

Charisma, positive emotions and mood contagion

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Abstract

In a series of studies, we examine the role of positive emotions in the charismatic leadership process. In Studies 1 and 2, ratings of charisma in a natural work setting were linked to leaders' positive emotional expressions. In Study 3, leaders' positive emotional expressions were linked to mood states of simulated followers. Results suggest that mood contagion may be one of the psychological mechanisms by which charismatic leaders influence followers. In Study 4, we used a trained actor and manipulated leaders' positive emotional expressions to isolate the effects of positive emotions from the potential effects of non-emotional aspects of effective leadership (e.g., vision, other inspirational influence processes). A positive link between leader emotions and follower mood was found. Results also indicate that both leaders' positive emotional expressions and follower mood influenced ratings of leader effectiveness and attraction to the leader.

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1. Charisma, positive emotions, and mood contagion

Along with the growing attention devoted to emotions and emotional processes by psychologists in recent years, there has been a great deal of interest in the experience, expression, and management of emotions, mood, and affect at work (Ashkanasy, Haertel & Zerbe, 2000; Lord, Klimoski, & Kanfer, 2002; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1987). Theory and research on emotions at work include topics such the role of mood and emotions in predicting pro-social organizational behaviors (George & Brief, 1992), emotional contagion in work groups (Barsade, 2002; Totterdell, 2000), emotional intelligence (Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998), and emotional labor (Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000). Furthermore, the emergent positive psychology (e.g., Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) and positive organizational scholarship (Cameron & Caza, 2004; Cameron, Dutton & Quinn, 2003) movements focus specifically on positive emotional experiences and their implications for organizations.

This interest in emotions has extended to the leadership domain, as evidenced by a special issue of *Leadership Quarterly* (volume 13, issue 5, 2002) devoted to the topic of emotions and leadership, and a growing body of research on neo-charismatic theories of leadership (House & Aditya, 1997), which focuses both on leaders' expression of emotions and emotional links forged between leaders and their followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Bass (1985)

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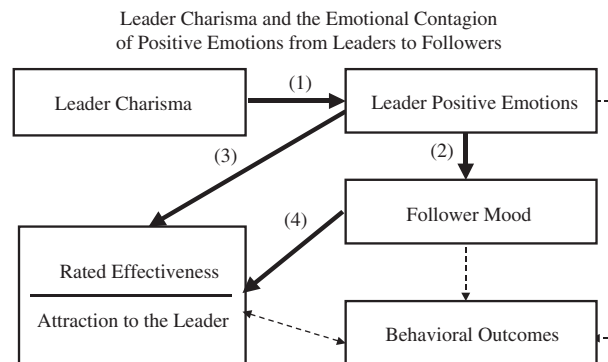
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notes that transformational leadership “has an intense emotional component” (p. 36), and Shamir, House, & Arthur (1993) highlight effects such as “emotional attachment to the leader,” and “emotional and motivational arousal of followers (p. 577).” Fredrickson (2003) suggests that, in organizations, the positive emotions expressed by leaders may be especially contagious due to their position in the power hierarchy. Indeed, recent research by Sy, Côté, & Saavedra (2005) found a link between leaders’ moods, the moods of their work group members, affective tone of the group, and dimensions of group performance.

Given the importance of positive emotions for employee and organizational outcomes such as motivation (Erez & Isen, 2002), creativity, (e.g., George, 1991, 1995, 1996; Spector & Fox, 2002), task performance (see Ashby, Isen, & Turken, 1999 for a review), and subjective well-being (e.g., Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2003), our primary goal in this article was to examine the effects of leaders’ positive emotional expressions on the emotional and attitudinal responses of their followers for the purpose of gaining insight into the way that charismatic leaders—whether consciously or non-consciously—use emotion to influence followers. Specifically, we suggest that charismatic leaders express positive emotions, which are transferred to followers, resulting in the experience of positive mood by followers. Fig. 1 presents an overview of the key emotional links between charismatic leaders and their followers. First, we examine the association between charismatic leadership to the expression of positive emotions. Second, we link leaders’ emotional expressions to followers’ moods. Third, we link leaders’ emotional expressions to ratings of effectiveness and followers’ attraction to the leader. Fourth, we isolate leaders’ emotional expressions from other potentially effective characteristics or behaviors of charismatic leaders (e.g., having a compelling vision) in a controlled experimental setting.

Brief & Weiss (2002; p. 289) note “the organizational literature is populated with many more ideas about the leader’s role in the production of moods and emotions than it is with relevant data.” Recent studies (e.g., Barsade, 2002; Sy et al., 2005; Totterdell, 2000) make steps toward providing such data by examining the mood contagion process in work groups; each documenting the spread of emotions from leaders to followers and among group members. However, because these studies either manipulated the expression of positive emotions (by using a confederate; Barsade, 2002, Sy et al., 2005) or did not consider the role of formal leaders (Barsade, 2002; Totterdell, 2000), we cannot be certain that a) effective leaders in work organizations actually do express more positive emotions than less effective leaders, and b) that positive emotions expressions—and not other leadership behaviors—affect follower moods. Indeed, it is plausible that leaders who are in a positive mood actually engage in more effective leadership behaviors and it may be these ancillary leadership behaviors and not the process of mood transfer that leads to both positive follower mood and performance gains.

Our aim in this research is to bridge the gap between the realism of field research on leadership with the methodological rigor of experimental research in the laboratory. Hence, a key contribution of these studies is that they explore empirical links between follower ratings of charisma obtained in a natural work setting and independent observations of leadership behavior, such as the expression of positive emotions. Furthermore, in a controlled laboratory setting (Study 4), we attempt to isolate the effects of positive emotions from other potential (non-emotional) influences.



Note: The dotted lines refer to relationships that have been supported in the literature but are not tested in these studies.

Fig. 1. Leadership charisma and the mood contagion of positive emotions from leaders to followers. *Note:* The dotted lines refer to relationships that have been supported in the literature but are not tested in these studies.

1.1. Charismatic leadership in work organizations

In the past decade, the bulk of leadership research has focused on transformational and charismatic leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). In sharp contrast to the rational nature of the transactional leadership paradigm of the 1960s and 1970s (Bass, 1990), transformational and charismatic leadership theories (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House, 1977) recognize the affective and emotional needs and responses of followers, placing more emphasis on the emotional, inspirational, and symbolic aspects of leadership influence (Shamir et al., 1993; Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Attempts to integrate the multiple theories of transformational and charismatic leadership reveal many commonalities, including leader vision and a charismatic communication style (House & Shamir, 1993; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). In this manuscript we use the term charisma broadly, encompassing both charismatic leadership theory and the charismatic component of transformational leadership (i.e., idealized influence and inspirational motivation).

Empirical associations between follower ratings of charisma and employee satisfaction with leadership, perceived leader effectiveness, and performance have consistently been found (see meta-analysis by Fuller, Patterson, Hester, & Stringer, 1996). More recently, Judge & Piccolo (2004) conducted a meta-analysis linking transformational leadership (including the charismatic dimensions) to follower job satisfaction, follower motivation, and more importantly to independently assessed group and organizational level performance. Individual studies have linked charismatic leadership behaviors to employee cooperation and perceptions of justice (De Cremer & van Knippenberg, 2002), performance on creative tasks (Bono & Judge, 2003; Sosik, Kahai, & Avolio, 1999), intrinsic motivation (Bono & Judge, 2003), and trust (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

1.2. Charismatic leadership and positive emotions

Our proposition that positive emotions play a role in the charismatic leadership process is suggested by an extensive literature linking positive affect to the same outcomes achieved by charismatic leaders (e.g., cooperation, task performance, motivation, creativity). First, Isen and colleagues have demonstrated that positive affect is associated with task performance, particularly on creative tasks (see Isen, 2004 for a review), though these effects are not universal, as George & Zhou (2002) demonstrated that under certain conditions positive mood was negatively associated with creativity. Other studies linked group affective tone (i.e., positive group mood) to group effort and coordination (Sy et al., 2005), improved cooperation and decreased conflict among group members (Barsade, 2002), and subjective assessments of performance (Totterdell, 2000). Frederickson's (2003) broaden-and-build theory posits that positive emotions broaden the relationship between thought and action, leading to increased novelty and exploration of ideas on the part of employees who experience them.

Second, positive affect (and charismatic leadership) influences motivation and effort. Conger & Kanungo (1998) argue that leaders who are able to elicit emotional responses from their employees are more likely to achieve desired changes. Presumably, this is because emotional arousal has motivational properties in that it energizes employees and increases resource availability (e.g., Kanfer & Ackerman, 1989), leading to increased levels of effort. Additional research revealed a positive relationship between 'energetic arousal' and task performance (e.g., Matthews, Davies, & Lees, 1990). Erez & Isen (2002) and Ilies & Judge (2005) directly investigated the links between positive affect and motivation. Erez & Isen (2002) found that individuals in a positive mood were more likely to believe that their efforts would lead to performance (i.e., increased expectancy motivation) and that performance would lead to rewards (i.e., increased instrumentality; Vroom, 1964). Ilies & Judge (2005) found that individuals set higher goals when they experienced positive affect.

Third, both charismatic leadership and positive affect have been linked to employee cooperation or contextual performance (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). George & Brief (1992) proposed that positive mood at work has a central role in determining positive spontaneous behaviors at work (e.g., such as helping others), and Spector & Fox's (2002) model of voluntary behaviors links positive emotions to citizenship behavior. Finally, followers' experiences of positive emotions have been shown to influence job satisfaction (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & de Charmont, 2003), citizenship behaviors at work (Ilies, Scott, & Judge, *in press*) and subjective well-being (Diener et al., 2003).

In sum, existing theory and research support the position that inducing or facilitating the experience of positive mood in employees results in many of the types of behavioral outcomes associated with charismatic leadership, suggesting positive emotions and mood contagion as one of the basic psychological processes linking charismatic leadership with outcomes

such as follower satisfaction, motivation, cooperation, and performance. Leadership theory suggests that one of the ways charismatic leaders influence followers is by painting a positive, optimistic view of the future (Bass, 1985). Ashkanasy & Tse (2000; p. 226) suggest that charismatic leaders have a “positively biased cognitive schema,” leading them to attend to, interpret, and integrate information in positive ways and Spreitzer & Quinn (1996) found that transformational leaders tend to have positive feelings toward their environment. Yet, surprisingly little is actually known about charismatic leaders’ expressions of positive emotions. Whereas Conger (1989) describes the speech of charismatic leaders as energetic, exciting, and emotional, most empirical analyses devoted to the language of charisma have focused on rhetorical techniques such as imagery (Emrich, Brower, Feldman, & Garland, 2001), analogy, metaphor, and stories (Conger, 1991), rather than on leaders’ emotional expressions.

Research on leader personality also provides reason to believe that positive emotions may be associated with effective leadership. In the early 1900s, scholars found evidence of a relationship between “a happy, cheerful disposition” and leadership (Bass, 1990). More recently, Judge & Bono (2000) found an association between extraversion and transformational leadership, a finding that was replicated by Ployhart, Lim, & Chan (2001). In addition, a meta-analysis of the Big Five personality traits revealed that extraversion was positively linked to charisma (Bono & Judge, 2004). According to Watson & Clark (1997), one hallmark of extraverts is their positive emotionality—the experience and expression of positive emotions. For these reasons, we expect that

H1. Individuals who are rated high on charismatic leadership will express more positive emotions.

Although our focus is clearly on positive emotions, we would be remiss in not pointing out that negative emotions also play a role in effective leadership. Because negative emotions have a stronger and longer lasting effect than positive emotions and events (Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Finkenauer, & Vohs, 2001; Miner, Glomb, & Hulin, *in press*), they represent a powerful tool for leaders. Research on public leaders also indicated that leaders’ negative facial displays were perceived by observers to be more honest, credible, and trustworthy than were positive emotional displays (Bucy, 2000). Furthermore, even the most positive or charismatic leaders may use negative emotions (e.g., anger towards outgroup members) to energize followers, especially during times of threat. Thus, although the focus of the present research is on positive emotions, it is clear that negative emotions also play an important role in the leadership influence process.

1.3. Positive emotional transference: mood contagion from leaders to followers

The notion that leaders influence individual and group emotions is not a new one. In 1942, Redl concluded that emotions exist in groups and that group leaders influence these emotions. Similarly, George (1996) suggests that leader positivity will influence group affective tone, and Sy et al. (2005) directly linked leader and follower mood. One avenue through which such influences may occur is through the process of emotional contagion (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). Emotional contagion refers to the process by which the emotions expressed by one individual are “caught” by another. Hatfield et al. (1994) suggest that this occurs because people tend to synchronize and mimic the facial expressions, movements, and posture of those they interact with, leading them to experience the emotions of the other person. Neumann & Strack (2000) argue that when individuals are not aware they are being influenced by another’s emotions, the term mood contagion is more appropriate.

Some individuals—those who are extraverted, possess a rich emotional language, and have expressive faces—are more powerful senders of emotions (Buck, Miller, & Caul, 1974). Friedman & Riggio (1981) found that extraverts and charismatic individuals are more likely to be able to infect others with their emotions, presumably because they are more engaging and tend to be more emotionally expressive. Similarly, Cherulnik, Donley, Wiewel, & Miller (2001) demonstrated that facial expressions (e.g., smiles) of leaders were mimicked by their observers, but only for charismatic leaders. A characteristic associated with being a strong sender of emotions is that the sender must experience strong emotions (Hatfield et al., 1994). This is a characteristic of individuals who score high on the personality trait of Openness to Experience, which has also been associated with charisma (Judge & Bono, 2000). Individuals high on Openness to Experience “experience both positive and negative emotions more keenly” than do individuals who score low on the trait (Costa & McCrae, 1992, p. 15).

In a study of emotional convergence between dating partners, Anderson, Keltner, & John (2003) examined the reciprocal effects of partners’ emotions and found that partners with more power influenced the emotions of the less powerful partner, but the reverse was not true. This finding suggests that emotions are more likely to flow from leader to follower, rather than the reverse. For these reasons, we expect

H2. Leaders' expressed positive emotions will have a positive influence on followers' mood states.

1.4. Positive emotions and ratings of leader effectiveness and attraction to the leader

The relationship between charismatic leadership and the expression of positive emotions may lend insight into followers' attraction to such leaders and their effectiveness. There are two distinct theoretical explanations for the links between leaders' positive emotional expressions and follower attraction and ratings of effectiveness. The first is based on an associative network model of affect and cognition (mood-congruency, Bower, 1981; or affect infusion, Forgas & George, 2001). The basic idea behind these theories is that emotions pose a structure on memory. Thus, when individuals feel a certain emotion (e.g., joy), memories and judgments consistent with that emotion are stimulated. Applied to leadership, this suggests that when leaders express positive emotions, followers will feel more positive (through mood contagion), and will be likely to make more positive evaluations of the leader.

Second, basic mood theorists (e.g., Thayer, 1996) have long maintained that mood has motivational properties, in that people are motivated to engage in activities that are likely to result in positive affective states. With respect to positive emotions, mood-management theory suggests that people experiencing positive affective states will be motivated to engage in behaviors and cognitions that have the highest potential for maintaining their positive affective state. Linking this to leadership, one might expect that followers would prefer to work with leaders who express positive emotions more often or more intensely because they transmit their positivity to the followers who thus can maintain their own positive mood.

In sum, given the two conceptual arguments discussed above, we predict that

H3a. Leaders' positive emotional expression will positively predict follower perceptions of leaders' effectiveness.

H3b. Followers' own emotional states will predict their perceptions of leaders' effectiveness, such that followers who experience more positive emotions will rate leaders as more effective.

In order to better understand the role of affect, emotions, and mood contagion in the charismatic leadership process, we conducted four studies designed to address these questions: Do managers who receive high ratings on charismatic leadership in a natural work context express more positive emotions than less charismatic managers? If so, do the positive emotional expressions of charismatic leaders influence the mood of followers; is there a mood contagion effect? Do leaders' emotional expressions and followers' mood affect attraction to the leader and perceptions of leader effectiveness?

2. Study 1

The purpose of Study 1 was to examine the role of positive emotional expressions in charismatic leadership. Specifically, do managers who receive high ratings on charismatic leadership in a natural work context actually use more positive emotions in their communications? Our purpose was to explicitly link ratings of charisma to independently measured expressions of positive emotions, by examining the content of leaders' written visions for their work group.

2.1. Method

2.1.1. Participants and procedures

Participants in this study were enrolled in community leadership programs in Pennsylvania, Texas, California, and British Columbia. They were employed by local organizations, including business, government, and private non-profits. Participants in community leadership programs are selected from a pool of individuals nominated by their employers as leaders or future leaders of their community. Data for this study were collected as part of the leadership development portion of the community leadership program.

At the beginning of the program, survey packets were distributed to 326 community leadership participants. Individuals who did not have direct reports were asked not to complete the surveys. Program administrators estimated that about 20% of participants did not have direct reports. Packets included a survey for the participant (leader) and three people who reported to the leader (followers). Leader surveys asked participants to write their vision for their work group and respond to a few demographic items. Follower surveys included a measure of the leader's charisma. Leaders were asked to

distribute the follower surveys to the three direct reports with whom they worked most closely. Surveys were returned to the authors in postage paid envelopes.

Responses were received from 130 leaders, representing a response rate of approximately 50% of eligible participants, and about 319 of their followers. However, 27 of leaders who responded had unusable vision statements (e.g., illegible or a taken directly from a published company vision statement). Therefore, the final number of participant in this study is 103. Participants were, on average, 42 years old, well educated (ninety percent had a bachelors degree or higher), and slightly more likely to be female (56%) than male. In general, they were middle managers with two levels above them and four below them in the organizational hierarchy. The target leaders were employed by organizations of all sizes, with 46% from organizations with fewer than 100 employees and 15% from organizations with over 5000 employees. The number of individuals who reported to each leader ranged from one to 80 with a mean of ten and a mode of three. On average, the direct reports had worked for the target leader for 4.5 years.

2.1.2. Measures

2.1.2.1. Charisma. Charismatic leadership was measured with 12-items from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-Form 5X), a widely used measure of transformational and charismatic leadership. This measure has been found to be valid and reliable (Kirnan & Snyder, 1995). A recent large-scale study (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999) demonstrates that two MLQ dimensions (idealized influence and inspirational motivation) can be combined to form a measure of charisma. We used a scale anchored by 1 = Not at all to 5 = Frequently, if not always. Items were averaged to form scale scores for each dimension (idealized influence—8 items and inspirational motivation—4 items) and then averaged to form a charisma score from each observer's report. We then aggregated the multiple observer scores (average $N=3$) to form a single charisma score for each leader. This provides a more reliable measure of charisma and was justified by a significant ICC-1 value, and an ICC-2 value of .67, which is similar to those found in past research using such aggregation procedures (e.g., Brett & Atwater, 2001; Judge & Bono, 2000).

2.1.2.2. Leader emotional expressions. Leaders were asked to state their vision for their work group. We prompted leaders to think of their vision as a set of “core principles, beliefs, and goals that guide behavior.” They were explicitly asked to write down their own vision for the work group they supervised and not the vision of their organization. For each leader we transcribed the text, exactly as written by the leader, to electronic form (Word document). We then used Linguistic Inquiry Word Count (LIWC; Pennebaker, Francis, & Booth, 2001) to assess the extent to which the leaders expressed positive emotions in the vision. LIWC includes a dictionary of 261 positive emotion words (e.g., happy, pretty, good). The program counts the number of words that appear on the positive emotion list and computes emotional content as a percentage of total words. The LIWC dictionary was developed and subsequently validated by having judges rate the emotional content of hundreds of text files, comparing their results to those of the computer program (Pennebaker & King, 1999).

2.2. Results

Table 1 presents means and standard deviations, reliability statistics for transformational leadership and positive emotions, and the correlations between them. Results indicate a significant association ($r=.23$, $p<.05$) between observers' reports of the leader charisma and leaders' use of positive emotion words in their vision statements.

Table 1
Study 1 results

Variable	Mean	SD	α	ICC-1	ICC-2	r
Charisma	4.04	.60	.91	.37	.67	
Positive emotions expressed	.24	.24	–	–	–	.23*

Notes. $N=103$. α =internal consistency reliability. ICC-1=intraclass correlation at individual level. ICC-2=intraclass correlation at group level. r =correlation between charisma and positive emotional expression; * $p<.05$.

2.3. Brief discussion

Results of Study 1 provide support for the notion that charismatic leadership is linked to the expression of positive emotions. Indeed, Study 1 is a rigorous test of this link as we had only one, short, writing sample (the leader's vision statement) and words are only one way that individuals express emotions. However, Study 1 is also limited in that we relied solely on words and did not consider other important ways in which emotions are expressed and communicated, such as voice tone and facial and body gestures. Thus, the purpose of Study 2 was to further examine the link between ratings of charisma and leaders' emotional expressions using a richer source of data. In Study 2, we link charismatic leadership ratings to expressions of positive emotions in a set of videotaped speeches, allowing us to observe both verbal and non-verbal expressions of positive emotions in context. In Study 2, we also link leaders' emotional expression to ratings of effectiveness.

3. Study 2

3.1. Method

3.1.1. Participants and procedures

The focal participants in this study were 71 students enrolled in a Leadership and Personal Development course that was part of an evening, off-campus MBA program at a large Midwestern University. On average, students in this program are 31 years old, with seven years of work experience; most (95%) are employed full time.

Prior to the start of the course, participants (hereinafter referred to as participant-leaders) received a survey packet and instructions from the instructor by mail. They were asked to obtain ratings of their leadership behaviors from six individuals who had the opportunity to observe them in a leadership position (e.g., direct reports if available or work colleagues). Six surveys and postage paid return envelopes were included. Participant-leaders were also asked to prepare a 3–5 minute presentation for the first day of class, in response to a brief business scenario (see Appendix A), which described the merger of a (hypothetical) small local employer with a large national computer services organization. This merger provided a number of advancement opportunities and participant leaders were asked to play the role of one of four managers being considered for a desirable local management position. In their presentation, participant leaders were asked to convince an audience of peers and potential future employees that they were the best person for this management position.

On the first day of class—prior to introductions or any discussion of course content—each participant-leader made a presentation to the class. The speech was videotaped, with the participant-leaders' permission, for use as a learning tool throughout the course. All 100 students in the course agreed to be videotaped. At the end of the course 71 students gave the instructor (the first author) permission to use their videotape for this study. These speeches were subsequently coded for the expression of positive emotions by 34 raters (participant-raters) and rated on effectiveness and attraction to the leader by 430 simulated followers (participant-followers).

3.1.2. Measures

3.1.2.1. Charisma. Charisma was measured with the same instrument described in Study 1. Once again, we formed a composite score for each individual who completed a survey (average of 5.6 surveys per participant) and then aggregated these multiple reports to form a single charisma score for each participant-leader. Aggregation is justified based on a significant ICC-1 value and an ICC-2 value of .74.

3.1.2.2. Leader emotional expressions. There is considerable evidence that emotions are expressed and can be reliably coded from facial expressions and physical movements (Ekman, 1973; Lang, Greenwalk, Bradley, & Hamm, 1993). Therefore, we measured participant leaders' expression of positive emotions by having multiple trained undergraduate student raters observe each videotape and then assess the extent to which positive emotions were expressed by the leader in the videotaped speech. We asked participant-raters to indicate the extent to which each of ten positive emotion terms (PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988) were expressed in the speech, using all available verbal and non-verbal cues. Although the PANAS scales were not designed to measure expressed emotions, the adjectives included in the PA scale (e.g., happy and excited) correspond to some of the most widely studied positive discrete emotions (Watson, 2000). The PA and NA constructs are believed to provide a basic structure for measuring affect (Watson & Tellegen, 1985) and have

demonstrated high reliability (Watson et al., 1988; Watson & Clark, 1994). Furthermore, in training the participant raters, we emphasized the notion that raters were recording their observations of the verbal and non-verbal expressions of the person in the tape, not their own emotions or affective responses. Raters responded using a seven point scale anchored by 1 = “Very strongly disagree” and 7 = “Very strongly agree.”

We randomized the order of presentation of the 71 videotapes, repeating them four times to control for the effects of presentation order and to control for any possible effects of comparison to the speech immediately preceding the one being rated. Raters watched one speech, rated each of 10 positive emotion terms, and then watched a second speech, repeating the process until they had watched a total of 12 tapes and made 12 ratings. In total, 34 student raters (15 men, 18 women, and 1 sex unknown) provided a total of 337 ratings. Positive emotion ratings were provided by an average of 5 raters per leader.

Similar to our procedures with leadership ratings, we combined raters’ responses to the positive emotion terms into a single composite score representing each participant-leader’s expression of positive emotions. Once again, aggregation is justified based on a significant ICC-1 and an ICC-2 of .68.

3.1.2.3. Effectiveness. We assessed effectiveness of the speeches and attraction to the participant-leader by having 430 undergraduate management students (participant-followers) at a large Southeastern University watch the speeches. To provide background and context, the business scenario was read to the participant-followers, who were asked to view the tapes as if they were employees. They were told they would be rank ordering the four candidates for the leadership position and were encouraged to take notes to help them decide which participant-leader they would most prefer to work for. Each follower watched four tapes. To assess the effectiveness of the presentation, we asked participant followers to respond to three statements immediately after watching the presentation. Items were “This leader made an effective presentation,” “I did not find this leader’s presentation to be effective” (reverse scored), and “This was a high quality presentation.” Responses were on a scale anchored by 1 = “Very strongly disagree” to 7 = “Very strongly agree.”

Our second measure of effectiveness asked participant-followers to rank order the candidates for the new management position. Raters ranked the speeches by responding to the following two statements: (1) “In my role as a worker in this company, I would vote for the following leader,” and (2) “If you could not have your first choice, which leader would be second, third, and last.” Thus, a low score for rank indicates the most preferred leader.

The effectiveness rating and the ranking (reverse scored) were highly correlated ($r = .95$) and were standardized and combined to form an effectiveness score for each participant leader. In total, 430 participant-followers provided effectiveness ratings and rankings for each of four speeches for a total of 1720 ratings. Each presentation was rated from 17 to 38 times (average 24 ratings per leader). We aggregated the ratings to form a single, standardized, effectiveness score for each leader (ICC-2 = .90).

3.1.2.4. Attractiveness. To be sure that our ratings of positive emotions and effectiveness were not spurious, based on attractiveness, we had 10 undergraduate psychology students rate the attractiveness of each participant-leader. We extracted a still photograph with a neutral expression from each of the 71 videotapes. We then randomized the order and had 10 students rate them on attractiveness using a single item scale (“How attractive is the individual in the photo?”) anchored by 1 = not at all attractive and 5 = very attractive. Ratings ($N = 709$; average 10 per participant) were combined to form a single attractiveness score for the leader in each videotaped speech.

3.2. Results

Table 2 presents means and standard deviations, reliability statistics, and variable intercorrelations. Results indicate a significant association ($r = .45$; $p < .01$) between observers’ reports of participant-leaders’ charisma at work and their expressions of positive emotions in the videotaped speech. Positive emotional expressions were also linked to ratings of effectiveness ($r = .72$; $p < .01$) and ratings of attractiveness ($r = .27$; $p < .05$). Ratings of charisma were not linked to attractiveness ($r = .09$), but ratings of effectiveness were ($r = .30$; $p < .05$).

To determine whether or not the link between charisma and effectiveness ratings can be explained by the participant-leader’s expression of positive emotions, we followed Baron & Kenny’s (1986) test for mediation. Examination of the results in Table 2 reveals that the first two steps of the test of mediation are met (charisma is correlated with positive emotions and effectiveness). In Table 3 we report the results of our regression testing the last two steps suggested by

Table 2
Study 2 descriptive statistics and variable intercorrelations

Variable	Mean	SD	α	ICC-1	ICC-2	1	2	3	4
1. Charisma	3.75	.35	.83	.21**	.74	–			
2. Positive emotions expressed	4.68	1.33	.96	.16**	.68	.45**	–		
3. Effectiveness	0.00	1.00	.95	.45**	.90	.34**	.72**	–	
4. Attractiveness	2.39	1.06	–	.51**	.92	.09**	.27**	.30**	–

Notes. $N=71$. α =internal consistency reliability. ICC-1=intraclass correlation at individual level. ICC-2=intraclass correlation at group level. *= $p<.05$; **= $p<.01$.

Baron & Kenny (1986). We find that the effects of charisma on ratings of effectiveness are mediated through the expression of positive emotions.

3.3. Brief discussion

Together the results of Study 1 and Study 2 indicate that individuals who are rated high on charisma tend to express more positive emotions in their written (vision statements) and spoken (speeches) communications, providing support for the first link in our model. Given concerns among leadership scholars about whether or not questionnaire methods of assessing leader behaviors actually capture leader behavior or whether they represent attributions made by followers based on (a) prior knowledge of leader or group performance (e.g., Emrich, 1999; Yorgas, Weiss, & Strickland, 1999), (b) individuals' implicit theories of leadership or the effects of categorization, attribution, and encoding processes (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987), or (c) rating biases linked to leader or follower characteristics or similarities between them (Hoyt, 2000), our results are reassuring. They suggest that charisma ratings are, at least in part, based on leader behavior.

Results of Study 2 also suggest that leaders' positive emotional expressions mediate the effects of charisma on ratings of effectiveness. However, this study provides an incomplete examination of the effects of leaders' positive emotional expressions on followers, as neither Study 1 nor Study 2 explicitly address the issue of mood contagion. Therefore, the purpose of the next two studies is to determine whether leaders' emotional expressions influence the mood of followers. In Study 3 and Study 4 we were no longer concerned with the link between charisma and emotional expression. Rather, we now turn our focus to Link 2 and Link 4 in our model, testing the notion that positive emotions expressed by leaders affect the follower mood, and that follower mood is linked to ratings of effectiveness.

4. Study 3

4.1. Method

4.1.1. Participants and procedures

Our goal in this study was to examine whether leaders' positive emotional expressions influence follower mood. We created two experimental treatments: high leader positive emotional expression and low leader positive emotional expression. We rank ordered the 71 videotapes from Study 2 by their aggregate (across raters) composite scores of positive emotional expressions. We then selected the four leaders with the highest ratings and combined them on a single videotape to form our high leader positive affect condition. We did the same with the four leaders with the lowest positive emotion ratings in Study 2. In comparing the two videotapes, we observed differences in length between the conditions; speeches with positive emotional expressions were slightly longer. Thus, we selected the two of the top four

Table 3
Study 2 regression linking charisma, positive emotions, and ratings of effectiveness

	Effectiveness ratings	
	Step 1	Step 2
Charisma	.36**	.04
Leader expressed positive emotions		.71**
R^2	.13**	.53**

Notes. $N=71$. **= $p<.01$. Values in first two rows are standardized regression coefficients (β).

(high positive emotions) and three of the bottom four (low positive emotions), resulting in an experimental treatment that was of equal length (approximately 6 min) and included male and female leaders in both conditions. Thus, our final experimental treatment of leader positive emotional expressions was comprised of two videotapes; one videotape with two speeches that were rated high for the expression of positive emotions (high leader positive emotion condition) and one videotape with three speeches that were rated low for the expression of positive emotions (low leader positive emotion condition).

As noted in Study 2, our ratings of positive emotional expressions in the speeches were based on the subjective impressions of multiple raters. Therefore, we also performed a content analysis on the text of the speeches as a manipulation check. As in Study 1, we used LIWC (Pennebaker et al., 2001) to count the number of positive emotion words used by the leaders our high and low positive emotion conditions.

Participant-followers in this study were 133 undergraduate psychology students (69% female) at a large Midwestern University who participated in the study for extra credit in a psychology course. When participant-followers arrived, they were asked to report their mood and then were randomly assigned to a high or low positive emotion condition. Next, they watched the assigned leader videotapes and after viewing the speeches, they completed another mood survey. Finally, they were asked to rate the effectiveness of the leader's speeches.

4.1.2. Measures

4.1.2.1. Mood. We used the 10-item PA scale from the PANAS (see Study 1) to assess participant-follower mood. Because we were interested in the mood states both before and immediately after the positive emotion manipulation, we asked participants to rate the extent to which they experienced the emotions listed on the survey at the moment they were filling in the survey. Participants responded by entering a number from 1 = not at all to 7 = very strongly in the space adjacent to each of the emotion adjectives. Participant followers completed the PANAS when they arrived for the study (Time 1) and again after watching the videotape (Time 2).

4.1.2.2. Effectiveness. After completing the mood measure, participant-followers were asked to answer a few questions about the leaders in the video. They were told that the individuals in the videotape were responding to a role-play in which they were vying with several other individuals for a management position. Effectiveness of the leaders was assessed with a five-item scale: "1) I believe this was an effective group of leaders. 2) If I were to work for this group of leaders, I would expect our work group to be successful. 3) If I were interviewing for a job, I would be very interested in working for this group of leaders. 4) I would be interested in applying for a job in an organization if the individuals I saw were a part of the leadership team. 5) I thought these leaders did a good job in their presentations." Responses to these items were on a five-point scale (anchored by 1 = strong disagree and 5 = strongly agree) and were averaged to form a perceived effectiveness score for each participant-follower.

4.2. Results

Table 4 presents the mean scores of each study variable in the high and low leader positive emotional expression condition. As a manipulation check we compared leaders' use of positive emotion words in the two conditions. Nearly 50% of the words used by leaders were pronouns, articles, numbers, and other non-substantive words. There were significant differences in the use of positive emotion words by leaders in the two conditions; positive emotion words represented 4.11% of all words used in the high positive emotion condition (average of 16 positive words per leader) and 1.83% in the low positive emotion condition (average of seven positive words per leader). We found no significant differences in leader attractiveness in the two leadership conditions. As expected, there was also no significant difference between conditions in participant-follower mood at Time 1 (before they watched the videotapes). However, after exposure to high or low leader positive emotions in the videotapes (Time 2), participant-followers in the high positive emotion condition were in a more positive mood. This difference was not significant at the traditional $p < .05$ level ($t = 1.93$; $p = .056$), however, we used a conservative two-tailed test. Controlling for Time 1 mood, the difference in participant follower mood between conditions at Time 2 was significant ($r = .27$; $p < .01$). As expected, ratings of effectiveness were significantly higher in the leader positive emotion condition.

To further explore the effects of leaders' positive emotional expressions on participant-followers' mood, we examined the link between our manipulation and participant-followers' mood, controlling for participant mood upon arrival at the

Table 4
Mean scores for Study 3 variables by experimental condition

	Leader's emotional expression		T-statistic
	High	Low	
	Positive emotional	Positive emotional	
	Expression (N=68)	Expression (N=65)	
Manipulation check (words)	4.11	1.83	4.74**
Attractiveness	2.6	1.9	.47
Follower mood			
Positive mood Time 1	2.88	2.75	1.21
Positive mood Time 2	2.65	2.40	1.93†
Effectiveness rating	3.56	2.45	9.43**

Notes. ** $p < .01$; † $p < .056$.

experiment. Results in Table 5 show a significant link between our manipulation of leaders' expressed positive emotions and participant-follower mood after watching the videotapes ($\beta = .21$; $p < .01$). These results support Link 2 in our model. When participant-followers were exposed to leaders expressing positive emotions, they were in a more positive mood.

In our final analysis, we examine the effects of leaders' positive emotions (our experimental treatment) and of participant-followers' mood on ratings of effectiveness. We suggested that ratings of effectiveness would be affected both by the positive emotions expressed by the leaders in the videotape and by participants mood when making the ratings (Link 2 and Link 4 in our model). Results of a hierarchical regression, reported in Table 5 support this notion. Moreover, it appears that the effects of leaders' positive emotional expressions and the effects of participant mood on effectiveness ratings are relatively independent of each other. The effects of leaders' positive emotions are slightly reduced when we enter participant-follower mood into the regression, but a direct effect of leaders' expressed emotions remains.

4.3. Brief discussion

Results of Study 3 supported our hypothesized link between leaders' emotional expressions and follower mood. We also found direct effects for both leaders' emotional expressions and follower mood on ratings of effectiveness. Despite this support for our model, Study 3 has several limitations. First, although we selected the speeches in our experimental treatment videotapes based on leaders' expression of positive emotions, it is possible that the expressions of positive emotions may co-vary with other aspects of the speeches. As in Sy et al. (2005), it may be that leader behaviors other than emotional expression may account for our results. For example, one of the characteristics of charismatic leaders is their ability to articulate a clear and compelling vision. Thus, we cannot be sure that it was not the content or quality of the leader's vision or the influence tactics used by the leader (see Yukl & Falbe, 1990) that influenced follower mood. Second, although we found no significant difference in ratings of attractiveness between our two leader emotion conditions, the mean attractiveness level of the leaders in our positive emotion condition was slightly higher than that of the leaders in our low positive emotion condition. Given substantial research evidence that individuals who are

Table 5
Regression linking leader's positive emotional expression with follower mood and effectiveness ratings in Study 3

	Follower mood	Effectiveness ratings	
		Step 1	Step 2
Time 1 follower mood	.68**	-.06	-.05
Leaders' expressed positive emotions	.21**	.60**	.53**
Time 2 follower mood			.31**
R^2	.47**	.37**	.42**
ΔR^2			.05**

Notes. $N = 133$. ** $p < .01$. Values represent standardized regression coefficients (β).

physically attractive are credited with more positive attributes than less attractive individuals (see Berscheid & Walster, 1974 for a review), it is possible that even slight differences in attractiveness may have affected either participant-follower mood or ratings of effectiveness or both. Third, although we refer to our participants as followers, they did not have even a brief relationship with the leaders in the videotapes; they were merely observers. For these reasons, we conducted a final study in which we (a) manipulated only the leader's expression of positive emotions and (b) created a somewhat more naturalistic link between the leader and followers.

5. Study 4

5.1. Method

5.1.1. Participants and procedures

In order to manipulate only leaders' expressions of positive emotions, we hired a 30-year-old professional actor to create two leader emotion conditions (positive and neutral emotional expressions). The actor played the role of the graduate student project manager (Bryce D.) for the current research project. We created a script in which the actor talked about the importance of leadership research being done at the university where this research was conducted. He talked about the researchers' vision—to conduct research on leadership effectiveness that could be used to improve management in work organizations and employees' quality of work life—and he gave background information on how students who participate in lab studies aid researchers and managers in understanding leadership effectiveness. The purpose of this information was to simulate effective leadership in both conditions, to increase participant engagement in the research, and to rule out several alternative explanations for our Study 3 results (e.g., leader attractiveness, leader vision, leader influence tactics). No reference was made to leader emotions or the current research questions in communications with participants.

The actor delivered the script with identical content in two conditions—neutral emotion and positive emotion. In the positive emotion condition, the actor communicated positive emotions (e.g., enthusiasm, excitement, optimism) non-verbally (i.e., facial expressions) and verbally (i.e., “I am really excited about this project”). In the neutral emotion condition the content and vision were replicated, but the positive emotional expressions were removed. The neutral condition was friendly and pleasant, not negative. Both conditions were videotaped and these videotapes served as the experimental manipulation of leader emotional expressions (positive and neutral).

To create a more naturalistic leader–follower link, the actor's script also included instructions for the participant-followers. Playing the role of leader (i.e., project manager), the actor provided participant-followers with directions for their tasks in this study. He stated at the beginning of the videotape that he was the project manager and that he would be leading them through their tasks. After talking about the vision and the leadership research being conducted at the university, he gave instructions for completing the surveys.

Participants were 174 undergraduate psychology students (66% female; average age 20 years) who participated in the research for course credit. Participants were told they were participating in a study of leadership effectiveness. When they arrived, they were told that the project manager had prepared videotape with background on the project and instructions for their tasks. Participant-followers were placed in a room and told that all materials needed were in the room. Participants were randomly assigned to either the neutral or positive emotional expression condition. A research assistant told participant-followers that they would receive further instruction from the project leader on videotape. The videotape was started and the research assistant left the room. Participant-followers watched the video, which included

Table 6
Mean differences in Study 4 variables in positive and neutral leader emotional expression conditions

	Leader's emotional expression		T-statistic
	Positive leader	Neutral leader	
	Emotional expression (N=86)	Emotional expression (N=87)	
Follower mood	2.87	2.62	2.31*
Leader attractiveness	3.30	3.26	.32
Leader effectiveness rating	3.78	3.35	3.05**

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

Table 7
Study 4 descriptive statistics and correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3
Positive leader emotional expression	–	–	–		
Follower mood	2.75	.70	.18*	.84	
Leader effectiveness	3.56	.72	.30**	.30**	.88

Notes. Reliabilities (α) are reported on the diagonal. *= $p < .05$; **= $p < .01$. $N = 173$ for all variables except effectiveness ratings where $N = 94$.

the manipulation of the leaders' emotional expressions. At the end of the video the leader asked participants to take a survey from a tray in the room and complete it. Participants were told to complete the survey and place it in another tray. The actor asked them to turn off the video and TV before completing the survey. The survey included the mood measure. On the final page of the survey, participants were informed that they had completed the requirements of the study and were free to leave.

As participant-followers left the room, they were asked if they had time to complete a brief questionnaire about the project manager. Ninety-four participants (49 from neutral emotions and 45 from positive emotions) agreed to complete an additional short survey (because participant followers were told they would not spend more than 30 min, the final survey was optional). This final questionnaire included items about leader effectiveness and attractiveness.

5.1.2. Measures

5.1.2.1. Mood. We used the 10 item PA scales from the PANAS (see Study 1) to assess the mood state of participant-followers after they watched the videotaped leader. Participants responded by entering a number from 1 = not at all to 7 = very strongly in the space adjacent to each of the ten positive emotion adjectives.

5.1.2.2. Effectiveness. Volunteer participant-followers completed a five-item measure of effectiveness (adapted from Study 2; sample items included: "Bryce was an effective leader." and "If I were to work for Bryce, I would expect our work group to be successful."). There were no significant differences in the mood of participant followers who completed the additional survey and those who did not. Responses were on a five-point scale anchored by "1 = strongly disagree" and "5 = strongly agree."

5.1.2.3. Attractiveness. Volunteer participant followers also completed a three-item measure of leader attractiveness (e.g., "Bryce is an attractive person") using the same five-point scale used for effectiveness.

5.2. Results

Mean scores for study variables in the neutral and positive leader emotional expression conditions are displayed in Table 6. Participant-followers in the positive emotional expression condition experienced a more positive mood after watching the videotape than did participants in the neutral emotional expression condition. As expected, the leader was also rated as more effective in the positive emotional expression condition. However, we found no significant difference in ratings of attractiveness between the two conditions.

Table 8
Regression linking positive emotions, mood, and effectiveness ratings in Study 4

	Leader effectiveness ratings	
	Step 1	Step 2
Leader positive emotional expression	.30**	.30**
Follower mood		.30**
R^2	.09**	.18**

Notes. Leader positive emotional expression was coded 1 = neutral; 2 = positive. *= $p < .05$; **= $p < .01$. Values in the first two rows represent standardized regression coefficients (β).

In Table 7, we report correlations and scale reliabilities for Study 4 variable. Results show a significant ($r = .18$; $p < .01$) association between the positive leader emotional expressions (the experimental manipulation) and participant-follower mood. In our final analysis, we regressed effectiveness ratings from the volunteer participant-followers on both the leader positive emotional expression condition and participant-follower mood. Consistent with our results in Study 3, Table 8 results reveal that leader's expressions of positive emotions and follower mood have independent effects on ratings of effectiveness.

5.3. Brief discussion

Studies 3 and 4 provide support for the notion that leader's positive emotional expression affect follower mood. Furthermore, we can have some certainty that the effect of follower mood on ratings of effectiveness is something more than a general, mood-induced, positivity bias, as follower mood did *not* affect ratings of attractiveness.

6. General discussion

Our purpose in this series of studies was to examine the effects of leaders' positive emotional expressions on follower mood and perceptions. We found that charismatic leaders express more positive emotions than do less charismatic leaders and that leaders' positive emotional expressions have a direct effect on follower mood. Furthermore, we found that both leaders' emotional expressions and follower mood had independent effects on perceptions of leadership effectiveness and attraction to a leader.

With respect to our first aim—determining whether individual who are rated highly on charismatic leadership express more positive emotions than those rated as less charismatic—results from Study 1 and 2 were consistent. Leaders who were rated high on charisma by their work colleagues used more positive emotion words in their vision statements and expressed more positive emotions in prepared speeches. These were rigorous tests of our hypothesis as we had independent raters for charisma and emotional expressions. Furthermore, charisma and leaders' emotional expressions were rated in different contexts (at work vs. in a training program). Second, across the two studies using diverse samples of leaders, different methodologies, oral and written communication, and both objective word counts and subjective ratings of emotions, we found consistent and significant links between charisma and leaders' positive emotional expressions. These results support the notion that positive emotions play a role in the charismatic leadership process and provide construct validity evidence for survey ratings of charismatic leadership.

The second contribution of our study was to explicitly examine the effects of leaders' emotional expressions on follower mood. Prior research (Sy et al., 2005) suggests that leaders' experienced mood may be transferred to followers. We found that even when the interactions between leaders and followers were brief and casual, leaders' positive emotional expressions influenced follower mood. Furthermore, by using a controlled experimental design (i.e., Study 4) we ruled out the possibility that vision content, emphasizing the importance of the work, and influence tactics such as inspirational appeals (Yukl & Falbe, 1990), amount of speech, and leader attractiveness—rather than leaders' emotional expressions—influenced follower mood.

A third contribution of our study was linking leaders' emotional expressions and follower mood to ratings of leader effectiveness. This finding was remarkably consistent across study design, methodology, and sample. It is worth noting here that perceived leader effectiveness, in addition to its connection to actual, or objective, leader effectiveness, is an important outcome in itself as follower perceptions of leader effectiveness and attraction to the leader are fundamental requirements for successful leadership and influence. Existing research also links follower motivation (self-efficacy) to follower's perceptions of leader effectiveness (Watson, Chemers, & Preiser, 2001).

6.1. Limitations and future research

Despite the contributions of these studies, they are not without limitations. With respect to leaders' emotional expressions, we had only very brief samples of leader communication (vision statements and short speeches). It would be interesting to obtain samples of leaders' day to day written (memos, email) and oral communications to examine whether emotional expressions are consistent, within leaders, across situations. Our study is also limited in that we had only simulated leader–follower relationships, and these simulated relationships were of short duration.

Even in Study 4, where the actor played the role of a leader and actually gave task instructions, there was no personal relationship formed between the leader and participant followers.

Using a laboratory approach to this research also means that we could not address the issue of how emotional links between leaders and followers develop and are maintained over time. Furthermore, although Anderson et al. (2003) found that affective feelings flowed from more powerful to less powerful dating partners but not the reverse, it is important to examine the directionality of emotional influence between managers and employees at work. Another limitation to the step-by-step test of our model in the lab is that we are not able to examine some important interactions (e.g., between leader and follower mood, between leader expressions and other leadership behaviors and mood and performance). It is also important to examine in future research whether or not leaders' positive emotional expressions have cumulative effects on follower mood over time and with increased interaction, or whether the effects of leaders' emotional expressions on follower mood are immediate and short lived.

Another limitation of our study was our singular focus on positive emotions. Because we did not examine leaders' expressions of negative emotions, we cannot speak to the extent to which effective leaders also use negative emotions, whether negative emotions are also transferred from leader to follower, nor can we speak to the effects of negative emotions and mood on perceptions of effectiveness. Moreover, it maybe that any type of emotional expression—whether positive or negative—communicates passion and thus would be linked to ratings of charisma. Our study is also limited in that we did not directly link follower mood to outcomes such as task performance and creativity. Although some existing research links positive mood to increased performance and creativity, other research suggests that positive mood can have negative effects on creativity and performance (see George & Zhou, 2002; Kaufmann & Vosburg, 2002). An important goal for future research is to examine leaders' use of both positive and negative emotions and the conditions under which these emotions are most effective.

Perhaps the most important limitation of our studies is that we did not actually examine the process by which leaders' expressed emotions affect follower mood. Direct emotional contagion (i.e., transfer of emotions through facial mimicry or behavior modeling) effects have been found for charismatic leaders in the past (Cherulnik et al., 2001); however our studies did not provide a direct test of the emotional contagion hypothesis. A plausible alternative explanation for why observers were in a better mood after observing a positive leader is that they may have used the leaders' emotional expressions as a signal. Followers may believe that a leader who expressed enthusiasm is either (a) truly passionate about their work, making them a more committed leader, (b) a nice, friendly person who would be more likely to treat employees with respect, or (c) more likely than a less enthusiastic leader to take an optimistic approach to solving problems and be more developmental than critical when problems are encountered. Although we did not specifically examine emotional abilities (e.g., empathy) in our research, past research has linked follower perceptions of leader empathy to perceptions of leadership (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2002). Therefore it is also possible that leaders' positive emotional expressions in our research were perceived to be signals of empathy. Especially in settings outside the laboratory, where leaders and followers have more frequent and extended communication, leaders' positive emotional expressions may act as signals, influencing followers' expectations about the leader, satisfaction with the leader, and ultimately follower mood, motivation and task performance.

6.2. Conclusion

Results of our studies clearly indicate that leaders' emotional expressions play an important role in the formation of followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness, attraction to leaders, and follower mood. Our results also suggest that charismatic leadership is linked to organizational success, at least in part, because charismatic leaders enable their followers to experience positive emotions. More importantly, our results indicate that the behavior of leaders and managers can make a difference in the happiness and well-being of the followers by influencing their emotional lives.

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The MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 5x (copyright 1995 by Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio), is used with permission of Mind Garden, 1690 Woodside Road, Suite 202, Redwood City, California 94061. All rights reserved.

Appendix A. Role play scenario

You are one of 30 managers working for a small software company that is based in Clinton, IA. Managers in this company are complete generalists—no one manager specializes in any particular area. Rather, managers float from project to project and contribute to all areas of the business. Your company is doing well, so well in fact it has just been acquired by AOL. Due to the inevitable redundancies involved in mergers and acquisitions, it has been determined that several of the current managers will be transferred to other locations outside Iowa.

AOL loves the way your group works closely together and makes decisions, so they have left it to the group to decide who will stay in Clinton. As a result of various selection criteria already imposed (e.g., area of expertise), it has been determined that there are four individuals who are candidates to stay in Iowa with the current group. You are one of those four individuals. One of you will stay in Iowa and the others will be transferred to other locations.

Your job is to convince the members of your group (some of these individuals report directly to you and some are peers in the company who will remain with you in Iowa) that you are the manager who should be chosen to stay with the Clinton group. Therefore, you should argue why you should stay, *based on what you have to offer as a leader*. The group is to decide who will be offered the Iowa position.

Due to various time constraints, you will have only five minutes maximum to make your case. Once all four individuals have made their case, the group will vote on which person will be allowed to stay in Iowa.

Goal: Your goal in this presentation is to influence the group to select you as the manager who stays with the Iowa group.

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