Article:

Chiang, Jack Ting Ju, Chen, Xiao Ping, Liu, Haiyang, Akutsu, Satoshi and Wang, Zheng (2020) We have emotions but can’t show them! Authoritarian leadership, emotion suppression climate, and team performance. Human Relations. ISSN 0018-7267

https://doi.org/10.1177/0018726720908649

We Have Emotions but Can't Show Them!

Authoritarian Leadership, Emotion Suppression Climate, and Team Performance

CHIANG, JACK[1]; CHEN, XIAO-PING[2]; LIU, HAIYANG[3]; AKUTSU, SATOSHI[4]; WANG, ZHENG (CONTACT)[1]

Abstract

How do authoritarian leaders in modern organizations influence work team emotional climate and performance? Defining authoritarian leadership as an ambient, demanding, and controlling leadership style, we conducted a survey study of 252 leaders and 765 subordinates matched in 227 work teams in three large public Japanese organizations. The results indicate that authoritarian leaders are more likely to create a team climate of emotion suppression, which induces higher level of team emotional exhaustion that negatively impacts team performance. Furthermore, we found that authoritarian leaders' own emotion suppression enhances the above sequential mediation effects, i.e. the more emotion suppression the authoritarian leader him/ herself exercises, the stronger the team climate of emotion suppression, the higher the level of team emotional exhaustion, and the lower the team performance. These findings suggest that leadership effectiveness may be improved if leaders can reduce their authoritarian behaviors and identify appropriate channels for employees to release emotions in the workplace.

[1] Peking University, China

[2] University of Washington, USA

[3] London School of Economics and Political Science, UK

[4] Hitotsubashi University, Japan

Keywords: authoritarian leadership, leader emotion suppression, team emotion suppression climate, emotional exhaustion, team performance

Authoritarian leadership is a leadership style that uses authority to control subordinates and demands unquestioning compliance or absolute obedience from subordinates (Chen et al., 2014; Schaubroeck et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2013). Authoritarian leadership has been regarded as destructive and ineffective (Aryee et al., 2007; House et al., 2004); however, it persists in contemporary business organizations that value delegation and empowerment (Srivastava et al., 2006; Zhang and Bartol, 2010). Authoritarian leadership has especially thrived in high power distance contexts in which superiors have much more power than subordinates (e.g. Chan et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2012). Studies about authoritarian leadership also extend beyond academic literature. A 2017 white paper published by the Hay Group (2017) revealed that authoritarian leadership is still a dominant leadership style around the world. Specifically, 27% of Japanese business leaders, 45% of Chinese business leaders, 49% of the French business leaders, and 24% of the American business leaders are reported to have adopted a leadership approach that has authoritarian characteristics.

Even though leaders are responsible for achieving a team's or organization's goals, most existing leadership research discusses a leader's influence on individual subordinates (e.g. Cole et al., 2013; Ellemers et al., 2004; Kozlowski and Bell, 2013). This disconnect also exists in research on authoritarian leadership, which mainly focuses on its impact on individual employee outcomes. For instance, Wu et al. (2012) studied and found that authoritarian leadership was negatively related to employee task performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) through its negative impact on employee trust. Chan et al. (2013) explained this negative influence using organization-based self-esteem as an underlying mechanism. Schaubroeck et al.

(2017) found that authoritarian leadership interacted with an organization's power distance to affect employee job performance, intention to stay, and affective commitment via employee perceived insider status. These studies all provide psychological mechanisms to explain how authoritarian leadership influences individual employee's job attitude and performance, but none of them examined how authoritarian leadership exerts influence on work team outcomes.

This paper adopts an average leadership view (e.g. Ferris, 1985; Yammarino and Dansereau, 2008) to investigate how and why authoritarian leadership is negatively related to team performance. In the average leadership view, leaders demonstrate the same or similar behaviors towards all of subordinates and thus exert an average leadership influence on all subordinates. Along these lines, we postulate that authoritarian leaders are likely to show similar controlling and demanding behaviors toward all team members, thus fostering an ambient environment that creates a shared experience for all members (e.g. Chen and Bliese, 2002; Griffin and Mathieu, 1997). Specifically, we refer to this ambient environment as a climate of emotion suppression which is nurtured by the authoritarian leader. Adopting the emotion regulation perspective (Gross, 1998a), we propose that team members under authoritarian leaders are likely to develop a shared perception about the extent to which it is *inappropriate to express emotions* at work because authoritarian leaders emphasize controlling, including controlling others' emotion expression in the workplace (Wu et al., 2002). To minimize any uncontrollable emotions, the authoritarian leaders may use their authority to set up rules to ensure that employees' emotions are not spontaneously revealed. These rules may range from publicly scolding those who display emotions as childish and immature, to imposing financial punishment or even expelling them from the workplace. As employees' emotional arousal is inevitable, especially under authoritarian leaders (Farh et al., 2006), in order to avoid punishment,

employees will have to engage in an emotion regulation strategy called emotion suppression (Butler et al., 2007; Gross and Levenson, 1993, 1997; Gross and John, 2003). Over time, employees will share a common understanding that it is not appropriate to show emotions at work; hence, a work team under an authoritarian leader is likely to develop a climate of emotion suppression.

Meanwhile, we postulate that the extent to which the authoritarian leader him/herself shows emotion can either weaken or strengthen the team emotion suppression climate. In a work team where the authoritarian leader freely expresses a wide range of emotions, the team emotion suppression climate will be weaker than that in a team with an authoritarian leader rarely expresses emotions openly. This difference can be attributed to emotions as social information theory (Van Kleef, 2009; Van Kleef et al., 2009) which purports that team members often infer social information from the leader's emotions. By observing the leader's emotion expression behavior, team members can learn the extent to which it is appropriate or inappropriate to show emotions in the work context.

Furthermore, we propose that a team emotion suppression climate will be positively related to the emotion exhaustion of the work team. As a result of the individual emotional suppression of the team members, there is a lack of emotional communication among team members and no outlet for the team members' emotions to be released. With no means for emotional release, it is common for more negative and less positive emotions to accumulate (e.g. Gross and Levenson, 1997; Stepper and Strack, 1993) and permeate across the team. In this situation, all team members will need to expend considerate mental and psychological resources to constantly manage their emotions, and this will lead to fatigue, apathy, and, eventually, team emotional exhaustion. It then follows that emotionally exhausted teams will not be able to

perform their tasks with as much effort or energy as those that are less emotionally exhausted. Therefore, we predict that team emotion exhaustion will be negatively related to team performance.

This paper contributes to literature on authoritarian leadership in a number of ways. First, a great deal of existing research focuses on the impact of authoritarian leadership on individual-level employee's performance whereas our paper focuses on team-level performance. We also develop a team-level model of authoritarian leadership influence which can enrich the body of research. Second, our theoretical framework uses the emotion regulation perspective to explain how and why authoritarian leadership influences team performance. This framework sheds light on how a member's emotional experience may be a link between authoritarian leadership and team performance. Third, we uniquely identify a leader's own emotion suppression as a moderating factor in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and team emotion suppression climate. Finally, our paper enhances the emotion regulation perspective by elevating the individual-level construct to the team level. By theorizing emotion suppression at the team-level and its relationship with team-level process and performance, we extend the emotion regulation theoretical perspective to account for work team phenomenon.

Theoretical background and hypotheses

Comparing authoritarian leadership with related constructs

As authoritarian leaders emphasize authority to gain control over subordinates (Schaubroeck et al., 2017) and often dictate decisions and demand absolute obedience (Chen et al, 2014; Wang et al., 2013), the authoritarian style of leadership has been likened to autocratic leadership, directive leadership, and leader Machiavellianism. Despite their similarities, important theoretical and empirical distinctions exist between these constructs.

Autocratic leadership is generally defined as a leadership style in which authority and power are centralized in the leaders (Harms et al., 2018). Since both authoritarian leadership and autocratic leadership are characterized by leaders' centralized power, they have been treated interchangeably in early literature (Bass, 1990; Lewin and Lippitt, 1938). However, recent research postulates that they are distinct because unlike authoritarian leadership, autocratic leadership is often not considered destructive or on the "dark-side" of leadership (Dotlich and Cairo, 2003; Harms et al., 2018; Krasikova et al., 2013; Schyns and Schilling, 2013). The two types of leaders also differ in how they interact with their team members. Autocratic leaders tend to be task-oriented and to initiate structure behaviors, which can be perceived as effective and accepted by subordinates who seek for strong leaders (DeRue et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2004). In contrast, authoritarian leaders demand absolute obedience and this domineering style generally elicits negative responses such as fear or distrust (Chen et al, 2014; Harms et al., 2018; Schaubroeck et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2013).

Authoritarian leadership differs from directive leadership in how the leader gives feedback to subordinates. Directive leadership is defined as "leader behaviors that provide subordinates with specific guidance regarding goals, means of achieving goals, and performance standards" (Martin et al., 2013: 1374). As such, directive leaders actively supervise performance and provide feedback that is both positive and negative. While both directive leadership and authoritarian leadership are associated with leaders exercising power, providing directions, and expecting compliance from subordinates, a directive leader focuses on providing guidance. In contrast, an authoritarian leader focuses on controlling and making demands of subordinates.

The major difference between Machiavellianism and authoritarian leadership is that Machiavellianism refers to a set of personality traits (Paulhus and Williams, 2002) whereas

authoritarian leadership is a leadership style. Machiavellianism is composed of a set of characteristics, including a "tendency to distrust others, a willingness to engage in amoral manipulation, a desire to accumulate status for oneself, and a desire to maintain interpersonal control" (Dahling et al., 2009: 227). In addition, although both authoritarian leaders and Machiavellian leaders desire power and control, authoritarian leaders do not have the tendency to distrust others nor do they have a willingness to engage in amoral manipulation.

Defining team emotion suppression climate

Leaders exert influence over a team or organization by fostering an ambient environment that creates a shared experience for all members and helps members make sense of ambiguous situations (e.g. Chen and Bliese, 2002; Griffin and Mathieu, 1997). In addition, leaders can set the emotional tone for the entire work team by creating a type of ambient stimulus that pervades the team (Goleman, 1998; Pescosolido, 2002; Hackman, 1992; Liao and Chuang, 2007), which is often called a team climate (e.g. Liao and Chuang, 2007; Zohar and Luria, 2005). Once a team climate is formed, it influences how members think and feel about certain aspects of their work environment (Salancik and Pfeffer, 1978).

The existing literature on team climate examines how leaders influence climate, often focusing on the cognitive or behavioral nature of climate such as justice climate or service climate (Colquitt et al., 2002; Liao and Chuang, 2004, 2007; Naumann and Bennett, 2002). Our research addresses a separate aspect of team climate by studying how the leader may guide team members' emotion regulation at work (e.g. Bono et al., 2007; Chuang et al., 2012; Erez et al., 2008; Ilies et al., 2006).

Emotion regulation refers to "a process by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross,

1998b: 275). The process model (Gross, 2002) outlines two main strategies for emotion regulation, namely, antecedent-focused and response-focused strategies. Antecedent-focused strategies are based on actions preceding the full activation of an emotional response and often refer to modifying initial feelings by changing the situation or the cognitions of the situation (Grandey et al., 2005). Response-focused strategies, on the other hand, are concerned with how emotional response tendencies are modulated after they have been triggered and include strategies such as suppression, faking, or amplification of an emotional response (Grandey et al., 2005). Emotions are inevitable in the workplace due to deadline pressure, interpersonal conflict, etc. Therefore, in our research, we will focus on how authoritarian leaders influence the extent to which team members suppress their emotions as well as how emotion suppression aggregated at the team level negatively impacts team performance.

We propose that authoritarian leadership is conducive to promoting an emotion suppression climate in the work team. The team emotion suppression climate is defined as team members' shared perception about the extent to which it is inappropriate for them to express emotions at work. Importantly, emotion suppression is not simply a lack of expression but rather involves the active reduction of emotion expression in order to inhibit a positive or negative expression of an emotional response (Butler et al., 2007; Gross and Levenson, 1993, 1997). When a team emotion suppression climate is strong, members are likely to invest more effort in restricting emotion expression within the work team than when such climate is weak. It is also conceivable that the expectation for emotion expression may be unique for each team, and can range from very encouraging to very discouraging. For example, it is common that therapy groups have rules to encourage free expression of emotions (Stokes, 1983) whereas medical schools train their students to be affectively neutral (Smith and Kleinman, 1989).

Authoritarian leadership and team emotion suppression climate

We propose that team emotion suppression climate is often actively cultivated by authoritarian leaders. Scholars have suggested that it is a major function of leadership to manage team members' emotions (e.g. Goleman, 1998). Humphrey (2002) even emphasized that a leader's task to manage team member's emotions is "not a peripheral task with little relevance to productivity, but is instead one of the main ways leaders influence performance" (p. 497). As authoritarian leaders exert absolute control and expect full obedience from their subordinates (Chen et al., 2014; Farh and Cheng, 2000), it then follows that controlling emotion expression is an integral part of their leadership influence. In fact, authoritarian leaders may perceive a workplace that is full of emotion as a place that is out of control. As a result, they will discourage subordinates to show emotions by creating a team climate that suppresses emotion expression.

In addition, due to the large power difference between authoritarian leaders and their subordinates, the subordinates with lower status are often obedient and comply with leaders' demands (e.g. Keltner et al., 2003). Previous research has shown that subordinates tend to adopt lower status behaviors in order to assign a higher status to their leaders (Howell and Shamir, 2005; Menges et al., 2015). These lower status behaviors include automatically following social norms (Howell and Shamir, 2005; Keltner et al, 2003), refraining from showing true emotions, and restricting body movements (Ellyson and Dovidio, 1985; Keltner et al., 1998; Menges et al., 2015; Tiedens and Fragale, 2003). These findings suggest that even without authoritarian leaders' active cultivation of an emotion suppression climate, when subordinates observe and imitate one another's demeanor on emotion suppression, a team climate of emotion suppression is likely to emerge and sustain.

Team emotion suppression climate does not only concern negative emotions such as fear or anxiety but also positive emotions such as joy or excitement. Research has indicated that workplaces are a host for both positive and negative experiences and emotions (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996), and when engaging in the regulation process at work, people tend to suppress negative as well as positive emotions (Gross and John, 2003; Clark, 1990; Erber et al., 1996; Mann, 1999; Shields, 2005). For example, two lab studies by Menges et al. (2015) found that subordinates of charismatic leaders suppress the expression of both positive and negative emotions. In this paper, we follow the same logic to posit that the emotion suppression climate created by authoritarian leadership impacts the extent to which subordinates express both positive and negative emotions. Subordinates of an authoritarian leader tended to recognize the risk in expressing positive emotions, especially regarding whether the emotion is displayed at the appropriate time or place (Kalokerinos et al., 2014). An authoritarian leader, for instance, may condemn happy celebrations of subordinates' birthdays or personal achievements because these spontaneous activities are at odds with the controlling, dominant, and power centralization nature of authoritarian leadership.

Taking together the above arguments, we propose

Hypothesis 1: Authoritarian leadership will be positively related to team emotion suppression climate.

The moderating role of authoritarian leaders' self emotion suppression

Team members tend to attend to leader's emotions in order to understand and interpret the leader's true intentions. The emotions as social information (EASI) model (Van Kleef, 2009; Van Kleef et al., 2009) posits that an individual's emotional expression can influence others' attitudes and behaviors because it conveys information about this individual's thoughts, feelings,

and intentions (Keltner and Haidt, 1999; Van Kleef, 2008). As a subordinate's career development is often in the hands of the leader, there is an asymmetrical balance of power between an authoritarian leader and a subordinate. Therefore, the subordinate will pay close attention to the leader's emotion expression and use that information to infer the leader's thoughts, feelings, and intention. If the authoritarian leader does not show much emotion at work, subordinates may interpret such behavior in several ways as follows. First, a non-emotional leader may signal that everything is under control and that there are no extraordinary things happening within the work team. Second, in the event that a serious malfunction happened, or a super difficult goal is achieved, the lack of emotion from the leader could imply that the leader is not that worried, or that the goal achievement is not significant. Third, after observing the leader repeatedly not showing emotion even under many different circumstances, subordinates could infer that not showing any emotion is a norm that should be observed by all. In this last case, a team climate of emotion suppression will emerge over time and can guide how subordinates show or not show their emotions.

It is important to point out that an authoritarian leader engaging in emotion suppression may not be successful at all times. It is difficult, even for individuals with a heightened sense of control, to perfectly manage or hide their emotions (Gross and John, 2003; Kennedy-Moore and Watson, 2001). Emotions might be "leaked" and may be detected through minor facial expressions or subtle physical movements (Ekman and Friesen, 1969). Scholars have found that the likelihood of emotional leakage increased when individuals suppressed their emotions for an extended period of time because their internal emotional state can be regularly exacerbated (Gross and John, 2003; Gross and Levenson, 1993, 1997; Webb et al., 2012; Chervonsky and Hunt, 2017).

Besides emotional leakage, it is also well known that some authoritarian leaders actually express emotions freely as they see fit. For example, even though Steve Jobs is often described as an authoritarian leader in the literature (Riddle, 2011), while he was CEO of Apple, he was known to display a lot of anger when encountering criticism and be elated when hearing innovative ideas (Isaacson, 2011). Jeff Bezos, founder and CEO of Amazon, is characterized in a similar manner, that is, authoritarian but freely express emotions (Stone, 2013). In cases with leaders like these CEOs, subordinates may perceive less restricted emotion expression but will still rely on the social information gleaned from their leaders' emotion expression to learn when and where it is appropriate to exhibit appropriate emotions.

Our above discussion suggests that while authoritarian leaders emphasize control and obedience and tend to create a team emotion suppression climate, the extent to which they engage in or successfully suppress their own emotions varies greatly from one authoritarian leader to another. As a result, the extent to which a leader engages in self emotion suppression and how successful such effort is will moderate the relationship between authoritarian leadership and team emotion suppression climate. When the leader is highly successful in suppressing his/her own emotions at work, it makes the emotion suppression signal stronger to team members who will easily perceive group norm for emotion suppression. On the other hand, if the leader does not engage in any emotion suppression, then it may reduce the strength of the group norm, therefore weaken the relationship between authoritarian leadership and team climate of emotion suppression. We propose

Hypothesis 2: Leaders' self emotion suppression will moderate the positive relationship between authoritarian leadership and team emotion suppression climate, such that the positive relationship will be stronger when leaders' self emotion suppression is higher.

Team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion

Emotional exhaustion is characterized by "physical fatigue and a sense of feeling psychologically and emotionally drained" (Wright and Cropanzano, 1998: 486). This paper builds on the established understanding that individual's emotion suppression, which can be a source of job stress, is linked to individual emotional exhaustion (Grandey et al., 2005) to suggest that the linkage also exists at the team level: team emotion suppression climate is linked to team emotional exhaustion.

Accumulated research on emotion regulation has established that there is a close relationship between individual emotion suppression and emotional exhaustion. For example, there is evidence that emotion suppression tends to generate individuals' physiological arousal and self-reported strain (Brotheridge and Lee, 2002; Butler et al., 2003; Grandey et al., 2005; Gross and Levenson, 1993, 1997; Sideman and Grandey, 2003). The literature on emotional labor-- "the effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions" (Morris and Feldman, 1996: 987), also indicates a positive relationship between surface acting (i.e. suppressing undesirable but showing desirable emotion without really feeling it) and emotional exhaustion (e.g. Grandey, 2003; Hochschild, 1983). Three inter-related mechanisms have been proposed to explain how emotion suppression is related to emotional exhaustion (e.g. Gross and John, 2003). One is related to the lingering of the unexpressed emotions, which keeps the experience of negative emotions intact but significantly decreases the experience of positive emotions (Gross and Levenson, 1997; Stepper and Strack, 1993; Strack et al., 1988). The second is related to the repeated efforts needed to manage emotion response tendencies as they continually arise; and this consumes cognitive resources and leads to a failure to absorb social information (Butler et al., 2003; Richards and Gross, 2000).

The third mechanism is a sense of emotional incongruence induced by suppression (Rogers, 1951), which may result in negative feelings about the self and alienate the individual from him/herself, as well as from others (Sheldon et al., 1997). The lack of emotional communication prevents the accumulating emotion from be released via social interaction and can lead to emotional exhaustion.

To articulate how team emotion suppression climate is linked to team emotional exhaustion, we focus on how the lack of emotional communication among team members results from individual emotion suppression under a team emotion suppression climate. On one hand, when team emotion suppression climate is weak, members do not need to suppress emotions and are free to show the emotions they experience in the moment. In this situation, they can read each other's emotions easily and respond accordingly, i.e.) cheer with those experiencing positive emotions or comfort those experiencing negative emotions. Such social interactions are likely to result in a positive emotional atmosphere within the team and increase rather than deplete the team's energy (Collins et al., 2013; Kelly and Barsade, 2001). On the other hand, if team emotion suppression climate is strong, there is no outlet for one's emotion to be released, even via social interactions. In this case, more negative emotions and less positive emotions often accumulate in the team and permeate (e.g. Gross and Levenson, 1997; Stepper and Strack, 1993), so that the team must invest attention and effort to manage the emotions. As a result of all team members constantly managing these emotions, they are likely to lead to fatigue, apathy, and eventually, team emotional exhaustion. We therefore propose

Hypothesis 3: Team emotion suppression climate will be positively related to team emotional exhaustion.

Team emotional exhaustion and team performance

Research has demonstrated that at the individual level, an employee's emotional exhaustion is related to his/her reduced job performance (Cropanzano et al., 2003; Halbesleben and Bowler, 2007; Wright and Cropanzano, 1998). We conjecture that team emotion exhaustion will have similar damaging effects on team performance. First, team emotional exhaustion reduces the motivation of all members to complete job tasks. For example, Halbesleben and Bowler (2007) found that subordinates who suffered from emotional exhaustion had lowered achievement striving (or aspiration) when performing tasks. Since achievement striving is the energy needed to complete a task, team members who are psychologically and emotionally depleted feel that they are unable to complete the required tasks. Second, when team members are emotionally exhausted, they are likely to break their social exchange relationships with their work team because they do not have the energy to fulfill their obligations (Blau, 1964; Cropanzano et al., 2003). Consequently, they are likely to reduce their effort when completing their work tasks. Finally, team performance is dependent on team members' communication and interaction to solve problems and make decisions collectively (Devine, 1999). When team members are emotionally exhausted, they lose the capacity to sense others' emotions and have difficulty to infer others' intentions and attitudes (e.g. Butler et al., 2003). As a result, they fail to connect emotionally, which creates barriers to achieve coordination and collaboration efficiently and effectively. In the end, team performance will suffer. We therefore propose

Hypothesis 4: Team emotional exhaustion will be negatively related to team performance.

The integrated hypothesis

In the previous sections, we propose that an authoritarian leader is likely to create an emotion suppression climate in his or her team. At the meantime, the emotion suppression

climate is likely to make members feel emotionally exhausted, which can in turn jeopardize the team's performance. In addition, following the emotions as social information (EASI) model (Van Kleef, 2009; Van Kleef, et al., 2009), we suggest that if the authoritarian leader frequently suppresses his or her own emotions, a team emotion suppression climate will be even stronger than if he or she often expresses emotions freely at work. Along the same logic, we propose that the impact of authoritarian leadership on team performance via team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion will also be influenced by the extent to which the authoritarian leader suppresses his or her own emotions. We hypothesize

Hypothesis 5: Leaders' self emotion suppression will moderate the sequential mediation between authoritarian leadership, team emotion suppression climate, team emotional exhaustion, and team performance, such that the mediation will be stronger when leaders' self emotion suppression is higher.

Methods

Participants and procedure

A total of 252 leaders and 765 subordinates matched in 227 work teams from three large public Japanese companies participated in this study. Company 1 and Company 2 are in retail industry and Company 3 is in IT industry. The author team first contacted the top management of the three companies to obtain initial consent and support. The HR department of each company then helped to identify the work teams that would participate in the study.

In each team, one leader and three members filled out the survey. All surveys were conducted using the Qualtrics online survey tool (Qualtrics, 2019) which assured the anonymity of responses. All participants were given permission to withdraw from the survey at any point. The teams that participated in our study were small and usually consisted of one leader and three

to five members. In the cases where a work team consisted of more than three members, the HR manager randomly selected three members of this team to participate in our study.

With the support from the HR department, we were able to approach and distribute our survey to 274 team leaders and 822 team members. At the end, we received a total of 252 completed leader surveys (92% response rate) and 765 completed member surveys (93% response rate) which were matched to responses in 227 teams. In terms of the company breakdown, 130 leaders and 390 team members participated in our survey from Company 1, 88 leaders and 264 team members participated from Company 2, and 56 leaders and 168 team members participated from Company 3. At the end, we received 116 leader surveys (89% response rate) and 354 team member surveys (91% response rate) from Company 1, 83 leader surveys (94% response rate) and 249 team member surveys (94% response rate) from Company 2, and 53 leader surveys (95% response rate) and 162 team member surveys (96% response rate) from Company 3.

The team leader sample was 78% male and 22% female. The average age of the team leader was 41.30 years old (SD = 6.49). In the team member sample, 64% were male and 36% were female. The mean age of the team members was 37.01 years old (SD = 6.33).

Measures

The questionnaires were originally written in English but translated into Japanese through the back-translation process (Brislin, 1980). The Japanese-language questionnaires were distributed to the participants. We used a 7-point Likert scale (*1= "strongly disagree"; 7 = "strongly agree*") for all of the measures in the study.

Authoritarian leadership. Team members evaluated their respective leader's authoritarian leadership using Cheng et al.'s (2004) 9-item authoritarian leadership scale, which has been

adopted by many other studies including Chen et al. (2014). The scale included items such as "My supervisor always has the last say in the meeting," "My supervisor determines all decisions in our team whether they are important or not," and "My supervisor exercises strict discipline over subordinates." The Cronbach alpha for this scale was .89. In addition, we calculated the within-team agreement, r_{wg}, and the interclass correlation coefficients, ICC (1) and ICC (2) to justify the aggregation. For $r_{wg,}$ we calculated the median to avoid the influence of extreme scores. The r_{wg}, ICC (1), and ICC (2) values were .93, .42, and .66, respectively, reaching the required criteria for aggregation (Bliese, 2000).

Leader emotion suppression. We asked team leaders to evaluate their own emotion suppression following Gross and John's (2003) 4-item emotion suppression scale. The scale included items such as "I control my emotions by not expressing them," "When I incur negative emotions, I make sure not to express them," "I keep my emotions to myself," and "When I incur positive emotions, I am careful not to express them." The Cronbach alpha for this scale was .70.

*Team emotion suppression clim*ate. Based on Klein and Kozlowski (2000: 215), team climate is a shared team property in which perceptions, cognitions, or experiences "are held in common by members of a team." In order to assess a shared team property, i.e. team emotion suppression climate in this study, we aggregated individual responses into a team-level property (Klein and Kozlowski, 2000). The measurement of similar climate constructs such as service climate and justice climate are also based on individual member's responses and are then aggregated to a higher level (e.g. Colquitt et al., 2002; Liao and Rupp, 2005; Liao and Chuang, 2007). Furthermore, we adopted Chan's (1998) referent-shift consensus model to ask members of each team to report their perceptions of team emotion suppression climate because the referent-shift approach can increase the within-group homogeneity (Klein and Kozlowski, 2000).

Gross and John's (2003) four-item scale of emotion suppression was used and further modified to fit our research context. The four items were: "In my team, it is appropriate to control emotions by not expressing them," "In my team, we make sure that we do not express negative emotions when we feel them," "In my team, it is not appropriate to express emotions," and "In my team, we are asked to be careful in expressing emotions when we feel them." The Cronbach alpha for this scale was .88.

We aggregated responses from team members to represent team emotion suppression climate. The r_{wg}, ICC(1), and ICC(2) values for team emotion suppression climate were .93, .14, and .31 respectively. The r_{wg} and ICC(1) values were satisfactory whereas the ICC(2) value was relatively lower. Research has indicated that an aggregation is appropriate if the aggregation is theoretically grounded and it is supported by high r_{wg} and significant between-group variance (Chen and Bliese, 2002; Liao and Chuang, 2007). We thus continued the aggregation and also acknowledged that the relationship between team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion can be underestimated due to the low ICC(2) value.

Team emotional exhaustion. Team emotional exhaustion was measured using Maslach et al.'s (1986) 5-item scale. We adopted Chan's (1998) direct consensus model to ask each team member to report his or her level of exhaustion because each member may best know his or her own emotional exhaustion level. Sample items included "I felt emotionally drained from my work," "I felt used up at the end of the workday," and "I felt burned out from my work." The Cronbach alpha was .87. We then aggregated individual responses to represent team emotional

exhaustion. The r_{wg}, ICC (1), and ICC (2) values were .86, .13, and .30 respectively[5]. As with team emotion suppression climate, we also aggregate it into team level (Chen and Bliese, 2002).

Team performance. The team leader evaluated team performance using a 4-item scale developed by Chen et al. (2002). The four items were: "This team makes significant contribution to the overall performance of our organization," "This team always completes job assignments on time," "This team is one of the best teams in our organization," and "This team's performance always meets my expectations." The Cronbach alpha for the scale was .79.

Control variables. We controlled for leaders' gender, age, and tenure as these variables have been found to be associated with emotional suppression. In particular, compared with women, men are more likely to adopt suppression as an emotion regulation strategy (Gross and John, 2003) so we controlled for leader gender. Moreover, as age can be a source of authority (Bushman, 1984), along the lines that elder supervisors may be more likely to adopt the authoritarian leadership style, we also included leader age as a control variable. In addition, we controlled for leader's tenure within the team because leadership styles may change when the leader becomes more familiar with members.

[5] We conducted a supplementary survey study to provide more evidence to show that emotional exhaustion can be aggregated to team level. The sample includes 431 members in 61 teams (average team size = 7.06) in one large Chinese state-owned manufacturing company. The r_{wg}, ICC(1), ICC(2) values for team emotional exhaustion are .80, .42, and .84, respectively. The results supported that when average team size is large enough, the ICC(2) value of team emotional exhaustion is satisfactory.

To rule out potential effects of company-level variants, we created two dummy variables for the three companies and controlled for them. We also controlled for several team-level characteristics. Specifically, we included the dispersion of authoritarian leadership as a control variable because it is an aggregated measure from team members' ratings and dispersion of the ratings could potentially influence the effects of the average value of authoritarian leadership (Cole, Bedeian, and Bruch, 2011). Based on Harrison and Klein's (2007) suggestion, the standardized deviation of the team members' ratings was used as an indicator of the dispersion. We also controlled team emotion suppression climate strength (operationalized as within-team standard deviation of climate ratings; Harrison and Klein, 2007), because it can potentially influence the relationship between emotion suppression climate and emotional exhaustion. That is, a stronger climate (i.e., a smaller deviation) may enhance the effect of emotion suppression climate on member compliance. In addition, to be consistent with our decision to control for leaders' age and gender, we similarly controlled for team gender composition and team member's mean age because these team composition variables may also potentially influence each team's emotional reactions to authoritarian leadership. Finally, we controlled for team trust in leader, which may mediate authoritarian leadership and task performance (Wu et al., 2012). We used McAllister's (1995) 11-item trust scale to measure team member's trust in team leader. The Cronbach's alpha of the scale was .93. The r_{wg}, ICC (1), and ICC (2) values were .95, .44, and .68 respectively, which supported our aggregation of individual trust to the team-level. As a robust check, we also excluded all our controls and reran the analyses and found that the results remained the same.

Analytic strategies

We used Mplus 7.0 to conduct path modeling to examine our hypotheses in an integrated way (Muthén and Muthén, 1998-2019), because this method can examine the focused mediation and moderation effects in an effective and simultaneous way (Edwards and Lambert, 2007). We centered the interacting variables around their grand means before calculating the interaction term in order to increase the interpretability of our results (Iacobucci et al., 2016). Furthermore, we employed a bootstrapping procedure to determine 95% bias corrected CIs for the two-stage and three-stage mediation effects and also moderated mediation effects (Preacher and Hayes, 2008; Shrout and Bolger, 2002). We used 20,000 iterations (with replacement) to run the analyses.

Results

To evaluate the construct validity of the adopted scales, we first conducted several confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) for the individual level measures (i.e. authoritarian leadership, emotion suppression climate, and emotional exhaustion). Results showed that the three-factor structure fits the data well: χ^2 [149] = 863.51, p < .01; CFI = .91, TLI = .89, SRMR = .05, RMSEA = .08. In addition, this model was superior to many alternative models, such as the two-factor model with authoritarian leadership and emotion suppression climate combined (χ^2 [151] = 1619.29, p < .01; CFI = .81, TLI = .78, SRMR = .07, RMSEA = .12; $\Delta\chi^2$ [2] = 755.78, p < .01), the two-factor model with emotion suppression climate and emotional exhaustion combined (χ^2 [151] = 2482.46, p < .01; CFI = .69, TLI = .65, SRMR = .13, RMSEA = .15; $\Delta\chi^2$ [2] =1618.95, p < .01), and the two-factor model with authoritarian leadership and emotional exhaustion combined (χ^2 [151] = 2467.21, p < .01; CFI = .69, TLI = .65, SRMR = .13, RMSEA = .15; $\Delta\chi^2$ [2] = 1603.7, p < .01).

Descriptive statistics, inter-correlations, and internal consistency reliabilities of the team-level variables are presented in Table 1. It can be seen from Table 1 that authoritarian leadership was negatively related to leader's own emotion suppression (r = -.30, p < .01). Meanwhile, authoritarian leadership was positively related to team emotion suppression climate (r = .60, p < .01), and team emotional exhaustion (r = .16, p < .05), but not significantly related to team performance (r = -.01, *ns*). However, team emotional suppression climate was positively related to team emotional exhaustion (r = .24, p < .01), which was in turn negatively related to team performance (r = -.13, p < .05). These results provided preliminary support for our hypotheses.

Insert Table 1 about here

Hypotheses testing

To examine the overall theoretical model, we conducted the path modeling analysis (Edwards and Lambert, 2007). We present the results in Table 2 and Figure 1. Hypothesis 1 predicted that authoritarian leadership would be positively related to an emotion suppression climate within a work team. The results presented in the second column of Table 2 provided support for this hypothesis: authoritarian leadership was positively and significantly associated with team emotion suppression climate (γ = .40, p < .01).

Insert Table 2 and Figure 1 about here

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the leader's own emotion suppression would enhance the relationship between authoritarian leadership and team emotion suppression climate. The path modeling results (second column of Table 2) showed that leader emotion suppression significantly moderated the relationship between authoritarian leadership and team emotion suppression climate (γ = .07, p < .05). We depicted this moderation in Figure 2, which shows that

when leader emotion suppression was high ($M + 1SD$), the relationship between authoritarian leadership and team emotion suppression climate was stronger ($\gamma = .47$, $p < .01$) than when leader emotion suppression was low ($M - 1SD$) ($\gamma = .33$, $p < .01$). These results provided strong support for Hypothesis 2.

Insert Figure 2 about here

Hypothesis 3 and Hypothesis 4 articulated the relationships between variables in the last part of our model. Hypothesis 3 stated that team emotion suppression climate would be positively related to team emotional exhaustion. In the path modeling results (the third column of Table 2), authoritarian leadership was positively related to team emotion suppression climate ($\gamma = .32$, $p < .01$), and therefore Hypothesis 3 was supported. Hypothesis 4 suggested that team emotional exhaustion would be negatively related to team performance. As also shown in the path modeling results (the last column of Table 2), the negative relationship between team emotional exhaustion and team performance was significant ($\gamma = -.21$, $p < .05$) and therefore gave support for Hypothesis 4.

Finally, we tested the overall moderated mediation effect, which was Hypothesis 5. We first tested whether authoritarian leadership would have an overall negative indirect effect on team performance through a sequential mediation of team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion. As can be seen in Figure 1, the path from authoritarian leadership to team performance via team suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion consisted of three paths: the path *a* (authoritarian leadership to team emotion suppression climate: $\gamma = .40$, $p < .01$), path *b* (team emotion suppression climate to team emotional exhaustion: $\gamma = .32$, $p < .01$) and path *c* (team emotional exhaustion to team performance: $\gamma = -.21$, $p < .05$). In addition, we ran the bootstrapped analysis with 20,000 replications, and found that the indirect effect from

authoritarian leadership to team performance via team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion (path *a* × path *b* ×path *c*) was indeed significant, excluding zero (*Effect* = -.03) [*95% bootstrapped confidence interval* = (-.07, -.003)]. Overall, these results provided considerable support for the sequential mediation effect of authoritarian leadership on team performance.

Moreover, we tested whether leader emotion suppression moderated the sequential mediation (path *a* × path *b* × path *c*), such that the mediation effect became stronger when leader emotion suppression was higher. We ran the bootstrapped analysis with 20,000 replications and reported the results in Table 3. It can be seen that when leader emotion suppression was high (*M* + 1*SD*), the indirect effect from authoritarian leadership to team performance via team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion (path *a* × path *b* × path *c*) was significant, excluding zero (*Effect* = -.03) [*95% bootstrapped confidence interval* = (-.09, -.004)]. Moreover, when leader emotion suppression was low (*M* - 1*SD*), the indirect effect from authoritarian leadership to team performance via team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion (path *a* × path *b* × path *c*) was also significant (*Effect* = -.02) [*95% bootstrapped confidence interval* = (-.06, -.003)]. In addition, we computed the index of difference of those two situations and found that the difference yielded a significant confidence interval, excluding zero (*Effect* = -.01) [*95% bootstrapped confidence interval* = (-.04, -.001)]. These results strongly supported Hypothesis 5.

Insert Table 3 about here

Supplementary analyses

We did several additional analyses to rule out the possibility that our sequential mediation model was inferior to other alternative mediation models. All of these analyses

compared different routes from authoritarian leadership to team performance. We reported the results in Table 4.

First, we developed a full model that contained all possible paths and have treated it as a baseline model. This full model suggested that the only possible path from authoritarian leadership to team performance was via team emotion suppression climate and then team emotional exhaustion. In addition to examining the full model, we also tested other alternative models. For instance, Alternative Model 1 of Table 4 examined a more parsimonious model with the only significant path (authoritarian leadership→team emotion suppression climate→team emotional exhaustion→team performance). This model was not significantly different from the full model (Model 1 vs. Full Model; $\Delta\chi^2 = 1.85$, $\Delta df = 3$, *ns*) and yielded good support for our sequential mediation hypothesis.

Alternative Model 2 included an indirect path from authoritarian leadership to team performance via team emotional exhaustion. But the fit to this model was significantly worse than the baseline model (Model 2 vs. Full Model: $\Delta\chi^2 = 74.60$, $\Delta df = 3$, $p < .01$). Alternative Model 3 included an indirect path from authoritarian leadership to team performance via team emotion suppression climate, but the fit of this model was also significantly worse than Model 1 (Model 3 vs. Full Model: $\Delta\chi^2 = 8.28$, $\Delta df = 3$, $p < .05$). Therefore, the proposed sequential mediation is the only significant path that explains the indirect effect of authoritarian leadership on team performance.

Insert Table 4 about here

Discussion

Even though Weber (1947) predicted that authoritarian leadership would be obsolete in the 21st century, recent findings reported in Hay Group's (2017) white paper suggest that it is

still prevalent in today's organizations (Schaubroeck et al., 2017; Wang et al., 2013). We draw on the emotion regulation perspective to suggest that team emotion suppression climate is a key mechanism through which authoritarian leadership affects team performance. Our findings, which are based on 227 work teams from three large Japanese organizations, provided strong empirical support for our theoretical model. Through this work we demonstrated that authoritarian leaders are likely to create an emotion suppression climate within a work team, which will lead to team emotional exhaustion and eventually impact team performance in a detrimental way. In addition, leaders' own emotion suppression is also related to the strength of the above sequential mediation effect. Specifically, emotionless authoritarian leaders are more likely to create an emotion suppression climate than emotional authoritarian leaders, and this such emotion suppression climate tends to lead to team emotional exhaustion and low team performance.

One of the interesting findings from this study is the negative correlation between authoritarian leadership and leader emotion suppression, which suggests that although authoritarian leaders are inclined to create an emotion suppression climate in the work team, they themselves seem to freely express their own emotions. A plausible explanation for this finding is that free emotion expression can indicate one's power and authority. In addition, the contrast between leaders' free emotion expression and team members' emotion suppression further augments the leader-team member power distance and demonstrates the leader's authority.

Theoretical contribution

This paper makes several important contributions to advance leadership and emotion regulation literature. First, little research has aimed to link authoritarian leadership with team performance. Our paper is among the first to study this intersection and theorizes and

demonstrates sequential mediation of team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion in order to uncover the mechanisms at the team level. Our findings significantly enrich the authoritarian leadership literature by developing a team-level model of authoritarian leadership influence.

Second, we identified that emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion are two psychological mechanisms responsible for the negative relationship between authoritarian leadership and team performance. The robust findings we demonstrated in this paper revealed the process through which authoritarian leadership affects team performance and deepened our understanding of leadership impact. In fact, we found that while not all authoritarian leaders suppress their own emotions, leader emotion suppression is a critical contingent factor that can enhance or weaken the entire sequential effects of authoritarian leadership on team emotion suppression climate, team emotional exhaustion, and team performance. The connections we drew between these two previously separate streams of research (i.e. authoritarian leadership and member emotional experience) not only help to bridge these two literature topics but also offer a new emotion regulation perspective to explain authoritarian leadership effects. The insights from this study open new avenues to explore the impact of authoritarian leadership on team performance.

Finally, this paper extends the emotion regulation perspective by elevating the construct to the team level. Previous research has focused exclusively on the individual level, not only regarding its conceptualization and measurement, but also its relationship with work outcomes and personal well-being (e.g. Butler et al., 2003; Gross, 2002; Gross and John, 2003; John and Gross, 2004; Lieberman and Rosenthal, 2001; Richards and Gross, 1999, 2000). By articulating how team emotion suppression climate emerges under authoritarian leadership and by theorizing

how such a climate is conducive to emotional exhaustion at the team level and may damage team performance, we established a logical reasoning for the legitimacy of a team-level model. By empirically demonstrating the existence of team climate of emotion suppression and exhaustion, we show the robustness of our model. These findings expand the emotion regulation literature by understanding and explaining team-level phenomena.

Practical implications

Our findings have important implications for managerial practices. First and foremost, leaders should be aware of their authoritarian leadership behaviors because such leadership behaviors are counterproductive. These authoritarian behaviors include making decisions without soliciting members' input, exercising strict discipline over subordinates, always having the last say in a meeting, etc. To avoid having a blind spot towards one's own behavior, leaders should frequently ask for feedback from peers or subordinates. Second, our findings suggest that an authoritarian leader who expresses his/her emotions might be preferred to an emotionless authoritarian leader because team emotional suppression climate will be less severe under an comparatively more emotional authoritarian leader. That is to say, leaders who believe that an authoritarian style is essential, either to establish power and authority or to create a sense of urgency to spur change, should also express their positive and negative emotions. As found in this research, leaders' emotion expression can somewhat mitigate the negative affects of authoritarian leadership on team emotional exhaustion and performance.

The final practical implication inferred from our findings is related to methods for regulating emotions at work. Regardless of leadership style, authoritarian or not, emotions are inevitable in the workplace due to all kinds of pressures and conflicts. Managing and leveraging employee emotions to achieve desirable outcomes is a key challenge of leadership. While it is

tempting to suggest that leaders should encourage team members to express emotions freely, doing so could distract them from work tasks, or impact other team members and clients (e.g. patients, customers) (Barsade, 2002; Bartel and Saavedra, 2000). We therefore recommend that leaders offer adequate time and space for subordinates to release their emotions. One common practice in Japanese companies is that employees go out for drinks together after work so that they can talk, laugh or cry freely. This sort of activity functions as 'therapy' to help reduce stress and release emotions, and may ultimately help maintain high work productivity. In addition, we also suggest that leaders allow subordinates to take a break during the working hours to release emotions in an appropriate, private space. Leaders may also be advised to organize team meetings designated for team members' emotion sharing and discussion.

Limitations and future research

We recognize that there are a few limitations in our current study. The first limitation is related to the cross-sectional nature of our data, which prevents any causal inference. To reduce this concern, we have conducted several post-hoc remedies suggested by Antonakis et al. (2010). First, we included a few potentially confounding variables that might influence authoritarian leadership and team performance as control variables (i.e. leaders' age and gender, leaders' tenure with the team, team gender composition, team member average age, authoritarian leadership dispersion, team emotion suppression climate strength, and team trust in leader) and still found support for our hypotheses. Second, we controlled for two company dummy variables (i.e. company 2 versus company 1, and company 3 versus company 1) in our analyses (Song et al., 2018) to reduce the effects from potentially higher-level factors and still obtained the same findings. Third, we included leader-reported emotion suppression to reduce the inflated relationship between self-reported measures and the influence from same sources (Huang et al.,

2017) and our findings still remain unchanged. Finally, because we included the interaction between authoritarian leadership and leader emotion suppression in our test, it also helped lessen the concern that the common method bias was the primary driver for our results (Siemsen et al., 2010).

Yet we also recognize that no statistical approach could sufficiently relieve the causality concern in cross-section studies. We encourage future research to adopt multi-methods to unravel the causal relationships embedded in our model. For instance, longitudinal studies could be designed to investigate the sequential effects of authoritarian leadership behavior on the emergence of team emotion suppression climate, after which team emotional exhaustion would occur, which result in low team performance. Future research can also adopt different experimental designs that would manipulate authoritarian leadership and then allow researchers to observe participants' emotion suppression and exhaustion in different experimental conditions. These two designs will build upon our current design to demonstrate a causal relationship and the generalizability of our findings in different settings.

Another potential limitation is the extent to which our results can be generalized to other cultural contexts. Our study is conducted in three Japanese corporations where, in general, employees are more used to emotion suppression than Western employees. Indeed, Butler et al. (2007) postulates that Western values like independence and self-assertion may foster people to express their emotions, whereas Asian values like interdependence and relationship harmony may encourage people to suppress their emotions. Matsumoto et al. (2008) also found that Asian cultures, which are high in power distance and collectivism (Hofstede, 1991), are positively correlated to emotion suppression practices. In this sense, our study represents a more conservative test of our hypotheses. In other words, if Western contexts generally encourage

employees to freely express emotions, the influence of authoritarian leadership on emotion suppression climate should have a more significantly negative influence on team emotional exhaustion and performance. As Japanese adopt emotion suppression more often than Americans do, suppressing emotion would require less mental and cognitive resources, so they are less likely to be emotionally exhausted (Butler et al., 2007). All in all, it will be fruitful for future research to validate our findings in other cultural contexts.

In addition, as we previously mentioned, one of our paper's contributions is to explore the possibility of having emotion regulation perspective as a team-level phenomenon. We theorized the notion of team emotion suppression climate and measured it by aggregating individual-level responses to the team level. Even though we provided theoretical arguments and empirical evidence for why emotion regulation can happen at the team level, we recognize that our study design is rather limited. Therefore, we suggest that more comprehensive ways of examining level-transition of emotion regulation be adopted in future research (Yammarino et al., 2005).

Furthermore, when theorizing or empirically measuring leader emotion suppression and team emotion suppression climate, we referred to both positive emotions and negative emotions. Specifically, we adopted Gross and John's (2003) scale to measure both leader emotion suppression and team emotion suppression climate because it is a well-known, well-recognized measure in the emotion regulation literature. In this scale, only one item "In my team, we make sure that we do not express negative emotions when we feel them" specified the emotion to be negative. The other three items did not specify whether the suppressed emotions are either negative or positive. Therefore, while the generality of our items lets us examine positive and negative emotions simultaneously, we speculate that the effects for suppressing positive vs.

negative emotions might differ based on team dynamics and performance. We strongly encourage future research to explore, both theoretically as well as empirically, the difference between the suppression of negative vs. positive emotions advocated by authoritarian leadership, in order to gain more nuanced insights.

Finally, although one of the contributions of our paper is to unpack the mechanisms linking authoritarian leadership with team performance, the main emotional mechanisms, i.e. team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion, have not been operationalized to measure any form of emotion. We strongly encourage future research to comprehensively investigate the emotional mechanisms of authoritarian leadership. For example, future research can figure out which particular emotions are elicited and suppressed by the authoritarian leaders.

Conclusion

Adopting the emotion regulation perspective, we theorized and demonstrated a positive relationship between authoritarian leadership and team emotion suppression climate which, in turn, led to team emotional exhaustion and poor team performance. In addition, we found that when team leaders frequently adopted emotion suppression as their emotion regulation strategy, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on team performance via team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion became stronger. Our field study in three large Japanese companies provided empirical support for our theoretical model and showed that team emotion suppression climate and team emotional exhaustion were indeed two sequential mediators in the relationship between authoritarian leadership and team performance. These findings significantly advance the existing leadership literature by incorporating the emotion regulation perspective into studies on how authoritarian leadership impacts team performance.

References

Antonakis J, Bendahan S, Jacquart P and Lalive R (2010) On making causal claims: A review and recommendations. *The Leadership Quarterly* 21(6): 1086–1120.

Aryee S, Chen ZX, Sun LY and Debrah YA (2007) Antecedents and outcomes of abusive supervision: Test of a trickle–down model. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 92(1): 191–201.

Barsade SG (2002) The ripple effects: Emotional contagion and its influence on group behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 47(4): 644–675.

Bartel CA and Saavedra R (2000) The collective construction of work group mood. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 45(2): 197–231.

Bass B (1990) *Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership* (3rd edn). New York, NY: The Free Press.

Blau P (1964) *Exchange and Power in Social Life*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Bliese PD (2000) Within–group agreement non–independence and reliability: Implications for data aggregation and analysis. In: Klein KJ and Kozlowski SW (eds) *Multilevel Theory Research and Methods in Organizations.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey–Bass Inc, 349–381.

Bono JE, Foldes HJ, Vinson G and Muros JP (2007) Workplace emotions: The role of supervision and leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 92(5): 1357–1367.

Brislin RW (1980) Translation and content analysis of oral and written material. In: Triandis HC and Berry JW (eds) *Handbook of Cross–Cultural Psychology.* Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon, 389–444.

Brotheridge CM and Lee RT (2002) Testing a conservation of resources model of the dynamics of emotional labor. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology* 7(1): 57–62.

Bushman BJ (1984) Perceived symbols of authority and their influence on compliance. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology* 14(6): 501–508.

Butler EA, Egloff B, Wilhelm FW, Smith NC, Erickson EA and Gross JJ (2003) The social consequences of expressive suppression. *Emotion* 3(1): 48–67.

Butler EA, Lee TL and Gross JJ (2007) Emotion regulation and culture: Are the social consequences of emotion suppression culture-specific? *Emotion* 7(1): 30–48.

Chan D (1998) Functional relations among constructs in the same content domain at different levels of analysis: A typology of composition models. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 83(2): 234–246.

Chan SC, Huang X, Snape E and Lam CK (2013) The Janus face of paternalistic leaders: Authoritarianism benevolence subordinates' organization-based self-esteem and performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 34(1): 108–128.

Chen G and Bliese PD (2002) The role of different levels of leadership in predicting self and collective efficacy: Evidence for discontinuity. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 87(3): 549–556.

Chen XP, Eberly MB, Chiang TJ, Farh JL and Cheng BS (2014) Affective trust in Chinese leaders: Linking paternalistic leadership to employee performance. *Journal of Management* 40(3): 796–819.

Chen ZX, Tsui AS and Farh JL (2002) Loyalty to supervisor vs. organizational commitment: Relationships to employee performance in China. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* 75(3): 339–356.

Cheng BS, Chou LF, Wu TY, Huang MP and Farh JL (2004) Paternalistic leadership and subordinate responses: Establishing a leadership model in Chinese organizations. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology* 7(1): 89–117.

Chervonsky E and Hunt C (2017) Suppression and expression of emotion in social and interpersonal outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Emotion* 17(4): 669–683.

Chuang A, Judge TA and Liaw YJ (2012) Transformational leadership and customer service: A moderated mediation model of negative affectivity and emotion regulation. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* 21(1): 28–56.

Clark C (1990) Emotions and micropolitics in everyday life: Some patterns and paradoxes of 'place'. In: Kemper TD (eds) *Research Agendas in The Sociology of Emotions*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press, 305–333.

Cole MS, Bedeian AG and Bruch H (2011) Linking leader behavior and leadership consensus to team performance: Integrating direct consensus and dispersion models of group composition. *The Leadership Quarterly* 22(2): 383-398.

Cole MS, Carter MZ and Zhang Z (2013) Leader-team congruence in power distance values and team effectiveness: The mediating role of procedural justice climate. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 98(6): 962–973.

Collins AL, Lawrence SA, Troth AC and Jordan PJ (2013) Group affective tone: A review and future research directions. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 34(Suppl 1): S43–S62.

Colquitt JA, Noe RA and Jackson CL (2002) Justice in teams: Antecedents and consequences of procedural justice climate. *Personnel Psychology* 55(1): 83–109.

Cropanzano R, Rupp DE and Byrne ZS (2003) The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 88(1): 160–169.

Dahling JJ, Whitaker BG and Levy PE (2009) The development and validation of a new Machiavellianism Scale. *Journal of Management* 35(2): 219–257.

DeRue DS, Nahrgang J, Wellman N and Humphrey S (2011) Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology* 64(1): 7–52.

Devine DJ (1999) Effects of cognitive ability task knowledge information sharing and conflict on group decision-making effectiveness. *Small Group Research* 30(5): 608–634.

Dotlich D and Cairo P (2003) *Why CEOs fail.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Edwards JR and Lambert LS (2007) Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological Methods* 12(1): 1–22.

Ekman P and Friesen WV (1969) Nonverbal leakage and clues to deception. *Psychiatry: Journal for the Study of Interpersonal Processes* 32(1): 88–106.

Ellemers N, De Gilder D and Haslam SA (2004) Motivating individuals and groups at work: A social identity perspective on leadership and group performance. *Academy of Management Review* 29(3): 459–478.

Ellyson SL and Dovidio JF (eds) (1985) *Power dominance and nonverbal behavior.* New York: Springer-Verlag.

Erber R, Wegner DM and Therriault N (1996) On being cool and collected: Mood regulation in anticipation of social interaction. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 70(4): 757–766.

Erez A, Misangyi VF, Johnson DE, LePine MA and Halverson KC (2008) Stirring the hearts of followers: Charismatic leadership as the transferal of affect. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 93(3): 602–615.

Farh JL and Cheng BS (2000) A cultural analysis of paternalistic leadership in Chinese organizations. In: Li JT, Tsui AS and Weldon E (eds) *Management and Organizations in The Chinese Context.* London: Macmillan, 85–127.

Farh JL, Cheng BS, Chou LF and Chu XP (2006) Authority and benevolence: Employees' responses to paternalistic leadership in China. In: Tsui AS, Bian Y and Cheng L (eds) *China's Domestic Private Firms: Multidisciplinary Perspectives on Management and Performance*. New York: Sharpe, 230–260.

Ferris GR (1985) Role of leadership in the employee withdrawal process: A constructive replication. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 70(4): 777–781.

Goleman D (1998) *Working with emotional intelligence.* New York: Bantam Book.

Grandey AA (2003) When 'the show must go on': Surface and deep acting as determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Academy of Management Journal* 46(1): 86–96.

Grandey AA, Fisk GM and Steiner DD (2005) Must "service with a smile" be stressful? The moderating role of personal control for American and French employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 90(5): 893–904.

Griffin MA and Mathieu JE (1997) Modeling organizational processes across hierarchical levels: Climate leadership and group process in work groups. *Journal of Organizational Behavior* 18(6): 731–744.

Gross JJ (1998a) Antecedent- and response-focused emotion regulation: Divergent consequences for experience expression and physiology. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 74(1): 224–237.

Gross JJ (1998b) The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review. *Review of General Psychology* 2(3): 271–299.

Gross JJ (2002) Emotion regulation: Affective cognitive and social consequences. *Psychophysiology* 39(3): 281–291.

Gross JJ and John OP (1998) Mapping the domain of emotional expressivity: Multi-method evidence for a hierarchical model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 74(1): 170–191.

Gross JJ and John OP (2003) Individual differences in two emotion regulation processes: Implications for affect relationships and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 85(2): 348–362.

Gross JJ and Levenson RW (1993) Emotional suppression: Physiology self-report and expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 64(6): 970–986.

Gross JJ and Levenson RW (1997) Hiding feelings: The acute effects of inhibiting positive and negative emotions. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology* 106(1): 95–103.

Hackman JR (1992) Group influences on individuals in organizations. In: Dunnette MD and Hough LM (eds) *Handbook of industrial organizational psychology*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, 199–267.

Halbesleben JRB and Bowler WM (2007) Emotional exhaustion and job performance: The mediating role of motivation. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 92(1): 93–106.

Harms PD, Wood D, Landay K, Lester PB and Lester GV (2018) Autocratic leaders and authoritarian followers revisited: A review and agenda for the future. *The Leadership Quarterly* 29(1): 105–122.

Harrison DA and Klein KJ (2007) What's the difference? Diversity constructs as separation, variety, or disparity in organizations. Academy of Management Review 32(4): 1199-1228.

Hay Group (Japan) Ltd. (2017) What leadership style should the Japanese leaders aim for? and what is the appropriate steps for developing leadership styles? Findings from diagnostic data on the leadership styles of more than 8600 Japanese leaders. Available at: http://www.haygroup.com/downloads/jp/KFHG_Leadeship_Research_Paper_2017_E.pdf

Hochschild AR (1983) *The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling*. Berkeley: University of California Press.

Hofstede G (1991) *Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind*. London/New York: McGrawHill.

House RJ, Hanges PJ, Javidan M, Dorfman PW and Gupta V (2004) *Culture Leadership and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Howell JM and Shamir B (2005) The role of followers in the charismatic leadership process: Relationships and their consequences. *Academy of Management Review* 30(1): 96–112

Huang GH, Wellman N, Ashford SJ, Lee C and Wang L (2017) Deviance and exit: The organizational costs of job insecurity and moral disengagement. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 102(1): 26–42.

Humphrey RH (2002) The many faces of emotional leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly* 13(5): 493–504.

Iacobucci D, Schneider MJ, Popovich DL and Bakamitsos GA (2016) Mean centering helps alleviate "micro" but not "macro" multicollinearity. *Behavior Research Methods* 48(4): 1308–1317.

Ilies R, Judge TA and Wagner DT (2006) Making sense of motivational leadership: The trail from transformational leaders to motivated followers. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Research* 13(1): 1–22.

Isaacson W (2011) *Steve Jobs.* New York, NY: Simon and Schuster.

John OP and Gross JJ (2004) Healthy and unhealthy emotion regulation: Personality processes individual differences and life span development. *Journal of Personality* 72(6): 1301–1334.

Judge T, Piccolo R and Ilies R (2004) The forgotten ones? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 89(1): 36–51.

Kalokerinos EK, Greenaway KH, Pedder DJ and Margetts EA (2014) Don't grin when you win: The social costs of positive emotion expression in performance situations. *Emotion* 14(1): 180–186.

Kelly JR and Barsade SG (2001) Mood and emotions in small groups and work teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 86(1): 99–130.

Keltner D and Haidt J (1999) Social functions of emotions at four levels of analysis. *Cognition and Emotion* 13(5): 505–521.

Keltner D, Gruenfeld DH and Anderson C (2003) Power approach and inhibition. *Psychological Review* 110(2): 265–284.

Keltner D, Young RC, Heerey EA, Oemig C and Monarch ND (1998) Teasing in hierarchical and intimate relations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 75(5): 1231–1247.

Kennedy–Moore E and Watson JC (2001) How and when does emotional expression help? *Review of General Psychology* 5(3): 187–212.

Klein K and Kozlowski S (2000) From micro to meso: Critical steps in conceptualizing and conducting multilevel research. *Organizational Research Methods* 3(3): 211–236.

Kozlowski SWJ and Bell BS (2013) Work groups and teams in organizations: Review update. In N: Schmitt and Highhouse S (eds). *Handbook of Psychology* (2nd ed) Hoboken, NJ: Wiley, 412–469.

Krasikova D, Green S and LeBreton J (2013) Destructive leadership: A theoretical review integration and future research agenda. *Journal of Management* 39(5): 1308–1338.

Lewin K and Lippitt R (1938) An experimental approach to the study of autocracy and democracy: A preliminary note. *Sociometry* 1: 292–300.

Liao H and Chuang A (2004) A multilevel investigation of factors influencing employee service performance and customer outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal* 47(1): 41–58.

Liao H and Chuang A (2007) Transforming service employees and climate: A multilevel multisource examination of transformational leadership in building long-term service relationships. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 92(4): 1006–1019.

Liao H and Rupp DE (2005) The Impact of Justice Climate and Justice Orientation on Work Outcomes: A Cross-Level Multifoci Framework. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 90(2): 242–256.

Lieberman MD and Rosenthal R (2001) Why introverts can't always tell who likes them: Multitasking and nonverbal decoding. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 80(2): 294–310.

Mann S (1999) Emotion at work: To what extent are we expressing suppressing or faking it? *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* 8(3): 347–369.

Martin SL, Liao H and Campbell EM (2013) Directive versus empowering leadership: A field experiment comparing impacts on task proficiency and proactivity. *Academy of Management Journal* 56(5): 1372–1395.

Maslach C, Jackson SE and Leiter MP (1986) *Maslach burnout inventory.* Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Matsumoto D, Yoo SH and Nakagawa S (2008) Culture emotion regulation and adjustment. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 94(6): 925–937.

McAllister DJ (1995) Affect- and cognition-based trust as foundations for interpersonal cooperation in organizations. *Academy of Management Journal* 38(1): 24–59.

Menges JI, Kilduff M, Kern S and Bruch H (2015) The Awestruck Effect: Followers suppress emotion expression in response to charismatic but not individually considerate leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly* 26(4): 627–641.

Morris JA and Feldman DC (1996) The dimensions antecedents and consequences of emotional labor. *Academy of Management Review* 21(4): 986–1010.

Muthén LK and Muthén BO (1998–2019) *Mplus user's guide* (7th ed). Los Angeles, CA: Author.

Naumann SE and Bennett N (2002) The effects of procedural justice climate on work group performance. *Small Group Research*, 33(1): 361-377.

Paulhus DL and Williams KM (2002) The Dark Triad of personality: Narcissism Machiavellianism and psychopathy. *Journal of Research in Personality* 36(6): 556–563.

Pescosolido A (2002) Emergent leaders as managers of group emotion. *The Leadership Quarterly* 13(5): 583–599.

Preacher KJ and Hayes AF (2008) Asymptotic and resampling strategies for assessing and comparing indirect effects in multiple mediator models. *Behavior Research Methods* 40(3): 879–891.

Qualtrics (2019). Available at: https://www.qualtrics.com/

Richards JM and Gross JJ (1999) Composure at any cost? The cognitive consequences of emotion suppression. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 25(8): 1033–1044.

Richards JM and Gross JJ (2000) Emotion regulation and memory: The cognitive costs of keeping one's cool. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 79(3): 410–424.

Riddle D (2011) The Perils of Leading Like Steve Jobs. Available at: https://www.forbes.com/sites/ccl/2011/09/28/the-perils-of-leading-like-steve-jobs/#469d7bde7151

Rogers CR (1951) *Client–centered therapy: Its current practice implications and theory.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin.

Salancik GR and Pfeffer J (1978) A social information processing approach to job attitudes and task design. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 23(2): 224–253.

Schaubroeck JM, Shen Y and Chong S (2017) A dual–stage moderated mediation model linking authoritarian leadership to follower outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 102(2): 203–214.

Schyns B and Schilling J (2013) How bad are the effects of bad leaders? A meta–analysis of destructive leadership and its outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly* 24(1): 138–158.

Sheldon KM, Ryan RM, Rawsthorne LJ and Ilardi B (1997) Trait self and true self: Cross–role variation in the Big-Five personality traits and its relations with psychological authenticity and subjective well–being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 73(6): 1380–1393.

Shields SA (2005) The politics of emotion in everyday life: "Appropriate" emotion and claims on identity. *Review of General Psychology* 9(1): 3–15.

Shrout PE and Bolger N (2002) Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: New procedures and recommendations. *Psychological Methods* 7(4): 422–445.

Sideman L and Grandey A (2003) Emotion regulation in a simulated call center: A test of the ego depletion model. Paper presented at the Academy of Management, WA, Seattle.

Siemsen E, Roth A and Oliveira P (2010) Common method bias in regression models with linear quadratic and interaction effects. *Organizational Research Methods* 13(3): 456–476.

Smith AC and Kleinman S (1989) Managing emotions in medical school: Students' contacts with the living and the dead. *Social Psychology Quarterly* 52(1): 56–69.

Song Y, Liu Y, Wang M, Lanaj K, Johnson RE and Shi J (2018) A social mindfulness approach to understanding experienced customer mistreatment: A within–person field experiment. *Academy of Management Journal* 61(3): 994–1020.

Srivastava A, Bartol KM and Locke EA (2006) Empowering leadership in management teams: Effects on knowledge sharing efficacy and performance. *Academy of Management Journal* 49(6): 1239–1251.

Stepper S and Strack F (1993) Proprioceptive determinants of emotional and nonemotional feelings. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 64(2): 211–220.

Stokes JP (1983) Components of group cohesion: Intermember attraction instrumental value and risk taking. *Small Group Behavior* 14(2): 163–173.

Stone B (2013) *The everything store: Jeff Bezos and the age of Amazon.* New York, NY: Little Brown and Company.

Strack F, Martin LL and Stepper S (1988) Inhibiting and facilitating conditions of the human smile: A nonobtrusive test of the facial feedback hypothesis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 54(5): 768–777.

Tiedens LZ and Fragale AR (2003) Power moves: Complementarity in dominant and submissive nonverbal behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 84(3): 558–568.

Van Kleef G (2009) How emotions regulate social life: The emotions as social information (EASI) model. *Current Directions in Psychological Science* 18(3): 184–188.

Van Kleef GA (2008) Emotion in conflict and negotiation: Introducing the emotions as social information (EASI) model. In: Ashkanasy NM and Cooper CL (eds) *Research Companion to Emotion in Organizations.* London: Edward Elgar, 392–404.

Van Kleef GA, Homan AC, Beersma B, Van Knippenberg D, Van Knippenberg B and Damen F (2009) Searing sentiment or cold calculation? The effects of leader emotional displays on team performance depend on follower epistemic motivation. *Academy of Management Journal* 52(3): 562–580.

Wang AC, Chiang JTJ, Tsai CY, Lin TT and Cheng BS (2013) Gender makes the difference: The moderating role of leader gender on the relationship between leadership styles and

subordinate performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 122(2): 101–113.

Webb TL, Miles E and Sheeran P (2012) Dealing with feeling: A meta-analysis of the effectiveness of strategies derived from the process model of emotion regulation. *Psychological Bulletin* 138(4): 775–808.

Weber M (1947) *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*. New York: Oxford.

Weiss HM and Cropanzano R (1996) Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. In: Staw BM and Cummings LL (eds) *Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews, Vol. 18*. US: Elsevier Science/JAI Press, 1–74.

Wright TA and Cropanzano R (1998) Emotional exhaustion as a predictor of job performance and voluntary turnover. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 83(3): 486–493.

Wu M, Huang X and Chan SC (2012) The influencing mechanisms of paternalistic leadership in Mainland China. *Asia Pacific Business Review* 18(4): 631–648.

Wu M, Huang X, Li C and Liu W (2012) Perceived interactional justice and trust–in–supervisor as mediators for paternalistic leadership. *Management and Organization Review* 8(1): 97–121.

Wu TY, Hsu WL and Cheng BS (2002) Expressing or suppressing anger: Subordinate's anger responses to supervisors' authoritarian behaviors in a Taiwan enterprise. *Indigenous Psychological Research in Chinese Societies* 18(3): 3–49.

Yammarino FJ and Dansereau F (2008) Multi-level nature of and multi-level approaches to leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly* 19(2): 135–141.

Yammarino FJ, Dionne SD, Chun JA and Dansereau F (2005) Leadership and levels of analysis: A state-of the-science review. *Leadership Quarterly* 16(6): 879–919.

Zhang X and Bartol KM (2010) Linking empowering leadership and employee creativity: The influence of psychological empowerment intrinsic motivation and creative process engagement. *Academy of Management Journal* 53(1): 107–128.

Zohar D and Luria G (2005) A multilevel model of safety climate: Cross-level relationships between organization and group-level climates. J*ournal of Applied Psychology* 90(4): 616–628.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics, Inter-Correlations, and Internal Consistency Reliability of Variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Control variables																	
1. Company 2 (vs. Company 1)	.42	.50	-														
2. Company 3 (vs. Company 1)	.21	.41	-.44**	-													
3. Leader gender	.78	.41	-.48**	.22**	-												
4. Leader age	41.30	6.49	-.49**	.36**	.37**	-											
5. Team gender composition	.64	.39	-.55**	.25**	.56**	.47**	-										
6. Team member average age	37.01	6.33	-.63**	.36**	.43**	.64**	.58**	-									
7. Leader tenure with team	14.71	7.14	-.57**	.09	.30**	.45**	.32**	.41**	-								
8. Authoritarian leadership dispersion	.72	.50	.10	-.05	-.09	-.01	-.05	.06	-.11	-							
9. Team emotion suppression climate strength	.78	.60	-.01	-.06	.04	.02	-.03	.05	.02	.34**	-						
10. Team trust in leader	4.88	.88	-.04	-.07	.04	-.07	.08	.02	.01	-.16*	-.27**	**.93**					
11. Authoritarian leadership	2.82	.92	-.07	-.05	-.03	.10	.05	.17*	-.01	.33**	.30**	-.35**	**.89**				
12. Leader emotion suppression	4.03	1.10	-.18**	-.04	.24**	.07	.13	.06	.18**	-.10	.00	.09	-.30**	**.70**			
13. Team emotion suppression climate	1.96	.73	.00	-.10	-.06	-.08	-.10	-.03	-.02	.21**	.63**	-.48**	.60**	-.08	**.88**		
14. Team emotional exhaustion	2.44	.83	-.25**	.05	.11	.14*	.10	.08	.20**	.05	.06	-.21**	.16*	.10	.24**	**.87**	
15. Team performance	4.73	1.03	-.24**	.10	.17**	.17*	.20**	.24**	.18**	.01	.03	.24**	-.01	.05	-.07	-.13*	**.79**

Note: $n = 227$. Gender: "female" = 0, "male" = 1.
Reliabilities are listed in bold on the diagonal.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$
Two-tailed tests.

Table 2

Path Modeling Results

Variable	Leader Emotion Suppression *B (SE)*	Team Emotion Suppression Climate *B (SE)*	Team Emotional Exhaustion *B (SE)*	Team Performance *B (SE)*
Intercept	3.71**(.69)	3.50**(.30)	2.42**(.68)	2.30**(.88)
Control variables				
Company 2 (vs. Company 1)	.43(.22)	.15(.09)	.47**(.17)	.25(.21)
Company 3 (vs. Company 1)	-.04(.23)	.11(.10)	.36*(.18)	.31(.22)
Leader gender	.49*(.20)	-.07(.09)	-.01(.16)	.10(.20)
Leader age	.00(.01)	-.02**(.01)	.01 (.01)	.01(.01)
Team gender composition	-.03(.24)	-.05(.10)	.05(.18)	.04(.23)
Team member average age	-.01(.02)	-.01(.01)	-.02(.01)	.01(.02)
Leader tenure with team	.01(.01)	.00(.01)	.01(.01)	.01(.01)
Authoritarian leadership dispersion	.06(.15)	-.19**(.06)	.12(.11)	.10(.14)
Team emotion suppression climate strength	.12(.12)	.56**(.05)	-.25*(.12)	.08(.15)
Team trust in leader	-.05(.08)	-.19**(.04)	-.13(.07)	.30**(.09)
Main variables				
Authoritarian leadership (AL)	-.42**(.08)	.40**(.04)	.04(.09)	.01(.11)
Leader emotion suppression (LES)		.05(.03)	.06(.05)	.00(.06)
AL × LES		.07*(.03)	.08(.05)	-.01(.07)
Team emotion suppression climate			.32**(.12)	.09(.15)
Team emotional exhaustion				-.21*(.08)
Residual variances	.98**(.09)	.17**(.02)	.56**(.05)	.88**(.08)

Note: Gender: "female" = 0, "male" = 1.

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

Two-tailed tests.

Table 3

Bootstrapped Confidence Intervals for Conditional Indirect Effects

Level of moderator	Effect size	Bootstrapped 95% CI (20,000 replications)
High (*M* + 1*SD*)	-.03†	[-.09, -.004]
Low (*M* – 1*SD*)	-.02†	[-.06, -.003]
Index of difference (High – Low)	-.01†	[-.04, -.001]

Note. † 20,000-replication Bootstrapped confidence interval excluded zero.

Table 4

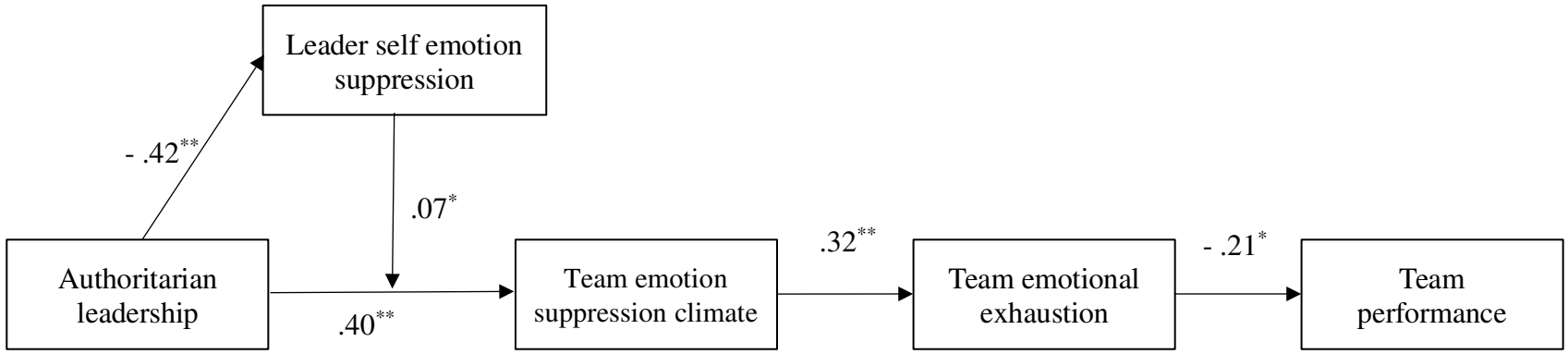
Summary of Model Comparison Results

Model Test	Δ*df*	Δ x^2
1.Full model (all paths were estimated)		
2.Alternative model 1: Authoritarian leadership→team emotion suppression climate→team emotional exhaustion→team performance	3	1.85 (*ns*)
3.Alternative model 2: Authoritarian leadership→team emotional exhaustion→team performance	3	74.60**
4.Alternative model 3: Authoritarian leadership→team emotion suppression climate→team performance	3	8.28*

Note. * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$.

Figure 1

Path Modeling Results



Note. Only lines of interests were reported. Full model results were reported in Table 2. The control variables included dummy for Company 2 (vs. Company 1), dummy for Company 3 (vs. Company 1), leader gender, leader age, team gender composition, team member average age, leader tenure with team, authoritarian leadership dispersion, and team emotion suppression climate strength, and team trust in leader.

Figure 2

The Interaction Effect of Authoritarian Leadership and Leader Emotion Suppression on Team Emotion Suppression Climate