

Pride: Implications for Leader Behaviors and Effectiveness

by

Edward Yeung

A thesis

presented to the University of Waterloo

in fulfilment of the

thesis requirement for the degree of

Master of Arts

in

Psychology

Waterloo, Ontario, Canada, 2017

© Edward Yeung 2017

Author's Declaration

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

I understand that my thesis may be made electronically available to the public

Abstract

Although scholars have increasingly recognized the role of emotions in leadership processes, research to date has mostly focused on generalized affect (i.e., positive and negative affect) rather than discrete emotions. We conduct two field studies to examine the effects of leaders' experiences of authentic and hubristic pride on leadership behaviors and effectiveness. In Study 1, a field study of leader-follower dyads, we demonstrate that leader trait authentic and hubristic pride have positive and negative impacts on leadership effectiveness, respectively, and that these effects occur via their use of effective (i.e., consideration, initiating structure) and ineffective (i.e., abusive supervision) leadership behaviors. In Study 2, a daily diary study with organizational leaders, we find that on days when leaders experience more authentic pride than usual, they are also more likely to engage in effective leadership behaviors than usual, and on days when leaders experience more hubristic pride than usual, they are also more likely to engage in abusive behaviors toward their subordinates than usual. These effects were above and beyond the effects of daily positive and negative affect. We also found some evidence of cross-level moderating effects, such that those higher (vs. lower) on trait pride, generally exhibited stronger relationships between state pride and leadership behaviors. Generally, our study highlights the importance of pride for leadership processes as well as the benefits and need to study discrete emotions in organizational settings.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Winny Shen, for her patient guidance in refining my work. I would also like to thank my thesis readers, Dr. James Beck and Dr. Doug Brown, whose feedback were instrumental in shaping the final form of the work presented here.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
Pride: A Tale of Two Facets	4
Pride and Leadership Behaviors	7
Leadership Behaviors and Leadership Effectiveness	11
Overview of Studies	12
CHAPTER 2: TWO EMPIRICAL STUDIES EXAMINING THE RELATIONS BETWEEN PRIDE AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS	14
Study 1	14
Participants and Procedures	14
Measures	15
Results	16
Discussion	18
Study 2	18
Participants and Procedures	20
Measures	21
Results	23
Supplemental Analyses	25
Discussion	26
CHAPTER 3: GENERAL DISCUSSION	28
Theoretical and Practical Implications	28
Limitations and Future Research Directions	31
Conclusion	33
REFERENCES	45

List of Tables

Table		Page
1	Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Alpha Reliabilities for Study 1 Variables	34
2	Multiple Regression Results of Trait Authentic and Hubristic Pride Predicting Leadership Behaviors and Effectiveness	35
3	Multiple Regression Results of Trait Authentic and Hubristic Pride and Leader Behaviors Predicting Leadership Effectiveness	36
4	Within- and Between-Individual Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study 2	37
5	Multi-Level Modeling Results of Daily and Trait Authentic and Hubristic Pride Predicting Leadership Behaviors	38
6	Within-Individual Results for Daily Leadership Behaviors Predicting State Authentic and Hubristic Pride the Following Day	39
7	Within-Individual Results for State Authentic and Hubristic Pride predicting Leadership Behaviors the Following Day	40

List of Figures

Figure		Page
1	Conceptual Model for Study 1	41
2	Interaction Between State and Trait Authentic Pride on Daily Consideration	42
3	Interaction Between State and Trait Hubristic Pride on Daily Abusive Supervision	43
4	Interaction Between State and Trait Hubristic Pride Predicting Daily Initiating Structure	44

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Leadership is increasingly recognized as an emotion-laden social process that involves the full range of emotions that leaders and followers feel and express, which impacts the thoughts and actions of both parties (Cropanzano, Dasborough, & Weiss, 2016; George, 2000). Regardless of leadership theory or perspective, scholars agree that emotions and leadership are inseparably intertwined (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010). Of all the emotions that people experience, *pride* — which fuels the fundamental human pursuits of achievement, power, and social status—may be among the most crucial to consider in a leadership context. However, relatively little research has explored the impact of pride on leadership processes; rather, extant research linking emotions and leadership has focused on generalized affect (i.e., positive and/or negative affect; Gooty et al., 2010; Joseph, Dhanani, Shen, McHugh, & McCord, 2015). Thus, there exists a critical gap in the literature, as pride has been theorized and shown to possess unique motivational and behavioral consequences above and beyond generalized affect (Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2010; Hu & Kaplan, 2015; Williams & DeSteno, 2008) and conceptually appears to be centrally linked to social achievements, including attaining and maintaining leadership roles. To address this gap in the literature, the purpose of the current study is to understand the influence of pride on leadership behaviors and effectiveness.

Pride may be the *most important* human emotion to consider when it comes to motivating social behavior; this is because pride plays a central role in initiating and driving action towards the attainment of social status and socially-valued achievements (Tracy & Robins, 2007). The two types of pride, *authentic* and *hubristic* pride, are theorized to have evolved in humans to motivate two distinct behavioral strategies in pursuit of these ends. Specifically, authentic pride

may promote the attainment of social status based on expertise or legitimate achievement, while hubristic pride may promote attaining social status through intimidation (Cheng, Tracy, & Henrich, 2010). Thus, through their differing impacts on social behavior, each type of pride—when experienced by organizational leaders—may have unique downstream implications for leadership effectiveness. However, there has been little research examining experiences of pride in the workplace and within organizations generally, including its role in leadership processes (e.g., Boezeman & Ellemers, 2014; Gooty et al., 2014). As the context in which emotions occur (i.e., in the laboratory versus in the field) can dramatically affect their observed outcomes and behavioral consequences (e.g., Gooty et al., 2009; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), there currently exists a critical need to study pride in naturalistic organizational settings.

Prior theoretical and empirical evidence on pride suggests that it may be of particular importance to leadership. Empirical studies have demonstrated that individuals associate expressions of both authentic and hubristic pride with high status (Tiedens, Ellsworth, & Mesquita, 2000; Shariff & Tracy, 2009) and that nonverbal expressions of pride communicate to observers that the expresser is agentic (i.e., forceful, assertive, and confident; Brosi, Spörrle, Welppe, & Heilman, 2016). In addition, individuals who are induced to feel pride display dominant behaviors and are perceived as more influential (Williams & DeSteno, 2009). These behaviors and perceptions of agency, status, and influence may then encourage others to view those who display pride as “leader-like” and as possessing intrinsic leadership ability (Hogg, 2001).

In the current research, we focus on the behavioral implications of *leader* pride—specifically, we investigate how experiences of pride may shape leaders’ behaviors towards their followers, and the resulting impacts of these behaviors on leadership effectiveness. Although it is

recognized that the experience of each discrete emotion should have unique behavioral implications at work (Gooty et al., 2009; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), scholars have not identified *which* leadership behaviors would be motivated by pride and whether these relationships would differ by the type of pride (i.e., authentic or hubristic) experienced. Therefore, we seek to integrate the accumulated research on pride—drawing largely from work in evolutionary psychology—with the extant leadership literature in the organizational sciences to generate hypotheses regarding the relationships between pride and different types of leadership behaviors.

Moreover, we aim to make a number of broader contributions to the literature. First, we integrate and expand the leadership and emotions literature by addressing calls to investigate the role of discrete emotions in organizations, a topic that has traditionally been neglected in favor of generalized affect (Brief & Weiss, 2002; Gooty et al., 2009). Many studies have linked positive emotions to effective leadership in organizations (e.g., Joseph et al., 2015), but almost all of the research in this domain has aggregated different positively-valenced discrete emotions (e.g., happiness, pride, surprise) into the broader construct of positive affect. Despite making important contributions to integrating emotions into the leadership literature, this stream of research focusing on positive affect likely does not tell the full story—when it comes to understanding workplace behaviors, discrete emotions are critical as they represent functionally distinct responses that energize and promote unique sets of behavior (Roseman, Wiest, & Swartz, 1994). By examining the relationship between the discrete emotion of *pride* and leadership behaviors, we seek to enhance our conceptual understanding of the potentially important role discrete emotions may play in leadership processes (e.g., Connelly, Gaddis, & Morgan, 2013), as well as our ability to predict leadership outcomes.

A second broad aim of this research is to challenge the assumption that positive emotions result in universally positive outcomes in organizations (e.g., Lindebaum & Jordan, 2012). Prior theory and research has typically highlighted the benefits of experiencing positive emotions (i.e., The Broaden-and-Build Theory of positive emotions, Fredrickson, 2001). For example, leader positive affect (both state positive affect, momentary experiences of positive emotions, and trait positive affect, one's stable or habitual tendencies to experience positive emotions) has been linked to a host of beneficial organizational outcomes, including lower turnover and higher levels of job satisfaction and positive affect in individual followers, as well as greater group effort, cooperation, and lower group conflict (e.g., Barsade, 2002; Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004; George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005; Sy, Côté, & Saavedra, 2005a; Visser, van Knippenberg, van Kleef, & Wisse, 2013). In contrast, we theorize and aim to demonstrate that some subjectively pleasant and positive emotional experiences—hubristic pride, in this case—may actually produce negative outcomes in the workplace.

Pride: A Tale of Two Facets

Pride is a positive emotion that is generated when a socially desirable outcome is achieved (Tracy & Robins, 2004). Therefore, two criteria must be met to experience pride; first, individuals must believe that they are responsible for bringing about the outcome, and second, individuals must believe that the outcome is socially desirable. The experience of pride provides subjectively positive feelings of enhanced self-satisfaction and self-worth (Izard, 1991). This self-directed focus makes pride a self-conscious emotion (along with guilt, shame, and embarrassment), theorized to be critical in the regulation of social relationships (Beer, Heerey, Keltner, Scabini, & Knight, 2003; Tangney & Fischer, 1995).

Researchers have uncovered two distinct forms of pride: authentic and hubristic pride. Evidence suggests that the two types of pride are not distinguished by the events that elicit them (Tracy & Robins, 2007b), rather it is how an event is *appraised* that determines whether authentic or hubristic pride is experienced (Scherer, Schorr, & Johnstone, 2001). Authentic pride (e.g., feeling “accomplished”, “successful”) is experienced when an individual attributes success to internal and unstable causes, such as effort (Tracy & Robins, 2007b). In contrast, hubristic pride (e.g., feeling “arrogant”, “conceited”) is experienced when success is attributed to internal and stable causes, such as innate ability or intelligence (Tracy & Robins, 2007b).

Research from evolutionary psychology has suggested that authentic and hubristic pride evolved in humans as mechanisms for motivating two divergent sets of behavioral strategies that can be used to attain and maintain social status, in order to facilitate better odds of survival and reproduction (Cheng et al., 2010). The theorized function of authentic pride is to motivate individuals to seek social status through attaining socially-valued achievements, expertise, and knowledge, and to gain respect and recognition by sharing this expertise and helping others (Cheng et al., 2010). In contrast, the evolutionary function of hubristic pride may be to motivate individuals to use intimidation, aggression, and coercion to attain or maintain status through the induction of fear and by establishing an intimidating reputation (Cheng et al., 2010). Importantly, empirical research has demonstrated that both behavioral strategies are viable pathways to greater status and social influence (Cheng, Tracy, Foulsham, Kingstone, & Henrich, 2013).

Trait and state pride. Scholars have conceptualized pride as both a momentary emotion or state (Williams & DeSteno, 2009) as well as a stable trait (Oveis, Horberg, & Keltner, 2010). State pride refers to the momentary experience of pride, whereas trait pride-proneness refers to the frequency and intensity with which an individual experiences state pride (Tracy & Robins,

2007b). This conceptualization of trait pride is in line with prior research indicating that affective traits reflect a density distribution of affective states (Fleeson, 2001). Thus, although emotions are typically defined as momentary states (i.e., reactions to events; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996)—and individuals' experience of these states vary on any given day—over time, an individual's experiences of an emotion forms a distribution (Fleeson, 2001). There are stable individual differences in the characteristics of these distributions (e.g., central tendency) that are conceptualized as *trait* emotions, and are suggested to be useful predictors of behavior beyond state emotions (e.g., Fleeson, 2001). With regards to pride—every individual will experience varying amounts of pride over time, but between different people, there are stable differences in the *average* amount of pride that one tends to experience (i.e., trait pride). Overall, trait pride refers to one's dispositional tendency to appraise outcomes as socially desirable, to take credit for these outcomes, as well as the tendency to make either stable or unstable internal attributions for the achievement of those outcomes (depending on whether authentic or hubristic trait pride-proneness is being assessed; Tracy & Robins, 2007b).

Trait and state pride are theorized to be associated with the same patterns of behaviors and outcomes (Cheng et al., 2010). Although the causal process from pride to behavior is predicted to occur at the state-level (i.e., the experience of state pride drives immediate behavioral responses), it is argued that the *repeated* experience of either authentic or hubristic pride, as would be expected among individuals higher in trait pride, promotes the likelihood of these same behaviors beyond what is expected to occur with a momentary experience of the emotion (Cheng et al., 2010). This is because, in line with the feedback model of emotion and behavior (Baumeister, Vohs, DeWall, & Zhang, 2007), pride-motivated behaviors likely lead to

outcomes that beget additional feelings of pride, which may reinforce the use of these behaviors and strengthen behavioral tendencies over time (Cheng et al., 2010).

Although we anticipate similar relationships between state and trait pride and leadership behaviors, prior research has demonstrated that trait and state emotions are often statistically and conceptually independent, and that between- and within-individual relationships between emotions and behaviors may not always reflect the same underlying mechanisms (e.g., Epstein, 1994; Ilies, Scott, & Judge, 2006; Reis, Sheldon, Gable, Roscoe, & Ryan, 2000). Thus, there is significant value in empirically examining the relationship between pride and leadership behaviors at *both* the within- and between-individual levels of analysis, as testing whether relationships are homologous across levels of analysis is important for theory-building and refinement (Chen, Bliese, & Mathieu, 2005). Therefore, in the current paper we report the results of two complementary studies; Study 1 focuses on leader *trait* pride and typical leadership behaviors, while Study 2 focuses on the leader *state* pride and daily variation in leadership behaviors.

Pride and Leadership Behaviors

Drawing upon Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), we propose that leaders' experiences of pride will influence their behaviors towards their subordinates. In the current paper, we focus on three types of leadership behaviors: consideration, initiating structure, and abusive supervision. Together, these leadership behaviors are reflective of the dimensions of task-oriented behavior (i.e., initiating structure) and relations-oriented behavior (i.e., consideration and abusive supervision), which are broader categories theorized to encompass all leadership behavior (Behrendt, Matz, & Göritz, 2016). In addition, these behaviors are well-established in the leadership literature and have been consistently shown to be related to

leadership effectiveness (e.g., Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Tepper, 2007). More importantly, among the range of leadership behaviors that scholars have examined, these specific behaviors appear to most closely fit with the theorized motivational and behavioral consequences of authentic and hubristic pride. Below, we describe these behaviors and outline the predicted link between authentic and hubristic pride and each type of leadership behavior in detail.

Consideration. Consideration behaviors reflect the degree to which a leader demonstrates concern and respect for followers, displays interest in their well-being, and expresses appreciation and support towards them (Bass, 1990). We hypothesize that consideration behaviors are particularly important to consider in relation with pride, as both authentic and hubristic pride are suggested to influence behaviors relevant to interpersonal relationship development. Specifically, the experience of authentic pride is theorized to motivate prosocial behaviors, which help individuals attain and maintain social status by building relationships with others and gaining their respect and recognition (Cheng et al., 2010). Consistent with this reasoning, individuals higher on trait authentic pride are viewed by their peers as displaying more advice-giving, helping, and cooperative behaviors than those lower on trait authentic pride (Cheng et al., 2010). In a similar vein, leader trait authentic pride has been found to be positively associated with follower-rated social justice and altruistic behaviors (Michie, 2009). Thus, we expect authentic pride will be positively related to leader consideration behaviors, which are important for developing leader–follower relationships.

Hypothesis 1: Leader authentic (a) pride-proneness (i.e., trait) and (b) state pride will be positively related to frequency of leader consideration behaviors.

In contrast, we propose that the experience of hubristic pride may have the opposite effect on leader consideration. This is because hubristic pride is theorized to drive aggressive

interpersonal behaviors meant to establish an intimidating reputation (Cheng et al., 2010). For instance, several studies have found hubristic pride to be related to aggression and poor interpersonal relationship functioning (Carver, Sinclair, & Johnson, 2010; Tracy, Cheng, Robins, & Trzesniewski, 2009). We expect that trait hubristic pride is negatively related to leader consideration behaviors, because showing concern, helping, and being cooperative towards subordinates directly undermines the cultivation of a fearsome and intimidating reputation. Consistent with this logic, Cheng et al. (2010) found that trait hubristic is negatively related to self-rated agreeableness as well as peer-rated cooperativeness and helpfulness.

Hypothesis 2: Leader hubristic (a) pride-proneness (i.e., trait) and (b) state pride will be negatively related to frequency of leader consideration behaviors.

Initiating Structure. Initiating structure reflects the degree to which a leader organizes their own and group members' roles for the purpose of achieving goals (Fleishman & Hunt, 1973). Examples of leader initiating structure behaviors include establishing clear roles for group members, maintaining and enforcing clear performance standards, and assigning and scheduling work to be completed (Stogdill, Goode, & Day, 1962). Overall, engagement in these behaviors characterizes leaders who are oriented towards goal attainment (Kerr & Schriesheim, 1974). Authentic pride may be related to initiating structure because these behaviors are linked to the pursuit of socially valued accomplishments and achievements (e.g., Pekrun, Elliot, & Maier, 2009; Tracy & Robins, 2007a; Weidman, Tracy, & Elliot, 2016). Specifically, the experience of authentic pride is posited to promote and reinforce the pursuit of achievements to win the respect of others and raise one's social status (Cheng et al., 2010). In line with this reasoning, individuals experiencing authentic pride were found to put forth more effort and persevere longer when

faced with challenging tasks (Verbeke, Belschak, & Bagozzi, 2004; Williams & DeSteno, 2008). Therefore, we expect authentic pride to be positively related to initiating structure behaviors.

Hypothesis 3: Leader authentic (a) pride-proneness (i.e., trait) and (b) state pride will be positively related to frequency of leader initiating structure behaviors.

The experience of hubristic pride, in contrast, is theorized to foster a sense of entitlement and grandiosity that encourages one to take power by force, as opposed to earning power through legitimate achievement (Tracy, Weidman, Cheng, & Martens, 2013). Thus, individuals experiencing hubristic pride may be less likely to engage in goal-oriented behaviors, instead directing their energy into attaining social status through interpersonally aggressive means. Hubristic pride is also suggested to promote feelings of overconfidence in one's own abilities. For instance, individuals high in trait hubristic pride have been found to harbor unrealistic expectations regarding fame and success, and have a greater tendency to overgeneralize positive events as being indicators of future success (Carver et al., 2010). This overconfidence may consequently result in less effort and deliberate planning directed towards goal achievement. We therefore propose that leader hubristic pride is negatively related to initiating structure.

Hypothesis 4: Leader hubristic (a) pride-proneness (i.e., trait) and (b) state pride will be negatively related to frequency of leader initiating structure behaviors.

Abusive Supervision. Abusive supervision is defined as “subordinates’ perceptions of the extent to which their supervisors engage in the sustained display of hostile verbal and nonverbal behaviors, excluding physical contact” (Tepper, 2000, p. 178), and encapsulates a number of negative leadership behaviors, including humiliating and ridiculing subordinates. As these behaviors directly undermine the development of interpersonal relationships and may hamper efforts to gain the respect and admiration of others, we propose that authentic pride is

negatively related to abusive supervision. In this vein, research has found that individuals higher on trait authentic pride report lower levels of interpersonal aggression (Tracy & Prehn, 2012).

Hypothesis 5: Leader authentic (a) pride-proneness (i.e., trait) and (b) state pride will be negatively related to frequency of leader abusive supervision behaviors.

In line with hubristic pride's theorized function of driving interpersonal behaviors that induce fear and intimidation amongst group members, previous research has consistently found that individuals higher in hubristic pride-proneness are more likely to engage in verbal aggression and hostile behaviors (Carver et al., 2010; Tracy et al., 2009). Therefore, we anticipate that leaders who experience more hubristic pride in the workplace may also be more likely to be interpersonally hostile and verbally abuse their subordinates. Thus, we expect that leader hubristic pride will be positively related to abusive supervision behaviors.

Hypothesis 6: Leader hubristic (a) pride-proneness (i.e., trait) and (b) state pride will be positively related to frequency of leader abusive supervision behaviors.

Leadership Behaviors and Leadership Effectiveness

Prior research has demonstrated that consideration, initiating structure, and abusive supervision have implications for leadership effectiveness, which refers to whether one is successful in helping one's group achieve its goals (Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986).

Consideration and initiating structure have been consistently found to be positively related to leadership effectiveness (e.g., Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004), while abusive supervision has been found to be negatively related to leadership effectiveness (e.g., Schyns & Schilling, 2013),

Given that pride is anticipated to affect consideration, initiating structure, and abusive supervision behaviors, we posit that the relationship between authentic and hubristic pride and leadership effectiveness will be mediated by these three categories of leadership behaviors.

Specifically, authentic pride will be positively related to leadership effectiveness because leaders who feel “accomplished” and “productive” will be more likely to be considerate of others, structure group processes in a way to facilitate goal attainment, and to be less likely to abuse their followers. In contrast, hubristic pride will be negatively related to leadership effectiveness because leaders who feel “smug” and “conceited” will be less likely to demonstrate concern and respect for others, less likely to make careful plans regarding how group goals will be achieved due to overconfidence, and be more likely to intimidate others.

Hypothesis 7: Consideration, initiating structure, and abusive supervision behaviors mediate the relationship between leader (a) authentic and (b) hubristic pride and leadership effectiveness.

Overview of Studies

In the current paper, we conduct two complementary studies. In Study 1, we focus on the *trait* conceptualization of authentic and hubristic pride in order to examine the longer-term implications of leader pride for leadership effectiveness, as mediated by average or typical leadership behaviors. To do so, we use a multi-source design with leader-subordinate dyads.

In Study 2, we focus on the *state* conceptualization of pride. Specifically, we examine within-individual or daily fluctuations in leaders’ experience of pride and how it relates to daily leadership behaviors using a daily diary design. Although we do not include a measure of leadership effectiveness in Study 2—due to our longitudinal daily diary design, obtaining valid measures of effectiveness from a secondary source (i.e., a supervisee/subordinate) would have exceeded our budgetary constraints— we argue that this omission does not undermine its contributions given that we test our mediation hypotheses in Study 1, and because the proposed relationships between our leadership behavior constructs (i.e., consideration, initiating structure,

and abusive supervision) and leadership effectiveness are well-established in the leadership literature (e.g., Judge et al., 2004; Schyns & Schilling, 2013). Furthermore, Study 2 builds on the findings of Study 1 by examining the relationship between leader pride and behaviors, *above and beyond* the influence of generalized affect (i.e., positive and negative affect). Finally, we also examine potential cross-level interactions between trait and state pride in predicting leadership behaviors, as suggested by the feedback model of emotion and behavior (Baumeister et al., 2007).

CHAPTER TWO

TWO EMPIRICAL STUDIES EXAMINING THE RELATIONS BETWEEN PRIDE AND LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS

Study 1

In Study 1, we focus on leader trait pride – leaders’ overall tendency to experience authentic and hubristic pride – at work and examine its relationships with the leadership behaviors of consideration, initiating structure, and abusive supervision. In addition, we examine the ultimate impact of trait authentic and hubristic pride on leadership effectiveness and whether these relationships are mediated by the aforementioned three classes of leadership behaviors.

Method

Participants and Procedures

Participants were supervisor-subordinate dyads recruited from StudyResponse, which is a non-profit service that facilitates research by electronically recruiting adult participants who have expressed interest in participating in social science research (Stanton & Weiss, 2002). For examples of recently published empirical studies that have used the StudyResponse Project, see Ferris et al. (2013), Meyer et al. (2014), and Piccolo and Colquitt (2006). This sampling strategy allowed us to reach workers from a wide-variety of industries and organizations, increasing the generalizability of the current results. Furthermore, this sampling strategy is appropriate given our interest is in establishing the plausibility of these relationships (i.e., “possibility of a phenomenon existing”; Landers & Behrend, 2015, p. 11).

Participation was limited to full-time workers and those residing in the United States. Subordinates were StudyResponse panelists who invited their workplace supervisors to temporarily join the panel in order to participate in the current study, and StudyResponse

personnel verified the identities of supervisors to better ensure valid data. 202 dyads met our study requirements and expressed interest in participating, with 149 matched dyads completing our study (74% response rate). Among the 149 dyads, supervisors had worked with their subordinate for an average of 6.0 years ($SD = 4.2$). For supervisors, 75% were men, the average age was 39.6 years ($SD = 5.9$), and the average job tenure was 7.9 years ($SD = 4.4$). For subordinates, 77% were men, the average age was 36.6 years ($SD = 6.6$), and the average job tenure was 7 years ($SD = 4.8$). Supervisors self-reported their trait authentic and hubristic pride, and subordinates rated their leader's typical behaviors (i.e., consideration, initiating structure, and abusive supervision) and leadership effectiveness.

Measures

Pride. Trait pride was assessed with the 14-item Authentic and Hubristic Pride-Proneness Scale (Tracy & Robins, 2007b), adapted to refer to pride experiences *at work*. Authentic ($\alpha = .87$) and hubristic pride ($\alpha = .87$) were each measured with seven items. Sample items for authentic pride include: “accomplished” and “like I am achieving”. Sample items for hubristic pride include: “conceited” and “egotistical”. Participants indicated the extent to which they generally feel this way *at work* on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *Never* to *Very Frequently*).

Leadership Behaviors. Consideration ($\alpha = .64$) and initiating structure ($\alpha = .87$) was assessed with the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (10 items each; Stogdill, Goode, & Day, 1962). Sample items for consideration include: “looks out for the personal welfare of group members” and “treats all group members as his/her equals”. Sample items for initiating structure include: “assigns group members to particular tasks” and “maintains definite standards of performance.” Subordinates reported the frequency with which their supervisor engaged in each behavior on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *Never* to *Always acts as described*). Abusive

supervision ($\alpha = .93$) was measured with the 15-item measure developed by Tepper (2000). Subordinates indicated the frequency with which their supervisors engaged in each behavior on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., *I can't remember him/her ever using this behavior with me to s/he uses this behavior very often with me*). Sample items include: “ridicules me” and “puts me down in front of others.”

Leadership Effectiveness. Subordinates also provided ratings of leadership effectiveness ($\alpha = .70$) using Douglas & Ammeter's (2004) seven-item scale on a seven-point Likert scale (i.e., *Strongly disagree to Strongly agree*). This measure included items assessing both leader effectiveness (e.g., “My supervisor is effective in meeting the job related needs of work unit members”) as well as group effectiveness (e.g., “Our work unit does excellent work”).

Data Analyses

Multiple regression and mediation analyses were employed to model the relations among trait authentic and hubristic pride, typical leadership behaviors, and leadership effectiveness as depicted in Figure 1. Preacher and Hayes' (2008) approach was employed to test the significance of indirect effects in the multiple mediator models. We bootstrapped 1,000 samples to obtain bias-corrected confidence intervals to determine whether indirect effects were statistically significant.

Results

Table 1 presents descriptive statistics and correlations for Study 1. There is a small, negative relationship between leader trait authentic and hubristic pride ($r = -.23, p < .01$). Given this relationship, Table 2 presents the results of multiple regression analyses entering leader trait authentic and hubristic pride simultaneously in predicting outcomes. Leader trait authentic pride positively predicted consideration ($b = .23, p < .001$) and initiating structure ($b = .33, p < .001$)

and negatively predicted abusive supervision ($b = -.34, p < .001$), providing support for *Hypotheses 1a, 3a, and 5a*, respectively. Leader trait hubristic pride negatively predicted consideration ($b = -.25, p < .001$) and positively predicted abusive supervision ($b = .59, p < .001$), providing support for *Hypotheses 2a and 6a*. However, leader hubristic pride was not significantly related to initiating structure ($b = -.11, p > .05$); failing to support *Hypothesis 4a*. Finally, leader authentic pride positively predicted leadership effectiveness ($b = .25, p < .001$), and leader hubristic pride negatively predicted leadership effectiveness ($b = -.22, p < .001$).

Table 3 presents the results of the multiple regression analyses examining the relationship between the set of proposed mediators and leadership effectiveness, controlling for trait authentic and hubristic pride. As anticipated, consideration ($b = .34, p < .001$) and initiating structure ($b = .16, p < .01$) positively predicted leadership effectiveness, and abusive supervision negatively predicted leadership effectiveness ($b = -.20, p < .001$).

We then tested the indirect effects of leader authentic pride and hubristic pride on leadership effectiveness through our proposed mediators. Note that these analyses control for the other type of pride when estimating indirect effects, but results are similar when excluding this control variable from each model. The indirect effects of authentic pride on leadership effectiveness through consideration (estimate = .07, 95% CI [.03, .13]), initiating structure (estimate = .04, 95% CI [.003, .09]), and abusive supervision (estimate = .05, 95% CI [.01, .10]) were all significant, thus supporting *Hypothesis 7a*. In contrast, only consideration (estimate = -.08, 95% CIs [-.15, -.03]) and abusive supervision (estimate = -.08, 95% CI [-.15, -.03]) mediated the relationship between leader trait hubristic pride and leadership effectiveness, but initiating structure did not (estimate = -.01, 95% CI [-.06, .002]), partially supporting *Hypothesis 7b*.

Discussion

Our results indicate that leaders' tendencies to experience authentic and hubristic pride at work impacts their effectiveness by influencing both their positive (i.e., consideration and initiating structure) and negative behaviors (i.e., abusive supervision) towards followers. These findings are consistent with previous research on the evolutionary functions of authentic and hubristic pride (Cheng et al., 2010; Tracy et al., 2013), and provide initial evidence that they may play an important motivational role in leadership processes. Furthermore, our study highlights that naturalistic experiences of pride by leaders have important organizational implications.

Study 2

In Study 2, we focus on daily experiences of pride and leadership behaviors. In doing so, we address calls to study emotions as dynamic phenomena that vary across time and situations (e.g., Gooty et al., 2009; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In addition to examining the within-person relationships between state pride and daily use of consideration, initiating structure, and abusive supervision behaviors, Study 2 further extends our understanding of the relationship between pride and leadership in two specific ways. First, we examine the ability of pride to predict leadership behaviors above and beyond generalized affect (i.e., positive and negative affect). Second, we explore whether trait pride moderates the relationship between state pride and daily leadership behaviors.

Distinguishing Pride from Positive and Negative Affect

Implicit in definitions of emotion is that they are in reaction to events (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). At the primary appraisal stage (i.e., the initial assessment of whether an event is good or bad), individuals experience a generalized positive or negative affective reaction (Lazarus, 2006). It is only at the *secondary* appraisal stage that discrete emotions take form and

exert their motivational and behavioral consequences (Roseman, Spindel, & Jose, 1990). This means that feelings of authentic and hubristic pride (or any other discrete emotion) are temporally preceded in time by the experience of a generalized affective state arising from the primary appraisal of an event. As we suggest that the *discrete* emotion of pride has a unique role in motivating leadership behavior above and beyond generalized affect, it becomes critical to empirically distinguish between the effects of generalized affect and pride. Thus, in the current study, we test the hypothesis that state authentic and hubristic pride uniquely predict daily leadership behaviors above and beyond state experiences of generalized affect.

Hypothesis 8: State authentic and hubristic pride will be related to daily leadership behaviors, after controlling for state positive and negative affect.

Cross-Level Moderating Effects of Trait Pride

Emotions influence individuals' behaviors at work by occupying their attention and redirecting their thoughts and actions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). However, individuals higher on a given affective trait may experience the corresponding emotion state more intensely, and therefore have a greater tendency to be preoccupied by the emotion state (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996; Zenasni & Lubart, 2008). As a result, these individuals may also be more likely to engage in the behaviors brought about by this emotion state (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Stated differently, experiencing state pride may be a stronger impetus for behavior for leaders who are higher, compared to lower, on trait pride, because these leaders may be more likely to remain psychologically preoccupied with feelings of pride. Therefore, we hypothesize that there are significant cross-level moderating effects, such that the relationship between state authentic pride and daily leadership behaviors is stronger for leaders higher (vs. lower) on trait

authentic pride and the relationship between state hubristic pride and daily leadership behaviors is stronger for leaders higher (vs. lower) on trait hubristic pride.

Hypothesis 9: The relationship between leader state authentic pride and behaviors is stronger when leader trait authentic pride is high (vs. low).

Hypothesis 10: The relationship between leader state hubristic pride and behaviors is strongest when leader trait hubristic pride is high (vs. low).

Method

Participants and Procedures

Participants were workplace leaders recruited from StudyResponse. One hundred and eleven individuals met our study requirements (i.e., full-time workers in the U.S. with formal supervisory responsibilities over others), expressed interest in participating, and completed the background questionnaire. However, only 103 participants completed the daily diary portion of the study and were used in the subsequent analyses. The majority of participants were men (75.7%), and their average age was 37.7 years ($SD = 8.1$) and average job tenure was 5.6 years ($SD = 4.5$). Note that this sample is distinct (i.e., non-overlapping) from Study 1.

The background questionnaire was used to collect demographic information and to assess trait authentic and hubristic pride, and was administered a few days (i.e., approximately three days to one week) prior to the first daily survey. For the daily diary portion of the study, daily pride, generalized state affect, and leadership behaviors, were collected between the end of each workday and before bed for two workweeks (Monday through Friday), resulting in a total of 10 possible observations for each individual. The actual number of valid daily surveys completed by each participant ranged from 3 to 10 (Mean = 9.06). Based on the 103 participants who completed the study, the maximum number of observations across participants was 1030. We

obtained a total of 933 valid daily surveys, corresponding to an overall response rate of 90.6% across all individuals and time periods.

Measures

Trait and state pride. As in Study 1, trait authentic and hubristic pride at work was measured with the 14-item Authentic ($\alpha = .83$) and Hubristic ($\alpha = .91$) Pride-Proneness Scale (Tracy & Robins, 2007b). This measure was also used to assess state authentic ($\alpha = .85$) and hubristic ($\alpha = .91$) pride, with the question stem adapted to refer to that day, on a five-point Likert scale (*not at all to very frequently*).

State positive and negative affect. We employed the measure used by Gabriel, Diefendorff, and Erickson (2011) to assess positive (four items¹, $\alpha = .75$; “happy” and “calm”) and negative affect (six items, $\alpha = .85$; “angry” and “sad”). These scales include both high and low activation emotions, which suggest that they may better reflect generalized positive and negative hedonic tone, as opposed to other commonly used measures that predominantly include high activation emotions (e.g., PANAS; Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988).

Leadership Behaviors. To minimize the length of the daily surveys, we used abbreviated measures of leadership behaviors in line with prior experience sampling studies (e.g., Johnson et al., 2012; Judge et al., 2006; Lanaj, Johnson, & Lee, 2016). Daily consideration behaviors ($\alpha = .77$) was measured with five items (e.g., “I was friendly and approachable”, “I treated all group members as my equals”), and daily initiating structure behavior ($\alpha = .81$) was also measured with five items (e.g., “I encouraged the use of uniform procedures”, “I maintained definite standards of performance”), adapted from the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Stogdill et al.,

¹ Note that Gabriel et al. (2011) originally used a five item measure to assess positive affect, but the item “excited” was accidentally left off our daily surveys. Additionally, one of the four remaining items in the positive affect scale was “proud”. Given its overlap with authentic and hubristic pride, we also re-ran analyses excluding this item in the positive affect measure, and the pattern of results remained unchanged.

1962). Daily abusive supervision ($\alpha = .88$) was measured with four items capturing interpersonal acts of aggression (Johnson et al., 2012), adapted from Tepper's (2000) scale (e.g., "I started an argument with a subordinate today" and "I yelled or swore at a work group member today"). Participants indicated how frequently they engaged in each behavior *today* with their direct reports on six-point Likert scale ranging from never to five or more times.

Although leadership behaviors are more typically assessed by followers rather than leaders themselves, Johnson et al. (2012) argued that collecting ratings from leaders can be appropriate. Specifically, leaders have knowledge of the behaviors they use with all of their followers, while most followers may only see or know of a portion of their leader's actions (primarily with themselves) and followers' ratings of leader behaviors are likely biased by both their implicit leadership theories and group prototypicality. Furthermore, although self-ratings may tend to be inflated relative to other-ratings, our focus in Study 2 is on within-person *variation* across workdays (i.e., deviations from one's mean). Thus, in the current study we chose to employ leaders' self-ratings of their leadership behaviors.

Data Analyses

To model the within-individual relationship between state pride and leadership behaviors and to examine the moderating role of trait pride, we employed multi-level modeling (MLM; e.g., Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002) using SPSS 22.0. MLM allows for the simultaneous analysis of variables at multiple levels of analysis, and can account for nesting within individuals. Level 1 variables included state authentic and hubristic pride, consideration, initiating structure and abusive supervision. Level 2 variables included trait authentic and hubristic pride. We removed any between-individual variance in the estimates of within-individual relationships between state pride and daily leader behaviors, by within-group centering our level 1 predictors (Hofmann &

Gavin, 1998). This allows the obtained estimates to be interpreted as strictly representing within-individual relationships, free from the confounding effects of personality or other between-individual differences.

Results

Within- and Between-Individual Variance

To determine whether MLM was appropriate for these data, we examined whether systematic within- and between-individual variance existed in the criterion variables (i.e., leadership behaviors) by estimating “null” models. The percentage of within-individual variance for each leadership behavior was as follows: 29.1% for consideration, 30.5% for initiating structure, and 17.5% for abusive supervision. These proportions are consistent with research showing that when the level 1 units are within-individuals and the level 2 units are between-individuals, the proportion of between-individual variance is expected to be quite high (i.e., near 70%; West, Ryu, Kwok, & Cham, 2011). Overall, the substantial amount of within-person variability in leadership behaviors suggests that MLM is appropriate and that there is an adequate amount of within-individual variance in leadership behaviors to be explained. Correlations between Study 2 variables are presented in Table 4.

Tests of Hypotheses

Within-individual pride-leadership behavior relationships. To test the proposed relationships, we estimated a series of multi-level models with daily authentic and hubristic pride predicting each category of daily leadership behaviors in turn (i.e., consideration, initiating structure, and abusive supervision). Note that since these models include daily positive and negative affect, these results represent the *unique* relationships between pride and leadership behaviors beyond generalized affect (*Hypothesis 8*).

As shown in Table 5, state authentic pride positively predicted daily leader consideration ($\gamma = .17, p < .01$) and initiating structure ($\gamma = .14, p < .01$), supporting *Hypotheses 1b* and *3b*. However, state authentic pride did not predict daily abusive supervision ($\gamma = -.01, ns$), failing to support *Hypothesis 5b*.

State hubristic pride was positively related to daily abusive supervision ($\gamma = .20, p < .01$), supporting *Hypothesis 6b*. However, contrary to our expectations, a *positive* relationship was found between state hubristic pride and daily consideration ($\gamma = .19, p < .01$), failing to support *Hypotheses 2b*. We also observed no significant relationship between state hubristic pride and daily initiating structure ($\gamma = -.05, ns$), failing to support *Hypothesis 4b*.

Cross-level moderating effects. Trait authentic pride significantly moderated the relationship between daily authentic pride and consideration ($\gamma = .18, p < .05$), but not the relationships between daily authentic pride and initiating structure ($\gamma = .13, ns$) or daily authentic pride and abusive supervision ($\gamma = .04, ns$). Specifically, the relationship between daily authentic pride and consideration was stronger for leaders higher (versus lower) on trait authentic pride (see Figure 2), partially supporting *Hypothesis 9*.

There was also a significant cross-level moderation of trait hubristic pride on the relationship between daily hubristic pride and initiating structure ($\gamma = -.22, p < .05$) and abusive supervision ($\gamma = -.20, p < .05$), respectively, but not the relationship between daily hubristic pride and consideration ($\gamma = -.11, ns$). However, neither significant cross-level interaction fit the hypothesized form (*Hypothesis 10*). Figure 3 illustrates that although individuals higher on trait hubristic pride engaged in more abusive supervision on average, the within-individual relationship between daily hubristic pride and abusive supervision was actually stronger for individuals *lower* rather than higher on trait hubristic pride. In contrast, the within-individual

relationship between daily hubristic pride and initiating structure was negative for individuals higher on trait hubristic pride, as hypothesized, but the relationship was positive for individuals lower on trait hubristic pride (see Figure 4).

Supplemental Analyses

As our focal analyses were based on cross-sectional data (i.e. data collected at a one time on a given day), we address a potential concern that leadership behaviors lead to state pride, and not vice versa, using lagged analyses. We ran lagged analyses with the leadership behaviors on one day predicting the next day's reports of authentic and hubristic pride (controlling for the previous day's authentic or hubristic pride, respectively). In these analyses (shown in Table 6), we found that none of the three types of leadership behaviors (i.e., consideration, initiating structure, and abusive supervision) significantly predicted the experience of authentic pride or hubristic pride the following day.

In addition, we also conducted lagged analyses examining the effects of state pride on the following day's leadership behaviors (controlling for the leadership behavior on the previous day; shown in Table 7). Although we did not make specific hypotheses regarding the lagged effects of state pride – because we did not expect state experiences of pride to carry over to the next day – we found that state authentic pride positively predicted consideration ($\gamma = .13, p < .05$) and initiating structure ($\gamma = .14, p < .05$) on the following day. State hubristic pride also positively predicted abusive supervision ($\gamma = .22, p < .01$) on the next day. Surprisingly, state authentic pride also *positively* predicted abusive supervision ($\gamma = .12, p < .05$) the following day. We speculate that this latter effect could be due to moral licensing (Klotz & Bolino, 2013), such that individuals who feel authentic pride and engage in positive leadership behaviors one day may be more likely to give themselves license to act badly on the subsequent day.

Discussion

In line with the results for trait pride from Study 1, when leaders experienced more authentic pride than they usual, they were also more likely to engage in positive leadership behaviors (i.e., consideration and initiating structure) than usual. Additionally, the within-person relationship between state authentic pride and consideration was stronger among leaders higher (vs. lower) on trait authentic pride. On the other hand, when leaders experience more hubristic pride than usual, they were more likely to engage in negative leadership behaviors (i.e., abusive supervision) than usual. Furthermore, these effects were above and beyond the effects of state positive and negative affect, highlighting the unique predictive power of the emotion of pride in leadership processes.

Interestingly, we also uncovered some unexpected results; when leaders experienced greater hubristic pride than usual, they were *more* likely to engage in consideration behaviors than usual that day. One explanation could be that different motives can underlie these typically beneficial leader behaviors. Prior research has found that trait hubristic pride is positively related to Machiavellianism (Tracy, Cheng, Robins, & Trzesniewski, 2009); therefore, perhaps when leaders experience state hubristic pride, they are more likely to use consideration to manipulate others to further their personal ends. Alternatively, leaders' use of consideration may reflect leaders' desire to repair their relations with followers (i.e., to ameliorate the negative impact of engaging in abusive behaviors that were prompted by the momentary experience of hubristic pride on the same day). Future work should seek to replicate and better understand this relationship.

We also found a number of unexpected cross-level interactions. Although, as hypothesized, the relationship between daily hubristic pride and initiating structure was negative

for leaders higher on trait hubristic pride, this relationship was positive for leaders lower on trait hubristic pride. For these leaders, when they experienced more hubristic pride than usual, they engaged in more initiating structure behaviors than usual. One possibility is that for those who tend not to experience hubristic pride, the experience of state hubristic provides a momentary boost of confidence, prompting engagement in goal- or task-directed behaviors. Another unexpected finding was that the relationship between daily hubristic pride and abusive supervision was more strongly positive for leaders lower in trait hubristic pride. A potential explanation for this finding is that those higher on trait hubristic pride already engage in relatively high levels of abusive supervision, such that momentary experiences of hubristic pride no longer motivate further increases in these behaviors. Alternatively, perhaps individuals higher on trait hubristic pride become desensitized to the momentary experience of hubristic pride, leading to weaker behavioral reactions. However, for those lower on trait hubristic pride, momentary experiences of hubristic pride operate as theorized, increasing aggressive interpersonal actions. Generally, future research on how trait pride impacts the momentary experience of pride is warranted.

CHAPTER THREE

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Theoretical and Practical Implications

The goal of the present research was to study the implications of pride, a discrete emotion theorized to have a crucial role in motivating social behavior, on leadership processes in organizations. Taken together, the findings of our studies substantiate that leaders' experience of authentic and hubristic pride impacts their leadership behaviors, which can have downstream implications for leadership effectiveness. Specifically, we find evidence that authentic pride generally promotes positive or effective leadership behaviors, including consideration and initiating structure. Similarly, hubristic pride typically promotes destructive leadership behaviors in the form of abusive supervision. Overall, our work highlights that pride is an important emotion for leadership processes and within the workplace.

A notable strength of our work is that we employed two distinct research designs to elucidate relationships between pride and leadership behaviors. In Study 1, we assessed leaders' trait pride, their leadership behaviors, and their leadership effectiveness using different sources in order to avoid common-source biases (e.g., Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, & James, 2002; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). In Study 2, we employed an experience-sampling methodology and MLM analyses to examine leaders' daily state pride and daily leadership behaviors, to minimize the potential confounding effects of between-individual differences. Across two studies, we find some evidence that authentic pride promotes beneficial leadership behaviors and hubristic pride promotes harmful leadership behaviors, and that these effects are consistent across both the trait- and state- levels of analysis.

However, we also uncovered some unexpected differences between the effects of trait and state hubristic pride on beneficial leader behaviors— potentially highlighting the importance of distinguishing between the trait and state emotions in organizational research, as their impacts may not always align across levels of analysis (Gooty et al., 2009; Reis et al., 2000; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Specifically, we observed a negative relationship between hubristic pride and consideration at the trait level, but a positive relationship at the state or daily level. This difference may reflect different processes and relationships at the two different levels of analysis. In other words, in some circumstances, dispositional hubristic pride may have different behavioral effects than feeling hubristic pride in the moment. We speculate that although individuals higher (vs. lower) on trait hubristic pride generally prefer to socially distance themselves from others, the momentary experience of hubristic pride may provide feelings of confidence that actually promote social engagement.

Although leadership behaviors are consequential for organizations, research on the antecedents of leadership behaviors has been relatively limited (e.g., Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; House & Aditya, 1997; Rubin et al., 2005). The present research contributes to furthering our understanding of these antecedents by providing empirical support for the claim that leaders' emotional experiences, including of discrete emotions, are important predictors of their behaviors. Although our study focuses primarily on the role of pride, we also contribute to our more general understanding of relationships between emotions and leadership behaviors by documenting the within-individual relationships between daily positive and negative affect and leadership behaviors. Specifically, we find that on days where leaders report more positive affect than usual, they are more likely to engage in consideration and initiating structure behaviors than usual, and on days where leaders report more negative affect than usual, they are more likely to

engage in abusive supervision than usual. Thus, our results also complement previous empirical research linking leader positive and negative affect and leadership behaviors that focused on between-person effects (e.g., Joseph et al., 2015), demonstrating similar relationships at the within-person level of analysis.

More broadly, the current research contributes to the literature on emotions in organizations by addressing a few notable issues. Researchers have tended to conceptualize and measure positive emotions in terms of the broader, generalized dimension of positive affect, and little work has attempted to differentiate positive discrete emotions in terms of their potential different effects (e.g., Gooty et al., 2009). This approach has contributed to the assumption that positive emotions lead to universally positive outcomes in organizations (e.g., Lindebaum & Jordan, 2012). One prominent example of this is the Broaden-and-Build Theory of Positive Emotions, which suggests that positive emotions promote new ideas, actions, and social bonds in organizational settings, transforming individuals into more effective and socially-integrated workers (Fredrickson, 2003). With the present research, we challenge this assumption by demonstrating that when experienced by leaders, hubristic pride – a subjectively positive emotional experience – can promote behaviors that are antisocial and destructive, resulting in poorer workplace relationships and lower leadership effectiveness. Importantly, we also demonstrate that authentic and hubristic pride have *unique* motivational impacts on leadership behaviors beyond simply experiencing generalized positive (or negative) affect, underscoring the utility of studying discrete emotions in organizational research.

Our findings that leaders' experience of authentic and hubristic pride influences leadership behaviors and effectiveness may also have implications for practice, particularly in the area of leader rewards and incentives. For example, it may benefit organizations to reward

their leaders based on legitimate achievements and for putting in effort in order to promote leaders' experience of authentic pride, which may engender effective leadership behaviors and effectiveness. In contrast, organizations should be wary about rewarding their leaders – either directly or implicitly – for possessing certain desirable personal characteristics such as charisma, particularly when these traits are viewed as the reason for the leader's success. One example of this is the so-called *cult of the CEO* (e.g., Ram Mohan, 2015), in which all of an organization's successes are attributed to one charismatic person at the top of organization who is perceived to be single-handedly and heroically leading the entire operation. Endorsing this type of leadership culture or rewarding leaders for their personal traits may promote the experience of hubristic pride, resulting in less desirable leadership behaviors and lower levels of effectiveness. It may also undermine a leader's sense of personal responsibility, especially in the face of failure.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

One limitation of our work is that the majority of our findings are drawn from cross-sectional data. Although we argue that the experience of pride is a direct antecedent of leadership behaviors, our measures of pride and behaviors were administered at a single point in time in both studies. Although our supplemental lagged analyses in Study 2 address the possibility of reverse causality by indicating that leadership behaviors did not predict the experience of pride on the following day, it remains possible that leader behaviors preceded leaders' experiences of pride on the *same* day. Future studies that address the directionality of the pride-to-behavior relationship – for instance, by examining pride experience early in the day as a predictor of behaviors later the same day – may be warranted.

A second limitation of this study is that we do not explore any situational variables that may influence the relationships between leader pride and leadership behaviors. As Lindebaum

and Jordan (2012) argue, discrete emotions may produce widely varying outcomes depending on the particular organizational context or situation in which they are experienced. For example, the cultural dimension of “*masculinity-femininity*” may be an important contextual variable to consider in relation with pride. For instance, in more “feminine” organizational and national cultures, modesty is prized; therefore, perhaps our results indicating the beneficial impact of authentic pride on leadership behaviors may be less pronounced in these context compared to more “masculine” cultures in which achievement and success are highly valued (Hofstede, 1998). Furthermore, there may also be a larger gap between experienced and expressed pride in these more feminine contexts given social pressures to appear modest.

Similarly, situational variables may influence the extent to which hubristic pride has negative impacts on workplace outcomes. The cultural dimension of *power distance* describes the extent to which individuals within an organization or society accept and expect that some individuals will possess more power than others (Hofstede, 1991). In high power distance contexts, where power inequality is viewed as inevitable, the role of hubristic pride in motivating social distancing behaviors in leaders could result fewer negative impacts on followers and leadership effectiveness, compared with lower power distance contexts. This is because followers in these contexts or with such an orientation are less likely to perceive that negative leader behaviors are unfair or unjust (Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012; Lin, Wang, & Chen, 2013). Generally, we encourage scholars to examine how contextual variables may moderate the relationships between pride and leader and workplace outcomes in future research.

Another potential direction for future research on pride in leadership contexts would be to examine followers’ experiences of these emotions. Although our focus is on leaders’ experience of pride, we recognize that followers also play an important role in leadership

processes (e.g., Howell & Shamir, 2005). Followers' experiences of authentic and hubristic pride may promote different followership behaviors that have the potential to enhance or disrupt the leader-follower relationship, which has implications for leadership effectiveness. As an example, feelings of authentic pride may motivate more proactive approaches to followership, such as taking initiative and offering feedback to leaders without being prompted (Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010), while feelings of hubristic pride may promote passive-aggressive followership behaviors, characterized by resentment and covert resistance to the leader's efforts (Clements & Washbush, 1999). It may also be possible that leaders and followers influence each other's experiences of pride, and thus their subsequent behaviors, via emotional contagion processes (e.g., Hatfield, Cacioppo, & Rapson, 1994) or due to the feedback they provide each other (e.g., a leader's beliefs regarding a follower's success as due to effort vs. ability). Thus, a fruitful direction for future research is to examine follower pride, as well as the interplay between follower and leader experiences of pride.

Conclusion

The goal of our research was to examine the discrete emotions of authentic and hubristic pride – emotions that play a compelling role in motivating achievement and the pursuit of status – and their implications for leadership processes. To do so, we integrated previously disparate research and theory spanning the literatures of evolutionary psychology, leadership, and emotions in organizations. Contributing to our understanding of why leaders engage in different leadership behaviors, we demonstrate that authentic and hubristic pride are related to leadership behaviors and leadership effectiveness. Importantly, we also highlight the importance of studying discrete emotions in organizations, by demonstrating the unique predictive utility of pride, beyond the broader dimensions of generalized positive and negative affect.

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Alpha Reliabilities for Study 1 Variables

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Authentic Pride	3.33	0.77	(0.87)					
2. Hubristic Pride	2.38	0.79	-0.23**	(0.87)				
3. Consideration	3.28	0.50	0.45***	-0.48***	(0.64)			
4. Initiating Structure	3.28	0.70	0.39***	-0.21*	0.64***	(0.87)		
5. Abusive Supervision	2.37	0.82	-0.44***	0.64***	-0.44***	-0.06	(0.93)	
6. Leadership Effectiveness	3.69	0.48	0.48***	-0.45***	0.64***	0.47***	-0.50***	(0.70)

Note 1: The numbers in parentheses on the diagonal are alpha reliability coefficients.

Note 2: Variables 1 and 2 are supervisor self-rated, 3 through 6 are subordinate-rated.

*** $p < .001$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Table 2
Multiple Regression Results of Trait Authentic and Hubristic Pride Predicting Leadership Behaviors and Effectiveness

	Criteria			
	Consideration	Initiating Structure	Abusive Supervision	Leadership Effectiveness
Intercept	3.10 ^{***} (.20)	2.46 ^{***} (0.32)	2.10 ^{***} (0.30)	3.37 ^{***} (0.20)
Authentic Pride	0.23 ^{***} (0.05)	0.33 ^{***} (0.07)	-.34 ^{***} (0.07)	0.25 ^{***} (0.04)
Hubristic Pride	-0.25 ^{***} (0.04)	-0.11 (0.07)	0.60 ^{***} (0.06)	-0.22 ^{***} (0.04)
R ²	0.35	0.17	0.50	0.35
Adjusted R ²	0.34	0.16	0.50	0.35
Std. Error of the Estimate (df = 144)	0.40	0.63	0.59	0.39
F Statistic (df = 2; 144)	38.56 ^{***}	14.66 ^{***}	72.56 ^{***}	40.09 ^{***}

Note: N=147. Values are unstandardized regression coefficients; standard error estimates are in parentheses.

*** $p < .001$

Table 3
Multiple Regression Results of Trait Authentic and Hubristic Pride and Leader Behaviors Predicting Leadership Effectiveness

	Criteria
	Leadership Effectiveness
Constant	2.41 ^{***} (0.31)
Consideration	0.31 ^{***} (0.09)
Initiating Structure	0.13 [*] (0.06)
Abusive Supervision	-0.14 ^{**} (0.05)
Authentic Pride	0.09 [*] (0.05)
Hubristic Pride	-0.05 (0.05)
R ²	0.51
Adjusted R ²	0.50
Std. Error of the Estimate (df = 141)	0.34
F Statistic (df = 5; 141)	29.98 ^{***}

Note: N=147. Values are unstandardized regression coefficients; standard error estimates are in parentheses.

*** $p < .001$ ** $p < .01$ * $p < .05$

Table 4

Within- and Between-Individual Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study 2

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. State Authentic Pride	3.10	.46	-	-.22*	.58**	-.42**	.53**	.45**	-.08	.55**	-.29**
2. State Hubristic Pride	2.08	.71	.13**	-	.40**	.72**	-.13	.18	.92**	-.17	.80**
3. State Positive Affect	3.31	.58	.52**	.03	-	.14	.28**	.44**	.55**	.08	.22*
4. State Negative Affect	2.07	.55	-.22**	.17**	-.32**	-	.17	-.01	.59**	-.22*	.78**
5. Consideration	3.11	.74	.21**	.12**	.18**	-.08*	-	.81**	.05	.34**	-.27**
6. Initiating Structure	3.18	.73	.14**	.00	.13**	.01	.48**	-	.33**	.15	-.01
7. Abusive Supervision	2.19	.90	-.01	.14**	-.03	.13**	.29**	.17**	-	-.17	.69**
8. Trait Authentic Pride	3.32	.55								-	-.07
9. Trait Hubristic Pride	2.22	.69									-

Note: Variables 1 through 8 are within-individual (Level 1) variables. Variables 9 and 10 are between-individual (Level 2) variables. Within-individual correlations are shown below the diagonal and are based on within-individual scores ($n = 933$). Between-individual correlations are shown above the diagonal and are based on between person (aggregate) scores ($n = 103$). Means and standard deviations are based on between-individual scores.

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$.

Table 5

*Multi-Level Modeling Results of Daily and Trait Authentic and Hubristic Pride
Predicting Leadership Behaviors*

Predictors	Criteria		
	Consideration	Initiating Structure	Abusive Supervision
Intercept	3.09** (0.07)	3.18** (0.07)	2.23** (0.06)
State Authentic Pride (AP)	0.17** (0.05)	0.14** (0.05)	-0.01 (0.04)
State Hubristic Pride (HP)	0.19** (0.06)	-0.05 (0.07)	0.20** (0.06)
State Positive Affect	0.11* (0.05)	0.11* (0.05)	0.01 (0.04)
State Negative Affect	-0.05 (0.05)	0.09 (0.05)	0.14** (0.05)
Trait AP	0.43** (0.12)	0.20 (0.13)	-0.19 (0.12)
Trait HP	-0.25* (0.10)	0.00 (0.11)	0.90** (0.09)
Cross-Level Moderating Effects			
State AP x Trait AP	0.18* (0.07)	0.13 (0.08)	0.04 (0.07)
State HP x Trait HP	-0.11 (0.10)	-0.22* (0.10)	-0.20* (0.09)

Note: $N = 933$. Unstandardized regression coefficients are presented in this table. Numbers in parentheses are standard errors. All Level 1 predictors (state authentic/hubristic pride and positive/negative affect) were within-group centered.
* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$.

Table 6

*Within-Individual Results for Daily Leadership Behaviors
Predicting State Authentic and Hubristic Pride the Following Day*

Predictors	Criteria	
	Authentic Pride	Hubristic Pride
Intercept	3.07** (0.05)	3.18** (0.07)
Consideration	-0.00 (0.04)	0.01 (0.02)
Initiating Structure	0.02 (0.04)	0.01 (0.02)
Abusive Supervision	0.07 (0.04)	0.03 (0.02)

Note: Based on $N = 783$ valid lagged surveys – non-consecutive daily surveys were discarded. Unstandardized regression coefficients are presented in this table. Numbers in parentheses are standard errors. All predictors were within-group centered. All estimates in the table control for the effect of the criterion from the previous day.

Table 7

Within-Individual Results for State Authentic and Hubristic Pride predicting Leadership Behaviors the Following Day

Predictors	Criteria		
	Consideration	Initiating Structure	Abusive Supervision
Intercept	3.09** (0.08)	3.18** (0.07)	2.22** (0.09)
State Authentic Pride (AP)	0.13* (0.06)	0.14* (0.06)	.12* (0.05)
State Hubristic Pride (HP)	0.10 (0.08)	0.01 (0.08)	0.22** (0.07)
State Positive Affect	-0.01 (0.06)	0.01 (0.06)	-0.08 (0.05)
State Negative Affect	0.10 (0.06)	0.15* (0.06)	0.02 (0.06)

Note 1. Based on $N = 783$ valid lagged surveys – non-consecutive daily surveys were discarded. Unstandardized regression coefficients are presented. Numbers in parentheses are standard errors. All predictors were within-group centered. All estimates in the table control for the effect of the criterion from the previous day.

Figure 1

Conceptual Model for Study 1

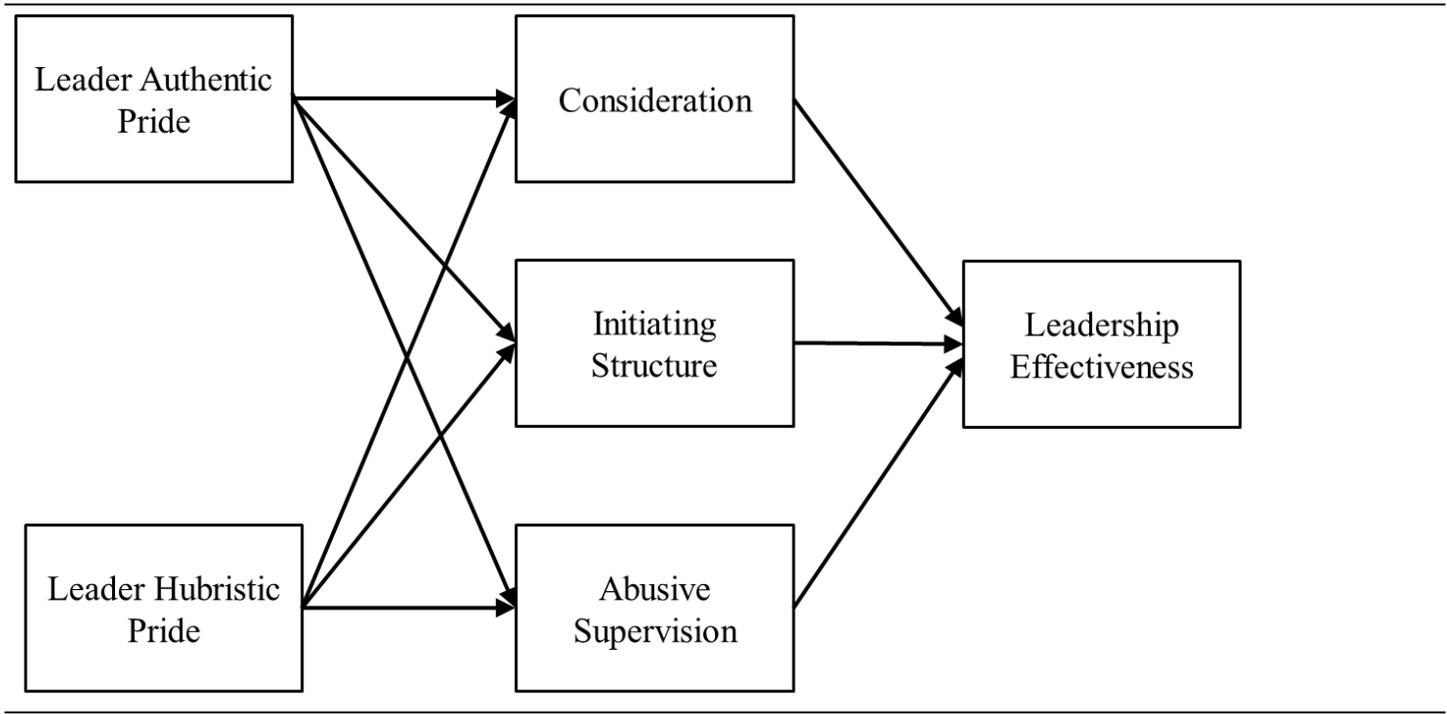


Figure 2

Interaction Between State and Trait Authentic Pride on Daily Consideration

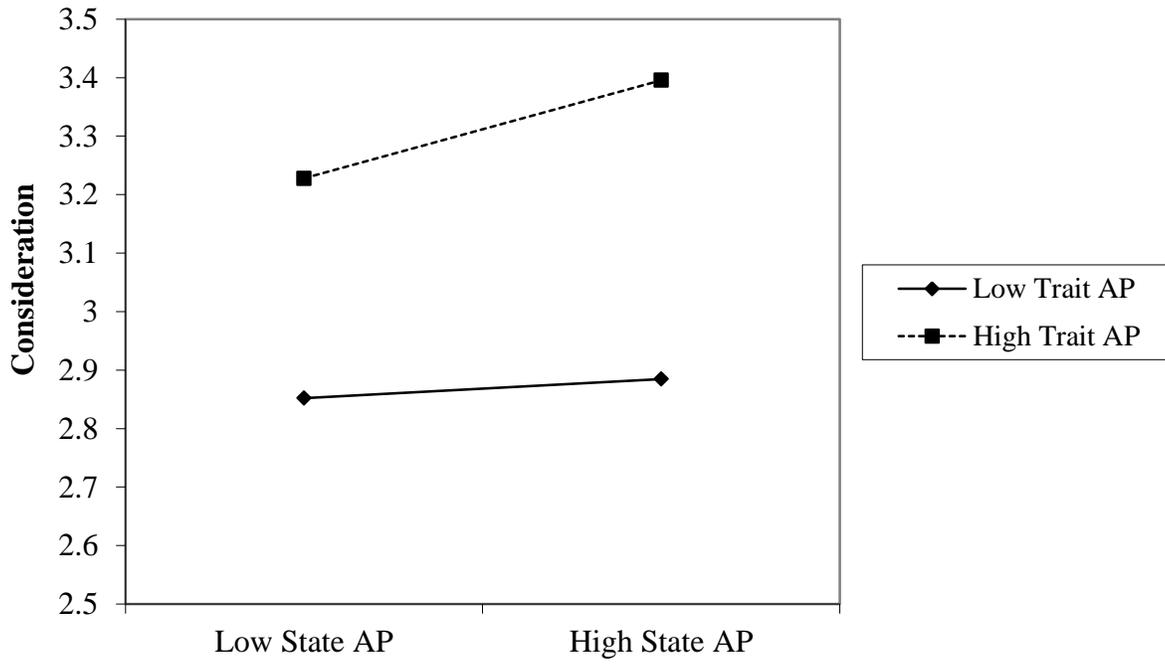


Figure 3

Interaction Between State and Trait Hubristic Pride on Daily Abusive Supervision

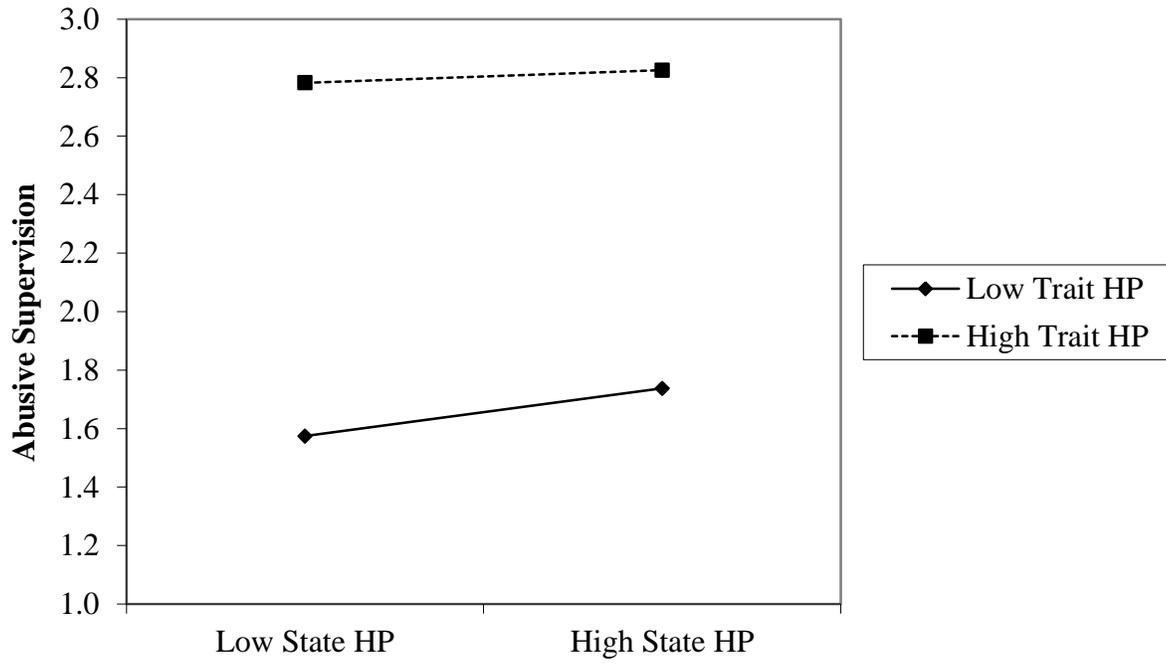
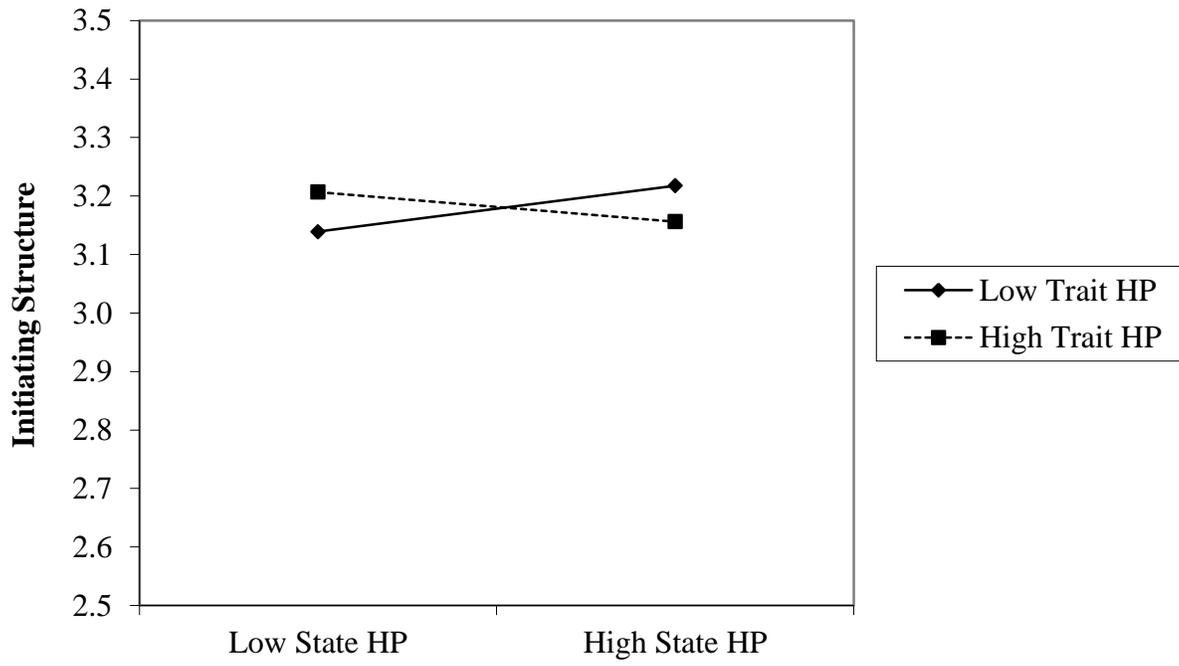


Figure 4

Interaction Between State and Trait Hubristic Pride Predicting Daily Initiating Structure



References

- Barsade, S. G. (2002). The ripple effect: Emotional contagion and its influence on group behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47(4), 644–675.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications (3rd Ed.)*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 207-218.
- Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 181–217.
[https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(99\)00016-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00016-8)
- Baumeister, R. F., Vohs, K. D., DeWall, N. C., & Zhang, L. (2007). How emotion shapes behavior: Feedback, anticipation, and reflection, rather than direct causation. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 11(2), 167–203.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868307301033>
- Beer, J. S., Heerey, E. A., Keltner, D., Scabini, D., & Knight, R. T. (2003). The regulatory function of self-conscious emotion: Insights from patients with orbitofrontal damage. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85(4), 594–604.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.4.594>
- Behrendt, P., Matz, S., & Göritz, A. S. (2016). An integrative model of leadership behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2016.08.002>

- Boezeman, E., & Ellemers, N. (2014). Volunteer leadership: The role of pride and respect in organizational identification and leadership satisfaction. *Leadership, 10*(2), 160–173. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715012467487>
- Brief, A. P., & Weiss, H. M. (2002). Organizational behavior: Affect in the workplace. *Annual Review of Psychology, 53*(1), 279–307.
- Brosi, P., Spörrle, M., Welp, I. M., & Heilman, M. E. (2016). Expressing pride: Effects on perceived agency, communality, and stereotype-based gender disparities. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 101*(9), 1319–1328. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000122>
- Carsten, M. K., Uhl-Bien, M., West, B. J., Patera, J. L., & McGregor, R. (2010). Exploring social constructions of followership: A qualitative study. *The Leadership Quarterly, 21*(3), 543–562. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.03.015>
- Carver, C. S., Sinclair, S., & Johnson, S. L. (2010). Authentic and hubristic pride: Differential relations to aspects of goal regulation, affect, and self-control. *Journal of Research in Personality, 44*(6), 698–703. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2010.09.004>
- Chen, G., Bliese, P. D., & Mathieu, J. E. (2005). Conceptual framework and statistical procedures for delineating and testing multilevel theories of homology. *Organizational Research Methods, 8*(4), 375–409.
- Cheng, J. T., Tracy, J. L., Foulsham, T., Kingstone, A., & Henrich, J. (2013). Two ways to the top: evidence that dominance and prestige are distinct yet viable avenues to social rank and influence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 104*(1), 103–25. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0030398>

- Cheng, J. T., Tracy, J. L., & Henrich, J. (2010). Pride, personality, and the evolutionary foundations of human social status. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, *31*(5), 334–347. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2010.02.004>
- Clements, C., & Washbush, J. B. (1999). The two faces of leadership: Considering the dark side of leader-follower dynamics. *Journal of Workplace Learning*, *11*(5), 170–176.
- Connelly, S., Gaddis, B., & Morgan, W. B. (2013). A closer look at the role of emotions in transformational and charismatic leadership. In B. J. Avolio, & F. J. Yammarino (Eds.), *Transformational and Charismatic Leadership: The Road Ahead 10th Anniversary Edition* (Vol. 5, pp. 299–327). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Cropanzano, R., Dasborough, M., & Weiss, H. (2016). Affective events and the development of leader-member exchange. *Academy of Management Review*. doi: 10.5465/amr.2014.0384
- Derue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, *64*(1), 7–52. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01201.x>
- Dionne, S. D., Yammarino, F. J., Atwater, L. E., & James, L. R. (2002). Neutralizing substitutes for leadership theory: Leadership effects and common-source bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *87*(3), 454–464. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.87.3.454>
- Douglas, C., & Ammeter, A. P. (2004). An examination of leader political skill and its effect on ratings of leader effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *15*(4), 537–550. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.05.006>
- Epstein, S. (1994). Trait theory as personality theory: Can a part be as great as the whole? *Psychological Inquiry*, *5*(2), 120–122. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327965pli0502_4

- Ferris, D. L., Johnson, R. E., Rosen, C. C., Djurdjevic, E., Chang, C.-H. D., & Tan, J. A. (2013). When is success not satisfying? Integrating regulatory focus and approach/avoidance motivation theories to explain the relation between core self-evaluation and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 98*(2), 342-353.
- Fleeson, W. (2001). Toward a structure-and process-integrated view of personality: Traits as density distributions of states. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 80*(6), 1011-1027.
- Fleishman, E. A., & Hunt, J. G. (1973). *Twenty years of consideration and initiating structure*: In E. A. Fleishman & J. G. Hunt (Eds.), *Current development in the study of leadership*. (pp. 1-37). Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotions in positive psychology: The broaden-and-build theory of positive emotions. *American Psychologist, 56*(3), 218-226.
- Fredrickson, B. L. (2003). Positive emotions and upward spirals in organizations. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive Organizational Scholarship* (pp. 163–175). San Francisco: Berrett-Kohler.
- Gabriel, A. S., Diefendorff, J. M., & Erickson, R. J. (2011). The relations of daily task accomplishment satisfaction with changes in affect: A multilevel study in nurses. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 96*(5), 1095-1104.
- Gaddis, B., Connelly, S., & Mumford, M. D. (2004). Failure feedback as an affective event: Influences of leader affect on subordinate attitudes and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*(5), 663–686.
- George, J. M. (2000). Emotions and leadership: The role of emotional intelligence. *Human Relations, 53*, 1027-1055.

- George, J. M., & Bettenhausen, K. (1990). Understanding prosocial behavior, sales performance, and turnover: A group-level analysis in a service context. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75(6), 698–709. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.75.6.698>
- Gooty, J., Connelly, S., Griffith, J., & Gupta, A. (2010). Leadership, affect and emotions: A state of the science review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21, 979–1004.
- Gooty, J., Gavin, M., & Ashkanasy, N. M. (2009). Emotions research in OB: The challenges that lie ahead. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30, 833–838.
- Gooty, J., Gavin, M. B., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Thomas, J. S. (2014). The wisdom of letting go and performance: The moderating role of emotional intelligence and discrete emotions. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 87(2), 392–413. <https://doi.org/10.1111/joop.12053>
- Grandey, A. A., Tam, A. P., & Brauburger, A. L. (2002). Affective states and traits in the workplace: Diary and survey data from young workers. *Motivation and Emotion*, 26(1), 31–55.
- Hatfield, E., Cacioppo, J. T., & Rapson, R. L. (1994). *Emotional contagion*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Hofmann, D. A., & Gavin, M. B. (1998). Centering decisions in hierarchical linear models: Implications for research in organizations. *Journal of Management*, 24(5), 623–641.
- Hofstede, G. (1998). *Masculinity and femininity: The taboo dimension of national cultures*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (1991). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. London, England: McGraw-Hill

- Hogg, M. A. (2001). A social identity theory of leadership. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 5(3), 184–200. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327957PSPR0503_1
- House, R. J. (1971). A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 16(3), 321–339. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2391905>
- House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23(3), 409–473.
- Howell, J. M., & Shamir, B. (2005). The role of followers in the charismatic leadership process: Relationships and their consequences. *Academy of Management Review*, 30(1), 96–112.
- Hu, X., & Kaplan, S. (2015). Is “feeling good” good enough? Differentiating discrete positive emotions at work. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 36(1), 39–58.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1941>
- Hume, D. (1957). *An enquiry concerning the principles of morals (Vol 4)*. New York: Liberal Arts Press. (Original work published in 1751). .
- Ilies, R., Scott, B. A., & Judge, T. A. (2006). The interactive effects of personal traits and experienced states on intraindividual patterns of citizenship behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, 49(3), 561–575.
- Izard, C. E. (1991). *The psychology of emotions. Emotions, personality, and psychotherapy*. New York, NY: Plenum Press.
- Johnson, R. E., Venus, M., Lanaj, K., Mao, C., & Chang, C.-H. (2012). Leader identity as an antecedent of the frequency and consistency of transformational, consideration, and abusive leadership behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(6), 1262–1272.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029043>

- Joseph, D. L., Dhanani, L. Y., Shen, W., McHugh, B. C., & McCord, M. A. (2015). Is a happy leader a good leader? A meta-analytic investigation of leader trait affect and leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *26*, 557-576.
- Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F., & Ilies, R. (2004). The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(1), 36–51. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.1.36>
- Judge, T. A., Scott, B. A., & Ilies, R. (2006). Hostility, job attitudes, and workplace deviance: test of a multilevel model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *91*(1), 126-138.
- Kerr, S., & Schriesheim, C. (1974). Consideration, initiating structure, and organizational criteria—an update of Korman’s 1966 Review. *Personnel Psychology*, *27*(4), 555–568. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1974.tb01176.x>
- Klotz, A. C., & Bolino, M. C. (2013). Citizenship and counterproductive work behavior: A moral licensing view. *Academy of Management Review*, *38*(2), 292–306. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2011.0109>
- Lanaj, K., Johnson, R. E., & Lee, S. M. (2016). Benefits of transformational behaviors for leaders: A daily investigation of leader behaviors and need fulfillment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(2), 237–251.
- Landers, R. N., & Behrend, T. S. (2015). An inconvenient truth: Arbitrary distinctions between organizational, Mechanical Turk, and other convenience samples. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *8*(2), 142–164. <https://doi.org/10.1017/iop.2015.13>
- Lazarus, R. S. (2006). *Stress and emotion: A new synthesis*. New York: Springer.

- Lian, H., Ferris, D. L., & Brown, D. J. (2012). Does power distance exacerbate or mitigate the effects of abusive supervision? It depends on the outcome. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 97*(1), 107–123. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0024610>
- Lin, W., Wang, L., & Chen, S. (2013). Abusive supervision and employee well-being: The moderating effect of power distance orientation. *Applied Psychology, 62*(2), 308–329. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2012.00520.x>
- Lindebaum, D., & Jordan, P. J. (2012). Positive emotions, negative emotions, or utility of discrete emotions? *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 33*(7), 1027–1030. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1819>
- Lord, R. G., de Vader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 71*(3), 402–410.
- Meyer, R. D., Dalal, R. S., José, I. J., Hermida, R., Chen, T. R., Vega, R. P., ... Khare, V. P. (2014). Measuring job-related situational strength and assessing its interactive effects with personality on voluntary work behavior. *Journal of Management, 40*(4), 1010–1041.
- Michie, S. (2009). Pride and gratitude: How positive emotions influence the prosocial behaviors of organizational leaders. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 15*(4), 393–403. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051809333338>
- Oveis, C., Horberg, E. J., & Keltner, D. (2010). Compassion, pride, and social intuitions of self-other similarity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 98*(4), 618–630. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017628>

- Pekrun, R., Elliot, A. J., & Maier, M. A. (2009). Achievement goals and achievement emotions: Testing a model of their joint relations with academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 101*(1), 115–135. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0013383>
- Piccolo, R. F., & Colquitt, J. A. (2006). Transformational leadership and job behaviors: The mediating role of core job characteristics. *Academy of Management Journal, 49*(2), 327–340.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., & Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(5), 873–903.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly, 1*(2), 107–142.
- Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2008). Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods, 40*(3), 879–891.
- Ram Mohan, T. T. (2015). Why you should question the cult of the charismatic CEO. *Quartz*. Retrieved from <http://qz.com/455023/why-you-should-question-the-cult-of-the-charismatic-ceo/>
- Raudenbush, S. W., & Bryk, A. S. (2002). *Hierarchical linear models: Applications and data analysis methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Reis, H. T., Sheldon, K. M., Gable, S. L., Roscoe, J., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Daily well-being: The role of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 26*(4), 419–435. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167200266002>

- Roseman, I. J., Wiest, C., & Swartz, T. S. (1994). Phenomenology, behaviors, and goals differentiate discrete emotions. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *67*(2), 206–221.
- Rubin, R. S., Munz, D. C., & Bommer, W. H. (2005). Leading from within: The effects of emotion recognition and personality on transformational leadership behavior. *Academy of Management Journal*, *48*(5), 845–858. <https://doi.org/10.5465/AMJ.2005.18803926>
- Saboe, K. N., Taing, M. U., Way, J. D., & Johnson, R. (2015). Examining the unique mediators that underlie the effects of different dimensions of transformational leadership. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, *22*(2), 175–186. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051814561028>
- Scherer, K. R., Schorr, A., & Johnstone, T. (Eds.). (2001). *Appraisal processes in emotion: Theory, methods, research*. London, England: London University Press.
- Schyns, B., & Schilling, J. (2013). How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta-analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *24*(1), 138–158. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.09.001>
- Shariff, A. F., & Tracy, J. L. (2009). Knowing who's boss: Implicit perceptions of status from the nonverbal expression of pride. *Emotion*, *9*(5), 631–639. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017089>
- Stanton, J. M., & Weiss, E. M. (2002). *Online panels for social science research: An introduction to the StudyResponse project*. Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University, School of Information Studies, Tech. Rep, 13001.

- Stogdill, R. M., Goode, O. S., & Day, D. R. (1962). New Leader Behavior Description Subscales. *The Journal of Psychology*, *54*(2), 259–269.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00223980.1962.9713117>
- Sy, T., Côté, S., & Saavedra, R. (2005). The contagious leader: Impact of the leader's mood on the mood of group members, group affective tone, and group processes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(2), 295-305.
- Tangney, J. P., & Fischer, K. W. (Eds.) (1995). *Self-conscious emotions: The psychology of shame, guilt, embarrassment, and pride*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Tepper, B. J. (2000). Consequences of Abusive Supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, *43*(2), 178–190. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1556375>
- Tepper, B. J. (2007). Abusive supervision in work organizations: Review, synthesis, and research agenda. *Journal of Management*, *33*(3), 261–289.
- Tiedens, L. Z., Ellsworth, P. C., & Mesquita, B. (2000). Sentimental stereotypes: Emotional expectations for high-and low-status group members. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *26*(5), 560–575.
- Tracy, J. L., Cheng, J. T., Robins, R. W., & Trzesniewski, K. H. (2009). Authentic and hubristic Pride: The affective core of self-esteem and narcissism. *Self and Identity*, *8*(2–3), 196–213. <https://doi.org/10.1080/15298860802505053>
- Tracy, J. L., & Prehn, C. (2012). Arrogant or self-confident? The use of contextual knowledge to differentiate hubristic and authentic pride from a single nonverbal expression. *Cognition & Emotion*, *26*(1), 14–24.
- Tracy, J. L., & Robins, R. W. (2004). Show your pride: Evidence for a discrete emotion expression. *Psychological Science*, *15*(3), 194–197.

- Tracy, J. L., & Robins, R. W. (2007a). Emerging insights into the nature and function of pride. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *16*(3), 147–150.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2007.00493.x>
- Tracy, J. L., & Robins, R. W. (2007b). The psychological structure of pride: A tale of two facets. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *92*(3), 506–525.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.92.3.506>
- Tracy, J. L., Robins, R. W., & Tangney, J. P. (2007). *The Self-conscious Emotions: Theory and Research*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Tracy, J. L., Weidman, A. C., Cheng, J. T., & Martens, J. P. (2013). Pride: The fundamental emotion of success, power, and status. In M. M. Tugade, M. N. Shiota, & L. D. Kirby (Eds.), *Handbook of Positive Emotion, Vol. 1 (pp. 294-310)*. New York, NY: Guilford.
- Van Kleef, G. A. (2009). How emotions regulate social life: The emotions as Social Information (EASI) Model. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, *18*(3), 184–188.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2009.01633.x>
- Verbeke, W., Belschak, F., & Bagozzi, R. P. (2004). The adaptive consequences of pride in personal selling. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *32*(4), 386–402.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0092070304267105>
- Visser, V. A., van Knippenberg, D., van Kleef, G. A., & Wisse, B. (2013). How leader displays of happiness and sadness influence follower performance: Emotional contagion and creative versus analytical performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *24*(1), 172–188.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.09.003>

- Watson, D., Clark, L. A., & Tellegen, A. (1988). Development and validation of brief measures of positive and negative affect: The PANAS scales. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *54*(6), 1063–1070. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.54.6.1063>
- Weidman, A. C., Tracy, J. L., & Elliot, A. J. (2016). The benefits of following your pride: Authentic pride promotes achievement. *Journal of Personality*, *84*(5), 607-622. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jopy.12184>
- Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Affective Events Theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. In B. M. Staw & L. L. Cummings (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews*. (Vol. 19, pp. 1–74). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Weiss, H. M., Suckow, K., & Cropanzano, R. (1999). Effects of justice conditions on discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*(5), 786–794. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.84.5.786>
- West, S. G., Ryu, E., Kwok, O.-M., & Cham, H. (2011). Multilevel modeling: Current and future applications in personality research. *Journal of Personality*, *79*(1), 2–50. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6494.2010.00681.x>
- Williams, L. A., & DeSteno, D. (2008). Pride and perseverance: The motivational role of pride. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *94*(6), 1007–1017. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.94.6.1007>
- Williams, L. A., & DeSteno, D. (2009). Pride: Adaptive social emotion or seventh sin? *Psychological Science*, *20*(3), 284–288. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9280.2009.02292.x>

Yammarino, F. J., & Bass, B. M. (1990). Transformational leadership and multiple levels of analysis. *Human Relations*, 43(10), 975–995.

Zenasni, F., & Lubart, T. I. (2008). Emotion-related traits moderate the impact of emotional state on creative performances. *Journal of Individual Differences*, 29(3), 157–167.