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Leader Affective Presence and Innovation in Teams

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Abstract

Affective presence is a novel personality construct that describes the tendency of individuals to make their interaction partners feel similarly positive or negative. We adopt this construct, together with the Input-Process-Output model of teamwork, to understand how team leaders influence team interaction and innovation performance. In two multisource studies, based on 350 individuals working in 87 teams of two public organizations and 734 individuals working in 69 teams of a private organization, we tested and supported hypotheses that team leader positive affective presence was positively related to team information-sharing, whereas team leader negative affective presence was negatively related to the same team process. In turn, team information-sharing was positively related to team innovation, mediating the effects of leader affective presence on this team output. The results indicate the value of adopting an interpersonal individual differences approach to understanding how affect-related characteristics of leaders influence interaction processes and complex performance in teams.

Keywords: affective presence, leaders, teamwork, information-sharing, innovation

Leader Affective Presence and Innovation in Teams

Are effective leaders able to bring out the best in a team because they elicit the same performance-conducive feelings in others no matter how they feel themselves? Affective presence is a novel personality construct recently described in psychological research (Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010), which describes the tendency of individuals to make their interaction partners feel similarly positive or negative. As such, affective presence is an interpersonal-laden individual difference that may be an important predictor of interpersonal processes within the workplace, such as teamwork and the development of novel ideas (West & Anderson, 1996). In this article, we argue and test how the affective presence of team leaders influences the interpersonal aspects of innovation behavior in teams.

Within the team context, leaders are a substantive source of affective experiences among the other team members (Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005) because they occupy salient and powerful positions and, thus, play a central role in developing cognitive, affective and behavioral processes (Anderson, Keltner, & John, 2003; Kozlowski, Gully, McHugh, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1996; Magee & Galinsky, 2008). To date, most research has focused on how intrapersonal affective processes of leaders influence teamwork (Barsade, 2002; Cherulnik, Donley, Wiewel, & Miller, 2001; Erez, Misangyi, Johnson, LePine, & Halverson, 2008; Madera & Smith, 2009; Sy & Choi, 2013; Sy et al., 2005), with the idea being that the leader's own affect, which includes emotions and moods, are propagated to team members through mechanisms of contagion or inferential processing (Elfenbein, 2014; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1993; Van Kleef, Homan, Beersma et al., 2009; Visser, van Knippenberg, van Kleef, & Wisse, 2013). This has led to a focus on studying stable individual precursors of leaders' momentary affect, such as trait affect or neuroticism (Aronson, Reilly, & Lynn, 2008; Fisher, 2002; Totterdell & Niven, 2014).

However, contagion of and inferences about leaders' emotions are not the only processes by which leaders can influence the affect of team members. A range of implicit and explicit affective linkage processes, including transference, interaction synchrony, controlled interpersonal affect regulation, and impression management (Kelly & Barsade, 2001; Niven, Totterdell, & Holman, 2009), can be involved in modifying how team members feel. Recently, Elfenbein (2014) has proposed that the construct of affective presence "could apply across a number of affective linkage mechanisms" (p. 353). As such, the leader's tendency to consistently elicit particular feelings in team members, regardless of the emotions felt or expressed by the leader himself or herself, could provide the stimulus for the unfolding of affective linkage within teams.

The construct of affective presence was first proposed in a study of MBA student work groups, which identified clear individual differences in the extent to which people consistently elicited activated pleasant affect (positive affective presence) and activated unpleasant affect (negative affective presence) in those they interacted with (Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010). In contrast to the intrapersonal nature of trait affect, affective presence is an interpersonal trait because it is defined by the experiences of interaction partners rather than by those of the focal person. The feelings elicited in other people can be different to those experienced by the focal person, meaning that affective presence is not reducible to emotion contagion which involves the transference of one's own affect to interaction partners. Furthermore, the interpersonal affective reaction involved in the affective presence phenomenon is proposed to be only a part of the whole and complex affective experience of interaction partners because affective presence is different than and not reducible to the generalized affect of the latter. Regarding aetiology, according to emergent research, affective presence seems to be associated with interpersonal skills, such as emotional expressiveness and understanding others' emotions (Berrios et al., 2014), while in terms of

consequences, affective presence has been linked to outcomes involving social interaction, including centrality in friendship networks (Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010) and interpersonal liking (Berrios et al., 2014).

In the present article, we adopt the construct of affective presence, together with the proposals of the Input-Process-Output model of teamwork (Mathieu, Maynard, Rapp, & Gilson, 2008), to increase the understanding of interpersonal processes by which team leaders influence behavior and outcomes within teams. We focus on innovation as one of the most valuable high-performance criteria of teamwork (Anderson & West, 1998; Hulsheger, Anderson, & Salgado, 2009; West & Anderson, 1996). Specifically, we argue for a psychological process that explains how the team leader trait of affective presence (input) influences team information-sharing (process) and consequent team innovation (output).

Team Leader Affective Presence and Team Innovation

Many organizations have adopted a team structure in order to perform effectively in environments described by high levels of uncertainty, time pressure and fierce competition (Griffin, Neal, & Parker, 2007). Teamwork refers to the collaborative actions completed by individuals working together to achieve something beyond the capabilities of individuals working alone (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001). As such, teams are complex and dynamic systems, in which members are involved in high levels of social interaction and performing interdependent tasks in pursuit of common goals (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005; Kozlowski & Bell, 2003). Effectiveness of teamwork has been extensively understood from the Input-Process-Output approach (Mathieu et al., 2008). Team *inputs* refer to the set of organizational, group and individual resources (e.g., organization's environmental complexity, team's task structure, members' personality) available to work on achieving the team's goals. *Processes* are actions performed by team members to move the team towards

its aims (e.g., planning, coordination, monitoring). *Outputs* denote the results of teamwork attributable to team inputs and processes (e.g., quantity/quality of work, innovation).

Innovation – the development of processes, products or procedures new to the relevant unit of adoption – represents one of the most appreciable outcomes of teamwork because of its contribution to the effectiveness and well-being of organizations (West & Anderson, 1996). Accordingly, several inputs and processes have been identified as supporting team innovation (Hulsheger et al., 2009). Leadership styles – such as transformational and authentic leadership – are important inputs for increasing the generation, promotion and realization of novel ideas (Mumford, Scott, Gaddis, & Strange, 2002; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008), as are some personality characteristics of leaders (e.g., Aronson et al., 2008). Furthermore, processes of building a shared vision, support, task orientation and participation are relevant to the same outcomes (Anderson & West, 1998; West, 2002). Here we propose that leader affective presence is an additional team input that can enhance or hinder team information-sharing (process), which in turn can foster or inhibit team innovation (output).

Affective presence is an interpersonal trait and can therefore only be expressed when there is social interaction (Eisenkraft & Effenbein, 2010). Accordingly, team information-sharing (Anderson & West, 1998) – the open flow of thoughts, beliefs and knowledge within a team, which facilitates the cross-fertilization of ideas that are potentially novel and useful at work (Kanter, 1988; Mesmer-Magnus & Dechurch, 2009; West, 2002) – may be a set of team behaviors involving social interaction through which leader affective presence influences innovation. We expect that leader affective presence will influence team information-sharing through both group and individual psychological processes.

First, team member interpersonal behavior, such as information-sharing, may be influenced by group processes that are instigated by affective presence. By definition, leader

affective presence elicits positive or negative affect in all team members; thus, team members' behaviors towards their teammates may be influenced by the feelings elicited among them. In particular, Lawler's (2001) affect theory of social exchange explains that people prefer to interact with others who express pleasant feelings, because those feelings are inherently rewarding. In a similar way, team members may be more likely to share information with other team members when the leader has positive affective presence, because team members will experience affective rewards from interacting with the leader and the other team members who would also be experiencing positive affect. These rewards are also more likely because research suggests that when a person's teammates are feeling positive they will be more inclined to have favorable reactions to another person's ideas and suggestions (Forgas & George, 2001). Another group process that is integral to affective presence is convergence of affective experience among team members. Previous research has indicated that similarity of affect within a group resulting from affect convergence processes can influence its shared behavior and outcomes (Collins, Lawrence, Troth & Jordan, 2013; Menges & Kilduff, 2015). For instance, affective consistency can compensate for the negative impact of low trait positive affect on cooperation and conflict (Barsade, Ward, Turner, & Sonnenfeld, 2000), while a convergent positive affective tone in groups has been associated with greater team effectiveness (Tanghe, Wisse, & van der Flier, 2010). In the case of affective presence, affective convergence is engendered by the consistent elicitation of the same feelings among team members attributed to team leaders. Taken together, therefore, these group processes highlight that team members would be encouraged to share information within teams when the team leader consistently elicits positive affect among them (positive affective presence). Conversely, in teams where the leader has negative affective presence, team members may be less inclined to share information with their fellow teammates, because not only would there be little in the way of affective reward associated

with interactions (Lawler, 2001), but they might also have a convergent experience of negative affect, which has been linked to greater conflict and reduced prosocial behavior in groups (cf. Collins et al., 2013; George, 1990).

Second, individual psychological processes may participate in the association between leader affective presence and team information-sharing, such that team members' behaviors towards their teammates may be affected by the feelings that have been elicited in themselves. These feelings determine the extent to which team members adopt approach and avoidance behaviors when interacting with others in the team. Positive feelings, such as enthusiasm, joy and elation, involve high activation (arousal) (Russell, 2003) that energizes approach tendencies (Brockner & Higgins, 2001; Carver & White, 1994; Higgins, 1997), thereby facilitating prosocial and cooperative behavior among team members (Barsade, 2002; Forgas, 1998; George, 1991; George & Brief, 1992). This kind of behavior, therefore, should dispose people towards the interchange of information with others. In turn, negative feelings, such as anxiety, tension and nervousness, also involve high activation, but in this case arousal is associated with a prevention focus that inhibits sharing of ideas and relevant information (Kish-Gephart, Detert, Trevino, & Edmondson, 2009; Madrid, Patterson, & Leiva, 2015; Morrison & Milliken, 2000), sometimes in the interests of avoiding being labeled as deviant or a troublemaker or to prevent disagreements in the team (Rank, Nelson, Allen, & Xu, 2009; Yuan & Woodman, 2010). Based on the above, therefore, we propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: Leader positive affective presence will be positively related to team information-sharing.

Hypothesis 1b: Leader negative affective presence will be negatively related to team information-sharing.

Regarding team innovation, we propose that team information-sharing would mediate the influences of leader affective presence on this outcome. The relevance of team information-sharing for team innovation is well established in the work and organizational psychology literature (Anderson & West, 1998; Hulsheger et al., 2009), because higher information-sharing entails greater collective decision-making, which reduces resistance to change and thus increases the likelihood of novel ideas being adopted (West, 2002). Overt information-sharing fosters positive team emergent states (e.g., trust, cohesion) and expands the pool of knowledge for dealing with problems and taking advantage of opportunities in the work environment (Mesmer-Magnus & Dechurch, 2009). This increases cross-fertilization of knowledge and ideas, which can spawn creativity among team members and increase the likelihood of reaching innovative team outcomes (West, 2002).

Drawing on the above, we expect that leader positive affective presence will result in greater information-sharing among team members and by consequence lead to greater team innovation. Conversely, leader negative affective presence will inhibit team information-sharing and as a result should be associated with lower team innovation. In support of an indirect effect of leader affective presence on team innovation, research has indicated that positive feelings of the type elicited by a leader's positive affective presence enhance production of novel thoughts (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005; Fredrickson, 2001, 2004) and willingness to strive for the realization of novel and change-oriented ideas (Bindl, Parker, Totterdell, & Hagger-Johnson, 2012; Madrid, Patterson, Birdi, Leiva, & Kausel, 2014). While some studies have reported that negative affect may be positively related to creativity in environments characterized by high social support, rewards and recognition (George & Zhou, 2002, 2007; To, Fisher, Ashkanasy, & Rowe, 2012), on the whole, research suggests that negative feelings of the type elicited by leader negative affective presence stifle the generation of novel ideas (Clore, Schwartz, & Conway, 1994; Loewenstein & Lerner,

2003; Schwarz, 1990; Tsai, Chi, Grandey, & Fung, 2012) and are also associated with withdrawal behavior, for instance, avoiding risks of the kind linked to “rocking the boat” by implementing novel ideas (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). As a result, we propose the following set of hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a: Team information-sharing will mediate the influence of leader positive affective presence on team innovation, such that leader positive affective presence will be positively related to team information-sharing, which in turn will be positively related to team innovation.

Hypothesis 2b: Team information-sharing will mediate the influence of leader negative affective presence on team innovation, such that leader negative affective presence will be negatively related to team information-sharing, which in turn will be positively related to team innovation.

Finally, we argue that the extent to which leader affective presence is a relevant construct to explain teamwork should take account of its incremental validity relative to other leadership variables that are known to contribute to team innovation. In this regard, leader positive and negative affect (Watson, 2000) denote the extent to which individuals experience either positive or negative feelings over time. Applied to the teamwork setting, leader’s affect could influence team processes and outcomes through processes of contagion between the leader and follower’s affective experience (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Elfenbein, 2007; George, 2000; Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005). Leader behavior constitutes another important source of variables that are relevant to team innovation. Research has supported that information-sharing and innovation are positively linked to transformational and ethical leader behavior, because such behaviors enhance change-orientation and trust among followers (Anderson, Potocnik, & Zhou, 2014; Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Den Hartog, 2015; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011). In particular, the leader intellectual-stimulation dimension of

transformational leadership (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004) is thought to be an important driver of creativity (Mumford et al., 2002), while the leader relational-transparency dimension of authentic (ethical) leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2008) has been strongly related to trust and open information-sharing in teams (Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009). Affective presence is distinct from both leader affect and leader behavior because it is an interpersonal trait that is expressed in others and is not a singular behavior. Thus, we propose that leader affective presence will show incremental effects on teamwork variables, relative to leader positive/negative affect and leader intellectual stimulation and relational transparency.

Hypothesis 3a: Leader positive affective presence will be positively related to team information-sharing and team innovation, above and beyond leader positive affect, leader intellectual stimulation and leader relational transparency.

Hypothesis 3b: Leader negative affective presence will be negatively related to team information-sharing and team innovation, above and beyond leader negative affect, leader intellectual stimulation and leader relational transparency.

The Present Research

To test the above hypotheses we used two multisource survey studies to collect data from three independent organizations. The first study was conducted in two public sector organizations, whereas the second study was implemented in a private sector organization. In Study 1, we examined the relationship between leader affective presence, team information-sharing and team innovation (i.e., Hypotheses 1a-2b). Furthermore, we tested the construct validity of leader affective presence, examining whether leader affective presence was different than team members' own affect, and if team member ratings of affective presence were congruent with leaders' self-reports of the same construct. This strategy was important because affective presence is a novel personality trait emerging from experimental research, thereby replication and validation in a field study contributes to generalizability of the

affective presence construct. All information pertaining to the construct validation is available in the online Appendix. Study 2 extended Study 1 by additionally examining the incremental effect of leader affective presence when compared to other relevant inputs to team innovation, namely, leader affect and leadership behavior (i.e., Hypotheses 3a and 3b).

Study 1

Participants. 350 individuals working in 87 independent teams from two major public organizations in Chile took part in the study ($N_{Org.A} = 228$ individuals/66 teams, $N_{Org.B} = 122$ individuals/21 teams). Participants were sent an email inviting them to participate in a study on teamwork, providing an URL link to access the online survey. One organization offered administrative services to the Chilean government, while the other organization was responsible for the exploitation of strategic raw resources. The two organizations had different aims, but their culture and structure were similar because both were part of the public sector. Furthermore, in both organizations, the teams that participated in the study were professional teams responsible for administrative tasks and project development. The datasets from the two organizations were merged but organization was included as a control dummy variable in all analyses. After merging, the demographics of team members were 53% male, the average age was 43.84 years ($SD = 10.44$) and the average organizational tenure was 5.30 years ($SD = 6.46$). Regarding team leaders, 79% were male, the average age was 47.94 years ($SD = 7.77$) and the average organizational tenure was 6.53 years ($SD = 8.81$). Tenure of the team member-leader relationship was 3.47 years ($SD = 1.17$), and the average team size was 4.02 team members ($Min. = 2, Max = 8; SD = 1.88$). The overall response rate was 66.2%, taking into account the total number of individuals invited to participate in the study.

Design. Members of work teams from the two organizations completed a survey in which they rated the affective presence of their respective team leaders, their own work-

related affect, and information-sharing within their teams. In a separate survey, team leaders provided ratings pertaining to their own affective presence and work-related affect (for validation purposes), together with an appraisal of their team's innovation. Surveys were administered through the internet over a period of a week.

Measures. In the team member survey, positive affective presence was measured with three items denoting pleasant and activated feelings (happy, enthusiastic, inspired; $\alpha = .93$), while negative affective presence was measured with three items referring to unpleasant and activated feelings (stressed, tense, worried; $\alpha = .84$). These items are commonly used to measure positive and negative affect (Remington, Fabrigar, & Visser, 2000; Yik, Russell, & Steiger, 2011). Following the Eisenkraft and Elfenbein's measurement procedure (2010), the measure of affective presence was framed as "*indicate to what extent does interacting with the leader of your team usually make you feel... [1: not at all – 5: a great extent].*" Team information-sharing was measured with three items from the Team Climate Inventory developed by Anderson and West (1998) (item example: "*we share information generally in the team rather than keeping it to ourselves*" [1: strongly disagree – 5: strongly agree]; $\alpha = .93$). In the team leader survey, leaders appraised the innovation of their team with the four-item measure developed by De Dreu and West (2001) ($\alpha = .85$). This scale was framed as "*indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with the statements below about your team*" [1: strongly disagree – 5: strongly agree], and an item example was "*this team gives much consideration to new and alternative methods and procedures for doing their work*".

Control variables. The tenure of the relationship between every team member and his/her team leader was measured, in order to account for possible confounding effects. For example, member-leader relationships of longer tenure might involve more contact time leading to more exposure of team members to the affective presence of their leaders. Accordingly, previous research has highlighted that knowledge of the target's personality can

influence quality of personality ratings (Connelly, 2013; Funder, 1995). The tenure of the relationship was measured, in the team member survey, with a single item asking: “*how long have you been working with this team leader?* [1: *less than 6 months*; 2: *between 6 months and 1 year*; 3: *between 1 year and 1 year and a half*; 4: *between 1 year and a half and 2 years*; 5: *more than 2 years*]. Team size was also used as control variable to account for possible differences in team performance. Larger teams might exhibit lesser innovation due to dysfunctional group processes, such as social loafing (Hulsheger et al., 2009).

All the measures used in the study were translated and back-translated between English and Spanish by two of the authors, working independently (Brislin, 1970).

Results. In the first stage of analysis, multilevel confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to test the robustness of the measurement models underlying the hypothesis testing. For this, we followed the procedures described by Byrne (2012). Multilevel confirmatory factor analysis was appropriate given that team leader affective presence is a team-level construct, built from individual ratings of affective presence provided by members of the team managed by the respective team leader. This assumes a direct consensus composition model (Chan, 1998), where the meaning of a higher level construct is in the consensus among lower level observations. We utilized Mplus (Muthén & Muthén, 2010) to test the confirmatory factor analysis, fixing the first loading of each factor equal to 1.0 (marker variable) and evaluating the goodness-of-fit of the models tested with model chi-squared (χ^2) and approximate fit indices (i.e., $RMSEA \leq .05$, $SRMR \leq .08$, $CFI \geq .95$ and $TLI \geq .95$) (Kline, 2011). Results of confirmatory factor analyses conducted with a four-factor model for positive and negative leader affective presence and team information-sharing rated by team members, together with team innovation rated by leaders showed excellent goodness-of-fit ($\chi^2 = 96.81$, $df = 89$, $p = .29$; $RMSEA = .02$; $SRMR = .02$; $CFI = .99$; $TLI = .99$). Thus, the main measurement model involved in the hypotheses testing was supported.

For the second stage of analyses, we performed inter-rater agreement analysis with measures of leader affective presence and team information-sharing (Bliese, 2000; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). This was necessary because affective presence is a construct conceptualized as the agreement that different individuals have about the way a focal person makes them feel (Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010). In the case of this study, affective presence conceptually represents a team-level construct and its ratings were measured at the individual level from team members in relation to their respective leaders as a focal person. Similarly, team information-sharing was measured at the individual level from team members in relation to the team they belonged to. Thus, the non-independence for these ratings in relation to team leaders and team membership and the degree of agreement among team members about these ratings were estimated using intra-class correlation and the average deviation index (Bliese, 2000; Burke & Dunlap, 2002; LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

Intra-class correlation - ICC(1) - was estimated to examine the proportion of variance in ratings of affective presence attributed to systematic between-leaders differences compared to the total variance in the same ratings (cf. Bliese, 2000; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). As such, the ICC(1) denotes the effect size of the extent to which team members' affective presence ratings were attributable to the leaders (LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Average Deviation (AD) of leader affective presence measures was also estimated (Burke and Dunlap, 2002), because this was helpful to determine the degree of agreement among multiple team members rating their respective team leaders on affective presence. For 5-point Likert scales, like those used here, values below .80 on AD indicate substantive inter-rater agreement. Results of the above analysis showed that individual ratings of leader positive affective presence had a substantive degree of non-independence accounted by the nested structure described by teams (ICC(1) = .21), and showed a high degree of consensus among members from the same teams (AD = .63; Average Deviation, Burke & Dunlap, 2002). Similar results were observed for leader

negative affective presence ($ICC(1) = .12$; $AD = .59$), and team information-sharing ($ICC(1) = .21$; $AD = .57$).

The third analytical stage tested the research hypotheses. We performed these analyses using structural equation modeling with observed variables (path analysis) in MPlus (Byrne, 2012; Kline, 2011; Muthén & Muthén, 2010). We used this method to examine direct effects and all the steps of the mediational processes hypothesized in single models, thereby estimating confidence intervals and explained variances in a straightforward way (Iacobucci, Saldanha, & Deng, 2007; Kelley & Preacher, 2012; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). For mediation analysis, following recent developments in the research methods literature, we adopted the indirect-only mediation framework (Rucker, Preacher, Tormala & Petty, 2011; Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010). This states that mediation processes should be tested by estimating and bootstrapping indirect effects between the independent, mediator and dependent variables, but not necessarily assuming a direct effect between the independent and dependent variable to be mediated (Collins, Graham, & Flaherty, 1998; Hayes, 2009; Shrout & Bolger, 2002).

INSERT TABLES 1 AND 2 ABOUT HERE

The means, standard deviations, correlations and reliabilities of the variables are summarized in Table 1. Hypothesis 1a stated that leader positive affective presence would be positively related to team information-sharing. Results in Table 2 showed a positive relationship between leader positive affective presence and team information-sharing ($b = .61$, $SE = .08$, $p < .01$), with an effect size of $R^2 = .38$. Hypothesis 1b proposed that leader negative affective presence would be negatively related to team information-sharing. Results in Table 2 showed a negative relationship between leader negative affective presence and

team information-sharing ($b = -.33, SE = .11, p < .01$), with an effect size of $R^2 = .08$.

Therefore, hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported.

Hypothesis 2a stated that team information-sharing would mediate the influence of leader positive affective presence on team innovation, such that leader positive affective presence would be positively related to team information-sharing, which in turn would be positively related to team innovation. Results in Table 3 indicated that when leader positive affective presence and team information sharing were tested together as predictors of team innovation, the relationship between leader positive affective presence and innovation was not statistically significant ($b = .13, SE = .13, p > .05$). In the same model, a positive relationship was observed between leader positive affective presence and team information-sharing ($b = .61, SE = .08, p < .01$), and a positive relationship between team information-sharing and team innovation ($b = .34, SE = .14, p < .05$). Furthermore, an indirect effect of leader positive affective presence on team innovation was observed ($b = .21, p < .05$; Bootstrap = 5000 CI 95% [.04, .39]). Taken together, these results supported hypothesis 2a (Figure 1).

INSERT TABLES 3 AND 4 ABOUT HERE

Hypothesis 2b proposed that team information-sharing would mediate the influence of leader negative affective presence on team innovation, such that leader negative affective presence would be negatively related to team information-sharing, which in turn would be positively related to team innovation. Results in Table 4 showed that when leader negative affective presence and team information sharing were tested together as predictors of team innovation, the relationship between leader negative affective presence and innovation was not statistically significant ($b = -.12, SE = .15, p > .05$). Furthermore, leader negative affective presence was negatively related to team information-sharing ($b = -.33, SE = .12, p <$

.01), which in turn was positively related to team innovation ($b = .40, SE = .14, p < .01$). In the same model, an indirect effect of leader negative affective presence on team innovation was observed ($b = -.13, p < .05$; Bootstrap = 5000 CI 95% [-.29, -.02]). These results provided support for hypothesis 2b (Figure 2).

The results of this first study indicate that leader affective presence was positively related to innovation-related teamwork, expressed in the level of information sharing and innovative performance in teams. However, because affective presence is a novel construct in the work and organizational psychology literature, it is important to determine whether the results observed in this study are generalizable to other organizations. Furthermore, it is also necessary to establish the incremental effect of affective presence over leadership behavior. These issues were addressed in a second study presented below.

INSERT FIGURES 1 AND 2 ABOUT HERE

Study 2

Participants. 734 individuals working in 69 independent teams from a major private health organization in Chile took part in the study. The teams that participated in the study were professional groups responsible for management and operational tasks, which were likely to show innovation due to a large process of change that the organization faced at the time of the study. Participants were sent an email inviting them to participate in a study on teamwork, with an URL link to access the survey. The demographics of team members were 28.9% male, the average age was 38.90 years ($SD = 10.59$) and the average organizational tenure was 7.75 years ($SD = 8.51$). Regarding team leaders, 33.3% were male, the average age was 46.70 years ($SD = 9.78$) and the average organizational tenure was 7.60 years ($SD = 8.39$). Mean tenure of the team member-leader relationship was 3.87 years ($SD = 1.45$), and the average team size was 10.64 team members ($Min. = 2, Max = 29; SD = 7.96$). The overall

response rate was 79%, taking into account the total number of individuals invited to participate in the study.

Design. Similar to Study 1, members of work teams were surveyed about the affective presence and leadership behavior of their respective team leaders. The latter was included to examine whether affective presence had incremental explanatory value above and beyond leader behavior in relation to the outcome variables. In the same survey, team members also rated information-sharing within their teams. In a separate survey, team leaders provided an appraisal of their team's innovation. In this survey, leaders also rated their own work-related affect in order to examine the incremental validity of affective presence above and beyond leader affect. Surveys were administered via the internet over a period of two weeks.

Measures. In the team member survey, measures of positive affective presence ($\alpha = .93$), negative affective presence ($\alpha = .84$) and team information-sharing ($\alpha = .93$) were the same as those utilized in Study 1. Furthermore, leadership behavior was measured with the three-item scale of leader intellectual stimulation developed by Rafferty and Griffin (2004) (item example: [my leader] "*challenges me to think about old problems in new ways*" [1: *never* – 5: *frequently/always*]; $\alpha = .87$). Leader relational transparency was measured with the four-item scale developed by Walumbwa et al. (2008) (item example: [my leader] "*says exactly what he or she means*" [1: *never* – 5: *frequently/always*]; $\alpha = .88$). All the above variables were measured with the same measures used in Study 1.

In the team leader survey, leaders rated their work-related affect with six items developed by Warr, Bindl, Parker, and Inceoglu (2013), and cross-validated between English and Spanish by Madrid and Patterson (2014), namely, enthusiastic, joyful, inspired (positive affect: $\alpha = .89$) and nervous, anxious and tense (negative affect: $\alpha = .85$). The question frame for the affect measures was "*during the last month working in your team, how often have you*

felt...? [1: *never/almost never* – 5: *always/almost always*]. Leaders also provided ratings of team innovation ($\alpha = .91$) with the same measure used in Study 1.

Control variables. The tenure of the relationship between every team member and his/her team leader was measured, in the team member survey, with the same single item utilized in Study 1. Finally, as in Study 1, team size was used as control variable to account for possible differences in team performance.

Results. A four-stage strategy was used to analyze the data from this study. The first three stages mirrored those used in Study 1. First, a series of multilevel confirmatory factor analyses were conducted to test the robustness of measurement models involved in the hypotheses testing, using a similar strategy to Study 1. Multilevel confirmatory factor analysis for leader positive and negative affective presence, team information-sharing and team innovation showed very good goodness-of-fit ($\chi^2 = 175.13$, $df = 91$, $p = .00$; RMSEA = .04; SRMR = .02; CFI = .98; TLI = .98). In this model residual variance of an item of positive affective presence and an item of team information sharing were constrained to zero, because they showed a negative value at team level (i.e., Heywood cases). Similar results were observed for a model examining leader positive and negative affective presence together with leader intellectual stimulation and leader relational transparency ($\chi^2 = 440.02$, $df = 127$, $p = .00$; RMSEA = .06; SRMR = .04; CFI = .95; TLI = .94). Taken together, these results supported the robustness of the main measurement models involved in the hypothesis testing process.

Second, we performed inter-rater agreement analysis, based on intra-class correlations (ICC) and average deviation (AD) with measures of leader affective presence, team information-sharing, leader intellectual stimulation and relational transparency. These tests revealed a substantive degree of non-independence in relation to team membership and agreement among members from the same teams for ratings of leader positive affective

presence ($ICC(1) = .23$, $AD = .79$), leader negative affective presence ($ICC(1) = .19$, $AD = .75$), team information-sharing ($ICC(1) = .22$, $AD = .66$), leader intellectual stimulation ($ICC(1) = .27$, $AD = .77$), and leader relational transparency ($ICC(1) = .25$, $AD = .80$).

INSERT TABLE 5 ABOUT HERE

Third, we tested research hypotheses 1a to 2b using structural equation modeling with observed variables (path analysis). The means, standard deviations, correlations and reliabilities of the variables are summarized in Table 5. Results in Table 2 showed leader positive affective presence was positively related to team-information sharing ($b = .52$, $SE = .10$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .30$), while leader negative affective presence was negatively related to team-information sharing ($b = -.39$, $SE = .13$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .11$). Thus, hypotheses 1a and 1b were supported, replicating the results of Study 1.

Regarding mediation hypotheses, results in Table 3 indicated leader positive affective presence was not significantly related to team innovation ($b = .26$, $SE = .16$, $p > .05$), but team information sharing was positively related to team innovation ($b = .34$, $SE = .17$, $p < .05$), describing a positive indirect effect of leader positive affective presence on team innovation through team information sharing ($b = .18$, $p < .05$; Bootstrap = 5000 CI 95% [.01, .35]). Furthermore, results in Table 4 showed a negative indirect effect of leader negative affective presence on team innovation through team information-sharing ($b = -.20$, $p < .05$; Bootstrap = 5000 CI 95% [-.35, -.06]). Therefore, hypotheses 2a and 2b were supported, replicating the results of Study 2 (Figures 1 and 2).

The fourth stage of analysis involved testing hypotheses 3a and 3b, which was conducted with relative weight analyses (Tonidandel, LeBreton, & Johnson, 2009; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2015), in order to examine whether leader affective presence had incremental validity in predicting team innovation and team

information-sharing above and beyond leader trait affect and leadership behavior. Relative weight analysis is valuable in regression models when there is an interest in determining the unique contribution of a set of highly correlated predictors, which was likely to be the case with the variables of leader affective presence, leader work-related affect and leadership behavior measured at the same time with a single questionnaire. Thus, relative weights analysis helps to control biases owing to multicollinearity issues in the estimation of regression coefficients and p-values (Johnson, 2004; Nimon & Oswald, 2013; Tonidandel et al., 2009). We adopted the framework for estimating relative weights developed by Tonidandel and LeBreton (2011), which offers information for each specific predictor about relative weight estimated (i.e., amount of outcome variance explained), percentage of variance explained in relation to the overall R^2 of the model estimated, and a significance test based on 95% confidence intervals.

Results of relative weight analysis (Table 6) showed that leader positive affective presence when tested together with leader positive affect, leader intellectual stimulation and leader relational transparency, had a relative weight of .11 ($p < .05$) for team innovation and .16 ($p < .05$) for team information-sharing, denoting 50% and 47.1% respectively from the total outcome variances explained (proportion of the total R^2) by these leader-related variables. Thus, leader positive affective presence emerged as the strongest predictor of both team innovation and team information sharing, and was therefore a more important team input than team leader positive affect or team leader behavior. Together, these results supported hypothesis 3a. Results in Table 7 showed that leader negative affective presence, when tested together with negative affect, leader intellectual stimulation and leader relational transparency, had a relative weight of .01 ($p > .05$) for team innovation and .08 ($p > .05$) for team information-sharing, denoting 7.7%, and 25.8%, respectively of the total outcome variances explained (proportion of the total R^2) by these leader-related variables. Therefore,

hypothesis 3b was not supported, showing a weak association of leader negative affective presence with innovation-related teamwork relative to leader negative affect, leader intellectual stimulation and leader relational transparency.

INSERT TABLES 6 AND 7 ABOUT HERE

Discussion

The studies presented have provided evidence for affective presence as a relevant affective and interpersonal-laden personality trait associated with innovation-related behavior in teams. This attends the call for improving the understanding of social and group meanings of affect at work (Barsade & Gibson, 2012) and contributes to the teamwork literature, given that most studies on leader personality have concentrated on intrapersonal traits that exert their influence via contagion or inferential processing (Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1993; Van Kleef, Homan, Beersma et al., 2009; Visser, van Knippenberg, van Kleef, & Wisse, 2013). This is also an important contribution to the literature on leader individual characteristics and innovation, because research on leader personality has concentrated on how different intrapersonal traits explain leadership styles (Judge et al., 2002), and research on leader personality and innovation has been, to the best of our knowledge, limited to showing how traits described by the Five-Factor model (e.g., neuroticism) relate to new product development (Aronson et al., 2008). In contrast to the traditional intrapersonal approaches adopted to understand personality influences on affect, such as positive/negative activation or extroversion/neuroticism (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Watson, 2000), affective presence is an individual difference that emanates from its interpersonal effect. Thus, understanding affective presence constitutes a bridge between the intrapersonal and interpersonal antecedents and consequences of affective processes.

From the perspective of the Input-Process-Output model of teamwork effectiveness, leader affective presence emerges as a relevant input by seemingly exerting influences on team information-sharing (process), which in turn influences team innovation (output). Specifically, leader positive affective presence showed an indirect positive relationship to team innovation through information-sharing, whereas leader negative affective presence showed a negative effect on team innovation through the same team process. In a recent review of teamwork effectiveness, Mathieu et al. (2008) identified important advances pertaining to how aggregated measures from team member personality traits (e.g., extraversion and neuroticism), denoting both homogeneity or diversity, might be relevant to understand team processes and outcomes. However, next to nothing was identified in terms of how the leader's personality represents a relevant team input. As such, we contribute by showing that individual differences in team leaders' propensity to make team members feel positive matters in the context of team effectiveness.

Moreover, relative weight analyses suggested that leader positive affective presence had incremental validity above and beyond leader positive affect, intellectual stimulation and relational transparency to explain team information-sharing and innovation. This suggests that leader positive affective presence might be more important than these other leader variables to predict innovation-related teamwork. However, a less clear role was found for leader negative affective presence, because relative weight analysis indicated that relative to leader negative affect, intellectual stimulation and relational transparency, leader negative affective presence was moderately associated with team information-sharing, but weakly related to team innovation. The latter is consistent with the zero-order correlation observed in both studies ($\rho = -.13, p > .05$) for the association between leader negative affective presence and innovation.

The results for leader negative affective presence, team information-sharing and team innovation indicate greater complexity in the relationship between these variables than those for positive affective presence. In other words, in contrast to the pervasive effects linked to positive affect (Amabile, Barsade, Mueller, & Staw, 2005; Fredrickson, 2001, 2004), leader negative affective presence might represent a distal input for team performance that operates only through indirect pathways (Shrout & Bolger, 2002), such as team processes (cf. Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005). Alternatively, an effect of leader negative affective presence on team innovation might depend on contextual factors that enhance or minimize its expression and consequences (Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000), such as social support or learning orientation, mirroring the psychological processes identified for affect and creativity at work at an individual level of analysis (George & Zhou, 2007; To, Fisher, Ashkanasy, & Rowe, 2012). This research has suggested that when the above variables are considered as moderators, negative affect may even facilitate creative and innovative behavior. Underlying this effect are narrow cognition processes, such as closer attentional focus and convergent thinking, which together with additional psychological resources provided by social support and learning orientation may help to translate novel thoughts into useful solutions that are valuable in practice (Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2008; George, 2011).

Taken together, our results suggest that different kinds of team behavior may be influenced depending on whether affective presence is positive or negative. Leader positive affective presence may increase approach behavioral tendencies, expressed in cooperation and prosocial behavior (Barsade, 2002; Forgas, 1998; George & Brief, 1992), in a context of social exchange where the positive feelings are consistent among participants (Collins et al., 2013) and are experienced as inherently rewarding (Lawler, 2001). This blend of behavioral processes, therefore, is conducive to greater team information-sharing and innovation. On the other hand, in the absence of additional resources (e.g., social support, learning

orientation), leader negative affective presence may encourage effort withdrawal, lack of cooperation/social interchange and avoidant behavior (Carver & White, 1994). The latter behavioral configuration may explain the weak relationship between leader negative affective presence and team innovation.

Affective presence represents a trait, rather than a state, so the above effects should persist over time. This means that interpersonal variation in this construct is important because there is potential for some leaders to have profound effects on team members if they score extremely on affective presence and spend a lot of time with their team, whereas those who have little affective presence or who rarely interact with their team may have minimal impact on them. Indeed, the implications of affective presence seem to involve complexity, so further research is required to have a deeper understanding about how and under which conditions affective presence influences work-related outcomes.

In practical terms, organizations should bear in mind that enhancing innovation in teams depends in part on the tendency of team leaders to elicit positive feelings in their team members. Thus, relevant organizational practices, such as selecting, retaining or assigning team leaders, should consider affective presence as an assessment criterion. Expanding the typical “judgment approach” used in assessment of personality from the perspective of the observer (Connelly, 2013; Funder, 1995), operationalization of leader affective presence is based on reactions that leaders provoke in their interaction partners (Berrios, et al., 2014; Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010). Aspects of the methodology and measurement scales presented here could aid this assessment, but further development of the research and associated instrumentation is required.

Limitations, Future Research and Conclusion

As with any research initiative, the studies presented here have their limitations. Our results strongly suggest that the positive affect convergence within teams that arises from a

leader's affective presence may facilitate the generation, promotion and implementation of novel ideas. As we discussed previously, this kind of affect is known to foster promotion behavior and facilitate cooperation in contexts of social exchange. However, there could also be a possible "dark side" to affect convergence (George & King, 2007; Tsai et al., 2012). The leader's tendency to elicit the same affect in team members might reduce diversity of cognition and behavior within a team, potentially reducing the range of ideas generated and the depth to which those ideas are evaluated, which is detrimental for undertaking complex tasks. Although we did not find this "dark side" in our results, it is possible that the effect is masked by how affective presence is measured. Lower scores of affective presence could occur either when leaders do not elicit much feeling in their team members or when they elicit more diverse feelings. Research has indicated that mean and variance in group affect can produce divergent and interactive effects (Collins et al., 2013). Future research should examine these different categories of affective presence separately to determine whether they have different effects.

Furthermore, due to the cross-sectional design of the survey, causal relationships between leader affective presence, team information-sharing and team innovation cannot be established. The chosen design may also have inflated effect estimates owing to common method variance, particularly for the effect of leader affective presence on team information-sharing because both were reported by the same individuals. This is less of a concern for the relationship between leader affective presence and innovation because the former was measured from team members and the latter from team leaders. The use of a multisource strategy mitigates this concern, but only a longitudinal experimental design can provide definitive evidence for the causal and mediation processes proposed. Adoption of external or objective team performance measures would also strengthen further research.

There is also the issue of interpersonal affective influences among team members to consider. Not only could team leader affective presence instigate a process of affect linkage among team members (Sy & Choi, 2013), but the team members' own affective presence may influence how others within the team feel and thereby facilitate or constrain innovation. Moreover, mechanisms other than team information-sharing should be examined as processes that are influenced by a team leader (or fellow team members) making others feel similarly positive or negative, such as competition, shared vision, cohesion, conflict, potency, trust and psychological safety (Campion, Medsker, & Higgs, 1993; Edmondson & Lei, 2014; Edmondson, 1999). For example, from an input-mediator-output framework of team effectiveness (Ilgen, Hollenbeck, Johnson, & Jundt, 2005), team psychological safety would be a team emergent state arising from both the way that leaders make team members feel, which may enhance the likelihood of team innovation (Baer & Frese, 2003; Edmondson, 1999).

Another remaining challenge is to determine which other individual differences may be determinants of affective presence. In a study of social relationships conducted with university students, Berrios et al. (2014) observed that positive affective presence correlated with self-regulation of emotion, appraisal and understanding of others' emotions, emotional expressivity, extraversion and agreeableness. This offers a starting point in identifying the possible aetiology of making others feel similarly positive or negative, but the relationships need replicating in work and organizational settings.

To sum up, this article offers evidence that the recently identified individual difference of affective presence can be found in the positive and negative affect that team leaders elicit in work team members, which in turn relates to innovation-related teamwork. The findings highlight the potential impact of this source of affective influence for organizational effectiveness.

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Table 1:

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliabilities (Study 1)

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Organization (1= Org. A; 2= Org. B)	2.24	0.43	---						
2. Team size	4.02	1.88	.54**	---					
3. Leader-member tenure	3.47	1.17	-.28**	.02	---				
4. Leader positive affective presence	3.07	0.68	.28**	.09	-.24*	(.93)			
5. Leader negative affective presence	2.25	0.59	.15	.22*	.22*	-.43**	(.84)		
6. Team information-sharing	3.74	0.63	.01	.07	-.24*	.62**	-.33**	(.93)	
7. Team innovation	3.51	0.74	-.07	.03	.21	.22*	-.13	.29**	(.85)

N = 87. Affective presence measures are those rated by team members. Reliabilities are displayed in parentheses on the diagonal. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

AFFECTIVE PRESENCE IN TEAMS

Table 2:

Path Analysis Model of Leader Affective Presence and Team Information-Sharing

(Hypotheses 1a and 1b)

Variables	Team Information-Sharing			
	Study 1	Study 2	Study 1	Study 2
Organization	-.49 (.15)**		-.17 (.18)	
Team size	.07 (.03)*	.01 (.01)	.07 (.04)†	.00 (.01)
Leader-member tenure	-.10 (.05)*	-.09 (.05)†	-.11 (.06)†	-.04 (.06)
Leader positive affective presence	.61 (.08)**	.52 (.10)**		
Leader negative affective presence			-.33 (.11)**	-.39 (.13)**
<i>R² Total</i>	.46	.33	.16	.14
<i>R² Leader Affective Presence</i>	.38	.30	.08	.11

$N_{\text{Study1}} = 87$, $N_{\text{Study2}} = 69$. Unstandardized estimates. † < .10, * < .05, ** < .01

Table 3:

Path Analysis Model of Team-Information Sharing as a Mediator between Leader Positive Affective Presence and Team Innovation (Hypothesis 2a)

Variables	Study 1		Study 2	
	Team Information-Sharing	Team Innovation	Team Information-Sharing	Team Innovation
Organization	-.49 (.15)**	-.03 (.27)		
Team size	.07 (.03)†	.00 (.06)	.01 (.01)	-.01 (.01)
Leader-member tenure	-.10 (.05)*	.19 (.07)*	-.09 (.05)†	.02 (.07)
Leader positive affective presence	.61 (.08)**	.13 (.13)	.52 (.10)**	.26 (.16)
Team information-sharing		.34 (.14)*		.34 (.17)*
R^2 Total	.54	.18	.33	.23
Indirect effect		.21 CI 95%		.18 CI 95%
		Bootstrap = 5000 [.04, .39]		Bootstrap = 5000 [.01, .35]

$N_{\text{Study1}} = 87$, $N_{\text{Study2}} = 69$. Unstandardized estimates. † < .10, * < .05, ** < .01

Table 4:

Path Analysis Model of Team-Information Sharing as a Mediator between Leader Negative Affective Presence and Team Innovation (Hypothesis 2b)

Variables	Study 1		Study 2	
	Team Information-Sharing	Team Innovation	Team Information-Sharing	Team Innovation
Organization	-.17 (.17)	.06 (.26)		
Team size	.07 (.04)†	.00 (.06)	.00 (.01)	-.02 (.01)
Leader-member tenure	-.11 (.07)†	.20 (.08)**	-.04 (.06)	.04 (.06)
Leader negative affective presence	-.33 (.12)**	-.12 (.15)	-.39 (.11)**	.07 (.17)
Team information-sharing		.40 (.14)**		.51 (.12)**
<i>R</i> ² Total	.16	.18	.14	.20
Indirect effect		-.13 CI 95%		-.20 CI 95%
		Bootstrap = 5000 [-.29, -.02]		Bootstrap = 5000 [-.35, -.06]

*N*_{Study1} = 87, *N*_{Study2} = 69. Unstandardized estimates. † < .10, * < .05, ** < .01

AFFECTIVE PRESENCE IN TEAMS

Table 5:

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliabilities (Study 2)

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Team size	10.64	7.95	---									
2. Leader-member tenure	3.87	1.45	.26*	--								
3. Leader positive affect	3.89	0.60	-.16	-.27*	(.70)							
4. Leader negative affect	2.53	0.81	.02	.04	-.34**	(.80)						
5. Leader positive affective presence	3.21	0.54	-.25*	-.03	.12	.00	(.89)					
6. Leader negative affective presence	2.05	0.45	.21	.26*	-.01	.14	-.36**	(.81)				
7. Leader relational transparency	3.77	0.53	-.29*	-.19	.20	.03	.65**	-.31*	(.88)			
8. Leader intellectual stimulation	3.24	0.61	-.23	-.09	.27*	-.11	.69**	-.31**	.73**	(.87)		
9. Team information-sharing	3.73	0.50	-.09	-.17	.10	-.03	.54**	-.37**	.51**	.41**	(.87)	
10. Team innovation	3.71	0.64	-.22	-.05	.25*	-.18	.40**	-.13	.31**	.24	.40**	(.91)

N = 69. Affective presence measures are those rated by team members. Reliabilities are displayed in parentheses on the diagonal. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

AFFECTIVE PRESENCE IN TEAMS

Table 6:

Relative Weights Analysis for Leader Positive Affect, Positive Affective Presence, Intellectual Stimulation and Relational Transparency (Study 2, Hypothesis 3a)

Variables	Team	Team
	Information-Sharing	Innovation
Leader positive affect	.00 [-.13, .04], 0%	.05 [-.02, .18], 22.7%
Leader positive affective presence	.16 [.01, .31], 47.1%	.11 [.02, .25], 50%
Leader intellectual stimulation	.06 [-.09, .13], 17.6%	.02 [-.04, .07], 9.1%
Leader relational transparency	.12 [-.02, .27], 35.3%	.04 [-.02, .15], 18.2%
Total R^2	.34	.22

Relative weights represent the proportion of each predictor from the total variance explained by the model (R^2). Values between squared brackets are 95% confidence intervals for relative weights estimated. Values after commas are the percentage of contribution of each predictor for the total R^2 estimated.

Table 7:

Relative Weights Analysis for Leader Negative Affect, Negative Affective Presence, Intellectual Stimulation and Relational Transparency (Study 2, Hypothesis 3b)

Variables	Team	Team
	Information-Sharing	Innovation
Leader negative affect	.00 [-.10, .03], 0%	.03 [-.02, .17], 23.1%
Leader negative affective presence	.08 [-.01, .23], 25.8%	.01 [-.04, .12], 7.7%
Leader intellectual stimulation	.07 [-.01, .18], 22.6%	.02 [-.03, .13], 15.4%
Leader relational transparency	.16 [.03, .31], 51.6%	.07 [-.01, .24], 53.8%
Total R^2	.31	.13

Relative weights represent the proportion of each predictor from the total variance explained by the model (R^2). Values between squared brackets are 95% confidence intervals for relative weights estimated. Values after commas are the percentage of contribution of each predictor for the total R^2 estimated.

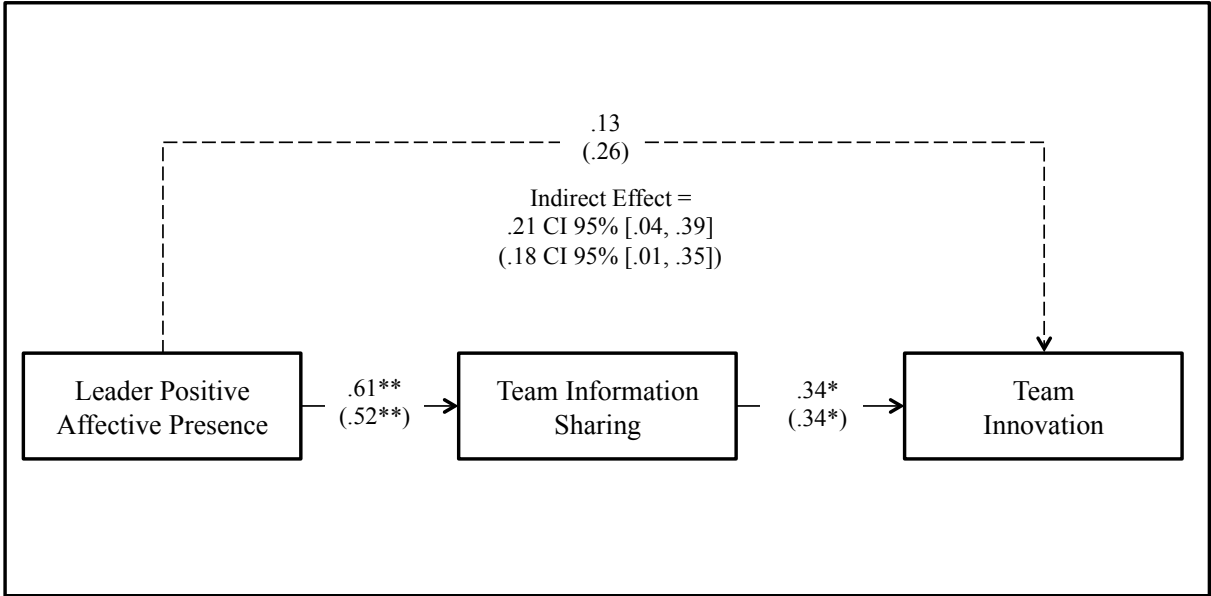


Figure 1. Unstandardized Estimates for the Mediation Process between Leader Positive Affective Presence, Team Information-sharing and Team Innovation. Results of Study 1 are displayed out of parentheses, while results of Study 2 are displayed in parentheses.

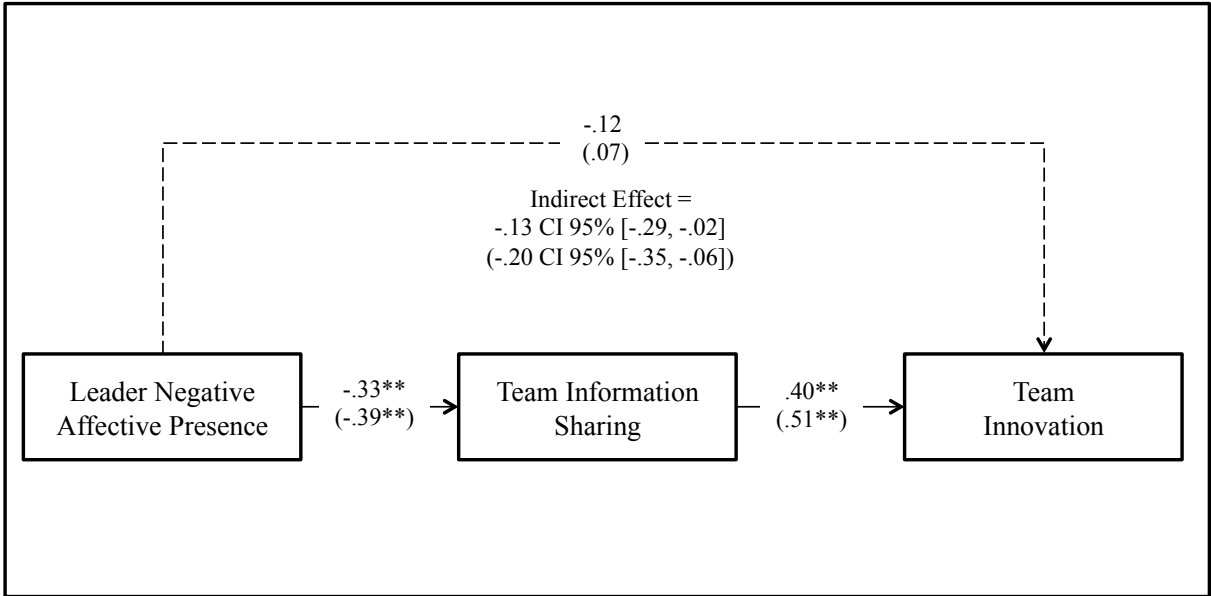


Figure 2. Unstandardized Estimates for the Mediation Process between Leader Negative Affective Presence, Team Information-sharing and Team Innovation (Study 1). Results of Study 1 are displayed out of parentheses, while results of Study 2 are displayed in parentheses.



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