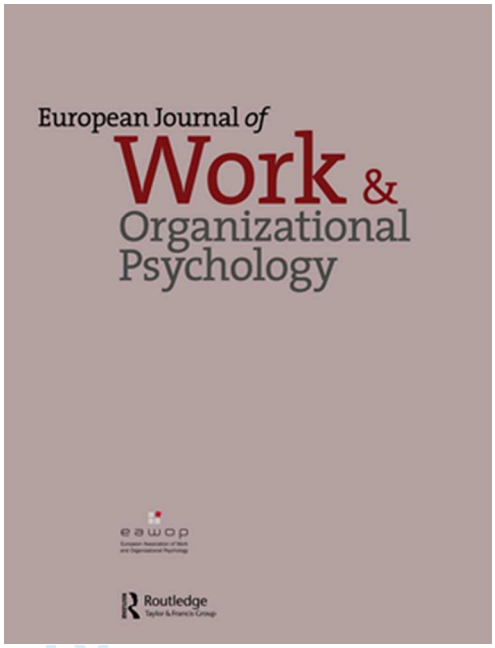

Investigating a Process Model for Leader Affective Presence, Interpersonal Emotion Regulation and Interpersonal Behavior in Teams

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Abstract

Leader affective presence is the tendency of leaders to elicit feelings that are consistent among other individuals, and has been supported as a relevant personality trait for understanding teamwork. Drawing on a model that integrates personality and emotion regulation, this study aimed to expand research on affective presence by proposing team members' perceptions of leader interpersonal emotion regulation as a process that explains how leader affective presence is related to team member behavior. In the model, teamness – the perception that interdependence and reflexivity are required in the team – is presented as a boundary condition to the effects of affective presence via emotion regulation. Results of a study conducted with 99 teams showed that team member ratings of leader positive affective presence were linked to their perceptions that leaders had used affect-improving emotion regulation which in turn was associated with greater team citizenship behavior. Contrariwise, team member ratings of leader negative affective presence were associated with perceived use of affect-worsening emotion regulation by leaders which in turn was associated with lower levels of team citizenship, but only when teams were low in teamness. These findings contribute to understanding how leaders individual differences are related to teamwork through affective processes.

Keywords: affective presence, emotion regulation, citizenship behavior, leaders, teams

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In the interpersonal realm, individuals tend to elicit consistent pleasant or unpleasant feelings among interaction partners. This phenomenon, which has only recently been formally recognized by researchers, has been termed *trait affective presence* (Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010). A person characterized by positive affective presence typically leaves those he or she interacts with feeling enthusiastic, happy and inspired, whereas an individual described as having negative affective presence is disposed to instill stress, tension and worry in others. This construct is considered to be independent of how the focal person characterized by affective presence is actually feeling; thus, affective presence is distinct from positive and negative trait affect (Watson, 2000), because these other traits involve an individual's tendencies to experience positive and negative feelings, rather than tendencies to elicit feelings in others. Affective presence also differs from emotional contagion, because contagion is the transference of a focal person's own feelings to interaction partners (Elfenbein, 2014; Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994), whereas affective presence involves eliciting feelings in interaction partners that are independent of the focal person's own feelings.

In the last few years, the concept of affective presence has been adopted in organizational research to help understand how leaders influence teamwork. Emerging evidence has indicated that affective presence of team leaders is associated with teamwork processes, such that leader positive affective presence facilitates information-sharing, innovation behavior, and communication of creative ideas within teams, whereas leader negative affective presence is negatively related to these outcomes (Madrid, Totterdell, Niven, et al., 2016; Madrid, Totterdell,

& Niven, 2016). As such, the novel personality trait of affective presence is offering a new avenue for understanding affective and interpersonal-laden functions in the workplace.

Although progress is increasing in this field or research, the psychological processes that explain *how* and *when* leader affective presence elicits affect in others and influences teamwork are still poorly specified. This study aimed to address this omission by defining and testing a process model in which, within the teamwork setting, leader affective presence is conceptualized as a personality trait that through leader interpersonal emotion regulation behavior is related to team member interpersonal behavior, depending on the extent to which team members perceive a requirement for social interaction in the team. We focused on team members' perceptions of leader interpersonal emotion regulation as a key mechanism through which affective presence takes effect because, by definition, interpersonal emotion regulation describes the behaviors through which a person changes what an interaction partner feels (Niven, 2016; Niven, 2017; Zaki & Williams, 2013). Furthermore, the team member behavior we focused on in this study was citizenship, due to its sensitivity to interpersonal and affective influences in the workplace (N. P. Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009).

As such, we contribute to the personality and teamwork literature in three ways. First, we expand knowledge on individual differences relevant to interaction in teams through the adoption of the novel construct of affective presence. Second, we provide new insight into how leaders affective presence is related to teamwork, by considering the role played by leaders' interpersonal emotion regulation. Finally, citizenship is studied from an approach in which helping actions are explained by the interplay between individual differences and contextual conditions. In the following sections, we describe the model proposed and develop its hypotheses.

A Process Model for Affective Presence

Understanding how affective presence manifests in the social realm can be achieved by adopting a process model in which cognitions, feelings and behaviors explain "why" and "how" individual differences are related to relevant outcomes (Hampson, 2012; Johnson & Hezlett, 2008; Johnson & Schneider, 2013). Here, we propose such a model, in which affective presence denotes an affective and interpersonal-laden personality disposition of a focal individual (personality trait) which, through interpersonal behavior of the same individual (mechanism) is related to the interpersonal behavior of interaction partners (outcome). In addition, the strength of this process will depend on contextual boundary conditions, which either increase or decrease the effects that a focal person's affective presence and interpersonal behavior exert on interaction partners' behavior, because individual behavior also depends on the context in which individuals perform (Bem & Funder, 1978; Chatman, 1989; Meyer, Dalal, & Hermida, 2010).

Applying this model to teamwork (Figure 1), we propose that perceptions of leaders' interpersonal emotion regulation is a candidate for a psychological mechanism that would enable leader affective presence to be expressed in the interpersonal realm. This is because an individual's affective presence is defined by how he or she provokes other people's affect, and interpersonal emotion regulation is defined as the behaviors that people use to influence other people's affect. Furthermore, theory and research have suggested emotion regulation as a relevant psychological function in the context of leadership and teamwork (George, 2000; Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001).

The process continues with the relationship of team members' perceptions of leader interpersonal emotion regulation with team member behavior. In the workplace, behavior with interpersonal meaning has frequently been conceptualized as citizenship actions oriented to

helping and supporting colleagues with their challenges and problems (P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000; Williams & Anderson, 1991), and such behavior has been observed to be highly influenced by the affective experience (Dalal, 2005; George & Brief, 1992; Lee & Allen, 2002). Thus, interpersonal citizenship behavior should be relevant to understand the outcomes of leader affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation.

Finally, interpersonal emotion regulation and citizenship behavior are charged with interpersonal meaning, thus the process linking them is likely to depend on whether interpersonal behavior is substantially required by the social situation. As such, we propose that the interpersonal requirement can be indicated by the perceived degree of teamness, specifically, the extent to which team tasks are based on interdependency and reflexivity (Edmondson, 2012; Hackman, 2002; West & Lyubovnikova, 2012), make the relationship between emotion regulation and team member behavior more or less stronger.

This model represents a simplification of the complex dynamics that unfold between individual differences, social behavior and contextual conditions. However, the model sets out relevant concepts and relationships involved in the process of interest and enables testable predictions to be derived. Based on this, the discrete associations drawn between affective presence, interpersonal emotion regulation, citizenship behavior and teamness are formulated.

[INSERT FIGURE 1 AROUND HERE]

Affective Presence and Perception of Interpersonal Emotion Regulation

Interpersonal emotion regulation is an influential psychological function in the social domain, due to its profound effects on interaction partners' attitudes and behavior (Rafaeli & Sutton, 1991). Through a diverse range of behaviors, individuals can initiate, maintain or change emotions and moods in others (Little et al., 2012; Niven et al., 2009). Many researchers of

interpersonal emotion regulation have focused on people's deliberate efforts to shape the feelings of others, however, the consensus in the field is that interpersonal emotion regulation can operate on two levels of processing – controlled and automatic (Bargh & Williams, 2007; Gross, 2013; Mauss, Bunge, & Gross, 2007; Shiffrin & Schneider, 1977; Webb, Totterdell, & Ibar, 2015) . At the controlled level, interpersonal emotion regulation involves using behavior deliberately to try to change feelings in others. In contrast, at the automatic level, interpersonal emotion regulation involves behaviors that shape others' feelings even though the regulator is not necessarily aware of doing so. Crucially, whatever the level of processing, what unites all forms of interpersonal emotion regulation behaviors is that they enact changes to others' feelings.

In the context of team leadership, interpersonal emotion regulation has received some attention in research on leader-follower relationships. For instance, George (2000) pointed out that leaders should be able to excite and enthuse followers or make them feel cautious and wary in the workplace, while Little, Gooty, and Williams (2016) demonstrated the contribution of leader interpersonal emotion regulation to the quality of leader-follower relationships. In a similar vein, affect management in teams − which occurs through regulating, for instance, excitement, engagement, frustration and stress among team members − is considered necessary to planning and task accomplishment and therefore to team effectiveness (Marks et al., 2001).

Building a finer-grained approach, Niven, Totterdell and Holman (2009) argued that interpersonal emotion regulation can involve regulatory behaviors that either improve or worsen feelings in others. Affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation behaviors initiate, maintain or intensify positive feelings in others by, for example, demonstrating support and authentic interest when others face adversity. In contrast, affect-worsening emotion regulation behaviors initiate, maintain or intensify negative feelings in others by, for example, harassing and

confronting others. We propose that team members' perceptions of these forms of emotion regulation performed by their leaders are part of the psychological processes that transmit leader affective presence in the interpersonal domain.

The above implies that leaders influence what team members feel by using improving or worsening interpersonal emotion regulation behaviors that prompt team members to make inferences about the meaning of those behaviors. According to the emotions as social information model (EASI; Van Kleef, 2009; Van Kleef, Homan, & Cheshin, 2012), social behaviors transmit information to observers which consequently is related to their affect, which occurs through two routes: inferential processing and affective reactions. Inferential processing involves observers using cognitive appraisals to deduce a person's intentions from his or her behavior, which influences how they feel in response to that person. In contrast, affective reactions happen through automatic responses that are behaviorally triggered in observers by the person's behavior (e.g., via mimicry-based contagion). The dual processing architecture of the EASI model was specifically developed to explain the interpersonal effects of emotional expression, but it can also explain the influence on observers of other forms of interpersonal emotion regulation behavior, because these also involve inferential (explicit) and behavioral (implicit) influence processes (Butler, 2015; Gyurak, Gross & Etkin, 2011). In the case of affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation, the behavioral route may play a part, but not by means of contagion because this is not part of the affective presence definition. In turn, the inferential route may explain the relationship between these both constructs, through inferences about tendencies to elicit feelings based on perception of the focal person behavior. Accordingly, a leader with positive affective presence may – consciously or otherwise – make team members feel positive because they perceive that the leader uses affect-improving

behaviors. In contrast, a leader with negative affective presence might elicit negative feelings among team members through perceptions that he or she uses affect-worsening regulation behaviors. This rationale leads to two hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: Leader positive affective presence will be positively related to team members' perceptions of leaders' use of affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation.

Hypothesis 2: Leader negative affective presence will be positively related to team members' perceptions of leaders' use of affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation.

Affective Presence, Interpersonal Emotion Regulation and Citizenship Behavior

We have argued "how" leader affective presence may be expressed in the teamwork environment, highlighting the role of interpersonal emotion regulation, and now we turn to "what" this individual difference is relevant for. As previously described, both affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation are psychological functions with interpersonal and affective meaning and thus should primarily related to other people's interpersonal and affective-laden behavior. In the organizational setting, interpersonal citizenship fits this description of behavior because it is oriented to benefiting coworkers, and through this means contributes to the organization (N. P. Podsakoff et al., 2009; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Helping is the most salient feature of interpersonal citizenship and in this context involves providing interpersonal facilitation and support to coworkers in facing challenges and problems (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2000). In terms of affect, evidence from multiple studies indicates that interpersonal behavior is sensitive to affective experience and, in relation to citizenship behavior, that feeling pleasant and unpleasant affect respectively increases and decreases helping behavior (George, 1991; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006; Lee & Allen, 2002; Spence, Ferris, Brown, & Heller, 2011). From a teamwork standpoint, shared affect among team members is also found to have a substantial

relationships with interpersonal cooperation and facilitation (Barsade, 2002; Collins, Lawrence, Troth, & Jordan, 2013; Forgas, 1998; George, 1996).

We propose that leader positive affective presence is indirectly related to interpersonal citizenship behavior through team members' perceptions of the leaders' use of affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation. Underlying this process is the notion that pleasant feelings of positive affective presence, carried through perceptions of affect-improving emotion regulation, energize approach behavioral tendencies that are associated with social facilitation (Elliot, 2008; George, 1991; George & Brief, 1992), which makes it more likely that team members will carry out helping behavior. Conversely, we propose that leader negative affective presence should be indirectly related to team member interpersonal citizenship behavior through team members' perceptions of the leaders' use of affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation. This can be explained by the same psychological mechanisms being invoked except that this time the negative affect in the process energizes avoidance and withdrawal tendencies (Pelled, Eisenhardt, & Xin, 1999), which reduce social facilitation and, therefore, make interpersonal citizenship behavior less likely. Hence, leader positive and negative affective presence, by means of perceptions of affect-improving and affect-worsening emotion regulation, will create conditions in team members that facilitate or inhibit citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 3: Team members' perceptions of leaders' use of affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation will mediate the positive relationship between leader positive affective presence and team members' interpersonal citizenship behavior, such that positive affective presence will be positively related to affect-improving emotion regulation, which in turn will be positively related to citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 4: Team members' perceptions of leaders' use of affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation will mediate the negative relationship between leader negative affective presence and team members' interpersonal citizenship behavior, such that negative affective presence will be positively related to affect-worsening emotion regulation, which in turn will be negatively related to citizenship behavior.

Perceived Teamness as a Boundary Condition

Diverse theoretical developments have stressed that contextual characteristics and situational cues, norms or expectations shape the association of individual differences with their outcomes (Bem & Funder, 1978; Chatman, 1989; Meyer et al., 2010; Tett & Burnett, 2003; Weiss & Adler, 1984). Consistent with this notion, we expect that the relationship between leader affective presence and perceptions of interpersonal emotion regulation on team members' interpersonal behavior will depend on the teamwork context. Given that affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation are interpersonal processes, their association with team member interpersonal citizenship behavior seems most likely to depend on team members' perception of the requirement for interpersonal interaction within the team.

The notion that task interpersonal demands represent a boundary condition for the relationship between behavioral processes and teamwork is both longstanding and compelling (Gladstein, 1984; McGrath, 1964). For instance, McGrath (1964) argued that relatively stable task requirements interact with patterns of relationships among members of a group, affecting further behavior and group outcomes. These task requirements are mostly denoted by the degree of interdependence within groups, i.e., the extent to which team members have to work interactively and cooperatively to achieve success in meeting team goals (Guzzo & Shea, 1992).

Another relevant team characteristic with interpersonal meaning is team reflexivity (Edmondson, 2012; West & Lyubovnikova, 2012). This denotes collective reflection among team members about definition, planning and appraisal of objectives, strategies and ways of working together (de Jong & Elfring, 2010; West, 2000, 2002). Putting these two characteristics together, Lyubovnikova, West, Dawson, and Carter (2015) have proposed that both team interdependence and reflexivity are core components of teamness – also labeled as real teamness – which is the extent to which a work group is a social system whose members work collectively to pursue the team's goals (Hackman, 2002; 2012; Wageman, 2001; West & Lyubovnikova, 2012).

Drawing on the above, we propose that perceived teamness, expressed in team members' appraisals of interdependence and reflexivity, may be a contextual condition that operates in the relationship between leader affective presence and team member behavior by explaining the strength of relationship between team members' perceptions of interpersonal emotion regulation and citizenship behavior. In the case of affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation, leader behavior aimed at eliciting positive feelings among team members should have a stronger association with citizenship behavior when perceptions of teamness are greater, because in this scenario the team task structure involves strong interpersonal engagement and will therefore be sensitive to the positive social facilitation embedded in affect-improving regulation relative to team members' approach tendencies. In contrast, the negative relationship between team members' perceptions of leader affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation and team member behavior may be stronger when perceived teamness is low. In this situation, the context of reduced interdependence and reflexivity signals that withdrawing from helping others would not be seen as problematic, which would increase the association of affect-worsening emotion regulation with team members' avoidance tendencies. In contrast, greater teamness would buffer

the undesirable consequences of perceived affect-worsening emotion regulation for interpersonal facilitation.

The proposed role of perceived teamness in the model forms a conditional indirect process, namely, a moderated mediation (Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Hayes, 2013; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). This means that the strength of the mediation process between leader affective presence, team members' perceptions of leaders' interpersonal emotion regulation and team member citizenship behavior depends on, or is moderated by, the degree of perceived teamness. Specifically, teamness would moderate the relationship between perceptions of leaders' use of interpersonal emotion regulation and interpersonal citizenship behavior. Drawing on this conception, the following two hypotheses were derived:

Hypothesis 5: Perceived teamness will moderate the positive mediation process between leader positive affective presence, team members' perceptions of leader affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation and team member interpersonal citizenship behavior, such that this mediation will be stronger when teamness is high rather than low.

Hypothesis 6: Perceived teamness will moderate the negative mediation process between leader negative affective presence, team members' perceptions of leader affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation and team member interpersonal citizenship behavior, such that this mediation will be stronger when teamness is low rather than high.

Method

To test the proposed hypotheses, we conducted a multisource survey study within a large public administration organization in Chile. The organization was one of a number that provide

border services across the host country. Eight hundred and nighty nine professionals nested in 99 teams and their respective leaders took part in the study. Participating teams in the study conducted administrative and operational tasks. Of the team members, 55% were male, their average age was 42.6 years (*SD* = 11.09) and their education level was 36.5% technical studies and 63.5% university studies. The job roles of the participants were 12.4% administrative, 31.7% technical, 53.7% professional staff and 2.2% managerial. Average organizational tenure was 9.87 years (*SD* = 11.16). Of the team leaders, 75.5% were male, their average age was 47.69 years (*SD* = 9.63), their education level was 100% university educated, and their average organizational tenure was 14.09 years (*SD* = 10.84). In terms of response rates, this was 64.94% for employees and 65.56% for leaders. Average intra-team participation rate (excluding team leaders) was 52.9% (*SD* = 20.25) and the observed average team size was 8.51 members (minimum = 2, maximum = 20; *SD* = 5.32).

Procedure

The study utilized two online surveys: one for team leaders and one for team members. Participants were sent an email inviting them to take part in a study on leadership and teamwork, which also included a URL link to access the survey. Team members responded to a survey in which they rated their leader's affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation, leader-member interaction frequency and teamness. Furthermore, team member positive and negative affect were measured in this survey to control for their possible effects in the models estimated.

We judged that team members (i.e., leaders' interaction partners) were the appropriate source for providing ratings about perceptions of affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation. In the case of leader's affective presence, we departed from the traditional self-evaluation method of individual differences to measure this construct, adopting a personality

assessment from the "perspective of the observer" (Connelly, 2013; Funder, 1995). This perspective suggests that affective presence is best captured according to the perceptions of interaction partners, because the construct is defined on the basis of its effects on others, meaning that those others are in the best position to report on the construct (Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010; Madrid et al., 2016). In fact, the focal referent (in this case, the leader) may not even have awareness of his or her affective presence. In the case of leaders' use of interpersonal emotion regulation, we chose to measure this construct from the perspective of team members due to our model's focus on the perception of the use of this behavior. This is relevant to capture instances of regulation that could occur with or without conscious awareness on the part of the regulator, i.e., automatic and controlled regulation. This measurement approach is aligned with the strategies adopted by other researchers when the focus of the research has been on identifying effects of interpersonal emotion regulation on other people (e.g., Little, Gooty, & Williams, 2016). In the case of teamness, measuring the construct from the perspective of team members was important because teamness emanates from team members' perceptions about their group environment. Taking the above together, therefore, this study relies on ratings about team members perceptions about their leaders' affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation strategies and about the extent to which their teamwork environment demands interdependence and reflexivity.

Team leaders responded to an independent survey, giving ratings of team-level interpersonal citizenship behavior together with ratings about their own extraversion and neuroticism (control variables). This two-source strategy allowed us to avoid problems arising from common methods bias (P. M. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012) relative to the main dependent variable in the study (i.e., interpersonal citizenship behavior). Data provided by

team members and their team leader were matched using an identification code (unique national ID number in Chile) of leaders.

Measures

Team Member Survey. Leader affective presence was measured with the six-item scale developed by Madrid, Totterdell, Niven, and Barros (2016). This measure asked team members to rate the extent to which interacting with the leader of their team usually made them feel… [1: *not at all* – 5: *a great extent*] happy, enthusiastic and inspired (3 items for positive affective presence, $\alpha = .93$), and stressed, tense, and worried (3 items for negative affective presence, $\alpha = .76$).

Team members' perceptions of leader interpersonal emotion regulation was measured with 7-items adapted from Niven et al. (2011). Team members were asked to rate the extent to which their leader uses specific behaviors that influence the way they feel on a response scale of 1: *not at all* – 5: *a great extent*. Example items are "discusses team member's positive characteristics" (4 items for affect-improving regulation, $\alpha = .96$) and "acts annoyed towards team members" (3 items for affect-worsening regulation, $\alpha = .71$).

Perceived teamness was measured with four items of the scale developed by Richardson and West (2010; West & Lyubovnikova, 2012), in which team members were asked about their activities linked to interdependence and reflexivity, using a response scale of 1: *strongly disagree* – 5: *strongly agree*. Example items were: "we have to coordinate our work tightly in this team" and "we regularly reflect upon team performance and how it could be improved" ($\alpha = .95$).

Team members' affect was measured with 6 items from the scale of Warr, Bindl, Parker, and Inceoglu (2014), which were validated for Spanish-speaking populations by Madrid and Patterson (2014). Thus, team members were asked to rate the extent to which they feel an array

of feelings *within their teams*, on a response scale of 1: *never* – 5: *always/almost always*. Items were "enthusiastic", "joyful" and "inspired" for positive affect (α = .88); and "worry", "anxious" and "tense" for negative affect (α = .84). Team member affect was used as a control variable in the models estimated to account for its possible confounding effects relative to leader affective presence. Specifically, team members ratings of leaders' affective presence may be subject to team members' own affect, which may have been influenced by the leader's own affect through contagion. Furthermore, team member affect may influence perception of other variables examined in the model, such as the perceived use of leader interpersonal emotion regulation and teamness, due to the infusion of affect on cognitive processes (Forgas, 1995).

Team member–leader interaction frequency was measured with the single item "how frequently do you interact with your team leader?" in which the response choices were 1: *almost never* – 5: *everyday*. This measure was included as a control variable because interaction frequency may participate in team member's exposure to leader affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation, as well as in the frequency of opportunities that leaders have to observe interpersonal citizenship behavior among their team members.

Leader Survey. Team-level interpersonal citizenship behavior was measured using four items from scales of individual citizenship behavior developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). Using the team as a whole as a reference, leaders rated statements about whether team members carried out overt citizenship behaviors, using a response scale of 1: *strongly disagree* – 5: *strongly agree*, such as "help each other when someone has been absent" and "help each other when someone is dealing with heavy workloads" (α = .78).

Leaders' personality traits of extraversion and neuroticism were measured using 10 items from the Big5 personality scale developed by Benet-Martínez and John (1998), in which each

item has the stem "I see myself as a person who…", and response choices 1: *strongly disagree* – 5: *strongly agree*. Example items are "generates a lot of enthusiasm" (5 items for extraversion, α = .74) and "gets nervous easily" (5 items for neuroticism, α = .73). These traits were measured to account for their possible confounding effects relative to affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation. Specifically, perceptions of the way that the leader makes people feel, and its respective carrying mechanisms, could be influenced by the leaders' own affective experience. Thus, accounting for leaders' extraversion and neuroticism helps control for these effects, given the positive and negative affective tendencies embedded in these traits.

Analytical Strategy

In our models, leader affective presence predicts team-level interpersonal citizenship behaviors via perceptions of leaders' use of interpersonal emotion regulation, contingent upon teamness. The models were therefore at the team level of analysis, with all constructs denoting team-level phenomena.

Data analysis was conducted with a three-step strategy. First, inter-rater agreement analysis was applied to team members' ratings of leader affective presence, interpersonal emotion regulation, teamness and their affect, because we measured these team-level constructs at the individual level (Chan, 1998). Thus, intraclass correlation (ICC(1)), average deviation (AD) and rwg were estimated (Burke & Dunlap, 2002; Hox, 2010; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). ICC(1) indicates the proportion of variance in ratings attributable to systematic between-team differences compared with the total variance in the same ratings (Bliese, 2000; LeBreton & Senter, 2008). Accordingly, the ICC(1) denotes the effect size of the extent to which team members' ratings about the team-level variables examined – i.e., affective presence, emotion regulation, teamness and affect – were attributable to their team membership. ICC(1) values over

.12 indicate a substantive level of dependence of ratings relative to team membership (cf. Bliese, 2000). Estimation of AD and rwg were calculated to determine the degree of agreement among multiple team members' ratings for team leader's affective presence, interpersonal emotion regulation, teamness and team member affect. For 5-point Likert scales, as used here, mean values across the different groups below .80 for AD and above .70 for rwg indicate substantive inter-rater agreement.

Second, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (Brown, 2006; Byrne, 2012) were conducted at the team-level with a sample size of 99 teams in two separate stages. These analyses were based on data aggregated using the average of responses of team members from each team per item for leader affective presence, leader interpersonal emotion regulation and perceived teamness, together with leaders' ratings of team citizenship behavior which were measured at the team-level of analysis. Initially, in order to determine whether variables with the same affective valence were distinct, a model based on variables with positive valence, comprising leader positive affective presence and team members' perceptions of leader affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation, together with leader extraversion and team member positive affect, was tested. Furthermore, another model based on variables with negative valence, described by leader negative affective presence and team member perceptions of leader affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation, together with leader neuroticism and team member negative affect, was also estimated. Both models were compared with three-, two- and one factor alternative models, using a chi-squared difference test, to determine whether the variables were statistically distinct. Then, a model defined by leader affective presence, interpersonal emotion regulation, teamness and interpersonal citizenship behavior was estimated to determine the robustness of the measurement model involved in hypothesis testing.

Third, hypothesis testing was conducted using regression analyses with PROCESS (Hayes, 2013), which is a macro for SPSS that allows examination of multivariate models such as mediation, moderation and moderated-mediation, using robust estimation based on bootstrapping techniques. Mediation analysis adopted an "indirect-only" process in which a direct relationship of affective presence with interpersonal citizenship behavior was not assumed (Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011; Zhao, Lynch Jr., & Chen, 2010). This was based on our proposal that leader affective presence would relate to team members' perceptions of interpersonal emotion regulation first, which in turn would relate to citizenship behavior, such that interpersonal emotion regulation is a mechanism that carries the association of affective presence with the outcome. In the case of moderation analysis, we adopted the conditional indirect model proposed by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007) to test our proposal that a mediation process between affective presence, interpersonal emotion regulation and citizenship behavior depends, to some degree, on teamness. In the models estimated, the indirect process described by affective presence and emotion regulation on citizenship is conditional to the moderation effect of teamness for the link between emotion regulation and citizenship behavior. Following the guidelines of Aiken and West (1991) for testing and interpreting interactions, we centered the variables before to submit them to regression analyses, in order to avoid non-essential multicollinearity between the independent variables and the product of them, and also to interpret the interactive term within the range of the data.

Results

Inter-rater agreement analysis showed that team members' ratings were dependent on team membership and were convergent among members within the same team, for positive affective presence, ICC = .23, AD = .79, rwg = .61, negative affective presence, ICC = .15, AD =

.86, rwg = .55, interpersonal affect-improving emotion regulation, ICC = .26, AD = .80, rwg = .65, and affect-worsening emotion regulation ICC = .21, AD = .76, rwg = .67. The same was observed for ratings of teamness, ICC = .24, AD = .66, rwg = .77, and team member positive affect, ICC = .21, AD = .65, rwg = .77, and negative affect, ICC = .17, AD = .75, rwg = .69. These results established that these leader and team variables have non-independence because of team membership and their ratings involve moderate to strong agreement among team members. Thus, these variables could be examined as team-level constructs, so individual observations for these variables were aggregated around each team's mean score for the analyses that followed[1].

Results of confirmatory factor analysis for variables having the same affective valence showed that the four-factor model for positive valence, described by leader positive affective presence, team member perceptions of leader affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation, together with leader extraversion and team member positive affect, showed acceptable goodness-of-fit (Brown, 2006; Byrne, 2012), $\chi^2 = 150.84$, *df* (84), RMSEA = .09, CFI = .95, TLI = .93, which was superior than all alternative three-, two- and one-factor models. Furthermore, the four-factor model for negative valence, comprised by leader negative presence, team members' perceptions of leader affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation, together with leader neuroticism and team member negative affect also showed acceptable goodness-of-fit, $\chi^2 = 128.90$, *df* (841), RMSEA = .07, CFI = .91, TLI = .89 which was superior than all alternative

[1] Some values for inter-rater agreement were below the cutoff scores defined for strong agreement, but they were in the range of moderate levels. We aggregated data based on these results because moderate agreement may be sufficient in these cases (LeBreton & Senter, 2008).

three-, two- and one-factor models[2]. Therefore, variables with the same affective valence were supported as related but distinct. Moreover, results of confirmatory factor analysis for the six-factor model with the variables underlying hypotheses testing, described by leader positive and negative affective presence, leader affect improving and worsening interpersonal emotion regulation, perceived teamness and citizenship behavior, showed acceptable goodness-of-fit, χ^2 = 285.93, *df* (174), RMSEA = .08, CFI = .93, TLI = .92. Taking the above together, the robustness of the measurement models involved in hypothesis testing was supported.

The means, standard deviations, correlations and reliabilities of the variables are summarized in Table 1. Results showed that team size was not associated with the other variables in the study, whereas leader-member interaction frequency was related to citizenship behavior. Thus, leader-member interaction frequency was used, together with leader extraversion and neuroticism and team member positive and negative affect, as a control variable in the subsequent analyses.

[INSERT TABLE 1 AROUND HERE]

Hypothesis 1 stated that leader positive affective presence would be positively related to team members' perceptions of leaders' use of affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation. Regression analysis (Table 2) showed that team member ratings of leader positive affective presence and ratings of leader affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation were positively

[2] Comparison among models was estimated using the chi-squared difference test, observing statistically significant stronger goodness-of-fit for models describing independent factors compared with alternative models comprised by the combination of three factors, two factors or models where all the variables were loaded in a single factor.

related, $b = .85$ $SE = .11$, $p < .01$; therefore, Hypothesis 1 was supported.[3] Hypothesis 2 stated that leader negative affective presence would be positively related to team members' perceptions of leaders' use of interpersonal affect-worsening emotion regulation, which was also supported, $b = .52$, $SE = .14$, $p < .01$[4].

Hypothesis 3 stated that team members' perceptions of leaders' use of affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation would mediate the positive relationship between leader positive affective presence and team interpersonal citizenship behavior. As reported above, results of mediation analysis (Table 2) showed that team member ratings of leader positive affective presence and affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation were positively related, $b = .85$, $SE = .11$, $p < .01$, as were team member ratings of affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation and interpersonal citizenship behavior, $b = .32$, $SE = .15$, $p < .05$. Furthermore, leader

[3] This strong regression coefficient suggested that measures of leader positive affective presence and improving emotion regulation might capture the same construct. However, as discussed earlier, they regard different individual differences; affective presence is a focal person's tendency to elicit the same affective reaction in different interaction partners, whereas interpersonal emotion regulation refers to the overt behaviors of the focal person that are aimed at changing the affective experience of interaction partners. Support for the distinction between these variables was observed in confirmatory factor analyses, shown above, in which variables with the same affective valence were estimated.

[4] Crossover relationships between affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation were not observed, such that positive affective presence was not related to affect-worsening emotion regulation, $b = .00$, $SE = .09$, $p > .05$, and negative affective presence was not related to affect-improving emotion regulation, $b = .11$, $SE = .10$, $p > .05$.

positive affective presence and interpersonal citizenship behavior were not directly related, b = -.20, SE = .21, p > .05, but showed a positive indirect relationship via interpersonal emotion regulation, b = .27, p < .05. Taking the above results together, Hypothesis 3 was supported.

Hypothesis 4 stated that team members' perceptions of leader affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation would mediate the negative relationship between leader negative affective presence and team interpersonal citizenship behavior. Results (Table 2), as reported above, showed that team member ratings of leader negative affective presence and affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation were positively related, b = .52, SE = .14, p < .01, but the latter was not related to citizenship behavior, b = -.18, SE = .13, p > .05, which meant that a mediation process was not possible. As a result, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

[INSERT TABLE 2 AROUND HERE]

Hypothesis 5 stated that perceived teamness would moderate the positive mediation process between leader positive affective presence, team members' perceptions of leader affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation and interpersonal citizenship behavior, such that this mediation would be stronger when teamness is high rather than low. Specifically, we expected that teamness would moderate the association of team members' perceptions of leaders' use of affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation with interpersonal citizenship behavior. Results of conditional indirect analysis (moderated mediation, Table 3) showed that the interaction term between teamness and leader affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation was not related to citizenship behavior b = .18, SE = .16, p > .05, which meant that a moderated mediation process was not possible. Thus, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Finally, Hypothesis 6 stated that perceived teamness would moderate the negative mediation process between team members' perceptions of leader negative affective presence,

leader affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation and interpersonal citizenship behavior, such that this mediation would be stronger when teamness is low rather than high. Specifically, we expected that teamness would moderate the effect of team members' perceptions of leader affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation on interpersonal citizenship behavior. Results (Table 3, Step 2) showed an interaction between teamness and team members' ratings of leaders use of affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation on interpersonal citizenship behavior b = .39, SE = .19, $p < .05$. Further examination of the conditional indirect effect (Table 3) indicated that teamness moderated the mediation process between leader negative affective presence, affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation and interpersonal citizenship behavior, such that this mediation was negative when teamness was low, b = -.18, $p < .05$, but not when teamness was high, b = .03, $p > .05$ (Figure 2). Thus, Hypothesis 6 was supported. The full moderated mediation models are depicted in Figures 3 and 4.

[INSERT TABLE 3 AND FIGURE 2 AROUND HERE]

[INSERT FIGURE 3 AND 4 AROUND HERE]

Discussion

Results of this study indicate that leaders' affective presence is associated with team members' perceptions of their leaders' use of interpersonal emotion regulation, which in turn is associated with the interpersonal citizenship behavior of team members. Specifically, leader positive affective presence was found to be positively related to the leader's use of affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation, and therein to greater citizenship behavior in the team. However, against our prediction, this process was not sensitive to the degree of teamness perceived by team members, so the strength of the relationship between interpersonal emotion regulation and citizenship behavior was not dependent on the extent to which interdependence

and reflexivity were perceived to be part of team tasks. This suggests that positive affective presence is associated with work-related outcomes by facilitating functional interpersonal processes, irrespective of whether the team's task is appraised as requiring strong interpersonal interaction or not. This robust unconditional relationship might be explained by strong approach behavioral tendencies embedded in the positive affective experience (Elliot, 2008; Elliot & Thrash, 2002). This kind of influence has been documented in the motivation literature, such that approach tendencies would be associated with satisfying needs of affiliation and incrementing positive reinforcements in social motivation and interpersonal relationships (Gable & Berkman, 2008).

In contrast, although leader negative affective presence was positively related to team members perception of leaders' use of affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation, which in turn was negatively related to citizenship behavior in the team, this process was only observed when team members perceived that teamness was low. This suggests, consistent with previous research (Madrid, Totterdell, Niven, et al., 2016), that the process of leader negative affective presence is sensitive to context. In this case, we theorize that leader negative affective presence is linked to avoidant and hesitant behavioral tendencies in team members, being associated with lower citizenship behavior, only when interdependence and reflexivity were not prevalent in the team. An explanation for this finding is that withdrawal from helpfulness was not construed as inappropriate when teamness was perceived as irrelevant to the team or, alternatively, that teamness buffered the negative association of leader negative affective presence with perceived affect-worsening regulation on team member citizenship behavior. In the latter case, teamness may provide resources – i.e., capacity for overt coordination, communication and collective reflection – that enable team members to cope with negative feelings associated with the leader's

personality and therefore remain collaborative. It should be noted, however, that leaders' use of affect-worsening interpersonal emotion regulation is not inevitably dysfunctional. There may be occasions when this may have an instrumental value (e.g., discouraging inappropriate or harmful behaviors in team members), just as emotion self-regulation involving worsening of affect sometimes has utility when pursing long-term goals (Tamir, 2009).

Results also indicated that affective presence did not have crossover relationships with team members' perceptions of leader interpersonal emotion regulation, such that leader positive affective presence was not related to affect-worsening regulation and leader negative affective presence was not related to affect-improving regulation. This suggests that, analogous to models of trait affect (Watson, 2000), affective presence involves a dual-process described by congruence in valence, in which positive affective presence is primarily linked to perceived behavior involving positive meaning, whereas negative affective presence is primarily linked to perceived behavior involving negative meaning. In practical terms, this means that leaders with positive affective presence can be related to team members cognition through perceptions of affect-improving regulation, but not worsening, whereas leaders with negative presence can be associated with team member cognition through perceptions of affect-worsening regulation, but not improving.

Regarding research on teams, this study expands knowledge concerning the relevance of individual differences for teamwork. Most of research on personality in teams has concentrated on team-level diversity relative to personality traits, being based on dispositions with intrapersonal meaning described by the Big5 model (Mathieu et al., 2008). However, focus on psychological characteristics of leaders is also relevant to understand processes of social behavior among team members (Gladstein, 1984; Ilgen et al., 2005; McGrath, 1964), which

necessarily requires adopting an interpersonal approach. Thus, we focused on the concept of affective presence, as a novel affective-laden personality trait (Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010), and have demonstrated its potential to explain interpersonal dynamics in social contexts. Our emphasis on perceived interpersonal emotion regulation as the mechanism through which this individual difference contributes towards team outcomes is also novel as, to the best of our knowledge, interpersonal emotion regulation has been theoretically acknowledged in the teamwork literature (Marks et al., 2001) but mostly unexplored in empirical research (Mathieu et al., 2008).

In relation to citizenship behavior, the findings of this study broaden the understanding of interpersonal helping in the workplace. Previous research has demonstrated that positive feelings emanating from the inner psychological realm increase the likelihood of social facilitation and collaboration, whereas inner negative affect exerts the opposite effect (George, 1991; Ilies et al., 2006; Lee & Allen, 2002; Spence et al., 2011). Nevertheless, examining this behavior from the lens of an affective-interpersonal approach highlights that citizenship behavior is not only a function of an individual's own psychological processes, but also a consequence of interaction partners' affective influence. Furthermore, following the literature on teamwork (Marks, Mathieu, & Zaccaro, 2001), here we operationalized citizenship as a team behavioral process, expanding the typical definition of this sort of behavior in terms of individual actions as part of contextual performance. Thus, helping behavior is conceptualized as a group-level phenomenon which describes a proper interpersonal meaning relative to other interpersonal variables in the context of teams. In addition, underlying our approach in studying citizenship behavior in the context of teamness is the notion that the process of helping depends on the prevailing social environment. In other words, the understanding of helping behavior presented here

acknowledges that behavior is not only a function of individual differences, but also results from the complex interaction between individual tendencies and the context where individuals perform their tasks (Bem & Funder, 1978; Chatman, 1989; Meyer et al., 2010; Tett & Burnett, 2003; Weiss & Adler, 1984).

Taken together, the results discussed above offer support for the process model that we outlined. Specifically, affective presence was supported as a trait that, via the mechanism of perceived interpersonal emotion regulation, is related to the outcome of team member behavior, with the extent of influence sometimes depending on the boundary condition denoted by teamness. This process showed incremental validity over and above *intra*personal, affective-laden traits – i.e., extraversion, neuroticism, positive affect and negative affect – which gives additional credence to the value of this individual difference. This provides a pertinent contribution to research on personality in the workplace, because process models that provide a theoretical explanation for *how* and *when* interpersonal and affective-laden personality traits are associated with work-related outcomes are limited in the literature (Hampson, 2012; Johnson & Hezlett, 2008; Johnson & Schneider, 2013).

With regards to practical implications, this study highlights that leaders' individual differences should be considered in the context of promoting teamwork in organizations. Leaders are salient and powerful members of teams, and as a result they are highly influential in developing shared affect, cognition and behavior among team members (Anderson, Keltner, & John, 2003; Kozlowski, Gully, McHugh, Salas, & Cannon-Bowers, 1996; Magee & Galinsky, 2008). Organizations, therefore, should pay attention to the tendencies of leaders to elicit consistent positive or negative affective experiences within teams, particularly through use of either affect-improving or affect-worsening emotion regulation. These psychological processes

are relevant to helping behavior and social facilitation within teams, and should be considered when recruiting, training or promoting individuals to job roles requiring leadership influence.

Limitations, Future Research and Conclusion

This study, as with any research endeavor, has its limitations. Due to the use of a cross-sectional survey design rather than an experimental design, causality within the processes proposed and tested can only be theoretically inferred. This is particularly relevant for the relationship of affective presence with interpersonal emotion regulation, because affective presence is based on perceptions about how leaders make team members feel, which is more proximal to team members than perceptions of leader's interpersonal emotion regulation, meaning that their ratings of affective presence may in part be based on the interpersonal emotion regulation they perceive their leader to have used. Our theoretical proposal though is that affective presence is a cause of interpersonal emotion regulation, rather than the other way around, because as a personality trait affective presence is, as previously supported (Eisenkraft & Elfenbein, 2010), stable over time, while interpersonal emotion regulation denotes a set of contingent behaviors unfolding over time. This is aligned with the conceptualization of personality traits as stable cognitive or affective dispositions that predict behavior.

Regarding causal direction between leader individual differences and citizenship behavior, in addition to our hypotheses, leader ratings of performance might be a cause of perceptions of affective presence and emotion regulation. For example, leaders who publicly convey positive assessments of their team's behavior might cause team members to develop positive appraisals of their leader's regulation behavior, and the opposite when negative assessments are conveyed. Furthermore, leaders might use more positive behaviors towards teams that are more helpful and more negative behaviors towards more unhelpful teams. The

above indicates that further experimental and longitudinal research will be useful to determine the correct interpretation of the results observed here.

Another issue is the possible overlap between measures of affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation, which was observed, for example, in a strong positive correlation between affective presence and affect-improving emotion regulation. Common-method variance may explain this, because these variables were measured based on perceptions from the same source (team members) in a cross-sectional fashion (P. M. Podsakoff et al., 2012). Another explanation, based on perceptual grounds, is that some degree of overlap between affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation is likely, because they are all defined at the group level of analysis. Thus, the estimation of the relationship among them may carry variance owing to generalized team member perceptions on team emotional dynamics and about traits of leaders relevant for teamwork. In other words, in the association among these variables, perceptual processes about the teamwork environment might be confounded.[5] However, it is still possible that the association of positive affective presence with affect-improving emotion regulation may denote a true and strong relation between both constructs. Team members' perceptions of leaders' use of interpersonal emotion regulation evokes emotions in team members and team members also use those emotions in part to perceive how the leader makes them feel (i.e., affective presence). Thus, both constructs by nature are dependent on the emotions elicited in team members and so are likely to be strongly related. Crucially, confirmatory factor analysis supported that leader positive affective presence and affect-improving interpersonal regulation are related but different constructs. This fits with the proposal that affective presence is a latent underlying feature of the focal person's personality, whereas

[5] We thank the anonymous reviewer who suggested this point.

interpersonal emotion regulation is a behavioral vehicle that acts as a medium for the influences of personality traits. Furthermore, the use of team member positive and negative affect together with leader extraversion and neuroticism (which are personality traits that carry the tendency of experiencing positive and negative feelings) as control variables helped to deal with these issues. Accordingly, the results observed about the relationships hypothesized accounted for and excluded the possible influences of affective processes that are part of the intrapersonal domain of team members and their leaders, leaving only those effects that are attributable to the interpersonal meaning of leader affective presence and leader interpersonal emotion regulation. However, the above discussion highlights that more research is needed, using for instance multisource and longitudinal intervention designs, to disentangle the notion and effects of affective presence and to confirm that the results observed here are robust.

An additional issue about affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation concerns the degree of inter-rater agreement observed for their measures. Results showed moderate to strong agreement among team members that rated these constructs relative to their team leaders. In team-level research, in general, strong agreement is desirable among the variables examined; however, when assessment of agreement is applied to individual attributes measured by interaction partners, more moderate levels of agreement might indicate that those constructs involve greater complexity. For example, moderate agreement in affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation might be indicative that leaders elicit more diverse, ambiguous or mixed affective experiences among team members. Thus, additional research that embraces the notion that these constructs might involve ambiguity or diversity in the affective experience provoked in the social realm will be relevant to progress in this field of knowledge.

There are additional possible limitations pertaining to how we measured interpersonal emotion regulation. Capturing the construct from the perceptions of team members enabled us to access both controlled and automatic regulatory behaviors of leaders. However, we do recognize that there is a downside to this choice; we could only capture those attempts at interpersonal emotion regulation that team members were aware of. That is of no consequence if the attempts they are unaware of have no influence on their emotional experience, but is a loss if they do. Moreover, this is another possible explanation of why team member ratings of leader affective presence and interpersonal emotion regulation are highly correlated, because in both cases our measures are based on what team members are perceptually aware of in relation to leader personality and behavior. However, prior research has found that self- and other-reports of interpersonal emotion regulation correlate at a medium to strong level (*r*s = .39 for affect-improving and .51 for affect-worsening; Niven et al., 2011), suggesting that the extent of overlap in leaders' and team members' perceptions of interpersonal emotion regulation in the present study may actually have been relatively strong. Moreover, while a self-report method of measurement on the part of the leader might provide missed information about regulatory behaviors, using self-reports only would likely miss another part of the picture, relating to automatic regulation (which is by definition outside of the awareness of regulators). As such, we advocate that future research on this construct should use both self *and* others reports of interpersonal emotion regulation.

On a more technical note, the moderated mediation proposed for positive and negative affective presence were tested in separate models using regression techniques. This was because, even though sample size was relatively large by team research standards (de Jong & Elfring, 2010), the number of teams in the study was insufficient to test a full model including positive

and negative affective presence together with affect-improving and affect-worsening emotion regulation. Hence, studies with larger sample sizes and the adoption, for example, of structural equation modeling, would be valuable to corroborate and expand the results of this study.

An important question for future research concerns how to translate our findings into practical usage. As a personality trait, at first glance it would appear that affective presence is likely to be relatively impervious to intervention, meaning that it would be difficult to harness the results of this research in order to increase helping behavior in teams. However, because our findings suggest that affective presence takes its relationships with team member behavior through perceptions of interpersonal emotion regulation, which is a behavior that can be willfully enacted, there is potential for organizations to capitalize on our results. Future research should therefore consider whether training leaders in the use of affect-improving interpersonal emotion regulation behaviors – or training leaders to decrease their use of affect-worsening behaviors – enhances helping among their team members. It will be particularly interesting to see whether such training in turn has implications in terms of changes in leaders' affective presence, which would therefore suggest that this personality trait is more malleable than might instinctively be assumed.

In summary, this investigation integrated emotion regulation and teamwork literatures to present and support a process model that can explain the relationship of leader affective presence with interpersonal behavior in teams. We trust that theory and research on interpersonal and affective-laden individual differences in the workplace will follow and expand the findings of this study.

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Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Interpersonal citizenship behavior	4.14	0.53	(.78)											
2. Leader positive affective presence	3.37	0.56	.15	(.93)										
3. Leader negative affective presence	2.42	0.44	-.09	-.57**	(.76)									
4. Team member perception of improving regulation	3.56	0.59	.24*	.82**	-.40**	(.96)								
5. Team member perception of worsening regulation	2.18	0.46	-.16	-.24*	.41**	-. 18	(.71)							
6. Teamness	3.88	0.53	.05	.41**	-.04	.47**	. 14	(.95)						
7. Leader extraversion	3.70	0.56	.24*	.31**	-.10	.29**	.21*	.13	(.74)					
8. Leader neuroticism	2.11	0.50	-.15	-.07	.18	-.03	-.02	-.01	-.27**	(.73)				
9. Team member positive affect	3.64	0.46	.10	.77**	-.42**	.66**	-.20*	.46**	.25*	.04	(.88)			
10. Team member negative affect	2.78	0.41	-.14	-.44**	.64**	-.42**	.22*	-.03	-.10	-.05	-.41**	(.84)		
11. Leader-member interaction frequency	4.27	0.57	.25*	.11	.00	.11	-.12	.14	.02	.05	.16	.00	–	
12. Team size	8.51	5.32	-. 12	-.09	-.02	-.16	.16	-.07	-.06	-.08	-.11	.13	-.03	–

Note. $N = 99$. Affective presence measures are those rated by team members. Reliabilities are displayed in parentheses on the diagonal.
* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 2

Regression Analyses for Leader Affective Presence, Leader Interpersonal Emotion Regulation and Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior (Hypotheses 1-4)

Variable	Affect-Improving		Affect-Worsening	
	I-IER	OCB	W-IER	OCB
Intercept	0.03 (.52)	2.60 (.76)**	1.89 (.65)**	3.97 (.82)**
Leader-member interaction frequency	.00 (.06)	.23 (.09)*	-.09 (.08)	.22 (.09)*
Leader extraversion	.03 (.06)	.20 (.10)*		
Leader neuroticism			-.10 (.09)	-.22 (.11)*
Team member positive affect	.08 (.12)	-.11 (.17)		
Team member negative affect			-.13 (.14)	-.26 (.17)
Leader positive affective presence	.85 (.11)**	-.20 (.21)	.00 (.09)	.08 (.11)
Leader negative affective presence	.11 (.10)	-.10 (.14)	.52 (.14)**	.22 (.18)
Team member perception of improving regulation		.32 (.15)*		
Team member perception of worsening regulation				-.18 (.13)
F (df1, df2)	39.31 (5, 93)	2.99 (6, 92)	4.65 (5, 93)	2.45 (6, 92)
R^2 Model	.68**	.16*	.20**	.14*
Indirect effect [Bootstrap = 5000]	.27 [.06, .55]*		-.09 [-.25, .01]	

Note. $N = 99$. Unstandardized estimates. † $p = .05$ * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Regression Analyses for Affective Presence Process Moderated by Perceived Teamness (Hypotheses 5 and 6)

Variable	Affect-Improving		Affect-Worsening	
	I-IER	**OCB**	**W-IER**	**OCB**
Intercept	-3.53 (.51)	3.45 (.97)**	-.29 (.65)	3.29 (.85)**
Leader-member interaction frequency	.00 (.06)	.22 (.09)	-.09 (.08)	.22 (.09)*
Leader extraversion	.03 (.06)	.20 (.10)*		
Leader neuroticism			-.10 (.09)	-.20 (.11)†
Team member positive affect	.08 (.12)	-.08 (.18)		
Team member negative affect			-.13 (.14)	-.20 (.17)
Leader positive affective presence	.85 (.11)**	-.19 (.21)	.00 (.09)	.11 (.13)
Leader negative affective presence	.11 (.10)	-.05 (.15)	.52 (.14)**	.21 (.18)
Team member perception of improving regulation		.37 (.16)*		
Team member perception of worsening regulation				-.15 (.13)
Teamness		-.08 (.12)		.05 (.11)
Improving X Teamness		.18 (.16)		
Worsening X Teamness				.39 (.19)*
F (df1, df2)	39.31 (5, 93)	2.45 (8, 90)	4.65 (5, 93)	2.43 (8, 90)
R^2 Model	.68**	.18*	.20**	.18*
Conditional indirect effect teamness [Bootstrap = 5000]	Low (-1SD) = .24 [-.01, .56], High (+1SD) = .39* [.11, .78]		Low (-1SD)= -.18* [-.41, -.05], High (+1SD) = .03 [-.13, .23]	

Note. $N = 99$. Unstandardized estimates. † $p = .05$ * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

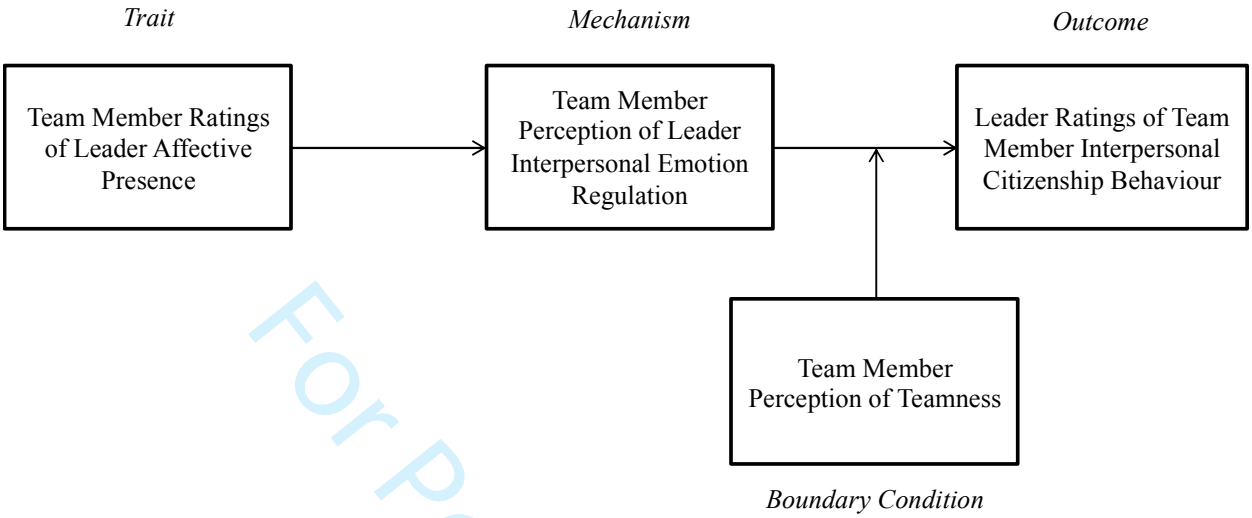

Figure 1. Process Model for Leader Affective Presence in Teams

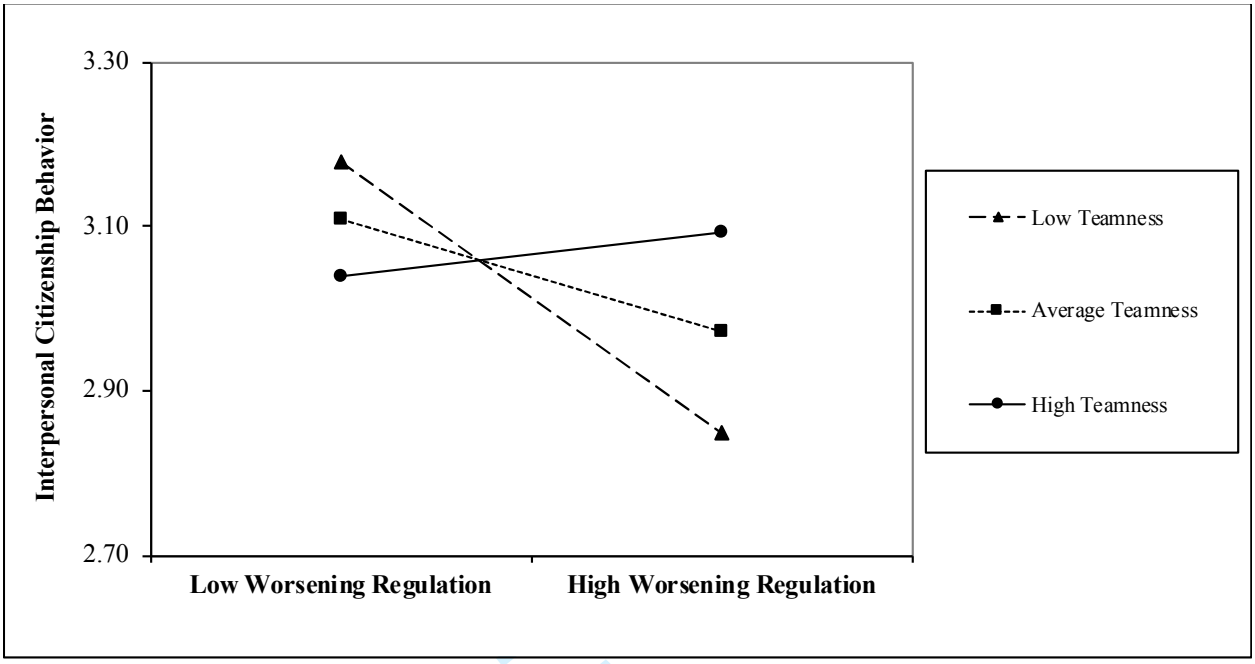

Figure 2. Interaction Effect of Team Members' Perception of Leaders' Use of Affect-Worsening Interpersonal Emotion Regulation and Team Members' Perceptions of Teamness on Team Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior

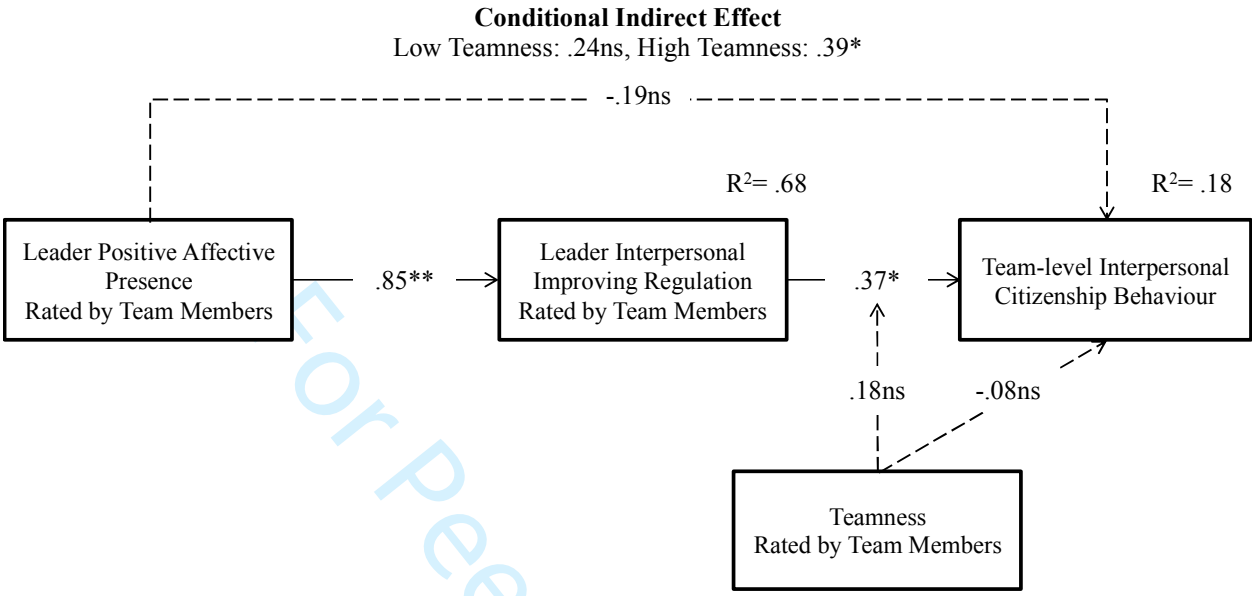

Figure 3. Conditional Indirect Effect (Moderated Mediation) for Leader Positive Affective Presence, Team Members' Perceptions of Leaders' Use of Affect-Improving Interpersonal Emotion Regulation, and Team Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior Moderated by Teamness. Leader-member interaction frequency, leader extraversion and team member positive affect were included as control variables in this model but not depicted in the figure to avoid complexity. * p <.05. ** p <.01.

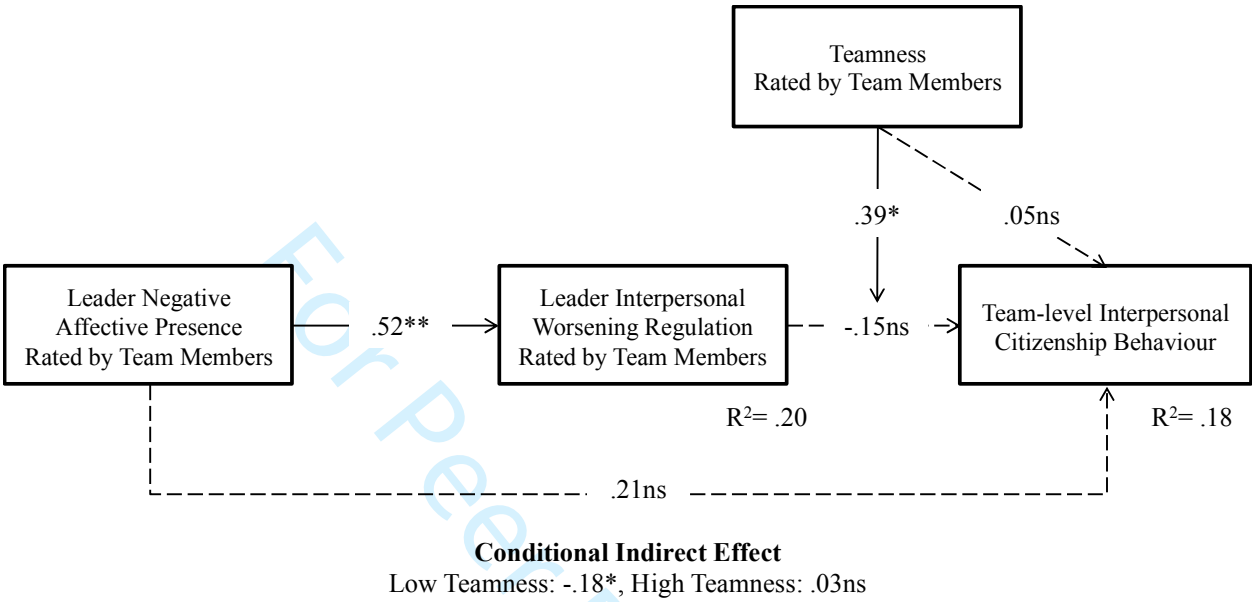

Figure 4. Conditional Indirect Effect (Moderated Mediation) for Leader Negative Affective Presence, Team Members' Perceptions of Leaders' Use of Affect-Worsening Interpersonal Emotion Regulation, and Interpersonal Citizenship Behavior Moderated by Teamness. Leader-member interaction frequency, leader neuroticism and team member negative affect were included as control variables in this model but not depicted in the figure to avoid complexity. * p <.05. ** p <.01.