What goes around comes around: How meso-level negative emotional contagion can ultimately determine organizational attitudes toward leaders

Marie T. Dasborough [a,*], Neal M. Ashkanasy [b], Eugene Y.J. Tee [b], Herman H.M. Tse [c]

[a] *University of Miami, Coral Gables, Florida 33124-6520, USA*
[b] *University of Queensland, Brisbane, QLD 4072, Australia*
[c] *Griffith University, Nathan Campus, QLD 4111, Australia*

ARTICLE INFO

ABSTRACT

We present a follower-centric model of leadership that integrates multiple levels of analysis, and includes emotional contagion as a key meso-level process. In our model, leadership at the individual level is manifested in terms of the leader's favoritism toward members and affective displays. Drawing upon affective events theory, we argue that member perceptions of a leader's behaviors and member attributions of insincerity result in negative emotions. Through a process of emotional contagion, the negative emotions then spread to other individuals in the group. These are in turn reflected in the group's affective climate and trust climate, and also in the quality of leader-member and team-member relationships. In the end, this results in organizational-level disapproval of the leader and cynicism towards the leader. Included as moderators in the model are task interdependence, the temporal context, reward systems, emotional labor requirements, organizational culture, and power distance. We conclude with a discussion of boundary conditions, and implications of our model for research, theory, and practice.

Leadership research is still largely fractured; riddled with contradictory findings and assertions that lack connected interpretability (Chemers, 2000). One reason for this state of affairs stems from an omission of theory that integrates both micro-level and macro-level leadership influences. As Yammarino and Dubinsky (1992) suggest, more attention should be paid to multi-level issues that have the ability to influence, and in turn to be influenced by, leadership performance. This argument is reiterated by Tse, Dasborough, and Ashkanasy (2008), who posited that the adoption of multi-level perspectives in scholarly leadership inquiry is crucial if a more comprehensive and accurate portrayal of organizational leadership is to emerge.

Recent publications in this field show promise, however, and scholars are beginning to apply multi-level perspectives to the study of leadership (see Chen, Kirkman, Kanfer, Allen, & Rosen, 2007; Tangirala, Green, & Ramanujam, 2007; Tse et al., 2008). Further, leadership scholars have called for attention to meso-level issues, examining phenomena across levels by incorporating contextual factors into consideration (Osborn, Hunt, & Jauch, 2002). We build on these multi-level frameworks by adopting a meso-level approach, highlighting emotional contagion as a vehicle for meso effects across levels.

Emotional contagion is defined as the tendency automatically to mimic and to synchronize verbal and non-verbal cues with those of another person and, subsequently, to converge emotionally with the conveyor those emotions (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994). The process of emotional contagion has been researched extensively for the past decade, and empirical evidence has supported its existence in social settings. Most of the research on emotional contagion has been in the psychology literature and in the marketing literature (see Hennig-Thurau, Groth, Paul, & Gremler, 2006 for example). The strongest empirical support for the existence of

---

* Corresponding author.
  E-mail addresses: m.dasborough@miami.edu (M.T. Dasborough), n.ashkanasy@business.uq.edu.au (N.M. Ashkanasy), e.tee@business.uq.edu.au (E.Y.J. Tee),
herman.tse@newcastle.edu.au (H.H.M. Tse).

emotional contagion as a real phenomenon comes from the field of neuro-cognitive psychology, where researchers make use of functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) methods. Recently, for instance, Nummenmaa, Hirvonen, Parkkola, and Hietanen (2008) used fMRI to show that emotional contagion physically occurs as a special type of empathy. The evidence they found for emotional contagion can be seen in limbic areas involved in emotion processing (thalamus), cortical areas involved in face (fusiform gyrus) and body perception, as well as in brain networks associated with mirroring of others' actions (inferior parietal lobule).

Nonetheless, there have also been developments in exploration of emotional contagion processes within the organizational literature. Studies of emotional contagion processes in groups and teams (Barsade, 2002; Totterdell, 2000; Totterdell, Kellet, Teuchmann, & Briner, 1998) and in leadership interactions (Bono & Illies, 2006; Sy, Côté & Saavedra, 2005) are testament of the emerging interest on emotional contagion processes in organizational behavior research. This is in part attributable to the increasing acknowledgement of the prevalence and impact of emotions in organizational life (Ashkanasy, Härtel, & Daus, 2002). Recent research also suggests that emotional contagion processes may be an important but overlooked mechanism by which leaders and followers themselves influence leadership processes (e.g., see Sy et al., 2005; Tee & Ashkanasy, 2008). We build upon these recent findings to posit that emotional contagion is a central, direct means by which followers themselves ultimately influence perceptions of leadership effectiveness in organizations.

In this article, we focus exclusively on contagion of negative emotions. We justify this approach based on Dasborough's (2006) research, where she found that, compared to positive emotion, negative emotion was a stronger determinant of member perceptions of leaders. We do however still acknowledge that members also experience positive affect, which also can spread through contagion processes. In this instance, it is important to note that we do not discount the value of positive emotions, especially since scholars have consistently highlighted the value of positive emotions for cognitive performance and general wellbeing (Forgas & George, 2001; Frederickson, 2003). Nonetheless, we concur with Game (2008), who highlights that our understanding of why and how leaders arouse negative follower emotions is lacking in leadership research. We therefore argue that, by focusing primarily on negative follower affect, we can provide new and convincing evidence that leadership phenomena are not shaped solely by leaders, but also by the emotions of followers (see also Meindl, 1995).

1. Contextual influences on leadership

Individual characteristics, team behaviors, and organizational factors affect the process of leadership and its effectiveness in organizations (Shamir & Howell, 1999). Hence, leadership is embedded within a broader social context, evident in work groups, units, and organizations (Porter & McLaughlin, 2006). Consequently, contextual factors can produce cross-level effects where variables at one level influence variables at another (Mowday & Sutton, 1993; Rousseau, 1985). As Antonakis and colleagues (2004) explain, however, the context in which leadership is manifested and embedded has received relatively little research attention to date. New leadership theories regularly neglect contextual influences and regard leadership as isolated from the larger social context (Johns, 2006).

Given that leadership is context-dependent and multi-level in nature, scholars have called for more research synthesizing macro- and micro-level perspectives to study leadership in the hope of providing new insights into individual, group, and organizational effectiveness (see Osborn et al., 2002). In this regard, House, Rousseau, and Thomas-Hunt (1995) were among first to develop a comprehensive framework proposing the "Meso-Paradigm" that integrates micro- and macro-perspectives to advance research in the field of organizational behavior. Their framework emphasizes that macro- and micro-level conceptualizations and cross-level linkages should be considered and specified for theoretical development, research design, data analysis, and results interpretation. Adding to this early work on the meso-paradigm, scholars such as Johns (2006), and Rousseau and Fried (2001), have directed attention to variables at different levels of analysis within their contextual milieu.

Consequently, developing meso-models of leadership is theoretically and practically important because it provides a more comprehensive picture of how leadership should be studied. By integrating micro- and macro-level perspectives, we can examine processes and variables across levels simultaneously. Our proposed model contributes to the existing leadership literature because it involves representing the context in which leadership is conceptualized, and the levels at which leadership is enacted (Porter & McLaughlin, 2006). Specifically, our model consists of micro- and macro-level variables, including individual-level (perception of unwarranted favoritism and attribution of insincerity), dyadic-level (LMX quality), group-level (TMX quality, affective climate and trust climate), and organizational-level variables (organizational endorsement and cynicism towards leaders). To elaborate the micro-macro nexus further, we also include six organizational-level contextual variables: task interdependence, temporal context, organizational reward system, emotional labor requirements, power distance, and organizational culture.

2. A meso-model of negative member affect towards leaders

In the meso-model we propose, relationships between variables proceed from the micro-level, though to dyads and groups, and end up at the macro-organizational level. Our meso-model of leadership is based on a follower-centric approach and encapsulates the underlying principles of the meso-paradigm. While leadership research has traditionally focused on the leader (Hollander, 1992), our focus is on the role of the follower in the leadership process (Meindl, 1995), and how followers impact leadership through the dyadic, group, and organizational levels of analysis.

Thus, beginning at the micro-level, we consider two leader behaviors that influence followers' perceptions of the leader: leader favoritism towards group members and leader affective displays. We argue that followers' perceptions of these aspects of their leader's behavior form the basis for their consequent experience of negative emotions, resulting in their portrayal of negative

affect. Through the process of emotional contagion (Hatfield et al., 1994) – initiated by followers' own affective states – negative affect may then spread from individuals to groups. Specifically, we suggest that emotional contagion serves as a meso-level process, spreading the impact of negative affect across organizational levels. Individual-level member displays of negative affect thus influence the quality of leader-member exchanges at the dyadic level, as well as impacting the quality of team-member exchanges, affective climate, and trust climate at the group level. These collective outcomes then ultimately determine the level of organizational endorsement of the leader and organizational cynicism towards the leader. Fig. 1 represents our conceptual model.

Emotions are central to our meso-model of leadership. Consistent with the tenets of Affective Events Theory (AET: Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), we argue that organizational members' behavior is determined by variations in the way they perceive and react emotionally to events in the workplace, rather than by relatively fixed characteristics such as personality (Bono, Foldes, Vinson, & Muros, 2007; Weiss, Nicholas, & Daus, 1999). In AET, these "affective events" engender emotional reactions in organizational members that result in immediate, impulsive behavioral reactions or to changes in more long-term attitudes, such as job satisfaction, affective commitment, or a desire to quit the organization (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

We acknowledge that the following propositions concern only negative affect; we would expect different relationships if positive affect were also considered. Further, we note that there are many possible sources of member negative affect (see Dasborough, 2006 for leader behaviors associated with negative employee emotion) and other causes of member grievances. Nevertheless, we elect to focus in this article on two particular leader behaviors: (1) unwarranted favoritism, and (2) inconsistent negative affective display. The reason we chose these variables is because they evoke particularly strong negative emotional responses in organizational members. As such, they serve as exemplary originators of the effects we address in our model.

3. Micro-level predictors

3.1. Members perceptions of unwarranted favoritism

At the micro-level, we focus on the nature of leader-member exchanges (see LMX theory). In this respect, Sparrowe and Liden (2005) suggest that interpersonal exchange relationships between leaders, subordinates, and coworkers constitute an interconnected social system; that LMX relationships do not exist in a vacuum. LMX research has demonstrated that team members in high-quality LMX relationships are more likely to be treated better than other team members because they receive greater work-related benefits than those in low-quality LMX relationships (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien 1995). The differential treatment from the different quality of LMX relationships is relevant because team members are sensitive to interpersonal comparisons and perceptions of unfairness (Liden, Erdogan, Wayne & Sparrowe, 2006; Tse & Dasborough, 2008; Tse et al., 2008).
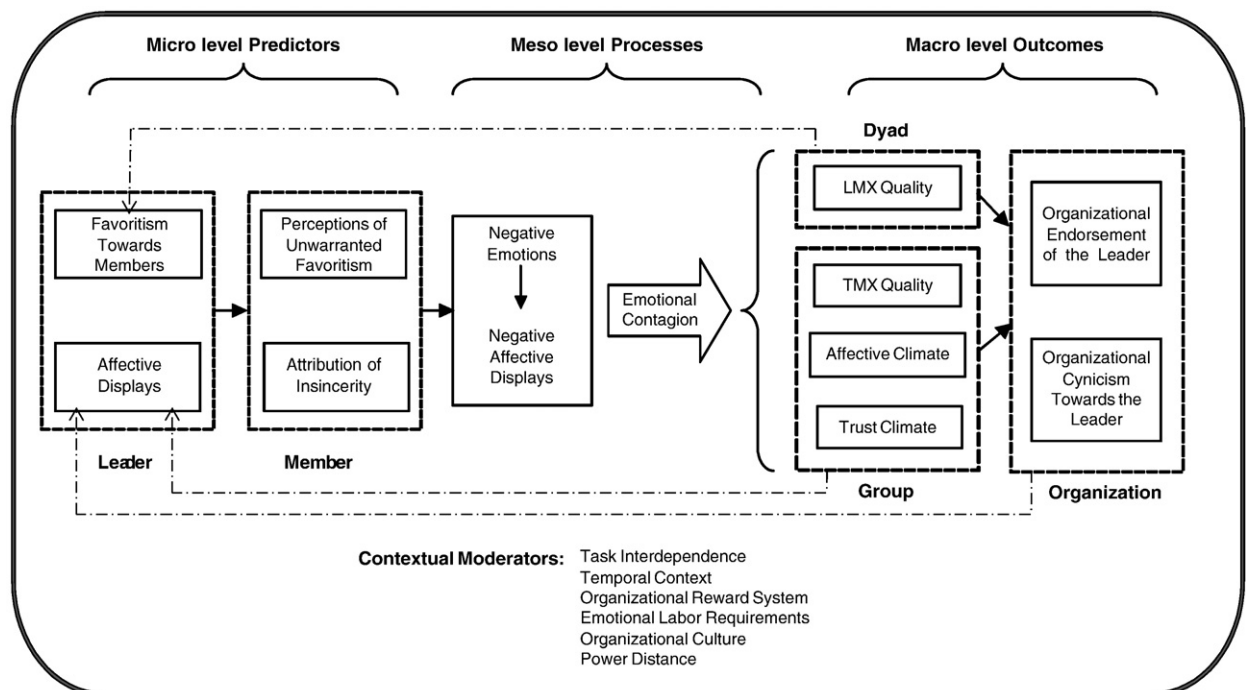

Fig. 1. Conceptual model.

Thus, how leaders develop differential relationships among team members becomes important because such means convey a signal to all members about their status within the team. For instance, high-quality LMX relationships provide individual team members with a sense of psychological enhancement through obtaining more work-related benefits. High-quality LMX team members tend to perceive such differential treatment as equitable because it is in their favor (Erdogan & Liden, 2002). Perceived equitable treatment enables high quality LMX team members to experience excitement, enthusiasm, and satisfaction (Dasborough, 2006).

Conversely, being in a low-quality relationship is likely to be regarded as a form of punishment, whereby employees are unable to obtain work-related benefits and psychological enhancement similar to those in high-quality LMX relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Team members in low-quality LMX relationships may feel mistreated and disrespected, and experience jealousy, distress, resentment, or anger because of interpersonal comparison and perceived unfairness (Greenberg, Ashton-James, & Ashkanasy, 2007). As Erdogan and Liden (2002) discuss, these effects are likely to be even more pronounced when the criteria for differentiation is not perceived to be warranted.

Based on AET (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), we argue that perceptions of differentiated dyadic relationships can be a source of affective events in the workplace. Within a team context, when leader behavior is seen to be unfavorable and members see it as unwarranted favoritism (Erdogan & Liden, 2002), team members experience and thus display negative emotions. In effect, the leader behavior is the source of an affective event, evoking negative emotion in the follower perceiving the leader's behavior. Hence,

Proposition 1. *When individuals perceive unwarranted favoritism by their leader towards some members, individuals not so treated are likely to experience negative emotions.*

3.2. Followers' attributions of leader insincerity

The second aspect of leader-member exchange that we focus on is leader affective displays, especially when such displays are both negative and inconsistent. The display of affect by leaders has been shown to influence follower attributions, especially in cases of inconsistent affective displays (Newcombe & Ashkanasy, 2002) and negative affective displays (Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004). To explore this issue further, we turn to attribution theory. Attribution theory concerns the perceived causes of events, whereby individuals act as "naïve scientists," who seek to understand why good or bad events happen (Heider, 1958). Kelley (1973) identified three sources of information people use to make attributions: consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness. Each of these dimensions can be used to understand causes of behaviors in the workplace, and these along with those identified by Weiner (stability, controllability and locus) have been used widely to understand attributions in organizations, and leadership in particular (Ashkanasy, 1989; Davis & Gardner, 2004; Green & Mitchell, 1979; Martinko, Harvey, & Douglas, 2007).

We are concerned here with dispositional attributions followers make about their leader. According to Kelley's theory, followers are most likely to make a dispositional (internal) attribution for a leader's behavior if followers conclude that the leader's conduct is low in distinctiveness (consistent behavior across situations), low in consensus (most people do not, or cannot act this way), and high in consistency (across time) (see Kelley, 1973). Further, as Calder (1977) has argued, dispositional attributions become more likely when competing explanations for an actor's behavior can be ruled out.

Newcombe and Ashkanasy (2002) showed that subordinates' attributions and regard for their leader (LMX) can be determined by perceptions that the leader is displaying sincere versus insincere affect. In a laboratory study, participants watched a video of a leader giving positive or negative performance feedback accompanied by positive or negative facial expressions. Results showed that insincere affect (especially positive feedback accompanied by negative affective display) led to lower subordinate ratings of leader LMX. The authors concluded that the negative reactions were a response to a perception that the leader was being insincere (see also Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002, 2004).

In the case of leader sincerity, Simon's (1999, 2002) notion of behavioral integrity is relevant, since followers are likely to discount leader sincerity as a dispositional quality when verbal claims are perceived to be inconsistent with actual deeds (e.g., the leader is judged to have broken a promise, or if the leader displays affect that does not suit the context). Furthermore, if followers perceive that most other people (consensus) achieve word-deed-alignment (i.e., fulfill their promises), an internal attribution of insincerity becomes more likely. Finally, if the leader is seen as consistently failing to achieve word-deed alignment across situations, an attribution of insincerity is likewise bolstered. Of course, Simons would argue that attributions of sincerity (and behavioral integrity) are more likely when a leader displays consistency across time and situations; that is, his or her behavior is consistent. Hence, if a leader consistently displays negative affect that is inappropriate for the situation (i.e., consistently inconsistent), dispositional attributions of insincerity are also likely to ensue.

We therefore propose that member attributions of leader sincerity constitute a micro-level influence that determines the members' experience of negative emotions. Dasborough and Ashkanasy's (2004) experimental study provides evidence for the influence of member attributions on emotional responses in instances where "true" versus "pseudo" transformational leader behavior is portrayed. These authors found that members were more likely to carry out a leader's instructions if they attributed the leader's behavior as being sincere (group-serving and not self-serving). Importantly, Dasborough and Ashkanasy (2004) demonstrate the emotional implications of follower attributions. In particular, negative emotions were evoked by attributions of self-serving intentions and insincerity. Based on these findings, we argue that a leader's affective displays trigger member attributions as to the sincerity of the leader's intentions, which serves as an affective event for followers. Hence,

Proposition 2. *Individuals attributing leader affective displays to insincere intentions will experience negative emotions.*

3.3. Meso-level process

3.3.1. Emotional contagion

Thus far, we have argued that member perceptions of leader behaviors may serve as triggers that arouse negative emotions. Clearly, such negative feelings are going to lead to member displays of negative affect. In this respect, the process of emotional contagion, which involves the conveyance of emotional states (Hatfield et al., 1994), is a means by which members experiencing negative emotions might influence others. The effects of this expressed negative affect may be seen at the dyadic, group, and organizational levels. We posit therefore that emotional contagion may be a key mechanism for negative affect to travel across levels; in this instance emotional contagion constitutes a meso-level process.

Hatfield and her colleagues (1994) conceptualized emotional contagion as a largely subconscious and tacit process by which affective states are transferred or shared amongst individuals. The process of emotional contagion can be attributed to the two underlying processes of (1) emotional mimicry or synchrony and (2) emotional experience and feedback. This infers that an individual's affective state is linked with her or his own or other individuals' verbal and non-verbal expressions of emotions, and that a change in either will automatically trigger a congruent response in the other. The contagion effect, therefore, occurs when a second individual or party "catches" the portrayed affective state of the conveyor, and subsequently converges on the affective state of the conveyor (Barsade, 2002).

Researchers, including Totterdell and his colleagues (1998), Totterdell (2000) and Barsade (2002), have provided empirical evidence of emotional contagion and mood linkage amongst group members, and have demonstrated its implications for group performance. More recently, researchers have turned their attention to the study of emotional contagion in a leadership context. For instance, Bono and Illies (2006), Johnson (2008), and Sy, Côté, and Saavedra (2005), have examined emotional contagion flowing from leaders to followers. In particular, Bono and Ilies found that leaders can elicit positive mood to enhance perceptions of effectiveness from their followers. More recently, Johnson (2008) also demonstrated the emotional contagion effect in a field setting and highlighted the impact of susceptibility to emotional contagion.

In addition, emotional contagion can flow from followers to leaders. Most of the leadership research discussed earlier was based on the assumption that greater positional power allows the leader greater opportunity to express and to transmit emotions. We argue that leadership processes need to be examined from more holistic, follower-centric perspectives, and this includes examining upward emotional contagion. In this sense, we are responding to Meindl's (1995) call for researchers to shift their focus to encompass follower-related actions that influence leadership outcomes (see also Meindl, Ehrlich & Dukerich, 1985).

The initial evidence for upward contagion came from a laboratory study by Hsee, Hatfield, Carlson, and Chemtob (1990). In a study of emotional contagion and power, they hypothesized that high power individuals would influence the moods of less powerful others. Instead, they found that individuals with greater, not lesser, power were more susceptible to emotional contagion. More recently, Tee and Ashkanasy (2008) found that leader performance was associated with followers' collective mood, such that leaders in positive-mood groups made faster decisions and were more effective than leaders in negative-mood groups.

Hence, we contend that leadership research will benefit from more follower-centric perspectives, as reflected in our proposed model. We suggest in particular that emotional contagion processes may serve as a key mechanism by which followers can affect a leader's influence. In effect, displays of followers' negative affect and the resulting emotional contagion effects serve to minimize a leader's influence. The impact of emotional contagion is seen in leader–member exchange relationships (LMX), team–member exchange relationships (TMX), and the team climate (affective climate and trust climate) that develops over time (Johnson, 2008).

3.4. Exchange relationships

3.4.1. LMX

The focus of LMX theory is on the differentiated exchange relationships that leaders develop and maintain with organizational members (see Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995, for a review). Here, the unit of analysis is the dyad, comprised of the leader and member. Considerable empirical research has been focused on developing an understanding of LMX relationships, and substantial evidence has been found for the influence of LMX relationship quality on employees' organizational commitment, job satisfaction, task performance, helping behaviors, and turnover intentions (see Gerstner & Day, 1997).

From this dyadic perspective, we suggest that organizational members' displays of negative affect and the emotional contagion that follows will have implications for leader–member exchange relationship quality. In particular, members may portray negative affect, such as jealously, resentment, and distress, as a result of leaders who are perceived to be favoring specific group members over others, or leaders perceived to be insincere. We argue further that, over time, these negative emotions will spread across the group's membership, and will therefore impact the quality of the leader–member exchange relationships through the group. This includes not only the LMX relationship between the organizational members who initially display the negative emotion, but also the LMX relationships of other members who have been "infected" through the meso process of emotional contagion. Thus:

Proposition 3. *Over time, individual member negative emotions will spread through a process of emotional contagion, negatively affecting the quality of their own and other group members' LMX relationships.*

3.4.2. TMX

According to Seers and his colleagues (Seers, 1989; Seers, Petty, & Cashman, 1995), team–member exchange (TMX) is a theoretical extension of leader–member exchange (LMX), emphasizing the quality of social exchanges between individual team

members. It provides an indication of the effectiveness of the members' ongoing relationships within the team. Specifically, TMX involves team members' willingness to help other members, to share feedback, and to contribute ideas to the team (Seers, 1989).

TMX is also related to, but distinct from, other similar variables such as collective efficacy or group potency. Group potency refers to group members' collective perceptions or shared belief about how efficacious and capable their group is (Jung & Sosik, 2003). TMX, on the other hand, emphasizes the ongoing reciprocal relationships between individuals and other team members (Seers, 1989). Although these constructs are conceptually similar, they have a different focus and are empirically distinct.

Moreover, as Tse and Dasborough (2008) have recently shown, the quality of TMX relationships is associated with the emotions experienced by the individuals in the relationships. Consequently, individual members displaying emotions (regardless of the source of the emotion) influence the quality of their relationships with other team members. In our model, such negative affective displays may also be specifically directed toward team members who are perceived to be favored by the leaders. Thus, as a result of proximity and constant social interaction, negative affective displays can influence other team members' perceptions of their exchange relationships (e.g., Kelly & Barsade, 2001). It also seems reasonable to assume that team members are unlikely to develop high-quality TMX relationships if they experience the negative emotions displayed by other members.

Proposition 4. *Over time, individual member negative emotions will spread to other group members through a process of emotional contagion, negatively affecting the quality of group-level TMX relationships.*

3.5. Team climates

3.5.1. Affective climate

Choi, Price, and Vinokur (2003) define affective climate as an overall interaction pattern or a shared positive perception among members, and the atmosphere that characterizes interactions within a team. Although climate perceptions originate within individuals, affective climate is conceptualized and operationalized as a group-level construct that represents a shared perception of affect within the group (Anderson & West, 1998; Ashkanasy & Nicholson, 2003). Research suggests that climate perceptions influence how individuals think and behave collectively by stimulating their perceptions and feelings about their team (De Rivera, 1992). With this notion in mind, characteristics of the affective climate – including the level of warmth, support, acceptance, sincerity and enthusiasm – serve as social control mechanisms guiding team members on how to interpret events, develop appropriate attitudes, and understand expectations concerning their behaviors (Choi et al., 2003; De Rivera, 1992).

The role of team affective climate in leadership was empirically examined by Tse et al. (2008), who found that, at the team level, the relationship between LMX and workplace friendship was moderated by affective climate. Specifically, Tse and colleagues found that high-quality LMX relationships were associated with enhanced workplace friendship between employees, especially when affective climate was strong. Hence, affective climate has implications for the relationship between team members and for relationships with leaders. Our focus is on negative affect, so that:

Proposition 5. *Through the meso process of emotional contagion, individual negative emotions contribute to a negative affective climate at the group level.*

3.6. Trust climate

Trust is especially important within the context of leader-follower relationships (see Burke, Sims, Lazzara, & Salas, 2007 for a review). It has been examined from both perspectives of leader trust in followers (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000), as well as follower trust in leaders (Burke et al., 2007). McAllister (1995) defines interpersonal trust as the extent to which a person is confident in, and willing to act on the basis of, the words, actions, and decisions of another. As Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, (1995) outline, overall trust depends on perceived ability, integrity, and benevolence. Ability reflects competence, integrity reflects behavioral consistency (Simons, 1999, 2002), and benevolence is defined as the perception that the trustee wants to do good to the trustor, aside from self-centered profit motives (Cook & Wall, 1980).

In the case of leadership, followers must trust their leader if they are to comply with the leader's requests. Simons' (1999, 2002) work is particularly relevant in the case of understanding how attributions of insincerity may impact climate of trust through emotional contagion. Simon explains that trust is determined through perceived integrity of the leader, operationalized as word-deed alignment (or consistency). If leaders display inconsistent negative affect toward followers, the followers will form attributions of insincerity, and this may go on to impact trust climate. We argue that emotional contagion is the mechanism through which this impact across levels occurs.

While the importance of trust in leaders has been established at the individual level (Burke et al., 2007), we argue further that it should also be considered at the group level in the form of trust climate. Lau and Lam (2008) recently examined team trust in leadership, and found that subordinates' trust for leaders and team citizenship behaviors were positively related at the group level of analysis. Lau and Lam reported in addition that teams showed more citizenship behaviors when leaders felt more trusted. Based on a positive climate of trust, it seems that leaders realize that their capabilities, benevolence, and integrity (Mayer et al., 1995) are assured by their followers (see Lau & Lam, 2008).

As explained earlier, we propose that individuals' negative emotions spread via emotional contagion to other team members. When this occurs, it is reasonable to expect that the negative emotions of the group contribute to lower levels of trust in the leader at the group level.

Proposition 6. *Through the meso process of emotional contagion, individual negative emotions contribute to building a climate of mistrust at the group level.*

4. Macro-level outcomes

4.1. Organizational endorsement of the leader

Leadership endorsement has previously been examined from the perspective of individual employee perceptions, with regards to individual level antecedents and outcomes. At the individual level of analysis, Ashforth (1994) discussed the effects of negative leader behavior on subordinates and how such behaviors would result in lower levels of leader endorsement. Later, Platow and van Knippenberg (2001) found that leadership endorsement is positively related to levels of social identification, and negatively related to perceived leader self-interest. In their study, leadership endorsement also refers to individuals' attitudes toward individual in-group leaders.

In our model, we are concerned with leadership endorsement at the organizational level of analysis. Specifically, we are interested in the level of support the organization has for an individual leader, as determined by the top management team who represent the organization as a whole. In this sense, the attitude of the top management team represents the organizational attitude toward the leader, and this should be reflective of the attitude held by the majority of organizational members. We suggest that emotional contagion facilitates the convergence of these attitudes held by individual members in the organization. Hence, there will be an organizational-level attitude toward the leader.

Taking this stance, we build on Platow and van Knippenberg's (2001) and Ashforth's (1994) work, by focusing on organizational level endorsement, and also by examining group-level antecedents (exchange relationships and climates) rather than individual-level antecedents. Together, the group-level processes and relationships influence organizational endorsement of the leader's behavior. Organizational leaders act as agents for their employer and thus require endorsement and support from top-level management. A leader who fails to maintain high-quality relationships with his or her followers and whose work groups exhibit high levels of internal conflict (low TMX quality), negative affective climate, and low trust, is at risk of being evaluated poorly by the organization, especially within the context of 360° evaluation models (Atwater & Brett, 2006). Thus, our next proposition is:

Proposition 7. *The level of organizational endorsement for the leader will be influenced by the quality of exchange relationships in the organization (LMX, TMX) and the nature of the team climate (Affective Climate, Trust Climate).*

4.2. Organizational cynicism toward the leader

Dean, Brandes, and Dhwardkar (1998) suggest that cynicism might be understood as a result of organizational processes involving leadership. Davis and Gardner (2004) define cynicism as the attitude that an entity lacks honesty, sincerity, integrity and fairness. Cynicism may be directed towards business organizations in general, corporate executives and leaders, or other workplace objects (Abraham, 2000; Andersson, 1996; Andersson & Bateman, 1997). As with all organizational attitudes, cynicism specifically involves three components: (1) belief that the organization lacks integrity, (2) negative emotion toward the organization, and (3) behavioral tendencies to be critical and disparaging towards the organization (Dean et al., 1998).

Dean et al. (1998) operationalized cynicism as an individual level variable, although they also acknowledged that individuals within an organization may have similarly cynical attitudes. In fact, the notion of a climate of cynicism is recognized in the communication and political science literature (e.g., see Schenck-Hamlin, Procter, & Rumsey, 2000). If this is so, then it follows that cynicism may also be regarded as an attitude held by organizational members as a whole.

Davis and Gardner (2004) proposed a model whereby LMX and attributional processes influence perceived organizational politics and ultimately, cynicism toward the organization. We build on this earlier work, by incorporating emotional contagion as the mediating mechanism. Emotions are closely tied in with cynicism. In particular, as Dean et al. (1998) note, cynicism in organizations is associated with negative feelings, such as contempt, frustration, disappointment, and hopelessness. Further, these scholars explain that cynical employees may feel shame, distress, and disgust when they reflect on their organization.

In an empirical study, Andersson and Bateman (1997) found that cynicism toward a hypothetical organization was related to high levels of executive compensation, poor organizational performance, and organizational layoffs. In our model, we suggest that members across the organization who perceive a leader to be showing favoritism or insincerity will become cynical, especially after the associated negative emotions spread amongst organizational members through emotional contagion. Further, this cynicism will become more pronounced over time and will spread throughout the organization. The level of cynicism will be indirectly determined by the meso-level emotional contagion process, via the quality of exchange relationships and the nature of the team climate. Hence,

Proposition 8. *The level of organizational cynicism toward the leader will be influenced by the quality of exchange relationships (LMX, TMX) and the nature of the team climate (Affective Climate, Trust Climate).*

4.3. Contextual variables as moderators

Contextual influences are an essential aspect of meso-modeling; and empirical examinations of meso-level relationships must address the context in which target phenomena are studied (Johns, 2006). Our intention is to respond to the calls by Johns and

others (e.g., Osborn et al., 2002; Rousseau & Fried, 2001), to include the underlying effects of context in organizational research. The six contextual variables that we deem most relevant to our model are: task interdependence, the temporal context, reward systems, emotional labor requirements, organizational culture, and power distance. At the same time, we do acknowledge that other contextual factors, such as organizational level and mutual liking of members may also have an effect, but it is not possible to include them all. We believe that the six variables we have selected provide a broad range of situational factors that are likely to impact the relationships proposed.

4.4. Task interdependence

Task interdependence refers to the degree to which individuals work closely with their team members to share information, work related-knowledge and expertise in order to complete their assigned tasks (Stewart & Barrick, 2000). Schnake and Dumler (2003) explain that task interdependence increases the time and effort required for team members to ensure effective coordination with other team members. Hence, the higher the level of task interdependence, the greater need for good communication, information exchange and coordinated effort among team members for achieving group-level goals (Stewart & Barrick, 2000).

On this basis, we argue that, in situations of high task interdependence, member perceptions of unwarranted favoritism and leader insincerity may be perceived as more unacceptable and members might therefore experience greater negative emotions in response to their leader. Further, the negative emotions are likely to spread via emotional contagion at a faster rate in highly interdependent situations (Barsade, 2002) where members are required to work closely with each other and to engage in frequent interaction for task accomplishment (Liden et al., 2006). This creates more opportunities for emotional contagion to occur. Thus:

Proposition 9a. *Task interdependence will moderate the meso process of emotional contagion, such that members will experience greater negative emotion in situations of high task interdependence as compared to low task interdependence, resulting in greater impact of negative affect on dyadic and group outcomes (Propositions 3, 4, 5, and 6), and stronger effects in terms of organizational endorsement of the leader (Proposition 7) and organizational cynicism towards the leader (Proposition 8).*

4.5. Temporal context

In our earlier development of Proposition 2, we addressed the notion of "behavioral consistency." This suggests that the time dimension should also be considered as a moderating influence in our model. If a leader's behavior is seen by followers to be consistently manifested over time, then the behavior will come to be attributed to the leader. This notion of behavioral consistency is underpinned by attribution theory, which explains whether observed behavior is seen to be determined by the person (internal factors) or the environment (external factors) (Heider, 1958).

We argue that, if a leader consistently displays unwarranted favoritism or inconsistent negative emotions across time, then such displays are more likely to be attributed to internal causes (the leader) (see Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002). As a result, members perceiving these displays will experience more negative emotions toward the leader, and experience them more often over time (Dasborough, 2006). On the contrary, the less frequently these negative leader behaviors are observed, the less likely the members will have negative emotional reactions, because they will tend to attribute the behavior to be isolated incidents only. Clearly, this has implications for the emotional contagion process and subsequent organizational outcomes for the leader, so that:

Proposition 9b. *Temporal consistency will moderate the meso process of emotional contagion, such that members will experience greater negative emotion in situations of temporal consistency as compared to temporal inconsistency, resulting in greater impact of negative affect on dyadic and group outcomes (Propositions 3, 4, 5, and 6), and stronger effects in terms of organizational endorsement of the leader (Proposition 7) and organizational cynicism towards the leader (Proposition 8).*

4.6. Organization reward system

Leader substitute theory emphasizes that there are potential contextual factors that reduce the implications of leadership (Kerr & Jermier, 1978); rewards are one such contextual factor, which serve as "neutralizers" that reduce the effects of a leader's actions. Financial rewards not only repay individuals for their contribution to organizational objectives, but also symbolize success and reinforce achievement (Rynes, Gerhart, & Parks, 2005). Specifically, we suggest that individual and team rewards will moderate the relationship between perceived unwarranted favoritism and attributions of insincerity, and members' emotions.

While reward systems do not make a leader's actions redundant, they do reduce the potential impact of a leader's actions on members (Kerr & Jermier, 1978). It is conceivable that an organization's individual and team reward systems could nullify the effects of perceived leader favoritism on team members' emotions, for instance. If individual team members receive direct access to their organization's benefits and resources for meeting individual performance goals regardless of leader treatment, negative perceptions about their leaders' differential treatment becomes less important (triggering less negative emotions). This, our next proposition is:

Proposition 9c. *The organization's reward system will moderate the meso process of emotional contagion, such that, in situations where organizational member rewards are less contingent on leader decisions, members will experience lessened impact of negative affect on dyadic and group outcomes (Propositions 3, 4, 5, and 6), resulting in weaker effects in terms of organizational endorsement of the leader (Proposition 7) and organizational cynicism towards the leader (Proposition 8).*

4.7. Emotional labor requirements

We also suggest that the tendency for followers to express negative affect may be moderated by a particular type of job demand, emotional labor requirements. Organizational members in service roles, for instance, often perform emotional labor owing to set expectations and display rules that demand followers to express positive emotions and withhold negative emotions on the job (Brotheridge & Grandey, 2002; Grandey, 2003; Grandey, Dicktner & Hock, 2004; Totterdell & Holman, 2003). The bulk of emotional labor research focuses on employees' tendency to engage in surface and deep acting towards customers or clients.

Little research, however, has examined the link between follower emotional labor and tendency to express emotions toward leaders. An exception is Wong and Law (2002), who found in a field study that supervisor-rated job performance was highest for high emotional intelligence followers working in situations that required emotional labor. It may therefore be plausible to suggest that followers are less likely to engage in open emotional expression toward their leaders if they are working in environments that have emotional labor requirements for dealing with customers or clients. In these situations, followers may be discouraged from open expressions of emotions towards their leaders and may engage in surface and/or deep acting. Subsequently, this reduces the likelihood of emotional contagion processes occurring between followers in groups.

In view of these suggestions, we propose that the tendency for followers to express negative emotions towards their leader will be moderated by the extent to which followers are required to engage in emotional labor. Hence:

Proposition 9d. *Emotional labor requirements will moderate the meso process of emotional contagion, such that members who are expected to adhere to emotion display rules when dealing with clients and customers will be less likely than their low emotional labor requirement compatriots to express negative emotions towards their leaders, resulting in lessened impact of negative affect on dyadic and group outcomes (Propositions 3, 4, 5, and 6), and weaker effects in terms of organizational endorsement of the leader (Proposition 7) and organizational cynicism towards the leader (Proposition 8).*

4.8. Organizational culture

A further factor that is likely to influence the processes in our model is organizational culture. Organizational culture is defined by Schein (2004) in terms of deeply embedded organizational values and assumptions that are passed down to organizational members by the organization's top leaders, and serve to guide members in the way they think, feel, and behave in all matters related to the organization. Notably, organizational culture is distinguished from organizational climate in that the focus of culture is on judgments and values, rather than on practices and procedures as in climate (Ashkanasy, 2007). Therefore, climate is a group-level outcome of group leadership, while culture is an organizational-level construct reflecting embedded values and assumptions in the organization (see Ashkanasy, Wilderom, & Peterson, 2000).

We propose that culture should be a moderator of the processes in our model, while climate is an outcome of the processes. Moreover, culture is normally conceptualized as a multi-dimensional construct. For example, in a review of the culture survey literature, Ashkanasy, Broadfoot, and Falkus (2000) identified ten dimensions of culture: leadership, structure, innovation, job performance, planning, communication, environment, humanistic workplace, development of the individual, and socialization on entry. These dimensions boiled down to two factors in subsequent analysis: expressive and instrumental. Expressive culture relates to values in the organization concerned with leadership, interpersonal relationships, and affect; instrumental culture refers to the organization's focus on structure, policies, and rules.

We argue here that it is the expressive dimension of culture that is most likely to influence the way that members' negative affective displays are reflected in group and organizational outcomes. Thus, in an organization that is characterized by a highly expressive culture, organizational members place greater emphasis on charisma and inter-personal communication, so that there is also a greater awareness of and acceptance of affective cues. As a result, we propose:

Proposition 9e. *Organizational culture will moderate the meso process of emotional contagion, such that members will experience greater negative emotion when they work in organizations with a high expressive culture as compared to low expressive culture organizations, resulting in greater impact of negative affect on dyadic and group outcomes (Propositions 3, 4, 5, and 6) and stronger effects in terms of organizational endorsement of the leader (Proposition 7) and organizational cynicism towards the leader (Proposition 8).*

4.9. Power distance

In addition to culture, which is more or less unique to each organization (Schein, 2004), general societal culture may also influence the processes we put forward in this article. In this respect, Hofstede (2001) proposed five societal culture dimensions that impact behavior and attitudes in organizations: individualism-collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity-femininity, and future orientation. More recently, House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, and Gupta (2004) added two additional dimensions: performance orientation and human orientation, and split two other of the Hofstede dimensions, so that individualism-collectivism became institutional collectivism and in-group collectivism, and masculinity-femininity became assertiveness and gender egalitarianism. We argue, however, that the key societal culture dimension likely to affect the processes set out in our model is power distance, defined by Dale, Javidan, and Gupta (2004) as the degree to which organizational members within a given society expect power to be distributed unequally.

We propose that power distance will exacerbate the process of emotional contagion and its effects up to the group level, but that this may not carry over to organizational level outcomes. This is because, in a high power-distance society, leaders are seen by organizational members to have more influence (Dale et al., 2004), resulting in more favoritism and stronger affective displays. This in turn should lead to more negative responses from members and thus increase their negative affect. At the same time, however, high power distance implies greater acceptance of a power differential between leaders and members. Thus, although the result at the group level may be lower LMX and TMX quality, a more mistrusting and negative affective climate, this may not necessarily be reflected in the organizational-level outcomes, since the leader's behavior, although ostensibly more negative, still meets organizational members' expectations. In this instance, organizational cynicism towards the leader is unlikely to be heightened, nor is organizational endorsement of the leader likely to be substantially reduced. Therefore, our final proposition is:

Proposition 9f. *Power distance will moderate the meso process of emotional contagion, such that members will experience greater negative emotion when working in high power-distance cultures than low power distance cultures, resulting in greater impact of negative affect on dyadic and group outcomes (*Propositions 3, 4, 5, and 6*), although this effect is not expected to impact organizational endorsement of the leader (*Proposition 7*) or organizational cynicism towards the leader (*Proposition 8*).*

4.10. Feedback mechanisms

Although not addressed in terms of formal propositions, we note here that there are likely to be three feedback mechanisms operating (shown in Fig. 1 by the dashed lines). The first of these is from LMX quality (at the dyadic level) to favoritism towards members (at the individual level). This simply reflects the nature of LMX quality, where leaders display differentiated behaviors to group members (favoritism). Thus, if negative emotional contagion processes lead to a lessening in LMX quality, then this is also likely to be reflected in an increase in leader favoritism behaviors. The second source of feedback links the group outcome variables (TMX quality; affective climate; trust climate) back to leader affective displays (at the individual level). Here it seems to be a reasonable presumption that increased negative affect at the group level will be reflected in the leaders' displays of negative affect towards group members.

The third feedback loop is from organizational level outcomes (decreased organizational endorsement and increased organizational cynicism) back to leader affective displays. This feedback loop reflects the effect on the leader of the organization's responses to group-level outcomes. Its effect, however, is likely to depend on the leader's response to the organizational level feedback. The leader may take one of two positions. S/he may resent the loss of support at the organizational level, leading to even stronger negative affective displays. Or s/he may attempt to turn the situation around by modifying her or his behavior to try to address the loss of support and cynicism at the organizational level.

5. Discussion

The intent of this article was to present a model showing how micro-level follower perceptions and attributions have implications for meso-level emotional processes, and macro-level organizational leadership. Specifically, we proposed that followers' perceptions of leader favoritism and attributions of leader sincerity form the basis for followers' experience of and displays of negative affect. We suggested that, through the meso process of emotional contagion, this negative affect may be a source of followers' disapproval of leadership at dyadic-level and group-levels and that this then flows through to the organizational-level.

5.1. Methodological implications

Our model involves variables at different levels of analysis, and a meso process of emotional contagion linking these levels. This could make empirical testing of the model difficult. In the following section, we outline some of the methodological challenges and present some suggestions for tackling these issues.

5.2. Measures of variables

Most of the variables presented in the model have established measures. The measures we suggest are: perceived LMX variability/favoritism (Hooper & Martin, 2008), attribution of leader sincerity (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2004), negative affect (PANAS: Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), LMX-7 (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), TMX (Seers, 1989), Trust (McAllister, 1995), climate of fear (Ashkanasy & Nicholson, 2003), cynicism (Andersson & Bateman, 1997), and endorsement of leader (Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001).

It should be noted, however, that these measures are based on self-report data collection, which itself can be problematical. Problems include: issues of common method variance (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003); recall bias, especially recall of emotion and affect (Robinson & Clore, 2002); and aggregation (Rousseau, 1985). More important are issues related to the need to measure emotional variables in real time, especially when they involve dynamic processes such as contagion. In this respect, Fisher (2008) argues that researchers need to capture data in real time using experience sampling (Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1983). Dasborough, Sinclair, Bennett, and Tombs (2008) discuss some of the challenges in assessing emotional responses in real time, and introduce alternative methods of assessment to overcome the limitation of self-reports. For example, they discuss the use

of physiological measures of emotion, including changes to blood pressure, heart rate, adrenaline levels, neural images, perspiration, posture, and muscle activity (when smiling or frowning).

Recent developments in the study of complexity theory may also shed light on measuring the dynamic processes presented in our model. For example, Hazy (2006; 2007) introduced a complexity theory of leadership, where leadership is seen to play an important role in managing organization's complex systems in response to a constantly changing environment. To assess the complex interaction dynamics between leaders, followers, and coworkers within the network of human interaction systems, Hazy proposes the use of computational modeling. In view of the complexity inherent in our model, Hazy's approach may be worth following up.

5.3. Data analysis

Our meso-model includes variables at different levels of analysis. We note that the levels of analysis issue can sometimes become fuzzy, especially in relation to measurement. For example, we have included our outcome variables – organizational endorsement of the leader and organizational cynicism – as organizational-level variables. Thus, these variables need to be conceptualized and measured at the organizational level of analysis, e.g., by surveying top-management attitudes to work-team leaders. Alternatively, a cross-section of members could be surveyed to ascertain organization-wide attitudes, with the results aggregated to the organization-level. The problem in this instance is that care must be taken to avoid the ecological fallacy (Robinson, 1950; Rousseau, 1985); correlations at the individual level are not used to infer correlations about the organization.

Moreover, researchers using traditional statistical techniques need to justify why group-level variables can be calculated in terms of aggregated individual-level measures. In other words, researchers need to establish that there is agreement on the group-level variables among group members within groups, and that there is sufficient between-group variance for the same variables because the individuals' data are nested within teams. There must be within-group agreement in order to justify the use of aggregate measures for affective climate, trust climate and TMX. We suggest that scholars follow the recommendations outlined by Chan (1998), Hofmann (1997), and Klein, Dansereau, and Hall (1994) regarding multilevel research.

We encourage the use of hierarchical linear modeling (HLM) to test the proposed relationships across levels in the model. This method deals with multilevel data and cross-level models without the shortcomings of the aggregation and disaggregation biases. Hence, HLM allows the analysis of multiple level data simultaneously. It is possible to examine interactions between variables at different levels of analysis while accounting for their different sources of variance (Griffin, 2001; Hofmann, Griffin, & Gavin, 2000). In addition, HLM is effective for modeling cross-level interaction effects between group-level predictors and individual-level independent variables on outcome variables (Hofmann et al., 2000). Of course, if using HLM, it is important to have adequate sample size for testing the relationships.

5.4. Boundary conditions and future research directions

As with all theoretical models, ours is subject to boundary conditions. We discuss four of them here. These relate to: (1) our focus on negative emotion; (2) other contagion mechanisms; (3) appointed leaders; and (4) leader impression management behaviors.

The first boundary condition arises because we focus exclusively on negative emotion. The dynamics of positive emotion are different from negative emotion (Ashkanasy & Ashton-James, 2007). Moreover, Dasborough (2006) showed that employees recall more negative affective events than positive affective events, and recalled them with more intensity. Hence, our decision to focus solely on negative affect alone. This decision also has implications for the leader behaviors included our theoretical model; we limit our focus to two specific leader behaviors associated with evoking negative emotions in followers.

This is not to say that positive emotions are not important in leader-member relationships, however. On the contrary, consistent with Positive Organizational Scholarship (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Luthans, 2002), we recognize that positive emotions are vitally important. For example, Bono, Foldes, Vinson and Muros (2007) demonstrated that transformational leadership can lead to members reporting positive emotional states, resulting in higher satisfaction and performance.

We are aware of the potential impact that members' positive affect may have on our proposed relationships. The collective experience of members' positive affect may serve to form a positive group climate (Bartel & Saavedra, 2000), which may impact the leader's own felt emotions and performance (Tee & Ashkanasy, 2008). Further, we realize that members' positive affect may flow through contagion processes and moderate the extent to which members experience and "catch" other members' negative affect. This is an important consideration because, realistically, group moods are seldom purely "positive" or "negative". In fact, recent theory suggests that actual organizational groups consist of members experiencing both positive and negative affect (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2005; Walter & Vogel, 2008). In this respect, the positive affect of members may moderate the extent and potency of negative emotional contagion. These suggestions, however, require further exploration and present novel considerations for more extensive versions of our model.

A second boundary condition relates to the mechanisms of contagion, which may be more complicated than we have presented in this article. For instance, other variables such as status, credibility, likeability, and similarity of individual team members may impact the extent to which negative affect towards the leader spreads within the group. It is also arguable that there may be a "tipping point" (Gladwell, 2000) of team members experiencing negative affect; a critical mass of infection which is needed to spread negative affect rapidly to the majority of team members. Without an understanding of the intensity of negative affect that each team member experiences and displays, however, it is difficult to predict what level is sufficient to cause the spread of negative affect within a team. Given the complexity of the current model, we suggest future research should explore this issue.

A third boundary condition affecting our model is that we only address the role of the leader in a position of appointed authority, where the relationships between leaders and members is assumed to be pre-determined within an organizational structure rather than fluid (e.g., as described in Pearce & Manz, 2005). Our focus was exclusively on fixed leader-member relationships in a formal organizational setting. In this respect, we took no account of the effect of shared leadership (Pearce & Manz, 2005), where leaders and followers engage dynamically to define their working relationships.

The fourth and final boundary condition to our model that we discuss arises because we have not taken account of impression management. Thus, while we have proposed that leaders may be endorsed depending on the climate and exchange relationships they foster with followers, we are also aware that leadership endorsement is also largely a function of impression management (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008). As such, it may be that leaders deliberately use impression management tactics to win favor. For instance, Luthans, Hodgetts, and Rosenkrantz (1988) found that rapidly promoted managers tended to be skilled in impression management and networking abilities. Palmer, Welker, Campbell and Magner (2001) found similar results, in that managers were often predisposed to using impression management tactics to garner approval from followers.

The key argument here is that organizational-level leadership endorsement and cynicism toward leaders are largely the result of how much followers approve of their leaders. Leaders who are endorsed may not necessarily be the most effective, and may under certain contexts be serving personal (as opposed to group) interests (see Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002). Whether leaders ultimately exploit their followers' for group or self-serving interests is beyond the scope of our current model. We do however; argue that this caveat reflects reality to a greater extent, as it is unlikely that all leaders engage in behaviors purely for the benefit of their followers.

Finally, we note that the relationships presented in our model are not exhaustive; hence, there are many opportunities for extensions. Shared leadership, leader proactivity, positive emotions, and other potential variables all represent opportunities for further development of our ideas. In particular, we acknowledge that other outcome variables, such as individual and group performance, may be pertinent. For example, had we included performance outcomes instead of organizational attitudinal outcomes, the dynamics in this model would have been different. We encourage leadership scholars to explore some of these promising avenues in their future research.

5.5. Theoretical implications

A key theoretical contribution of our meso approach to leadership is that, consistent with Ashkanasy and Jordan (2008), our model takes into account the complexity that exists in organizations, and portrays a more integrative approach towards the study of leader-member relationships across organizational levels. In addition to including multiple levels of analysis, we also examined a cross-level meso process and a range of contextual factors influencing the leadership process, as called for by Osborn et al. (2002).

Our meso-model also provides insights into the current research on LMX theory and TMX theory. Although the implications of LMX for TMX have been implicit in the social exchange literature, it has not been made theoretically explicit (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Sparrowe & Liden, 2005) and little attention has been paid to contextual factors (see Tse et al., 2008). In this article, we have endeavored to advance the literature by presenting a model that outlines six contextual variables which complicate the exchange relationships between individuals, team members and leaders. Incorporating these contextual factors has potential to increase our understanding of why and how exchange relationships affect employees' work attitudes and behaviors in larger collectives of workgroups.

In addition, our follower-centric model suggests that followers are not merely passive onlookers in the leadership process, but are instrumental in shaping organizational leadership endorsement (Hollander, 1992). In this article, we posit that emotional contagion processes play an important but overlooked role in leadership processes. Studies of emotional contagion, and especially upward emotional contagion, are only just now appearing. We suggested that follower emotional contagion is a key meso-mechanism by which followers and teams directly influence leadership outcomes. This also extends the leadership literature from a more follower-centric perspective, drawing on suggestions by Meindl (1995) Hollander (1992) and Weierter (1997), who suggest that followers may at times engage in actions that limit or moderate a leader's overall effectiveness. We hope that, by presenting emotional contagion as a meso-level process, we can make a contribution to the leadership literature, although clearly there is room for further research on emotional contagion in leader-member relationships.

5.6. Practical implications

Finally, we feel that our model has some important practical implications. First, it suggests that leaders need to consider how they interact with individuals in teams, as their behavior is a source of affective events for followers (Dasborough, 2006). We suggest that in-group favoritism may not necessarily yield positive outcomes, as leaders may be seen to emphasize the interests of one individual over the entire group. In-group favoritism must be portrayed as being collectively beneficial to the entire group, and not just specific, individual group members. Similarly, care should be taken with affective displays. Leaders who appear insincere when displaying affect may evoke negative follower attributions. Hence, leaders need to be aware that their actions are subject to follower attributions and perceptions, and that these cognitions evoke emotional responses (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2004).

A major component of our model is that follower affect in response to leader favoritism and inconsistent negative displays of affect can be spread through emotional contagion to other followers (Barsade, 2002), and ultimately across the whole organization. Thus, care must be taken with the management of follower emotions. If a leader has highly negative interactions with

just one follower, this negativity may spread like a disease throughout the team, and then to the organization as a whole. Single emotional interactions that are left unchecked are not isolated from other individuals; they can indirectly impact many other individuals in the organization over time.

Our follower-centric, meso-model of leadership also presents some important implications for the practice and understanding of leadership, and these implications differ to those offered by earlier leader-centric and situation-centric theories of leadership. Individual followers influence leadership outcomes via their displays of negative affect and through meso-level processes of emotional contagion. This may be how followers communicate their disapproval of leader behaviors, negatively impacting exchange relationships and group level climate, and is ultimately reflected at the organizational level as reduced endorsement and heightened cynicism toward the leader. Note here that the negative contagion processes are actually not intrinsically negative for the organization. If leaders act badly towards their members, resulting in negative group-level consequences, this will then come back to bite them in terms of the organization's attitude to the leaders, presumably resulting in actions to redress the poor leadership situation. The point here is that the negative impact of leader behaviors on members becomes magnified though meso-level emotional contagion processes, that in the end reflect negatively back on the leader; hence, "what goes around, comes around."

Acknowledgements

References

Abraham, R. (2000). Organizational cynicism: Bases and consequences. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs, 126,* 269–292.

Anderson, N. R., & West, M. A. (1998). Measuring climate for work group innovation: Development and validation of the team climate inventory. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 19,* 235–258.

Andersson, L. M. (1996). Employee cynicism: An examination using a contract violation framework. *Human Relations, 49,* 1395–1418.

Andersson, L. M., & Bateman, T. S. (1997). Cynicism in the workplace: Some causes and effects. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 18,* 449–460.

Antonakis, J., Schriesheim, C. A., Donvan, J. A., Gopalakishna-Pillai, K., Pellegrini, E. K., & Rossomme, J. L. (2004). Methods for studying leadership. In J. Antonakis, A. R. Cianciolo, & R. J. Sternberg (Eds.), *The nature of leadership* (pp. 48–70). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Ashforth, B. E. (1994). Petty tyranny in organizations. *Human Relations, 47,* 755–778.

Ashkanasy, N. M. (1989). Causal attribution and supervisors' responses to subordinate performance: The Green and Mitchell model revisited. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 19,* 309–330.

Ashkanasy, N. M. (2007). Organizational climate. In S. R. Clegg & J. R. Bailey (Eds.), *International Encyclopedia of organization studies, volume 3* (pp. 1028–1030). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Ashton-James, C. E. (2007). Positive emotion in organizations: A multi-level framework. In C. L. Cooper & D. Nelson (Eds.), *Positive organizational behavior* (pp. 57–73). Chichester, UK: John Wiley and Sons.

Ashkanasy, N. M., Broadfoot, L., & Falkus, S. (2000). Questionnaire measures of organizational culture. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C. Wilderom, & M. Peterson (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate* (pp. 131–146). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Ashkanasy, N. M., Härtel, C. E. J., & Daus, C. S. (2002). Diversity and emotion: The new frontiers in organizational behavior research. *Journal of Management, 28,* 307–338.

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Jordan, P. J. (2008). A multi-level view of leadership and emotion. In H. H. Humphrey (Ed.), *Affect and emotion: New directions in management theory and research* (pp. 19–41). Charlotte, NC: Information Age Publishing.

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Nicholson, G. J. (2003). Climate of fear in organizational settings: Construct definition, measurement and a test of theory. *Australian Journal of Psychology, 55,* 24–29.

Ashkanasy, N. M., Wilderom, C. P. M., & Peterson, M. F. (2000). Introduction. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C. Wilderom, & M. Peterson (Eds.), *Handbook of Organizational Culture and Climate* (pp. 1–18). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Atwater, L. E., & Brett, J. F. (2006). 360-degree feedback to leaders: Does it relate to changes in employee attitudes? *Group and Organization Management, 31,* 578–600.

Barsade, S. G. (2002). The ripple effect: Emotional contagion and its influence on group behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 47,* 644–675.

Bartel, C. A., & Saavedra, R. (2000). The collective construction of work group moods. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 45,* 197–231.

Bono, J. E., Foldes, H. J., Vinson, G., & Muros, J. P. (2007). Workplace emotions: The role of supervision and leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92,* 1357–1367.

Bono, J. E., & Illies, R. (2006). Charisma, positive emotions and mood contagion. *The Leadership Quarterly, 17,* 317–334.

Brotheridge, C. M., & Grandey, A. A. (2002). Emotional labor and burnout: Comparing two perspectives of 'people work'. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 60,* 17–39.

Brower, H. H., Schoorman, F. D., & Tan, H. H. (2000). A model of relational leadership: The integration of trust and leader-member exchange. *The Leadership Quarterly, 11,* 227–251.

Burke, C. S., Sims, D. E., Lazzaro, E. H., & Salas, E. (2007). Trust in leadership: A multi-level review and integration. *The Leadership Quarterly, 18,* 606–632.

Calder, B. J. (1977). An attribution theory of leadership. In B. Staw & G. Salancik (Eds.), *New Directions in Organizational Behavior* (pp. 179–204). Chicago: St. Clair Press.

Cameron, K., Dutton, J. E., & Quinn, R. E. (Eds.). (2003). *Positive organizational scholarship: Foundations of a new discipline* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Chan, D. (1998). Functional relations among constructs in the same content domain at different levels of analysis: A typology of comparison models. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83,* 234–246.

Chemers, M. M. (2000). Leadership research and theory: A functional integration. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice, 4,* 27–43.

Chen, G., Kirkman, B. L., Kanfer, R., Allen, D., & Rosen, B. (2007). A multilevel study of leadership, empowerment, and performance in teams. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92,* 332–346.

Choi, J. N., Price, R. H., & Vinokur, A. D. (2003). Self-efficacy changes in groups: Effects of diversity, leadership and group climate. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 24,* 357–371.

Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1980). New work attitude measures of trust, organizational commitment and personal need non-fulfillment. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 53,* 39–52.

Dale, C., Javidan, M., & Gupta, V. (2004). Power distance. In R. J. House, P. J. Hanges, M. Javidan, P. W. Dorfman, & V. Gupta (Eds.), *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* (pp. 280–340). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Dasborough, M. T. (2006). Cognitive asymmetry in employee emotional reactions to leadership behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *17*, 163—178.

Dasborough, M. T., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2002). Emotion and attribution of intentionality in leader-member relationships. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *13*, 615—634.

Dasborough, M. T., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2004). Follower attributions of leader manipulative and sincere intentionality: A laboratory test of determinants and affective covariates. In M. Martinko (Ed.), *Attribution theory in the organizational sciences: Theoretical and empirical contributions.* Information Age publishing.

Dasborough, M. T., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2005). Follower emotional reactions to authentic and inauthentic leadership influence. In Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (Eds.), *Monographs in leadership and management, volume 3: Authentic leadership theory and practice: Origins, effects and development* (pp. 281–300). Oxford, UK: Elsevier/JAI Press.

Dasborough, M. T., Sinclair, M., Bennett, R., & Tombs, A. (2008). Measuring emotion: Methodological issues and alternatives. In N. M. Ashkanasy & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Research companion to emotions in organizations* (pp. 197—208). Cheltenham, UK: Edwin Elgar Publishing (New Horizons in Management Series).

Davis, W. D., & Gardner, W. L. (2004). Perceptions of politics and organizational cynicism: An attributional and leader-member exchange perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *15*, 439—465.

De Rivera, J. (1992). Emotional climate: Social structure and emotional dynamics. In K. T. Strongman (Ed.), *International review of studies on emotions* (pp. 197—218). Chichester, UK: Wiley.

Dean, J. W., Brandes, P., & Dhwardkar, R. (1998). Organizational cynicism. *Academy of Management Review*, *23*, 341—352.

Erdogan, B., & Liden, R. C. (2002). Social exchange in the workplace: A review of recent development and future research direction in leader-member exchange theory. In L. L. Neider & C. A. Schriesheim (Eds.), *Leadership* (pp. 65—114). Greenwich, CT: Information Age Publishing.

Fisher, C. D. (2008). What if we took within-person performance variability seriously? *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *1*, 185—189.

Forgas, J. P., & George, J. M. (2001). Affective influences on judgments and behavior in organizations: An information processing perspective. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *86*, 3—34.

Frederickson, B. L. (2003). The value of positive emotions. *American Scientist*, *91*, 330—335.

Gaddis, B., Connelly, S., & Mumford, M. (2004). Failure feedback as an affective event: Influences of leader affect on subordinate attitudes and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *15*, 663—686.

Game, A. M. (2008). Negative emotions in supervisory relationships: The role of relational models. *Human Relations*, *61*, 355—393.

Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *82*, 827—844.

Giessner, S. R., & van Knippenberg, D. (2008). "License to fail": Goal definition, leader group prototypicality, and perceptions of leadership effectiveness after failure. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *105*, 14—35.

Gladwell, M. (2000). *Tipping point: How little things can make a big difference.* Black Bay.

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of the leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *6*, 219—247.

Grandey, A. A. (2003). When 'the show must go on': Surface acting and deep acting as determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Academy of Management Journal*, *46*, 86—96.

Grandey, A. A., Dicktner, D. N., & Hock, P. S. (2004). The customer is not always right: Customer aggression and emotion regulation of service employees. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *25*, 397—418.

Green, S. G., & Mitchell, T. R. (1979). Attributional processes of leaders in leader-member interactions. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *23*, 429—458.

Greenberg, J., Ashton-James, C. E., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2007). Social comparison processes in organizations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *102*, 22—41.

Griffin, M. A. (2001). Dispositions and work reactions: A multi-level approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *86*, 1142—1151.

Hatfield, E., Cacioppo, J. T., & Rapson, R. L. (1994). *Emotional contagion.* Cambridge University Press: New York.

Hazy, J. K. (2006). Measuring leadership effectiveness in complex socio-technical systems. *Emergence: Complexity & Organization*, *8*, 58—77.

Hazy, J. K. (2007). Computer models of leadership: Foundations for a new discipline or meaningless diversions? *The Leadership Quarterly*, *18*, 391—410.

Heider, F. (1958). *The psychology of interpersonal relations.* New York: John Wiley.

Hennig-Thurau, T., Groth, M., Paul, M., & Gremler, D. D. (2006). Are all smiles created equal? How emotional contagion and emotional labor affect service relationships. *Journal of Marketing*, *70*, 58—73.

Hofmann, D. (1997). An overview of the logic and rationale of hierarchical linear models. *Journal of Management*, *23*, 723—744.

Hofmann, D. A., Griffin, M. A., & Gavin, M. B. (2000). The application of hierarchical linear modeling to organizational research. In K. Klein & S. W. J. Kozlowski (Eds.), *Multi-level theory, research, and methods in organizations* (pp. 467—511). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences: Comparing values, behaviors, institutions, and organizations across nations*, 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks CA: Sage Publications.

Hollander, E. P. (1992). Leadership, followership, self and others. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *3*, 43—54.

Hooper, D. T., & Martin, R. (2008). Beyond personal leader-member exchange (LMX) quality: The effects of perceived LMX variability on employee reactions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*, 20—30.

House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

House, R., Rousseau, D. M., & Thomas-Hunt, M. (1995). The meso paradigm: A framework for the integration of micro and macro organizational behavior. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *17*, 71—114.

Hsee, C. K., Hatfield, E., Carlson, J. G., & Chemtob, C. (1990). The effect of power on susceptibility to emotional contagion. *Cognition and Emotion*, *4*, 327—340.

Johns, G. (2006). The essential impact of context on organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Review*, *31*, 386—408.

Johnson, S. K. (2008). I second that emotion: Effects of emotional contagion and affect at work on leader and follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *19*, 1—19.

Jung, D. I., & Sosik, J. J. (2003). Group potency and collective efficacy. *Group and Organization Management*, *28*, 366—391.

Kelley, H. H. (1973). The process of causal attributions. *American Psychologist*, *28*, 107—128.

Kelly, J. R., & Barsade, S. G. (2001). Moods and emotions in small groups and work teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *86*, 99—130.

Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for leadership: Their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, *22*, 375—403.

Klein, K. J., Dansereau, F., & Hall, R. J. (1994). Levels issues in theory development, data collection, and analysis. *Academy of Management Review*, *19*, 195—229.

Larson, R., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1983). The experience sampling method. In H. T. Reis (Ed.), *Naturalistic approaches to studying social interaction: New directions of methodology in social and behavioral science, vol. 15* (pp. 41—56). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lau, D. C., & Lam, L. W. (2008). Effects of trusting and being trusted on team citizenship behaviors in chain stores. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, *11*, 141—149.

Liden, R. C., Erdogan, B., Wayne, S. J., & Sparrowe, R. T. (2006). Leader-member exchange, differentiation and task interdependence: Implications for individual and group performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *27*, 723—746.

Luthans, F. (2002). The need for and meaning of positive organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *23*, 695—706.

Luthans, F., Hodgetts, R. M., & Rosenkrantz, S. A. (1988). *Real managers.* Cambridge: Ballinger.

Martinko, M. J., Harvey, P., & Douglas, S. C. (2007). The role, function, and contribution of attribution theory to leadership: A review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *18*, 561—585.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, *20*, 709—734.

McAllister, D. J. (1995). Affect- and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal*, *38*, 24—59.

Meindl, J. R. (1995). The romance of leadership as a follower-centric theory: A social constructionist approach. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *6*, 329—341.

Meindl, J. R., Ehrlich, S. B., & Dukerich, J. M. (1985). The romance of leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *30*, 78—102.

Mowday, R. T., & Sutton, R. I. (1993). Organizational behavior: Linking individuals and groups to organizational contexts. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *44*, 195—229.

Newcombe, M. J., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2002). The role of affect and affective congruence in perceptions of leaders: An experimental study. *The Leadership Quarterly, 13*, 601−614.

Nummenmaa, L., Hirvonen, J., Parkkola, R., & Hietanen, J. K. (2008). Is emotional contagion special? An fMRI study on neural systems for affective and cognitive empathy. *NeuroImage, 43*, 571−580.

Osborn, R. N., Hunt, J. G., & Jauch, L. R. (2002). Toward a contextual theory of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 13*, 797−837.

Palmer, R. J., Welker, R. B., Campbell, T. L., & Magner, N. R. (2001). Examining the impression management orientation of managers. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 16*, 35−49.

Pearce, C. L., & Manz, C. C. (2005). The new silver bullets of leadership: The importance of self- and shared leadership in knowledge. *Organizational Dynamics, 34*, 130−140.

Platow, M. J., & van Knippenberg, D. (2001). A social identity analysis of leadership endorsement: The effects of leader ingroup prototypicality and distributive intergroup fairness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 27*, 1508−1519.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J. Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*, 879−903.

Porter, L. W., & McLaughlin, G. B. (2006). Leadership and the organizational context: Like the weather? *The Leadership Quarterly, 17*, 559−576.

Robinson, M. D., & Clore, G. L. (2002). Belief and feeling: Evidence for an accessibility model of emotional self-report. *Psychological Bulletin, 128*, 934−960.

Robinson, W. S. (1950). Ecological correlations and the behavior of individuals. *American Sociological Review, 15*, 351−357.

Rousseau, D. M. (1985). Issues of level in organizational research: Multi-level and cross-level perspectives. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior, 7* (pp. 1−37). Greenwich. CT: JAI Press.

Rousseau, D. M., & Fried, Y. (2001). Location, location, location: Contextualizing organizational research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 22*, 1−13.

Rynes, S., Gerhart, B., & Parks, L. (2005). Personnel psychology: Performance evaluation and pay for performance. *Annual Review of Psychology, 56*, 571−600.

Schein, E. H. (2004). *Organizational culture and leadership*, 3rd ed. San Francisco: Jossy-Bass.

Schenck-Hamlin, W. J., Procter, D. E., & Rumsey, D. J. (2000). The influence of negative advertising frames on political cynicism and politician accountability. *Human Communication Research, 26*, 53−74.

Schnake, M. E., & Dumler, M. P. (2003). Levels of measurement and analysis issues in organizational citizenship behavior research. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, 76*, 283−301.

Seers, A. (1989). Team-member exchange quality: A new construct for role-making research. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 43*, 118−135.

Seers, A., Petty, M. M., & Cashman, J. F. (1995). Team-member exchange under team and traditional management. *Group and Organization Management, 20*, 18−38.

Shamir, B., & Howell, J. M. (1999). Organizational and contextual influences on the emergence and effectiveness of charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly, 10*, 257−283.

Simons, T. (1999). Behavioral integrity as a critical ingredient for transformational leadership. *Journal of Organizational Change Management, 12*, 89−104.

Simons, T. (2002). Behavioral integrity: The perceived alignment between managers' words and deeds as a research focus. *Organization Science, 13*, 18−35.

Sparrowe, R. T., & Liden, R. C. (2005). Two routes to influence: Integrating leader-member exchange and network perspectives. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 50*, 505−535.

Stewart, G. L., & Barrick, M. R. (2000). Team structure and performance: Assessing the mediating role of intrateam process and moderating role of task type. *Academy of Management Journal, 43*, 135−148.

Sy, T., Côté, S., & Saavedra, R. (2005). The contagious leader: Impact of the leader's mood on the mood of group members, group affective tone, and group processes. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 90*, 295−305.

Tangirala, S., Green, S. G., & Ramanujam, R. (2007). In the shadow of the boss's boss: Effects of supervisors' upward exchange relationships on employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 92*, 309−320.

Tee, E. Y. J., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2008, August). Upward emotional contagion and implications for leadership. *Paper presented at the 68th Annual Meetings of the Academy of Management, Anaheim, California, USA.*

Totterdell, P. (2000). Catching moods and hitting runs: Mood linkage and subjective performance in professional sports teams. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85*, 848−859.

Totterdell, P., & Holman, D. (2003). Emotion regulation in customer service roles. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 8*, 55−73.

Totterdell, P., Kellet, S., Teuchmann, K., & Briner, R. B. (1998). Evidence of mood linkage in work groups. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*, 1504−1515.

Tse, H. H. M., & Dasborough, M. T. (2008). A study of exchange and emotions in team member relationships. *Group and Organization Management, 33*, 194−215.

Tse, H. H. M., Dasborough, M. T., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2008). A multi-level analysis of team climate and interpersonal exchange relationships at work. *The Leadership Quarterly, 19*, 195−211.

Walter, F., & Vogel, B. (2008). A theoretical exploration of mixed group mood: The construct and its performance consequences. *Paper presented at the Sixth International Conference on Emotions and Organizational Life, Fontainebleau, France.*

Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology, 54*, 1063−1070.

Weierter, S. J. M. (1997). Who wants to play 'follow the leader?' A theory of charismatic relationships based on routinized charisma and follower characteristics. *The Leadership Quarterly, 8*, 171−193.

Weiss, H., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. In L. L. Cummings & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in Organizational Behavior, vol. 18* (pp. 1−74). Westport, CT: JAI Press.

Weiss, H. M., Nicholas, J. P., & Daus, C. S. (1999). An examination of the joint effects of affective experiences and job beliefs on job satisfaction and variations in affective experiences over time. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 78*, 1−24.

Wong, C. S., & Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *The Leadership Quarterly, 13*, 243−274.

Yammarino, F., & Dubinsky, A. J. (1992). Superior-subordinates relationships: A multiple levels of analysis approach. *Human Relations, 46*, 575−599.

Marie T. Dasborough, University of Miami. Current research interests include emotional responses to leadership, leadership attributions, and leader-member exchange relationships in the workplace.

Neal M. Ashkanasy, University of Queensland. Research interests lie in the role of emotion in organizational settings, focusing on leadership, culture, and ethical behavior.

Eugene Y.J. Tee, University of Queensland. His research interests include emotional contagion and the role of emotions in teams and leader-follower relationships.

Herman H.M. Tse, Griffith University. His current research interests include transformational leadership, relational leadership, emotions in teams and multi-level issues in organizations.