides guidance for using them according to specific emotions (anger, anxiety, and depression). He adds that for these tactics to be effective it is important for them to be used in the right way i.e. the manner they are used (e.g. body language, tone of voice) is as much important as the tactics themselves. In summary, these tactics can be used in combination with short and long-term strategies when managing employees’ emotions.

3.3 Discussion and Analysis

Proposed classification of motives or approaches to leaders’ emotion management

Riggio and Reichard (2008, p. 177) described how “there is exploding interest in people’s abilities to regulate and control emotions”, especially in the field of leadership. However, the key challenge in the literature is that researchers use each of the terms “emotion management” and

“emotion regulation” to represent different constructs. For example, in Rajah et al. (2011) and Richards and Hackett (2012), emotion regulation is used to represent leaders’ self-regulation and emotional labour while in Gooty et al. (2010) the term is used to represent regulating one’s own emotions as well as the emotions of followers.

To address this challenge, based on the review of the literature of emotion management above, there are two potential purposes for managing followers’ emotions. The first purpose is managing negative emotions (or dysfunctional emotions as per Ostell 1996) where the aim is to reduce or change the negative emotions experienced by followers. The second purpose is eliciting positive emotions in followers to create excitement towards a vision or change program for example. Each of these purposes could be applied to interpersonal emotion management. Table 3.5 below summarizes the attempt to conceptualize the key differences of the two aspects of leader emotion management, what this study calls dysfunctional emotion regulation and functional emotion elicitation.

While the below table is an attempt to structure the streams of research on leaders’ strategies for managing followers’ emotions, it has to be noted that the above two streams of leader emotion management may be interrelated and may influence each other in different ways. This table could provide two main benefits. First, it could help leaders and managers visualize the differences between two key approaches to managing others emotions by understanding the aims and tools of each. Second, it helps researchers identify the areas where research is more needed which is in this case, leader’s management of others’ dysfunctional emotions.

Table 3.5 Proposed Two Approaches to Leader Emotion Management Strategies

	Leader Emotion Management	
	Dysfunctional Emotions Regulation	Functional Emotion Elicitation
Ultimate emotion aim	Regulate Negative/ Destructive/ Dysfunctional Emotions	Elicit Positive/Supportive/Functional Emotions
Approach	More reactive e.g. an employee feeling down or angry at work, and then leader would need to regulate his emotions in order to feel better.	More proactive e.g. a leader wants a team or the whole organisation to get excited about a vision
Ultimate goal	To not disrupt current work, to continue normal performance	To disrupt work in a positive way to achieve even higher performance
Purpose	To maintain previous status quo by ensuring employee is ok	To change status quo (normal emotional state) by creating more excitement and positive emotions in the team or organisation
Activity	Reduce/stop/change negative emotion	Induce/Evoke/Create positive/ functional emotions
Management Vs Leadership	Management	Leadership
Performance Goal	Ensure consistent standard performance	Improve/go beyond partially or significantly standard performance
Focus	Focus is more on individual, one at a time, but could be in group and at organisational level too	Focused more on groups and organisation but could be applied for individual too
Time	More tactical i.e. to solve the problem in hand	More strategic e.g. to create sustainable positive supportive climate within department or organisation
Frequency	Case by case	On going
Key emotions concepts and constructs	Emotion regulation IEM IAR Managing Dysfunctional Emotions (Ostell)	Charisma Transformational Leadership Emotion Expressiveness Supportive Leadership Emotional Contagion Emotional Labour
Empirical Studies in this field	Very limited	Growing body of literature (mainly in the field of emotion expressiveness, emotional contagion, charismatic leadership and transformational leadership)
Studies/ research applied to leadership	Very limited (mainly Ostell 1996, Thiel et al 2012, Thiel et al 2014)	Growing body of literature (for review see Gooty et al 2010 and Rajah et al 2011)

Proposed four levels model of leaders’ emotion management strategies

Ashforth and Humphrey (1995) note that although emotions are involved in all aspects of work within an organisation, both practitioners and researcher have not given this field the needed

attention. In their seminal paper, they link emotions to motivation, leadership, and group dynamics. Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011) developed a multi-level model of emotions in organisation, which gives a comprehensive view of emotions in organisations and how they relate to leadership. Their model consists of the following five levels:

- Emotions within person
- Emotions between two persons
- Interpersonal interactions
- Emotions and groups
- Emotions and organisation

As per Figure 3.4 below, this model explains the different areas where emotions need to be looked at and explored and provides a systematic review of studying and analyzing these levels. In the field of leader emotion management, Gooty et al. (2010) observe, in conclusion of their review of the state of science in this field, that there is a serious issue in the literature as the level of analysis is often vague and mixed:

“Perhaps, the most disturbing trend theoretically and empirically is the serious misalignment of levels of analysis and the general lack of acknowledgement of levels of analysis.... We call for theoretical work that explicitly addresses the intra-individual level (e.g., leader emotions and decision-making across time, leader emotions and leadership ability/skills), dyadic level (e.g., leader and follower emotions affecting each other's outcomes, agreement regarding what is felt versus displayed at the dyad level), group level (e.g., the influence of group moods on leader moods, construct development of group emotional tone and the role of the leader), and organizational level.” Gooty et al 2010, p. 998

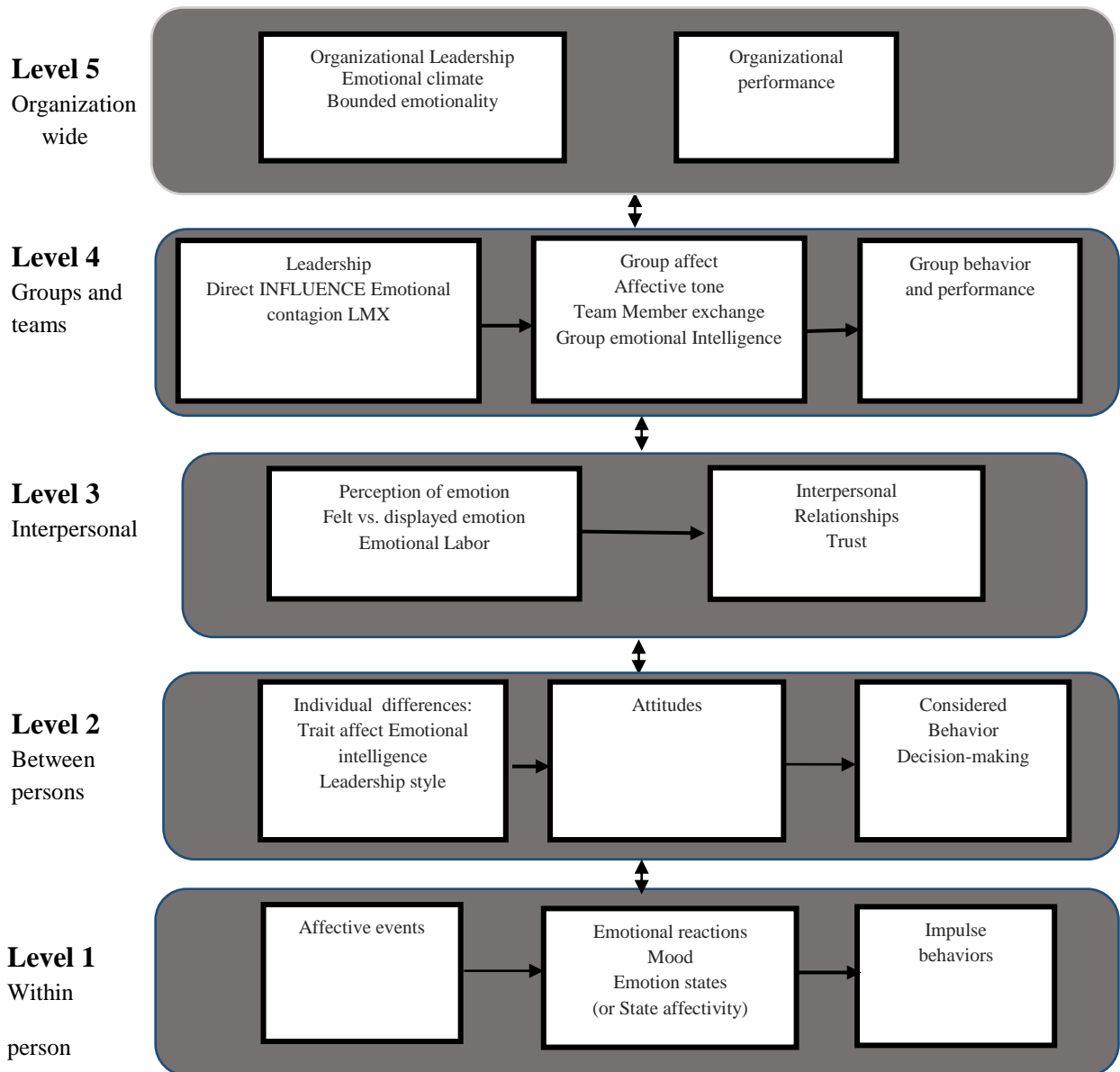


Figure 3.4: The five-Level model of emotion in organizations (Ashkanasy & Humphery 2014)

In response to this need, as identified by Gooty et al. (2010) and demonstrated above, and taking Ashkanasy and Humphrey's (2011) model of emotions in organisation as reference, this study proposes a four levels model of leader emotion management where one could categorize leader's emotion management strategies on the following levels:

- **Level 1 Leader emotion self-management:** These are the processes that are used by leader for self-regulations. A leader could manage to change other emotions through emotional contagion.
- **Level 2 Leader interpersonal emotion regulation:** These are the processes that are used by the leader to regulate emotion of another individual mainly followers in dyadic interactions.
- **Level 3 Group or team emotion regulation:** These are the processes or strategies that are used by a leader to manage the emotions of a team or group of people.
- **Level 4 Organisation emotion regulation:** these are the processes or strategies which can be used to manage or change the emotions of the whole organisation.

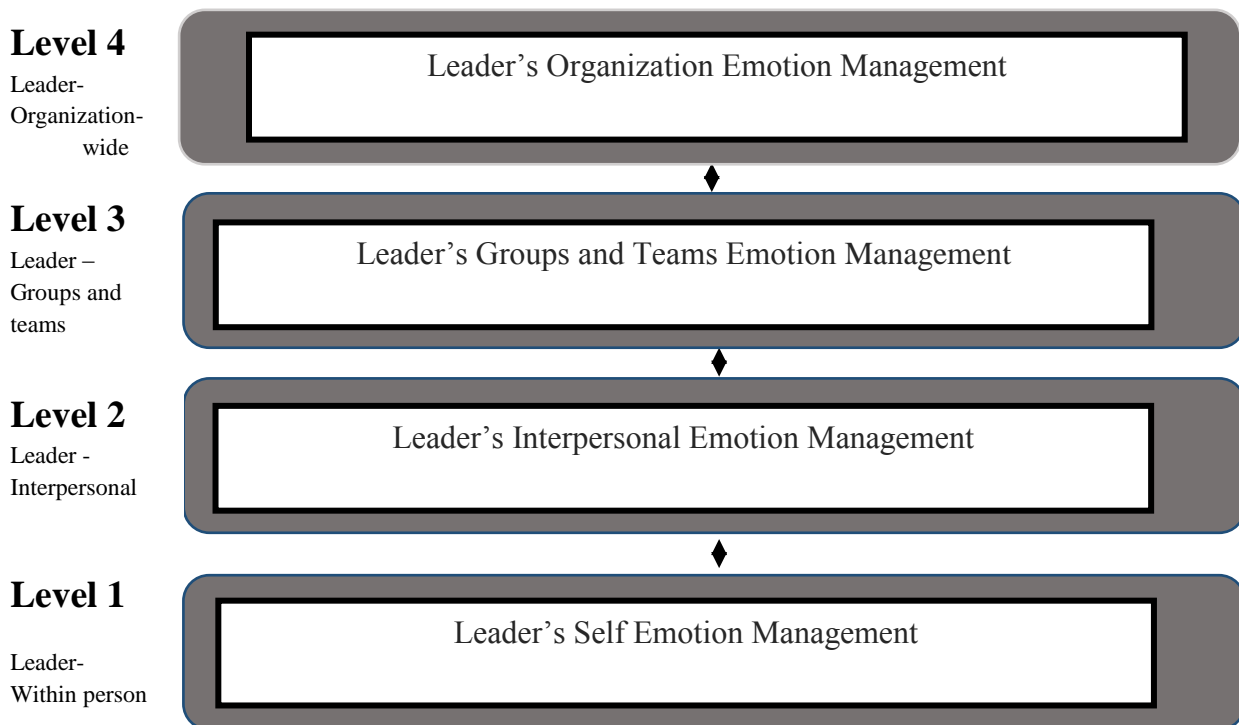


Figure 3.5: Proposed Four Levels Model of Leader Emotion Management Strategies in organisations

As per figure 3.5 above, these different levels of leaders' strategies for managing emotions can be viewed as interdependent. For example, to manage an individual's emotions, a leader may need to have experience regulating his or her own emotions. Managing team emotion requires

the skill of managing others' emotions individually. Ultimately, to manage the emotions of an organisation a leader must have the ability to perform the three previous levels effectively. Indeed, Rajah et al. (2011) suggests that leaders should manage their emotions first before can manage those of others: *"Before leaders can handle group emotions, it is perhaps ideal if they can handle emotions within themselves first."* (Rajah et al. 2011 p. 1111)

On the other hand, each of these levels could require certain types of strategies and skills to manage or regulate the emotions. For managing one's own emotions a leader would use emotion self-regulation strategies, and for managing a follower's emotions he or she would use interpersonal regulation. He or she could also use self-regulation or emotional labour to try to influence followers' emotions through emotion contagion.

Charismatic leadership and emotional expression are two of the key approaches for changing or managing team emotions. In addition, a leader could potentially use some of self-regulation and interpersonal regulation strategies for this purpose too. For example, Thiel et al. (2014) show that through email a leader can use suppression or reappraisal strategies together with empathy to regulate followers' emotions.

Finally, to manage an organisation's emotions, a leader can rely on charismatic leadership and emotional expression to change emotions. In this case, he or she may also use other strategies from self-regulation and interpersonal regulation. Table 3.6 below summarizes the different levels and of emotion regulation and potential approaches for emotion management at this level, along with related strategies or skills.

In the next section, research in leader emotion management in levels two, three, and four will be summarized by positioning the review of the literature presented to this point in this chapter under these levels. The main benefit of this classification is to structure the body of literature and to identify the gaps which need to be explored.

Table 3.6: Proposed Emotion Management Levels Classification

Emotion Management Focus Level	Areas which could help achieving emotion management
Level 4: Leader's Organisation Emotion Management	Charismatic Leaders/ Evoking positive emotions in organisation Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Emotional Labour (Emotion Self Regulation through Emotion Contagion)
Level 3: Leader's Group/ Team Emotion management	Charismatic Leaders/ Evoking positive emotions in Group/Team Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Emotional Labour (Emotion Self Regulation through Emotion Contagion)
Level 2: Leader's Interpersonal Emotion management	Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Emotional Labour (Emotion Self Regulation through Emotion Contagion)
Level 1: Leader's emotion Self Management	Emotion self regulation

Level 4: leader's organisation emotion management

Weymes (2003) notes:

“...the primary purpose of leadership being to influence the feelings and emotions of those associated with the organisation; to create the emotional heart of the organization...” (p. 319)

According to Brotheridge and Lee (2008), “emotions serve as the context, content, process, and the result of managerial work,” p. 109. They presented a process demonstrating how leaders influence followers’ emotions and how the latter delivers positive results including organisational performance as per figure 3.6 below.

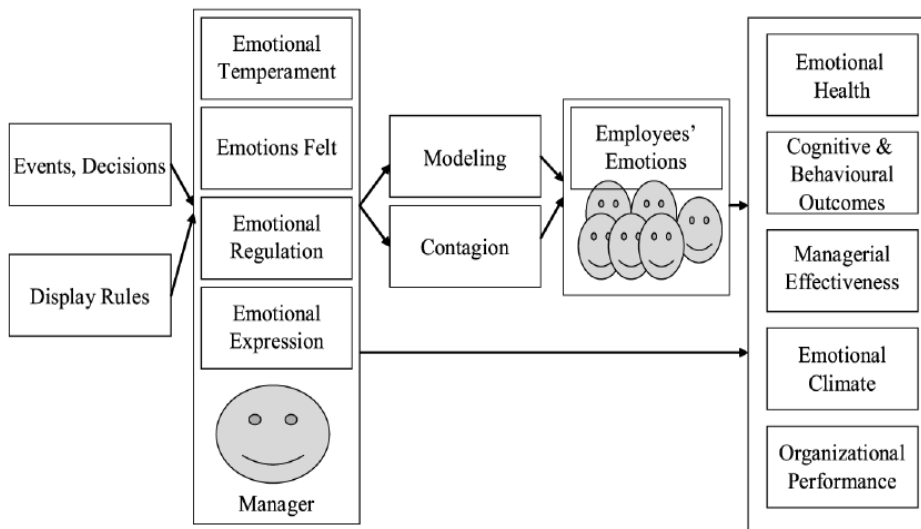


Figure 3.6: The emotional nature of managerial work (Brotheridge and Lee 2008)

However, this model only explains how leaders influence followers through expressed emotions and self-regulation, where expressed emotions are transferred to employees through contagion and modeling. This model, therefore, does not include how leader can consciously influence and manage emotions through other strategies.

A leader may need additional ways of managing an organisation's emotions, as explained previously in this chapter, including transformational or charismatic leadership, evoking positive emotions in organisations through emotional expression and interpersonal emotion regulation strategies.

Ozcelik et al (2007) conducted a study covering 229 entrepreneurs and small business owners and found that when leaders facilitated a positive emotional climate it was correlated with organisational outcomes such as increase in revenue, strategic growth, and outcome growth. In this study positive emotional climate consisted of the following HR practices to motivate employees:

- Trying to be sensitive to employees' emotional needs
- Creating a positive climate between workers
- Giving a lot of positive feedback
- Encouraging teamwork
- Offering opportunities for advancement
- Rewarding employees who take special initiative

They explain that creating a positive emotional climate is different from emotional culture, and from the practices of transformational and charismatic leadership:

“...culture is dynamically stable and usually held in place by a network of socialization practices over generations, emotional climate is more subject to change and dependent on existing leadership styles and administrative policies. A new leader with a different management style

could change the emotional climate of an organisation in a relatively short period of time, even though the culture of the organisation might remain the same.” P. 189.

Therefore according to them leadership has a stronger relationship with climate than culture. According to them positive emotional climate is about:

“...addressing the emotional needs and personal growth of employees and increasing their emotional engagement with the work environment, without directing or manipulating them towards organisational mission and goals.” P. 189.

Their findings show that leadership practices that facilitate a positive emotional climate in an organisation have a significant effect on the organisation’s performance, as measured by the rate of increase in the gross revenue of companies. Therefore, they suggest that:

“company leaders’ emotional management practices could be an important factor in determining organisational outcomes” p.198.

Other studies explored how leaders can influence organisation emotions. Some explored this from a change management perspective. For example, in the area of change management, studying the Swedish Consumer Cooperative company, Erikson (2003) explains how emotions play a big role in change programs within organisation:

“On a cognitive level, they (employees) trust the change efforts because they understand that the organisation needs to change in order to survive. On an emotional level, however, they have lost their trust for the change efforts and in the future of the organisation.” (Eriksson 2003, p. 122)

Their study shows how emotions from previous change programs which were not implemented led to a negative emotional climate in the organisation. In the case of their studies, they note:

“We could even characterize the studied working place as depressed as the emotions that were expressed were unpleasant and low activated. People feel depressed when they perceive that they

and others are unable to influence the situation of the organisation; depressed emotions, in turn tend to be contagious.” (Eriksson 2003, p. 124)

Brotheridge and Lee (2008) suggest that leaders need to become emotion managers especially since negative emotions associated with change require these skills, which could ultimately improve organisational outcomes. Therefore, leaders need to manage the organisation’s emotional climate to create positive emotions and regulate negative ones. One could say that the leadership styles discussed in the previous sections like transformational leadership, charismatic leadership, and supportive leadership would lead to this direction as well as the strategies for managing dysfunctional emotions.

Level 3: leader's group/ team emotion management

To influence performance in a positive way, Humphrey (2002) notes that managing a group’s emotions is a key task of leaders. According to Rajah et al. (2011), transformational leaders effectively manage group emotions. Berson et al. (2001) cited by Rajah et al. (2011) note that TL evokes optimism, confidence, and faith in the members. McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) cited by Rajah (2011) found that TL correlated with followers’ levels of optimism. Rajah et al. (2011) note that leaders who show humility can evoke emotions in others and that these leaders can inspire them to perform despite challenges. Rajah et al (2011) note:

“...emotionality can be used as a tool for personnel selection where leaders are chosen based on their ability to understand the group emotions, display and evoke the appropriate emotions to provide a supportive and productive context, as well as their ability to regulate emotions within the group and within themselves” (Rajah et al. 2011, p. 1116).

Clarke et al.’s (2007) study explains how leaders need to manage emotions in change management projects “managers perform unseen yet significant emotion work as part of their role, particularly in a change context. The suppression or expression of emotion by managers is no accident, but influenced by the over-rational portrayal of change processes.” p. 92. Kirk (1999) explains how “major change in organisations can often create feelings of fear and

isolation, but learning emotional management techniques can help managers and their staff” p. 76.

Dogan and Vecchio (2001) show how employees’ emotions of envy and jealousy are common in the workplace and that leaders need to understand the root causes of these emotions to manage them. They suggest that leaders could manage these emotions through different approaches including participative management and an incentive program that supports employees’ cooperation and encourages open communication.

Riggio and Reichard (2008), in their proposed emotional and social skill approach to emotional and social intelligence, propose a framework consisting of three emotional skills: emotional expressiveness, emotional sensitivity, and emotional control; and three social skills: social expressiveness, social sensitivity, and social control. Emotional expressiveness skills are being used by charismatic and transformational leaders to “rouse and motivate followers”, and through emotional contagion emotions are transferred to followers (Riggio and Reichard 2008, p. 173). They propose that leaders use this skill to create positive emotional climate in teams and organisations, motivate and inspire followers, and convey positive affect and regard. They give the example of the leaders of Southwest Airlines’ Herb Kelleher and Cisco Systems’ John Chambers who created and sustained positive emotional climate among their people.

On the other hand, emotional control is necessary to display the right emotions in crisis situations. This includes regulating inappropriate emotions, and masking or stifling the expression of strong emotions. Through these skills and emotional contagion, a leader can influence or manage his or her followers’ emotions.

In short, there are different ways to manage group emotions some of which were explained in the previous sections like emotional labour, emotional expressiveness, charismatic, transformational, and supportive leadership. In addition, strategies for managing dysfunctional emotions can also be used. What can be concluded from the review of the literature is that creating positive emotions and regulating dysfunctional emotions requires, in addition to communication and cognitive strategies, practices or actions that lead to these aims.

Level 2: leader's interpersonal emotion management

Leader's interpersonal emotion management includes the models described in the previous section. These are strategies for managing others' emotions including interpersonal affect regulation, interpersonal emotional management, Ostell's model of managing dysfunctional emotions, and person focused strategies.

IAR and IEM models include common strategies, and these were compared in this chapter. When further analyzing Ostell's immediate short-term strategies and corrective/adaptive strategies for managing followers' emotions, one can categorize them. Immediate short-term strategies can be considered person focused strategies using Thiel et al.'s (2014) terminology, since they are used to show care and help for the person before dealing with the real issue that created the emotion. The corrective/adaptive strategies offered by Ostell (1996), on the other hand, focus on cognitive change, i.e. to change the way the employee perceives the affective event or problem by offering strategies to change their thinking patterns.

Cote's model (2005) of social interaction shows how regulating others' emotions differs from self-regulation, as there needs to be consideration of the person experiencing the emotions. Hence, the person-focused strategies are a different set of strategies that take care of the socio-affective needs presented by Rime's (2007) model for managing others emotions. In Rime's model, also explained earlier, there is one need that is he calls the action needs class. This class includes concrete help and assistance, restoration of mastery and control through action, and successful experience through action. Some of these strategies are not part of the existing models of managing others emotions.

The challenge is that most of these studies were not applied in a leadership context. Even Ostell's model, which was developed for leaders, is conceptual work and has not been tested or researched empirically. On the other hand, very few studies empirically explored leaders' strategies for managing followers' emotions. For example, Thiel et al. (2012) studied leaders' usages of two cognitive change strategies (reappraisal and downward social comparison) in anger and pessimism situations using a quantitative method. Little et al.'s (2012) research looked

at how subordinates trust their leader based on the ER strategy that the leader uses, using quantitative methods.

Little et al.'s (2012) research shows that the IEM strategies model can be applied to leader-follower relationships. Their findings demonstrate that situation deployment and cognitive change is correlated with followers' trust in a leader while attention deployment (distraction) did not have an impact on this. Alternatively, suppressing the emotion led to reduced trust in leaders. Their study also shows that "perspective taking, empathy and EI are positively related with situation modification, attention deployment; and that cognitive change is negatively related to MER." p. 417. They conclude that "future research should continue to investigate the utility and effectiveness of these four strategies" p. 418.

Thiel et al. (2014) explored the effectiveness of two leader emotion regulation of others through two emotion regulation strategies, reappraisal and suppression with empathy. Empathy is considered, according to them, a person-focused strategy meeting the socio-affective needs (as per Rime's 2007 needs classes) in a simulated crisis, which induced anger in the followers. They found that suppression used together with empathy was effective.

The conclusion of Thiel et al.'s (2014) laboratory study is that emotion self-regulation strategies can have different effects and impacts when applied to managing others' emotions. The difference, according to their study, is that positive person-focused emotional management is a moderator of the emotion management strategy of others, as followers' reactions to the leader regulating the emotions is as important as the strategy itself. They recommend exploring other moderators that fall under social factors.

An interesting study conducted on regulating emotions at work is Diefendorff et al. (2008) where they explored the kind of ER strategies employees use at work and found that there are a wide variety of strategies used beyond deep acting and surface acting. They recommend that future research should explore how specific strategies, not just categories of strategies (Gross' general strategies for managing emotions) are used at work. They note "no empirical work has examined strategies from all five categories in a work context," p. 499. They add that most studies either

narrowly examined affective events, emotions, and ER strategies or they did not study the three sets of variables at the same time.

While this study looked at how employees use emotion self-regulation, based on the review of the literature the same can be said about studies on leaders' strategies for managing followers' emotions i.e. there have not been studies that explored openly and comprehensively affective events, emotions, and ER strategies. Furthermore, from reviewing the literature no studies have explored these using qualitative methods outside of existing theory and models of ER.

Summary

This literature review started with defining key concepts related to ER: Affect and Emotion and Affective Events. It then explored many areas that are related to emotion management that can be used by leaders to manage followers' emotions. Emotional labour theory and strategies were elaborated, and how leaders can influence followers' emotions through deep acting and surface acting. This chapter also explained how certain leadership styles, especially charismatic leadership, create positive emotions, and presented an overview of the tools that can be used to elicit these emotions. The chapter then explained the emotion regulation strategies. It started with the self-emotion regulation strategies that are considered foundational for others emotion regulation. It explained how there are different regulation strategies, how cognitive change or reappraisal is considered more effective and how it has positive effects compared to suppression. Other studies show how problem solving and acceptance are also effective in managing emotions. On the other hand, this chapter described how suppression leads to many side effects like declines in cognitive functioning, anxiety, depression, and eating and substance related disorders.

Two models of managing others emotions (IEM and IAR) were explained and then compared. When comparing these two, it was explained how certain strategies which exist in one do not exist in the other, yet the set of strategies in both models could be complementary. Then, the three needs of managing others' emotions were presented and a study which shows that person-focused strategies i.e. socio-affective needs are critical for strategy success and can be a moderator of their impact. Finally, Ostell's (1996) leader model of managing followers'

emotions was presented together with emotion management principles, and short and long term strategies and tactics for managing emotions.

Based on this literature review, this study proposes classification of the stream of motives or approaches to leader emotion management. It also proposes four levels for leader emotion management.

The classification of motives of emotion management can help both researchers and practitioners differentiate between two approaches of emotion management. For researchers it will provide a roadmap that shows which areas need to be researched in each motive and where the research is saturated. For practitioners, it explains how the two different approaches have different purposes and consequently different tools to achieve them. The four levels of the leader emotion management model can help structure this literature by its level of focus within an organisation, from leader to individual follower to group to organisation. The literature review of leader emotion management was then summarized according to this 4 level model and the gaps within these levels were identified. These gaps will be further discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 4: Literature Gap & Research Aim and Objectives

Introduction

As demonstrated in the literature review chapters, while emotion has emerged as a key aspect of leadership in the last two decades (Rajah et al. 2011), most of the research has focused on empirical measurement of the relationship between the two constructs (Harms & Crede 2010, Mills 2009). Nevertheless, the need to manage followers' emotions is a challenge for leaders throughout their daily tasks within a work environment, as this is considered a key tool for influencing followers (Rajah et al. 2011). It is clear that there is a gap in the literature about leaders' ER strategies and that leadership practice is in need of such knowledge. Leaders and managers would benefit from learning about ER strategies, and a model that can help them to influence their subordinates as emotions are important for the leader-follower relationship part of their daily work (Ostell 1996). This chapter explains the specific gap in the literature of leader emotion management and the research aim and objectives based on this gap.

4.1 Literature Gap in Leader Emotion Management

Ostell (1996) gives examples of how emotions are experienced by individuals within an organisation setting including elation, anger, fear, shame and jealousy and notes that if such dysfunctional emotions are extreme and tenacious then they may have a negative impact on behaviour. Therefore, developing a deeper understanding of a leader's ER of followers and the contexts in which specific strategies are effective would be helpful for leaders when managing their subordinates' emotions. This is because it will help them to ensure that their people are in the right emotional states to perform (Haver et al, 2013). However there is a lack of research in this area, particularly with respect to strategies for changing followers' emotions (Gotty et al. 2010, Riggio and Reichard 2008).

Thiel et al. (2014), note that leaders have a unique ability to assist their employees with managing their negative emotions, but argue that there is scarce research on leaders' strategies for managing followers' emotions. They recommend future research around this. Haver et al. (2013), performed a search of all studies in the literature about ER and leader-follower context

and found 25 qualified articles within this area from January 2000 to December 2012 but only one of them was from the leader's perspective. They note that research about ER within the leadership context has only recently begun and empirical studies on the impact of ER on leadership are limited; thus this area requires increased attention.

Need for qualitative and theoretical research on leader emotion management

Gooty et al. (2010), who developed a qualitative review to summarize the state of the science on emotionality in leadership based on published papers in leading journals from the last two decades, recommended future theoretical work about leadership and emotions. Especially in the area of ER for self and others to find out how leaders can effectively manage their followers' emotions.

Wong and Law (2002) recommend exploring ER in working environments including the types of actions taken to do so, the reasons underlying these choices, and which types of actions are more effective in different contexts and types of jobs. Gooty et al. (2010) argue against only testing global effectiveness of strategies in general. Instead they recommend researching the management of emotions to understand and identify what strategies are effective for which contexts, and what the antecedents and outcomes of ER are:

“Testing for the global effects of emotion regulation may result in little progress because strategies that work for one leader may not work for all, or, work with all followers. Additionally, more research is needed on the antecedents (individual and situational) and consequences (cognitive processing, performance, attitudinal) of emotion regulation for both leaders and followers.” (Gooty et al. 2010, p. 998)

Haver et al (2013) study shows that there are “clear gaps within ER related to leadership that need to be addressed”, and “there is a lack of empirical research on the impact of leaders' ER on followers (and on themselves), and how both leaders and followers can use effective ER constructively.” p. 13. They add:

“... in order to capture important nuances and paradoxical relationships (nonlinear processes), future research should also include both qualitative and mixed-method designs to expand our conceptual understanding of ER related to leadership.” (Haver et al. 2013, p. 13).

Based on this information, they propose that research should be conducted to investigate coaching abilities and strategies that are used to regulate followers’ emotions in challenging situations.

In their review of the emotions and leadership literature, Gooty et al. (2010) note:

“...our review indicates that explanatory theory development in this domain is scarce. Along with this concern, the literature is heavily skewed towards the beneficial effects of positive moods and emotions, with negative moods and emotions vastly understudied.” p. 980

In short, researchers agree that there is a need to study leader emotion management of followers qualitatively beyond just measuring global effectiveness of strategies. This is to develop theoretical and explanatory work which could help understand the dynamic of leader emotion management of followers.

Need to focus on the practice of leader emotion management of followers’ negative emotions

As demonstrated in the previous chapter and above, some areas within the leader’s emotion management of followers’ literature have received more attention than others. For example, emotional contagion, emotional labour, and charismatic leadership have been explored. On the other hand, topics such as how leaders manage or regulate followers’ negative (or dysfunctional) emotions in practice, what kind of affective events they face, why they use certain types of strategies, how these are affected by certain factors, and why these factors impact or influence the strategy or strategies used, have not been extensively researched.

Furthermore, as shown and discussed in the literature review chapter on emotion management, there are many models of interpersonal ER that were not researched comprehensively and compared to the practice of leader emotion management. To illustrate, Little et al. (2012)

concluded that certain ER strategies are more effective than others noting that altering the problem and or reappraising the problem are more effective than attentional deployment. However, certain events or situations cannot be handled through some strategies. For example, in personal situations it would be difficult, if not impossible, to change the situation or maybe even to re-appraise it as in the case of the death of a close relative. Indeed, in their conclusion, Little et al. (2012) recommend future research to explore ER of others at the events specific level. Niven et al. (2009) who developed interpersonal emotional management frameworks for strategies that can be used by leaders, recommend also investigating how these ER strategies are practiced in certain situations.

4.2 Research Aim

Based on the information above, the aimed contribution of this research is to develop a good understanding of how ER works in leader-follower contexts. This includes exploring the situations leaders face, how strategies are used, how and why context could influence these strategies, and whether or not these relate to the existing theory of leaders' ER of followers. A conclusion of this exploration could potentially be a refined framework of ER strategies.

This aim answers the demand of scholars to develop a framework of strategies for managing followers' emotions. As outlined in the previous section, there is a need to provide leaders and managers with a model and toolkit that will help them regulate their followers' emotions, as these emotions are part of everyday work. The findings of this research could offer leaders and managers a better understanding of how different strategies can be used to manage their team members' emotions to ultimately drive performance.

Studying these strategies at the event level could enrich the emerging field of leader emotion regulation of followers, since most studies to date measured effectiveness of strategies through quantitative methods without exploring the how and why of strategies used and their impact. In short this research addresses the gap in the science of leadership and emotions as recommended by scholars and also fills a need that leaders and managers are facing in their daily work.

4.3 Research Questions

Based on the research objectives outlined above and since this study is explanatory in nature, the key research questions are the following:

1. How do leaders view the importance and limitation of managing followers' emotions and how do they explain its overall approach?
2. How do contextual factors like affective events and discrete emotions that leaders face when dealing with followers' emotions impact ER strategies?
3. How do leaders actually manage and regulate their followers' emotions?
4. How do leaders' actual strategies used compare to existing ER theory? And what are the implications of potential differences on both the practice and theory of leader ER?
5. What insights could be gained from the practice of leader ER about ER strategies effectiveness?

Chapter 5: Methodology

A qualitative study design was used to answer the research questions posed above. This chapter will provide a detailed description of the study design. A discussion of the underlying assumptions illuminates the unique perspective of the researcher and explains how these assumptions may have influenced the findings. A description of the methodology, recruitment, and participants follows after which the coding used for analyzing the findings is explained.

5.1 Philosophical Assumptions and Justification

There is an agreement among researchers that declaring, making explicit, and defending philosophical assumptions, identifies the logic behind the research and the conclusion of its findings. The goal is to make explicit the assumptions about reality and human knowledge made in all stages of the research from observation, to interpretation, to reporting. These assumptions explain how our research is developed and how our findings can be interpreted which “ensure the soundness of our research and make its outcomes convincing” (Crotty 1998, p. 6). However, the terminology used to describe these philosophical assumptions varies in the literature from paradigm to epistemologies, theoretical perspectives, methodology and methods to worldview (Crotty 1998, Creswell 2009). In this paper, the term “paradigm” is used to represent these philosophical assumptions consisting mainly of epistemology and ontology.

There are four research philosophies in management research which are: positivism, realism, interpretivist, and pragmatism (Saunders et al. 2007). Each of these has different assumptions from ontological and epistemological perspectives. The paradigm of this research could be considered interpretivist. Interpretivist philosophy could be the most appropriate philosophical stance for research in business and management according to Saunders et al. (2007, p116) since the researcher has to “enter the social world of our research subjects and understand their world from their point of view”. This is especially true in the areas of organisational behaviour, marketing, and human resource management, which applies to the focus of this study since the cases of emotion regulation are complex, unique, and function under certain circumstances with people coming together during a period of time (Saunders et al. 2007).

Ontology is “the nature of social reality that is investigated” or a “particular way of looking at the world” (Blaikie 1993, p 12-13). The ontological assumption in this research is that reality is socially constructed, may change, and could be multiple (i.e. the practice of ER strategies is socially constructed by sales leaders and could be different and could change). Epistemology is “assumptions about the grounds of knowledge” and “how one might begin to understand the world and communicate this as knowledge to fellow human beings” (Burrell and Morgan 1979, p 1). It is also defined as “how we know what we know” (Crotty 1998, p 8; Blaikie, 2007, p 18). It is the way in which knowledge of reality can be obtained or ideas on how the world can be understood (Blaikie 2007, p 13). According to interpretivism epistemology, it is important for the researcher to recognise the differences between humans in our role as social actors.

The social aspect of management situations is complex and therefore would not require positivism where rich insights about phenomena are lost, as in the case of ER. Rather it requires exploration of the differences between human experiences and their subjective meanings. Therefore, it is important to focus on the details of the situation, the reality behind the details, and the subjective meanings that motivate actions. This is especially true exploring emotions and emotion regulation, which involve different social actors. It is not only important to know what strategies leaders use, but how, where, and when they use them (i.e. what are the contextual factors that influence strategies).

Summary of paradigm assumptions

Guba and Lincoln (1994) note that paradigms are “a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deal with ultimate or first principles”. Thus, since “they must be accepted simply on faith (however well argued) there is no way to establish their ultimate trustfulness. If there were the philosophical debates in these pages would have been resolved millennia ago” (Guba and Lincoln 1994, p 107). Nevertheless as explained above, while there are four research philosophies of management research, positivism, realism, interpretivist, and pragmatism, the position taken in this research is constructivism with interpretivist theoretical perspectives. This is based on the assumption that the phenomenon of leader emotion regulation of their followers

is complex, unique, and a function of unique circumstances and group of individuals (Saunders et al. 2007).

5.2 Study Design

This study is explanatory in nature since the aim of this research is to develop an understanding of the how and why of strategies employed by leaders to manage followers' emotions. Therefore, this research uses qualitative methods for exploring the phenomenon of managing followers' emotions. Specifically, sales leaders' strategies for managing their followers' emotions will be explored within a leading logistics provider. Since all participants will be recruited from the same company, the overall method overlying this research is the case study method. Within this case study a qualitative exploration of ER will be conducted. Creswell (2009) explains that there are four qualitative data collection categories including observations, interviews (face to face, telephone, focus group, and email), documents, and audio-visual materials.

Exploring and understanding the management of emotional phenomena can be best described as an explanatory study which is, according to Saunders, et al. (2009), any research aimed at identifying what is out there to get insights and clarify a certain phenomenon. They highlight that this can be achieved through in depth or semi-structured interviews. They note that qualitative interviews are advantageous if the purpose of the research is explanatory as it is necessary to establish personal contact when questions are complex or open-ended (Saunders et al. 2009). Furthermore, within the semi structured interviews the critical incident technique (CIT) will be used to explore cases where leaders managed followers' emotions. The approach of using the case study method, the semi-structured interviews method, and the critical incident technique will follow. The interview design, sampling, interview format, and analysis will also be elaborated on in this section.

5.2.1 Case Study Strategy

This research used a case study strategy for an in depth understanding of leaders' practices for managing followers' emotions. A case study is defined as:

“One case (or perhaps a small number of cases) ... studied in detail, using whatever methods seem appropriate. While there may be a variety of specific purposes and research questions, the general objective is to develop as full an understanding of that case as possible” (Punch K. 1998, p. 150 cited by Silverman 2013).

Robson (2002) cited by Saunders et al. (2009) defines a case study as:

“a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence” (Saunders et al. 2009, p. 145-146).

According to Eisenhardt (1989) case study is “a research strategy which focuses on understanding the dynamics present within a single setting” (p. 534). The strengths of building theory from case study research are novelty, testability, and empirical validity. These strengths make this method suitable for new research areas or areas where existing theory could be inadequate (Eisenhardt, 1989). Overall, there are two key approaches to the case study method, one proposed by Robert Stake (1995) and another by Robert Yin (2003). According to Yin (2003), a case study could be used when:

- The research explores the “how” and “why”
- The research does not influence the behaviour of those involved
- The researcher considers the contextual conditions that influence the phenomenon
- The boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clear

Yin (2003, p. 7) notes that the more that research questions explain the “how” and “why”, the more case study is relevant. He explains that the more research questions need extensive and “in depth” description of the phenomenon: “the first and most important condition for differentiating among the various research strategies is to identify the type of research question being asked. In general, "what" questions may be exploratory (in which case any of the strategies 'could be used), and what questions are about prevalence (in which surveys or the analysis of archival records would be favoured). "How" and "why" questions are likely to favour the use of case studies, experiments, or histories.”

Stake (1995) notes that case study is an appropriate method when one wants to explore a phenomenon in depth which could be a program, an activity, or one or more individuals. Ying (2003) proposes four case study strategies based on two dimensions; single versus multiple or holistic versus embedded. On the other hand, Stake (1995) differentiates between three types of case study methods: intrinsic, instrumental, and collective.

- Intrinsic case study: the research examines the case for its own sake
- Instrumental case study: examine a small group of subjects to investigate a certain pattern of behaviour to provide insight around a phenomena or to revise generalisation
- Collective case study: examining a phenomenon through the coordination of data from different sources

While intrinsic case study aims to solve specific problems of individual cases, both instrumental and collective allow generalisation of the findings. This study adopts Stake's (1995) instrumental case study approach, since the focus is to provide insight around leader practice of managing followers' emotions and compare this with the existing theory of managing others' emotions.

Sales leaders from a large logistics company were interviewed to explore their practices of ER. Since most of these leaders work for the same company, this research uses the instrumental case study approach. Silverman (2013) notes that a case study has boundaries, is a case of something in which the researcher is interested, and should have a limited research problem. In this case, the boundaries are this logistics company, focusing on the sales leaders within this organisation. Saunders et al. (2009) further explain how a case study is a suitable method to generate answers to why, what, and how questions, as it is often used for explanatory research. This applies to the research described in this thesis since it is answering a "how" question; specifically how do leaders manage and regulate their followers' emotions? It explored what leaders do and how this takes place within work environments.

According to Saunders et al. (2009), a single case is appropriate to use when that case is considered typical because it allows for the opportunity to explore a phenomenon that has not yet been studied. The company being explored in this thesis, Agility, is a top logistics company that

resembles many other organisations where leaders face the challenge of managing their followers' emotions. Moreover, this phenomenon has not yet been studied. Thus, this single case should be sufficient for the purpose of achieving the research aims.

Saunders et al. (2009) note that the case study strategy can be very effective for exploring and challenging existing theory, and could lead to new research questions. This applies to the current research as the existing theories of ER are still vague and do not provide leaders with the tools and information needed to understand how context, for example, could influence the selection and effectiveness of strategies for managing followers' emotions. According to Silverman (2013), compared to quantitative studies, the rationale for choosing a case study is to generalize towards theoretical propositions rather than populations. This method is more concerned with situations than individuals and aims towards analytic generalization not statistical generalization.

As Saunders et al. (2009) note, one of the reasons for selecting one company as a case study by a part time student could be being working for this company, as in the case of this research. While convenience and accessibility were important for selecting this company as the case study, there were other important underlying conditions that guided this selection. First, this company has a large population of sales leaders who lead and manage sales teams. Second, like in most teams these leaders have experience dealing with the negative emotions of their followers. Third, all the members in these teams have direct contact with customers; therefore, having positive emotions could be important in their daily jobs. This would require skills from the sales leader to manage negative emotions when they occur. Silverman (2013) explains that we can defend the claims we make from qualitative research by replacing "case" with "instance" and "generalization" with "extrapolation". This study took a purposive sampling approach, which is used to generate theories instead of empirical generalizations as in the case of quantitative research. Therefore, as explained above, selecting this large company provides the case for this purpose.

5.2.2 Critical Incident Technique (CIT)

Since this research explores how team leaders use certain emotion management strategies to regulate their followers' emotions, the method used to collect information on how regulating emotions work needs to explain in detail the incidents that are explored in the research. CI is an

appropriate research method to explain the situation, how the leader approached it, and the context which influenced it.

CIT is defined as “a technique in which respondents are asked to describe in detail a critical incident or number of incidents that is key to the research question”, where a critical incident is considered “an activity or event where consequences were so clear that the respondent has a definite idea regarding the effects” (Saunders et al. 2009, p. 590). CIT can explore the details of an event and provide rich information that can lead to a deep understanding of the phenomenon in focus (Leitch et al. 2010).

In CIT, Incident was originally defined by Flanagan (1954) as “any observable human activity, that is sufficiently complete in itself to permit inferences and predictions to be made about the person performing the act” p. 327. An incident is critical if “the purpose or intent of the act seems fairly clear to the observer and its consequences are sufficiently definite to leave little doubt concerning its effects” p. 327.

CIT stands out from other methods because it takes into consideration the impact of context on outcome (Chell 2004). This consideration of context is very important for the study of ER strategies since, as noted by Gooty et al. (2010), there is a need to analyze the impact of context on the effectiveness of these strategies. Furthermore, Flanagan (1954) cites among the areas where the CIT could be applied, motivation and leadership, which are related to the focus of this research. The CIT method consists of flexible steps which are: defining the aims of the activity, data collection plans and requirements, data collection, data analysis, and interpretation and findings (Flanagan 1954). The five steps process that was initially proposed by Flanagan (1954) is described as follows:

1. Defining the aim of the activity
2. Data collection plans and requirements
3. Data collection
4. Data analysis
5. Interpretation and findings report

The CIT research design for this study is based on the literature review conducted using semi structured interviews. A discussion guide for the interviews was developed and was pre-tested for clarity in October 2013. Interviews were subsequently conducted between October 2013 and December 2013.

To be qualified and included in this study, a CI is any situation or experience that a leader faced where one of his employees had a negative emotion and the leader tried to change it or influence it. In particular it must include the following key elements:

- Emotional stimulus or affective event - the critical incident has to include the factor that made the employee experience a negative emotion
- ER approach - what the leader said he or she did to change the emotion
- ER strategy impact or result - the result of the leader's approach to change the emotions. In this case, the three options are: positive, negative, or in between. Positive means that the strategy was successful, negative means it was unsuccessful, and in between means it was partly successful and partly not.

If a CI does not include any of the above factors, it is not included in this study. The interviews included 109 critical incidents. However, after reviewing the critical incidents, there were 26 that did not qualify, as they did not meet the working definition by not including one of the factors above. For example, some did not have a final outcome and some did not include details about what happened in terms of the strategy used or other key details.

5.2.3 Semi Structured Interviews

Saunders et al. (2009) note that qualitative interviews are advantageous if the purpose of the research is explanatory, when establishing personal contact is key, and when questions are complex or open ended. According to them, such study aims at identifying what is out there, getting insights, and clarifying a certain phenomenon. They highlight that this can be achieved through interviews, either in depth or semi-structured. (Saunders et al. 2009, p. 322). Wilson (2006) notes that in-depth interviews offer the following benefits compared to focus groups:

- Being interviewed individually, interviewee becomes the center of attention
- Appropriate for sensitive topics Venue is less important
- Selection of experts not very difficult
- Eliminates group pressure

Given (2008) highlights that “the qualitative research interview has become one of the most widespread knowledge-producing practices across the social scientific disciplines” p.470. Given explains how “most qualitative research interviews are semi-structured as a consequence of the agenda being set by the researcher’s interests, yet with room for the respondent’s more spontaneous descriptions and narratives.” Creswell (2009) suggests that, while conducting a qualitative interview, the researcher has to follow an interview protocol to cover “what” and “how” data will be recorded. Researchers have the option between hand writing notes from answers, audio recording the interview, and video recording it (Creswell 2009). While conducting the interviews, such a protocol was used and included the following key points:

- Headings to include the date and place of the interview, and the name of the interviewee
- Instructions that are a set of standard procedures that need to be followed for all interviews
- Exploration of questions to further investigate respondents’ answers
- Fields for recording notes from answers after questions

For this research, audio recordings were used and notes were taken to record special highlights. The research plan included two months of planning for the transcription of the interviews recorded.

According to the Given (2008), semi-structured interviews offer researchers a lot of advantages. For example, they:

- Provide an explanation about certain phenomenon from the experts in their own words.

- Create a connection with the interviewee which facilitates getting more information about their opinions and knowledge as well as from their body language.
- Permit collection of data within the participant's location, which offers insight about context.
- Provide rich information on the research topic without predetermined judgment or results.
- Are practical since they are easy to conduct and cost efficient.

Semi-structured, face-to-face interviews have potential drawbacks (Saunders et al. 2009, Creswell 2009, Given 2008); however, these can be minimized if they are managed effectively as per below:

- Potential bias in the interview sample - to reduce this bias numerous and highly knowledgeable informants who view the focal phenomena from diverse standpoints composed the sample of the research. This is further discussed in the sampling section.
- Interviews can take long time to organize and conduct - the author planned in advance with the respondent and ensured official requests were sent and confirmed.
- Respondent discomfort about the anonymity of their responses - the author provided, in the written request, confirmation that all data collected will stay anonymous and will be used for the subject of the research only.

As per the CIT process described above, the interview design was based on the main aim of the study, to explore what triggers and influences different ER strategies and their effectiveness. The leadership literature does not explain how context influences selection and effectiveness of ER strategies, and how affective events and discrete emotions influence ER strategies. Most studies have not investigated these different factors when it comes to ER strategies. Therefore, the semi-structured interviews will explore these areas using the CIT method.

In these interviews, respondents were asked about situations where one of their subordinates experienced emotions that they tried to influence or change by identifying these critical incidents. In the context of this study, a critical incident is any identifiable event, or set of events, where a leader managed or regulated one of his follower's emotions.

Thus far, this chapter has explained why qualitative methods were selected as the most appropriate method for this research, since it is explanatory in nature and the rationale for using the CIT. The data collection method selected, semi-structured interviews, was then discussed. The justification for and discussion about the data collection and sampling methods used are elaborated on in the next section.

5.3 Data Collection and Sampling

5.3.1 Justification for Focus on Sales Leadership

Employees' emotions, especially the case of sales people, can have positive impact on performance when interacting with customers through increased sales during encounter, repeated future sales, and increased sales through word of mouth recommendation (Rafaeli and Sutton 1987, Tasi 2001, Tan et al. 2003, Mishra 2015).

On the other hand, sales employees especially in business to business environment could face emotional challenges due to many factors including setbacks for closing sales. For example, in logistics and supply chain, sales people and key account managers could go through emotional lows when losing a request or bid. In these situations, if the sales person or key account manager goes through this emotional low for a long period, it might affect his or her sales performance since the negative emotions could lead to less sales efforts and/or decreased customer's interest in purchasing when dealing for example with sad or angry sales person.

While sales people could use emotional labour to regulate negative emotions when selling customers, this strategy could lead to stress and negative psychological outcomes including emotional exhaustion and burn out (Humphrey et al. 2008). Therefore, leader's role managing his sales people negative emotions instead of them using emotional labour could reduce these potential side effects. This could ensure that sales people express more positive emotions by turning their negative emotions into positive which could lead to higher sales performance. Thus, exploring leader strategies to manage team members' negative emotions within sales context would be very relevant as these leaders could limit their sales employees' emotional lows to ultimately increase sales.

Portrait of Agility

Agility is a top logistics company which operates globally. Agility provides supply chain solutions that meet traditional and complex customer needs. It offers air, ocean, and road freight forwarding; warehousing; distribution; and specialized services in project logistics, chemical logistics, and fairs and events. Agility has a global network and a leading position in emerging markets, customizes solutions to its customers, has an entrepreneurial culture that has led it to invest and grow in emerging markets, and a deep commitment to personal service. The below facts represents some key information about the company's operations:

- Revenue: USD 4.85 billion
- Market Position: Top 15 industry leader
- Operations: 100+ countries, 500+ offices
- Employees: 20,000+
- Ownership: Publically traded in Kuwait and Dubai

Most Agility units are divided between sales and operations in addition to other supportive functions like human resources, information technology, finance, and customer service. Sales leaders manage and lead sales teams to ensure effectiveness and achievement of sales and organisational targets. These sales leaders who have experience leading sales teams are the focus of this research.

5.3.2 Data Collection Source Approach Justification

To collect data on the critical incidents, there are potentially three different approaches or sources:

1. Collecting data from sales leaders
2. Collecting data from salespeople
3. Collecting data from salespeople and sales leaders

This study adapted the first approach and did not include the salespeople for various reasons. First, asking salespeople about emotional situations they went through could make them feel

vulnerable and/or uncomfortable, especially when asked details about the emotional situation, such as what caused it, how it was approached by the leader, and how effective the leader's ER strategy was. The salesperson could feel uncomfortable talking about their emotional situation. For example, in the case of a situation where the salesperson was going through a divorce, talking about this would not be comfortable and might arouse negative emotions during the interview.

In addition, since the research is about looking at how *sales leaders themselves* change their followers' emotions, the strategies that *they* use, and the related contexts, investigating this from *their* perspective is a sound approach. The insight that could be gathered from examining the critical incidents from their perspectives and what made them select certain strategies versus others is a phenomenon that sales leaders could best describe and explain. Furthermore, they are also the ones who could judge the impact of these strategies and could openly discuss business and personal critical incidents and their consequences. In short, while exploring this area from followers' perspective could provide another type of insight for other purposes, this research focuses solely on sales leaders as a source of data, since they are the appropriate source to provide the insight into what, how, and why leaders use certain ER strategies to manage their followers.

5.3.3 Sampling and Interview Procedure

Sampling

In the context of qualitative methods, Creswell (2009) emphasizes that the sites or people being studied need to be purposefully selected to help understand the research area. Participants do not need to be identified through random sampling or by researching a large sample like in the case of quantitative methods. This can be labeled as a non-probability judgment sampling method or purposive method (Wilson 2006) and can be defined as "any procedure where a researcher consciously selects a sample that he or she considers to be most appropriate for the research study...judgment samples involve the deliberate choice of each sample member" (Wilson 2006, p. 206). According to Saunders et al. (2009) non-probability sampling "provides a range of alternative techniques to select samples based on...subjective judgment. In the exploratory stages of some research projects such as a pilot survey a non-probability sample may be the most

practical” (Saunders et al. 2009, p.233). Non probability sampling includes convenience sampling, snowball sampling and purposive or quota sampling (Given 2008, p.800).

Since the research is focused on understanding the context of leaders’ strategies to manage subordinates’ emotions, there is a need to explore this within a team context in a specific environment where these factors can be assessed. The target of this study was to explore these strategies within sales teams since emotions play a role in sales employees’ abilities to influence customers and sell their products.

Thus, the target interviewees were team leaders who have experience leading sales teams that have direct contact with customers. Other leaders of sales teams who are not responsible for selling to customers or who are not accountable for sales targets with customers were not included in this research. This is because influencing sales employees’ emotions is critical for interacting with customers. Furthermore, focusing the research on leaders of teams who sell to customers helped to track the impact of changes in emotions on direct sales performance. These team leaders worked in a large global logistics company focused mainly on business-to-business sales.

This sample was achieved through the professional connections of the author’s current position, by targeting all executives who lead sales teams and whose team members have direct contact with customers. Most of these interviews were conducted in person, over the phone, or via skype due to convenience. In terms of the number of interviews, in most CIT studies the emphasis is less on the number of participants than on the number of incidents and the coverage of the issues under investigation (Flanagan 1954). Once new themes and categories stop emerging from the data, theoretical exhaustiveness or saturation is considered to be achieved (Butterfield et al. 2005). This was analyzed during data collection where saturation occurs. During the interviews saturation occurred when the number of interviewees reached thirty; the interviews were stopped after conducting thirty-two in depth interviewees.

The interviewees profile shows an average of twelve years of experience leading sales teams, ranging from two to twenty-five years. The teams led by these leaders varied from four to thirty

with average of fourteen team members (Table 5.1). The below table summarizes the profile of the team leaders interviewed, their titles and their years of experience.

For confidentiality purposes names of these executives are not listed in this table. All the leaders included in this sample are representative of the population of leaders who lead sales team and likely had incidents where they had to deal with or regulate the negative emotions of one of their team members. An interview request was sent to each of the team leaders explaining the research background, objectives and the interview focus by highlighting the kind of incidents which will be explored during the interview. During the interview interviewees were given an introduction and background information about the interview and its purpose.

Interview Procedure

Each of the in depth interviews that were conducted followed the same format. The author ensured that respondents felt informed and comfortable before and during the interview.

Whenever possible, interviews were conducted face-to-face with the respondent and took place in the respondent's own office. Other interviews were conducted over the phone or through Skype due to long distance. The interviews were arranged to be approximately one hour in length and the average interview duration was forty-eight minutes.

During the interviews team leaders were asked about critical incidents where they had a direct report experiencing negative emotions and how they dealt with it. The aim was to identify two to four critical incidents to discuss in depth per interviewee, and in total there were 116 critical incidents which were later assessed for inclusion in the study. On average there were four critical incidents per team leader.

Qualitative interview studies consist of “informal patterns of questioning where the aim is to allow the interviewee to set the pace.” In this case, the “interviewer will have a prepared set of questions but these are only used as a guide” (Silverman 2013, p. 204). The below interview guide (Figure 5.1) was followed to add structure to the interviews and to ensure that key information needed for each critical incident was captured; at the same time the author gave

space for the interviewee to depart from these guidelines when insight about dealing with emotions was provided by the leader.

Table 5.1: Participant Characteristics

	Interview Length Minutes	Title	Average Years of Experience	Direct Sales Report	Number of Cases
Participant 1	52	VP Strategic Accounts	20	6	4
Participant 2	56	VP Sales	21	5	3
Participant 3	47	Director of BD	8	9	4
Participant 4	60	VP Strategic Account	4	12	5
Participant 5	33	MD	20	20	1
Participant 6	41	VP of BD	13	12	4
Participant 7	62	VP Business Development	7	8	3
Participant 8	71	VP Business Development	23	8	5
Participant 9	64	Director Road Freight	12	8	3
Participant 10	39	VP Sales and Marketing	15	50	2
Participant 11	46	Head of Sales	5	4	3
Participant 12	56	General Manager, Sales	20	20	6
Participant 13	32	VP Sales and Marketing	20	20	3
Participant 14	46	VP Business Development	10	8	2
Participant 15	42	MD	25	30	3
Participant 16	70	Director BD	6	8	5
Participant 17	41	Director Sales and Marketing	3	11	3
Participant 18	42	Country Sales Manager	5	8	2
Participant 19	44	CEO	10	50	2
Participant 20	50	SVP Sales and Marketing	15	10	3
Participant 21	33	Director Sales and Marketing	10	17	2
Participant 22	62	Director of BD	10	15	5
Participant 23	46	SVP, BD	15	7	2
Participant 24	46	VP of BD	10	10	5
Participant 25	34	VP Sales and Marketing	2	20	3
Participant 26	37	SVP Sales and Marketing	10	8	5
Participant 27	52	Sales Manager	3	8	5
Participant 28	46	SVP Sales and Marketing,	25	12	4
Participant 29	29	SVP Sales and Marketing,	16	10	5
Participant 30	54	VP BD	7	6	4
Participant 31	45	SVP, Sales and Marketing	10	7	5
Participant 32	59	Head of National Sales	2	14	5

As per the interview guide below (Figure 5.1), the interviews started with introductions, a brief explanation of the research project, and by asking permission to record. The interview language was kept neutral and jargon-free. To illustrate, instead of using the term ‘ER strategies the interviewer referred to ‘ways to change employee emotions’

Interview Guide		Related Research Questions
1. Tell me a bit about your experience as head of team and your team structure		
Experience leading teams, team members, industry, responsibility	How many years of experience leading teams Number, years of experience	<i>1. How do leaders view the importance and limitation of managing followers’ emotions and how do they explain its overall approach?</i>
View on and general approach to ER	What is your view of leader emotion regulation of his team members? How do you deal in general with such situations?	
2. Critical Incident: Experience managing team member emotions		
Describe a situation where one of your team members was experiencing an emotion which you realized was not helpful in performing his or her job.	What was he/she feeling? What was the reason?	<i>2. How do contextual factors like affective events and discrete emotions that leaders face when dealing with followers’ emotions impact ER strategies</i>
How did you react toward this?	Did you try to influence this? If yes, Why? Did you see this emotion as obstacle to job performance?	<i>3. How do leaders actually manage and regulate their followers’ emotions?</i> <i>1. How do leaders view the importance and limitation of managing followers’ emotions and how do they explain its overall approach</i>
Strategy used	Why was he or she feeling this way? Could you describe how did you try to influence/change his emotion?	<i>2. How do contextual factors like affective events and discrete emotions that leaders face when dealing with followers’ emotions impact ER strategies?</i> <i>3. How do leaders actually manage and regulate their followers’ emotions?</i>
Antecedents	Why did you choose this way not another?	<i>2. How do contextual factors like affective events and discrete emotions that leaders face when dealing with followers’ emotions impact ER strategies?</i>

Interview Guide		Related Research Questions
Outcome	<p>What was the result of your efforts changing the emotion? What kind of emotion state change? (e.g. from angry to happy...) What kind of impact did this make on employee's job performance</p>	<p>5. <i>What insights could be gained from the practice of leader ER about ER strategies effectiveness?</i></p>
Reflections on this experience	<p>What do you think was the reason this strategy made this impact? - Any "lessons learned" from this experience - Who/what else do you learn from this? - What do you think could have been done different to change his emotion?</p>	<p>5. <i>What insights could be gained from the practice of leader ER about ER strategies effectiveness?</i> 1. <i>How do leaders view the importance and limitation of managing followers' emotions and how do they explain its overall approach?</i> 2. <i>How do contextual factors like affective events and discrete emotions that leaders face when dealing with followers' emotions impact ER strategies</i></p>
<p>Could we look at another situation where you tried to influence your followers' emotions in a different way. <i>(Repeat these questions for as many critical incidents as the interviewee is willing to share.)</i></p>		
3. Final thoughts		
<p>Any final reflection on managing team members emotions? Do you think ability to change follower's emotions is useful for leaders? Why?</p>		<p>1. <i>How do leaders view the importance and limitation of managing followers' emotions and how do they explain its overall approach?</i></p>

Figure 5.1: Interview Guide and Related Research Questions

The interviews started with a number of questions about the leader's profile and the team's profile information (age, duration of leadership role, number of employees etc.), to ease participants into the interview (King 2004), before moving into the CIT-based discussion of managing emotions. After describing and answering questions about different critical incidents, interviewees were asked if they have any closing remarks regarding managing followers' emotions and the importance of this in the workplace.

All interviews were recorded, and upon completion the digital audio files were transcribed into a word document. The author made some observations that were recorded during the interviews. As per Flanagan's (1954) process, data analysis took place as soon as possible after the interviews. NVivo data management software was used to store data and analysis was undertaken using this tool to facilitate the coding. Data analysis took place from November 2013 to March 2014.

5.4 Data Analysis

The analysis of CIT data is often considered the most challenging part of the CIT process (Butterfield et al. 2005), particularly the development of categories for incidents and related items. The process should have an element of objectivity, yet it is still somewhat subjective (Flanagan 1954).

5.4.1 Different Analysis Approaches

There are different approaches to qualitative analysis (Brooks et al. 2015), including matrix analysis (Miles et al. 2014), framework analysis (Ritchie et al. 2013), and template analysis (Brooks et al. 2015). Each of these approaches is defined below:

Template Analysis is “a form of thematic analysis which emphasises the use of hierarchical coding but balances a relatively high degree of structure in the process of analysing textual data with the flexibility to adapt it to the needs of a particular study” (Brooks et al 2015, p. 5). On the other hand, framework analysis is “a matrix based analytic method which facilitates rigorous and transparent data management such that all the stages involved in the 'analytical hierarchy' can be systematically conducted. It also allows the analyst to move back and forth between different levels of abstraction without losing sight of the 'raw' data” (Ritchie et al. 2013, p. 220). While these two approaches are recent and more sophisticated data analysis methods that offer different advantages, matrix analysis is considered the standard approach to qualitative data analysis (Brooks et al. 2015). The matrix analysis approach works on a matrix where researcher can record “systematically particular features of multiple cases or instances that a qualitative data analyst needs to examine.” (Miles et al. 2014, p. 330).

The current study adopted matrix analysis using two cycles of coding as suggested by Miles et al. (2014). This approach is explained in detail in the next section.

5.4.2 Matrix Analysis and Two Cycles Coding

According to Miles et al. (2014), coding is the process of assigning “symbolic meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study” p. 71. Meaning is assigned to chunks of information of “varying size”. These chunks of information can be given either a simple descriptive label or a more complex one. Coding is considered part of the analysis and interpretation of the data. After being assigned to data chunks, these codes help researchers to notice recurring patterns that can be categorized. Then based on the categories that are assigned, a set of relationships between different categories can be studied (Miles et al. 2014). Miles et al. (2014) describe two major coding stages: first cycle and second cycle. The first coding cycle is when codes are given to chunks of information or “a way to initially summarize segments of data.” The second cycle is further analysis based on the initial coding.

First cycle coding

For first cycle coding a number of coding methods were used. Initially descriptive coding was conducted; this type of coding describes the “basic topic of a passage of qualitative data” (Miles et al. 2014, p. 74). In this study, these codes described the general topic of the critical incident. For example, “sad not successful at work” is a code given to a critical incident where the sales person is sad for not being able to perform his job as expected. Process coding was also used to “connote observable and conceptual action in the data” (Miles et al. 2014, p. 75). Specifically, this type of coding was used to explain what the leader used as a strategy to manage or influence follower’s emotions. For example, the code “convince her that it is a not a big deal losing a customer and to start over” is the code that represents what the leader did to change the emotion of the sales person.

Another type of coding used was evaluation coding, this means coding or assigning “judgments about the merit, worth, or significance of programs or policy” (Miles et al. 2014, p. 76). This coding was used to identify how leaders view the value of managing emotions. Provisional

coding, an approach that “begins with a “start list” of researcher-generated codes based on what preparatory investigation suggests might appear in the data before they are collected and analyzed (Miles et al. 2014, p. 77), was also used. This type of coding was followed for different purposes including for example, the type of discrete emotions that were in focus including sadness, anger, fear, and frustration. Finally, magnitude coding was used to show the “intensity, frequency, direction, presence, or evaluative content” (Miles et al. 2014, p. 80); specifically, to evaluate the impact of the ER strategy, either positive, negative, or in between.

Creating the codes

Miles et al. (2014) note that there are two ways of developing codes. The first way is a provisional list based on the research itself and a list of questions (deductive), while the second way is the coding that emerges from the data itself (inductive). Both approaches were used in the coding of this research. Deductive coding was developed through two main areas. The first was based on the literature of ER, the second from the interview structure and questions.

Codes developed from the literature included ER strategy categories. As explained in chapter two, the first ER model (IEM) is based on Gross’ (1998) model of emotion self-regulation and adapted for the context of leader regulation of followers’ emotions (Little et al. 2012). The term for ER used in this literature is Interpersonal Emotion Management (IEM). According to Little et al. (2012), IEM strategies include:

- Situation modification
- Attentional deployment
- Cognitive change
- Modifying the emotional response

These strategies were used as labels during the coding of each ER strategy that was observed in the transcripts. The second classification of ER models in the literature is based on Niven et al.’s (2009) IAR model and includes the following strategies:

- Engagement affective target focused
- Engagement affective problem focused
- Engagement cognitive engagement
- Relation oriented attention valuing
- Relation oriented attention distraction
- Relation oriented humour

These strategies were used as labels for coding of each of the strategies according to the IAR model. In short, the ER strategies used in the critical incidents were coded twice according to each of these two classifications (IEM and IAR) and were subsequently compared during analysis.

Deductive codes were also developed from the interview questions. For example, codes for critical incident outcomes were deductively created from the interview structure. Leaders discussed different critical incidents and the outcome of the ER used was either negative (failure), positive (success), or in between (partly worked partly not). For example, the employee felt good for a short while and then returned to the negative emotion. Deductive codes were also created around the importance of ER. During the interviews sales leaders were asked about their view on the importance of ER; their answers were coded for investigation. When analyzing the answers, some themes emerged around leadership responsibility to regulate emotions. These themes were dealing with personal issues of team members, dealing with work issues, and the importance of ER in a sales context. Finally, deductive coding was used to label types of critical incidents. The interviews explored situations where sales leaders had to regulate the emotions of one of their sales people due to business or personal reasons. Based on that information, all critical incidents were coded according to these categories.

Inductive coding was also used and it evolved from the interview findings in the following areas: general ways of dealing with emotions; different people, different approach; emotional trigger; and ability to change/influence the trigger or emotion. The first area, general ways of dealing with emotions, represents cases where leaders described their approaches to dealing with emotions in a general way instead of describing a specific example or critical incident. That is

why this high level coding was created. Under this category, there were approaches for dealing with private issues. One example is importance of uplifting the emotions of the team members continuously and reflecting about where ER does not work.

Different people, different approach refers to a theme that became apparent and repetitive. This theme is about how people are different and require different approaches; thus, a code was created to describe this. Each of the critical incidents had different emotional triggers or reasons that led to negative emotions. While these can be coded on a very high level as either personal or business related, when looking deeper, each of the emotional triggers were coded individually.

The ability to change or influence the trigger or problem was the final inductive code in first cycle coding. Leaders had different levels of influence or ability to change a trigger depending on the emotional triggers. For each of the emotional triggers or problems the ability to change or influence an emotion was rated as none, low, moderate, or high. These codes were then aggregated into themes during the second cycle of coding.

Second cycle coding: pattern codes

Second cycle coding is a way of grouping “summaries into a smaller number of categories, themes, or constructs”. These codes lead to “themes, configuration, or explanation” (Miles et al. 2014, p. 86). According to Miles et al. (2014), pattern codes could “emerge from repeatedly observed behaviors, actions, norms, routines, and relationships; local meanings and explanations; common sense explanations and more conceptual ones; inferential clusters and “metaphorical” ones; and single-case and cross-case observations” p. 88.

After labeling all of the transcripts with the codes described above, all of the critical incidents were extracted from the interview transcripts and coded in NVivo as per the following coding scheme:

- Affective events codes - business affective events (critical incidents where emotions were related to work) versus personal affective events (personal issues affecting the employee’s emotions at work.)

- Emotion regulation - or practical approaches to changing an emotion (what the leader did to change the emotion.)
- Results of each case ex. positive (successful), negative (unsuccessful), or in between (partially successful.)

The list of codes and the corresponding data was extracted into an excel spreadsheet to conduct additional analysis. The affective events of each critical incident were coded according to the five categories developed by Diener et al. (1995) and Tronvoll (2011) (fear, anger, shame, sadness, and frustration). Then, based on the work of Van Katwyk et al. (2000) and Diefendorff et al. (2008), these emotions were coded according to their level or activation or arousal where anger and fear are considered high activation, frustration is moderate activation and sadness is low activation. Finally the codes and categories were grouped into general themes. These themes are described in the next chapter.

5.4.3 Intercoder Agreement

Code checking was completed by an independent coder who was blind to the original codes. Each analysis table in chapter 6 and 7 in addition to the master working table were coded from raw data. The IEM and IAR strategies were also second coded by an independent coder. After the second coding was completed, a session to review and compare the codings between the two coders was conducted. During this session, both coders explained their rationale behind the discrepancies and while some of the initial disagreements were resolved, for some cases these discrepancies stayed open. In the case of open discrepancies, the author's initial coding was used. For example, the second coder suggested recoding frustration to anger and sticking to four main emotion categories however frustration was kept as a separate code because it has a different activation level as per the literature. The intercoder agreement is summarized below with an average of 0.91 and the lowest agreement being 0.83.

Table 5.2 Intercoder Agreement Summary

Codes	Intercoder Agreement Percentage
Discrete emotions- Business CI	0.96
Discrete emotions - Personal CI	0.94
Emotion activation level- Business CI	0.83
Emotion activation level- Business CI	1
Ability to change- Business CI	0.9
Ability to change- Personal CI	1
IEM Strategy – Business CI	0.89
IEM Strategy – Personal CI	0.94
IAR Strategy – Business CI	0.85
IAR Strategy – Personal CI	0.86
Strategy Results –Business CI	0.89
Strategy Results – Personal CI	0.94
Average	0.91

Chapter 6: Findings

This chapter presents first the general findings of the interviews on leader practice of managing followers' emotions then summarizes the findings of the critical incidents which looked at specific incidents by explaining the types of affective events, the discrete emotions, and the strategies used.

6.1 Leaders View of Importance, Limitation and Overall Practice of ER

During the interviews leaders explained their general views on the importance of emotions for performance, the leader's role in managing followers' emotions and general practices for ER. They also explained some challenges in dealing with emotions, how different people require different approaches, and the limits of regulating followers' emotions. These are explained in the following sections.

6.1.1 The Impact of Sales People's Emotions on Performance

Eleven leaders discussed how emotions have a large impact on sales performance. They explained how negative emotions had a negative impact on performance, and positive emotions helped to bring better results.

"...sometimes many people feel down ... at the end of the day that will not bring any good results." (P1)

"...they [employees] have a lot of frustration and very often the productivity level of those guys is decreasing tremendously." (P2)

"I think these two things are specifically connected. If somebody feels bad...the performance is bad." (P3)

"...if they feel good ...the performance levels will go higher and higher and higher." (P4)

"If the people are happy in their job, you will get better results." (P27)

One leader summarizes this idea well explaining that when sales people emotions go down:
“they don’t produce” (P5).

Three participants described how emotions were of particular significance for individuals who work in the sales industry.

“... with the salespeople, the emotional part is much more important. Because the emotion determines who they are and who they are determines what they can sell.” (P6)

“When we say we are in a people business, where people are involved, the emotions are involved regardless either personal or related with business, but we are not robots. We are people. We are humans so emotions are extremely important, and once they think that we give importance to their feelings, to their problems, definitely this will higher up their motivation and their performance parallel to that. Definitely I believe in that. (...) if they feel good about their job, about their company, about their leader, about how they are treated, believe me, the performance levels will go higher and higher and higher.” (P4)

“...it’s extremely important to have managed emotions with sales people because sales people are outside our organisations they are on thin ice ...” (P8)

Three other leaders saw emotional stability as a crucial trait for sales people, as one leader puts it:

“..that is my premise that I believe that the emotional stability of a sales professional is essential to their success personally or professionally, then I have to say I would rate this very high in terms that we deal with a lot of negative influence.” (P17)

Leaders spoke about the need to manage and deal with emotions because not doing so can perpetuate negativity:

“I would say that if people are going to the wrong direction with their emotions about their jobs, they start to put emotions that nothing to do with the job. They put on top of it.... In this case, personal life, personal circumstances and it start to add up where you got to the point where everything is negative all the time. They’ll become a sort of almost unreasonable to talk to because they see everything in a negative way. Even if a positive thing appears for whatever that might be, we might have a great contact or whatever. ... They will see negative side on everything even on positive things.” (P6)

“...it [negative emotion] will take over to other people as well. It will not relate only to the two ones, it will grow in the company.” (P29)

In summary, according to the leaders above ensuring that the sales people are feeling good and managing negative emotions are important for good performance.

6.1.2 Role of leaders in managing sales people’s emotions

Ten leaders noted that the sales leader needs to manage his sales peoples’ emotions and explained the importance of this. For example, as some of these leaders put it:

“...managing the highs and lows of sales people, is very important... I think managing their emotions is critical. You have to be able to take them and be affirmative and back into scopes and put them back.” (P9)

“There are ups and downs. In my opinion, you should be involved and when they need you, you have to be always there for support.” (P10)

“I think the greatest factor in management, in leadership overall is the ability of leaders to deal with employees emotions and to be able to understand what these emotions are and what is driving the emotions... I think it all ties into understanding the person’s needs, understanding the fears, understanding the concerns and then obviously directing those emotions in such a way that is positive.” (P11)

Six leaders felt that the management of employees' emotions was particularly important for managers or leaders in the sales industry. They describe the importance of leaders acknowledging and understanding their sales people's emotions:

"... if the leader doesn't manage emotions who will do it?(I) read the newspapers last week about what other jobs in a company what are the most difficult job ... in terms of emotions and the two jobs ... which were pointed out were human resources and sales. Emotion is very important in this kind of job.... A leader is very important but the sales leader has an even more complicated role because in sales you have a lot of emotions...." (P11)

"If a salesperson is feeling down, there is a reason behind this. Our role as leaders, first of all, is to get engaged with the salesperson. I'm not saying, okay, we'll go to their home to find out what is the root cause of this guy to feel like he's down. No. The point is when he's feeling down, you have to sit with him. You have to understand why and how. Possibly it might be a business related matter and also it might be a personal related matter." (P7)

In short, these responses show that leaders need to assist their employees to regulate these emotions and highlighted the role of leaders in managing followers' emotions.

6.1.3 General Practices for Emotion Regulation

While describing critical incidents, leaders also explained general ways of dealing with negative emotions and regulating them. Many approaches emerged from the interviews about this topic and are described below.

Being friendly

In the interviews, leaders noted how being authentic, open, and having a friendly approach is crucial to get people to open up about their emotions. For example, one leader explained how asking about personal issues is important to build trust. Another leader explained how being caring is important and another highlighted the fact that spending personal time builds a good foundation for dealing with emotions because as one leader puts it:

“...if you’re not you (sincere), they’ll see straight through that and they’re not going to share anything” (P12)

Two other leaders explained how it is important to show compassion and empathy:

“...the person doesn’t want to answer, you can’t force him, but it’s never wrong to ask, because it’s showing compassion and empathy” (P6)

“...you shouldn’t allow yourself to make judgment, you need to listen....try and make them feel that you are interested in trying to get them back on track” (P13)

Therefore, for a leader to establish a good connection with their employees and get them to talk about emotional problems they must be sincere, open, friendly, and show empathy, otherwise they may not talk openly about their issues. This can be considered a pre-condition to allow the leader to work with emotional issues.

Listening and allowing them to vent

Allowing employees to vent and offload their emotions was an approach that leaders explained as the key to dealing with emotions. They described how letting employees vent is helpful for making them feel better and improving their feelings:

“If something is troubling...allow them to try to share and don’t interrupt and allow them to offload .. how they are feeling and I think once you have established that you can explore what the true issues are” (P13).

“They were a very good sales person, and when they dump they were good for pretty much, till they came back in and had another meltdown.” (P9)

Five other leaders explained how listening is critical for managing and regulating emotions. They noted how listening makes the employee feel good and builds a good foundation for dealing with any issues that arise later. According to them, listening is the first thing that a leader should do:

“...the first thing is to understand and allow them to offload their feelings, right? Because you need to establish whether it’s something to do with a personal situation that you wouldn’t necessarily be aware of or it’s something to do with work.” (P13)

“...listening to them without judging and say, ‘why did you react this way, why did you do this ..?’ And then once that gets out of the way, you are able to have a more grown up conversation about how do we fix it right? Because otherwise if you start out with that, it’s kind of like, how do we fix it, they just need to take it back because this is really not working. That doesn’t solve anything, but getting that emotion’s out, let the person vent the frustration.” (P12)

Therefore, allowing the employee to offload and letting them vent and talk before trying to jump into solving the problem is critical. This is, according to these leaders, a key to establishing the connection and trying to understand the real problem without making assumptions. It creates the foundation on which dealing with the problem can take place.

Coaching

Coaching came up as an approach for dealing with emotional situations due to pressure at work or lack of confidence. Leaders described how coaching through listening and talking about the problem may be more important than solving the problem for their direct reports:

“No one likes failure, so if something is getting somebody down whether it’s work or personal, through dialogue, through counseling, through coaching, you can overcome the issues.” (P14)

“I think one of the issues that many leaders have is that there is a tendency of feeling that they have to have a solution for the individual. As the leader they have to give direction if they do that. You see the leader is dealing with emotional issues as you have to be able to identify that this is something that you cannot help others and the only thing that you can do is listen and talk about those things.” (P15)

In addition, four leaders explained how important it is to sit and coach employees who are facing negative emotions due to personal reasons. This discussion included asking them about what is really going on and asking what you could help as leader, listening, giving them advice from personal experiences and even acting as a life coach at times. As two leaders put it:

“...you need to be coaching those people and take away the emotional stress at least on the business side so that on one side these people remain usable.” (P19)

“...you need to be also a coach on the private life and give away some of the experience you have yourself and they could use it or they could just listen to it and that’s the way it works a little bit.” (P18)

Leaders noted the importance of listening and how it can often help with negative emotions. Listening for the purpose of listening without giving advice was described as a way of dealing with personal emotional situations.

“I can listen but I’m not able to give the right suggestion or the right solution. That’s too much personal and I don’t want to be involved too much on personal. I always keep separate...I’m not the right guy to give the solution or the right suggestion but to listen, yes of course.” (P3)

“...you can only try to help him to listen to him and give him some advice out of your own experience.” (P2)

“...at least there’s somebody to listen to him.” (P3)

Thus, coaching the employees by listening to their issues and giving them advice from personal experience is one way that leaders can help their employees to manage negative emotions.

In short, spending time to talk about and listen to the problem and trying to coach the employee is one way to deal with negative emotions at work, and in some cases this is the most that a leader can do when dealing with emotional problems.

Process

Dealing with emotions is not a “big bang”, as one leader puts it, rather it is an ongoing process that takes time. Five leaders emphasized this point for dealing with both business cases and personal cases. They explained how it takes time and persistence to explore emotional issues with employees. For the participants, dealing with an emotion was a journey and therefore required patience:

“I would agree, you know a lot of time when you have the barrier of things, things you would never find out when you do it once, two or three times...I mean if you go out with somebody at the first time he will not disclose too much, you go out the second and the third time he could disclose more and more.” (P2)

One leader explains how he dealt with a sales person in his team who was feeling worried and out of control and how dealing with this took a long period of time:

“...we started to analyze this and have very good dialogue, this was not done in one meeting let's say over three months where I tried to convince him to put his energy in the products in the area where he used to be successful and had main experience from.” (P16)

In short, dealing with emotions seems to be a long process where patience is important as the leader needs to provide sometime for the employee to open up and talk about the problem or the reason behind what he or she is feeling, especially in case of personal issues.

Dealing with personal conflicts

Leaders explained how negative emotions that resulted from personal conflicts could be dealt with. For example, one way of doing this is bringing the people who are in conflict together. According to participants, having the two people who are in conflict really get to know each other and listen to each other's perspectives can help to resolve these types of negative emotions:

“Both parties should tell what their operational problems are, or the sales problem, and get some empathy from both sides to make sure that people are willing to work towards the customer together again.” (P6)

“...we try to make sure Getting (them) together on a same forum because what happens typically that many people that I know they talk separately to the people. They would have one conversation with a salesperson. They’ll have another conversation with maybe the operations person and then they try to resolve the issue. In my opinion, the way to handle this kind of issue is that we should get everybody together and speak to everybody at the same time.” (P30)

“...one way of actually taking away emotions is to connect people because if you know someone you are less likely to actually treat this person unfair.” (P8)

One leader further explained the value of bringing people together when dealing with emotional conflict:

“...to deal with let’s say conflict resolutions tend to best be resolve between the people involved. I can give examples where obviously that this connects between the two individuals was the fact that you were going to fix it there. But you did go through the process because that is still the best way of resolving differences between human beings to having them sit across each other and then be understanding of what the challenges are.” (P17)

In short, to manage negative emotions due to conflicts the above shows that it is important to connect the parties who are involved with the problem. This will reduce the emotional intensity so that they can deal with the problem that needs to be solved.

Reframing

Leaders explained how it is important to influence the way the employee perceived the situation by keeping perspective, having a long term view of the situation, reducing the negatives, and reframing the situation.

“...how could you direct that fear to be a more positive? By first keeping the hope alive that it’s not a dead company yet, that it is important to be ready to be focused again ...” (P11)

Reframing the situation was thought to reduce pressure on sales people:

“...if it could be in a situation that they think they should gain more business also I have to tell the person that you are doing a lot of good things here, you have a good result and put the positives up and then take down the negatives which they put pressure on themselves.” (P18)

One leader explained how he tried to reframe and put things in perspective to one of his sales people who was feeling sad and was crying because of a perceived lack of recognition:

“...then afterwards I tried to explain to him, look, things change all the time this person may be here today, may not be here tomorrow you have a bright career in this organisation, this organisation is growing has many opportunities so don’t throw your career out of the door by resigning today and I recall that that person had the resignation already in his hand and finally after he had cooled down I took it away from him and tore it up.” (P11)

These examples demonstrate how reframing the situation by playing down the negatives and presenting the challenge in a different way helps the leader to change the negative emotion of the sales person.

Ensuring a fit between job and person

Four leaders explained that it is very important to ensure that there is a fit between job and person to ensure emotional stability. Otherwise, there is no other way than to deal with the situation except to accept that the employee does not feel well.

“...you have people that are very much stress and (have) negative emotions because they are forced to do something in a role that they feel no comfortable, so you put somebody as sales role and the person is introverted the person needs to fail . There is no other result. You recognize

that you take that person out and give that person a role where he can be business analyst and he is happy. (...)There are plenty of these kinds of examples. (P19)

“...if you’re a person who’s introvert and likes to have time to reflect over things and likes to go into details and actually prefer to work mostly on your own, if you’re put in a position where you have to engage with people all the time, then that will stress you.” (P12)

One leader explains the struggle of dealing with such a situation:

“For 12 short months of being in sales and he is just really struggling to be successful everyday no matter what I try to do to lift his confidence I think in the end it wasn’t really a confidence thing, I think it’s just he knows that he is not in his own will. It’s like you can take a bird out of a cage then put it into a fish bowl with water they will never be comfortable because they live in the air not in the water.”(P20)

Another leader discussed how the sales person was sad from not being able to perform sales work because he was not a fit for this type of job, being more introverted than extroverted in nature:

“It’s more introvert than extrovert yes and he would like to perform much more than he could and he understood the situation that he was really sad because he would like to be a sales person but he was not.” (P18)

In short, a key precondition for the sales person to feel good is to be a fit for the position. This can be applied to cases outside of sales too, especially when it comes to personality types like introverts and extroverts and jobs that require one of these two personalities over the other. Therefore, a leader needs to ensure from the outset that a sales person or employee in his team is suitable for the position. If the leader does not do this it may lead to negative emotions. As explained by above leaders, these situations can be changed by putting the employee into a job for which he or she is a better fit.

Dealing with special situations

Some general practices came up as ways of dealing with special situations like high targets, losing business, dealing with an operational lack of support, not getting a sales raise, and others. For example, two leaders explained how in some situations dictating high individual targets can make the employee feel negative emotions and adjusting these targets can fix such emotions:

“We have so many situations (like) get top down even get (high) silly targets from top down (make) people have bad emotions.” (P29)

“...we would like to ...reduce the targets not reduce a number of targets so, on the action of whats different now I try to get down to work on five actions. When we started we had 69 actions and with 69 actions you look at the excel sheet and you get depressed.” (P8)

Summary of general practices for ER

During the interviews, leaders provided some general practices for dealing with emotions from their own experiences. These practices came up outside of the critical incidents which were discussed. Many of these practices, like being friendly, listening and allowing, coaching, and being patient, are person-focused. Using Rime’s (2007) needs model they referred to the socio-affective needs of the sales person. These strategies made them feel cared for and appreciated, which allowed the leader to deal with the problem at hand. In addition, practice dealing with emotional issues which arose from personal conflicts and other special situations were shared.

6.1.4 General Ways of Dealing with Personal Situations

During the interviews, leaders explained how dealing with personal situations differed from dealing with business situations. They provided insight into general approaches for dealing with such cases. The strategies used by participants are described below.

Asking questions

To understand the reasoning behind employees’ emotions, there is a need to ask deep questions and dig deeper for the causes of the emotions. As one leader describes:

“That’s where the role of the leadership kicks in where you need to say, “Let’s talk about your personal problem. How are you now in this role? How are you feeling? How can we help you or how can we get you to the next level? Are you comfortable with what you do?” (P6)

This leader adds:

“You need to dig deeper (to) what is causing his emotions to be negative.” (P6)

He explains that while it is uncomfortable for the leader to ask such questions, it is important to do so:

“We don’t want to play it on the person too much. I think because we don’t want to make people down. But I think the leader on one-to-one needs to go to that level of detail and say, “Now we are alone. Tell me what actually went wrong and why did it actually didn’t work?” (P6)

In summary, to understand the greatest challenge behind negative emotions caused by personal cases it is crucial for the leader to ask questions. This is critical as people may not be open to sharing private situations.

Give them time to recover

Since personal situations take time to overcome, leaders should give their employees the time needed to recover and get over the situation. For example, one leader explained how he allows this:

“...the person definitely (need) sometime to get over that ... we cannot expect if somebody is hit by that, that hard that he can just overcome it very easily and just you know turn the page and say here I am back again, I will continue like I did before.” (P31)

Allowing them to take their time was echoed by another leader who explained that:

“...you can't rush it and you can't hurry anything along.” (P17)

Personal issues like divorce, passing of a close person or friend, and illness, all require time to get over. Therefore, as outlined by the leaders above, it is important that leaders provides the time needed for his or her team member to get over the situation and feel better, as this cannot be rushed.

Special treatment

Since it is difficult to influence a personal problem itself, leaders noted that giving the employee special treatment such as less demanding jobs, time off, and special care are ways to help them go through it faster. One leader gave an example of how he would look for a: *“low profile job or a break”* and:

“try to find a solution that work(s) for both sides and maybe being even a bit more creative around this, dealing with the HR and see what can we do is there may be a possibility like an unpaid holiday for a longer period of time for the individual time to get over it” (P31)

Another leader echoed the importance of this by describing a particular situation where giving his employee time off helped her to recover from the situation.

“...(I gave her) one week vacation even though she didn't need it so it was better to give them one week vacation than that she continues the way she was.” (P5)

Alternatively, one leader explained how he would not send his employees home in some personal situations because this might cause them to indulge in thinking about their problems:

“I don't send them home but I give them other things to do. I think it is not good to send these people out, depending on how severe situation is. Depending how concerned they are, I don't send them or I chase them to get them on duty. And I put them in other sales department and they do back office work report work, support work, by realizing the situation and understand why

they are having a hard time. And give them an opportunity to charge the battery, to be back in the game again.” (P16)

Another leader described how special treatment can involve helping the employee to stay focused on positive news and events:

“...to take those people under special care and try to mitigate some of their negative stress, by giving them positive news by showing them a positive development path or just by trying to motivate them for whatever means you have. It usually works very well.” (P19)

In short, to regulate followers’ negative emotions that result from personal issues leaders need to be flexible and provide special treatment to the employee. This can be achieved through giving them time off, or changing the job scope for a while to something less demanding, or reducing the working hours. The approach would depend on the situation and one case may require a different approach than another, as shown above where leaders had different views about the value of giving employees time off.

6.1.5 Challenges of Dealing with Personal Situations

Leaders noted many challenges and highlighted what they considered wrong approaches when dealing with personal situations. In general, dealing with negative emotions due to personal situations seemed more difficult than business related situations. As one leader put it:

“...I think for my experience, I saw people much more depressed on personal problem than business problem. Because business problem I think is something easier to solve. The personal problem is I think sometimes really, really, really strong.... yes but it takes much longer time.... much longer.” (P3)

For example, one leader explained how it is very crucial to keep all private information highly confidential otherwise the leader may lose the trust established with the employee (P21). Some of the leaders explained how important it is for the leader to deal with these situations himself

and not by asking the employee to go to HR, otherwise the employee may feel that the management does not care about them (P15).

Another critical issue highlighted is to follow up on the cases as these take long time to overcome, and that it is bad (P21). It was also noted that it is important to show care to the personal situation even if it is something that the leader thinks is not important enough to be emotional about. Leaders also listed some conditions for dealing with personal situations. For example, leaders need to be trustful, sensitive, and supportive; they need to respect people's decisions if they choose not to talk about the problem:

"...you have to be sensitive of that and you know your people enough that they know that you care about them. (...) then make sure those issues are not a distraction, you can support them on those issues, and they know they're supported. (P22)

Employees on the other hand need to open up for the leader to be able to help them, which requires trust and respect as one leader puts it:

"...tell them that I can see very well that you don't feel well, would you like to talk about it and if he says no, you could say I have an understanding for the situation but as you understand we also have a company to drive and we need to think about, if I don't understand the core issue to your behavior then it's difficult for me as well to coach you and help you to get up again and in the long run we will have a problem." (P18)

Another leader explained how some employees prefer not to share:

"...there are people that draw a very strict line between personal and business and I think as a manager you need to also appreciate that and I would give a hand but I would also accept if somebody don't want this for the time being. Its then a question if it really gets into a situation where it has a very severe impact on the business side of things then I would need to look into this case by case based on the individual." (P31)

In some cases there is a need for professional support, which leaders need to seek in order to help:

“...there are other issues that the people demanding support they have addictions or family crisis situations or there is some legal aspects about if you have something at home. Either these are key things that you need to be able to identify and know when to get involved or when not to get involved.” (P15)

Finally, one leader explained how gender was important when discussing personal issues:

“...If my employee would be female I would probably look for someone on my management (who) is female and task that person to do exactly that, because you have to develop a bond because this is very private and very personal matter.” (P19)

In short, dealing with negative emotions that are due to personal situations requires special treatment and care, as some employees may be sensitive to sharing such issues. The leader needs to know whether to offer support and help and when not to interfere if the employee prefers not to share. The leader needs to deal with certain situations, but in other situations he needs to make a judgment about whether professional help is needed and then provide it to the employee. In all cases, it is important that the leader shows care and interest in the reason why the employee is feeling what he or she is feeling, ask about it, and keep it confidential.

6.1.6 Different People, Different Approach

Ten respondents noted that the most appropriate way of dealing with and regulating emotions differs according to the employee's character and personal differences. They discussed how different personalities require different types of leadership, and how the specific emotion at hand will also influence the appropriate response.

“...you have people of all different personality styles. Each of these personality styles need to be managed to some extent differently.” (P23)

“Some people respond well to some things and others respond well to other things” (Mortem)

“...you have so many different people and they are all individuals and they react so different on the same things. Some people get very sad, some people get very angry, and showing their disappointment in different ways.” (P18)

One leader summarizes the context dependent nature of managing negative emotions by saying:

“I’ll say this too if you have eight individuals in the sales team you have eight different ways of.. Eight different personalities, a level of consistency across all eight is important, but the ability to listen to all eight, and react to all eight is important. Because everybody is a little bit different. You can’t take them all and treat them all across the board exactly the same. You can try, but I think that’s, you’re gonna get a little bit frustrated.” (P9)

In addition, some remarked on how culture influences dealing with emotions:

“A German probably would be very difficult to open up, I think a German would be very difficult to open up for you because ... he or she will be very businesslike, where if you talk to a Dutch or a UK person or a Nordic person you see in them much more emotional person. Now go to Spain and Italy you have of course complete different people there and you need to deal with them differently” (P21)

“...if it’s internationally, Europeans, Asians, Middle Easterners, Britt’s, they all have different views and different egos that come at problems differently sometimes.” (P22)

Finally, one leader put it this way:

“People, they are coming from different cultures, different mentalities, and everybody I would say it has his own approach... So I would say you have to be skilled to a certain extent in dealing with these guys on case to case basis...” (P10)

In short, when leaders want to regulate their followers' emotions, they need to take into consideration individual differences. A strategy that works for one person may not work for another. Not only do personal differences play a role here but cultural differences also have an impact, people from different cultures express and react to emotions differently.

6.1.7 Limits of Emotion Regulation

Among leaders interviewed, twelve noted that there are limits for dealing with emotions.

Dealing with recurring negative emotions

If the negative emotions are recurring then a radical approach is needed (for example terminating the employee), as businesses cannot afford to deal with recurring emotional changes and there are areas outside the leader's influence for dealing with this. The leader is not in a position to deal with this regularly. As one leader puts it:

"...when emotional situations are very chronic, they are sometimes turned into a very unproductive situation from a managers stand point even for the team environment that emotion what eventually cannot be corrected overtime it becomes a nuisance and a burden to the organisation." (P15)

Professional help

Some cases cannot be handled by a leader and require professional help. The fact that an individual is having negative emotions regularly could mean that he or she has serious issue or illness that requires professional support, a change in environment, or even change of job.

Intervention not always needed

When an employee feels bad it does not necessarily mean that he is right. For example, if an employee committed an unethical act that he or she was warned by his leader about, he or she may not feel good and this does not mean that the leader needs to try to make him feel better. Therefore, an intervention to make the employee feel better is not necessary in similar cases.

Dealing with emotions in large teams

Managing followers' emotions becomes more difficult as the number of team members increase, especially when team members are in different locations. These comments were particularly prevalent among leaders who have teams across the globe.

Empower team members to manage their own emotions

The leader's role is to not just to manage his followers' emotions but to coach them so they can do it themselves. Employees need to be empowered and not reliant on their leader for help managing their negative emotions. As in other areas, they may require some coaching but they ultimately need to be in control.

Difficulty of opening up

In a sales environment it is tough for people to really open up, especially for sales leaders who may have big egos. Most sales people are self-motivated and have certain egos; therefore, when they are feeling down they tend not to open up. This means extra effort needs to be taken by the leader to uncover the real cause and deal with it.

A leader's ability to deal with emotions requires experience

Some leaders may not have enough leadership knowledge and experience to deal with emotions. This lack of experience can affect the way they regulate their followers' emotions and their results. For example, not every leader knows how to manage situations where the sales person is experiencing negative emotions due to personal reasons.

Regulating emotions may not be a priority

Managing followers' emotions might not be seen as a priority for some sales leaders since there are many other responsibilities and priorities. When asked to consider having to deal with such situations on a *regular basis*, eight leaders explained that this would be impacting their key priorities as a leader.

Dealing with the real causes

Leaders could fail to look at the root causes of the problem that created the emotions and instead provide band aid solutions to a more serious problem. For example, a leader may tell an employee who is disappointed about not getting a raise increase, that he will get one in six months which could make the employee feel better. However, if the company is not planning to give this employee a raise, the emotional reaction would be bigger when this period is finished. Therefore, as one leader highlighted, it is not just about making the employee feel better for now; rather it is about ensuring that the solution is based on facts and tangible actions. This means that some leaders may act right away and do things to make their people feel better, but not in an effective way. This could create negative side effects and still make the employee not feel well ultimately.

6.2 Critical Incidents Findings

After excluding unqualified cases, the number of critical incidents findings is 83, 65 of which are business related and 18 that were personal related.

All critical incidents were extracted from the interviews transcripts and coded in NVivo as per the following coding:

- Affective events type - business affective events (critical incidents where emotions were related to work) versus personal affective events (personal issues affecting the employee's emotions at work)
- Emotion regulation - a practical approach to change the emotion (what the leader actually did to change the emotion)
- Results of each case - i.e. positive (successful), negative (unsuccessful) or in between (strategy partially successful)

The CIs were coded and analyzed according to the following classifications:

- Type of case - business or personal (to what category does the critical incident belong).
- Case number - business cases are numbered from one to 65, and personal cases one to 18

- Critical incident name – by standard each critical incident is named by discrete emotion type followed by reason/emotional stimulus.
- Emotional stimulus or affective event - the reason why the employee experienced this negative emotion.
- Ability of leader to change/influence/trigger the problem - this coding is based on how much the leader can change/influence the situation or the problem that led to the employee experiencing the emotion.
- Interviewee name - name of the participant being interviewed.
- Leader’s description of ER approach - what the leader said he or she did to change the emotion.
- Approach to change emotion - a summary of the analysis of what each leader said he or she did to change the emotion.
- Strategy impact or result - the result of the leader’s approach to change the emotions. In this case, the three options are: positive, negative or in between. Positive means that the strategy was successful, negative means it was unsuccessful, and in between means it was partly successful partly not.

The next sections explain and present the findings of the below elements of the critical incidents, while the implications of these findings will be explored in the discussion chapter that follows.

The findings could be divided into the following areas:

Contextual Factors Influencing ER

- Affective events or emotional stimulus: This section explores the findings on the reasons for the negative emotion experienced by the employee.
- Discrete emotions: This section looks at the types of emotions experienced by the employees, which are categorized and analyzed.

Emotion Regulation Strategies

- Emotion regulation strategies analysis: This section explores the approaches taken by the leader to manage or influence the emotions.
- Regulation strategies effectiveness: This section looks at the successful and unsuccessful cases.
- Comparison of ER strategies: This section looks at comparing how the strategies used by leaders compare to two existing models of ER: IAR and IEM

6.2.1 Contextual Factors Influencing Emotion Regulation

Affective events or emotional stimulus analysis

Each of the critical incidents included a unique situation or affective event where emotions needed to be regulated. These affective events were split between business cases and personal cases on a very high level (i.e. situations where emotions were either caused by a business issue or by a personal issue).

Business Affective Events

There were 65 qualified business related critical incidents; themes that emerged from the analysis of the affective events of these incidents are described below:

One theme that was apparent within the data was a lack of internal support. This theme included more cases than other groups. These affective events resulted from situations where the sales person felt negative emotions because of a lack of support from other colleagues or departments.

“I would say there’s definitely answer where a very successful team leader guy or a sales guy started to feel frustrated with the network because our partners on the other hand were not cooperating or we weren’t getting the right kind of report. So we were focusing on the target and we were not getting any kind of support from their officer”. (P13)

Compensation and lack of recognition were also important themes. The compensation theme includes situations where the employee was feeling frustrated, upset, or angry because of not

receiving a salary increase, lack of a bonus, or differences in salary compared to colleagues. Lack of recognition included situations where a sales person felt negative emotions because he or she was not recognized. For example a lack of promotion, misperceived demotion, or being overlooked for promotion.

“So his knowledge around that particular segment of the market was very, very strong. And he was frustrated that it wasn't recognised. Frustrated, he was upset that it wasn't recognised but he knew these things and that he actually could have substantial value, and beyond just managing.” (P30)

“What you have is probably take the example of salary. When the management changes like Alex in Russia. Some sales people get a very good offer from Alex. Let's say 1,000 more and you can owe me only a 400 or 500. The people like to stay but 500-difference is not safe where people are always thinking about it. They agreed to stay with 500 but the 500 they lost is always in their minds.” (P8)

Conflict was another theme that included situations where negative emotions were caused by arguments or altercations between employees at work.

“I had a colleague who was very angry because another colleague who was ranked higher than he was. Not a business unit but ranked in a higher position mentioned something about him or that he did something which he couldn't confirm that he did it.” (P6)

The job unfit theme included situations where there was no fit between the sales person and the job itself. For example being more introverted than extroverted and feeling more comfortable in operations than sales. Job insecurity, low confidence, feeling a lack of control was a similar theme, which included cases where the negative emotions resulted from worries about losing their job due to lack of performance or other reasons.

“For 12 short months of being in sales and he is just really struggling to be successful everyday no matter what I try to do to lift his confidence I think in the end it wasn't really a confidence

thing, I think it's just he knows that he is not in his own will. It's like you can take a bird out of a cage then put it into a fish bowl with water they will never be comfortable because they live in the air not in the water...he went back to operations and he stayed in operations ever since to me that was a very clear signal this guy was born to be an operator he needed to work there every day.” (P27)

“The other lady, who we still have, who is very obviously quite afraid that she would lose her job because her numbers are not coming through it. So we give her the support, we directed her to the account management. She's working in Italy now. We don't just lose people. It's not easy to hire and find people so we need the internal work done.” (P13)

Customer pressure was another theme within the business critical incidents. This theme included situations where the sales person was experiencing negative emotions due to customer complaints, customer threats, customers putting pressure on them due to a bad job, or customers being difficult. Employees also experienced pressure to achieve which was evident in the business critical incident findings. The theme, pressure to achieve, included situations where a sales person was feeling negative emotions because they did not win business or not achieve a target. Lost business included situations where a sales person lost a customer or a bid.

“So the stress or the emotions were that they felt that okay we are doing, they thought they were doing everything correctly but they assume that they weren't getting the wins that they were doing something incorrectly and they were being demotivated by that.” (P19)

“At the end of the day, after some conversations with him and really to always give him the feeling that we are convinced and we are sure that he is going in the right direction and he shouldn't be de-motivated from the customer.” (P6)

Inconvenient job location was where the location of the workplace was inconvenient, which made the sales person feel unhappy. New boss challenge was a business critical incident theme that included situations where the sales person was feeling frustrated or angry due to a new boss

taking charge. Misconduct communication was a case where the sales person was feeling upset after receiving a warning from his leader due to unethical behaviour.

“We found that he had misrepresented himself... I raised the concerns and I asked him to change it since he is technically still employed by the organisation and that’s not his title within the organisation and my statements to him were purely that, maybe the client or alone or anything on a personal nature and they need to validate this position of employment he potentially is going to be misrepresented because we as an organisation will not confirm the title that he listed. It was in his best interest to use the correct title and his, on that scenario was that I had a vendetta against him and I was searching the internet and found that he made the mistake and first thing, went and approached him made him change it which was very embarrassing for him.” (P19)

Personal Affective Events

In the personal critical incidents, there were eighteen qualified cases that were also coded and then grouped into similar themes. One of these themes was death of a relative or loved one, which included situations where there was grief for loss of a father, feeling very depressed as the father was going to die, grievance as the mother in law died, and feeling sad the mother died.

“I mean our sales manager himself, he lost his mother-in-law very recently and because of that, he had to take a lot of time off because he was unwell and the kids were here. He was grieving from work and he was not really able to put something like that on the job. We have number of requests from him for vacations or things like that.” (P13)

Partner and health issues are also themes within the personal affective events findings.

Partner issues include situations such as fights, issues, conflict, or divorces that result in the sales person being depressed, down, unhappy, or even angry at work. The health issues theme included two health situations, being sad and worried for having health issues and concerned or worried for their son being sick.

“I can refer directly to myself. I remember in my own life when I had to go through a divorce about six or seven years ago now. That absolutely impacted me professionally and emotionally in a big way because it was so unexpected” (P22)

The final personal affective events theme was home or unknown issues. There were some situations where the reason was unknown to the leader even after investigations and several talks with the sales person.

I think the pressure from both, he didn't seem well and he wouldn't like to talk about it and I tried my best to talk to him and get an understanding because if I get an understanding then I could also coach him and help him and I'm pushing him to tell me what's behind and then he actually gives his notice and that was not my aim. My aim was to help him so he could be a good employee. (P4)

Discrete emotions

Findings about discrete emotions were also categorized according to personal or business related problems. Discrete emotions experienced in the critical incidents were coded according to the emotion list developed by Diener et al. (1995) which are divided into four categories as follows:

1. Fear - includes the emotions of fear, worry, anxiety and nervousness
2. Anger - includes the emotions of anger, irritation, disgust and rage
3. Shame - includes the emotions of shame, guilt, regret and embarrassment
4. Sadness - includes the emotions of sadness, loneliness, unhappiness and depression

Discrete emotions related to business

When analyzing the business critical incidents, the coding shows that there are four categories of emotions: anger, fear, frustration, and sadness. On the other hand, there were not any critical incidents that had shame as an emotion category. In terms of activation level, there are equal

proportions of high and moderate activation level emotions (25 high level activation critical incidents and 25 moderate activation critical incidents) and less low activation emotion cases (15). Table 6.1 below summarizes these findings. Anger and frustration were often described by participants when speaking about critical incidents in the work place.

“Well, I mean there are a couple of examples, right? So an example from pretty recent is somebody was very upset that they didn’t receive a bonus that they felt that they deserve, right? Like they performed well but even though the company didn’t perform well, I didn’t get what I thought were there. There’s a bit of anger in that.” (P12)

“I had a colleague who was very angry because another colleague who was ranked higher than he was.” (P6)

“Well I would say that his emotions were there, were frustrated. Frustrated, maybe even some internal anger at not being able to... the person in context was a high performer in the other industry, in their prior industry. So there was a level of frustration, and I think they had a hard time, focusing as there was greater pressure, whether it was from the organisation or personal.” (P25)

“In this specific case the frustration was that the customer wanted to have this and this and this and this and Agility couldn’t provide anything of that and therefore the sales person, his case was demoted and demotivated and feeling a very huge frustration and also having a lot of internal crushes because the difference between what the customer want and what the company can is too big so the sales person can’t bridge it.”(P2)

Fear was also a prevalent emotion that workers experienced in business critical incidents:

“There was a person who got really, really close to get sacked. He was regarded as complainer etcetera. He was really worried and he could not understand because he looked himself as very experienced and good faced person.” (P3)

“He feared that he eventually he was going to be terminated and he would always come into my office and tell me that, that he feared that people felt that he was incompetent, that he wasn’t able to.” (P19)

Finally, leaders perceived that their employees felt sad or depressed because of business related affective events:

“The VP did not listen, not try to address his issues in an effective fashion but basically went straight to the point that I’m the boss, you listen to me and this is it. The person came into my office obviously I recall he had written his resignation letter but he called he was not emotionally, he was very emotional to a point that he had tears coming down and that he was going to leave the organisation and he was gone and that he was going to take the letter and submit it to the vice president.” (P18)

“We had a sales manager who lost the majority of his existing business. He has to restart more or less with zero and then he was really depressed and he mentioned oh, how shall I manage that and the target is too high.” (P6)

“A couple of months ago one of my colleagues was really depressed because unfortunately he had a good connection with customer reporting from Paris, but he was not able to get the business on board in agility for many reasons.” (P7)

Table 6.1: Summary of Business Related Discrete Emotions

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotion	Activation Level
1	Down Change of job	Sadness	Low
2	Depressed Customer Complaints	Sadness	Low
3	Down Lack Support Tradelane Work	Sadness	Low

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotion	Activation Level
4	Unhappy Job Location	Sadness	Low
5	Frustration No Salary Raise	Frustration	Moderate
6	Upset Aggressive Given Ethical Notice	Anger	High
7	Frustrated No Title Promotion	Frustration	Moderate
8	Complaining Worried Perception Others Responsible	Fear	High
9	Sad Promotion Unfairness	Sadness	Low
10	Upset Customer Threat	Sadness	Low
11	So Down Losing Customer	Sadness	Low
12	Down Losing a bid	Sadness	Low
13	Frustrated Losing Bid	Frustration	Moderate
14	Very Upset Angry Lack of Bonus	Anger	High
15	Angry Lack of Bonus	Anger	High
16	Worried Lost Frustrated Things Out of Control	Fear	High
17	Fearful No Job Fit	Fear	High
18	Down Lack of Control	Sadness	Low
19	Really Down Misperceived Demotion	Sadness	Low
20	Very Sad Demotivated Down Unable to be Sales Team Leader	Sadness	Low
21	Frustrated Lack of Support from Sales	Frustration	Moderate
22	Frustrated Lack of Support	Frustration	Moderate
23	Very Angry Colleagues Failure	Anger	High
24	Afraid Worried Favoritism	Fear	High
25	Depressed Not Winning Business	Sadness	Low
26	Worried Lack of Performance	Fear	High
27	Crying Yelling Lost Opportunity Lack Support	Anger	High
28	Very Angry Fight with Colleague	Anger	High
29	Very Down Supressed Low Confidence After Maternity	Sadness	Low

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotion	Activation Level
30	Worried Lack of Confidence New Role	Fear	High
31	Low Confidence Threaten by her Team	Fear	High
32	Really Depressed Worried Lost All Business	Sadness	Low
33	Sad Not Successful at work	Sadness	Low
34	Frustrated Anger Job Another Industry	Frustration	Moderate
35	Worried Legal Case Against Company	Fear	High
36	Frustrated Lack of Support from Network	Frustration	Moderate
37	Frustrated Lack of Support from Network 2	Frustration	Moderate
38	Fearful losing job	Fear	High
39	Frustration Lack of Operations Support	Frustration	Moderate
40	Frustration Lack of support from product	Frustration	Moderate
41	Frustrated Upset not being recognized	Frustration	Moderate
42	Profoundly frustrated lack of recognition	Frustration	Moderate
43	Worried being overlooked for next big opportunity	Fear	High
44	Frustrated Report and Customer	Frustration	Moderate
45	Angry conflict relationship	Anger	High
46	Fearful for not achieving targets	Fear	High
47	Frustrated down salary difference	Frustration	Moderate
48	Frustrated not having clear guidance and direction	Frustration	Moderate
49	Frustrated not accepting new leader	Frustration	Moderate
50	Frustrated worried lack of counterparts support or stability	Frustration	Moderate
51	Frustrated not getting support led to personal issues	Frustration	Moderate
52	Frustrated lack of support to implement the business left company	Frustration	Moderate
53	Frustrated new boss treatment	Frustration	Moderate
54	Frustrated customer unhappy/pressure after bad job from predecessor	Frustration	Moderate

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotion	Activation Level
55	Angry because new boos implementing new rules	Anger	High
56	Frustrated Angry fight with colleagues no support from leadership	Frustration	Moderate
57	Angry Disappointed Misperception issues with boss (Unsuccessful)	Anger	High
58	Frustrated lack of support from colleagues	Frustrated	Moderate
59	Anxiety lack of knowledge high pressure to achieve	Fear	High
60	Frustrated not guided and not in the right position	Frustration	Moderate
61	Frustrated inner work of the organisation	Frustration	Moderate
62	Angry Difficult customer	Anger	High
63	Crying lack of recognition	Sadness	Low
64	Fearing losing his job incompetent	Fear	High
65	Depressed change of job Unfit left company	Sadness	Low

Discrete Emotions related to personal situations

In the personal cases, most of the critical incidents had sadness as the discrete emotion and consequently most cases had low activation level emotions. There were only three out of the 18 critical incidents that had high activation emotions.

“Because they did not know the real problem, what they have to do. So he was very, very scared. And I noted that he came to the office very tired, he was sleeping on the table, and there was no spirit, because before he was enthusiastic but he was down down down. He came to me, because we had a good relationship, and he explained to me the problem. And the problem was that they stopped his operation three times, there was no more confidence to the medics and they told him to come back because they have to do the operation, and it could be a very heavy problem for his further life.” (P9)

“They’re dealing with grief. And I think it’s important that management should understand what is the grief or the grief of a loss of a loved one or divorce or anything. There’s grieving

processes that need to be taken into consideration and we should be professional not to help people work through them.” (P22)

These findings also included two cases where fear was the discrete emotion and one case where it was anger. On the other hand, there was one case where the leader described the emotion as sad and worried which means a mix of two emotions.

“I received an email of her about her, that her son was ill and they weren’t sure what was going on and so they were just going to be taking him to the hospital... I would say that she was feeling a lot concerned, her worry is she was under a lot of stress and there was a lot of anxiety simply because the two opportunities that she was involved with she didn’t have a lot of people engaged” (P19)

“There was one situation where a girl was married and got a child and then she get divorced or is in divorced with a husband and that lady was really very impolite in the beginning when she got married, when she got a baby, the time of divorce, really unbelievable not speaking to everyone. It has nothing to do with the approach of the people but that’s related to a broader situation.” (P8)

The findings about discreet emotions from personal situations are summarized in table 6.2 below.

Table 6.2: Summary of Personal Related Discrete Emotions

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotions	Activation Level
1	Sad Worried Health Issues	Fear/ Sadness	High/Low
2	Crying Partner Beating employee at home Unsuccessful	Sadness	Low
3	Depressed Divorce	Sadness	Low
4	Down Divorce	Sadness	Low
5	Sad Fight with Husband	Sadness	Low
6	Distracted Down Issues with Wife Unsuccessful	Sadness	Low
7	Grief Loss of Father	Sadness	Low

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotions	Activation Level
8	Unhappy Divorce Unsuccess	Sadness	Low
9	Down Personal Reasons	Sadness	Low
10	Very Depressed Father Will Die	Sadness	Low
11	Stressed Impatient Aggressive Family Reason Unsuccessful	Fear	High
12	Down Divorce (2)	Sadness	Low
13	Depression Fight with Spouse Unsuccessful Mental Illness	Sadness	Low
14	Alcohol Down Issues at home	Sadness	Low
15	Grievance Mother in Law Died	Sadness	Low
16	Angry towards colleagues divorce	Anger	High
17	Concerned Worried Son Ill	Fear	High
18	Feeling sad mother died	Sadness	Low

Summary of critical incident findings

The discrete emotions reported in the critical incidents varied from low activation emotions to high activation emotions. The categories and activation levels of the emotions experienced in the business critical incidents differ from the ones of the personal cases. This may have implications for regulating emotions, as each category has different activation levels and may require different approaches. This idea will be further discussed in the discussion chapter.

6.2.2 Emotion Regulation Strategies Analysis

After exploring the affective events or emotional stimulus and the discrete emotions in each of the critical incidents, the strategies or approaches taken by the leader to change or influence these emotions were identified and then summarized as per the tables 6.3 and 6.4 below. Leaders explained how they managed or changed the emotions of the follower for each of the critical incidents. For some critical incidents the leaders explained how they used more than one approach to make the employee feel better.

Business critical incidents approaches/strategies

For business affective events, leaders used different approaches or strategies to change the followers' emotions. For some of these cases they used more than one approach to influence or

change the emotion of the sales person. For example when the sales person was feeling depressed because of customer complaints, the leader expressed how much he and the company valued the sales person.

“I told him that I am convinced that he is a good salesperson and that he is really one of the best we have.” (P6)

The leader then tried to reframe the situation to change the meaning of the complaint, while at the same time asking the customer to stop mistreating the sales person.

“At the end of the day, after some conversations with him and really to always give him the feeling that we are convinced and we are sure that he is going in the right direction and he shouldn't be de-motivated from the customer.” (P6)

These approaches together led to the sales person feeling better afterwards. On the other hand, there were some critical incidents where the leader said that they used one approach to change the way the employee feels. For example, when an employee was feeling sad because of an inconvenient job location, the leader simply changed the job location and consequently the employee felt better.

“We get job in Basel and he came to Basel...Now he is going out, he is doing into sales. Combination with going out with visits customers which has been offered by him. Perfect. This is perfect.” (P9)

Another strategy that was often used by leaders to deal with business related incidents was changing the employee's job or the scope of their job. In some cases this strategy was effective as the employees were happy and stayed with the company.

“We made a switch to a different trade work for him but then again, it's not just basically given to him on a flexible factor. We're now offering the German trade line manager's position to you. Let's see what you can do in promoting this. We just had a plan for a month but the focus was

mainly the nature of that he's achieving his financial target and then to see what he can add value on." (P14)

"Yes, he went back to operations and he stayed in operations ever since to me that was a very clear signal this guy was born to be an operator he needed to work there every day." (P27)

Lending a listening ear and allowing the employees to vent was an approach that eight leaders took when dealing with emotions. These leaders believed that allowing their employees to talk out their problems and express their emotions was helpful in dealing with business incidents involving negative emotions.

"I mean the first thing you got to do is I believe you got to let them be in other words, you got to let them be frustrated. You got to let them talk it through, some of my key objective is number one, let them be upset. Let them talk it through, work out some of the negative emotions and then we got to discuss around what did we do well and we didn't we do well then you got to look it through." (P12)

"I don't know if something happens in your life you get big cry out and then sudden you know the end of it just seems like something disappeared that's some of your job and self-leadership is to let people vent and they vent it and it washes out as that is all that they needed." (P17)

In general for most business CIs, leaders' approaches tended to be focused on changing the problem or changing its meaning so the employee felt better. These strategies are summarized in table 6.3 below.

Table 6.3: Summary of Business Critical Incident Strategies

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotion	Activation Level	Strategy/ Approach to change emotion	Result
1	Down Change of job	Sadness	Low	Change of job back into operations	Positive
2	Depressed Customer Complaints	Sadness	Low	Valued him Reframing the situation Removing the problem by telling the customer to stop this way of communication	Positive
3	Down Lack Support Tradelane Work	Sadness	Low	Changing the scope of his work to deal with lack of support of colleagues Reframing the situation as not big deal	Positive
4	Unhappy Job Location	Sadness	Low	Change location of job	Positive
5	Frustration No Salary Raise	Frustration	Moderate	Develop for them career plan to shift their focus and feeling Make them feel valued	Positive
6	Upset Aggressive Given Ethical Notice	Anger	High	Let him vent as a way of dealing with his emotions Changed his Title Source of issue	Positive
7	Frustrated No Title Promotion	Frustration	Moderate	Saying sorry for not remembering the request for promotion change its meaning Sitting and listening to his concern Changed his title (Source of issue)	Positive
8	Complaining Worried Perception Others Responsible	Fear	High	Change focus to be more on the things he could change and be positive	Positive
9	Sad Promotion Unfairness	Sadness	Low	Convince him to change his attitude about the situation	Positive
10	Upset Customer Threat	Anger	High	Giving the customer special credit to eliminate threat	Positive
11	So Down Losing Customer	Sadness	Low	Convince her that it is a not a big dealing losing a customer and to start over	Negative
12	Down Losing a bid	Sadness	Low	Tried to convince him that it will take off again but didn't get it	Negative

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotion	Activation Level	Strategy/ Approach to change emotion	Result
13	Frustrated Losing Bid	Frustration	Moderate	Let them feel the way they feel vent their frustration Redefining the meaning of losing as company did its best no frustration toward company	Positive
14	Very Upset Angry Lack of Bonus	Anger	High	Listened to the emotions let them vent Explore the situation to reframe what happened Valuing and pointing at future opportunities	Positive
15	Angry Lack of Bonus	Anger	High	Gave him a bonus to remove the angriness	Positive
16	Worried Lost Frustrated Things Out of Control	Fear	High	Made him think about what is in his control to shift his attention	Positive
17	Fearful No Job Fit	Fear	High	Changed his position to become account management	Positive
18	Down Lack of Control	Sadness	Low	Coaching to make them feel more in control	Negative
19	Really Down Misperceived Demotion	Sadness	Low	Explain that the new position is promotion not demotion	Positive
20	Very Sad Demotivated Down Unable to be Sales Team Leader	Sadness	Low	Change his position from team leader to sales person	Positive
21	Frustrated Lack of Support from Sales	Frustration	Moderate	Fixing the problem internally to serve the customer	Positive
22	Frustrated Lack of Support	Frustration	Moderate	Clear Misunderstanding Fix the issues between the two conflicting parties Acknowledge the feeling	Positive
23	Very Angry Colleagues Failure	Anger	High	Shift it from emotions to facts	Negative
24	Afraid Worried Favouritism	Fear	High	Shift it from emotions to facts	Positive
25	Depressed Not Winning Business	Sadness	High	Listening to him to understand why Gave him time spending half day with him	Positive

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotion	Activation Level	Strategy/ Approach to change emotion	Result
				Giving him direction about how to sell in the future re-shifting his focus	
26	Worried Lack of Performance	Fear	High	Reassuring him that the company will not fire him due to lack of sales caused by down economy The company appreciates his job	Positive
27	Crying Yelling Lost Opportunity Lack Support	Anger	High	Letter of appreciation and recognition for his work Punishing the guy who caused the problem	Positive
28	Very Angry Fight with Colleague	Anger	High	Escalated the situation Told him that I am with him not with the other colleague	Positive
29	Very Down Supressed Low Confidence After Maternity	Sadness	Low	Giving guidance coaching to boost confidence Giving her assignment to gradually increase her confidence	Positive
30	Worried Lack of Confidence New Role	Fear	High	Coaching him to believe in himself and gain confidence	Positive
31	Low Confidence Threaten by her Team	Fear	High	Coaching her to inspire her to believe in herself	In Between
32	Really Depressed Worried Lost All Business	Sadness	Low	Offered help I am available anytime Telling him that they see him as very good employee Telling to not be that much nervous	Positive
33	Sad Not Successful at work	Sadness	Low	Coached him after feeling sad not being good sales man but failed	Negative
34	Frustrated Anger Job Another Industry	Frustration	Moderate	Coached him to learn the job by focusing on one area but didn't succeed	Negative
35	Upset Worried Legal Case Against Company	Fear	High	Make them see the future as positive Reframing or giving another meaning to the situation	Positive
36	Frustrated Lack of Support from Network	Frustration	Moderate	Coaching on the why we are doing it Shifted his role to something last frustrating	Positive
37	Frustrated Lack of Support from Network 2	Frustration	Moderate	Solving the problem by ensuring support from network	Positive

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotion	Activation Level	Strategy/ Approach to change emotion	Result
38	Fearful losing job	Fear	High	Change the job scope to resolve worries to lose the job	Positive
39	Frustration Lack of Operations Support	Frustration	Moderate	Solving the problem by ensuring the Operations Support	Positive
40	Frustration Lack of support from product	Frustration	Moderate	Let him vent and listen to them Discuss the problem and its solution and action plan to solve it Fix the situation with operations	Positive
41	Frustrated Upset not being recognized	Frustration	Moderate	Coaching to become recognised didn't work	Negative
42	Profoundly frustrated lack of recognition	Frustration	Moderate	Acknowledging that he has done well Reframing the situation to give different meaning	Positive
43	Worried being overlooked for next big opportunity	Fear	High	Reassuring him that he is good and something good coming his way	Positive
44	Frustrated Report and Customer	Frustration	Moderate	Clarifying the problem and putting a plan to solve and avoid it in the future offering help Providing explanation why reports are needed and being flexible about delivery date	In Between
45	Angry conflict relationship	Anger	High	Let them vent separately Asked them to talk to each other after emotions calmed down	Positive
46	Fearful for not achieving targets	Fear	High	Did couple of trips together Encouraged him Told him that I believe in him	Positive
47	Frustrated down salary difference	Frustration	Moderate	Compensate with bonuses and trips	In Between
48	Frustrated not having clear guidance and direction	Frustration	Moderate	No one talked to him and give him guidance regarding goals	Negative
49	Frustrated not accepting new leader	Frustration	Moderate	Spending social time with the employee Reframing the situation	Positive
50	Frustrated worried lack of	Frustration	Moderate	Escalate the situation and solve it	Positive

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotion	Activation Level	Strategy/ Approach to change emotion	Result
	counterparts support or stability				
51	Frustrated not getting support led to personal issues	Frustration	Moderate	Not dealing with it made him even more frustrated	Negative
52	Frustrated lack of support to implement the business left company	Frustration	Moderate	Supported him through visits What went wrong Showing him moral support and agreement	Positive
53	Frustrated new boss treatment	Frustration	Moderate	Coached him and spent time with him to improve his performance	Negative
54	Frustrated customer unhappy/pressure after bad job from predecessor	Frustration	Moderate	Interfered to make the customer be less aggressive toward the employee	Positive
55	Angry because new boss implementing new rules	Anger	High	Reframed his view of the situation as new leader coming in	Positive
56	Frustrated Angry fight with colleagues no support from leadership	Frustration	Moderate	Didn't not Interfere to reduce the anger between the conflicting parties	Negative
57	Angry Disappointed Misperception issues with boss (Unsuccessful)	Anger	High	Tried to change his view on things	Negative
58	Frustrated lack of support from colleagues	Frustrated	Moderate	Giving her sometime to listen to her concerns Giving her direction to solve issues Put together an action plan to solve it and support her in the first steps	Positive
59	Anxiety lack of knowledge high pressure to	Fear	High	Tell them stories from his experience to reframe their views of the sales process and feel more confident Made him realize that the no success are part of the process to not feel	Positive

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotion	Activation Level	Strategy/ Approach to change emotion	Result
	achieve			down about it Reduced the expectations from him to reduce pressure	
60	Frustrated not guided and not in the right position	Frustration	Moderate	Sending him to training to move to another more fit position Spending time listening to this person issues	Positive
61	Frustrated inner work of the organisation	Frustration	Moderate	Supporting him to improve his technique Listening to him	Positive
62	Angry Difficult customer	Anger	High	Let him vent Get to the problem by looking at facts Stepping up to solve the situation	Positive
63	Crying lack of recognition	Sadness	Low	Let him vent all what he feels Helping him to get perspectives on the problem by looking longer term	Positive
64	Fearing losing his job incompetent	Fear	High	Refocus on where he can change Helped him to improve his skills	Positive
65	Depressed change of job Unfit left company	Sadness	Low	Spoke to him that it is unacceptable to not deliver	Negative

Personal critical incidents approaches/strategies

Similar to business critical incidents leaders used more than one approach to deal with the negative emotions of the employee in personal critical incidents. In general, most of the approaches can be described as soft approaches compared to the business CI where the leader's strategy was focused on reducing the intensity of the emotion by talking to the employee about his or her issue, by listening, and by giving special treatment.

"I used to sit with him. I used to understand. What are the reasons behind his ups and downs? To a certain extent we found out, we found out during the time that he has serious problems in house. My approach to him was put the business aside from what you call it friendship level or personnel level." (P31)

"I said to her 'anything and every time you need something, even though this is personal, you take me not as this time as superior to you but as a woman who went through the same thing. So

at any time you need support, just tell me you need 10 minutes, 15 minutes of my time, half an hour of my time, and I'm willing to talk to you about it.” (P32)

In addition to listening to the employee's problems, some leaders offered advice and support:

“We were trying to help him with his work in the office. We're saying that we would support him a little a bit more in terms of handling his customers and things like that.” (P45)

“Make sure you write them down and keep it close to you, if you haven't take the time to build a picture in the library or update your current photo book with your father to bring back those or keep those memories alive.” (P22)

“We gave him a special approval for this like the first two hours of the day like between eight and ten o'clock to finish or to complete his, what you call, personal activities which should drive him back.” (P6)

Alternatively, some leaders used seemingly ineffective approaches when trying to deal with their employees' negative emotions that were caused by personal issues. These approaches included not doing anything at all, and telling the employee that they should not feel a particular emotion.

“You cannot cry all the time here, you have got some respect. You have to nice with the customers, with the agents. We don't accept how you behave.” (P9)

There's no reaching out or trying to offer support of any guidance or even indirect counseling. I mean if you're going through something like that, you're Senior Executive of the company, I don't know.” (P22)

These personal critical incidents strategies are summarized in table 6.4 below.

Table 6.4: Summary of Personal Critical Incidents Strategies

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotions	Activation Level	Strategy/ Approach to change emotion	Result
1	Sad Worried Health Issues	Fear/ Sadness	High/Low	Talked to ease the pain Offer help for the special situation	Positive
2	Crying Partner Beating employee at home Unsuccessful	Sadness	Low	Tried to change the emotional expression suppressing it	Negative
3	Depressed Divorce	Sadness	Low	Sit Down privately Listen and talk Offered Help	Positive
4	Down Divorce	Sadness	Low	Taking time to talk and listen to her to know the situation outside work Sharing personal experience to make her feel better Being available / giving time to help	Positive
5	Sad Fight with Husband	Sadness	Low	Offered one week advance vacation	Positive
6	Distracted Down Issues with Wife Unsuccessful	Sadness	Low	Offering help in his job taking his personal situation into consideration	Negative
7	Grief Loss of Father	Sadness	Low	Having personal talks about situation Sharing or giving advices Keeping door open I.e. providing time for him Giving him enough time to be back in the game	Positive
8	Unhappy Divorce Unsuccessful	Sadness	Low	No real engagement passive	Negative
9	Down Personal Reasons	Sadness	Low	Taking time to listen and understand the situation outside Special support to come in 2 hours late everyday	Positive
10	Very Depressed Father Will Die	Sadness	Low	Asked him and listen to his situation Shared personal experience Offered help	Positive
11	Stressed Impatient Aggressive Family Reason Unsuccessful	Fear	High	Talked to him to understand problem but he didn't open up	Negative
12	Down Divorce (2)	Sadness	Low	Listened Gave special treatment	Positive

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Discrete Emotions	Activation Level	Strategy/ Approach to change emotion	Result
13	Depression Fight with Spouse Unsuccessful Mental Illness	Sadness	Low	Show Empathy Coach Mentor give advice Give special support	Negative
14	Alcohol Down Issues at home	Sadness	Low	Spending time and talking off-site Giving them advice	Positive
15	Grievance Mother in Law Died	Sadness	Low	Offered special treatment days off flexible time	In Between
16	Angry towards colleagues divorce	Anger	High	Special treatment changing her position as special way of dealing with her situation	Positive
17	Concerned Worried Son Ill	Fear	High	Offered help special treatment at work to allow focus on personal issues	Positive
18	Feeling sad mother died	Sadness	Low	Took 2 weeks off for his mother death Offered help and open ear to listen and help Offering guidance and advice	Positive

Summary of emotion regulation strategies

It seems that there are key differences between the strategies used to change followers' emotions due to personal issues compared to business issues. Strategies used in business CIs seem to be more practical; for example, trying to solve the problem or change the meaning of it. On the other hand, strategies used in personal situations seem to be oriented around easing and reducing the intensity of the emotion. This will be further analyzed in the discussion chapter.

6.2.3 Leaders' Strategies Compared to Emotion Regulation Strategies Models

After analyzing the strategies, each strategy was coded according to the two emotion regulation models IEM and IAR to explore how leaders used strategies related to existing models.

Coding the strategies according to the IEM model was based on the specific strategies that are represented under this model. These strategies are: situation modification, attention deployment, cognitive change, and modifying the emotion response. On the other hand, coding according to the IAR model included the following potential strategies: engagement affective target focused,

engagement affective problem focused, engagement cognitive engagement, relation oriented, attention valuing, relation oriented attention distraction, and relation oriented humor.

Strategies comparison and analysis based on IEM Model

Business Cases

When analyzing the strategies used to regulate the emotions according to the IEM model, most of the strategies used (almost half) were cognitive change strategies, i.e. the leaders helped the employee create a different meaning of the situation by reappraising or reinterpreting it. For example, when the sales person was feeling sad because of a lack of promotion, one leader tried to change his view of the situation:

“I tried to convince him that whatever his plans are in future, I mean I also felt that this person isn’t happy and he probably will look for some other job, on a branch manager level or whatever. I tried to convince that he would be better off if he would lead very, very good results and if he would focus on his jobs, he had a good capability to develop business with the system accounts. I would try to give him good relations personally and I would convince him that he was not doing for company sake and he was doing for his own sake, and that was easier to convince him, and then realized may be you are right, I am not gaining anything being troublemaker or complainer or whatever. And that was the starting point and it became easier down to build loyalty to the company as well.” (P16)

The second most commonly used strategy was situation modification where leaders were helping the employee by changing the problem/situation or the emotional trigger itself. For example, when the sales person was upset because the customer was threatening to withdraw their business the leader supported them by giving a special discount to the customer which stopped the customer threat:

“...give this customer a credit in future shipments. This is very tough for a known flexible company to do so the guy said okay I give you \$1000 \$50 credit in the next 20 shipments. We kept the customer, he gets his money back the sales guy was happy the customer was happy and the account of us did not have to issue a check that everybody has to report you know.” (P5)

The third most frequent strategy used was attention deployment where leaders tried to shift the attention of the employee to something else to make the employee feel better. For example, when a sales person felt frustrated because he or she did not receive a salary increase, the sales leader explained how he made the sales person look at future career path opportunities to feel better:

“I have done a lot is focused on identifying career paths so, this maybe a marketing to be able to get that promotional raise at this time but, one of things I needed to do specifically in order to be a bigger consideration for this at this point next year and that conversation usually goes a long way because most of us kind of accept the answer no but we would also like to know is it related to a raise or promotion but we also, the next question which is when or if not now when and how, what do I need to do and that is a conversation that you absolutely have to have.” (P24)

On the other hand, there were a number of approaches or strategies used that did not match the exact strategy type as per the IEM model. These mostly included the cases where the leader let the sales person vent and just listened to him, i.e. they were person focused strategies. For example, when one sales person felt upset about being warned by his leader about performing unethical behaviour, the sales person went to the leader with angry emotions and all that the leader did was let the sales person vent. Ultimately the sales person felt okay again:

“I don’t know if something happens in your life you get big cry out and then sudden you know the end of it just seems like something disappeared that’s some of your job and leadership is to let people vent and they vent it and it washes out as that is all that they needed. It’s got some similarities to being married you know like your wife get it out and then it washes away and you really think you don’t want you to do anything other, she just wants you to listen and this happens a lot in sales and this guy internalized that and moved out to do their things.” (P24)

Finally, there were a few cases where the leader did not take any action, which resulted in failure to change the negative emotions. For example, when the sale person told his boss he was depressed because he was not able to perform his job, the sales leader’s action implied that this was unacceptable and that he still needs to do his job well:

“I had several personnel communications, personnel meetings with him. And he mentioned that he is de-motivated because he is not interested in the new job and why he cannot do his old job any longer and he is not sure if he can manage it. Yeah, I explained the situation and I told him from my personal point of view, I can understand your depression but I cannot accept that you are doing the job in the trade line not as successful as we need it as a company and I explained him that the new job description what we are expecting from him.” (P25)

All cases where the negative emotions did not change led to the sales person leaving the company. This is further discussed in the discussion chapter.

Personal Cases

In personal critical incidents most strategies did not match the IEM model (over two thirds of the cases); no strategies were used that could be coded as situation modification cases or attention deployment cases. In most of the cases that did not qualify as a strategy within the IEM model, the leader allocated time to listen to the sales person about his or her issues and gave them special treatment at work to help them feel better. They did not change their personal situation, nor did they try to change the way they saw it, or change their focus. Instead they offered personal support or time with the employee. For example, when one sales person was feeling down because of issues at home, the sales leader listened:

“I used to sit with him. I used to understand. What are the reasons behind his ups and downs? To a certain extent we found out, we found out during the time that he has serious problems in house. My approach to him was put the business aside from what you call it friendship level or personnel level. We went out together to a cafe. We had coffee together and we started discussing. Tell me what are the reasons of his problems? If he can afford to a certain extent et cetera, et cetera. He shared with me his personal stuffetc.” and then offered special treatment “We gave him a special approval for this like the first two hours of the day like between eight and ten o’clock to finish or to complete his, what you call, personal activities which should drive him back.” (P10)

The most frequently used IEM strategy in the personal cases was cognitive change, where leaders tried to give advice and perspectives on the situation to make their employees feel better. In all these cases however, the cognitive change strategy was used in conjunction with either listening and/or offering special treatment. For example, when the sales person was feeling sad when his mother died, the sales leader tried to change the way he viewed the situation:

“working with him, getting him back on the track by basically doing coaching ..., coach a person and try to show him that we are continuing to do the work, I go listen to the site visit, work with him. To get him back on the track that he was, so this was really my way I handled which basically becomes more of a coaching, more of trying to guide the person back on the track and then really not forcing it down his throat like saying hey we got to move our targets, we got to do it but really showing him that I’m there for him, I’m with him in the steps, that we can do it together, we can get back to the track that he was at so that we can move forward.”(P11)

This however, was done in conjunction with offering two weeks off and offering time to listen to the employee.

In addition, there were no situation modification strategies or attention deployment strategies used in the case of the personal critical incidents. In general, this could be justified by the fact that in business critical incidents, the leader is much more able to change or at least influence the situation or problem. But in personal situations, like in the case of sickness, death, or divorce this is almost impossible; not only to change or influence the situation but also to shift the attention from them as they are usually very emotionally charged. This is further explored in the discussion chapter.

Strategies comparison and analysis based on the IAR Model

Business Cases

When coding and analyzing the business cases using the IAR model, the engagement cognitive strategies were the most frequently used, which is the same strategy as cognitive change in the IEM model. This means that the leader tried to change the meaning or interpretation of the

situation. For example, in one case where the sales person was feeling down for not receiving support from colleagues in UK, the leader tried to help the sales person feel better by having a discussion to change his meaning of the situation and saying:

“Okay. All right if UK doesn’t work. This is not the end of the doors for you.” (P26)

On the other hand, many strategies did not match any strategies in the IAR model. Almost all of these are strategies, which focused on changing the situation itself, did not have a corresponding strategy in IAR model. For example the case of changing the sales person’s job back into operations which made the sales person feels better.

The engagement affective problem focused strategies included most of the cases that did not have a corresponding strategy in the IEM model where the leader just tried to listen to the employee and let him vent. For example, when one sales person was feeling frustrated from lack of support from colleagues, the sales leader listened at first and let the sales person vent:

“the first thing I always do and it doesn’t really matter which situation it is, it’s basically to let people speak without really commenting or making assumptions on anything right. So just sitting and listening to what is the concern, obviously when people come in and they’re happy about something that’s fine, bit different, but whatever you have somebody who’s frustrated or sad or whatever. Any, you want any negative emotion, just letting them talk, what it is usually is a good starting point. So knowing that this person is also someone who takes it maybe personal, I thought that was an important aspect of it. Giving that person some time to actually talk about it and get their frustrations out in the open right.” (P12)

In addition, there were some cases where engagement affective target focused strategies were used through which the leaders tried to change the emotions of the sales person by valuing him or her. For example, when a sales person was feeling depressed because of customer complaints, the sales leader expressed how much he valued him:

“I told him that I am convinced that he is a good salesperson and that he is really one of the best we have.” (P25).

Personal Cases

When analyzing the emotion regulation strategies used in personal critical incidents according to the IAR model, the three key strategies used were relationship oriented attention valuing, engagement affective problem focused, and engagement cognitive engagement, respectively. The relationship oriented attention valuing strategies were the most frequently used in personal cases; in these cases leaders spent some time with them offering help to show care to the employee who was passing through this personal tough time and to convey valuing. For example, when the sales person was feeling down because of a divorce the sales leader offered help:

“I said to her ‘anything and every time you need something, even though this is personal, you take me not as this time as superior to you but as a woman who went through the same thing. So at any time you need support, just tell me you need 10 minutes, 15 minutes of my time, half an hour of my time, and I’m willing to talk to you about it. (...) I wanted to tell her that I’m willing to give 100% support to her on this issue and that she did not ever come back to me to want to talk to me ever. But I could see week after week, she’s going back to her own self and of course, in this course of time, it was fine.” (P4)

The second most commonly used strategies, engagement affective problem focused, are strategies where the leader just listens to the sales person and lets him or her talk about his or her problems. For example when one sales person was feeling depressed because his father was going to die, the sales leader tried to listen to the sales person’s concerns:

“I talked with him about that and without giving any suggestions or even helping him. I only listened (...) only be aware that we know that and we understand his situation I think was helping him a lot.” (P25)

The engagement cognitive engagement strategies are cases where the leaders tried to change the meaning of the situation by giving advice or telling the employee about their own experiences, as

cited by some leaders. For example, when a sales person was feeling down because of issues at home and was becoming an alcoholic, the sales leader tried to give him advice:

“trying to give him some advice the way to manage some problems and then I’m not a magician but I gave him some recipes and then he could see that with another vision of the situation he could change not his life but some aspects of his life. (...) he was very happy to talk to somebody to have a discussion to have somebody who could try to help him to ship off him and so the more it was his boss who could easily fire him without any problem.” (P7)

When coding the strategies used by leaders to manage their followers’ emotions, there are many strategies that do not fall into one of the two emotion regulation models, IAR or IEM. This fact, together with its implications, is further explored in the discussion chapter.

6.2.4 Regulation Strategies Effectiveness

Analysing unsuccessful cases

There were in total 20 unsuccessful cases where a leader tried to influence how the sales person was feeling to make him or her feel better.

Personal cases

Among the 18 personal critical incidents, there were five that did not lead to successful results, i.e. the sales person still had the negative emotions which ultimately led to him or her leaving the company. When analyzing these cases, there were two cases where the leader tried to understand the real cause of the problem but the sales person did not open up and share why he or she was not feeling well. For example, when one employee was feeling stressed most of the time and aggressive towards the other employees, the sales leader talked to him to understand the problem but he did not open up. The leader describes it this way:

“...he didn’t seem well and he wouldn’t like to talk about it and I tried my best to talk to him and get an understanding because if I get an understanding then I could also coach him and help him

and I'm pushing him to tell me what's behind and then he actually gives his notice and that was not my aim. My aim was to help him so he could be a good employee (...) it was clearly a family problem behind but he wouldn't like to talk about it, I could see it and I had a very strong stomach feeling and I also told him that I have thought you have a problem here and I could see that it's a family problem, please let me help you. But he wouldn't apply to open up and he only told me that he didn't have a problem, he denied it and that's the worst thing.” (P18)

In this case the leader was not able to help the sales person feel better. Another example is when a sales leader had a sales person who was emotionally unstable but when he tried to explore why he did not manage to know the reason. At the end this led to the leader not being able to change her emotions:

“This is an exceptional case I would say. This person was not upset by emotions at work. She was having some troubles in her personal life I would think. It's very hard to deal with because in this case, I tried to understand what was going and she was not willing to open up to me. (...)I told her many times, “If you don't tell me exactly what the problem is, then I also can't defend you towards your manager.” How can I intermedate if I don't understand what the problem is? That was unsuccessful in making her talk to me. (...) I mean, in this conversations, she never cried. She was never avoiding my answers. She was only not opening up. If I would go a little bit into the personal corner, she wouldn't say anything.” (P6)

One case that was not successful was when the sales leader tried to suppress the emotions of the sales person as the latter was feeling emotional and crying for no apparent reason at work, while the true problem was being a target of violence at home. The leader describes the way he approached it by telling the sales person:

“You cannot cry all the time here, you have got some respect. You have to nice with the customers, with the agents. We don't accept how you behave. For five minutes he was ok, but after he again start crying.” (P27)

The leader noted that in the end the sales person had to leave the company as he did not change.

Another unsuccessful critical incident was where a sales person was feeling down and distracted because of issues with his wife. The sales leader offered special help to get him over this:

“We were trying to help him with his work in the office. We’re saying that we would support him a little a bit more in terms of handling his customers and things like that. But ultimately it did not happen and it did not go on the right direction (...) So at one point of time we had to take a decision that we don’t want to continue with him anymore and so we had to part ways.” (P30)

When the leader did not support or help the employee in a personal situation where the sales person was going through a divorce this led to the employee needing a longer time to recover from negative emotions. One sales leader describes the way he went through this and the consequences:

“there were several people in leadership... in the company at that time that anyone of them could have engaged during this process. And I’m sure (going through this) would have been much shorter and the outcome probably been a lot more positive. I think it’s definitely lasted longer than it ought to us and I think the result of what had happened was also negative. It could have been much more positive. There’s a lot of good learning in that and obviously, having gone through it, I would certainly handle things a bit differently.” (P17)

In short, a key to dealing with personal cases is openness from the employee’s side to share the situation or reason why he or she is experiencing the negative emotion. When this does not take place, the ability of the leader to help change the emotion of the employee is limited.

Alternatively, if the employee is experiencing very negative emotions, it could be extremely difficult for the leader to help change the emotions, as highlighted above in the cases of issues at home.

Business Cases

Among the 65 business critical incidents, there were 15 unsuccessful cases. While in the personal cases the reasons why some strategies were unsuccessful were somehow understandable, this

was not true in the business cases. Potentially, there could be other elements in the business cases that may have influenced the unsuccessful result of the strategies.

In one theme of cases (three critical incidents) the emotional trigger or problem was the mismatch between the job requirements and the sales person's personality and capabilities. This led to situations where the sales person was sad, depressed, or frustrated. In most of these cases the sales leader tried to coach the sales person by making him believe in himself but this approach did not succeed in all of these situations. One leader explained it by saying that the sales person was:

"...more introvert than extrovert yes and he would like to perform much more than he could and he understood the situation that he was really sad because he would like to be a sales person but he was not." (P18)

Therefore, in most of these cases trying to change the emotion would ultimately be unsuccessful as long as that person is not qualified for a sales position by not having the personality type of a sales person, which is extroverted and outgoing. On the other hand, there were four critical incidents where the employee's emotion did not change as the leader did not act or do something to change the emotion. One leader explains how this happened to one employee:

"...obviously didn't get the support from his superior that could help him to put this negativity at the sight. He was frustrated about what was happening but not having the support from his superior made him more and more frustrated and angry. Maybe if we recognized that in earlier stage, we could have talked to him and make him feel more comfortable about what he's doing and why is it not working and what do we need to change to make it work." (P6)

Another example is given by another leader:

"I had several personnel communications, personnel meetings with him. And he mentioned that he is de-motivated because he is not interested in the new job and why he cannot do his old job any longer and he is not sure if he can manage it... I explained the situation and I told him from my personal point of view, I can understand your depression but I cannot accept that you are

doing the job in the trade line not as successful as we need it as a company and I explained him that the new job description what we are expecting from him.” (P25)

In these cases, the negative emotion of the employee did not change, which led to the employee leaving the job or to be asked to leave. This shows the importance and impact of changing negative or dysfunctional emotions.

Finally, for nine out of eleven unsuccessful cases, cognitive change strategy was the only strategy used, and there were two cases where two strategies were used simultaneously in each case. In addition, for all of these cases no strategy was used to change the problem or emotional stimulus itself. For successful cases, out of 46 critical incidents, there were 26 where two to three strategies were used. Among the 20 critical incidents where only one strategy was used, twelve used situation modification, changing or modifying the problem. A potential interpretation of these findings is that managing negative emotions effectively requires using more than one strategy; otherwise it requires changing the problem or emotional stimulus.

Conclusion

The critical incidents findings show how business related cases are different from personal cases, from the type of affective events or emotional stimulus to the type of discrete emotions to the emotion regulation strategies used. Furthermore, within business cases and personal cases there are different types of strategies and emotions. These were presented in this chapter while the implications of these findings are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter 7: Discussion

The findings presented in the previous chapter, provide many insights about leaders practice to manage their followers' emotions compared to the existing literature around this area. These are summarized under the following areas:

- Practice of leader emotion management of followers
 - Importance, limitations and general approaches
 - Leader's skills and ability to manage followers' emotions
- Contextual factors influencing ER strategies
 - Need to deal with personal emotional situations
 - Ability to influence or change a problem or emotional stimulus
- Leader emotion management strategies
 - Person focused strategies
 - Cognitive emotion regulation strategies and discrete emotions
 - Short term/intermediate strategies
- Leaders' practice of ER compared to ER strategies models
- Effectiveness of strategies

Each of these areas is further explored in this chapter together with the implications for leaders to manage their followers' emotions.

7.1 How do leaders view the importance, limitations and the overall practice of managing followers' emotions?

The findings show that leaders see the management of followers' emotions as an important task, since according to them it affects employee performance. On the other hand, they acknowledge that there are limits where the management of followers' emotions is not feasible or even considered not a priority. The findings also explain some of the general approaches leaders use to manage their followers' emotions in general and for personal cases. This study could be

considered among the first ones to explore this practice, by identifying the practices with examples, through qualitative study.

7.2 How do contextual factors like affective events and discrete emotions that leaders face when dealing with followers' emotions impact ER strategies?

7.2.1 Personal emotional situations

The affective events theory explains how affective events occur at work and how employees and their leaders consequently need to manage these emotions. Yet, the findings presented in the previous chapter show that leaders also need to deal with and manage employees' negative emotions that are caused outside of the work place due to personal situations. Indeed, this is in line with Diefendorff et al.'s (2008) study who found, when exploring a quantitative study about the kind of negative emotions employees experience at work, that a major category of affective events, after customer related issues, is personal or physical problems. Therefore, the fact that employees experience negative emotions at work due to personal issues and the fact that this has not been adequately addressed by previous researchers mean that leaders need to understand how to manage and regulate emotions related to personal issues. The following sections will explore how regulating emotions due to personal situations may differ from managing emotions due to business related factors.

7.2.2 Ability to influence or change problem or emotional stimulus

From analyzing the critical incidents it is clear that there are different levels of leaders' abilities to control or influence employees' emotions and the success often depends on the emotional trigger or affective event. In general, it seems that business emotional triggers are easier to influence or control than personal emotional triggers. For example, the leader does not have much influence over the situation or a strong ability to reduce the intensity of the negative emotions experienced by the sales person in cases of death, divorce, health issues, or family problems.

On the other hand, in the cases of business related emotional situations this becomes much easier, as the leader has a higher level of control or influence over the situation or trigger that led to the negative emotion experienced by the sales person. For example, lack of compensation can

be dealt with by giving a special bonus to the employee, adjusting his or her salary, or allowing the sales person to travel as a special reward. The fact that business related emotional triggers are relatively easier to influence and manage, makes changing these situations and their meanings very useful approaches for changing negative emotions. Therefore, while coding the critical incidents each trigger was coded depending on the leader's ability to change them on a scale from none, to low, to moderate, to high. When rating each of the emotional triggers it became apparent that for personal cases, a leader's ability to change or influence the emotion is almost impossible while on the business side it is mostly moderate. This consequently influences the type of ER strategy used by the sales leader and its success as presented in table Leader Ability to Change Problem or Emotional Stimulus in Business CI in Table 7.1 below.

Table 7.1: Leader Ability to Change Problem or Emotional Stimulus in Business CI

Case number	Critical Incident Summary	Emotional Trigger	Ability of Leader to Change/ Influence Trigger/ Problem
1	Down Change of job	Job Unfit	Moderate
2	Depressed Customer Complaints	Customer Pressure	Moderate
3	Down Lack Support Tradelane Work	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
4	Unhappy Job Location	Job Location	High
5	Frustration No Salary Raise	Compensation	Moderate
6	Upset Aggressive Given Ethical Notice	Misconduct Communication	Moderate
7	Frustrated No Title Promotion	Lack of Recognition	High
8	Complaining Worried Perception Others Responsible	Lack of Control	Moderate
9	Sad Promotion Unfairness	Lack of Recognition	High
10	Upset Customer Threat	Customer Pressure	Moderate
11	So Down Losing Customer	Lost Business	Moderate
12	Down Losing a bid	Lost Business	Moderate

Case number	Critical Incident Summary	Emotional Trigger	Ability of Leader to Change/ Influence Trigger/ Problem
13	Frustrated Losing Bid	Lost Business	Moderate
14	Very Upset Angry Lack of Bonus	Compensation	Moderate
15	Angry Lack of Bonus	Compensation	Moderate
16	Worried Lost Frustrated Things Out of Control	Lack of Control	Moderate
17	Fearful No Job Fit	Job Unfit	Moderate
18	Down Lack of Control	Lack of Control	Moderate
19	Really Down Misperceived Demotion	Perceived Lack of Recognition	High
20	Very Sad Demotivated Down Unable to be Sales Team Leader	Job Unfit	Moderate
21	Frustrated Lack of Support from Sales	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
22	Frustrated Lack of Support	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
23	Very Angry Colleagues Failure	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
24	Afraid Worried Favoritism	Lack of Control	Moderate
25	Depressed Not Winning Business	Pressure to Achieve	Moderate
26	Worried Lack of Performance	Job Insecurity	Moderate
27	Crying Yelling Lost Opportunity Lack Support	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
28	Very Angry Fight with Colleague	Conflict	Moderate
29	Very Down Supressed Low Confidence After Maternity	Low Confidence	Moderate
30	Worried Lack of Confidence New Role	Low Confidence	Moderate
31	Low Confidence Threaten by her Team	Low Confidence	Moderate
32	Really Depressed Worried lost All Business	Lost Business	Low

Case number	Critical Incident Summary	Emotional Trigger	Ability of Leader to Change/ Influence Trigger/ Problem
33	Sad Not Successful at work	Job Unfit	Moderate
34	Frustrated Anger Job Another Industry	Job Unfit	Moderate
35	Upset Worried Legal Case Against Company	Job Insecurity	Moderate
36	Frustrated Lack of Support from Network	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
37	Frustrated Lack of Support from Network 2	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
38	Fearful losing job	Job Insecurity	Moderate
39	Frustration Lack of Operations Support	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
40	Frustration Lack of support from product	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
41	Frustrated Upset not being recognized	Lack of Recognition	High
42	Profoundly frustrated lack of recognition	Lack of Recognition	High
43	Worried being overlooked for next big opportunity	Lack of Recognition	High
44	Frustrated Report and Customer 1	Pressure to Achieve	Moderate
45	Angry conflict relationship	Conflict	Moderate
46	Fearful for not achieving targets	Pressure to Achieve	Moderate
47	Frustrated down salary difference	Compensation	Moderate
48	Frustrated not having clear guidance and direction	Lack of Control	Moderate
49	Frustrated not accepting new leader	New Boss Challenge	Moderate
50	Frustrated worried lack of counterparts support or stability	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
51	Frustrated not getting support led to personal issues	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate

Case number	Critical Incident Summary	Emotional Trigger	Ability of Leader to Change/ Influence Trigger/ Problem
52	Frustrated lack of support to implement the business left company	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
53	Frustrated new boss treatment	New Boss Challenge	Moderate
54	Frustrated customer unhappy Customer pressure afer bad job from predecessor	Customer Pressure	Moderate
55	Angry because new boss implementing new rules	New Boss Challenge	Moderate
56	Frustrated Angry fight with colleagues no support from leadership	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
57	Angry Disappointed Misperception issues with boss Unsuccessful	Boss Personal Issues	Moderate
58	Frustrated lack of support from colleagues	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
59	Anxiety lack of knowledge high pressure to achieve	Pressure to Achieve	Moderate
60	Frustrated not guided and not in the right position	Unfit Job	Moderate
61	Frustrated inner work of the organisation	Lack of Internal Support	Moderate
62	Angry Difficult customer	Customer Pressure	Moderate
63	Crying lack of recognition	Lack of Recognition	High
64	Fearing losing his job incompetent	Job Unfit	Moderate
65	Depressed change of job Unfit left company	Job Unfit	Moderate

This table shows how most business critical incidents are cases where leader’s influence to change them is moderate. On the other hand, the table “Leader Ability to Change Problem or Emotional Stimulus in Personal CI” in Table 7.2 below shows how most personal situations can be categorized as cases where the leader has low control over the emotional stimulus which led to the negative emotion. In short, as explained above and shown in the tables in tables 7.1 and

7.2, the ability to manage or change the stimulus or problem that led to the negative emotion differs between personal situations and business situations. Nevertheless, in most studies in the literature that explore leaders' ER strategies for changing followers' emotions this factor has not been explored or even noted.

Table 7.2: Leader Ability to Change Problem or Emotional Stimulus in Personal CI

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Emotional Trigger	Ability of Leader to Change/ Influence Trigger/ Problem
1	Sad Worried Health Issues	Health Issues	None/Low
2	Crying Partner Beating employee at home Unsuccessful	Violence at Home	None/Low
3	Depressed Divorce	Divorce	None/Low
4	Down Divorce	Divorce	None/Low
5	Sad Fight with Husband	Partner Issues	None/Low
6	Distracted Down Issues with Wife Unsuccessful	Partner Issues	None/Low
7	Grief Loss of Father	Death	None/Low
8	Unhappy Divorce Unsuccessful	Divorce	None/Low
9	Down Personal Reasons	Home	None/Low
10	Very Depressed Father Will Die	Death	None/Low
11	Stressed Impatient Aggressive Family Reason Unsuccessful	Home	None/Low
12	Down Divorce (2)	Divorce	None/Low
13	Depression Fight with Spouse Unsuccessful Mental Illness	Partner Issues	None/Low
14	Alcohol Down Issues at home	Home	None/Low
15	Grievance Mother in Law Died	Death	None/Low

CI	Critical Incident Summary	Emotional Trigger	Ability of Leader to Change/ Influence Trigger/ Problem
16	Angry towards colleagues divorce	Divorce	None/Low
17	Concerned Worried Son Ill	Health Issues	None/Low
18	Feeling sad mother died	Death	None/Low

The fact that the leader could have a different level of influence on the affective event or emotional stimulus means that this could impact his or her choice of strategy (for example in personal cases a leader would probably choose a strategy that does not target changing the problem itself) and the effectiveness of a chosen strategy (for example, if the leader would in the case of a personal affective event chose the strategy of changing the problem, it would probably not lead to a successful result). This difference is further explored in the next section to analyze how ER strategies may differ in each of these situations.

7.3 How do leaders actually manage and regulate their followers' emotions?

7.3.1 Person Focused Strategies

Based on the above information, there are differences between dealing with business issues versus personal issues. In the personal issues it becomes apparent that it is about dealing with the emotional expression, while in the business cases it is about dealing with the problem or the trigger of the emotion and its meaning.

As stated above, when looking at business cases they are triggered by issues related to compensation, conflict, customer pressure, job insecurity, inconvenient job location, job unfit, lack of internal support, lack of recognition, or low confidence. In all of these situations the emotional trigger could be changed or at least influenced by the sales leader; therefore, dealing with these situations is all about changing the negative emotions to positive emotions.

On the other hand, personal situations that may involve death, divorce, issues with a partner, or health triggers, cannot be influenced very much by the sales leader. In these cases the sales

leaders can help the sales people who are experiencing the negative emotion to reduce the intensity and duration of it. This was confirmed when analyzing all of the personal cases, because in most cases there was no attempt to influence or change the trigger itself. Rather, leaders tried to help the sales person have less pain while going through the process.

Therefore, the strategies that are used to deal with and manage emotions that resulted from personal reasons may be different from those that resulted from business related issues. Managing personal related negative emotions, therefore, requires strategies that meet more the employee's socio-affective needs (Rime 2007) or person focused strategies (Thiel et al. 2014; Cote 2005). Thus, the leader's knowledge of and ability to use these strategies (person focused) effectively are important so that the dysfunctional emotions experienced by the employees will not last long and will be less intense. This is to make sure that these dysfunctional emotions will not negatively affect employees' performances.

While person focused strategies are used more often and may be needed in personal situations as demonstrated in the CI findings, these strategies seem to be useful in business related cases too as shown in previous studies (Thiel et al 2014, Rime 2007, Cote 2005). This was also demonstrated in the findings of the current study, as presented in the ER comparison section of IAR and IEM models in the previous chapter. In this comparison, it is apparent that person focused strategies are used only partly by leaders when managing negative emotions due to work related issues.

The table 7.3 below summarizes the cases where person focused strategies were used and the description that leaders provided about these strategies. This tables shows the cases where these person focused strategies were used, are only 22 out of the 65 critical incidents. At the same time, among these cases only two were unsuccessful while 20 turned out to be a success. The strategy's success ratio was much higher than in the case of the CI where person focused strategies were not used (thirteen unsuccessful cases out of 43 critical incidents). The fact that the ratio of success was higher in the cases where person focused strategies were used; does not necessarily mean that using this strategy will lead to success. The person focused strategy could, however, successfully facilitate the management of negative emotions.

In short, person focused strategies are important for managing followers' emotions whether in personal or business related cases. This fact however was not explored in the literature and existing models of leader ER strategies for managing followers' emotions (IEM and IAR). These models investigated the preferred strategies used by leaders and their effect in general. However they do not explain how and when leaders need to focus more on person focused strategies and how these strategies could influence the effectiveness of ER of followers.

Table 7.3 Person Focused Strategies in Business CI

CI	Approaches to change emotion	Details (Interviewee Answer)	IAR Interpersonal Affect Regulations	Result
2	Valued him	"I told him that I am convinced that he is a good salesperson and that he is really one of the best we have."	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Positive
2	Develop for them career plan to shift their focus and feeling	"The other thing I have done a lot is focused on identifying career paths"	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Positive
5	Make them feel valued	"that company see them that they are valuable ...and just keep them focused on where they are bringing value and where their upside is."	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Positive
6	Let him vent as a way of dealing with his emotions	"I don't know if something happens in your life you get big cry out and then sudden you know the end of it just seems like something disappeared that's some of your job and self leadership is to let people vent and they vent it and it washes out as that is all that they needed... this happens a lot in sales and this guy internalized that and moved out to do their things."	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive
7	Sitting and listening to his concern	"So we set a date for a meeting and we discussed the reasons why he would want this."	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive

CI	Approaches to change emotion	Details (Interviewee Answer)	IAR Interpersonal Affect Regulations	Result
13	Let them feel the way they feel vent their frustration	“I mean the first thing you got to do is ... let them be frustrated. You got to let them talk it through, some of my key objective is number one, let them be upset. Let them talk it through, work out some of the negative emotions and then we got to discuss around what did we do well and we didn't we do well then you got to look it through.”	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive
14	Valuing and pointing at future opportunities	“...you're a valued employee and you had further opportunities.”	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Positive
22	1 Acknowledge the feeling	Interviewer: I mean, first he acknowledged the way you're feeling and you feel that he did not kind of rejected, right? Interviewee: No, exactly.	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive
25	1 Listening to him to understand why	“The first thing I did was I called him and I tried to understand what the problem is.”	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive
25	2 Gave him time spending half day with him	“The second step was taking half a day, almost half a day and I dedicated half a day specific to that person speaking in front of him, speaking with him, going out for lunch, trying to let him talk as much as possible”	Relation Oriented Attention Valuing	Positive
26	2 The company appreciates his job	“We will send to the guy that agility appreciates the job that he's doing even if in this bad economic situation.”	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Positive
27	1 Letter of appreciation and recognition for his work	“...an appreciation letter from the company regardless of securing this business ... which was signed off by myself and by our CEO has given him the feeling that our company does care ...”	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Positive
28	2 Told him that I am with him not with the othe colleague	“...So I told him that I'm convinced from him. I told him that I believe in the situation like he mentioned and that I followed his communication and yeah, I tried to give him a good feeling again and I think this helped directly after the conversation.”	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Positive

CI	Approaches to change emotion	Details (Interviewee Answer)	IAR Interpersonal Affect Regulations	Result
32	3 Offered help I am available anytime	<p>“I offered him if I can or if he needs any support from me personally to join him in the visits to even to have simple stuff like if he needs a conversation, if he have a question, if he don’t feel good at nine or ten o’clock in the evening and he needs someone to talk to, I mentioned you have my cell phone number. Please give me a call.”</p>	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Positive
32	2 we know you are very good	<p>“We know that you are a very good sales guy and we know if you are sitting in front of the customers sooner or later you will gain an additional business and you will fill the gap you have at the moment to your target.”</p> <p>“... we are convinced that he will manage the situation”</p>	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Positive
40	1 Let them vent and listen to them	<p>“I think the first thing I always do and it doesn’t really matter which situation it is, it’s basically to let people speak without really commenting or making assumptions on anything right. So just sitting and listening to what is the concern, obviously when people come in and they’re happy about something that’s fine, bit different, but whatever you have somebody who’s frustrated or sad or whatever. Any, you want any negative emotion, just letting them talk, what it is usually is a good starting point. So knowing that this person is also someone who takes it maybe personal, I thought that was an important aspect of it. Giving that person some time to actually talk about it and get their frustrations out in the open right.</p> <p>I think, you know what it does is it shows the person that you actually care about what they have to say right, and I think as a leader, caring in the sense that you know you take the necessary time to listen to what people have to say. It’s an important part, because if you really want to create a strong team... people feel that what they have to say and what they have do, it is important, it’s a big part of it.”</p>	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive

CI	Approaches to change emotion	Details (Interviewee Answer)	IAR Interpersonal Affect Regulations	Result
42	1 Acknowledging that he has done	"I think the first thing I did was to really acknowledge the very foundation which is do the good work that he had done. I highlighted to him how important his leadership and the impact we had through his work in a cruise lines... and I highlighted his skill set which his skill set is very valuable to company to help fix the problem."	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Negative
46	1 Did couple of trips together	"...we did a couple of joint trips together, discuss customers together"	Relation Oriented Attention Distraction	Positive
49	1 Spending social time with the employee	"...this is socialization in a way and then you have the professional way. I had so many meetings one to one with those guys and they had evident that after the third to fourth meeting the emotional touch stopped"	Relation Oriented Attention Distraction	Positive
52	1 Showing him moral support and agreement	"I supported him...I kept telling him, trying to motivate him all the time is we only need one success. Because we were implementing a lot of countries, I said, "If one of these countries really hits it off, then we are there." We just need one big success....We only need one big success. If we have one big success, it will fly."	Engagement Affective Target Focused	Negative
58	1 Giving her sometime to listen to her concerns	"I cleared my schedule although I had some pressing opportunities and not trying to dismiss that she approached me, she was nervous to approach me on it and we just walked through the scenarios"	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive
60	1 spending time listening to this person issues	"...sitting with that person...just want to listen to what that person or listen to what that person issues, were, what his concerns, what his fears and issues..."	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive
61	1 Listening to him	"...my take was to try to coach him again to understand though yes, he was right about many things being said and why people weren't doing certain things... Now I can't say at this I worked with him 100% but I think he made great strides in trying to view more of the frustrations by us talking about it"	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive

CI	Approaches to change emotion	Details (Interviewee Answer)	IAR Interpersonal Affect Regulations	Result
62	1 Let him vent	“First of all you listen to what he has to say but then what you are saying is calm down, I can understand what you are saying just bring the mood, take a deep breath. So, at first I let him blow off some steam, not some, but I let him blow all the steam, once he was cool enough that I could get a handle of the conversation after a few minutes I kept telling him take a deep breath, take a deep breath, once he has cooled down and into a point he may still be, have an issue then and still has it but he is now able to communicate more effectively, I said okay what are the issues, what is he telling you are the issues.”	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive
63	1 Let him vent all what he feels	“So, I got him in the car and I don’t necessarily recommend that driving around would be the best strategy, maybe driving somewhere to sit down would have been a better strategy. But as anybody you have not thought through of all the issues. But anyway we took a drive down the road, I thought that this could be a short drive and it took a while, we drove around for a while, in a few hours a couple of hours at least on the highway....I dealt with it I let him get his tem out, cool down so to a point where we can talk about it”	Engagement Affective Problem Focused	Positive

7.3.2 Cognitive Emotion Regulation Strategies and Discrete Emotions

As presented in the previous chapter, there are different discrete emotions that employees experience ranging from fear, to anger, to frustration, to sadness. While in business cases most of the critical incidents had fear, anger, and frustration as discrete emotions, there were also some cases where sadness was the emotion that was experienced. Alternatively, personal situations had sadness as the most frequently experienced discrete emotion.

Ostell (1996) proposed that leaders must apply corrective or adaptive strategies and that they need to deal with the specific discrete emotion the employee is experiencing. Since each emotion involves different thinking patterns, leader strategies must address these specific thinking

patterns. Ostell (1996), as presented in the literature review on emotion management in chapter three, provides the effective strategy for managing anxiety, anger, and depression by dealing with specific thinking patterns. These adaptive or corrective strategies provided by Ostell (1996) deal mainly with thinking patterns therefore can be considered specific cognitive change strategies, which can change or regulate specific emotions. Since the discrete emotions covered in this study included frustration, sadness, anger, and fear, they were not covered by the Ostell study, except the emotion of anger. Therefore, it is difficult to analyze and compare the strategies used by leaders with the cognitive strategies recommended by Ostell (1996). Nevertheless, leaders' strategies for changing followers' emotions that are focused on changing cognition should be specific to a discrete emotional thinking pattern.

Therefore, current studies on leader emotion management of followers focused on measuring what strategies are used by leaders and the implications of these strategies including cognitive strategies; however, they didn't explore how they are using cognitive strategies. Furthermore, these studies do not elaborate on and explain what kind of approaches could be used to manage discrete emotions.

7.3.3 Short Term/Intermediate Strategies

When further analyzing the findings of the ER strategies in the previous chapter, it seems that for most of the critical incidents, leaders did not note use short term strategies to deal with the emotion before getting into the corrective strategy. The purpose of short term strategies is to "lessen the emotional distress" experienced by the follower (Ostell 1996).

As Ostell (1996) explained, based on a framework of interventions for helping people deal with negative emotions that are due to work or personal reasons, there are two types of strategies that leaders can use to manage employees' negative emotions. At first, leaders should apply immediate short-term strategies for managing emotions; these could be applied equally to dysfunctional emotions of anger, anxiety, and depression. While leaders may have actually used some of these strategies when dealing with these cases, their descriptions did not include clear references to their usages. While leaders might not know much about these short term or intermediate strategies, the existing models on leader ER (IAR and IEM) do not discuss or explain the usage and effectiveness of these strategies.

7.4 How do leaders' actual strategies used compare to existing ER theory?

As shown in the previous chapter, when comparing the practice of leaders' ER strategies with the two models of leader ER strategies, IEM and IAR, some strategies are present in one while not in the other. For example, while situation modification is one strategy of the IEM model, this strategy not part of the IAR model. The IAR model seems to include more strategies that are person focused, which is why in the case of personal critical incidents most strategies were matched with the IAR model. By combining the strategies that are missing from each of the models, one could create a holistic framework of strategies that covers most of the leaders' practices of ER. When combined, the different strategies can be classified in the following way:

- Situation modification
- Positive engagement strategy- problem focused
- Positive engagement strategies- target focused
- Relationship oriented strategies - attention - distraction
- Relationship oriented strategies - humor
- Relationship oriented strategies - attention - valuing
- Cognitive change

Having all sets of strategies classified together as per above can be helpful for both the science and practice of ER, as using only one of the existing models (IEM or IAR) would result in missing other useful strategies for leaders when managing their followers emotions.

7.5 What insights could be gained from the practice of leader ER about strategy effectiveness?

While the effectiveness of ER strategies may not be fully explained and understood within the scope of this study, there are potential conclusions that can be drawn from the findings. First, when leaders fail to take action by dealing with the negative emotions, this leads to the employee either leaving the organisation or being fired as the negative emotions lead to potential underperformance or a dissatisfied employee. Studies on leader emotion management of

followers do not explain the impact of not dealing with negative emotions of followers. This study shows some of the potential consequences of failing to do so.

Second, for the personal cases a leader's ability to influence the employee's emotion is subject to the cooperation and openness of the employee. Suppressing the emotion, however, does not seem to lead to positive results. Again this element, which is critical to leaders' ER of followers, is not explored in the existing literature of leader emotion management.

Third, there are personal cases where the employee is experiencing extreme emotions and the leader may not be capable of dealing with such situations. These may require professional support. Indeed, this was noted by Ostell (1996) who explained how leaders must manage and regulate daily emotional reactions of employees but not enduring emotional issues, as they need specific professional skills. On the other hand, the literature on leader emotion management has not examined or included this critical factor when studying leader strategies to manage followers' emotions.

As previously described, for business cases most of the successful CIs were cases where leaders either used more than one strategy to manage the emotion or managed to change the problem that initially caused the negative emotion. One interpretation of these findings is that leaders may need to use more than one strategy to cover the different needs of the employee experiencing the negative emotions by using a person focused (socio-affective) strategy, cognitive strategy, and action strategy (Rime 2007). As Rime explains, "the more the various regulation needs just listed (socio-affective needs, cognitive needs, action needs) are met, the more the impact of the eliciting emotional experience will be surmounted" (Rime 2007, p. 474). However, the research around leader emotion management does not explore or explain this area as key factor of leader ER effectiveness.

Chapter 8: Conclusion, Implications, and Future Research

The purpose of this study was to explore leaders' strategies for managing followers' emotions and the contextual factors that influence leaders' strategy selection and effectiveness. After explaining the importance of ER in general and sales, this paper explored the two key concepts in the management literature, which include factors of influencing others' emotions, EI and TL. This review showed that this literature does not include the what, how, and why of leader ER. Thus, the second chapter of the literature review looked at the emerging field of leader emotion management, structured the literature around this area, and identified a gap, which is how leaders can effectively manage the negative emotions of their followers and the contextual factors that influence this. This gap was explored in this qualitative research study that investigated how leaders actually manage the emotions of their followers through semi-structured interviews and by using the critical incident technique. A summary and comparison of the findings of this research were then presented and then discussed by comparing them to the theory of leader emotions management. Based on the findings and previous chapter discussions, this chapter proposes a framework that leaders can use to manage their followers' emotions. This chapter then explains the key contributions to the literature and to practice, and discusses the limitations and recommends for future research areas. While the findings and implications are relevant to the science and practice of leader ER of followers, each of the findings and implications is positioned where it predominantly fits.

8.1 Implication of Differences between Leader ER Practice and Theory: Proposed Framework of Leader's Strategies to Manage Followers Emotions

Based on the discussion chapter, to manage or regulate followers' emotions a leader needs to understand certain elements to identify the correct and most effective strategy. In addition, they need to use different type of strategies to be successful in managing their followers' emotions.

Short term intermediate strategies

When an employee is experiencing a negative emotion, the leader needs to use short term intermediate strategies as proposed by Ostell (1996) and explained above. This will help the leader make the employee experience less emotional stress, allow for time to deal with the source

of the problem, and devise the right cognitive strategy. As proposed by Ostell (1996) these short term strategies include the following:

- Acknowledging the problem, indicating an understanding of how the employee is feeling.
- Showing willingness to help.
- Offering supportive information or opinions when suitable.
- Avoiding being judgmental, critical, and using UMM and CMS.
- Agreeing on provisional action until a corrective strategy is identified, or proceeding to creating one.

Person focused strategies

As explained above, person focused strategies are important when managing followers' emotions. According to Rime (2007), these types of strategies include the following:

- Appeasement, comforting, love, care, contact
- Social support and back up in action
- Understanding, recognition, social validation, social integration
- Support, esteem, reassurance

The IAR model on the other hand provides a comprehensive list of specific person focused strategies, which could be classified under the following categories:

Positive engagement strategies- problem focused. Specific strategies could include:

- Listening to the target's problems
- Allowing the target to vent his or her emotions
- Talking to the target about his or her problems
- Having a supportive conversation with the target
- Making time for the target

Positive engagement strategies- target focused. Specific strategies could include:

- Discussing positive characteristics of the target
- Blaming someone other than the target
- Reminding the target he or she has done fine in similar situations before
- Praising the target's work
- Expressing belief in the target's abilities

Relationship oriented strategies - attention - distraction. Specific strategies could include:

- Arranging a social activity for the target
- Giving the target a card signed by his or her friends
- Inviting the target on holiday
- Running a bath for the target
- Buying the target a drink

Relationship oriented strategies – humor. Specific strategies could include:

- Acting silly to make the target laugh
- Laughing with the target
- Entertaining the target
- Sending the target a funny message
- Sticking funny notes on the target's work

Relationship oriented strategies - attention - valuing. Specific strategies could include:

- Spending time with the target
- Being there for the target
- Telling the target how much you value him or her
- Making the target feel special and cared about

- Saying ‘hello’ to the target

These strategies can be applied when managing followers’ negative emotions due to both personal situations and business situations:

Cognitive change or cognitive focused strategies and discrete emotions

The leader must become aware of the dysfunctional or negative emotion that the employee is experiencing. As presented in the previous chapter, there may be different emotions including anger, fear, frustration, and sadness. Ostell (1996) explain how leaders need to manage specific emotions not just “feelings,” as each discrete emotion requires a different adaptive/corrective strategy and each one involves different thinking patterns. While Ostell presented cognitive strategies that can be used to manage the emotions of anger, anxiety, and depression, additional strategies need to be presented for managing other types of emotions including, frustration and sadness. Once leaders understand the discrete emotion that the employee is experiencing and its associated thinking pattern, he or she will be in a better position to use the correct cognitive strategy.

Situation modification or problem focused strategies and emotional stimulus

The leader needs to understand the real reason or trigger behind an emotion to develop an understanding of the context. On a high level this could be either business related or personal related. The leader needs to get a sense of this through available information and/or through talking with the employee. Once the leader understands the problem that caused the negative emotion experienced by the employee, he or she can explore whether or not there is a potential strategy that can be used to change this affective event or emotional stimulus, which is based on two factors.

The first factor is the ability to change the emotional stimulus or problem. The leader needs to assess whether changing the problem is possible given its nature. There are certain situations where the affective events cannot be changed or influenced. For example, in personal cases most emotional stimuli are outside of the leader’s ability to control or change them. Therefore, in such situations, it may be impossible to change the emotional stimulus. On the other hand, business

problems can be changed or influenced to different extents depending on the situation itself. For example, if the employee is frustrated because of a lack of recognition of his or her work, the leader may have some influence on this in some situations and not much in others (for example when a company is reducing its employee's compensation budget).

The second factor is the viability of changing the emotional stimulus or problem. The leader also needs to assess the viability or feasibility of changing the emotional stimulus or problem. While the latter can be changed or modified, there are cases where it may not be practical to do so, or it may lead to more negative consequences compared to the negative emotions experienced by the employee. Taking the example of lack of compensation, if the leader is able to provide a bonus to the employee it may make the employee feel better; yet it may also open the door for other employees to request the same otherwise other employees may feel disappointed or upset. These two factors (the ability and viability of changing emotional stimulus) have not been explored in the emerging literature of leader emotion management strategies where empirical studies focused on studying strategies used and their impact.

Factors affecting strategies usage: personal versus business situations

As noted, business situations require a different set of strategies than personal situations. The mediator in that case is the level of control over the situation. There are variations within both areas for level of control, but overall the level of control or influence on personal situations is much more limited than in business cases. Alternatively, strategies for personal cases are oriented towards reducing the intensity of the emotions experienced while business cases are focused on changing the emotional trigger and/or the changing the way the situation is viewed. Personal situations require a more personal, sensitive approach while business situations need a more practical approach. While leaders will generally be effective when dealing with business related emotional situations, for personal situations leaders need to be empathic, understanding, show support, and listen without trying to change the situation.

Nevertheless, as explained in the previous section, the effectiveness of a strategy may be subject to the usage of a different set of strategies simultaneously, which meet different needs (person focused, cognitive focused, action focused) (Rime 2007). Therefore, leaders may need to explore

what kind of strategies they can use in each of these areas. As explained in the previous sections, existing models of leader emotion management do not explicitly explain this difference and its impact on strategies selection and their effectiveness. This study shows the importance of the differentiation between these two cases and their consequences on leader emotion management practice.

8.2 Contributions to the Literature

The literature on leaders’ strategies for managing and influencing followers’ emotions is scattered in different areas and lacks an overarching view to structure this research. This study structured the literature based on motives or aim of emotion management strategy and level of focus of emotion management (self, individual follower, team, organisation), which can help researchers have better visibility and classification of this research as per below. However, this requires further attention and more research to be developed. In addition, while there has been a couple of models of leaders’ strategies for managing followers’ emotions, this study proposed a more comprehensive framework which include types of strategies that were missing in previous models based on the practice of leader emotion management.

8.2.1 Structured classification of leader EM literature

Proposed classification of motives of leader emotion strategies

Through a structured review of the literature, this study proposed classifying leader emotion management into two areas based on their motives, dysfunctional emotions regulation and functional emotion elicitation. Table 8.1 below summarizes these classifications:

Table 8.1: Leader Emotion Management Classification Based on Motive or Aim

	Leader Emotion Management	
	Dysfunctional Emotions Regulation	Functional Emotion Elicitation
Ultimate emotion aim	Regulate Negative/ Destructive/ Dysfunctional Emotions	Elicit Positive/Supportive/Functional Emotions
Approach	More reactive e.g. an employee feeling down or angry at work, and then leader would need to regulate his emotions in order to feel better.	More proactive e.g. a leader wants a team or the whole organisation to get excited about a vision
Ultimate goal	To not disrupt current work, to continue normal performance	To disrupt work in a positive way to achieve even higher performance

Leader Emotion Management		
Purpose	To maintain previous status quo by ensuring employee is ok	To change status quo (normal emotional state) by creating more excitement and positive in the team or organisation
Activity	Reduce/stop/change negative emotion	Induce/Evoke/Create positive/ functional emotions

The empirical part of this study focused on how leaders can regulate followers' dysfunctional emotions, since there is a gap in this area within the literature of leadership and emotions. This conceptual representation of the two areas demonstrates the difference between them. Furthermore, it can provide researchers with criteria to differentiate between them. The aim is ultimately to classify the research on leader emotion strategies and refine them according to their purpose.

Proposed four levels model of leader emotion management strategies

This study also proposed a four levels model of leader emotion management strategies based on the focus level within the organisation. This model is based on Ashkanasy and Humphrey (2011) who developed a multi-level model of emotions in organisations. This classification is summarized in table 8.2 below which provides a framework that can help structure the research on leader emotions management in the literature and potentially help leaders to manage emotion at different levels within organisations.

Table 8.2: Leader Emotion Management Focus Level Classification

Emotion Management Focus Level	Strategies Purpose	Areas which could help achieving emotion management
Level 4: Leader's Organisation Emotion Management	To manage or change the emotions of the whole organisation or organisation emotional climate	Charismatic Leaders/ Evoking positive emotions in organisation Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Emotional Labour (Emotion Self Regulation through Emotion Contagion)
Level 3: Leader's Group/ Team Emotion management	To manage the emotions of a team or group of people	Charismatic Leaders/ Evoking positive emotions in organisation Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Emotional Labour (Emotion Self Regulation through Emotion Contagion)
Level 2: Leader's Interpersonal Emotion management	To regulate emotion of another individual mainly followers in dyadic interactions.	Interpersonal Emotion Regulation Emotional Labour (Emotion Self Regulation through Emotion Contagion)
Level 1: Leader's	To regulate own leader own	Emotion Self regulation

Emotion Management Focus Level	Strategies Purpose	Areas which could help achieving emotion management
emotion Self Management	emotions. A leader could manage to change others emotions indirectly through emotional contagion.	

The research in each of these areas in the literature was explored and discussed, which demonstrates that there is a need for more research around all of them, as this field is still evolving.

8.2.2 Contextual factors to consider when selecting ER strategies

Emotion regulation strategies and ability to change the problem or affective event

The findings of this study show that leaders need to deal with negative emotions due to both business issues as well as personal issues. Each of these requires different types of strategies, as the ability to influence the problem that caused the emotion in the first place varies between the two. This ability to influence or change the problem also varies per case within both personal and business related issues.

Cognitive strategies

When trying to change the meaning of the situation, leaders need to address cognition, which is related to each discrete emotion. While cognitive change strategies are used widely by leaders, as shown in the discussion chapter, leaders will benefit by tailoring these strategies to the specific situation by addressing the specific thinking pattern of the discrete emotion.

Person focused strategies

This study shows that leaders do not use person-focused strategies in many cases when dealing with negative emotions due to business issues. On other hand, when managing other emotions, the literature demonstrates that person-focused strategies influence the effectiveness and results of changing the emotions (Thiel et al. 2014, Cote 2005). Therefore, leaders need to use person-focused strategies, even in conjunction with other strategies because when managing other

emotions person focused strategies meet certain needs of the person experiencing the negative emotion (Rime 2007).

8.2.3 Implication of the difference between theory and practice of ER: Comprehensive Framework for leaders ER strategies

As explained in this chapter, there are two existing models for regulating others' emotions, the first emotion regulation model, interpersonal emotional management (IEM), is based on Gross' (1998) model of emotion self-regulation and adapted for the context of leader regulation of followers' emotions by Little et al. (2012). The second model is based on Niven et al.'s (2009) interpersonal affect regulations model (IAR). While analyzing all the critical incidents, strategies used by leaders were coded according to each of these two models. The above analysis shows that business cases involved using a different set of strategies compared to personal cases. Leaders are capable of influencing business related emotional situations whereas in the case of personal situations the approach is more about valuing and showing moral and personal support to the employee. Because of this the analysis shows that each of the two models, IEM and IAR, include certain strategies that are not present in the other one, they are in certain areas and to a certain extent complementary. IEM seems to be more business focused while IAR is more personal focused. IAR for example does not include changing the situation as a strategy, while IEM does not include listening to the employee's emotional expression as a strategy. In that way, they complement each other.

Little et al. (2012) recommended exploring how interpersonal emotion regulation differs in different situations. This study shows that strategies do indeed differ significantly according to the type of case between business and personal situations as demonstrated above, as well as among situations within each of these two categories. On the other hand, the main commonality between the two models is the cognitive change strategy, which is present in both models; this strategy is used in both business and personal cases. Therefore, the critical incidents practices made it clear that each model is focused more on one aspect of changing emotions. The first (IEM) focuses on changing the situation or its meaning while the second (IAR) is focused on managing the emotional expression to change the emotion. The coding showed that IEM strategies apply much more in the business cases, while the IAR applies more in the personal

cases. Nevertheless, the two models could complement each other to provide a more comprehensive model that includes a broader set of strategies that leaders can use for managing their followers' emotions.

While comparing the two models, a starting point for the proposed potential comprehensive model could include the following strategies:

- Situation modification
- Positive engagement strategy- problem focused
- Positive engagement strategies- target focused
- Relationship oriented strategies - attention - distraction
- Relationship oriented strategies - humor
- Other attentional deployment strategies
- Relationship oriented strategies - attention - valuing
- Cognitive change

Future research should explore these sets of strategies so they can be tested, measured, and refined in order to develop a robust model that can be used by leaders at the workplace to change followers' emotions and ultimately drive performance.

8.3 Implications for Leaders

8.3.1 Understanding the practice of leader Emotion management

Leaders' views of regulating followers' emotions

The literature on emotions at work highlights the importance of changing the emotions of team members. This research confirms this and shows that leaders indeed believe that regulating negative emotions by changing them into positive ones is a key leadership task. The fact that this was highlighted in the answers of ten sales leaders, where performance can be measured by sales turnover, makes it clear that regulating negative emotions could lead to positive results.

Furthermore, the findings of this study show the importance of managing followers' emotions since, as explained in the findings and discussion chapters, for most cases where changing the negative emotion did not take place the employee ended up leaving the job.

Leaders' general practices for emotion regulation

Leaders shared some practices that are effective for managing emotions based on their experiences. Leaders need to be friendly and approachable to change their followers' emotions; they need to listen and allow their team members to vent and express their emotions and they need to coach them and reframe the meaning of the situation. As some leaders stated, since this is a process leaders need to be patient when dealing with their followers' emotions. Leaders must also ensure that there is a fit between job and the employee. Some leaders explained how to effectively deal with negative emotions, which are due to personal conflicts, where they noted that it is essential to face the people involved in the conflict, to share their perspective about the issue on hand, and then solve it.

This study explained how leaders felt that managing personal situations requires a special approach that involves asking questions to get to know the issue and truly listening to the employee, so that the employee can open up. Things that will make the employee feel appreciated and trust the leader include, giving them advice from leader's own personal experience, giving the employee time to recover, and providing special treatment to reduce the negative emotions experienced.

8.3.2 Factors influencing strategies effectiveness

This study shows that managing emotions due to personal situations are subject to openness from the employee's side and that when leaders do not take steps to influence the emotion, employees end up leaving. To manage their followers' emotions effectively, leaders need to have knowledge and skills about the different sets of strategies available to them and they need to develop these as they would any other skill since this ability is key for managing followers and ultimately their job performance.

On the other hand, when the emotions are too extreme the leader is not in a position to influence these. For business related cases, one potential interpretation of the findings is that leaders need

to use more than one strategy simultaneously to address different needs and ensure successful emotion change.

8.3.3 Proposed Framework for Leaders to Manage Followers Emotions

Based on the above findings and analysis, this study showed that the each of two existing emotion regulation strategies of others (IAR and IEM), when applied to how leaders could manage followers' emotions, are not comprehensive enough and include the key categories of strategies that need to be used. Therefore, this study proposed a more comprehensive framework of strategies that leaders can apply. This framework includes using short-term strategies, person focused strategies, emotion specific cognitive strategies, and situation modification strategies.

- **Short-term strategies** - Through these strategies leaders acknowledge the problem, show understanding, express willingness to help, offer advice or useful information, and other approaches, and later proceed to managing the emotion.
- **Person-focused strategies** - As explained above, leaders need to use person-focused strategies when dealing with employees' negative emotions. The discussion chapter explained the range of person-focused strategies that leaders can use based on the literature.
- **Cognitive strategies:** while leaders can change the meaning the employee has about the problem, each negative emotion involves different thinking patterns and may require different strategies. Ostell (1996) provided strategies that leaders can use for managing the negative emotions of anger, depression, and anxiety.
- **Situation modification strategies:** as explained above leaders are capable of changing or influencing certain situations, yet they are not in a position to do so for others. This depends on the ability to change the emotional stimulus or problem.

Together short-term strategies, person-focused strategies, cognitive strategies, and situation modification strategies provide a toolkit for the leader to effectively manage followers' negative or dysfunctional emotions.

8.4 Limitations

This research explored leaders' practices of managing followers' emotions through semi structured interviews and by using the critical incident technique; however, like any study it is subject to constraints and limitations.

Case study

This research used one company as a case study to explore leaders' strategies for regulating followers' emotions. This method helps by providing an in depth exploration of what leaders use as strategies to manage followers' emotions, and it is a suitable method for generating answers to why, what, and how questions related to this phenomenon (Saunders et al. 2009). There may be some company specifics or industry specifics that require the leader to face certain type of situations or affective events more often, compared to others in different companies or industries. For example, working in the logistics industry means that employees frequently face issues and experience negative emotions due to service failure in other countries or branches. Nevertheless, most of the critical incidents covered in this study could take place in other companies or industries, like feeling frustrated from a lack of promotion or feeling upset due to customers' threats. Therefore, while this research is based on the case study method its findings could be representative of the challenges leaders face in terms of followers' negative emotions and the strategies that are used in the sales context.

Recall of specifics in critical incidents

One of the limitations of this study is the fact that leaders may remember only recent or major critical incidents and many of the critical incidents that leaders mentioned took place many years ago. This may cause some issues remembering all the elements of the incidents, even though all CI questions were asked to capture as many elements as possible. For example the following areas were explored: What was the affective event? What did the leader do about it? And what was the result?

Discrete emotions

While leaders did label and describe each affective events and the employees' feelings as frustrated, worried, depressed and other emotions these descriptions were subjective.

Nevertheless, coding of the emotions into the main categories of fear, anger, sadness, and frustration reduced the subjectivity of the discrete emotion descriptions.

8.5 Future Research

Exploring Coaching practice for ER

While this study focused on the emerging science and practice of leader strategies to manage followers' emotions, it didn't explore the emerging field of leader as coach and the coaching strategies and tactics which could help leaders manage followers' dysfunctional emotions. One key leader is that the leader as a coach literature does not focus specifically on managing negative emotion. Nevertheless, this literature could enrich and fill some gaps in the area of leader ER strategies. Collins (n. d.), for example, explains how there are some key elements that leaders must ensure for effective coaching which include active listening, empathy, rapport, openness and trust, and space and time to think through incisive questioning. Exploring these strategies as well as other coaching strategies in the coaching literature can definitely enrich the emerging field of leader ER of their followers.

Practice of leader's strategies for managing followers' dysfunctional emotions

Future research should explore how leaders can manage and change their followers' emotions on strategic and tactical levels. As shown in the literature review chapter 3, most studies have explored this concept using quantitative methods to investigate the effectiveness of emotion regulation strategies. Nevertheless, there is a need to develop a better understanding and more frameworks around what leaders can actually do to change followers' emotions. While Ostell's (1996) model of managing dysfunctional emotions provides a good understanding of the strategies used to manage emotions, it is still a conceptual paper. This current study is an example of this exploration to understand how leaders' emotional regulation happens in a real working environment. Ultimately, leaders and managers are in need of a better understanding of what tools they can use to change or regulate emotions. In addition, studies should explore different contexts for emotion regulation. While certain strategies may be more effective than others they may differ per situation.

Positive versus negative affect

Lindebaum and Jordan (2012) note that both positive and negative emotions can have positive and negative consequences and recommend that researchers ask questions about this impact. They note that negative emotions like anger can lead to positive outcomes and positive emotions like pride can lead to negative outcomes, such as perception of arrogance by followers to leaders. Another example is extreme happiness, which could lead to work distractions.

Pescosolido (2002) also notes that, not only are positive emotions needed to elicit high performance, but negative emotions could also have a positive impact and are therefore worth scientific investigation. Visser et al. (2013) for example show that, while the research on emotional displays of leaders propose that positive emotion is important, this differs per task. Their findings explain how negative emotional displays lead to improved performance in analytical tasks while positive emotional displays lead to improved performance in creative tasks. Therefore, further research in this area could help leaders differentiate between cases where they need to regulate the negative emotions and cases where such emotions could help the employee and the organisation achieve their goals.

Leader strategies as seen by followers

While this study explored the leaders' practices for managing followers' emotions through the leaders' lenses by asking them about it, future research could benefit from looking at this phenomenon from the followers' perspectives. Researchers could look into what employees say about what leaders use as strategies in different situations and how they are used. This may provide other insights into most effective strategies per context. Future studies should also explore the application of recent research from the counseling and psychology fields on managing others' emotions in the context of leader emotion regulation of followers.

8.6 Conclusion

This study explained the importance of emotion regulation in general and for sales, and then explored the field of emotion and leadership by reviewing two of the most researched concepts within these two fields, EI and TL, both of which include managing or influencing others emotions. It summarized the research in this area and then investigated one key factor of EI, which is emotion regulation or emotion management and reviewed the literature on this area and

its application to leadership. It showed that in contrast to the study of correlation between EI and TL which is saturated, there is lack of research in the area of leader ER of followers.

Since this field is still evolving, it is not structured to differentiate between different areas of research; therefore, this study proposed two classifications of emotion management research. The first focuses on the aim or purpose of managing the emotion, suggesting two key aims: regulating dysfunctional emotion and eliciting positive emotions. The second focuses on the different levels within the organisation and whether the strategy is aimed at an individual, team, group, or the whole organisation. It then explained how many of these areas are still evolving in the literature, while there is a big gap in the regulation of dysfunctional emotions in the individual cases i.e. leaders' strategies for managing followers' emotions on an individual basis.

The qualitative study explored leaders' practices of regulating followers' dysfunctional emotions by investigating the affective events, discrete emotions, and the type of strategies used for this purpose. These were then analyzed and compared to existing models of emotion regulation strategies. Based on this study, a comprehensive set of strategies and recommendations were presented that could help leaders regulate and deal with negative or dysfunctional emotions.

In short, this study answered the following key questions. First, how leaders view the importance, limitations and the overall practice of leader ER. Second, how leaders actually manage their followers' emotions by getting understanding of the approaches they use through critical incident techniques. Third, it explained how the ability to influence affective events impacts the selection and effectiveness of ER strategies and how leaders need to manage not only business related dysfunctional emotions but also those due to personal situations too, where their influence on changing the emotional stimulus is very limited. Fourth, by comparing the practice and theory of leader ER, this study showed existing models do miss certain strategies and then proposed comprehensive strategies which leaders could use to manage effectively their followers' emotions.

Since this is an emerging field and the practice of leader ER of followers hasn't been explored through qualitative method to understand the influence of context on ER strategies, this study

could be considered as a stepping-stone towards organisation and clarity of the leader ER of followers' field. However, further studies are needed still to develop this area as it could help leaders to effectively manage emotions at the workplace and consequently drive performance.

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Appendix I: Research Protocol

<p>Research Objective</p>	<p>This research aimed to contribute to the literature and practice by exploring and investigating the practice of leaders’ strategies for managing followers’ emotions and comparing it with the emerging theory of emotion regulations. It aimed to develop a greater understanding of the practice of emotional management strategies, and determine if/how the selection of these could be influenced by different affective events or emotional stimulus and any other contextual factors</p>
<p>Research Questions</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. How do leaders view the importance and limitation of managing followers’ emotions and how do they explain its overall approach? 2. How do contextual factors like affective events and discrete emotions that leaders face when dealing with followers’ emotions impact ER strategies? 3. How do leaders actually manage and regulate their followers’ emotions? 4. How do leaders’ actual strategies used compare to existing ER theory? And what are the implications of potential differences on both the practice and theory of leader ER? 5. What insights could be gained from the practice of leader ER about ER strategies effectiveness?
<p>Participants</p>	<p>The interviewees consisted of 32 sales leaders who had experience leading sales teams that had direct contact with customers. Other leaders of sales teams who were not responsible for selling to customers or who were not accountable for sales targets with customers were not included in this research. This is because sales employees’ emotions are critical for interacting with customers.</p> <p>Recruiting the interviewees was achieved through the professional connections of the author’s position, by targeting all executives who lead sales teams and whose team members had direct contact with customers</p>

<p>Design</p>	<p>As per the research objectives and questions, since this study was explanatory in nature, qualitative methods were used to explore the practice of leaders’ strategies to manage followers’ emotions. The research methods adopted a case study strategy focusing on a global logistics company as a case using semi structured interviews and critical incident techniques. These methods helped obtain insight about the contextual factors influencing leader emotion regulation strategies.</p>
<p>Procedure</p>	<p>Each of the in depth interviews followed the same format. Whenever possible, interviews were conducted face-to-face with the respondent and took place in the respondent’s own office. Other interviews were conducted over the phone or through Skype due to long distance. The interviews were arranged to be approximately one hour in length. They started with introductions and a brief explanation of the research project. The interview language was kept neutral and jargon-free. To illustrate, instead of using the term ‘ER strategies the interviewer referred to ‘ways to change employee emotions’.</p> <p>To be qualified and included in this study, a CI was any situation or experience that a leader faced where one of his employees had a negative emotion and the leader tried to change it or influence it. In particular it had to include the following key elements:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emotional stimulus or affective event • What the leader said he or she did to change the emotion • ER strategy impact or result <p>If a CI did not include any of the above factors, it was not included in this study.</p> <p>Interview Structure</p> <p>Introduction: Interviewer started with research background and objectives</p> <p>Sales Leader Experience (years of experience, number of people led on</p>

average)

Critical Incidents: situations where a leader had a salesperson experiencing a negative emotion and tried to change it

- Situation description (emotion, affective events)
- Approach used to change it
- Result

Data Analysis

Data analysis was completed as soon as possible after the interviews. NVivo data management software was used to store data and analysis was undertaken using this tool to facilitate the coding. Coding was based on two approaches. The first was a provisional list based on the theory and a list of questions (deductive), while the second was the codes that emerged from the data (inductive). Code checking was completed by an independent coder who was blind to the original codes. After the second coding was completed, a session to review and compare the coding between the two coders was conducted. During this session, both coders explained their rationale behind the discrepancies to reach agreement. In the case of opened discrepancies, the author's initial coding was used.