

EXECUTES OPERATIONS IN AN INTEGRATED,
ACCOUNTABLE, AND AGILE MANNER

Maniac or Master? Examining How Leader Self-Control of Affective Experiences Shapes Charismatic Leadership

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ABSTRACT

Although researchers have identified affective experiences (e.g., emotions, moods) as integral to charismatic leadership processes and outcomes, it remains unclear when the experience of positive and negative affect by leaders is particularly or less effective with respect to the display of charismatic leadership. Based upon an integration of the self-control framework of the cognitive-affective processing system, dual-tuning perspective, and the charismatic leadership literature, we described how leader self-control interacts with high arousal positive and negative affective experiences to increase displays of charismatic leadership. Using multisource data from 218 U.S. Air Force officers and their subordinates, we hypothesized and found a three-way interaction by which officers' high arousal positive affective

experience had the strongest positive relationship with charismatic leadership when their high arousal negative affective experience and self-control were both high. Theoretical and practical implications for charismatic leadership and character development are discussed.

When one thinks of charismatic leaders who mesmerize followers with spellbinding rhetoric and passionate enactments of their values and beliefs, images of both maniacs engulfed by their emotions (e.g., Adolph Hitler) and masters of controlled emotions (e.g., George C. Marshall) come to mind. Yet charisma is not limited to such (in) famous leaders, but can be displayed by any leader to a certain degree (Conger, 1989) because affective experience is central to everyday human existence (Plutchik, 2001) and charisma involves the experience and display of various types of affect in communicating an evocative vision and role-modeling the important values and beliefs that support it (Sy et al., 2018). Given that charismatic leaders' affective experiences influence their thoughts, behaviors, and subsequent attempts to arouse the emotions of followers (Walter & Bruch, 2009), identifying how leaders can best respond to affective experiences and what mechanisms can control their behavioral manifestation via charismatic leadership have become critical issues for the development of character in academic and practitioner fields (Erez et al., 2008; Kets de Vries et al., 2013).

Affective experience refers to an individual's moods or emotions felt or displayed in response to features of the environment, and can be broadly categorized as tendencies toward positive affective experiences (PAE) or negative affective experiences (NAE) (Seo et al., 2004; Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Such (un)pleasant affective valences vary in terms of level of arousal/intensity/activation defined as a "sense of mobilization or energy and summarizes one's physiological state" (Seo et al., 2004, p. 426). High arousal PAE (e.g., enthusiasm, excitement) are associated with attributions and behaviors of charismatic leadership that support vision formulation and

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articulation (Johnson, 2008), making of meaning for followers (Shamir et al., 1993), and role-modeling of organizational or societal values (Erez et al., 2008). High arousal NAE (e.g., anger, disgust) provide charismatic leaders with information to initiate environmental scanning for opportunities and threats (Conger & Kanungo, 1998), foster careful information processing (George, 2000), and signal the need for change (Schwartz & Clore, 2003). Research on the dual-tuning perspective of positive and negative moods (George & Zhou, 2007) suggests that PAE and NAE may provide charismatic leaders with a wide range of cognitive resources useful for influencing followers. Such complementary affective experiences may also support visioning processes by providing emotionally charged psychological resources for inspirational rhetoric and enacting idealized role-modeling behaviors (Sy et al., 2018).

There are, however, reasons to believe that a leader's affective experiences may fluctuate displays of charismatic leadership unless they are properly self-regulated. Theoretically, researchers have long highlighted the centrality of self-control of emotion to charismatic leadership effectiveness. Kets de Vries et al. (2013) championed this malleable trait-like character strength (Peterson & Seligman, 2004) by

arguing that there is “nothing more central to who a person is than the way he or she regulates and expresses emotion” (p. 68). Zaleznik (1977) suggested the need for a charismatic leader to “gain control over himself or herself as a precondition for controlling others” (p. 70). Klein and House (1995) described charisma as a “fire” created by the union of (a) the emotional leader who provides “the spark,” (b) followers open or susceptible to charisma who represent “flammable material,” and (c) an environment conducive to charisma which represents “oxygen.” Turbulent environments (e.g., military settings) fan the flames of charisma because they create uncertainty and anxiety often associated with high arousal NAE that if not self-regulated, promote stress, burnout, or imprudent behavior (Daly et al., 2014). Charismatic leaders' high levels of emotional expressiveness suggest that they *run hot*, (i.e., experience high arousal affect) but also raise the question of what leader character strengths regulate the level of heat in the spark?

Empirically, studies grounded in theories of self-control (Baumeister et al., 2007; Mischel & Ayduk, 2004) have shown that the behavioral manifestation of high arousal affective experiences can be cooled down (i.e., regulated) with one's self-control. High arousal affective experiences create a state of disequilibrium

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(e.g., stress, burnout) that activates attempts of self-control to restore the body and mind to a steady state (e.g., Chi et al., 2015; Daly et al., 2014). Thus, theories of self-control and dual-tuning provide a useful framework to clarify how a charismatic leader's self-regulatory capacity interacts with his or her affective experiences to produce masterful (i.e., effective) or maniacal (i.e., ineffective) displays of charismatic leadership. Clarification of this issue can better guide military and business organizations interested in leveraging their leaders' affective experiences and charisma for more effective execution of operations.

In this study, we use theories of self-control and dual-tuning functions of positive and negative moods to propose that what leaders intensely feel as a result of their job experiences and how they control their feelings can be understood by considering the interactive effects of high arousal PAE, NAE, and self-control. We present theoretical background suggesting that high arousal PAE and NAE serve dual-tuning functions that should not be considered in isolation from each other and have the potential to influence charismatic leadership in augmentative ways. We then hypothesize and test how leader self-control and high arousal PAE and NAE interact to influence charismatic leadership using multi-source data collected from U.S. Air Force

(USAF) officers and their subordinates because such military settings provide an extreme context that evokes high arousal affective experiences (USAF, 2015).

The present study makes the following contributions. First, by applying the Cognitive-Affective Processing System (CAPS) (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004) to explain the self-regulation of the behavioral manifestation of leader affective experiences, we provide a theoretical account of how events trigger cognitive and affective leader reactions and subsequent behavior. Specifically, we consider how leaders' high arousal PAE and NAE in response to their job/situation relate to their charismatic leadership behavior. Prior research has identified this topic as under-developed because it has generally focused on PAE while generally ignoring the influence of NAE on charismatic leadership, despite calls for considering both types of affective experience and their interaction (Antonakis, 2003; Sy et al., 2018; Walter & Bruch, 2009). We included leader self-control to represent the regulatory mechanism because it allows for a cooling down of the behavioral manifestation of what Mischel and Ayduk (2004) called hot thoughts and affect (e.g., unregulated high arousal PAE and NAE) that may prompt impulses to act imprudently and/or damage one's well-being. Prior work has examined the role of emotion regulation skills

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in charismatic leadership processes (e.g., Humphrey et al., 2008; Walter & Bruch, 2009), yet no study to our knowledge has examined how leader self-control can also provide this function. Antonakis (2003) argued that charisma needs leader appraisals of and reflections upon events that identify deficiencies in the status quo to forge emotional interactions with subordinates, and self-control offers these cognitive functions (Baumeister et al., 2007).

Second, by examining how leader self-control interacts with PAE and NAE, we answer calls by Ashkanasy et al. (2017) to explore how character strengths shape the way people respond to affective events, by Gooty et al. (2010) to demarcate “what leaders feel and what they display” (p. 989), and by Sy et al. (2018) to examine leader-centric dynamics of emotional restraint and control in charismatic leadership processes. Answering such calls is important because vision articulation, one of the distinctive aspects of charismatic leaders, is often a product of their experienced emotions (George, 2000; Kets de Vries et al., 2013), specifically, the emotion-generative processes, whereby “emotions begin with an evaluation of emotion cues” from one’s environment that are modulated through cognitive-affective processing resources, such as self-control (Gross & John, 2003, p. 348). Such regulation of behavioral manifestations of emotion is an important but relatively unexplored aspect of charismatic leadership (Sy et al., 2018).

Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

We employ Mischel and Ayduk’s (2004) CAPS model of self-control as the theoretical framework for this study. This framework proposes that personal appraisals of situations influence an individual’s cognitive-affective processing system which influences his or her behavior (e.g., charismatic leadership).

Stimulus events in the environment bring about an inferred cognition that provides meaning to the events through a mental representation. Consistent with evolutionary theories of emotion (Plutchik, 2001) and recent work on situation-trait approaches to leadership (Gottfredson & Reina, 2020), these cognitions prompt physiological arousal and feeling states (e.g., PAE and NAE) that give rise to impulses to action and overt behavior. Cognitions and feeling states are represented within CAPS as cognitive-affective units (CAUs) that provide an understanding of how to interpret and respond to one’s environment. Also included as CAUs are “evaluative self-standards, which are activated in specific situations” (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004, p. 102) such as self-control that regulate the feeling states and their associated impulses to action.

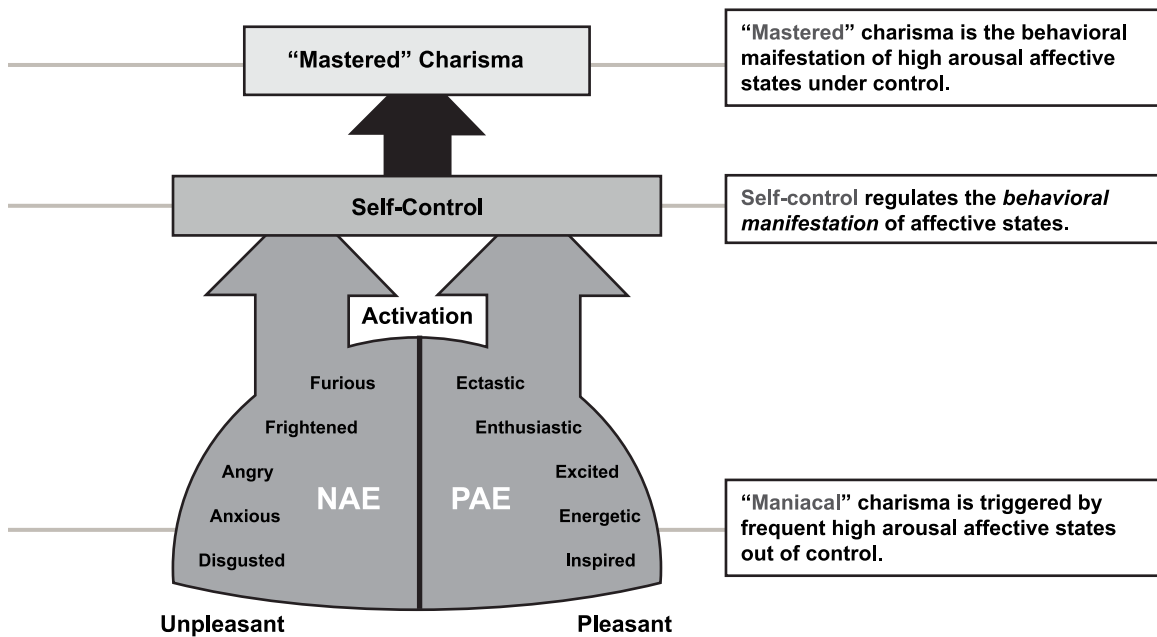
We selected leader high arousal PAE and NAE to represent CAUs for this study based on prior work on CAPS identifying them as CAUs reflecting hot thoughts or affect produced by interpretation of events from the work environment (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004, p. 102). Walter and Bruch’s (2009) affective events model of charismatic leadership proposes that contextual characteristics produce workplace events that influence leader positive affect which has direct and indirect (via leader work attitudes) effects on charismatic leadership behavior. Their model also identified leader personality characteristics and emotional intelligence as moderating influences on leader positive affect’s effect on charismatic leadership behavior. We choose leader self-control as a moderator variable based on CAPS theory. Prior research suggests that it is a malleable trait-like character strength that offers a self-regulation mechanism for emotion, cognition, and behavior; thereby allowing for a cooling down of behavioral manifestations of hot thoughts and affect (Chi et al., 2015; Mischel & Ayduk, 2004). Self control offers emotion regulation functions similar

to those described in Walter and Bruch’s (2009) consideration of emotional intelligence.

CAPS theory positions affect-driven behavior as an outcome of affective experiences. Because charismatic leadership is largely affect-driven, we positioned it as an outcome variable resulting from self-control’s moderation of the interaction of PAE with NAE, which Walter and Bruch (2009) failed to examine but identified as an opportunity for future research. Figure 1 summarizes our view of how self-control supports the manifestation of high arousal PAE and NAE in charismatic leadership behavior.

Charismatic Leadership

Charisma displayed by leaders is derived from their traits, behaviors, cognitions, and affect; all of which are recognized and attributed to them by followers who are receptive to the charisma, particularly in times of stress or crisis (Klein & House, 1995). Traits associated with charismatic leaders include being self-confident, visionary, unconventional, narcissistic, and skilled in impression management (Shamir et al., 1993). Charismatic leaders are sensitive to events, trends, resources, opportunities, constraints, and threats in the environment (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), and display



Note. NAE = High arousal negative affective experience; PAE = High arousal positive affective experience. Adapted from Seo et al. (2004) and Van Katwyk et al. (2000).

Figure 1. Self-control of the behavioral manifestations of high arousal affective experiences of charismatic leaders.

both positive and negative emotions as they react to favorable or unfavorable events (Johnson, 2008). Thus, their cognition and affect play an important information processing role for their leadership.

How charismatic leaders interpret this information determines how they frame and subsequently encode affective events for their communications with followers (Gottfredson & Reina, 2020). In formulating and articulating an evocative vision of change, charismatic leaders use value- and emotion-laden words to speak eloquently (Sy et al., 2018). Their speeches and role-modeling of what they consider to be most valued morals, ethics or norms provide meaning to followers regarding what is expected of them in working toward the vision (Strange & Mumford, 2002). These behaviors act to heighten followers' self-esteem, self-worth, self-efficacy, collective efficacy, and identification with the leader as a symbol of success, thus elevating their performance (Shamir et al., 1993). Thus, we define charisma here as the formulation and articulation of a compelling vision and role-modeling of important values and beliefs implied by the vision that create leader-follower relations based on emotional interactions and identification with the leader (Strange & Mumford, 2002).

The emotional connection and identification followers have with charismatic leaders result from the leaders' vision and values-based behavior, symbolic expressions using metaphors and emotional language, and emotion-laden affective displays (Sy et al., 2018). In responding to environmental stimuli when formulating and articulating a vision or role-modeling of values and beliefs that support the vision (Strange & Mumford, 2002), charismatic leaders use emotions that are other-praising (e.g., awe) and other-suffering (e.g., compassion) to reflect their PAE, and self-

conscious (e.g., shame) and other-condemning (e.g., disgust) to reflect their NAE (Sy et al., 2018). Thus, charismatic leader behavior may be elicited within the leaders' emotion-generative processes triggered by their affective experiences.

Affective Experiences

Consistent with CAPS and evolutionary theory of emotion, Plutchik (2001) defined emotion as "a complex chain of loosely connected events that begins with a stimulus and includes feelings, psychological changes, impulses to action and specific, goal-directed behavior...feelings do not happen in isolation. They are responses to significant situations in an individual's life, and often they motivate actions" (pp. 345-6). While encountering some dangerous events or contexts, individuals can experience both positive and negative emotions simultaneously, such as a firefight prompting an Airman to experience excitement accompanied with fear (Plutchik, 2001).

Affective experience changes as one's emotions respond to environmental stimuli, and as moods change over time (Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Moods last longer than emotions, reflect positive or negative affect comprised of multiple specific emotions, and are cognitive in nature (George & Zhou, 2007). An individual's cognitive processes give meaning to environmental stimuli and produce affective experiences (Gottfredson & Reina, 2020). The meaningful information generated assists individuals with decision-making and displaying appropriate behavior (Schwartz & Clore, 2003). Positive affect signals self-esteem and extraversion (Erez et al., 2008), the absence of problematic or threatening conditions in one's context (Schwartz & Clore, 2003), and contentment with the status quo (Baumeister et al., 2001). In contrast, negative affect signals problematic conditions that require effortful application of

cognitive resources and information processing (Bohner & Weinerth, 2001), triggers externally focused questioning of assumptions and alteration of ideas (Mitchell et al., 2014), and motivates effort to solve critical issues (George, 2000). Because negative events present individuals with problems to be solved or threats to be minimized whereas positive events do not, negative events have stronger psychological effects on individuals, thus prompting them to pay closer attention to negative events (Schwartz & Clore, 2003). This conclusion is supported by research on the positive-negative asymmetry effect found in the field of impression formation (Peeters & Czapinski, 1990) where individuals respond more strongly to bad rather than good events in order to adapt to their environment. Charismatic leaders are skilled at managing impressions (Sosik, Avolio et al., 2002), so controlling high arousal PAE and NAE is likely to be important to them.

High arousal PAE and NAE, however, are associated with psychological and performance costs. If uncontrolled, they may prompt fast cognitive processing (e.g., mind racing because of anxiety) and physiological symptoms (e.g., high blood pressure, quickened pulse; Daly et al., 2014). PAE may lead to complacency, overconfidence, and unrealistic perceptions of events (Schwartz & Clore, 2003), whereas NAE may result in depression, self-doubt, counter-productive work behavior, and impairment of task performance (Chi et al., 2015). Detrimental effects of negative affect occur on account of positive-negative asymmetry (Peeters & Czapinski, 1990), impairment of the regulation of goal-oriented behavior (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004), introduction of irrational thoughts, and lowering of self-esteem (Baumeister et al., 2001). PAE and NAE are also cognitively challenging and require self-control to regulate those (Chi et al., 2015).

Prior research has shown individual differences in (a) selection of situations that avoid potential NAE, (b) proactive modification of situations, (c) deployment of selective attention, (d) changing the way one thinks about a situation, and (e) modulation of one's responses to situations (Gross & John, 2003). The first four processes involve reappraisals of situations that result in changes in emotional response tendencies, whereas the response modulations described in the fifth process involve suppression of emotions to produce more favorable affective experiences. Self-control supports the reappraisal and suppression functions inherent to self-regulation processes (Baumeister et al., 2007; Mischel & Ayduk, 2004).

Self-Control

How individuals self-regulate their unwanted impulses to exercise “willpower” over them is described by theories of self-control. These theories consider self-control as a character strength (Peterson & Seligman, 2004) that exerts itself in the domains of controlling thoughts, emotions, impulses, and performance (Tangney et al., 2004) and operates within larger cognitive and emotional processing systems (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004). Prominent theories of self-control describe its operation through the discounting model of impulsiveness (Ainslie, 1975), self-regulatory strength model of self-control (Baumeister et al., 2007), or hot/cool system approaches to self-regulation (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004).¹ A common theme of these theories of self-control is the self's capacity to alter dominant responses to regulate thoughts, emotion, and behavior.

¹ According to the discounting model of impulsiveness, self-control is exercised when a delayed choice of a more valuable long-term outcome is made over a more immediate choice of a less valuable short-term outcome. In the strength model of self-regulation, self-control is considered to be a limited resource that is depleted by use and stress, and augmented with psychological resources, rest, and glucose supplementation (for a review of the validity of the notion of self-control as a limited resource, see Friese et al., 2019).

Daly et al. (2014) showed that high self-control allows for a cooling down of behavioral manifestations of hot thoughts and affect (e.g., high arousal PAE and NAE) described in CAPS theory. This cooling effect occurs because self-control introduces a favored set-point of experienced affect that is monitored. Individuals with high self-control experience less self-control failure and therefore less affective surges and their associated detrimental effects (Tangney et al., 2004). In contrast, individuals with low self-control experience surges of positive affect because their hot thoughts and affect are motivated by the principle of “do it if it feels good” (de Ridder et al., 2012, p. 78). Their hot thoughts and affect are further stoked by impulsivity, immediate gratification of their needs, or ego-driven motives that boost positive feelings temporarily but eventually lead to guilt, regret, and interpersonal conflicts (Daly et al., 2014).

High self-control provides individuals with a “moral muscle” to avoid socially inappropriate behavior, and display moral emotions and values associated with socialized charismatic leadership (Baumeister et al., 2007; Sosik, 2005). Charismatic leaders regulate information about how they present themselves to manage their impressions on others via strategic displays of affect in delivering motivational speeches and role modeling (Erez et al., 2008). As such, self-control may have an important moderating influence on the interaction of leader high arousal PAE and NAE and its manifestation in charismatic behavior.

Dual-Tuning of Charismatic Leadership with Affective Experiences and Self-Control

Theories of mood-as-information (Schwarz & Clore, 2003) and dual-tuning (George & Zhou, 2007) assume that for individuals to adapt to their environment

and function effectively, their cognition and behavior need to be tuned (i.e., regulated or tailored) to the information provided by their affective experiences. As such, we propose that under high levels of self-control, high arousal PAE and NAE interact to support charismatic leadership behavior. Specifically, in articulating a vision, charismatic leaders use rhetoric laden with positive affect (e.g., optimism) and display verbal and non-verbal role-modeling behavior infused with positive affect (Johnson, 2008). In their inspirational motivation of followers, they express confidence that goals will be achieved (Shamir et al., 1993). Such behaviors imply that charismatic leaders may draw upon their high arousal PAE to promote followers’ collective efficacy, internalization of social and organizational values, and personal identification with the leader. PAE also supports idea generation and broadens thought-action repertoires (George & Zhou, 2007) necessary for visioning processes of charismatic leaders (Strange & Mumford, 2002).

Charismatic leaders are also likely to tap into their high arousal NAE in their visioning and motivation of followers. Charismatic leaders are not satisfied with the status quo and consider it to be problematic (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). A problematic state of affairs that must be addressed through effortful application of cognitive resources prompts negative affect (Schwarz & Clore, 2003) and an external focus to alter existing strategies (Mitchell et al., 2014). Such an application of cognitive resources occurs through the charismatic leaders’ environmental scanning processes that identify threats and problems with the status quo that require a change. This identification triggers the formulation and articulation of visions of change to be executed through the collective effort of followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). NAE of charismatic leaders may also prompt the display of negative emotions aimed at shaming or embarrassing followers for not living up to norms,

or condemning others for unfairness, immorality, or injustice (Sy et al., 2018). Consistent with situation-trait explanations of leadership (Gottfredson & Reina, 2020), Table 1 illustrates the process of how events trigger cognitive and emotional leader reactions and subsequent behavior. It also provides examples of how both PAE and NAE may translate into charismatic actions and outcomes that normalize the relationship

between the triggering event and the charismatic leader’s affective state.

As a preliminary test of some aspects of the process shown in Table 1, we hypothesize interactive effects of PAE and NAE with self-control rather than main effects because charismatic leadership behavior depends on both types of affective experience, and the existence

Table 1

Stimulus Event	Cognition	Feeling State	Impulse Behaviour	Self-Controlled Charismatic Behavior	Outcome
Gain of global acclaim	“Fame”	Ecstatic	Fantasize about unlimited success	Talk optimistically but cautiously about a future better state	Positive and realistic expectations set
Gain of media spotlight	“Enjoy”	Enthusiastic	Reduce work effort	Talk enthusiastically about required tasks for the vision	Positive and realistic expectations set
New target opportunity	“Examine”	Excited	Fixate over proximate goals	Articulate compelling vision met by attaining distal goals	Gain meaning and purpose
Positive feedback from superior	“Invigorate”	Energetic	Overwork	Share authority for attainment of vision with Airmen	Paced workflow
Exemplification of excellence	“Perfection”	Inspired	Expect perfection	Talk about values, beliefs, and sensible expectations	Realistic quest for excellence
Enemy kills valued Airman	“Victim”	Furious	Lash out on others as perceived victim	Consider ethical consequences implied by the vision	Gain moral ground
Enemy takes away strategic foothold	“Revenge”	Angry	Attack prematurely	Consider ethics and needs of squad before deciding to act	Regain foothold/ overtake enemy
Enemy poses serious threat	“Danger”	Frightened	Retreat based on proximal goals	Reiterate strong sense of purpose by considering distal goals	Regain sense of safety
Loss of beloved and valued Airman	“Abandonment”	Anxious	Worry about impact on self-image	Reassure that loss will be overcome by the collective	Rebuild collective confidence
Major ethical breach by Airman	“Moral corruption”	Disgusted	Expel from group	Re-educate with moral principles implied by the vision	Rehabilitation of Airman

Examples of Personal Appraisals of Situations/Events, Cognitions and Felt Emotions Related to Charismatic Leadership Behavior

Note. Cognitions, feeling states (i.e., affect), and self-control mechanisms are cognitive affective units within the CAPS that influence subsequent behavior and outcomes (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004).

of one boosts the effectiveness of the other in triggering the display of charismatic leadership behavior. Leaders with emotions drawn from both positive and negative experiences are better able to manage impressions and/or empathize with the emotions experienced by followers (Ashkanasy et al., 2017).

The interaction is also consistent with cases of some charismatic leaders (e.g., Winston Churchill, Adolph Hitler, Vince Lombardi) who suffered from manic-depressive or bipolar disorder (Bullock, 1964; Maraniss, 1999; Roberts, 2018). These cases suggest that leaders may require a high level of self-control to temper the detrimental effects of high arousal PAE and NAE and their dual effect on charismatic behavior. When charismatic leaders experience high arousal PAE, self-control may help them to temper their impulses to be complacent, over-confident or unrealistic. It may help them to be more critical rather than accepting of the status quo, curb their enthusiasm to avoid being over-confident, and articulate a more realistic vision of change. When charismatic leaders experience high arousal NAE, self-control may help them to overcome depression and or self-doubt associated with the persistent and difficult challenges they may be facing by re-framing their negative experience in a more positive light. It may also help them to mask their negative affect with emotional labor strategies designed to “put on a brave face” or feign positive emotions to support their impression management goals (Walter & Bruch, 2009).

This line of reasoning suggests a three-way interaction (rather than two-way interactions or main effects) because high-arousal PAE and NAE are essential as both provide information that charismatic leaders can use to provide meaning to followers through their visioning and role modeling, and high self-control is also required to regulate the affective

experience to which they are tuned. This information helps charismatic leaders experiencing positive affect to resist impulses toward complacency, overconfidence, and Pollyannaism, and those experiencing negative affect to reappraise its meaning, reframe it in a more positive light, or better cope with its ill effects. With both types of affective experience, high self-control is also required to regulate this information, better communicate leaders’ affective experiences, and maximize their display of charismatic behavior (Daly et al., 2014; Erez et al., 2008). High self-control and PAE alone might not support high levels of charismatic leadership behavior as leaders might not recognize problems with the status quo and become complacent, and thus may not champion the vision or role model espoused values and beliefs (Strange & Mumford, 2002); high self-control and NAE alone might result in a relative lack of optimism and enthusiasm for the vision and less energetic role modeling behavior. Thus,

Hypothesis: There is a three-way interaction effect between leaders’ PAE, NAE, and self-control on their display of charismatic leadership. Specifically, leaders’ PAE has the strongest positive relationship with charismatic leadership when their NAE and self-control are both high.

Method

Sample and Procedure

As part of a larger study, the data for this study were obtained using an online-based survey method. The focal leaders in our study were USAF Captains enrolled in a five-week leadership course offered by the Squadron Officer College at Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama. At the beginning of the course, we explained to the officers the research purposes and the procedure for data collection. Upon their agreement to participate in this study, we asked the officers to provide us with

a list of names, titles, and email addresses of their subordinates who might also be willing to participate as well as their own names and email addresses. We requested the names of both officers and their subordinates to ensure leader-subordinate matched reports. With the contact information of potential respondents, we sent 1570 officers and 1269 of their subordinates' emails that briefly explained the purpose and voluntary nature of the study, the time required for survey completion, links to an online surveying platform, and the consent form. The emails emphasized that (a) the survey has nothing to do with the leadership course in the Squadron Officer College but only for academic research, (b) ratings in the survey are directly conveyed to researchers, (c) none of the officers and their subordinates have access to the ratings of their counterparts, and (d) only the aggregated results would be published.

A total of 1205 completed surveys were returned from officers and subordinates for a response rate of 42.4%. Of this total, 743 officers responded about their own levels of PAE, NAE, and self-control and 462 subordinates responded about officers' charismatic leadership. From the 743 responding officers, we extracted a total of 218 unique matched sets of leader and subordinate ratings that were used for hypothesis testing. Of the 218 leader-subordinate matched sets, 75.7% of the leaders had only one subordinate's rating and 24.3% of the officers had multiple subordinates' reports. For those multiple subordinates' ratings of charismatic leadership, the ratings of a leader were averaged to represent his or her leadership within the unit ($\eta^2 = .52$, ICC1 = .26, $F = 1.97$, $p < .01$).

Of the final 218 matched reports, 159 officers (72.9%) were male. The average age of the leaders was 31.23 (SD = 4.83) ranging from 25 to 52 in years. Of these officers, 44.5% had a bachelor's degree while

55.5% had a master's degree; and 79.8% were white, 5% were black, 6% were Asian, 4.6% were Hispanic, and 4.6% were others. Forty percent of officers worked in operations, 17% in logistics and support, 9% in acquisitions, 22% in medical and professional services, 2% in special investigations, and 10% in other areas.

Measures

We adopted different rating sources for independent and dependent variables to alleviate the concern for common source bias (Podsakoff et al., 2012) while tapping the actor-observer perspective of leadership. Specifically, leaders' own PAE, NAE and their level of self-control were self-reported, whereas the leaders' charismatic leadership displayed was assessed with subordinates' ratings.

Affective Experience. We adopted both positive and negative emotion subscales from a 20-item short version of the Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS; Van Katwyk et al., 2000) to measure leaders' emotional reactions to their job. The JAWS is comprised of four discrete subscales classified by valence (pleasantness) and arousal (intensity). We used 10 high arousal emotions that include 5 positive affective reactions (energetic, excited, ecstatic, enthusiastic, and inspired) and 5 negative emotions (angry, anxious, disgusted, frightened, and furious). Low arousal items of both positive and negative emotions (e.g., relaxed and bored, respectively) were not used because of their irrelevance to charismatic leadership typified by its intensive affective reaction to events as well as its emotion-laden words and deeds (Sy et al., 2018). The officers were asked how often they had experienced each at work over the prior 30 days. The items were measured on a 5-point response scale ranging from 1 (*Never*) to 5 (*Extremely often or always*). Sample items include "My job made me feel excited" (PAE; $\alpha = .95$) and "My job made me feel anxious" (NAE; $\alpha = .87$).

Self-Control. We used the 13-item Brief Self-Control measure (Tangney et al., 2004) to assess leaders' general ability of overriding or changing their inner responses (both thoughts and emotions), restraining undesirable impulses, and refraining from acting on them. As the focal leaders in our study, officers were asked the extent to which the items describe them; for example, "I am good at resisting temptation," and "I wish I had more self-discipline" (reversed item). All items were measured on a 5-point response scale ranging from 1 (*Not at all*) to 5 (*Very much*) ($\alpha = .89$).

Charismatic Leadership. Following prior research (e.g., Menges et al., 2015; Sosik, 2005), we used subordinates' ratings of their officers' charismatic leadership along the two facets of transformational leadership that tap charisma, namely idealized influence (positive role modeling) and inspirational motivation (vision articulation and championing), which were measured by eight items from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X; Bass & Avolio, 1997). Four items measuring attributed idealized influence were removed because they have been criticized for representing a leadership outcome rather than an influence process (Yukl, 1999). A sample item reads "The officer talks optimistically about the future." Respondents indicated how frequently the officer displays the focal behavior on a 5-point scale ranging from 0 (*Not at all*) to 4 (*Frequently, if not always*) ($\alpha = .91$).

Control Variables. Prior research indicates that appraisees' demographic factors such as age (Lawrence, 1988), gender (Lyness & Heilman, 2006), and education (Ng & Feldman, 2010) may distort outcome ratings. Leader age (years), gender, and education were included as controls to partial out their effects on subordinates' ratings of charismatic leadership. We

also controlled for the effect of subordinates' socially desirable responding by using Reynolds' (1982) 13-item short form of the Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale with responses rated as either 1 (*True*) or 2 (*False*). A sample item reads "I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings" ($\alpha = .64$).

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Measurement Model. In the survey development and data collection phase of this study, we took preventative steps to minimize potential method artifacts by emphasizing the voluntary nature of study and its confidentiality, changing the item order of independent and dependent variables in the survey, using different raters for independent and dependent variables, and improving response scale (Podsakoff et al., 2012). We also conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) to further address the issues of common method variance and discriminant validity of study measures. We first examined the fit indices of the four-factor model (PAE, NAE, self-control, and charismatic leadership). As shown in Table 2, the fit indices of the four-factor model appear adequate ($\chi^2 (df) = 745.52(428)$, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .06). All factor loadings of the four-factor model were significant, ranging from .79 to .95 for PAE, .71 to .83 for NAE, .57 to .75 for self-control, and .65 to .83 for charismatic leadership. A series of chi-square difference tests also revealed that the four-factor model fit the data significantly better than all other alternative models. These results support the discriminant validity of study measures and attenuate concern for common source variance.

Hypothesis Tests. Table 3 presents means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and correlations of the study variables. A review of the correlations

Table 2

Results of Measurement Model Comparisons

Models	χ^2 (df)	CFI	RMSEA	$\Delta\chi^2$ (Δdf) ^a
4-factor [PAE] [NAE] [SC] [CH]	745.52 (428)	.92	.06	-
3-factor [PAE, NAE] [SC] [CH] [PAE] [NAE] [SC, CH]	1165.65 (431) 1653.46 (431)	.80 .67	.09 .11	420.13 (3)** 907.94 (3)**
2-factor [PAE, NAE], [SC, CH] [PAE, NAE, SC] [CH]	2072.85 (433) 2307.03 (433)	.56 .49	.13 .14	1327.33 (5)** 1561.51 (5)**
1-factor [PAE, NAE, SC, CH]	3209.52 (434)	.25	.17	2464.00 (6)**

Note. ^a The chi-square difference for each model reflects its deviation from the 4-factor model. PAE = positive affective experience; NAE = negative affective experience; SC = self-control; CH = charismatic leadership.

** $p < .01$.

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Intercorrelations, and Alphas of Variables

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	31.23	4.83								
2. Gender	.27	.45	.13†							
3. Education	3.56	.50	.11	.15*						
4. Subordinate SDR	9.21	2.40	-.02	.04	-.05	(.64)				
5. Positive affective experience	3.24	.89	-.02	.03	-.01	.21**	(.94)			
6. Negative affective experience	2.18	.68	-.09	-.03	-.02	-.16*	-.33**	(.87)		
7. Self-control	3.58	.59	-.09	-.12†	-.06	-.03	-.12†	-.07	(.89)	
8. Charismatic leadership	3.17	.64	.06	.05	.12†	.15*	.10	-.09	-.04	(.91)

Note. $N = 218$. Values in parentheses along the diagonal are Cronbach's alphas. Gender was coded as 0 = male and 1 = female. Education was coded as 1 = high school, 2 = partial college at least 1 year, 3 = 4-year college, and 4 = graduate. SDR = socially desirable responding.

† $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Table 4

Hierarchical Regression Results of Three-way Interaction Effects

Outcome: Charismatic Leadership					
Predictors	β	t	95% CI	ΔF	ΔR2
Step 1					
Age	.05	.75	[-.01, .03]		
Gender	.02	.33	[-.16, .23]		
Education	.12	1.69†	[-.03, .32]		
Subordinate SDR	.15	2.23*	[.01, .08]	2.20†	.04
Step 2					
Positive affective experience (PAE)	.06	.76	[-.06, .14]		
Negative affective experience (NAE)	-.05	-.63	[-.18, .09]		
Self-control	-.02	-.31	[-.17, .13]	.52	.01
Step 3					
PAE × NAE	.09	1.24	[-.05, .20]		
PAE × Self-control	.03	.43	[-.14, .22]		
NAE × Self-control	.13	1.62	[-.03, .31]	1.41	.02
Step 4					
PAE × NAE × Self-control	.19	2.44*	[.05, .43]	5.97*	.03
Adjusted R2	.04				
F (11, 206)	1.90*				
Conditional Effect of PAE on Charismatic Leadership					
NAE	SC	Effects	SE	95% CI	
Low	Low	.06	.11	[-.15, .27]	
Low	High	-.12	.10	[-.31, .07]	
High	Low	-.04	.10	[-.23, .15]	
High	High	.16*	.08	[.01, .31]	

Note. *N* = 218. 95% CI = 95% confidence intervals with lower and upper limits. SDR = socially desirable responding; PAE = positive affective experience; and NAE = negative affective experience; SC = self-control.

† *p* < .10, * *p* < .05, ** *p* < .01.

indicates that affective experiences and self-control alone were not related to charismatic leadership. Given that subordinates' socially desirable responding was significantly associated with charismatic leadership ($r = .15, p < .05$), we controlled for the effect of subordinates' socially desirable responding on their ratings of charismatic leadership in the subsequent hypothesis testing.

Table 4 presents the results of hypothesis tests. Our hypothesis, predicting a three-way interaction between affective experiences and self-control, states that leaders'

PAE has the strongest positive relationship with their display of charismatic leadership when their NAE and self-control are both high. When the interaction effect was estimated in a moderated multiple regression, we mean-centered the variables used as a factor of the interaction term to make results more interpretable. As presented in Table 4, the interaction effect between PAE, NAE and self-control on charismatic leadership was positive and significant ($\beta = .19, t = 2.44, p < .05, 95\% \text{ CI } [.05, .43]$) and explained significant additional variance in charismatic leadership ($\Delta R^2 = .03, \Delta F(1, 206) = 5.97, p < .05$), while none of the main effects

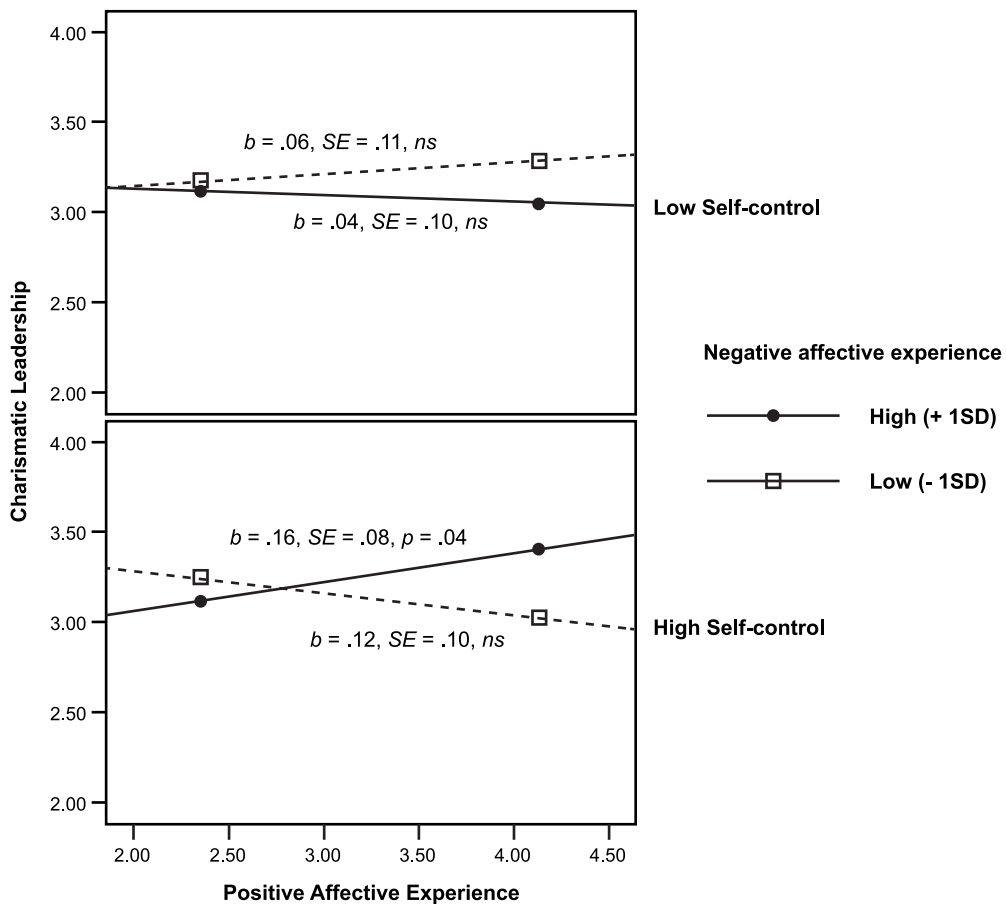


Figure 2. Interaction effect of leaders' positive affective experience, negative affective experience, and self-control on their display of charismatic leadership.

of PAE, NAE, or self-control on charismatic leadership were significant.

To probe the three-way interaction, we plotted four simple slopes at one standard deviation above and below the mean values of NAE and self-control, while all covariates were set to their sample mean values (Aiken & West, 1991). These simple slopes demonstrate differences in the relationship between PAE and charismatic leadership at different levels of NAE and self-control. As shown at the bottom of Table 4 and in Figure 2, only when NAE and self-control were both high, the relationship between leaders' PAE and their display of charismatic leadership was positive and significant ($b = .16, SE = .08, p < .05, 95\% CI [.01, .31]$). These results indicate that the positive relationship between PAE and charismatic leadership is strongest when both NAE and self-control are high, supporting our hypothesis.

Discussion

What leaders feel as a result of their experiences and how they control their feelings are important to charismatic leadership processes, but prior work has typically focused on examining leader PAE, while ignoring the fact that it is the combination of leader PAE, NAE, and self-control that influences charismatic leadership. The present study provides preliminary support for this notion, extends prior work on charismatic leadership and self-regulation, and offers several theoretical and practical implications.

Theoretical Contributions

The first theoretical contribution is that this study advances work on charismatic leadership that situates emotion as a primary explanatory variable by filling several gaps in the literature. Walter and Bruch's

(2009) affective events model of charismatic leadership behavior emergence did not consider the role of leaders' NAE and its interaction with PAE as the present study did. Most prior research has ignored this range of affective experience and how it is regulated with character strengths such as self-control that serve similar self-regulatory functions as emotional intelligence or other emotional regulation skills. Other theoretical work on this topic has mainly focused on the types of behavior that reflect leaders' emotions and includes such emotions as a mediator of the relationship between charisma and its effects. Sy et al.'s (2018) Elicit-Channel (EC) model of charismatic leadership frames charismatic relationship as a five-step feedback loop in which leader emotions signal information to followers, thereby eliciting emotions of followers that motivate them to collective action. The EC model identifies emotion elicitation as the first stage in understanding how a leader uses such signaling to elicit emotions from followers. However, this theoretical work does not address responses to situations that trigger leaders' cognitive and affective determinants of emotion elicitation. What a leader first feels and how he or she responds to affective events before engaging in emotion elicitation must be considered (Gooty et al., 2010). Building on CAPS theory (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004), we included leaders' high-arousal PAE and NAE as variables measuring context-specific affect (Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Accordingly, our study contributes to charismatic leadership theories by presenting a stage prior to the leader emotion elicitation stage in the EC model because such elicitation may first be triggered by affective reactions to environmental conditions (Godfredson & Reina, 2020; Plutchik, 2001).

Second, although prior studies have primarily examined the influence of positive emotion on charismatic leadership behavior (e.g., Johnson, 2008)

or simply called for the examination of the interplay between positive and negative affect in leadership processes (Ashkanasy et al., 2017; George, 2000; Walter & Bruch, 2009), no studies have attempted to examine how leader high-arousal PAE and NAE interact with character strengths (i.e., self-control) to influence charismatic leadership behavior. Our results identify leader self-control as a malleable trait-like character strength that serves as an important boundary condition for the influence of high arousal PAE and NAE on charismatic leadership behavior, thus considering personal and situational response aspects of leadership, both deemed important to leadership research (Antonakis, 2003). As expected, we found that focal leaders' high arousal PAE had the strongest positive relationship with charismatic leadership behavior when their high-arousal NAE and self-control were both high. This finding suggests that by signaling a need for external focus and careful evaluation of events, negative affect tempered with high self-control may overcome positive affect's tendency toward complacency and result in greater displays of charisma.

Third, drawing upon the CAPS model (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004) and the work of George and Zhou (2007), we demonstrated how both high arousal PAE and NAE contribute to the display of charismatic behavior in complementary ways for leaders with high self-control. An examination of Table 4 indicates that neither leader high arousal PAE nor NAE had a significant main effect on charismatic leadership. Nor did the interaction of high arousal PAE and NAE produce what George and Zhou (2007) called a "dual-tuning effect" on charismatic leadership for the focal leaders in our study. This pattern of results contradicts a relatively broad body of research (see Sy et al., 2018 and Walter & Bruch, 2009 for reviews) that has demonstrated main effects of positive affect

on charismatic leadership, but these studies did not consider the dual and interaction effects of positive and negative affect on charismatic leadership as the present study did. However, these results are consistent with results reported by Chi et al. (2015) suggesting that high self-control provides psychological resources to undo complacency, direct cognitive attention toward issues requiring attention; and counteract the potential for negative affect to overtake positive affect, deplete psychological resources, and produce suboptimal interpersonal outcomes. Future research can examine the mechanisms that self-control employs to engage specific self-regulatory tactics in the CAPS. These include cognitive reappraisals of negative events (Gross & John, 2003) that may cool hot thoughts and affect and increase charismatic leadership behavior.

Results of post-hoc analyses suggest such a cooling effect of leader PAE to a favored set-point with high self-control.² This pattern of results in the current data set suggests that the nature of self-control's cooling effect on officers' frequency of affective experience may occur primarily via their PAE. Excessive high-arousal PAE is evidenced by manic behavior such as too much joking, laughter, or overly exuberant speech that is viewed as inauthentic at best, or as abnormal at worst (Gruber et al., 2008). Such mania may impede the managing of impressions leaders attempt to create for followers,

2 In the overall sample, officers reported high arousal PAE ($m = 3.24, SD = .89$) more frequently than high arousal NAE ($m = 2.18, SD = .68; t(217) = 12.17, p < .01$), which is typical of individuals (Van Katwyk et al., 2000), and expected for Airmen (USAF, 2015). However, for officers with high self-control (determined via a median-split), the difference in frequency of high arousal PAE ($m = 3.13, SD = .95$) and high arousal NAE ($m = 2.15, SD = .62$) was .98 and significant ($t(104) = 7.83, p < .01$), whereas for officers with low self-control, the difference in frequency of between high arousal PAE ($m = 3.34, SD = .83$) and high arousal NAE ($m = 2.20, SD = .73$) was 1.14 and significant ($t(112) = 9.35, p < .01$). Frequency of high arousal PAE was marginally greater for officers with low than high self-control ($t(216) = 1.77, p < .08$), whereas high arousal NAE was similar for officers with low and high self-control ($t(216) = .60, p > .55$).

thereby attenuating attributions of charisma. These results are consistent with Daly et al.'s (2014) finding that high self-control reduces variability in emotional states, which is required for leaders' realistic assessment of situations and authentic self-presentation (Erez et al., 2008). To test this speculation, future research using within-subjects longitudinal or experimental designs is needed to compare pre- and post-measures of high arousal affective experience and charismatic leadership under high and low conditions of leader self-control.

Limitations and Future Research

Some limitations which offer future research directions should be noted. From a methods perspective, the cross-sectional nature of the data collected precludes any claims of causality from being made, although a large body of research supports the temporal ordering of this study's variables. It also suggests the possibility of reverse causality where charismatic leadership behavior may produce leader affective experiences because followers' responses to charisma (e.g., personal identification with the leader) may provide ego-enhancing reactions for leaders (Kets de Vries et al., 2013), although this notion lacks strong theoretical and empirical support. Future experimental studies that manipulate PAE and NAE or longitudinal studies can be conducted to test the interactive effects of these variables with self-control on charismatic leadership behavior and its outcomes. Given that affective experience and self-control fluctuate with time, future studies can collect data at multiple points in time within a work day with event studies or experience sampling procedures (Daly et al., 2014). Another limitation regards the ratings of charismatic leadership being limited to a single subordinate for each leader in many cases. Such ratings may have produced results particular to a specific leader-follower dyad, especially if leaders had provided us with a list of subordinates that would rate them most favorably. However, this concern may be allayed given

the significant moderation results, while subordinates' socially desirable responding was controlled for, that could not have been produced if there was a serious range restriction in the ratings.

A third methodological limitation concerns our sample which consisted of primarily white male officers and their subordinates serving in the USAF. While this military context is appropriate given its emotionally charged, crisis-ridden, and values-based nature (USAF, 2015), it may limit the external validity of our results. Yet, because we collected the data via measures of affective experience, self-control, charismatic leadership commonly used in business and educational contexts, we believe that our results can be generalized to other industries. The cross-cultural generalizability of study results may be another limitation, although participants represented a wide range of ethnicities. Future studies can be designed to collect data across a range of organizations, industries, and countries. While study results provided preliminary evidence of a significant interaction effect of PAE, NAE, and self-control on charismatic leadership, a review of Table 4 indicates that the strength of this effect was not overwhelmingly powerful. Replications in future studies are required before we can be more confident about the stability of the obtained findings across different contexts.

From the theoretical perspective of CAPS (Mischel & Ayduk, 2004), this study focused on leader self-control as a measure of self-regulation capacity and willpower resources that serve to cool down behavioral manifestations of hot thoughts and affect. While self-control is an explicit measure of self-regulation and willpower resources (Daly et al., 2014), future research can examine specific aspects of the CAPS that serve such self-control functions (e.g., specific cooling strategies) or those that trigger hot thoughts and affect

within the CAPS (e.g., expectations and encodings of rejection or disloyalty). They can also use other measures of self-regulation, such as self-monitoring, emotional labor, or those tapping the emotion management facet of emotional intelligence (Humphrey et al., 2008), to compare their efficacy against the self-control measure used in this study (Tangney et al., 2004). Researchers may also explore how leaders' charismatic behavior influences their subsequent experience of affect and cognitive social learning required for their emotion elicitation and other processes in emotion-based models of charismatic leadership (e.g., Sy et al., 2018).

Practical Implications

Despite these limitations, study findings provide practical implications for leader training and character development. Consistent with notions of charismatic leadership, organizations such as the USAF are not only making work more intrinsically rewarding and meaningful but also more competitive and stressful. In this context, leaders can expect to have more positive and negative emotional reactions to their work that ultimately may affect their psychological wellbeing. Positive and negative affective responses as measured by the JAWS tap the affective facet of an individual's wellbeing (Van Katwyk et al., 2000). Prolonged high-arousal PAE and NAE are associated with stress, burnout, and other harmful physical and psychological conditions (Chi et al., 2015). Air Force policies recently have been affected by increased suicides, resiliency focus, and the idea of creating organizational climates and cultures that foster psychologically safe work environments and value Airmen wellbeing. Study results indicate that extreme surges in high-arousal PAE and NAE without a high level of self-control does not allow for the maximization of charismatic leadership behavior. In the USAF, screening future Airmen for wide swings in PAE, NAE, and self-control may provide additional data points to identify charismatic

leaders and foster their wellbeing. Assessments used in this study are tools to collect such data.

We recommend that leaders be trained to recognize the types and intensities of their PAE and NAE (as shown in Figure 1) that reflect their tendencies toward displaying charismatic leadership. Being mindful of such affective experiences may help leaders exert more self-control over behavioral manifestations of their emotions to display charismatic behaviors that subordinates recognize and admire. Training modules, like those delivered at Penn State University, Korea University, and Air University, can be designed that explain the full range of PAE and NAE, how they manifest physiologically, behaviorally, and verbally; and how each contributes to the display of charismatic leadership behaviors of visioning and role-modeling of organizational norms, ethics, and values (Sosik & Jung, 2018). Organizations should also consider selecting candidates for training programs who have tendencies toward experiencing both positive and negative emotional states and possess high levels of self-control; they may be well suited for displaying charismatic leadership behavior.

Several virtues underlying USAF Core Values are consistent with self-control. Demonstrating Integrity first requires Airmen to be accountable to those they serve. *Putting Service Before Self* requires Airmen to fulfill their duty to perform tasks in support of the mission. *Achieving Excellence in All We Do* requires Airmen to be disciplined in mind, body, emotion, and spirit (USAF, 2015). Given that self-control is a character strength that fosters accountability, duty fulfillment, and discipline (Peterson & Seligman, 2004), Airmen should view it as a psychological resource to support the execution of operations in an integrated (i.e., balanced), accountable, and agile manner. Developing leaders of character should therefore

involve training Airmen how to build self-control by setting goals, forming good personal habits, identifying and avoiding temptations, maintaining proper posture with core muscle strength, maintaining a healthy diet, and glucose supplementation (Baumeister et al., 2007). Such training is consistent with USAF doctrine that espouses self-awareness and self-regulation in leadership roles and sustenance of all facets of wellbeing (USAF, 2015). Including assessments of PAE, NAE, and self-control used in the present study for Air Force accession programs like the Air Force Academy, Officer Training School, or ROTC training may help inculcate the importance of recognizing the triggers of one's affective experiences.

Conclusion

This study's findings suggest an answer as to how and when leaders' affective experiences produce charismatic leadership behavior. Specifically, leaders' high arousal PAE is most strongly related to their charismatic behavior when their self-control and high-arousal NAE are both high. For Airmen or other leaders who find themselves in the heat of high intensity affective experiences, self-control may be a mechanism to yield charismatic attributions by becoming a master of one's emotions instead of a maniac enslaved by them.

♦ ♦ ♦

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