BEYOND DISCRETE EMOTIONS: AN EXAMINATION OF EMOTIONAL AMBIVALENCE IN LEADERSHIP

by

Betsy H. Albritton

A dissertation submitted to the faculty of
The University of North Carolina at Charlotte
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in
Organizational Science

Charlotte

2024

Approved by:

_____
Dr. Scott Tonidandel

_____
Dr. Janaki Gooty

_____
Dr. George Banks

_____
Dr. Eric Heggestad

ABSTRACT

BETSY H. ALBRITTON. Beyond Discrete Emotions: An Examination Of Emotional Ambivalence In Leadership (Under the direction of DR. SCOTT TONIDANDEL)

Emotional ambivalence – the experience of dual-valenced emotions – is becoming increasingly relevant to the process of leadership. Leaders are consistently faced with nuanced, complex situations that simultaneously elicit positive and negative emotions. Nevertheless, most of the research on leader emotions focuses on discrete emotions – distinct intense reactions to events. Despite increased empirical investigations into leader emotional ambivalence at work (Rothman et al., 2017; Rothman & Melwani, 2017), leader emotion theorizing makes critical assumptions that limit understanding of the cognitive and social role of emotional ambivalence in the social process of leadership, including impacts to the leaders themselves and those that interact with leaders. I conduct a systematic literature review to show how past work conceptualizing emotional ambivalence as the experience of conflicting emotions and the default treatment of leader emotions as singular can be misleading. In this dissertation, I advance the definition of emotional ambivalence beyond emotional conflict and outline a new integrative process of leader emotions including the appraisal, expression, and perception of complex emotions and their general outcomes.

DEDICATION

To my husband, thank you for being my greatest teammate and unwavering supporter. I may now be Dr. Albritton, but I am equally proud to be Mrs. Owens.

To my sister, who always calls me the smart one, even though I know my achievements are only possible because of the example and standard she set. Even when I ignored her countless FaceTime calls while working on this dissertation, she kept calling—and I'm so grateful she did. Thank you for always showing up for me in all the ways that matter.

To my mom and dad, your sacrifices and love have made everything I have accomplished possible. I hope I continue to make you proud.

To my dear friends, Drs. Nicole Voss and Lea Williams. I am so fortunate to have met women in this program that I respect tremendously and am also able to call my dearest friends. Thank you for everything.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am deeply grateful to the many individuals who supported and guided me throughout this journey. First, I would like to express my heartfelt appreciation to my dissertation committee.

Dr. Janaki Gooty, your course sparked my interest in leader emotions and laid the foundation for much of the work that culminated in this dissertation. Beyond being an exceptional instructor, you have been a mentor who greatly influenced how I approach research, mentorship, and service to the academic community.

Dr. Eric Heggestad, your psychometrics course not only laid the perfect foundation for my career but also immediately instilled confidence in my abilities and potential. Through your teaching and mentorship, you have demonstrated what it means to be an exceptional educator and research collaborator, always bringing joy, care, and thoughtfulness to your work. I feel incredibly fortunate to have learned from your example and to carry those lessons forward.

To Dr. George Banks, thank you for always donning your reviewer hat to offer insightful and constructive feedback. Your commitment to producing and promoting rigorous, impactful science is inspiring, as is your dedication to mentoring and uplifting students. I am fortunate to have been a beneficiary of your support.

Finally, to my chair, Dr. Scott Tonidandel, I am grateful for your consistent reminders that I am capable of anything when I have belief in myself. I hope you see this dissertation—and the career I build in the years ahead—as a reflection of your constant support and mentorship. I truly hope it is, as you'd say, "not nothing."

In addition to my committee, I would like to extend my deepest gratitude to the UNCC Organizational Science community. While it is impossible to name everyone who has made an impact, please know that each of you has contributed to my journey in ways I will forever cherish.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The study of leadership is undergoing a transformation with calls for an emphasis on studying leader behaviors (Banks et al., 2018; Fischer et al., 2020), leveraging research methodologies beyond self-report (Fischer et al., 2020), and an increased interest in the study of leader emotions (Gooty et al., 2010). Before the affective revolution in the late twentieth century (Barsade et al., 2003), the role of affect and emotions in leadership was largely ignored. Since then, studies on leader emotions have greatly increased (Gooty et al., 2010; Shao, 2024). In the past few decades, this area of research experienced a surge in publications to compensate for prior decades of research overlooking the role of emotions in leadership. Most of this work examines the impact of discrete emotions on leadership, but there is a growing body of literature seeking to understand a greater breadth of leader emotions and their outcomes.

Emotions are commonly understood as brief, but intense, reactions to events or specific stimuli (Gooty et al., 2010; Elfenbein, 2007; Staw & Barsade, 1993). Discrete emotions are central to multiple theoretical models, including leader-member exchange theory (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), affect-as-information theory (Clore et al., 2001), emotions as social information theory (EASI; Van Kleef, 2009) and cognitive appraisal theory (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). The role of emotions in the leadership process is deeply intertwined. Emotions are included in multiple conceptual definitions of leadership styles, including ethical leadership (Banks et al., 2020) and charismatic leadership (Antonakis et al., 2016). Clearly, emotions are central to the process of leadership, and leadership scholars are recommending that

leaders leverage certain emotions to influence their followers (Antonakis et al., 2016; Banks et al., 2020).

Yet a complication comes about because current theorizing and empirical investigations of leader emotions have considerable blind spots. Mainly, leadership theories predominately consider leader emotions to be singular, distinct experiences. The terms *emotions* and *discrete emotions* are used interchangeably in organizational research. It is assumed that leaders experience *and* express singular emotive experiences at a given time point. These theories, definitions, and knowledge of emotions are based on basic or classic theories, which assume that emotions are "natural kinds" or universal experiences with consistent patterns like a fingerprint (Barrett, 2006). This definition assumes that emotional experiences are distinct and that individuals' physiological markers for their emotions are consistent in each episode. This assumption is critical because it influences how we theorize the role of emotions in leadership, the emotions we choose to study in leadership, and the methodological decisions we make in research design, measurement, and data analysis and interpretation.

The assumption that all leader experiences of emotion are discrete is an oversimplification of the human experience of emotion. Counterfactual examples in leadership demonstrate that emotions are not universally discrete, and leaders can experience and express multiple emotions at once (Madera & Smith, 2009; Stollberger et al., 2023). Additionally, a growing body of literature is investigating experiences of emotional complexity (Berrios, 2019; Larson & McGraw, 2014; Lim et al., 2021; Rothman & Melwani, 2017). Emotional complexity is a category of emotional experiences that are not discrete. Specifically, emotional complexity is any emotional

experience that is intraindividually varied, blended, or simultaneous. These three categories of emotional complexity are respectively referred to as emotional differentiation (intraindividual variability in the emotions experienced on any given day), aesthetic emotions (blended emotions such as awe), and emotional interdependence (simultaneous experiences of multiple emotions). The most referenced experience of emotional complexity studied in the organizational and leadership sciences is a subtype of emotional interdependence: emotional ambivalence (Rothman & Melwani, 2017). Emotional ambivalence is the simultaneous experience of two or more positive and negative emotions. Compared to other emotional complexity concepts, emotional ambivalence is the most frequently investigated concept in organizational science, especially leadership, when scholars do not adopt assumptions of discrete emotions.

But when organizational scholars *do* acknowledge this experience of multiple, co-occurring emotions, another weakness arises. Instances of co-occurring emotions labeled "emotional ambivalence" (Larsen & McGraw, 2014) tend to be theorized and operationalized in accordance with Greenspan's (1980) and Koch's (1987) original conceptual definitions. These seminal articles introduced the concept of emotional ambivalence as the experience of conflicting emotions. Said differently, they argue that in simultaneously experiencing a positive and negative emotion, both emotions cannot be "true," thus resulting in internal conflict. In a sense, scholars are once again constraining an emotionally complex experience such as emotional ambivalence into a discrete emotional experience: the feeling of being conflicted.

There is scant evidence to support the universal treatment of emotions as discrete experiences, or the conceptualization of emotional ambivalence as a universally

conflicting experience. The reliance on theories of discrete emotions in leadership poses significant challenges to the advancement of leadership research and the function of emotions in leadership. As a result of these theoretical and methodological practices, extant research on emotions at work primarily explores relationships between singular emotional experiences, either positively or negatively valenced, and outcomes of interest. Thus, without integrating emotional ambivalence and emotional complexity into theories of leader emotions, researchers miss out on additional explanations and understanding of the function and breadth of emotions in leadership.

These theories and results also inform leader training, development, and assessment. Existing literature demonstrates repeated patterns of effects amongst a leader's singular felt emotion and leader-follower behaviors and attitudes (Gooty et al., 2010; Staw & Barsade, 1993). Consequently, leader training only teaches how to identify, regulate, and display singular experiences of emotions. Leader development tools such as automated coaches may recommend that a leader continue displaying anger alone in response to tardy employees, solely on the analysis of the effectiveness of past communications where the leader displayed anger. But this may be short-sighted based on the existing approach. What if the leader had also been displaying compassion, but the data collected only prompted the leader to report a single emotion they expressed to the tardy employee? Future attempts to correct the lateness in their employees using anger alone may be futile or, even worse, harmful. However, the effects of simultaneous positive and negative emotional experiences in leaders remains unexplained and absent from theory.

To address the theoretical and resultant methodological shortcomings within this literature, I will summarize the extant literature on emotional ambivalence in organizational science, focusing on specific patterns in leadership research. This summary will include an overview of key assumptions made in leader emotional ambivalence research. I will outline the implications of these assumptions at each stage of leader emotions: appraisal, experience, expression, and perception. I will then present counterfactuals that allow leadership researchers to better integrate the existing leader emotions and emotional ambivalence literatures with modern theories of emotional ambivalence that move beyond discrete and universal basic emotions. I will conclude with the theoretical and methodological implications of my proposed integrative process of complex leader emotions.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

Complexity in Emotions

Intraindividual complexity in emotions, specifically emotional ambivalence, is mentioned in the organizational science literature (Rothman et al., 2017), but is more prominent in psychology and neuroscience (Berrios, 2019, Hoemann et al., 2017; Larsen & McGraw, 2014). In these areas of research, emotional complexity is defined as "emotions [that] are felt in multiple ways allowing individuals to integrate complex information, producing new verbalizations to communicate genuine feelings" (Berrios, 2019, p. 14). Complexity broadly exists when multiple components have multiple interactions (Chirico & Gaggiolo, 2021). Thus, emotional complexity exists when the multiple components of emotions (i.e., appraisals, situational content, valence content, arousal content, etc.) interact with one another in varied ways. Essentially, it is a category of various emotional experiences that are anything but discrete.

Rather than an isolated concept, emotional complexity is regarded as a family of any emotional experiences or individual differences in emotional experiences that are not singular or discrete. There are three streams of research within emotional complexity: emotional differentiation, aesthetic emotions, and emotional interdependence (Berrios, 2019). The present paper emphasizes emotional ambivalence – a type of emotional interdependence – given its relevance to leadership (Rothman & Melwani, 2017).

Emotional Ambivalence

Emotional ambivalence is specifically defined as the experience of two or more emotions of different valences simultaneously (i.e., mixed emotions; Larsen et al., 2001, Rothman & Melwani, 2017; Rothman et al., 2017). Valence is a defining feature of

conceptualizations of emotional ambivalence and one of the two characteristics of emotions as defined by the circumplex model (Russell, 1980). The circumplex model of emotions emphasizes two distinct dimensions of emotional experience: valence (or positivity) and activation (or arousal), and is a popular framework within the organizational sciences for understanding the role of valence in emotions. Emotions can be positively valenced, which are defined as pleasant experiences for people. Contrarily, negatively-valenced emotions are characterized as unpleasant experiences.

Some authors have argued that emotional ambivalence can be the simultaneous experience of dual intensities of single-valenced emotions (e.g., highly intense anger and slight fear) or dual action tendencies prompted by the appraisal of emotion (e.g., anger triggering fighting tendencies and fear triggering fleeing tendencies; Rothman, 2011; Rothman & Wiesenfeld, 2007). Nevertheless, the majority of definitions and conceptualizations of emotional ambivalence center on the simultaneous experience of two or more emotions with at least one being negatively valenced and one being positively valenced, so the present paper will focus on this definition. Emotional ambivalence is a meaningful concept in the family of emotional complexity as it relates to leadership because emotional ambivalence is commonly experienced in response to complex, nuanced situations that leaders frequently experience. Leadership scholars also theorize that the experience of dual-valenced emotions at one time point promotes cognitive flexibility in leaders, proactivity in followers, and adaptive strategic decision-making (Rothman & Melwani, 2017).

Concepts Related to Emotional Ambivalence

Aesthetic Emotions. Aesthetic emotions are emotions such as awe, wonderstruck, and the experience of feeling moved. Aesthetic emotions are categorized as emotional complexity given its blend of numerous emotions which does not fit into the discrete framework. For example, consider the emotion of awe. Awe is a collective of multiple emotions such as admiration, wonder, and trepidation (Keltner & Haidt, 2003). A leader may experience awe in response to the collective efforts of their team to produce an exemplary work product in a short period of time. Past scholars state that the key difference between aesthetic emotions and emotional interdependence is that aesthetic emotions are ultimately blended and tend to be experienced as one experience (Berrios, 2019; Larson & McGraw, 2014), while emotional interdependence is the experience of multiple simultaneous emotions that are appraised individually rather than as a blended, singular experience.

Meta-emotions. Occasionally, a leader may experience a feeling about their primary emotion. For example, a leader feeling guilty that they are happy one of their team members decided to leave the company is a meta-emotion. Meta-emotion is defined simply as an individual's feelings about their experienced emotion(s) (Berrios, 2019); however, this experience of multiple emotions in short succession of one another may be confused with emotional ambivalence. The key difference is that emotional ambivalence is conceptualized as the simultaneous experience of dual-valenced emotions that are not in response to one another, but rather some external event or stimuli.

Content of Emotions

The complex emotional experiences defined above are often contingent on the content of emotions. For example, emotional ambivalence is predominantly focused on

the idea of valence – whether one of the felt emotions is positive while another felt emotion is negative. Scientists have sought for years to answer questions about the content of emotions. Which emotions are positive or negative? How activating are certain emotions compared to others? What emotional experiences occur in relation to others? What do emotions prompt individuals to do? To understand emotional ambivalence and its distinction from discrete emotions, it is fundamental to understand the content of emotions and how they may interact with one another in varied ways. Although the circumplex model was a dominant framework for decades (Russ, 1980), researchers have expanded beyond the circumplex model to include situational content in addition to arousal content and valence content (Barrett, 2007).

Situational content. Situational content refers to "the meaning of a situation," specifically in relation to the novelty, morality, agency, and goal congruence of the situation as appraised by the individual (Barrett et al., 2007). Situational content is often tied to action tendencies or potential motivated behaviors that follow emotion appraisal. Consider a leader receiving news that their budget is being severely cut. This situation violates the goals of a leader, and the leader may feel angry. The goal incongruence situational content in the leader's experience of anger may result in an action tendency that prompts the leader to correct or contest the violation of their goals. Some actions may include sending a strongly worded email to the higher-up informing them of the leader's discontent or argue for the reversal of the decision. Emotions are frequently categorized or grouped by their situation content (e.g., moral emotions; Greenbaum et al., 2019) and tend to be defined in consideration of situational content in addition to arousal and valence. Mentions of situational content in the emotional ambivalence literature is

limited to conversations surrounding multiple action tendencies presented by multiple emotions (even multiple single-valenced emotions). For example, consider again the leader whose budget was cut. They may simultaneously be angry and sad. Action tendencies associated with anger are expressions of discontent like the email to the decision maker, but sadness is more likely to lead to a withdrawal of oneself.

Arousal content. Also referred to as intensity, arousal is the level of activation an individual experiences. It is defined as "an experience of feeling active, aroused, attentive, or wound-up, versus feeling still, as in quiet, still, or sleepy" (Barrett, et al. 2007, p. 7). The circumplex model associates high arousal with certain emotions (Russ, 1980), but others contest the necessity of high arousal content in certain categories of emotional experiences (Barrett et al., 2007). As mentioned previously, there are some instances where researchers include dual-intensity emotions (e.g., highly intense hope and slight happiness; Rothman, 2011; Rothman & Wiesenfeld, 2007). Nevertheless, much of the literature tends to overlook the role of arousal content in theoretical and empirical investigations of emotional ambivalence and focus on valence.

Valence content. Valence is the final component of emotions and a core aspect in understanding conceptualizations of emotional ambivalence. Traditionally, valence content in emotions is categorized as good/bad or pleasant/unpleasant (Barrett, 2006; Frijda & Scherer, 2010). However, labels of emotions as good or bad and positive or negative may be oversimplifications of emotional experiences (Walle & Dukes, 2023). By grouping emotions as positive or negative, it implies tremendous similarity between emotions of the same valence and tremendous dissimilarity between emotions of different valences (Walle & Dukes, 2023). Emotional ambivalence is commonly defined as the

simultaneous experience of dual-valenced emotions and future sections will explore whether the oversimplification of valence content is appearing in emotional ambivalence scholarship.

Regardless of whether scholars define emotional ambivalence in relation to valence content alone or also consider situational and arousal content, there are countless combinations of simultaneous emotions that are emotionally complex. Understanding this variability in emotional experiences is especially important in studies of leaders and leadership given the level of nuance and complexity in their contexts.

Complexity in Leadership

To understand the necessity of addressing critical assumptions made in leadership research in emotions and emotional ambivalence, it is important to highlight that leadership is inherently nuanced. Leaders face tremendous complexity in their roles. So much so that recent work has focused on the idea of paradoxical leadership, or the management of seemingly conflicted or opposing goals (Lewis, 2000). Leaders carry out the mission of the organization and impose structure and tasks upon their followers to carry out the organizational mission. Concurrently, leaders must consider the individual needs and preferences of their followers. Also referred to as “both/and leadership” (Smith et al., 2016), paradoxical leadership occurs when leader responsibilities are in direct opposition of one another. For example, a leader must manage paid time off requests from their team members during the holiday season with production quotas demanded by the business. In these situations, a leader must compromise opposing responsibilities or make the difficult decision of prioritizing one over another.

Complexity in leadership is not only present when navigating opposing follower needs and organizational needs. Paradox theories only account for a portion of situations experienced by leaders that introduce complexities into day-to-day life. Exogenous shocks to business can also generate circumstances that require a leader to respond efficiently and with consideration for the complexity of any given situation. Recessions, pandemics, and other crises are major shocks that require a response from a leader (Riggio & Newstead, 2023; Wu et al., 2021). Complicated scenarios also occur on a smaller scale such as making strategic decisions about expanding a product range, identifying the most qualified direct report to work on a project, or managing conflict amongst team members. On any given day, a leader is faced with challenges and scenarios with considerable nuance. Organizational scholars pose situational theories surrounding this complexity such as the circadian theory of paradoxical leadership (Volk et al., 2023) and paradoxical leader behaviors (Zhang et al., 2015). Yet a problem arises in the literature when organizational researchers fail to consider the complexity of a leader's intraindividual in response to these events.

Given the acknowledgment of emotional complexity and emotional ambivalence in empirical investigations and evidence of its relevance to the complex social process of leadership, theories of leader emotion must incorporate them accordingly. In failing to account for experiences of mixed feelings or emotional ambivalence, leadership researchers are unable to capture an additional source of intra-individual and interpersonal variance in the study of emotions in leadership. In the following sections, I summarize the dominant assumptions surrounding leadership and emotions and highlight

the concentration on singular, discrete emotions that were uncovered in my systematic literature review.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

Evidence for the dominance of discrete emotions in the study of leadership is well documented given the limited number of studies that explore emotional ambivalence or mixed feelings in organizational science research overall (Rothman et al., 2017). The dominance of discrete emotions and the default to singular emotional experiences in theories and empirical studies of leadership is explored further in future sections; however, to gain additional understanding of other critical assumptions and themes in the studies exploring leader emotional ambivalence, I conducted a systematic literature review.

Sample

Table 1.

Keyword search for systematic literature review

Keyword search terms
"emotional ambivalence" AND "leadership" OR "leader" OR "follower" "followership" OR "team"
"emotional complexity" AND "leadership" OR "leader" OR "follower" "followership" OR "team"
"aesthetic emotions" AND "leadership" OR "leader" OR "follower" OR "followership" "team"

I coded articles across numerous journals to capture the consistent theoretical and methodological practices in investigations of emotional ambivalence in organizational science research. I ran two pilot literature searches in Business Source Complete and

Web of Science to identify peer-reviewed articles and book chapters that contained a mention of emotional ambivalence or emotional complexity in leadership and/or team contexts. I included emotional complexity and aesthetic emotions in my keyword search because they can be mistakenly applied to or include instances of emotional ambivalence. Specific keywords are reported in Table 1. The search in Business Source Complete identified 38 results. Web of Science identified 31 articles including our keywords that were published in management or applied psychology journals. After cross-referencing these lists and eliminating duplicates, I then reviewed each article for relevance to leadership/organizational science and the mention of emotional ambivalence specifically. Out of an initial sample of 42 peer-reviewed articles and 3 book chapters, 14 articles were excluded from the final sample for coding. Ultimately, 28 articles and 3 book chapters investigated emotional ambivalence or emotional complexity in organizational management and leadership (Table 2).

Table 2.

List of articles used to identify assumptions

Authors	**Year**	**Journal**	**Cited by**	**If empirical, EA operationalized as conflict?**	**Context**
Ashforth et al.	2014	Organization Science	483	NA	Leadership (Leader emotion theory)
Ashkanasy et al.	2017	Academy of Management Review	274	NA	Leadership (Leader emotion theory)
Chang & Raver	2020	Journal of Business and Psychology	8	No	General (EA and gender)

Chen et al.	2024	Journal of Business Ethics	0	Yes	Leadership (LMX ambivalence)
Chen & Trevino	2023	Journal of Applied Psychology	23	NA	General (EA and ethical voice theory)
Dasborough & Gregg	2016	[Book Chapter]	1	NA	General (EA and organizational change theory)
Elgayeva	2021	The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science	2	NA	Leadership (Leader emotion theory)
Fatima & Majeed	2022	International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management	15	Yes	Leadership (Follower EA and exploitative leadership)
Fiorito et al.	2023	Journal of Change Management	2	Yes	General (EA and strategy)
Firfiray & Gomez-Mejia	2021	Entrepreneurship Research Journal	17	NA	Leadership (Leader EA and decision making)
Fong	2006	Academy of Management Journal	754	Yes	General (EA and creativity)
Gabriel et al.	2022	Organization Science	17	No	General (EA and self-regulation)
Gaertig et al.	2019	Journal of Experimental Social Psychology	18	No	Leadership (Leader EA and status)
Guarana et al.	2022	Personnel Psychology	6	No	Leadership (Leader EA and

					team performance)
Kelemen et al.	2022	Human Resource Management Review	5	NA	General (EA and OCB)
Lim et al.	2021	Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes	22	Yes	Leadership (Leader EA and follower task engagement)
Liu et al.	2021	Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes	60	No	General (EA and pro-organizational behavior)
Melwani & Rothman	2022	Journal of Applied Psychology	18	NA	General (EA and ambivalent relationships)
Oh & Tong	2023	Cognition and Emotion	4	No	General (antecedents of EA)
Peters et al.	2011	[Book Chapter]	5	NA	General (EA in teams)
Radu-Lefebvre & Randerson	2020	International Small Business Journal	15	NA - qualitative	Leadership (EA and CEO succession)
Raza-Ullah et al.	2020	Scandinavian Journal of Management	28	NA	General (EA and management strategy theory)
Rothman	2011	Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes	87	Yes	General (EA and decision making)
Rothman & Melwani	2017	Academy of Management Review	226	NA	Leadership (Leader emotion theory)

Rothman & Northcraft	2015	Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes	52	Yes	General (EA and negotiation outcomes)
Rothman & Weisenfeld	2007	[Book Chapter]	66	NA	General (EA theory)
Stollberger et al.	2024	Organization Science	8	No	Leadership (Leader EA and follower creativity)
Sui et al.	2023	Information, Technology, & People	1	No	Leadership (Follower EA and mobile connectivity)
Wang et al.	2023	Human Relations	17	Yes	Leadership (Follower EA and role making behaviors)
Wang et al.	2024	Journal of Business and Psychology	4	Yes	General (EA and Creativity)
Xue et al.	2023	Technovation	7	NA - qualitative	Leadership (Leader EA and strategy)
Zhang et al.	2022	Journal of Management Studies	47	Yes	Leadership (Leader EA and follower creativity)

Of the 31 sources, 16 explored emotional ambivalence in leadership specifically. Seven articles empirically investigated leader emotional ambivalence, four articles empirically explored follower emotional ambivalence, and the remaining five wrote theory or review pieces on the role of emotional ambivalence in leadership and management. Although the other 18 articles contained in the final sample are not specific

to leadership, they still provided insights into how organizational scientists are defining and measuring emotional ambivalence. Ultimately, the patterns of findings and assumptions made in the emotional ambivalence literature were comparable between leadership-specific research and the broader organizational science and management literatures. There appeared to be no significant differences between the theoretical and methodological approaches to studying emotional ambivalence outside of expected distinctions. For example, the leadership literature emphasized the study of interindividual impacts of felt or expressed emotional ambivalence. This is a reasonable difference since leadership is inherently a social process with multiple interactive partners. The broader organizational science literature contained more empirical studies of intraindividual impacts of emotional ambivalence (i.e., the impact of emotional ambivalence on individual creativity and performance, Fong et al., 2006; Gabriel et al., 2022). As a result of this lack of substantive differences, they were retained in the final sample. I report my findings below and summarize broad patterns in emotional ambivalence research in organizational science and specify findings that are specific to leadership.

Procedure

To code the literature, I gathered general information about the article as well as the authors' definition of emotional ambivalence, measurement of emotional ambivalence, referent, predictors, and outcomes (Table 3). Although I had a deductive coding plan, I was open to uncovering additional themes and assumptions in the literature on leader emotional ambivalence. For example, I had not intended to record whether the authors position emotional ambivalence as a positive or negative phenomenon in the

process of leadership, but this was included in addition to other themes and assumptions in my findings discussed below.

Table 3.

Systematic literature review coding scheme.

Codes
Is emotional ambivalence written and defined in the article? (Y/N)
- Emotional Ambivalence Definition
Is emotional complexity written and defined in the article? (Y/N)
- Emotional Complexity Definition
Emotional Ambivalence: Felt or Expressed?
- If expressed, what expression (verbal, paraverbal, nonverbal)?
- Emotional Ambivalence: Measurement Source
Emotional Ambivalence:
- Defined as conflict?
- Operationalized as conflict?
Predictor
Moderators/Mediators
Outcomes
- Outcome: Measurement Source

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

The systematic literature review revealed several key themes and patterns, which are detailed in the following sections and in Table 4. This is followed by an analysis of the critical assumptions underlying the literature.

Table 4.

Summary of themes, assumptions, and counterfactuals

Category	Statements
Themes	Theme 1: Extant leadership research emphasizes investigations of emotional expressions versus experiences/appraisals. Theme 2: Scholars hypothesize that outcomes of emotional ambivalence are both positive and negative.
Assumptions	Assumption 1: Leaders appraise and experience singular emotive experiences at a given time point. Assumption 2: Emotional ambivalence is experienced as conflict. Assumption 3: Leaders display singular emotive experiences at a given time point. Assumption 4: Emotional ambivalence is expressed as conflict. Assumption 5: Emotional ambivalence is perceived and labeled as conflict.
Counterfactuals	Counterfactual 1: Leaders appraise and experience one or more emotive experiences at a given time point. Counterfactual 2: Leader emotional ambivalence is appraised and experienced as two or more emotions of multiple valences. Counterfactual 3: Leaders can display (i.e., signal) one or more emotions at a given time point. Counterfactual 4: Emotional ambivalence can be expressed as conflict, a single emotion, or a combination of two or more emotions. Counterfactual 5: Emotional ambivalence is perceived and labeled as conflict or two or more emotions of different valences.

Overarching Themes

Theme 1: Emphasis on Emotional Expression Versus Experience

Out of seven primary papers investigating the impact of leader emotions on follower outcomes, five focused on leader expressions of emotional ambivalence. These studies often are experimental manipulations of leader emotional ambivalence and tests of their effects on outcomes of interest. Experimental manipulations included manipulations of facial expressions by actors in leader speeches or videos, but two studies leveraged vignette studies describing the individual as appearing torn or oscillating between appearing satisfied and dissatisfied (Lim et al., 2021; Rothman, 2011). By focusing on leader expressions of emotional ambivalence, scholars can gain understanding of the social function of leader emotional ambivalence via its impact on follower outcomes. However, the impacts of leader emotional ambivalence on leader outcomes (i.e., task performance, wellbeing, etc.) are also relevant to the leadership process and warrant increased investigations.

Theme 2: Outcomes of Emotional Ambivalence

When researchers investigate displays of emotional ambivalence rather than focusing solely on discrete emotions, a nuanced understanding emerges regarding its impact on leadership and organizational outcomes. Traditionally, research supports that positively-valenced emotions are associated with positive outcomes and negatively-valenced emotions are associated with negative emotions.

Some findings provide evidence that emotional ambivalence serves a positive, productive role at work. Guarana et al. (2019) explored leader subjective ambivalence as the psychological state of conflict. They tested how the emotional conflict of leaders via the experience of dual-valenced emotions prompted information-seeking behaviors by

leaders and team members that led to increased team performance. Similar to studies on emotional ambivalence outside of leadership, they found that leader ambivalence operationalized as a state of psychological conflict had positive outcomes for the team because it encouraged leaders and team members to gain information in a complex performance situation.

Other studies demonstrated the performance hindrances associated with leader ambivalence. Lim and colleagues (2021) explored how supervisor emotional ambivalence relates to task engagement. They found that emotional ambivalence was highly related to supervisor unpredictability and negatively related to follower task engagement, demonstrating that emotional ambivalence does not always result in positive outcomes. Rothman and Northcraft (2015) found that emotional ambivalence can elicit negative reactions or responses in negotiations because the emotionally ambivalent negotiator can appear conflicted or submissive about their position. Compared to emotional signals of singular emotional experiences such as anger and happiness, emotional ambivalence was shown to elicit negative reactions from the negotiation partner and reduce the likelihood of an agreement. Similarly, Rothman (2011) found evidence of statistically significant relationships between expressed emotional ambivalence in negotiations and perceived submissiveness and ability for the negotiation partner to dominate. The findings in these studies frame emotional ambivalence as a weakness, rather than a strength.

Overall, the discussion of whether emotional ambivalence leads to positive or negative outcomes in leadership and organizational contexts is nuanced. The primary studies included in this sample provide evidentiary support of the benefits and consequences of emotional ambivalence. Depending on the context, goals, and other

situational factors, emotional ambivalence in leadership may be positive, negative, or both (Rothman & Melwani, 2017).

Assumptions and Counterfactuals

In addition to these two overarching themes, there were persistent assumptions made that restrict current theorizing on leader emotional ambivalence. To best present key assumptions identified in the literature, the following sections are organized according to an event-based approach to emotions: appraisal, experience, expression, and perception. There is no universal theory of leader emotions, nor is there a universal theory of emotions broadly. Nevertheless, there are dominant perspectives in the appraisal/experience, expression, and perception of emotions that are frequently applied to leadership research (see Figure 1). An understanding of these dominant perspectives and corresponding assumptions provides insight into how leaders' emotional ambivalence has been largely ignored in the past few decades despite the affective revolution (Barsade et al., 2003). Each section (appraisal/experience, expression, and perception) begins with a summary of its role in the study of leadership. Then, the assumptions in existing leadership theory and research are presented with counterfactuals stating alternative explanations of the function of emotional ambivalence in theories of leader emotion.

Appraisal

A central question in research on emotions for many decades was the temporal precedence of events, emotions, and behaviors (Ashkanasy & Dorris, 2017). Is a leader angry because they are yelling at an insubordinate employee or is the leader yelling because they are angry at said employee? Debate surrounding the experience and

appraisal of emotions went on for decades with multiple theories coming about to help explain the experience of emotions in all aspects of life, but some theories were empirically tested more than others in understanding leader emotions specifically. How do leaders experience and appraise emotions? What events elicit certain emotions in leaders? The following section defines affective events theory, the law of situated meaning, cognitive appraisal theory, and the classic view of emotions. Then the assumptions in appraisal theories of leader emotions are discussed and contrary evidence is presented, based on existing work on emotional complexity and emotional ambivalence.

Affective events theory ("AET"; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) fundamentally propelled how organizational scholars conceptualized and prioritized the study of affective experiences at work. The theory posits that individuals have affective experiences, such as emotion, in response to work events and successive outcomes come about as a result of these affective experiences. This theory has been dubbed a "macro-structure" of affective experiences at work since it is not specific to emotion, but also mood and trait affect (Williams et al., 2023). Nevertheless, it has been applied to studies of leader emotion (Cropanzano et al., 2017) and is relevant for understanding the existing organizational theory of emotion appraisal. The law of situated meaning presents a similar premise to AET stating, "emotions arise in response to the meaning structures of given situations; different emotions arise in response to different meaning structures" (Frijda, 1988). Importantly, Frijda (1988) specifies that the emotion that arises from an event depends on how important and relevant an individual appraises or assesses that

event to be to them. This additional appraisal theory of emotion once again posits that emotions are triggered by an individual's appraisal of some event.

The most comprehensive appraisal theory commonly cited in leadership studies of emotion is cognitive appraisal theory. Cognitive appraisal theory posits the same idea as AET and the law of situated meaning: emotions arise from leaders' evaluations or appraisals of events or situations in their environment and the emotion is directly triggered by the appraisal of the event rather than the event itself. Cognitive appraisal theory differs in its emphasis on the process of appraisal. It involves two appraisal stages: primary and secondary. During primary appraisal, leaders assess the relevance of the situation to themselves, determining whether it is positive, negative, or irrelevant. Subsequently, secondary appraisal involves evaluating one's ability to manage the situation, considering factors such as perceived control, available resources, and potential coping strategies.

Consider the example of a leader managing a project team to develop new software for a client. They may view meeting the deadline to create the new software as an opportunity for improving efficiency and productivity within the team. Alternatively, they might see it as a daunting task that could disrupt other work assignments and require significant time and effort to complete. Following the initial perception, the leader may evaluate the situation further. They might assess their skills and resources along with the potential consequences of the software launch. They may consider factors such as team members' competence, the availability of resources, and the support from higher management.

The popular appraisal theories above ultimately inform empirical studies of leader emotions, as well as basic definitions of discrete emotions. For example, consider moral emotions. Moral emotions are a family of emotions that concern how individuals prosocially interact with others and contribute to the social group or society broadly (Haidt, 2003; Greenbaum et al., 2019). One example of a moral emotion is anger. Anger is defined as "feelings of indignation towards those who violated moral standards, along with desires to redress the wrongdoing" (Greenbaum et al., 2019, p. 96). Studies of leader anger as a moral or righteous emotion explore how leader anger impacts individual and follower outcomes. For example, Shen and colleagues (2020) estimated the relationship between growth mindset and a leader's anger toward their past situations where they exhibited abusive supervisory behaviors. Participants in the study could also respond the extent to which they felt sad or happy, but there was no opportunity to report experiences of mixed feelings.

Each appraisal theory and consequential empirical study assumes that the appraisal of emotion is the appraisal of *one* emotion. In their definitions, discrete emotions have distinct definitions of precursory events that lead to said emotions. For example, anger is found to be the emotive response to the violation of one's goals or desires. Excitement is said to be the response to a challenge or novel situation. In previous appraisal theories of leader emotions, the leader assesses the situation and their bodily response to the situation and ascribes one of these distinct emotions to their experience. This is in accordance with the classic view of emotion, which states that each emotion has its own distinct characteristics or "essence" (Barrett 2017). The essence of an emotion includes physiological and psychological responses by the individual in

response to a set of circumstances or events. No caveats or mentions are made of the emotional complexity concepts, including emotional ambivalence. This is particularly concerning for leadership research. A leader is responsible for guiding decision-making, creating strategic plans, building relationships amongst followers, and generally ensuring that tasks get completed to make advancements toward a common goal (Yukl et al., 2002; Yukl, 2012). The leader's emotions are impactful to each of these categories of behavior and also can impact follower emotions and outcomes (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Koning & Van Kleef, 2015; Van Knippenberg & Van Kleef, 2016; Gooty et al., 2010). The seminal theory pieces cited above assume that emotions are discrete or distinct and only occur one at a time in response to some event. This oversight represents the first assumption plaguing theories of leader emotion.

Assumption 1: Leaders appraise and experience singular emotive experiences at a given time point.

There is some evidence of the discriminant validity of emotional experiences (Watson et al., 1988; Watson & Clark, 1991). This could largely be driven by how self-report measures of emotion are written. Self-report measures such as PANAS (Watson et al., 1988) prompt individuals to identify the emotion they are currently feeling (sometimes merely asking for the valence – positive, negative, or neutral) and then the intensity or level of arousal they are experiencing of that emotion. However, these self-report measures all assume that individuals experience one distinct emotion at any point in time, and often disregard the possibility of experiencing multiple emotions simultaneously. Consider a newly promoted leader conducting their first meeting. They may have heightened arousal and a certain amount of worry about their performance.

Simultaneously, the leader may feel excitement or happiness to have the responsibility of facilitating the meeting conversation. The dominant self-report measures utilized in current research would only allow individuals to report one emotion, which would not capture all that a leader is feeling when leading a meeting for the first time. These measures may also prime a leader to only appraise a single emotion that is most salient or activating for them rather than consider the breadth of emotions they are feeling.

The theory of constructed emotion, unlike the classic view of emotion, does not specify or suggest that emotions are distinct, follow a singular physiological or psychological pattern, or occur independently from other emotions. A number of studies in neuroscience provide evidence that a single collection of neurons or physiological patterns does not consistently represent a discrete emotion (Barrett, 2006; Barrett, 2017; Lindquist et al., 2013). Consider the example of an individual in a work meeting whose face begins to flush, their heart rate increases, and they feel hot all over. The individual's brain compares this set of factors to past experiences where they felt similarly. This pattern of physiological experiences may be associated with numerous emotions such as anxiety, embarrassment, or fear during a meeting, but individuals psychologically construct meaning around this experience like an internal prediction model. The individual in this meeting might ultimately predict or label the experience as anger based on other appraisals of their circumstances. Also known as the theory of constructed emotion, this model and process of emotion inherently involves an intraindividual application of a label to this emotional experience (Barrett, 2017). These perspectives are often pitted against one another (Barrett et al., 2017), rather than integrated into an all-encompassing process of leader emotion.

The theory of constructed emotion denounces the distinct biological, physiological, and psychological fingerprint of emotion that is posited by the classic view of emotion, and this denouncement is supported by empirical data. There is currently no evidence that individuals have consistent patterns of skin conductance, heart rate, and facial expressions for discrete emotional experiences (Barrett & Westlin, 2021). Recent work in neuroscience is testing how emotions can physiologically occur simultaneously in response to a target or event (Vaccaro, et al., 2020). An example of simultaneous emotional experiences is bittersweet. Bittersweet is an emotion that has been conceptually defined and operationalized as a single emotion but is an emotionally ambivalent experience. It involves a simultaneous experience of feeling bitterness or sadness about a situation but also sweetness or fondness. One such example is when an employee's peer and friend on their team announces a promotion to work in a different department. The employee may feel bitterness over the fact that they will no longer work with their friend and that they may be left behind on the team. Simultaneously and in response to the same event, this employee may feel sweetness or fondness for the experiences they did have as teammates or happiness that their friend is getting a deserved promotion. This feeling of bittersweet is not discrete but instead involves having two emotional truths at the same time.

Past research induced and measured the experience of multiple emotions at a single time point. Larsen et al. (2001) showed clips from a film and participants reported discrete experiences of happiness and sadness as well as simultaneous experiences of happiness and sadness. Oceja and Carrera (2007) surveyed students after an exam and

found reports of multiple emotions. When allowed to report more than one emotion, there is evidence of emotional ambivalence in response to appraisals of complex situations.

Counterfactual 1: Leaders appraise and experience one or more emotive experiences at a given time point.

How leaders appraise and experience emotional ambivalence is significant to our understanding of the leadership process. Extant studies of emotional ambivalence and leadership explored the intraindividual benefits of emotional ambivalence in leadership (Guarana et al., 2019). They assert that emotional ambivalence is a result of situations that individuals appraise as complex or changing. By appraising situations as complex and reacting to said situational complexity with emotional ambivalence, these studies hypothesize that the ambivalent reaction leads to more positive outcomes as compared to when individuals do not recognize and react to complexity. Early studies such as Fong (2006) and Rees et al. (2013) explored the cognitive outcomes of emotional ambivalence. Fong (2006) found that emotional ambivalence fosters greater creativity in employees, and Rees et al. (2013) found that experiences of emotional ambivalence improve judgment accuracy or an individual's ability to make accurate projections or decisions about future events. For job seekers, emotional ambivalence can be self-regulatory and increase job-seeking behaviors and cognitive strategies surrounding the search for a new job (Gabriel et al., 2022).

The bulk of these investigations hypothesize anticipated outcomes of emotional ambivalence based on their definitions. And modern definitions of emotional ambivalence are based on Greenspan’s (1980) and Koch’s (1987) original conceptualizations. Greenspan (1980) described dual-valenced emotional experiences as

"contrary" to one another and Koch (1987) asserted that two emotions cannot both be "true" simultaneously. Greenspan (1980) and Koch's (1987) arguments that emotions of different valences are inherently in competition with one another and generate an internal tension that individuals seek to resolve is not a necessary condition of emotionally ambivalent experiences. Additionally, the argument that individuals cannot simultaneously experience multiple emotions of varying components (i.e., valence, arousal, and situational content) is based in the discrete emotion paradigm whereas humans have distinctive singular experiences. Under these assumptions, an individual experiencing emotional ambivalence would have one of the emotions "win out" over the others rather than there being a blended, mixed, or harmonious experience of multiple emotions at once. These seminal definitions spurred consequent empirical studies that operationalized and conceptualized emotional ambivalence as an emotionally conflicting experience (Rothman, 2011; Guarana et al., 2019). Articles contained in the systematic literature review varied in their definitions of emotional ambivalence (Table 5). Overall, definitions of emotional ambivalence emphasize the experience of simultaneous mixed feelings, specifically multiple feelings that are positive and negative valences. However, within these definitions the majority contain some mention of simultaneous emotions being conflicting or generating internal tension.

Table 5.

Illustrative examples of definitions of emotional ambivalence

Definitions	**Conflict?**
"simultaneously positive and negative orientations toward an object" (Ashforth et al., 2014, p. 1454)	No

“psychological state of conflict associated with holding both positive and negative thoughts and feelings at the same time about the same object, person, or issue” (Guarana et al., 2019, p. 2)	Yes
“EA occurs when individuals experience conflicting emotions simultaneously, triggered by events or stimuli that involve uncertainty” (Sui et al., 2023)	Yes
"conflicting, mixed and complex emotional state" (Wang et al., 2023, p. 932)	Yes
“The emotional state is related to the mix of positive and negative emotions experienced and the degree of tornness perceived between conflicting impulses” (Xue et al., 2023, p. 4)	Yes
"the expression of tension and conflict which results from the simultaneous experience of two emotional states that primarily differ in valence" (Rothman, 2011, p. 66)	Yes
"simultaneous experience of two conflicting emotional states" (Rothman & Northcraft, 2015, p. 68)	Yes
“Previous research has alternatively examined emotional complexity as expressed emotional ambivalence (the expression of tension and conflict; Rothman 2011, Rothman and Northcraft 2015)" (Stollberger et al., 2024, p. 1016)	Yes
“a blend of simultaneously positive and negative emotions” (Raza-Ullah et al., 2020, p. 2)	No
“the simultaneous experience of positive and negative emotions” (Fong et al., 2006, p. 1017)	
“experiencing similarly high levels of positive and negative affect that are activated in nature during a relevant behavioral episode” (Gabriel et al., 2022, p. 2478)	No
“Experiencing mixed, inconsistent emotions at an individual level” (Peters et al., 2011, p. 176)	No
“the conflict and tension arising from the simultaneous experience of two emotional states that primarily differ in valence” (Lim et al., 2021, p. 139)	Yes
“The simultaneous experience of positive and negative emotions” (Rothman & Melwani, 2017)	No

Consequently, operationalizations of emotional ambivalence in leadership and organizational research consistently view emotional ambivalence as a conflicting experience (Table 6). Two-thirds of the papers included in the sample defined emotional ambivalence as a conflicting experience and 70% of the studies operationalized or measured experiences of emotional ambivalence as emotional conflict.

Table 6.

Illustrative examples of operationalizations of experienced emotional ambivalence as conflict

Items	**Source**
1. How conflicted in emotions do you feel? 2. Do you have mixed emotions? 3. How much emotional indecisiveness do you feel?	Priester & Petty (1996)
To what extent does your supervisor express/display the following feelings at work. 1. Ambivalence 2. Torn 3. Conflicted 4. Mixed Feelings	Lim et al. (2021) adapted from Priester & Petty (1996)
1. How conflicted in emotions do you feel towards your work? 2. Do you have mixed emotions towards your work? 3. How much emotional indecisiveness do you feel towards your work?	Wang et al. (2024) adapted from Priester & Petty (1996)
1. How conflicted in emotions do you feel? 2. Do you have mixed emotions? 3. How much emotional indecisiveness do you feel? 4. How extensively do you feel subjective ambivalence?	Zhang et al. (2022) adapted from Priester & Petty (1996)
1. I feel both positive and negative emotions simultaneously. 2. I feel torn between positive and negative emotions.	Raza-Ullah (2018)

3. My head and heart seem to be in disagreement on
the issue of cooperating and competing simultaneously.

To what extent do you feel… Rothman (2011)
1. ambivalent
2. torn
3. conflicted

Assumption 2: Emotional ambivalence is experienced as conflict.

Currently, there is limited empirical work to support that leaders always report emotional ambivalence as a conflicting experience. The studies cited in support of mixed emotions or emotional ambivalence as conflict lack robustness in their empirical tests. Aaker and colleagues (2008) asked ninety students to report the degree to which they felt conflicted and the degree to which they felt mixed emotions in response to receiving an exam grade. The correlation between these items was strong ($r = 0.90$), but this relationship was only tested in this specific situation with a small sample of young adults. The authors even acknowledge in their interpretation of their findings that "not all people feel conflicted when experiencing mixed emotions" (Aaker et al., 2008, p. 269). Aaker and colleagues (2008) note that individual difference variables and differences in situations may make feelings of conflict more or less likely.

The second primary study commonly cited as evidence of the operationalization of emotional ambivalence as conflict is Oceja and Carrera (2009). The main purpose of the study was to explore whether dual-valenced emotions occur simultaneously or in successive order, but the study also tested the relationship between feelings of tension (i.e., conflict) and simultaneous mixed feelings. Results showed that participants who reported simultaneous mixed emotions responded with higher ratings of tension as

compared to participants who reported singular emotional experiences. Nevertheless, tension does not equate to conflict. Feelings of conflict arise when two emotions cannot both be true (Koch, 1987), but tension simply represents emotional strain. It is reasonable that individuals would report higher levels of emotional strain when in a context where multiple mixed emotions are being experienced. The physical and cognitive load of this is likely to require greater energy and generate increased demand on one's mind and body as compared to the experience of a single emotion. This does not, however, equate to feelings of conflict.

Therefore, evidence to support the universal treatment of mixed emotions (i.e., emotional ambivalence) as conflicting emotions is limited. There are, however, examples of mixed or dual-valenced in support of the contrary: that emotional ambivalence does not always feel conflicting. In an attempt to distinguish emotional ambivalence from similar concepts, researchers have reported empirical evidence of the discriminant validity between conflict and emotional ambivalence. Zhang et al. (2022) compared one-factor and two-factor models with emotional ambivalence and internal conflict and using these results, concluded that emotional ambivalence was distinct from internal conflict. This is a contradiction to how researchers tend to define and operationalize emotional ambivalence.

Additionally, aesthetic emotions are not labeled as emotionally ambivalent, likely due to the absence of a mention of emotional conflict in their definitions. They also tend to be reserved to responses to nature or art. Some examples of aesthetic emotions are awe or being-moved. Awe is "a mixture of surprise, pleasure, elation, and astonishment" (Berrios, 2019, p. 3) and includes a certain amount of fear about the vastness or power of

a thing (Keltner & Haidt, 2003). The feeling of being-moved is the combined emotions of sadness and joy (Menninghaus et al., 2015). Similarly, bittersweet is a reflective state of sadness and joy that is often compared to nostalgia (Vaccaro et al., 2020).

Experiences of aesthetic emotions are quite relevant to the study of leadership. One of the core components of leadership is the ability to inspire and mobilize action in followers. This is most frequently mentioned in ethical leadership and charismatic leadership. Bono and Ilies (2006) examined the phenomenon known as the "awestruck-effect" within charismatic leadership, revealing that followers often exhibited subdued emotions in the presence of a charismatic leader, owing to their profound admiration and reverence for the leader. Follower awe in response to leader behavior is theorized in charismatic leadership (Sy et al., 2018) and ethical leadership (Banks et al., 2020). Definitionally, these emotional experiences are emotionally ambivalent and yet there is little mention of emotional conflict in discussions and investigations of these emotions. Is there a meaningful difference between leader emotional ambivalence and aesthetic emotions that requires one to be labeled as conflicting and the other not? At present, there is insufficient evidence to support this distinction.

Arguing that emotional ambivalence is not a universally conflicting experience does not mean that experiences of emotional ambivalence are not challenging for leaders. Paradoxical situations often are tremendously challenging and require a variety of leader behaviors. Leaders must consider all sides of a situation, balance control and autonomy, and be flexible in managing individual differences in follower needs (Zhang et al., 2015). In developing a theory of paradoxical leader behavior (PLB), Zhang and colleagues (2015) described effective PLBs as a "yin-yang philosophy." Smith and colleagues

(2016) held a similar philosophy in their description of "both-and" leadership. Paradoxical leadership scholars theorize that leaders can hold multiple truths or realities in conflicting situations and conflicting goals. Theories of leader emotion should also consider that leaders can appraise and experience multiple emotional truths in conflicting situations.

Only 30% of studies included in the sample operationalized emotional ambivalence as an emotional experience that was not conflicting (Table 7). Stollberger and colleagues (2024) captured emotional transitions from one emotion to another emotion of the opposite valence (i.e., joy to aggravation), but claimed they were measuring the overarching concept of emotional complexity, not emotional ambivalence specifically. In one of their studies, Liu et al. (2021) asked participants to report the extent to which they were feeling a mix of two specific emotions (i.e., pride and guilt) that they hypothesized were theoretically related to their outcome of interest (i.e., work-to-life conflict).

Table 7.

Illustrative examples of operationalizations of experienced emotional ambivalence as simultaneous emotions

Items	**Source**
To what extent did the emotional expressions of the leader in the live stream appear to change from… 1. happy to irritated 2. happy to aggravated 3. joyful to angry 4. joyful to aggravated 5. irritated to happy 6. aggravated to happy 7. angry to joyful 8. aggravated to joyful	Stollberger et al. (2024)

Please indicate whether the following emotions describe how you felt during the experience you described. Gratitude-Guilt 1. Grateful and guilty at the same time 2. Grateful and remorseful 3. Grateful and apologetic at the same time Gratitude-Anger 1. Grateful and angry at the same time 2. Grateful and annoyed at the same time 3. Grateful and frustrated at the same time Gratitude-Disappointment 1. Grateful and disappointed at the same time 2. Grateful and displeased at the same time 3. Grateful and dissatisfied at the same time Mixed valence 1. A combination of positive and negative emotions at the same time 2. A mixture of positive and negative emotions at the same time 3. Simultaneous positive and negative emotions at the same time	Oh & Tong (2023)
To what extent do you feel a mix of pride and guilt?	Liu et al. (2021)

These operationalizations of emotional ambivalence as a non-conflicting emotional experience considered the ways in which Likert-type data could be aggregated to represent the extent to which someone was emotionally ambivalent. For example, in another study by Liu et al. (2021) the authors asked participants to report the extent to which they felt pride and the extent to which they felt guilt. The scores were then aggregated using this formula where G represents guilt and P represents pride: (G + P)/2 - (P - G). Higher scores would indicate greater similarity in the experience of the two emotions and lower scores would represent greater ambivalence.

The conceptualization and operationalization of emotional ambivalence solely as internal emotional conflict induces limitations to theorizing about emotional ambivalence as well as measuring leader emotional ambivalence. The methodological implications of these assumptions are highlighted in future sections but consider the following theoretical alternatives to the appraisal and experience of leader emotions when mixed feelings are not considered conflicting.

First, certain combinations of leader emotions may not be as distressing or discomforting as others. Imagine a scenario where emotional ambivalence does not result in internal conflict, but rather represents the nuance and complexity of the organizational situation. Consider the example of a follower catching a mistake made by a leader. The leader may experience shame or embarrassment for having mishandled their responsibilities while also experiencing gratitude towards the follower for being so dependable and diligent as to catch the mistake. This combination of emotions is not in conflict with one another. They simply represent how a singular event can prompt simultaneous, multi-valenced emotions that may evoke different displays of emotion or action tendencies prompted by these emotions.

Second, consider key differences in the various emotions that would make them less "mixed." Emotional ambivalence is traditionally defined solely in terms of valence and valence is influenced by factors such as morality, goal congruence, and individual level of control (Shuman et al., 2013). The absence or reduction of these characteristics in the appraisal of events generates emotions that are negatively valenced. The more pleasant, goal congruent, and moral an event is, the more likely to elicit a positively-valenced feeling. This exists on a spectrum though. Feelings of surprise are less extreme

in their positive valence as compared to feelings of joy. Given this variation, perhaps certain combinations of emotions are more conflicting than others if the paired or mixed feelings are more contrary in their pleasantness, morality, goal congruence, and individual level of control (i.e., valence and situational content).

Another characteristic beyond valence that is rarely considered in the emotional ambivalence literature is intensity or arousal. Extant work on the intensity of emotional experiences and their consequences for appraisal and regulatory processes can provide insight into how mixed emotions or emotional ambivalence may be experienced by leaders when they are not appraised as conflicting. Intense emotions or more activating emotions generate a greater motivation to act or regulate (Frijda, 1986; Smith & Pope, 1992; Lazarus, 1991). It is reasonable to presume that emotional ambivalence would be categorized as an activating emotional experience given that a) complex situations tend to elicit emotional ambivalence and b) an individual is experiencing two or more emotions at a given time point. In circumstances where leaders are experiencing mixed feelings, perhaps they are not appraised as emotionally conflicting events if one emotion is felt more intensely than another. Or, perhaps when leaders feel mixed feelings the more intense emotion is about tempering the intensity of another (i.e., gratitude lessening the feeling of anger).

Given that there is some evidence of the relationship between feelings of conflict and emotional ambivalence (Aaker et al., 2008), how can these ideas be consolidated? Aaker and colleagues (2008) defined feelings of conflict as a meta-emotion rather than the core emotion experience itself. Meta-emotions are an individual's feelings about their feelings (Berrios, 2019). When studies ask participants to respond with their felt emotions

and the degree to which they feel conflicted, they are actually measuring an individual's emotional experience and the individual's feelings about that emotional experience. The meta-emotion may serve a functional purpose in experiencing and expressing emotions in leadership, but consistently assuming that emotional ambivalence is a conflicting experience predetermines their function in the process of leadership. If researchers only define and operationalize emotional ambivalence as emotional conflict, they misidentify the source and process of emotional complexity in explaining key outcomes of leadership. It may also generate false null results in scenarios where there is an absence of the meta-emotion, conflict, in cases of leader emotional ambivalence.

Counterfactual 2: Leader emotional ambivalence is appraised and experienced as two or more emotions of multiple valences.

Expression

In the process of leadership, the expression of leader emotion is almost as important as the appraisal and experience of the emotions themselves. Leadership is a social process of influencing others (Pffefer, 1977), and expressed emotions serve as a vehicle for communicating information to followers about a leader's cognitive beliefs, relational quality with followers, and, of course, their feelings about a situation.

The social functionalist theory of emotions proposes that emotions serve specific social functions, shaping interpersonal relationships (Niedenthal & Brauer, 2012). In a leadership context, emotions play a crucial role in establishing rapport, trust, and cooperation between leaders and followers. Leaders who express empathy, understanding, and compassion can foster supportive and inclusive team norms, thereby increasing the quality of their relationship with their followers. Emotions also function as

communicative signals within a group, conveying information about individual needs, preferences, and attitudes. Effective leaders recognize the social functions of emotions and leverage them to build cohesive teams, manage conflicts, and inspire collective action toward shared goals.

While social functionalist theory specifies the social contributions of communicating emotions, signaling theory offers an explanation for how emotions and other information are communicated. Signaling theory suggests that a signaler (e.g., leader) engages in behaviors or signals that communicate a message or information to the receiver (e.g., follower; Spence, 1973; Connelly, et al., 2011). Emotions are identified as signals in multiple conceptual definitions of leadership styles, including ethical leadership and charismatic leadership. Banks et al. (2020) define ethical leadership as: "signaling behavior by the leader…targeted at stakeholders...comprising the enactment of prosocial values combined with expression of moral emotions" (p. 17). Charismatic leadership is defined as "values-based, symbolic, and emotion-laden leader signaling" (Antonakis et al., 2016, p. 304). Leadership scholars are recommending that leaders signal or communicate certain emotions to influence their followers (Antonakis et al., 2016; Banks et al., 2020).

Each of these theories highlights how displays and expressions of emotion are communicated to followers and the social information they offer to followers tends to suggest that only one emotion is expressed by a leader at a given time point. This is the third assumption made in the leadership and emotion literature.

Assumption 3: Leaders display singular emotive experiences at a given time point.

Basic or discrete emotions under the classic view of emotions specify that they can be distinguished from one another via facial, vocal, and physiological responses of the individual (Ekman & Cordaro, 2011). However, similar to experiences of emotion, expressions of emotion are not singular. Facial expressions are only one of the many human displays of emotion (Barrett, 2017). Solely classifying emotions through facial data (i.e., photos or videos) or verbal speech of a leader increases error in measurement and leaves a source of variance in human emotions unexplained or unidentified (Barrett, et al., 2019). The failure to include a significant variable or source of variance in our statistical models leads to endogeneity bias and generates imprecise findings (Antonakis, et al., 2010; Banks, et al., 2018). Currently, researchers overlook the multiple channels by which leaders can signal multiple emotions at a given time point.

Counterfactual 3: Leaders can display (i.e., signal) one or more emotions at a given time point.

A problem arises in considering that studies of displays of emotional ambivalence have a similar blind spot as studies investigating appraisals and experiences of emotional ambivalence. The studies contained in this systematic review operationalized the expression of emotional ambivalence as conflict despite scant evidence to support the claim that emotional ambivalence is universally expressed as conflict.

As a consequence of the definitions and conceptualizations of Greenspan (1980) and Koch (1987), researchers frequently assume that displays of emotional ambivalence signal internal conflict or tension (Guarana et al., 2019; Rothman & Northcraft, 2015; Rothman, 2011). Ten studies that investigated expressions of emotional ambivalence operationalized their measures or manipulations of emotional ambivalence as expressions

of conflict or tension. Table 8 reports examples of the nonverbal and verbal behaviors that were manipulated or reported as expressions of emotional ambivalence in papers that operationalized expressions of emotional ambivalence as conflict. In Rothman and Northcraft (2015), an actor displaying emotional ambivalence was asked to repeatedly furrow and unfurrow their brows, move their eyes about the room, and occasionally make eye contact with the study participant. In a separate vignette study, the emotionally ambivalent individual in the written study "seems…rather torn, conflicted, and ambivalent about it." (p. 39, Rothman, 2008). In Rothman (2011), the actor "used fidgeting of the hands in front of the body, tilting of the head back and forth, and shoulder shrugs" (p. 70). There were no studies that operationalized emotional ambivalence as compounded emotional expressions (i.e., multiple verbal or nonverbal expressions that signaled different emotions at one time point).

Table 8.

Examples of experimental manipulations of expressions or signals of emotional ambivalence.

Experimental Manipulations of Expressions or Signals	**Source**
Brow raising and lowering	Rothman (2011); Lim et al. (2021)
Tilting head back and forth	Rothman (2011); Lim et al. (2021)
Shifting gaze (alternating between eye contact, looking downward, and looking off into space)	Rothman (2011); Lim et al. (2021)
Shrugged shoulders	Lim et al. (2021)

These displays or signals of ambivalence were selected based on single studies on ambivalence in neuroscience (Larson et al., 2003), but no primary study in leadership has explored the expression of mixed feelings as anything other than conflict.

Assumption 4: Emotional ambivalence is expressed as conflict.

Work on facial expressions in emotion is riddled with conjecture and debate on the validity of these findings (Barrett et al., 2019; Le Mau et al., 2021). Currently, there are no natural field studies or self-report data that conclusively support that emotional ambivalence is signaled as conflict. In fact, it is conceptually unclear and weakly empirically supported how the simultaneous experience of positive and negative emotions would universally be a conflicting experience as explained in the sections above. Recent advancements in the measurement of emotion using artificial intelligence do not support that any emotional experience has a universal expression (Barrett, 2006; Barrett, 2020, Le Mau et al., 2021).

There is insufficient theoretical and empirical evidence to universally define leader expressions of emotional ambivalence as conflict. Additionally, it is an overly simplistic view of the expression of leader emotion broadly, let alone in the expression of emotional ambivalence alone that signals of emotion are clear and singular. There is consistent evidence that signals and expressions of leader emotion come from a variety of sources including verbal, paraverbal, and nonverbal signals. Verbal signals include any spoken or written communication from leaders. This includes but is not limited to text messages, emails, speeches, meeting dialogue, or passing discussions in a workplace hallway or office. When verbal signals are written language, only the meaning of the words can convey emotion-laden signals. Oral or spoken words, however, are also

partnered with paraverbal information about the vocal intonation of words (i.e., pitch, tone, and cadence of the leader's voice). Nonverbal signals of emotion are body language, facial expressions, and physiological symptoms such as sweating and blushing.

In addition to considering the many kinds of signals of leader expressions of emotional ambivalence, it is important to consider that individuals can regulate their emotions and choose to display certain emotions over others. Even if a leader is experiencing dual-valenced emotions, they may consciously choose to only display a single emotion. A leader managing a team through a crisis might experience fear and hope for the future of their team and organization, but to rally their followers, increase moral, and prevent panic, they might consciously choose to only signal their feelings of hope.

When leaders feel conflicted about their experience of emotional ambivalence, they may also display feelings of conflict. However, this expression is a display of a meta-emotion, not the primary emotional experience of emotional ambivalence. This is an important distinction that has not previously been made in extent models and theories of leader emotional ambivalence as indicated in Figure 1.

Counterfactual 4: Emotional ambivalence can be expressed as conflict, a single emotion, or a combination of two or more emotions.

Perception

Emotional perception is how individuals interpret the emotional signals expressed by social partners like leaders and followers. One example is signaling theory. Signaling theory states that leaders engage in behaviors (i.e., facial expressions, verbal language, tone) that signal to followers what emotion they are feeling. Emotions as social

information theory (EASI) explains that as lower-status actors, followers pay increased attention to the emotion signals of their leaders and use that information to inform their own emotion displays and experiences (Tse et al., 2018).

Affect-as-information theory posits that individuals use their emotions as a source of information when making judgments or decisions (Clore et al., 2001). In the context of leadership, this theory suggests that leaders and followers alike may rely on their emotional experiences to evaluate situations, people, and decisions. Leaders may utilize affective cues to assess the mood or morale of their team, interpreting emotions as indicators of satisfaction, motivation, or potential conflicts within the group dynamic. Similarly, followers may use their emotional responses to gauge the effectiveness of a leader's communication, guidance, or decisions. For instance, if a leader communicates with enthusiasm and positivity, followers may interpret this affective tone as a signal of confidence or endorsement for certain actions or initiatives.

Considering differences in experienced emotional ambivalence and perceptions or evaluations of emotional ambivalence is crucial in understanding leadership dynamics. It is unreasonable to assume that members of an interpersonal exchange accurately identify signals of emotional ambivalence, despite evidence in the broader emotions literature that demonstrates frequent disagreements between displays and perceptions of emotions (Elfenbein et al., 2010; Elfenbein & Eisenkraft, 2010). Elfenbein & Eisenkraft's (2010) meta-analysis, although outside the context of leadership, illustrates this display-perception disagreement. The information asymmetry in social exchanges hinders the accuracy of self-other judgments, as followers are not privy to the physiological and affective information that leaders have regarding their emotional experience. Emotional

expressions are variable and lack universality, contrary to earlier psychological and neuroscientific assumptions (Barrett, 2006; Barrett, 2020). Often facial expressions alone can be misleading or be so varied that other information about the individual, social context, and culture must inform a judge's evaluation and perception of the emotion being expressed. For example, a furrowed brow and expressionless smile could indicate that someone is experiencing anger, but it could also be someone feeling frustrated, confused, or stressed.

Information asymmetry is also evident in empirical comparisons of self-reported emotions and the labels of judges. Historically, studies examining the relationship between self-report measures of emotion and other measures, such as follower-reported emotions or facial expression labeling by SMEs, produced contradictory findings. However, more recent research has found a moderate, positive correlation between self and others' ratings of emotions, particularly when emotions are faked or posed (Elfenbein et al., 2010). This finding aligns with Elfenbein and Eisenkraft's (2010) meta-analysis, supporting the notion of a positive but moderate relationship between a target's display of emotion and a judge's perception of that emotion.

Despite these findings, there is no evidence of display-perception agreement for conflict. Furthermore, there is a lack of evidence showing that (a) emotional ambivalence is consistently displayed as conflict or that it universally manifests as emotional conflict, and (b) followers can accurately identify displays of emotional conflict. While organizational science lacks primary studies specifically investigating perceptions of leader emotional ambivalence, experimental studies have manipulated emotional ambivalence in leaders or social partners, providing insight into how scholars

conceptualize and measure these perceptions. Ten studies manipulated nonverbal expressions of emotional ambivalence, with facial expressions being the most commonly altered to appear conflicted.

Assumption 5: Emotional ambivalence is perceived and labeled as conflict.

A leader's expressed emotion is particularly relevant to key outcomes of interest. According to EASI, the perception of the follower is fundamental in explaining outcomes involved in the social exchange between leaders and followers. Bono & Ilies (2006) also found linkages between the leader's emotion expression and followers' mood. When shown a video of a leader signaling positive emotions, the follower's positive mood increased. Damen and colleagues (2008) tested how leader emotion displays impacted follower task performance. They manipulated the leader's emotion that was displayed to a group of participants who were asked to participate in a business simulation. The study found that follower affect moderates the relationship between leader displays and task performance. Specifically, when the leader's display of emotion and follower affect were aligned, performance outcomes were optimal. This provides evidence that the state of the follower in their perception of leader signals is meaningful for outcomes of interest such as task performance. Outcomes of relationship quality are also associated with follower perceptions of emotion. High-quality LMX relationships are associated with positive emotions (Elfenbein, 2007).

Thus, understanding how effective followers are at perceiving leader emotional ambivalence and potential moderators of these perceptions can expand understanding of the impact of leader emotions on follower outcomes. By assuming that expressions of leader emotional ambivalence are expressions of conflict and that these signals are

perceived as leader emotional conflict or ambivalence, researchers only capture a subset of the possible emotional signals and their outcomes. Although the leadership and organizational science literatures assume that leader expressions and follower perceptions of leader emotional ambivalence are always conflicted or tense, there is evidence of alternatives. Young et al. (1997) merged photos of actors displaying different facial expressions and tested whether study participants could accurately label the blended emotions. Results demonstrated weak accuracy in labeling these blended emotions; however, Young et al. (1997) only compared how accurately observers rate blended facial expressions compared to facial expressions signaling a single emotion. The absence of empirical investigations of multiple signals of multiple emotions in combination with the consistent definition of emotional ambivalence as an emotionally conflicting event leads researchers to study emotional ambivalence as expressions of conflict or tension.

> "expressed ambivalence is conceptualized in this paper as the expression of tension and conflict because (1) this is the most direct conceptualization of expressed emotional ambivalence and (2) the alternative – compound expressions – do not consistently convey (and are not consistently perceived) as ambivalence." (Rothman, 2011, p. 68)

Researchers recognize the existence of blended, compounded, or mixed expressions of multiple emotions at a single time point, but the dominant practice and prevailing assumption is that emotional ambivalence is singularly expressed as conflict. In actuality, multiple emotions may be signaled and perceived through multiple channels including facial expressions, paraverbal vocal intonation, speech, and body language.

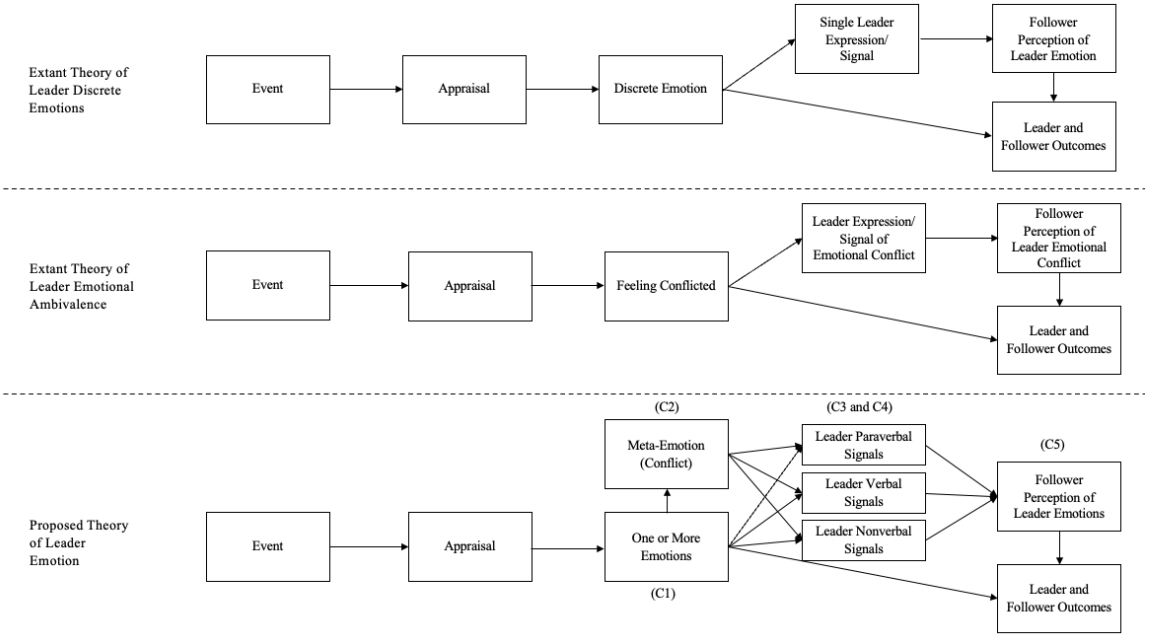
Counterfactual 5: Emotional ambivalence is perceived and labeled as conflict or two or more emotions of different valences.

CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

In summation, although extant theories of leader emotion overlook emotional complexity and emotional ambivalence, we can integrate these concepts into existing theories to provide a more comprehensive view of the experience, display, and perception of leader emotions. The counterfactuals and proposed theoretical process of leader emotional ambivalence are highlighted in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1.

Theoretical models of leader emotion



This paper proposes that, like cognitive appraisal theory and AET, leaders are met with certain events and have cognitive appraisals to determine the extent to which the event is pleasant, moral, goal congruent, and their level of control over the situation. I specify that events leaders frequently encounter in their daily lives are complex with competing or multiple goals and perspectives. Therefore, the leader's appraisal may lead to identifying one or more felt emotions.

Following extant work on emotional ambivalence, I theorize that the greater the nuance and complexity of an event, the greater the number of emotions and valences of said emotions. However, there may be situations that solely elicit a singular emotional experience or feeling for a leader. In situations where two or more emotions are present, these feelings may function or interact together, or there may be resulting meta-emotions. In the case of emotional ambivalence when a leader feels a positively-valenced emotion and a negatively-valenced emotion at a single time point, a potential meta-emotion is the feeling of conflict or frustration (Aaker et al., 2008; Oceja & Carrera, 2007).

The feelings and meta-emotions experienced by leaders are then expressed via multiple channels including verbal, paraverbal, and nonverbal signals. These signals may all communicate a single emotion or communicate signals of multiple emotions (i.e., the leader sounds angry, but their mouth is smiling). When meta-emotions such as conflict are present, expressions of multiple emotions may be replaced with or combined with expressions of conflict.

Perceptions of leader's expressed emotion(s) will be formed based on the aggregate of the signals communicated by the leader to the follower. Followers will perceive one or more leader emotions depending on signals given by the leader.

Overall, this theory of leader emotions specifies that leaders experience and signal multiple emotions via nonverbal, paraverbal, and verbal signals, which are perceived by the follower. Meta-emotions or feelings about feelings can influence the leader's experience of emotional ambivalence and signals of emotional ambivalence to followers. The boundary conditions and potential moderators of this theory are highlighted in the next section.

Individual Differences Impacting Leader Emotion

There are potential moderators at each stage of the proposed theory of leader emotions. This is not an exhaustive list; in this paper, I focus on emotion granularity, gender and race, emotion regulation, and culture. Future research should explore additional moderators and boundary conditions of leader emotional ambivalence.

Emotion Granularity

The emotional vocabulary, or ability to categorize feelings into numerous nuanced spaces (also known as emotional granularity or differentiation), can shape how effective we are at appraising and regulating our emotions. Individuals with higher levels of emotion granularity possess a greater vocabulary and cognitive schema of emotions to discern between nuanced emotional experiences. In the context of emotional ambivalence, individuals with higher emotion granularity may experience a heightened awareness of multiple emotions, as they are more adept at recognizing and articulating these nuances. This heightened sensitivity to emotional ambivalence can lead to a more pronounced experience of ambivalence or other complex emotional experiences, where emotions are quickly identified and processed. Conversely, individuals with lower levels of emotion granularity may struggle to differentiate between emotions, potentially leading to a less intense experience of ambivalence or a lack of acknowledgement of emotional ambivalence. Thus, emotion granularity acts as a potentially meaningful moderator and individual difference variable in understanding a leader's perception and experience of emotional ambivalence.

Gender and Race

Notably, neither gender nor race should not impact the intensity of these emotional experiences. Gender and race play a significant role in shaping individuals' experiences and expressions of emotion, particularly within leadership contexts (Brescoll, 2016; Rosette et al., 2016) . Despite stereotypes suggesting that women are more emotional than men, empirical evidence challenges these assumptions. Research indicates that there are minimal gender differences in the intensity of emotions and little support for the notion that women experience certain emotions more frequently than men (Brescoll, 2016). Notably, studies such as the one conducted by Else-Quest and colleagues (2012) have found that while shame may be more commonly experienced by women, these differences can largely be attributed to societal expectations and norms surrounding gender roles rather than inherent differences in emotional experiences between genders.

There are also stereotypes of emotionality and emotion expression placed on racial groups. Black stereotypes of emotion center around the intensity of emotion. Black men and women are frequently labeled as angry, strong, and dominant (Rosette et al., 2016). This stereotype is exacerbated when Black men and women are in positions of leadership which requires agentic or authoritative behaviors to initiate structure upon followers to complete tasks. Contrarily, Asian Americans are stereotyped to be mild-mannered and communal in leader positions.

Schemas and stereotypes of leaders who are women and people of color impact the perception of emotions displayed. Followers often hold implicit theories or schemas regarding the emotions that leaders should or should not display. These implicit theories are influenced by stereotypes, including gender stereotypes, which dictate societal

expectations regarding emotionality. Sy and van Knippenberg (2021) highlight how these implicit theories vary based on identity characteristics such as gender and race. Women are often perceived as being more emotional, while men are expected to exhibit emotional control. This perpetuates the "men have emotions, women are emotional" stereotype, as evidenced by studies reviewed by Brescoll (2016).

Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that women leaders are evaluated differently based on their expression of emotions compared to their male counterparts (Rossette et al., 2016). Women are also penalized for not expressing emotions that align with communal stereotypes. This is especially true of Black women leaders. A study of career derailment in men and women leaders showed that women were not rated as likely to experience career derailment if they also were perceived as having low empathetic concern (Gentry et al., 2015). In fact, women leaders were rewarded with high ratings of career advancement potential if they were viewed as someone who expresses empathetic concern. This was not an expectation that impacted the career derailment or advancement of their peers who were men.

If a woman leader were to display multiple, mixed emotions, it is unknown how this would be perceived by her followers and whether the perception of emotional ambivalence in women is different from perceptions of emotional ambivalence in men. It is also unclear how racial stereotypes of emotion and emotionality translate to perceptions of emotional complexity in leaders. Gender and racial biases in emotion influences perceptions of leaders and managerial effectiveness, perpetuating stereotypes and impacting leader, follower, and team outcomes. Given the evidence of racial and gender bias in discrete emotions, it is reasonable to infer that similar biases and

stereotypes exist for emotional ambivalence. Future studies testing the proposed theory of leader emotion should consider how gender and race influence perceptions of emotional ambivalence in leaders.

Emotion Regulation

The ability to recognize and accurately label emotions increases a leader's potential to appropriately regulate themselves and understand others at work. Emotion regulation refers to "the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998). Emotion regulation is a skill that leaders can develop and improve over time (Haver et al., 2013). Leaders regulate their emotions to ensure that their feelings appropriately match a social situation or to display a different emotion than the one they feel to influence someone they are interacting with at work. This often involves emphasizing expressions of positive emotions to followers and suppressing negative emotions (Glasø & Einarson, 2008). However, emotion regulation is not only present at the expression stage of leader emotion. Emotion regulation also moderates appraisals and experiences of leader emotions. Overall, regulating emotions assists leaders in creating self-awareness about how they feel and then funneling that feeling into a behavior or display of emotion that is appropriate for the given situation.

Culture

There are two potential cultural moderators of emotional ambivalence: global culture and emotional culture. Past studies found that collectivist cultures are less likely to appraise experiences of emotional ambivalence as conflicting as compared to individualist cultures (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Individuals from collectivist societies tend to

have positive correlations between self-reported positive and negative emotions and individuals from individualist societies tend to exhibit negative correlations between positive and negative emotions. Explanations for this difference tend to center around the way emotions are discussed and represented in language. Individualist cultures are more likely to talk about negative and positive emotions as opposites of one another while collectivist cultures have more of a balanced view. Collectivist cultures seek harmony while individuals in individualist cultures view emotion as an important individual difference that they must attend to (Bagozzi et al., 1999). Given these findings, it is likely that individuals from different cultures may appraise experiences of emotional complexity differently. I would also expect that leaders in collectivist cultures to not appraise feelings of conflict when experiencing emotional ambivalence as compared to leaders in individualist cultures.

At a different level, emotional culture is a group variable representing shared affective norms and values (Barsade & O'Neill, 2016). Emotional culture is conveyed through verbal and nonverbal signals of individuals in a group, team, or organization. Some emotional cultures encourage expression while others promote the suppression of emotions. Leaders are key figures in creating and perpetuating emotional cultures. Leaders who consistently appear joyful and happy by smiling at coworkers and telling their direct reports to "find the joy" in their work contributes to a norm of positive expression at work. Contrarily, leaders and followers in emotional cultures where they are stoic, never mention how they are feeling, or fail to acknowledge the feelings of others perpetuates norms of suppressing emotions and treating work as a rational, emotionless endeavor. As individuals holding power in organizations, leaders are key

figures in signaling and reinforcing emotional culture (Barsade & O'Neill, 2016). However, leaders are not immune to the influence of emotional culture on their own emotional experiences. We can infer that an emotional culture of suppression would impact leader emotional ambivalence, creating pressure for leaders to ignore or overlook emotionally ambivalent experiences at work. Future work might also consider the presence of complex emotional cultures where individuals may be more likely to appraise and express emotional ambivalence.

Theoretical Implications

The study of leadership is evolving, including a surge of studies exploring leader emotions. However, existing theories and empirical investigations of leader emotions exhibit notable blind spots. Firstly, there's a prevalent assumption of singular, distinct emotional experiences among leaders, neglecting the complexity of simultaneous emotions. Secondly, while emotional complexity and emotional ambivalence is acknowledged, its conceptualization as conflicting experiences lacks substantial evidence.

To address these theoretical and methodological gaps, I integrated existing theories of leader emotions with current knowledge of emotional complexity and emotional ambivalence. This integration provides a more comprehensive understanding of leader emotions across appraisal, experience, expression, and perception stages. Ultimately, such an integrative approach promises to extend leadership theory and practice by acknowledging and incorporating the multifaceted nature of emotional experiences in leadership.

The proposed theory of leader emotion presented in this paper first contends that leaders, like individuals in general, undergo cognitive appraisals of events they encounter, determining the pleasantness, morality, goal congruence, and perceived control over these events. Importantly, I recognize the inherently complex nature of many situations faced by leaders, often involving competing goals and perspectives. Consequently, leaders' appraisals may yield multiple emotional responses, reflecting the nuances of their experiences. Building upon research on emotional complexity and differentiation, I propose that the complexity of an event correlates positively with the number and valence of emotions experienced by a leader. However, I acknowledge that some situations may evoke a singular emotional response, while others may give rise to meta-emotions—feelings about feelings—such as conflict when leaders experience both positive and negative emotions simultaneously.

Furthermore, I suggest that leaders communicate their emotions through various channels, including verbal, paraverbal, and nonverbal cues. These signals may convey a single emotion or a combination of multiple emotions, potentially leading to discrepancies between expressed emotions and felt experiences, particularly in cases of emotional ambivalence. For instance, a leader may exhibit conflicting nonverbal and verbal cues when experiencing conflicting emotions, complicating follower perceptions.

In terms of follower perceptions, I propose that the interpretation of leader emotions is based on the aggregation of signals received from the leader across these channels. Followers may perceive one or more emotions depending on the signals emitted, which can shape their understanding of the leader's emotional state and, consequently, influence their behaviors and attitudes.

In summary, my theorized process of leader emotion posits that leaders experience and communicate multiple emotions through various channels, with meta-emotions influencing both their experiences and signals of emotional ambivalence to followers. However, I recognize the importance of delineating boundary conditions and potential moderators to refine and contextualize this theory. By clarifying these factors, it offers a robust framework for understanding leader emotions and their implications for leadership effectiveness and follower outcomes.

The integration of emotional ambivalence into extant theories of leader emotions holds significant theoretical implications for understanding the nuances of leadership processes. By acknowledging and examining the coexistence of multiple emotions within leaders, scholars can advance their understanding of the dynamic nature of emotional experiences in leadership contexts.

1. Beyond Discrete Emotions

By addressing emotional ambivalence, leadership scholarship can expand beyond the paradigm of discrete emotions. Leadership is inherently a paradoxical and nuanced process that elicits nuanced emotional experiences (Rothman & Melwani, 2017). A growing body of literature acknowledges the need to expand investigations of emotions in organizations beyond discrete experiences (Larson et al., 2004; Lim et al., 2021; Rothman & Melwani, 2017; Shao, 2024); however, without incorporating emotional ambivalence and other emotional complexity concepts into our theories of leader emotion, the majority of work will default to existing theoretical models of singular, discrete emotions in their appraisal, expression, and perceptions.

Rather than defaulting to the discrete emotion theoretical paradigm and the outdated neuroscientific models that feelings are distinct emotional fingerprints (Barrett, 2006), the proposed theory of leader emotion integrates both singular and complex emotions into an event-based theory of leaders' emotional experiences.

2. Beyond Leader Emotional Ambivalence – Emotional Complexity

For decades, emotion and leadership research centered on discrete emotions of leaders and their outcomes. Generally, researchers tested the prosocial, effective outcomes of positive discrete emotions and the ineffective, at times abusive, impact of negative leader emotions. A review of emotions in organizations highlighted the levels of analysis where organizational scholars study emotion and emotional ambivalence is absent at all levels (Ashkanasy, 2003).

By expanding leader emotion theories to include emotional ambivalence, leadership researchers uncover different variable experiences in the intraindividual and interpersonal process of leader emotions. The proposed theoretical model is a more comprehensive, nuanced view of leader emotional experiences and their potential impacts on followers and other outcomes of interest. If leadership scholars continue to overlook emotional ambivalence and emotional complexity in studies of leadership, we will miss out on understanding a considerable portion of the leadership process and its implications for both leaders and followers.

Although the proposed theory of leader emotion was developed to incorporate emotional ambivalence in studies of leader emotion, the framework can be applied to emotional complexity broadly in leadership. Emotional ambivalence is just one type of emotional complexity that can be experienced by leaders. It is the focus of the present

paper given the amount of paradoxical nuance leaders experience in their roles; however, leaders may also experience other forms of emotional complexity such as emodiversity, aesthetic emotions, and meta-emotions beyond conflict. The present theory is inclusive to these types of emotional complexity since it models the appraisal of multiple emotions, experiences of meta-emotions, and the expression of different combinations of emotional experiences and signals of these experiences. Consider emodiversity, a concept in the family of emotional complexity representing the individual difference in the range and variety of emotions experienced. The proposed model captures the appraisal of some situation of a leader, the experience of one or more emotions, and resulting expressions of those emotions. Prior to this theory, other frameworks or theories of leader emotion did not address leader experiences of multiple, varied emotions. As with leader emotional ambivalence, expansion in the theoretical model of leader emotion can lead to expansion in understandings of the process of leadership

3. *Clarifying Definitions of Emotional Ambivalence*

One significant implication of the proposed theory pertains to enhancing the clarity surrounding definitions and conceptualizations of emotional ambivalence. Existing research in leader emotional ambivalence conflated the meta-emotion of feeling conflicted with emotional ambivalence, due to its conceptual history. Early publications on emotional ambivalence conceptualized it as the experience of two or more emotions of dual-valences that contradict one another. Over time, however, definitions of emotional ambivalence failed to mention the presence of emotional conflict as a necessary component. Instead, emotional ambivalence is consistently referred to as the experience of two or more dual-valenced emotions (i.e., mixed emotions or mixed feelings). There is

a dearth of evidentiary support that emotional ambivalence is a universally conflicting experience.

Moreover, distinguishing feelings of conflict from emotional ambivalence centers investigations of leader emotional ambivalence on unique combinations of emotions. Rather than treating all pairs or combinations of multi-valenced emotions as equal, researchers can explore how and why certain combinations of emotion lead to effective or ineffective outcomes in a variety of leader contexts. This offers greater specificity and insight into the role of emotional ambivalence in leadership and generates a more precise understanding of leader emotions.

Additionally, by identifying "feeling conflicted" as a meta-emotion of emotional ambivalence, leadership scholars can better differentiate leader experiences of meta-emotion from leader experiences of emotional generally. Discriminating between emotional ambivalence and meta-emotions toward emotional ambivalence also allows scholars to consider differences between displays of emotional ambivalence and displays of meta-emotions, as well as how they interact with one another. For example, does the presence of a meta-emotion change how leaders display feelings of fear and hope? Do displays of meta-emotions override displays of primary emotions? Prior research equates feelings about emotional ambivalent experiences with displays of emotional ambivalent experiences, failing to consider that leaders may choose to display multiple dual-valenced emotions at a given time, display only one emotion, or exhibit a meta-emotion. Until this point, the literature solely defined displays of emotional ambivalence as displays of conflict (i.e., furrowing and unfurrowing brow, fidgeting, glancing around, tense posture).

Consequently, follower perceptions of emotional ambivalence are also impacted by this distinction between meta-emotions and experiences of emotional ambivalence. EASI suggests that followers attend to affective information from leaders more attentively than other social partners because of the power and status of leaders. This increased attention and sensitivity to the emotions of leaders has been shown to facilitate numerous follower outcomes, one of which is emotional contagion. Barsade (2002) first explored this phenomenon, defined as the transference of emotions from person to person in social interactions or groups. Bono & Ilies (2006) found linkages between expressed emotions of leaders and follower affective experiences, specifically mood. Leader signals of positive emotions increased the follower's positive mood. Emotion contagion processes between leaders and followers have not been explored for multiple simultaneous emotions and without distinctions between feelings of conflict towards emotional ambivalent and the emotionally ambivalent emotional experience itself, leadership scholars cannot understand the numerous follower outcomes of all kinds of emotional ambivalence experiences by leaders.

4. *Broadening Emotional Content of Emotional Ambivalence*

Valence is most frequently defined in these terms of pleasantness and unpleasantness of the experience or event that elicited the emotional experience; however, emotions actually captures *multiple* facets of an event as appraised by an individual. This includes pleasantness/unpleasantness, goal congruence/incongruence, moral goodness/badness, and novelty (Shuman et al., 2013). Certain emotions, whether positive or negative in valence, may also coincide with different levels of physical and mental activation (i.e., arousal content). For example, sadness and fear are both negative

emotional experiences. However, sadness slows individuals down and generates blues or dejectedness. Fear increases individual awareness and prompts us to act, whether through fleeing from a certain situation or facing the source of our fear head-on. Definitions of emotional ambivalence often do not consider the activation dimension of emotions, but should evaluate its role and the role of situational content in emotional ambivalent experiences.

5. *Expansion of Signaling Theory*

Studies in leadership grounded in signaling theory typically focus on examining the signals displayed by leaders to their followers at discrete time points. However, there is a noticeable gap in the literature regarding the consideration of how multiple signals can be concurrently communicated through various channels and subsequently perceived by followers simultaneously. This oversight neglects the intricacies of how these multiple signals interact and influence follower perceptions and responses. For instance, consider a scenario where a leader communicates high goals to their team. While the explicit message may convey ambition and direction, the accompanying nonverbal cues such as facial expressions, tone of voice, and body language could convey confidence, doubt, or enthusiasm. Without capturing and analyzing these multiple signals of emotion and other leader behaviors in concert, it becomes challenging to discern the factors contributing to the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of a particular signal. It is plausible that the combined effect of multiple signals at a single time point significantly shapes follower reactions and outcomes. For example, the effectiveness of ethical leader behavior, such as setting high goals, may hinge not only on the content of the message but also on the emotional tone and nonverbal cues accompanying it, such as expressions of wonder and hope. Without

systematically measuring and modeling the various combinations of signals, researchers may struggle to capture the underlying mechanisms driving the differential impact of leader behaviors on follower perceptions and performance. Thus, understanding the complexity between multiple signals of emotion and other leader behaviors is necessary for advancing our comprehension of effective leadership.

6. *Addressing Nuance in Events*

Acknowledging that leader contexts and events are nuanced and elicit complex emotions allows scholars to design more effective leader interventions and training programs. By understanding the specific emotional triggers within different leadership scenarios, interventions can be tailored to target the right combinations of emotions. This nuanced approach ensures that leaders are equipped with the emotional regulation skills and strategies needed to lead effectively in complicated situations.

7. *Emotional Complexity in Leadership Styles*

Theoretical discussions surrounding leadership often emphasize the significance of emotional dynamics within leader-follower relationships. Central to effective leadership is the capacity to inspire and prompt collective action among followers. This principle is particularly evident in the domains of ethical leadership and charismatic leadership. Bono and Ilies (2006) shed light on the "awestruck-effect" observed within charismatic leadership, where followers display restrained emotions in the presence of a charismatic leader, driven by a sense of admiration and respect. The phenomenon of follower awe is a key tenet in both charismatic leadership (Sy et al., 2018) and ethical leadership (Banks et al., 2020). However, despite the recognized importance of emotional experiences, especially emotionally ambivalent experiences such as awe, there remains a

notable absence in literature regarding emotional ambivalence among leaders. Ethical and charismatic leadership emphasize the importance of emotion but have yet to consider emotional complexity in leaders and multiple signals of emotion at one time point.

Contrarily, paradoxical leadership and paradox theory captures the complexity of leadership, not the complexity of emotions. Emotional ambivalence is absent from paradoxical leader behaviors and primary studies testing the effectiveness of paradoxical leader behaviors. This highlights an area ripe for further exploration in understanding the nuanced interplay between leader emotional ambivalence and leadership styles.

Incorporating emotional ambivalence into existing theories allows for a more nuanced examination of how leaders navigate complex situations, make decisions, and interact with followers. Furthermore, by recognizing that emotional ambivalence is a reality of leadership, researchers can develop more comprehensive models of leadership effectiveness. This integration also highlights the importance of considering individual differences and situational factors that may influence the experience and expression of emotional ambivalence among leaders. Ultimately, by expanding existing frameworks to incorporate emotional ambivalence, scholars can offer richer insights into the emotional dynamics of leadership and provide practical implications for leadership development and leader effectiveness.

Methodological Implications

In considering the methodological implications of measuring emotions within organizational science and leadership research, it is essential to recognize the foundational theories and definitions that underpin our understanding of emotions. As Podsackoff et al. (2016) assert, the quality of measurement hinges on the clarity of these

definitions and theories. Much of the existing literature on emotions in organizational contexts has been shaped by basic theories that conceptualize emotions as "natural kinds" or universal experiences with consistent patterns, akin to a fingerprint (Barrett, 2006). Within this framework, emotions are viewed as distinct entities, each associated with clear and consistent physiological markers. Consequently, past measures of emotions in organizational research have predominantly adhered to the classic view of emotions, relying heavily on self-report surveys and questionnaires (Gooty et al., 2010; Fischer et al., 2020). These measures tend to assess factors such as valence, intensity, target, and context in defining specific emotions experienced by individuals (Staw & Barsade, 1993). Typically, respondents are prompted to identify the emotion they are currently feeling, sometimes limited to indicating the valence (positive, negative, or neutral) and intensity of arousal associated with that emotion. Alternatively, when self-report measures are not employed, discrete emotions are often assessed by asking followers to report their leader's singular emotion as observed in a video or photograph. However, these measures typically fail to account for emotional ambivalence, as they rarely allow leaders the opportunity to report experiencing multiple emotions simultaneously. Instead, they assume that leaders experience only one distinct emotion at any given moment.

With the presentation of my proposed integrative theories acknowledging the complexity of leader emotions, there is a need for reconsideration in how we measure and study these phenomena. Specifically, attention should be directed towards enhancing research design, measurement techniques, and data analysis strategies to better capture the multifaceted nature of leader emotions (Table 9). By adopting the considerations below in research design, measurement, and analysis, scholars can advance our

understanding of leader emotions and provide more accurate and comprehensive insights into their role in leadership.

Table 9.

Methodological implications of the theorized process of leader emotions

Research Method	Opportunity
Self-Report Measures	- Develop self-report measures of leader emotional ambivalence to replace rating scales asking leaders to report the degree to which they feel conflicted or mixed
Artificial Intelligence/Machine Learning	- Label leader data (e.g., facial expressions, text, tone, pitch, body language, heart rate, etc.) with one or more emotions - Leverage multiple sources of data (i.e., nonverbal, verbal, and paraverbal) to measure leader experiences of emotions rather than a single source - Leverage multiple sources of data (i.e., nonverbal, verbal, and paraverbal) to measure leader displays of emotions rather than a single source
Experience Sampling Methods	- Capture the dynamism of leader emotions and situational antecedents of leader emotional ambivalence via longitudinal designs such as experience sampling methods
Latent Profile Analysis	- Generate profiles of leader emotion ambivalence using latent profile analysis
Sentiment Analysis	- Expand sentiment analysis scores beyond positive, negative, and neutral to consider cooccurring or mixed emotions - Leverage deep learning algorithms over dictionary-based sentiment analysis methods

Measurement: Self-Report

At present, there are no standardized measures specifically designed to assess the experience of emotional ambivalence, reflecting the ongoing debate within the field

regarding optimal methodologies for measuring emotional experiences more broadly (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Barrett et al., 2019; Barrett & Westlin, 2021). Historically, measures of emotional ambivalence have predominantly relied on self-reported Likert-type scales, wherein participants are prompted to indicate the extent to which they experience various emotions listed to them, along with the intensity of these emotions. However, such approaches may oversimplify the nuanced experience of emotional ambivalence. For instance, in certain studies (e.g., Fong, 2006; Larson et al., 2001), any instance in which participants report feeling multiple emotions is coded as indicative of emotional ambivalence, employing dummy-coded measures. While this method captures instances of experiencing multiple emotions, it fails to account for the potential variability in the intensity or qualitative nature of emotional ambivalence experiences. Alternatively, experimental studies have utilized paradigms where participants are instructed to press down on two buttons simultaneously when experiencing both positive and negative emotions (Larson et al., 2004). While these studies offer empirical evidence of emotional ambivalence, such measures may not be optimally aligned with the nuanced nature of the construct within the context of certain research designs. Thus, there remains a need for the development and validation of more refined measures tailored specifically to capture the complexities of emotional ambivalence in organizational and leadership contexts.

Despite criticism and limitations, the development of self-report measures remains imperative due to their practical utility and the valuable insights they offer into individuals' subjective emotional experiences. Self-report measures are very cost-effective for researchers. The pressures to publish and incentives tied to quick data

collection and analysis often prevent researchers from conducting experiments or employing more costly measurements like heart rate monitors (Massaro & Pecchia, 2019). Self-report measures can focus the participant's attention on the target of their emotion. Physiological or expressive information does not offer this information. Contextual clues must be analyzed for the researchers to make assumptions regarding the target of emotions when alternatives to self-report measures are used. Since measures of emotion are dominated by self-report.

Given the acknowledgment of emotional complexity or emotional ambivalence in our literature and the utility of self-report measures, there must be a correction to our current self-report measurements of emotions. In failing to provide opportunities for individuals to report multiple emotional experiences at a given instant, we are failing to capture an additional source of intra-individual variance in the study of emotions at work.

Past research in neuroscience measured the degree of emotional complexity, specifically emotional ambivalence, in relation to the magnitude of the correlation between positively-valenced and negatively-valenced emotion items (Bagozzi et al., 1999; Grossman et al., 2016). The larger the correlation, the greater the experience of mixed feelings.

Measurement: Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning

In the past two decades, researchers sought to explore measures of emotion that leverage deep learning and artificial intelligence. Recent publications have argued for and promoted the utilization of video-based methods (Christianson, 2018), physiological data (Christopoulos et al., 2019; Massaro & Pecchia, 2019), and other sources of big data (e.g., personal health watch data that is collected constantly and may update measurement

models more consistently; Luciano et al., 2018) to capture discrete emotions that have a consistent pattern of physiological signals. However, our current ability to apply algorithmic models in measuring leaders' emotional experiences is limited because of our history of focusing on discrete emotions. Consider the following in any future development of emotion measures using AI.

Single outcome variables. In assessing leader emotion, it is imperative for AI models to incorporate multiple classification or outcome variables to accurately capture the complexity of emotional experiences. Leaders can simultaneously experience a multitude of emotions in response to various situational stimuli. Failure to account for this emotional complexity may lead to oversimplified assessments that fail to capture the full breadth of leaders' emotional states. By incorporating multiple classification or outcome variables, AI models can better discern the nuanced interplay between different emotions, offering a more comprehensive understanding of leader emotion dynamics and more accurate and valid measures of emotions. This approach enables a more precise interpretation of leaders' emotional experiences and facilitates more informed understanding of the impact of emotion in leadership contexts.

Single modalities. Similarly, single modality or single source measures are present in the algorithmic scoring of discrete emotions. In algorithmic scoring of discrete emotions, there is an overreliance on facial expressions to capture displays of emotions. One of the most common research designs in studying leader discrete emotions is an experiment where participants view videos of leaders (Gooty, et al., 2010). The emotion recognition market is also booming with more companies focusing on creating facial recognition software through artificial intelligence (Marwan, 2018). Facial expressions

are only one of the many human displays of emotion (Barrett, 2017). Solely classifying emotions through facial data (i.e., photos or videos) increases measurement error and leaves a lot of variance in human behavior tied to emotions unexplained or unidentified (Barrett, et al., 2019).

There are significant implications for ignoring other sources of emotional displays and relying solely on facial expressions to measure discrete emotions. Leadership coaching and development are dependent on the quality of behavioral data available and the number of studies that have replicated findings that demonstrate which leader behaviors or signals elicit positive follower perceptions and outcomes. Without studies that include comprehensive measures of leader behaviors, such as displays of emotions, leader development, and training will have reduced opportunity to appropriately coach leaders on which signals or behaviors they should engage in to produce the best outcomes for their followers, team, or organization. This is a lost opportunity for the practical application of emotions and leadership science, but the accurate measurement of leader signals of emotions also has significant implications for our science. As mentioned above, the failure to include a significant variable or source of variance in our statistical models leads to endogeneity bias and generates imprecise findings (Antonakis, et al., 2010; Banks, et al., 2018). The inclusion of comprehensive measures of leader displays of emotions that capture intra-individual variability can guard against endogeneity bias, improve our findings, and inform efficacious leader training and development.

Research Design: Experiential Sampling Methods (ESM)

In terms of research design, studies should be designed to incorporate dynamic, longitudinal approaches that recognize the fluidity and variability of emotional

experiences in leadership contexts. Longitudinal designs such as experiential sampling methods capture changes in leader emotions over time. Experiential sampling methods increase the chances of capturing emotionally complex events as compared to cross-sectional design since you sample a wider range of events over time. Barford et al. (2020) leveraged ESM to capture fluctuations in mixed emotions or emotional ambivalence in daily life. Gabriel et al. (2022) leveraged ESM to study the impact of ambivalent emotions on the job seeking process for working adults. Both demonstrated within- and between-variability in the experience of mixed or ambivalent emotions that would otherwise go undetected in cross-sectional or some time-lagged research designs.

Research Design: Matching Theory to Measures

In studying emotional ambivalence, matching theory to measures is essential for obtaining accurate and meaningful insights into leaders' emotional experiences and expressions. One crucial consideration is determining when we would expect leaders to experience multiple emotions. Leaders are likely to experience multiple emotions in situations characterized by high complexity, ambiguity, or conflicting demands (Rothman & Melwani, 2017). For example, when making consequential decisions, managing challenging interpersonal dynamics, or navigating organizational crises, leaders may concurrently experience a range of emotions such as anxiety, excitement, frustration, and determination. Understanding the contexts in which leaders are prone to experiencing multiple emotions is vital for selecting appropriate measures that capture the nuanced nature of their emotional experiences.

Matching self-report measures to the specific research objectives is also crucial in studying leader emotions. If the aim is to investigate leaders' perceptions of their own

emotions, self-report measures are well-suited, as they allow leaders to directly report their subjective emotional experiences. Similarly, if the focus is on understanding how leaders choose to display their emotions in different contexts, self-report measures can provide valuable insights into their emotional expression strategies. However, when the research interest lies in examining leader displays of emotion from an observer's perspective, self-report measures may be less meaningful. This is due to the potential discrepancy between leaders' self-reported perceptions of their emotional displays and observers' perceptions of those displays (Elfenbein & Eisenkraft, 2010). Given the inherent subjectivity and social desirability biases associated with self-report measures, relying solely on leaders' self-reports to assess their emotional displays may yield incomplete or misleading findings. Therefore, researchers should carefully match measurement approaches to their research questions and objectives, considering the nuances of leader emotional ambivalence.

Data Analysis: Latent Profile Analysis

In addition to alternations to the wording of self-report items, researchers should consider methods for transforming Likert-type responses to emotion items into numerical representations of emotional ambivalence. A potential solution is to employ latent profile analysis to identify profiles of concurring emotions that consider both the valence of the emotions experienced and the intensity of the reported emotions. Gabriel et al. (2022) leveraged multilevel latent profile analysis (MLPA) in their experiential sampling study of emotional ambivalence in the job search process and fit four latent profiles of job search candidates: positive, negative, ambivalent, and devoid. The potential benefits of this technique are that it can be applied to several existing self-report emotion measures,

it captures some complexity leader emotions beyond discrete emotions, and unlike other measures of emotional ambivalence, it does not inherently assume that emotional ambivalence is emotional conflict. However, by fitting a singular latent profile of emotional ambivalence, researchers lose potentially meaningful information regarding the unique combinations of dual-valenced emotions that may exist. For example, a leader experiencing fear and hope in response to a crisis would be placed in the same ambivalence profile as a leader reporting sadness and hope or frustration and joy. Ultimately, our research questions and conclusions would once again operationalize leader ambivalence as a particular emotional experience (albeit not emotional conflict), rather than considering the unique variability and nuance within emotionally ambivalent experiences. If a researcher were to use latent profile analysis to analyze combinations of leader emotions, they should consider profiles that retain information about unique combinations of simultaneously felt emotions instead of grouping all simultaneously felt mixed emotions into a single profile.

Data Analysis: Sentiment Analysis

With the increased access to large datasets in organizational research (Tonidandel et al., 2018), specifically qualitative data, natural language processing (NLP) tools are being leveraged in leader assessment (Tonidandel & Albritton, 2023). Sentiment analysis is particularly relevant to assessing leader emotions. There are numerous approaches to sentiment analysis, but all seek to assign a quantitative score to represent the degree of positivity or negativity expressed in text. Common tools for sentiment analysis include Sentiment Analysis and Social Cognition Engine (SEANCE; Crossley et al., 2017).

In addition to these statistical packages, there are also dictionary-based sentiment analysis methods that measure discrete emotions. These methods create a dictionary to measure constructs of interest. Dictionaries are a list of words that go through a validation process to support their representation of the construct of interest. The most commonly used dictionary repository is Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC). Similar to the limitations of other measures of emotions in the organizational sciences, these dictionaries seek to measure the number of positive emotion words, negative emotion words, or emotion words specific to a discrete emotion rather than mixed emotions. In fact, given that dictionary-based methods merely count the number of times words from a dictionary appear in text documents (i.e., leader emails, speeches, text messages, meeting dialogue), it is almost impossible to use as a measure of leader emotional ambivalence.

Opportunities for Future Research

The introduction of emotional ambivalence to theories of leader emotion creates several opportunities to empirically investigate the function of leader emotional ambivalence intra-individually and interpersonally. Table 10 highlights several research questions for each stage of the process of leader emotion discussed previously in the paper. Many of the research questions discussed below are considerably linked to methodological advancements and questions outlined in the previous section.

Table 10.

Counterfactuals and new research questions in leader emotional ambivalence research

Stage	Research Questions

Appraisal	Counterfactual 1: Leaders appraise and experience one or more emotive experiences at a given time point. - How frequently do leaders experience emotional ambivalence? - How frequently do leaders experience meta-emotions? - Are there key differences between aesthetic or blended emotions and experiences of emotional ambivalence? - Are certain leaders able to appraise experience emotional ambivalence compared to others? - What are common situational antecedents of leader emotional ambivalence? - What individual differences (i.e., emotion granularity, emotional intelligence, culture, race, gender, etc.) impact the frequency with which a leader experiences of emotional ambivalence? - Are certain leaders able to appraise experience emotional ambivalence compared to others? - What are common situational antecedents of leader emotional ambivalence? - What individual differences (i.e., emotion granularity, emotional intelligence, culture, race, gender, etc.) impact the frequency with which a leader experiences emotional ambivalence? - What combinations of emotions most frequently co-occur in leadership? - What is the intensity of each emotion during leader emotional ambivalence? Counterfactual 2: Leader emotional ambivalence is appraised and experienced as two or more emotions of multiple valences. - How frequently do leaders feel the meta-emotion of conflict towards their emotional ambivalence? - What are common situational antecedents of feelings of conflict? - When are mixed feelings more likely to be appraised as conflicting? - Which individual differences make it more likely for emotional ambivalence to be appraised as conflicting? - To what extent is emotional ambivalence a cognitive load on leaders? - If leader emotional ambivalence is not solely experienced as conflict, what are the action tendencies associated with different dual-valenced emotion combinations?
Expression	Counterfactual 3: Leaders can display (i.e., signal) one or more emotions at a given time point. - Are more dominant or intense emotions signaled more strongly than others?

	- Are different signaled via different communication channels (i.e., verbal, nonverbal, and paraverbal) simultaneously? - Can displays of leader emotional ambivalence be faked? Counterfactual 4: Emotional ambivalence can be expressed as conflict, a single emotion, or a combination of two or more emotions. - How do leaders display emotional ambivalence? - Do displays of meta-emotions override displays of primary emotions? - Do meta-emotions attenuate or enhance displays of primary emotions? - Are there individual differences in displays of emotional ambivalence? - When are displays of leader emotional ambivalence most effective? Least effective?
Perception	Counterfactual 5: Emotional ambivalence is perceived and labeled as conflict or two or more emotions of different valences. - Can followers identify that a leader is expressing multiple emotions? - Can followers accurately label signals of multiple emotions? - Which modality or communication channel is most salient for follower perception of leader emotions: verbal, nonverbal, or paraverbal? Does leader emotional ambivalence have emotion contagion processes similar to discrete emotions?

First, future research must clarify how leaders tend to experience emotions. This includes more expansive work on singular experiences of emotion and experiences of multiple motions at a given time point (i.e., emotionally ambivalent). To do this, we must first consider how frequently leaders experience singular emotions versus complex emotions. Researchers should leverage longitudinal research designs and thoughtfully consider multiple measurement tools including but not limited to self-report measures, physiological data, and qualitative narrative data where leaders write out descriptions of their emotional experiences. These future investigations should consider how frequently emotional complexity occurs in leaders as well as the characteristics of this emotional

complexity. This may include the kind of emotional complexity exhibited and the unique combinations of emotions that leaders experience at a single time point. Studies should also capture situational antecedents where leaders are more or less likely to experience ambivalence.

Further exploring the individual differences that influence the experience and expression of emotional ambivalence can yield valuable insights. For instance, researchers could explore how factors like emotion granularity, emotional intelligence, cultural background, and personality traits impact a leader's susceptibility to emotional ambivalence. By examining how these individual differences interact with situational variables, researchers can elucidate the complex interplay between personal characteristics and environmental factors in shaping leader emotional experiences.

The extant literature on emotional ambivalence tends to focus on the valence of multiple emotions but fails to consider the role of intensity of multiple emotions in emotionally ambivalent leaders. Leadership researchers should consider how intensity impacts leader experiences of emotional ambivalence. The consideration of the intensity of multiple dual-valence emotions might inform how leaders appraise regulate and display emotional ambivalence. Future studies could examine the cognitive load imposed by emotional ambivalence on leaders, explaining the cognitive processes involved in managing mixed feelings. Without considering the role of the intensity of emotions in leader emotional complexity, we cannot fully understand the demands of emotional complexity (i.e., emotional labor) or how the emotions may interact with one another.

Research could delve into whether more dominant or intense emotions are experienced more strongly than others, shedding light on the hierarchical nature of

emotional experiences. Additionally, identifying leader situations that elicit emotional complexity more frequently than others could provide valuable insights into the contextual factors shaping leaders' emotional experiences. Researching the co-occurrence of emotions offers an opportunity to understand the interconnectedness of different emotional states and their implications for leadership effectiveness.

Understanding the action tendencies associated with different dual-valenced emotion combinations would provide actionable insights into how leaders navigate emotionally complex situations. Similarly, investigating the situational and individual factors influencing the appraisal of emotional ambivalence as conflicting offers opportunities to uncover moderators of this process.

Furthermore, understanding the communication processes involved in the display of emotional complexity is crucial. Researchers could explore how leaders express numerous emotions through verbal, nonverbal, and paraverbal cues, and whether these displays vary across different cultural or organizational contexts. By analyzing real-life interactions or using experimental paradigms, researchers can uncover the mechanisms underlying the communication of emotional complexity and its impact on follower perception and behavior.

Lastly, future research should investigate the downstream effects of leader emotional complexity on follower outcomes and organizational performance. This could involve examining how followers interpret and respond to displays of emotional complexity, as well as exploring the potential for emotion contagion processes similar to discrete emotions. By examining the ripple effects of leader emotional complexity on team cohesion, motivation, and decision-making, researchers can provide actionable

insights for enhancing leadership effectiveness and organizational resilience in the face of emotional complexity.

Overall, these research questions offer promising avenues for advancing our understanding of leader emotions and emotional complexity, with implications for leadership theory and practice.

Conclusion

Prior research on leader emotions supports the importance of leader emotions in leadership styles (Antonakis et al., 2016; Banks et al., 2020), the process of leadership (Gooty et al., 2010), and relevant outcomes of the leader (Staw & Barsade, 2003), followers (Bono & Ilies, 2006; Koning & Van Kleef, 2015; Van Knippenberg & Van Kleef, 2016), and organization (Williams, 2020; Shockley et al., 2012). Yet extant theories of leader emotions fail to acknowledge an entire family of emotional experiences and displays known as emotional complexity. The complexity of leadership is likely to elicit emotional complexity, but there are very few investigations of it given gaps in theories and measures of leader emotion. This paper addresses the past assumptions of theories of leader emotions at multiple stages of the process of leader emotion including appraisal and experience, expression, and perception. By weighing empirical and theoretical evidence of emotional complexity, a new theory of leader emotion was proposed whereby complexity, specifically emotional ambivalence, is more adequately modeled and considered in accordance with the latest findings in research. Future research should explore measures of leader emotions that consider emotional ambivalence. Rather than continue to adopt the classic view of emotions that considers emotions to be discrete, distinct psychological experiences, organizational scholars must

embrace the complexity of emotions in their measurement and investigation of emotions in leadership and organizations broadly.

REFERENCES

Aaker, J., Drolet, A., & Griffin, D. (2008). Recalling mixed emotions. *The Journal of Consumer Research*, *35*(2), 268–278. https://doi.org/10.1086/588570

Antonakis, J., Bastardoz, N., Jacquart, P., & Shamir, B. (2016). Charisma: An ill-defined and ill-measured gift. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 3*(1), 293–319. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-041015-062305

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Ashton-James, C. E. (2007). Positive Emotion in Organizations: A Multi-Level Framework. In *Positive Organizational Behavior* (pp. 57–73). SAGE Publications Ltd. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446212752.n5

Ashforth, B. E., Rogers, K. M., Pratt, M. G., & Pradies, C. 2014. Ambivalence in organizations: A multilevel approach. *Organization Science, 25(5),* 1453–1478. https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.2014.0909

Ashkanasy, N. M., & Dorris, A. D. (2017). Emotions in the workplace. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, *4*(1), 67–90. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032516-113231

Bagozzi, R. P., Wong, N., & Yi, Y. (1999). The role of culture and gender in the relationship between positive and negative affect. *Cognition and Emotion, 13*, 641– 672. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/026999399379023

Banks, G. C., Gooty, J., Ross, R.L., Williams, C. E., & Harrington, N. T. (2018). Construct redundancy in leader behaviors: A review and agenda for the future. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(1), 236–251. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.12.005

Banks, G. C., Fischer, T., Gooty, J., & Stock, G. (2021). Ethical leadership: Mapping the terrain for concept cleanup and a future research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *32*(2), 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2020.101471

Barrett, L. F. (2006). Are emotions natural kinds? *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, *1*(1), 28–58. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1745-6916.2006.00003.x

Barrett, L. F. (2017). The theory of constructed emotion: An active inference account of interoception and categorization. *Social Cognitive and Affective Neuroscience*, *12*(11), 1833–1833. https://doi.org/10.1093/scan/nsx060

Barrett, L.F., Mesquita, B., Ochsner, K. N., & Gross, J. J. (2007). The experience of emotion. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *58*(1), 373–403. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.58.110405.085709

Barrett, L. F., & Westlin, C. (2021). Navigating the science of emotion. In Emotion measurement (pp. 39-84). Woodhead Publishing.

Barrett, L. F., Adolphs, R., Marsella, S., Martinez, A. M., & Pollak, S. D. (2019). Emotional expressions reconsidered: Challenges to inferring emotion from human facial movements. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest, 20*(1), 1-68. https://doi.org/10.1177/1529100619832930

Barsade, S. G. (2002). The ripple effect: Emotional contagion and its influence on group behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *47*(4), 644–675. https://doi.org/10.2307/3094912

Barsade, S. G., Brief, A. P., & Spataro, S. E. (2003). The affective revolution in organizational behavior: The emergence of a paradigm. In J. Greenberg (Ed.),

OB: The state of the science (2nd Ed.): 3-52. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum & Associates.

Barsade, S., & O'Neill, O. A. (2016). Manage your emotional culture. *Harvard Business Review*, *94*(1), 58-66.

Berrios, R. (2019). What is complex/emotional about emotional complexity? *Frontiers in Psychology, 10*, 1606–1606. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2019.01606

Bono, J. E., & Ilies, R. (2006). Charisma, positive emotions and mood contagion. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *17*(4), 317–334. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2006.04.008

Brescoll, V. L. (2016). Leading with their hearts? How gender stereotypes of emotion lead to biased evaluations of female leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly, 27*(3), 415–428. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2016.02.005

Chirico, A., & Gaggioli, A. (2021). Editorial: Toward a science of complex experiences. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *12*, 775149–775149. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.775149

Clore, G. L., Gasper, K., & Garvin, E. (2001). Affect as information. In J. P. Forgas, (Ed.). Handbook of Affect and Social Cognition (pp. 121-144). Mahwah, NJ.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cropanzano, R., Dasborough, M. T., & Weiss, H. M. (2017). Affective events and the development of leader-member exchange. *The Academy of Management Review, 42*(2), 233–258. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2014.0384

Crossley, S. A., Kyle, K., & McNamara, D. S. (2017). Sentiment Analysis and Social Cognition Engine (SEANCE): An automatic tool for sentiment, social cognition,

and social-order analysis. *Behavior Research Methods, 49*(3), 803–821. https://doi.org/10.3758/s13428-016-0743-z

Damen, F., Knippenberg, B. V., & Knippenberg, D. V. (2008). Affective match in leadership: Leader emotional displays, follower positive affect, and follower performance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 38*(4), 868–902. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2008.00330.x

Dasborough, M. T. (2006). Cognitive asymmetry in employee emotional reactions to leadership behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly, 17*(2), 163–178. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.12.004

Elfenbein, H. A. (2007). Emotion in organizations: A review and theoretical integration. *The Academy of Management Annals, 1*(1), 315–386. https://doi.org/10.5465/078559812

Elfenbein, H. A., & Eisenkraft, N. (2010). The relationship between displaying and perceiving nonverbal cues of affect: A meta-analysis to solve an old mystery. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 98*(2), 301–318. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017766

Elfenbein, H. A., Foo, M. D., Mandal, M., Biswal, R., Eisenkraft, N., Lim, A., & Sharma, S. (2010). Individual differences in the accuracy of expressing and perceiving nonverbal cues: New data on an old question. *Journal of Research in Personality, 44*(2), 199–206. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2010.01.001

Else-Quest, N. M., Higgins, A., Allison, C., & Morton, L. C. (2012). Gender differences in self-conscious emotional experience: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin, 138*(5), 947–981. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0027930

Fischbach, A., Lichtenthaler, P. W., & Horstmann, N. (2015). Leadership and gender stereotyping of emotions: Think manager - think male? *Journal of Personnel Psychology, 14*(3), 153–162. https://doi.org/10.1027/1866-5888/a000136

Fischer, T., Hambrick, D. C., Sajons, G. B., & Quaquebeke Van, N. (2020). Beyond the ritualized use of questionnaires: Toward a science of actual behaviors and psychological states. *The Leadership Quarterly, 31*(4). https://reader.elsevier.com/reader/sd/pii/S104898432030076X

Frijda, N. H. (1988). The laws of emotion. *The American Psychologist, 43*(5), 349–358. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.43.5.349

Gabriel, A. S., Butts, M. M., Chawla, N., Veiga, S. P. da M., Turban, D. B., & Green, J. D. (2022). Feeling positive, negative, or both? Examining the self-regulatory benefits of emotional ambivalence. *Organization Science, 33*(6), 2477–2495. https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.2021.1553

Gentry, W. A., Clark, M. A., Young, S. F., Cullen, K. L., & Zimmerman, L. (2015). How displaying empathic concern may differentially predict career derailment potential for women and men leaders in Australia. *The Leadership Quarterly, 26*(4), 641–653. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.05.003

Gooty, J., Connelly, S., Griffith, J., & Gupta, A. (2010). Leadership, affect and emotions: A state of the science review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *21*(6), 979–1004. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.10.005

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25

years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly, 6*(2), 219-247. https://doi.org/10.1016/1048-9843(95)90036-5

Greenspan, P. (1980). "A case of mixed feelings: ambivalence and the logic of emotion," in Explaining Emotions, A Reader, ed S. Leighton (Mississauga, ON: Broadview Press), 91–116.

Hoemann, K., Gendron, M., & Barrett, L. F. (2017). Mixed emotions in the predictive brain. *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences, 15*, 51–57. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cobeha.2017.05.013

Koch, P. J. (1987). Emotional ambivalence. *Philosophy and Phenomenological Research*, *48*(2), 257–279. https://doi.org/10.2307/2107628

Koning, L. F., & Van Kleef, G. A. (2015). How leaders' emotional displays shape followers' organizational citizenship behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *26*(4), 489–501. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.03.001

Keltner, D., & Haidt, J. (2003). Approaching awe, a moral, spiritual, and aesthetic emotion. *Cognition and Emotion*, *17*(2), 297–314. https://doi.org/10.1080/02699930302297

Larsen, J. T., McGraw, A. P., & Cacioppo, J. T. (2001). Can people feel happy and sad at the same time? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 81*(4), 684–696. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.81.4.684

Larsen, J. T., & McGraw, A. P. (2014). The case for mixed emotions. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, *8*(6), 263–274. https://doi.org/10.1111/spc3.12108

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). Cognitive theories of emotion. In Stress, appraisal, and coping. Springer Publishing Company.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. (1984). Methodological issues. In Stress, appraisal, and coping. Springer Publishing Company.

Le Mau, T., Hoemann, K., Lyons, S. H., Fugate, J. M. B., Brown, E. N., Gendron, M., & Barrett, L. F. (2021). Professional actors demonstrate variability, not stereotypical expressions, when portraying emotional states in photographs. *Nature Communications*, *12*(1), 5037–5037. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-021-25352-6

Lim, J. H., Tai, K., & Kouchaki, M. (2021). Ambivalent bosses: An examination of supervisor expressed emotional ambivalence on subordinate task engagement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 165*, 139–152. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2021.05.001

Lindquist, K. A., Siegel, E. H., Quigley, K. S., & Barrett, L. F. (2013). The hundred-year emotion war: Are emotions natural kinds or psychological constructions? Comment on Lench, Flores, and Bench (2011). *Psychological Bulletin*, *139*(1), 255–263. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0029038

Madera, J. M., & Smith, D. B. (2009). The effects of leader negative emotions on evaluations of leadership in a crisis situation: The role of anger and sadness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *20*(2), 103–114. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.01.007

Marwan, S. (2018). *Rana El Kaliouby CEO Of Affectiva Is Training Robots To Read Feelings*. Forbes. Retrieved from

https://www.forbes.com/sites/samarmarwan/2018/11/29/affectiva-emotion-ai-ceo-rana-el-kaliouby/

Menninghaus, W., Wagner, V., Hanich, J., Wassiliwizky, E., Kuehnast, M., & Jacobsen, T. (2015). Towards a psychological construct of being moved. *PloS One*, *10*(6), e0128451–e0128451. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0128451

Niedenthal, P. M., & Brauer, M. (2012). Social functionality of human emotion. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *63*(1), 259–285. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.121208.131605

Oceja, L., & Carrera, P. (2009). Beyond a single pattern of mixed emotional experience: Sequential, prevalence, inverse, and simultaneous. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment : Official Organ of the European Association of Psychological Assessment*, *25*(1), 58–67. https://doi.org/10.1027/1015-5759.25.1.58

Oh, V. Y. S., & Tong, E. M. W. (2022). Specificity in the study of mixed emotions: A theoretical framework. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, *26*(4), 283–314. https://doi.org/10.1177/10888683221083398

Pfeffer, J. (1977). The ambiguity of leadership. *Academy of Management Review*, *2*(1), 104-112. https://doi.org/10.2307/257611

Priester, J. R., & Petty, R. E. (1996). The gradual threshold model of ambivalence: Relating the positive and negative bases of attitudes to subjective ambivalence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *71*(3), 431–449. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.71.3.431

Rees, L., Rothman, N. B., Lehavy, R., & Sanchez-Burks, J. (2013). The ambivalent mind can be a wise mind: Emotional ambivalence increases judgment accuracy. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 49*(3), 360–367. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2012.12.017

Riggio, R. E., & Newstead, T. (2023). Crisis leadership. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior, 10*(1), 201–224. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-120920-044838

Rothman, N. B. (2008). *How to lose friends but make others think: The social consequences of expressing emotional ambivalence*. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.

Rothman, N. B. (2011). Steering sheep: How expressed emotional ambivalence elicits dominance in interdependent decision making contexts. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 116*(1), 66–82. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2011.05.004

Rothman, N. B., & Wiesenfeld, B. M. (2007). Chapter 11: The social consequences of expressing emotional ambivalence in groups and teams. In *Affect and groups* (pp. 275-308). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Rothman, N. B., Pratt, M. G., Rees, L., & Vogus, T. J. (2017). Understanding the dual nature of ambivalence: Why and when ambivalence leads to good and bad outcomes. *The Academy of Management Annals*, *11*(1), 33–72. https://doi.org/10.5465/annals.2014.0066

Russell, J. A. (1980). A circumplex model of affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *39*(6), 1161–1178. https://doi.org/10.1037/h0077714

Shao, B. (2024). The leader affect revolution reloaded: Toward an integrative framework and a robust science. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *35*(1). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2023.101756

Shen, W., Evans, R., Liang, L. H., & Brown, D. J. (2023). Bad, mad, or glad? Exploring the relationship between leaders' appraisals or attributions of their use of abusive supervision and emotional reactions. *Applied Psychology*, *72*(2), 647–673. https://doi.org/10.1111/apps.12394

Shockley, K. M., Ispas, D., Rossi, M. E., & Levine, E. L. (2012). A meta-analytic investigation of the relationship between state affect, discrete emotions, and job performance. *Human Performance*, *25*(5), 377–411. https://doi.org/10.1080/08959285.2012.721832

Shuman, V., Sander, D., & Scherer, K. R. (2013). Levels of valence. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *4*, 261–261. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2013.00261

Smith, W. K., Lewis, M. W., & Tushman, M. L. (2016). "Both/And" Leadership. In *Harvard Business Review* (pp. 1-). Harvard Business Review.

Spence, M. (1973). Job Market Signaling. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, *87*(3), 355–374. https://doi.org/10.2307/1882010

Staw, B. M., & Barsade, S. G. (1993). Affect and managerial performance: A test of the sadder-but-wiser vs. happier-and-smarter hypotheses. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 38*(2), 304–331. https://doi.org/10.2307/2393415

Stollberger, J., Guillaume, Y., & Van Knippenberg, D. (2023). Inspiring, yet tiring: How leader emotional complexity shapes follower creativity. *Organization Science, 35*(3), 1015–1041. https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.2019.13152

Sy, T., Horton, C., & Riggio, R. (2018). Charismatic leadership: Eliciting and channeling follower emotions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *29*(1), 58–69. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.12.008

Tonidandel, S., King, E. B., & Cortina, J. M. (2018). Big data methods: Leveraging modern data analytic techniques to build organizational science. *Organizational Research Methods*, *21*(3), 525–547. https://doi.org/10.1177/1094428116677299

Tonidandel, S., & Albritton, B. H. (2023). Transforming leadership assessment using natural language processing. *Talent Assessment: Embracing Innovation and Mitigating Risk in the Digital Age*. (pp. 149-168). Oxford University Press.

Vaccaro, A. G., Kaplan, J. T., & Damasio, A. (2020). Bittersweet: The neuroscience of ambivalent affect. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 15*(5), 1187–1199. https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691620927708

Van Kleef, G. A. (2009). How emotions regulate social life: The emotions as social information (EASI) model. *Current Directions in Psychological Science : A Journal of the American Psychological Society, 18*(3), 184–188. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8721.2009.01633.x

Volk, S., Waldman, D. A., & Barnes, C. M. (2023). A circadian theory of paradoxical leadership. *The Academy of Management Review*, *48*(4), 611–638. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2020.0468

Walle, E. A., & Dukes, D. (2023). We (still!) need to talk about valence: Contemporary issues and recommendations for affective science. *Affective Science*, *4*(3), 463–469. https://doi.org/10.1007/s42761-023-00217-x

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1991). Self-versus peer ratings of specific emotional traits: Evidence of convergent and discriminant validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *60*(6), 927–940. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.60.6.927

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

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 (pp. 1−74). Greenwich, CT: JAI.

Williams, C. E., Thomas, J. S., Bennett, A. A., Banks, G. C., Toth, A., Dunn, A. M., McBride, A., & Gooty, J. (2024). The role of discrete emotions in job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *45*(1), 97–116. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2747

Wu, Y. L., Shao, B., Newman, A., & Schwarz, G. (2021). Crisis leadership: A review and future research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly, 32*(6), 101518-. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2021.101518

Young, A. W., Rowland, D., Calder, A. J., Etcoff, N. L., Seth, A., & Perrett, D. I. (1997). Facial expression megamix: Tests of dimensional and category accounts of emotion recognition. *Cognition*, *63*(3), 271–313. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0010-0277(97)00003-6

Yukl, G. (2012). Effective leadership behavior: What we know and what questions need more attention. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *26*(4), 66-85. https://doi.org/10.5465/amp.2012.0088

Yukl, G., Gordon, A., & Taber, T. (2002). A hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behavior: Integrating a half century of behavior research. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, *9*(1), 15-32. https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190200900102

Zhang, Y., Waldman, D. A., Han, Y.-L., & Li, X.-B. (2015). Paradoxical leader behaviors in people management: Antecedents and consequences. *Academy of Management Journal, 58*(2), 538–566. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2012.0995