

This is the accepted version of the publication Wang, X., Wen, X., Liu, Z., Gao, Y. L., & Madera, J. M. (2024). When Leaders Self-Sacrifice in Times of Crisis: The Roles of Employee Emotional Suppression and Leader Coping Strategies. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 66(1), 37-55. Copyright © 2024 The Author(s). DOI: 10.1177/19389655231223370.

**When Leaders Self-Sacrifice in Times of Crisis:**

**The Roles of Employee Emotional Suppression and Leader Coping Strategies**

Xingyu Wang (corresponding author)

School of Hotel and Tourism Management,  
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong

Xueqi Wen

Advanced Institute of Business, School of Economics and Management  
Tongji University, China

Zihan Liu

Department of Management, Marketing, and Operations,  
University of Illinois Springfield, the United States

Lisa Gao

School of Hotel and Tourism Management,  
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong

Juan M. Madera

C.T. Bauer College of Business,  
Conrad N. Hilton College,  
University of Houston, the United States

## Abstract

While literature articulates the relevance of self-sacrificial leadership to crisis situations, little attention has been paid to employees' attitudinal and behavioral responses to self-sacrificial leadership. This is a particularly salient gap in the scholarship, given the decisions leaders must make to address challenges in the hospitality industry (e.g., the COVID-19 pandemic). Drawing on conservation of resources theory, this pair of field and experimental studies examines how individual differences in employee emotional suppression and leader coping strategy moderate the impacts of self-sacrificial leadership on employee perceptions of leader effectiveness. By sampling U.S. hospitality employees, the studies reveal that leaders who display self-sacrificial behaviors received more favorable ratings on leader effectiveness than others, an effect that is contingent on followers' emotional suppression and leaders' coping strategies. The perception of increased leader effectiveness in turn weakened employees' intentions to engage in negative word-of-mouth toward their organizations.

**Keywords:** self-sacrificial leadership, emotional suppression, coping, conservation of resources theory, leader effectiveness

## Introduction

Major crises such as the COVID-19 pandemic can have devastating financial impacts on the hospitality industry, ultimately resulting in business decisions that inevitably impair

employees' career development, job security, and overall welfare (Achenbach, 2020; Thompson, 2020). Such decisions range from salary cuts and furloughs to large-scale layoffs. For example, Disney laid off 28,000 employees across its parks, experiences, and consumer products segments in October 2020. Marriott had furloughed tens of thousands of employees since March 2020. In the face of threats and uncertainty posed by crises, leaders must communicate their contingency plans and decisions to stakeholders. As Madera and Smith (2009, p. 104) indicated, "During a time of crisis all eyes look to the top and every action is scrutinized." The COVID-19 pandemic has emerged as a "moment of truth" during which the effectiveness of leaders is being scrutinized by employees, especially when it comes to decisions made or messages sent by senior management.

One type of leader behavior that is especially relevant in times of crisis is self-sacrificial behavior, referring to a leader's voluntary abandonment of their personal interests for the sake of the collective (Mostafa & Bottomley, 2020). Self-sacrificial leadership (SSL) can be particularly effective when organizational uncertainty is high (e.g., Halverson et al., 2004). Unusual situations such as crisis occurrences require "extraordinary" behaviors from leaders, making SSL situationally relevant (e.g., Mostafa & Bottomley, 2020; Zhang & Ye, 2016). For instance, Arne Sorenson, the former president and chief executive officer of Marriott International, announced to all stakeholders in April 2020 that "both Mr. Marriott and I will not be taking any salary for the balance of 2020, and my executive team will be taking a 50% cut in pay" (Centre for Executive Education, 2020). During COVID-19, other leaders, including executives at Airbnb, Disney, Delta Airlines, and United Airlines, also took salary cuts of varying degrees (Brandt, 2020). Although the existing literature has examined the effects of SSL in both crisis and non-crisis situations, the role of SSL has been highlighted in crisis situations due to its conceptual

background and magnified effectiveness in times of organizational uncertainty (i.e., followers' increased organizational commitment and perceived leadership charisma; Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; Halverson et al., 2004). Indeed, SSL is conceptually drawn from the idea that threats derived from the environment call for sacrifice (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999). This paper thus examines the impact of SSL on hospitality employees' perceptions of leader effectiveness and negative word-of-mouth (NWOM) toward their organizations during the COVID-19 pandemic.

SSL is fundamentally different from servant leadership. Servant leaders are follower-oriented (Van Dierendonck, 2001), focusing on the personal development of followers by helping them meet their professional needs (Van Dierendonck, 2001). In contrast, self-sacrificial leaders prioritize the collective interest (Jacobson & House, 2001). More specifically, self-sacrificial leaders are inclined to abandon or hold in abeyance their self-interest for the sake of organizational welfare (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999). SSL is characterized by the "abandonment or postponement of personal interests and privileges for the collective welfare" (Choi & Yoon, 2005, p. 52), implying the provision of both material (i.e., material sacrifice) and psychological (i.e., trust and loyalty) resources (Iqbal et al., 2022). This resource provision aspect of SSL underscores conservation of resources (COR) theory, which posits that individuals have a tendency to obtain material, psychological, and social resources and act in ways that prevent them from losing these resources (Hobfoll et al., 2018; Iqbal et al., 2022). According to COR theory, followers receive and appreciate the resources provided by self-sacrificial leaders, thus strengthening the leader–follower relationship (Iqbal et al., 2022). This strengthened relationship may lead to higher perceived leader effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012) and less NWOM toward organizations in times of crisis (Zhang & Huang, 2020). We argue that subordinates inclined to emotional suppression are less effective in decoding leaders' self-sacrificial behaviors

and therefore are less likely to gain the resources provided by and respond positively to SSL (Gross & John, 2003), thus weakening the salutary relationship between SSL and perceived leader effectiveness. Moreover, we propose that compared to self-sacrificial leaders who adopt avoidance coping, self-sacrificial leaders who use approach coping contribute additional resources (i.e., emotional support) to employees, which in turn fosters higher perceived leader effectiveness and reduces NWOM in the context of organizational crisis (Kim & Duda, 2003).

Previous literature has suggested that leaders' self-sacrificial behaviors appeal to employees' emotions. Indeed, part of what makes SSL so powerful is its inherently charismatic nature, which exerts impacts on employees via affective mechanisms (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; De Cremer, 2006). De Cremer (2006) found that SSL has significant positive impacts on employees' positive emotions. In light of the emotion-based nature of SSL (Batool, 2013), we argue that perceptions of SSL may be influenced by individuals' dispositional differences in emotion regulation. Emotion regulation is defined as a series of "processes that influence which emotions one has, when one has them, and how one experiences and expresses these emotions" (Gross, 1998, p. 275). Research on emotions has found systematic differences in individuals' use of emotion regulation strategies. One commonly adopted approach to emotion regulation entails emotional suppression, a response-based form of coping activated after emotions have been generated (Gross, 1998; Gross, 2015). Emotional suppression can be viewed as a personal trait that yields meaningful differences in individuals' use of coping strategies in naturally occurring situations (Gross & John, 2003). It is important to investigate how individual differences in emotional suppression influence followers' perceptions of leaders in the hospitality context, which is characterized by both situational relevance (e.g., emotional suppression tendencies) and high uncertainty (e.g., massive layoffs, furloughs, and salary cuts due to COVID-19).

The current set of studies is grounded in COR theory and conceptualizes of leadership as a process. The studies examine followers' perceptions of SSL and investigate the contingencies of individual characteristics (from both the follower and leader perspectives) in the leadership process based on the key characteristics of SSL. Leadership is defined as "the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement" (Stogdill, 1950, p. 4). In line with this view, leadership entails the transmission of information through leaders' words and deeds to followers for their interpretation, which in turn affects followers' attitudes and behaviors (Tannenbaum et al., 1961). Throughout this process, individual factors of both followers and leaders shape leadership outcomes by altering (1) followers' interpretations of leader behaviors and (2) leaders' characteristics along with the specific leadership behaviors they perform (Fischer et al., 2017). Previous literature has revealed a few contingency factors that alter the effectiveness of SSL, including follower power-distance beliefs (Yang et al., 2021), leader self-confidence (De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2004), and leader prototypicality (Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005). However, as a leadership style that involves the provision of salient emotional cues and is often implemented in challenging circumstances, SSL has not been explored in a way that addresses these core characteristics. First, SSL involves emotional cues that elicit followers' appraisal and regulation process with regard to emotional and attitudinal development as well as behavioral responses. In line with this view, followers' emotion regulation may significantly alter their interpretation of the emotional cues transmitted by SSL, thus influencing their subsequent work attitudes and behaviors. However, research has not explored the potential moderating role of followers' emotion regulation on their reactions to SSL. Second, although the existing literature has examined the significant effects of SSL in both crisis and non-crisis situations, SSL has been

highlighted in crisis situations due to its magnified effectiveness in times of organizational uncertainty (i.e., followers' increased organizational commitment and perceived leadership charisma; Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; Halverson et al., 2004). Indeed, SSL is conceptually drawn from the idea that threats derived from the environment call for sacrifice (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999). In a moment of crisis or organizational uncertainty, leaders encounter stressors and challenging circumstances that require coping strategies. These coping strategies vary based on individual preferences. Yet the impacts of leaders' coping strategies on the effects of SSL have not been examined.

To address these important research gaps, this set of studies draws upon COR theory and takes a leadership process perspective to propose that followers' reactions to SSL are contingent on followers' emotional suppression (follower perspective) and leaders' coping strategies (leader perspective). First, we posit that followers' emotional suppression alters their reactions to SSL, namely, their perceptions of leader effectiveness and subsequent NWOM toward the organization. We propose that differences in followers' emotional suppression are likely to result in varied interpretations of self-sacrificial leaders' emotional cues conveyed in their words and deeds, thereby inducing different attitudinal outcomes (Mostafa & Bottomley, 2020). Second, we contend that followers' perceptions of SSL are contingent on leaders' coping strategies, including approach coping and avoidance coping, thereby shaping followers' attitudes and behaviors during the interpersonal process (De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2004; Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005). Examining these contingent factors that influence followers' assessments of self-sacrificial leaders allows us to attend to the dynamic work environment in the hospitality industry and hospitality employees' general propensity for emotional suppression. We advance the existing research on SSL, emotion regulation, and

coping in the following ways. First, considering the general propensity for emotional suppression among hospitality employees (e.g., Von Gilsa et al., 2014), we identify followers' individual differences in emotional suppression as a moderator, thereby shifting the focus to employees and helping to elucidate for whom SSL is likely to be most effective. Second, we address the boundary condition of leaders' coping strategies that interacts with emotional suppression to influence followers' assessments of leader effectiveness. Third, we explore the underlying process by which the impacts of SSL spill over into hospitality employees' NWOM toward their organizations via employees' perceptions of leader effectiveness. Last but not least, we offer a combination of field and experimental studies to (1) establish causal relationships and (2) strengthen the external validity of the research findings. Figure 1 depicts the conceptual model for each study.

## **Literature review and hypothesis development**

### *Self-sacrificial leadership*

SSL is a form of leadership that entails "an abandonment or postponement of personal interests and privileges for the collective welfare" (Choi & Yoon, 2005, p. 52). Leaders' self-sacrificial behaviors can take different forms in terms of the division of labor, distribution of rewards, and exercise of power (Hoogervorst et al., 2012). Employees appreciate self-sacrificial leaders' charisma and legitimacy and are motivated to reciprocate by engaging in behaviors that help an organization to achieve its goals (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999).

In the leadership process, leaders' words and deeds convey emotional cues that elicit followers' appraisal and regulation process as to emotion generation as well as attitudinal and behavioral responses (Sy et al., 2018). For instance, servant leadership triggers followers' appraisal of emotional cues by promoting adaptive emotional responses (e.g., Sun et al., 2019).



As a leadership approach sharing characteristics of charismatic and altruistic leadership with servant leadership and entailing salient emotional cues, SSL has been found to exert significant influence on employees' emotional experiences (i.e., feelings of gratitude; Mostafa & Bottomley, 2020), attitudinal outcomes (i.e., felt obligations and job satisfaction; Wu et al., 2022; Turki Alshahrani, 2022), and behavioral responses (i.e., prosocial behaviors, innovation behaviors, taking charge, job performance, and intentions to reciprocate leaders' behaviors; Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1999; De Cremer et al., 2009; Li et al., 2016; Park & Choi, 2018; Shin & Shin, 2022).

Previous research has also suggested that SSL can be particularly effective and relevant in situations in which organizations experience high uncertainty or unusual circumstances (e.g., Zhou et al., 2016). Self-sacrificial behaviors convey leaders' deep emotional attachment to an organization, showing that the leaders are willing to put aside their personal interest for the benefit of the organization. During the COVID-19 pandemic, hospitality employees' livelihoods were especially precarious, resulting in feelings of anxiety and a need for trustworthy relationships between employees and employers (e.g., Guzzo et al., 2020; Trougakos et al., 2020). In such an exceptional context, self-sacrificial behaviors can be regarded as an exemplary initiative to unite helpless individuals and motivate them to take heart (Hao et al., 2014). In other words, self-sacrificial behaviors are characterized by intense emotional elements that leaders try to convey to their employees. Such messaging can motivate employees (Chung et al., 2011; Sy et al., 2018).

### *Leader effectiveness*

Perceived leader effectiveness, referring to employees' perceptions of leaders' ability to fulfill their leadership roles, is a crucial factor affecting employee performance and shaping organizational success (Bowers & Seashore, 1966; Tsui, 1984; Wang et al., 2018; Yukl, 2008).

Previous research has indicated a wide range of factors contributing to leader effectiveness, including leaders' characteristics such as personality and ability (Hoffman et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002), employees' characteristics and their social interactions with leaders (Deluga, 1998; Hamstra et al., 2014; Shin et al., 2017), and leaders' behavioral styles (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Brown et al., 2005). As leadership can be viewed as a process of social influence, employees' perceptions of leader effectiveness, which reflect the degree to which the employees view their leaders as valid sources of managerial influence, may strengthen or limit the leaders' capacity to fulfill their leadership roles (Lord & Maher, 2002; Meindl, 1995). An effective leader can foster employees' willingness to collaborate on collective goals and promote employees' positive orientations toward their jobs and the organization, resulting in improved employee job performance and organizational productivity (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Shamir et al., 1993; Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005).

Leader effectiveness is critical in helping an organization and its employees manage challenges. In a crisis situation, individuals are more inclined to be affected by their leaders and to ascribe leaders' displays of favorable treatment to positive attributes of the leaders (Halverson et al., 2004; Hamblin, 1958). For instance, in the context of downsizing, leaders' high-level communication transparency and positive psychological capacities have been found to instill high levels of trust in employees and lead to employees' heightened perceptions of leader effectiveness (Norman et al., 2010). Consistent with this view, we expect that self-sacrificial leaders who consider the collective interest to be important and exhibit enhanced commitment to the mission of the organization and the welfare of their employees are viewed as more trustworthy and effective than other leaders by their employees (e.g., Halverson et al., 2004).

*Emotional suppression*

246 According to the process model of emotion regulation (Gross, 2015; Gross & John, 2003),  
247 emotion is modulated at different points during the process of emotion generation. Emotion  
248 regulation is defined as a series of “processes that influence which emotions one has, when one  
249 has them, and how one experiences and expresses these emotions” (Gross, 1998, p. 275). These  
250 processes govern one’s ability to monitor, distinguish among, and express feelings and emotions  
251 (Newman et al., 2010; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). One emotion regulation approach is emotional  
252 suppression, which is a response-based form of coping that entails inhibiting the expression of  
253 experienced emotions (Gross, 1998; Gross, 2015; Gross & John, 2003). The trait of emotional  
254 suppression reflects individual differences in terms of emotion regulation and the behavioral  
255 tendency toward inhibiting ongoing emotional expression (Newman et al., 2010). For instance,  
256 Gross and John (2003) posited that suppressors are less likely to engage in social sharing  
257 behavior when exposed to both positive and negative emotional cues in daily life. One related  
258 but distinct concept is emotional labor, which refers to the process of managing feelings and  
259 expressions to fulfill the emotional requirements of a job based on the expectations of one’s  
260 organization and occupation (Hochschild, 1979). Although both emotional suppression and  
261 emotional labor relate to one’s emotion-expressive behavior in that genuinely experienced  
262 emotions are restrained, they are distinct from one another for several reasons. First, emotional  
263 suppression suggests a relatively stable personal trait with regard to individuals’ tendency to  
264 manage and express emotions based on cognitive ability and emotion stability (Joseph &  
265 Newman, 2010), whereas emotional labor is conceptualized as a process of evoking or shaping,  
266 as well as suppressing, one’s feelings (Hochschild, 1979). In this regard, emotion suppressors  
267 habitually and proactively choose to inhibit their authentic emotions and refrain from engaging  
268 in social sharing behaviors with peers (Gross & John, 2003). In contrast, emotional labor

emphasizes that individuals are regulated by organizations' display rules and external factors (i.e., organizational support and job characteristics; Hur et al., 2013; Gursoy et al., 2011) that require them to manifest discrete emotions. Second, emotional suppression is broader in nature. Although existing research has revealed the prevalence of emotional labor in a wide array of work settings, the research is restricted to certain employment sectors with display rules. Emotional suppression, however, can occur in individuals during both work and non-work time regardless of industry of employment. In support of this view, researchers have argued that emotional labor is usually performed as a part of a work role and to meet interpersonal goals at work. In contrast, emotional suppression does not necessarily assume the existence of display rules and work goals (Grandey, 2015; Grandey & Melloy, 2017). Thus, emotional suppression may represent a more universal phenomenon.

Empirical evidence reveals that individuals differ systematically in the extent to which they adopt emotional suppression. Habitually masking experienced emotions leads individuals to regard themselves as inauthentic; they feel that they are intentionally misleading others by not being true to themselves. In the workplace, employee emotional suppression is positively associated with emotional exhaustion, emotional dissonance, negative affect, and affective delivery to customers (Bal et al., 2011; Chau et al., 2009; Chi & Liang, 2013; Kafetsios et al., 2012) and negatively related to employee job satisfaction and job autonomy, as well as customer satisfaction with service (Bal et al., 2011; Cossette & Hess, 2012; Wang & Groth, 2014). Despite its prevalence among hospitality frontline employees, emotional suppression, conceptualized as a form of individual difference, has rarely been investigated in hospitality settings. One exception is Cheng et al. (2020), who found that emotional suppression strengthened the association between customer incivility and revenge motivation and the resultant service sabotage. The role

of employee emotional suppression in the leader–employee relationship is especially overlooked in research on the hospitality industry.

In this regard, we propose that employee emotional suppression significantly shapes employees' perceptions of and reactions to SSL. Emotional suppression is a response-based form of coping in which employees inhibit their ongoing emotions. Compared with individuals who rarely use emotional suppression, individuals with the characteristic of high emotional suppression deliberately deceive others about their true feelings, attitudes, and beliefs (Gross & John, 2003). Therefore, they tend to experience inconsistency and inauthenticity between their actual experienced feelings and outward expression, thus leading to an exacerbated negative cognitive experience (Chi & Liang, 2013). Drawing upon COR theory, emotion suppressors continually modulate emerging suboptimal emotions, which may result in a downward spiral of energy loss and the consumption of individual cognitive resources (Chi & Liang, 2013; Gross & John, 2003). Furthermore, the cognitive cost of emotional suppression may prevent individuals from effectively understanding and responding to others' information (Arnold et al., 2015). Taken together, subordinates with higher emotional suppression tendencies are less effective in decoding leaders' self-sacrificial behaviors. They are less likely to benefit from the resources provided by SSL, and they respond less positively to SSL (Gross & John, 2003). Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H1:** Employee emotional suppression moderates the positive impacts of self-sacrificial leadership on employees' perceptions of leader effectiveness such that the positive impacts are stronger when employees have lower levels of emotional suppression.

*Negative word-of-mouth (NWOM)*

Word-of-mouth (WOM) refers to “oral, informal, person-to-person communication between a perceived non-commercial communicator and a receiver regarding a brand, a product, an organization, or a service” (Eisingerich et al., 2015, p. 121). WOM exerts more substantial impacts on employer brand, corporate reputation, and organizational prestige today than it did in the past (Charbonnier-Voirin et al., 2017; Uen et al., 2015). Negative events deplete employees’ intrinsic resources (e.g., self-regulatory resources) and weaken internal constraints, leading to an increased likelihood of negative work behavior such as NWOM (e.g., DeWall et al., 2007; Lee & Suh, 2020; Liu et al., 2015). In critical periods such as the COVID-19 pandemic, organizations have to make decisions (e.g., layoffs, furloughs, salary cuts) that may greatly undermine employees’ interests, resulting in an increased tendency for employees to speak negatively about their organizations, namely, to engage in NWOM. More importantly, leaders’ self-sacrifices put pressure on employees emotionally and cognitively to reciprocate or imitate such self-sacrifices. In other words, SSL becomes behavioral modeling, with leaders displaying exemplary practices for meeting their organizations’ best interests in the context of a crisis (Yukl, 2008). Employees’ intentions to reciprocate SSL may take various forms such as organizational citizenship behavior and reciprocal self-sacrifice (e.g., Vondey, 2010). This study posits that the more favorably employees rate the effectiveness of their leaders because of their SSL, the more willing the employees are to identify themselves with their organizations (Edwards, 2005). This increased identification tempers employees’ tendency to speak negatively about their organizations despite the challenges. Moreover, according to organizational support theory (Eisenberger & Stinglhamber, 2011; Eisenberger et al., 2020), employees view leaders as agents of the organization. Therefore, leaders’ words and deeds are not only the products of their own will but also a reflection of organizational will. For example, previous research found that employees

tend to form favorable attitudes toward the organization when receiving favorable treatment from the leader (Eisenberger et al., 2002) and blame the organization when experiencing abusive supervision (Shoss et al., 2013). In line with this view, leaders' self-sacrificial behaviors, characterized by proactive resource provision toward employees, can lead to enhanced perceptions of leader effectiveness, which in turn exerts a significant influence on followers' behavioral reactions toward the organization. Given the contextual relevance of leadership to this study's context of COVID-19, employee NWOM is considered a response to unfavorable treatment by organizations (i.e., layoffs, furloughs, salary cuts). When leaders, as organizational agents, engage in self-sacrifice, they weaken employees' tendency to engage in NWOM toward organizations following organizational decisions injurious to employees' personal interests. With this in mind, the following hypothesis is formed:

**H2:** Employee emotional suppression moderates the strength of the mediated relationships between SSL with NWOM via perceptions of leader effectiveness, such that the mediated relationship is weaker under high emotional suppression than under low emotional suppression.

### *Coping Strategies*

The literature on stress and coping suggests two distinct cognitive and behavioral handling tendencies when confronted with stressful situations: approach and avoidance coping (Elliot & Harackiewicz, 1996). Coping refers to processes of handling both stressors and emotional reactions. Characterized by positive assessment, approach coping focuses on information awareness and problem-solving (Larsson et al. 1988). By contrast, avoidance coping emphasizes the intentional suppression of cognitive as well as emotional reactions triggered by a perceived threat (Anshel & Anderson, 2002). Previous literature has revealed that compared to avoidance coping, approach coping is more effective in resolving stressors to reduce distress, as it is a more

positive and active way to handle stressful situations. However, avoidance coping is effective in certain circumstances, such as uncontrollable situations in which one has a shortage of emotional resources. The adoption of different coping strategies not only directly influences one's responses to stressors but also interacts with other factors to jointly impact one's attitudes and assessment. Avoidance coping may cause maladaptive psychological functioning that manifests, for example, in burnout and depression (Loton et al., 2016; Polman et al., 2010). Approach coping, on the other hand, may result in better long-term psychological outcomes, such as playfulness and high spirits (Kim and Duda, 2003).

Indeed, leaders adopt coping strategies to help organizational members rise to the challenge based on situational contexts and followers' personal characteristics. For instance, Sverdlik et al. (2020) found that problem-focused coping is positively related to, whereas emotion-focused coping is negatively related to, leaders' initiation of change. Though it is a leadership style closely related to crisis in which stressors predominate, SSL has not been linked to the coping context. As indicated by COR theory, leaders who adopt approach coping eliminate stressors through emotional support or active planning, which requires leaders' input of personal resources (e.g., time and energy; Hutchins et al., 2018). Accordingly, employees are likely to gain additional resources when supervised by self-sacrificial leaders with approach coping. In contrast, avoidance coping emphasizes alleviating suboptimal emotions derived from a stressor instead of dealing with the stressor itself. For instance, when encountering the stressor of organizational uncertainty, leaders who use the avoidance coping strategy are likely to simply tell subordinates to push through the tough time without providing any practical solutions for handling either the stressor or employees' negative emotions triggered by the stressor. Hence, from the COR perspective, leaders' avoidance coping strategy reflects the tendency to conserve



personal resources through actions such as disengagement for transitory relief (Hutchins et al., 2018). Employees cannot gain additional resources from leaders who adopt avoidance coping. Moreover, they may need to consume their own cognitive resources to cope with the increased deleterious emotions derived from leaders' avoidance coping tendencies (i.e., emotional exhaustion; Bakker et al., 2022; Hutchins et al., 2018). Therefore, the following hypothesis is formed:

**H3:** Leaders' coping strategies influence the interactive effect of SSL and emotional suppression on followers' perceptions of leader effectiveness, such that SSL is more positively related to leader effectiveness when emotional suppression is low and leaders adopt approach coping.

### **Overview of the present research**

The goal of the current research is to examine how employees' emotional suppression and leaders' coping strategies moderate the impacts of SSL on employees' perceptions of leader effectiveness and engagement in NWOM. A multi-method approach combining cross-sectional and experimental designs was adopted. Study 1 uses a cross-sectional design in which employee emotional suppression as an individual difference, perceived SSL, and the outcome variables were measured based on hospitality employees' actual work experiences (Hypotheses 1 & 2). However, a cross-sectional design cannot provide strong evidence of the direction of causality, and leaders' adoption of particular coping strategies is often contingent on specific situations. For example, the messages hospitality leaders delivered to employees during the COVID-19 pandemic often took on different tones depending on the coping strategy the leaders recommended employees adopt: approach coping or avoidance coping, with the former focusing on problem-solving and the future and the latter focusing on emotional and cognitive avoidance of the problem (Aspinwall & Taylor, 1997; Polman et al., 2010). To explore these impacts, in

Study 1, we designed scenarios in which different coping strategies were applied to resemble leaders' actual messages and investigated how the use of these coping strategies influenced the proposed relationships.

We then conducted a second, between-subjects experimental study in which SSL and coping strategies were manipulated to examine how the interactive effect between SSL and emotional suppression is affected by leaders' coping strategies (Hypothesis 3). Specifically, the purpose of Study 2 was twofold: (1) to examine whether we could replicate Study 1's finding of a moderating effect of employee emotional suppression on the relationship between SSL and leadership effectiveness; and (2) to explore further how the moderating effect of employee emotional suppression is contingent upon leaders' different coping strategies (i.e., approach coping vs. avoidance coping). The adoption of both correlational and experimental research designs not only enabled us to replicate the research findings but also allowed us to test the causal relationship (experimental design) while reducing artificiality and maintaining high external validity (cross-sectional design; e.g., King & Datu, 2018).

## Study 1

### Methodology

#### *Participants and Procedure*

Participants were 575 respondents from the U.S. who completed the survey through the MTurk website. We used the default MTurk setting of only surveying respondents who have a 95% approval rate (i.e., 95% of their previous survey responses have been approved for payment by researchers) in order to obtain a representative sample of typical MTurk samples (e.g., Barger & Sinar, 2011; Feitosa et al., 2015). We also required the respondents to have at least one-year

experience working in the hospitality industry to assess the role of SSL in the hospitality industry specifically during COVID-19. The data collection included the use of several quality control items (e.g., Select agree for this question). Respondents who failed to answer any of the quality control items correctly were eliminated from the final sample used in the data analysis. The 279 respondents left in the final sample were paid \$0.77 for participation in the survey. Of these participants in our final sample, 62% were female, with an average of 35.9 ( $SD = 10.5$ ). 39.6% of the participants had an organizational tenure of more than 5 years; 26.6% had a tenure of 3-5 years, and the rest had a tenure of fewer than 3 years.

#### *Measures*

All measures, unless otherwise indicated, used a seven-point Likert scale: 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree.

*Self-sacrificial leadership* ( $\alpha = .92$ ). Five items were used to measure employees' perceptions of their leaders' SSL behavior (De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2004). A sample item is "My supervisor is willing to make personal sacrifices in the team's interest."

*Emotional suppression* ( $\alpha = .81$ ). Four items created by Gross and John (2003) were used to measure employees' individual differences in controlling the expression of unpleasant emotions by suppressing such emotions. A sample item is "When I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them."

*Leader effectiveness* ( $\alpha = .95$ ). We used the six items developed by Mayer and Davis (1999) to assess employees' confidence in their leaders' integrity as a reflection of the level of leader effectiveness in the current study. A sample item is "I feel quite confident that my supervisor will always try to treat me fairly."

*Negative word-of-mouth* ( $\alpha = .90$ ). Three items adopted from Eisingerich et al. (2015) were utilized to examine employees' tendency to make negative comments on their organizations in interpersonal communication (Weinberger, Allen, & Dillon, 1981). A sample item is "To what extent is it likely that you say negative things about your current organization?"

*Covariates.* Employee age and tenure were controlled because the two demographic characteristics were found to play an important role in the quality of employees' relationships with their leaders (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 1999), which in turn may affect employees' judgment of the leaders' effectiveness. Employee cognitive reappraisal ( $\alpha = .81$ ; Gross & John, 2003) was also controlled, given that emotional suppression and cognitive reappraisal were found to be positively related, thereby isolating the effect of emotional suppression (Matsumoto et al., 2008)

### *Study 1 Results*

We conducted a path analysis using Mplus 8.0 to test our hypothesized moderated mediation model (Muthén & Muthén, 2017). Percentile bootstrapping with 10,000 repetitions was used to estimate the conditional indirect effect of SSL on negative word-of-mouth via leader effectiveness.

### *Measurement Model*

We first conducted confirmatory factor analyses to examine the discriminate validity of SSL and leader effectiveness. The two-factor model fit the data well ( $\chi^2 (43) = 97.16, p < .001$ ; CFI = .98, TLI = .98, RMSEA = .07, SRMR = .02) and provided better fit than the single-factor model ( $\chi^2 (44) = 212.77, p < .001$ ; CFI = .94, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .12, SRMR = .04). The results indicated that SSL and leader effectiveness should be two distinct constructs.

Next, we performed confirmatory factor analyses to determine the discriminate validity and convergent validity of all the four constructs involved in the current study: SSL, emotional suppression, leader effectiveness, negative word-of-mouth. The results suggested that the four-factor model provided good fit ( $\chi^2 (129) = 245.22, p < .001$ ; CFI = .97, TLI = .97, RMSEA = .06, SRMR = .05). As shown in Table 1, all factor loadings for items were greater than 0.5 and were statistically significant ( $p < .001$ ). Also, the average variance extracted (AVE) ranged from 0.54 to 0.76. These results provided evidence for convergent validity (Hair et al., 2010). In terms of discriminate validity, the four-factor model and provided better fit than the alternative models based on Chi-square difference tests (three-factor model combining SSL with leader effectiveness:  $\chi^2 (132) = 362.15, p < .001$ ; CFI = .94, TLI = .93, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .05; two-factor model also combining emotional suppression and negative word-of-mouth into one factor:  $\chi^2 (134) = 704.39, p < .001$ ; CFI = .76, TLI = .84, RMSEA = .12, SRMR = .10; and the single-factor model:  $\chi^2 (135) = 1265.81, p < .001$ ; CFI = .72, TLI = .68, RMSEA = .17, SRMR = .14). Also, the AVE values for any two constructs were greater than the square of the correlation estimate between them (see Tables 1 and 2), indicating discriminate validity (Hair et al., 2010).

#### *Hypothesis Testing*

Descriptive statistics, reliabilities, and validity indicators are reported in Table 1. As shown in Table 2, the interaction between SSL and emotional suppression was significantly related to leader effectiveness ( $b = -.09, SE = .04, p = .031$ ), which, in turn, was negatively related to negative word-of-mouth ( $b = -.29, SE = .09, p = .001$ ). Figure 2 shows the simple slopes of the relationship between SSL and leader effectiveness at  $\pm 1 SD$  of emotional suppression. The simple slopes test showed that the effect of SSL on leader effectiveness was

stronger at low emotional suppression ( $b = 1.31, SE = .06, p < .001$ ) than at high emotional suppression ( $b = 1.13, SE = .08, p < .001$ ), although the relationship was still statistically significant at high emotional suppression. The results support Hypothesis 1.

We then tested the conditional indirect effects using percentile bootstrapping. The indirect effects of SSL on negative word-of-mouth via leader effectiveness were stronger for employees with low emotional suppression (*Unstandardized estimate* = -.39, 95% CI [-.61, -.18]) than for those with high emotional suppression (*Unstandardized estimate* = -.33, 95% CI [-.55, -.14]), supporting Hypothesis 2. Given that all the data were self-reported and collective at the same time point, it is possible that the significance of our findings is due to common method variance (Podsakoff, 2003). Therefore, we assessed the common method variance in the current study to rule out this possibility. Following the recommendations by Williams et al. (1989) and Podsakoff (2003), we conducted a confirmatory factor analysis where the indicators of each variable were loaded on their own factors as well as a common method factor. We found that the method factor explained an average of 23.11% of the total variances in all the items, which was lower than the median amount of method variance of 25% reported by William et al. (1989), suggesting that common method bias should not be a major issue in the current study. In general, the findings of the present study show that employees with low emotional suppression tend to appreciate more SSL behaviors and judge such leaders to be more effective, contributing to reduced negative word-of-mouth.

## Study 2

### *Participants*

We used a similar process to recruit participants through MTurk website. Of the 311 participants who participated in the experiment, 182 participants have correctly answered all of the control questions and thus are kept in our final sample. Moreover, 63% of the participants are male, with an average age of 37.0 ( $SD = 10.3$ ). 24.2% of the participants had an organizational tenure of more than 5 years; 28.0% had a tenure of 3-5 years, and the rest had a tenure of fewer than 3 years.

#### *Design and procedure*

The present study used a  $2 \times 2$  between-subjects design, with SSL (self-sacrificial vs. no self-sacrificial behaviors) as the first factor and coping strategies (approach coping vs. avoidance coping) as the second factor. Participants were asked to read a selected news clip that a multinational diversified hospitality company has laid off 30% of employees whose jobs are not necessary during the COVID-19 pandemic. Then, they were asked to read a message of support from the CEO of the company to all the employees and stakeholders. After reading the news and the message from the CEO, the participants completed a survey including questions on manipulation checks, leader effectiveness, and trait emotional suppression and reappraisal.

#### *Vignette*

The vignette was presented in the form of a message of support of the CEO of the company in which the CEO described: 1) the measures the management team would implement to help the organization survive in the pandemic and suggestions; and 2) the strategies the employees may take to relieve the anxiety and better cope with the adverse situation. The self-sacrificial behaviors of the CEO and the coping strategies were manipulated through the body of the text. For instance, it was mentioned in the message that the CEO had decided to “forgo 100% of my salary and would not receive any bonuses or legal benefits for the whole year of 2020”

(i.e., SSL condition), and the CEO told the employees to “ignore the negative feelings/emotions if you have any... not let fear and anxiety become pandemics” (avoidance coping condition).

The Appendix presents a sample scenario.

### *Measures*

*Leader effectiveness* ( $\alpha = .78$ ). Since the current study is an experiment, it is hard to make the participants build confidence in the CEO just by reading the message. There, we used a different set of items to measure leader effectiveness. Seven items were used to assess employees’ perceptions of the competence and legitimacy of the leader (Madera & Smith, 2009) with four items from Tiedens (2001) and three items from Halverson et al. (2004). Previous studies have shown that the seven items are highly correlated with one another and are loaded on a single factor (e.g., Madera & Smith, 2009). Sample items are “The CEO of my organization is a strong leader (Tiedens, 2001),” and “I would want him/her to continue to be the CEO of the company (Halverson et al., 2004)”.

The same items were used to measure trait emotional suppression ( $\alpha = .87$ ) and reappraisal ( $\alpha = .87$ ), as in Study 1. Cognitive reappraisal was also controlled.

### *Study 2 Results*

#### *Realism and Manipulation Check*

We included two questions to assure the scenario realism, including “I think this is a scenario that could occur in real life” and “I think that it is easy for me to understand what happened in the scenario.” Participants were asked to indicate their agreement to the statements on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree). Results show that, on average, the participants tend to agree that the scenario could occur in real life ( $M = 5.98$ ,  $SD =$



1.03) and think it is easy to understand what was described in the scenario ( $M = 6.16$ ,  $SD = .94$ ). Based on the results of an independent sample t-test ( $t(180) = 6.52$ ,  $p < .001$ ), the participants assigned to the SSL condition were more likely to rate the CEO as engaging in self-sacrificial behaviors ( $M = 3.82$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ; a 5-point Likert scale was used; 3 = *Moderately agree*). Also, the participants assigned to the avoidance coping condition were likely to agree that the CEO asked them to avoid negative thoughts ( $M = 3.12$ ,  $SD = 1.18$ ;  $t(180) = 3.39$ ,  $p = .001$ ), whereas those of the approach coping condition were more likely to agree that the CEO encouraged them to cope with the challenges proactively ( $M = 3.41$ ,  $SD = 1.08$ ;  $t(180) = 2.20$ ,  $p = .029$ ).

### *Hypothesis Testing*

Means, standard deviations, reliabilities, and the intercorrelations of the continuous variables are reported in Table 3. We conducted a multigroup analysis using Mplus 8.0 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) to examine whether the pattern of the moderating effect of emotional suppression on the relationship of SSL on leader effectiveness may vary as the leader encouraged different coping strategies. Table 4 presented the unstandardized path coefficients of the multigroup analysis results.

The results suggest that when the leader encouraged approach coping, the interaction of SSL and emotional suppression is significantly related to leader effectiveness ( $b = -.31$ ,  $SE = .16$ ,  $p = .040$ ). However, the moderating effect is not significant when avoidance coping strategy is encouraged ( $b = -.03$ ,  $SE = .11$ , *ns*). As shown in Figure 3, simple slope tests revealed that the effect of SSL on leader effectiveness was stronger at low emotional suppression ( $b = -.72$ ,  $SE = .44$ ,  $p = .099$ ) than at high emotional suppression ( $b = .25$ ,  $SE = .41$ , *ns*) at approach coping condition. The results support Hypothesis 3. Moreover, in the context where avoidance coping was encouraged, SSL was not significantly related to leader effectiveness as well ( $b = -.24$ ,  $SE$

= .20, *ns*). The results support Hypothesis 3. This may indicate that employees would no longer appreciate SSL behaviors when the leader asked them to avoid negative thoughts and emotions.

## **Discussion**

Integrating SSL with the social interactional model, this set of studies represents one of the first explorations of how individual differences in hospitality employees' emotional suppression and leaders' coping strategies influence employees' assessment of SSL in the context of a crisis (in this case, COVID-19). There are two main findings. First, the positive impacts of SSL on employees' perceived leader effectiveness were stronger among employees who had lower levels of dispositional emotional suppression and when leaders adopted approach coping rather than avoidance coping. Second, the conditional indirect effect of SSL on employees' NWOM about their organizations through leader effectiveness was stronger for employees with lower levels of dispositional emotional suppression. Ultimately, this study provides insight into the role SSL plays in times of crisis and how employees' dispositional emotion regulation as well as leaders' coping strategies can influence employees' responses to SSL in hospitality work settings characterized by dynamic leader–employee social interactions.

### *Theoretical implications*

This research advances our understanding of hospitality employees' responses to SSL by showing how both employees' emotional suppression and leaders' coping strategies alter the influence of SSL on employees' perceptions of leader effectiveness and employees' behavioral outcomes (namely, NWOM toward their organizations). First, to gain insight into both leaders' and employees' contingencies on followers' perceptions of SSL, this study conceptualized of leadership as a process using the framework of COR. Specifically, through the lens of COR theory, this study proposed that resources transmitted by leaders' self-sacrificial behaviors

enhance employees' positive resource spiral (Ahmad et al., 2021; Hobfoll, 1989; Iqbal et al., 2022). Moreover, because leadership is a process, both followers' and leaders' individual factors shape leadership outcomes and are integral in understanding the effects of leadership (Bass, 1990). In the case of SSL, leader characteristics (i.e., coping strategy) and employee characteristics (i.e., emotional suppression) moderate the relationship between SSL and employees' perceptions of leader effectiveness and subsequent NWOM toward the organization. In arriving at these findings, this study extends the research on SSL through the lens of COR theory and leadership-as-a-process perspective.

Second, the present research contributes to the literature on SSL by considering leader characteristics (i.e., coping strategy) as a contingency variable in the relationship between SSL and perceived leader effectiveness. Drawing on COR theory, employees do not gain additional resources but in fact experience cognitive resource loss in responding to self-sacrificial leaders who adopt avoidance coping. Specifically, our study shows that the positive impacts of SSL on employees' perceptions of leader effectiveness were weaker when leaders adopted avoidance coping compared to approach coping. Although previous studies have examined the moderating effects of leader characteristics in the SSL process (i.e., leaders' self-confidence, De Cremer & Van Knippenberg, 2004; leader prototypicality, Van Knippenberg & Van Knippenberg, 2005), the current set of studies is the first to investigate coping strategy as a leader characteristic altering the effects of SSL, thus extending the understanding of how leader characteristics influence employees' perceptions of self-sacrificial leaders from the stressor resolution and COR perspectives.

Finally, the current research explored the moderating effect of employees' characteristics of emotion regulation (i.e., emotional suppression) on the SSL process. According to the COR

theory, emotional suppression affects employees' ability to recognize and willingness to reciprocate the good intentions (e.g., resources provided by leaders) of others, thereby affecting the outcomes of SSL (i.e., perceived leader effectiveness and WOM). Researchers have suggested that the impacts of SSL on employee outcomes differ according to followers' characteristics (Mostafa & Bottomley, 2020). For example, Howell and Shamir (2005) investigated whether followers' self-concept determines the type of charismatic leadership (Howell & Shamir, 2005). Similarly, previous research has found that psychological empowerment (Iqbal et al., 2022) and collective identification (De Cremer et al., 2006) alter employees' perceptions of leader effectiveness. Nonetheless, given that SSL entails significant emotional cues in the leadership process, it is necessary to explore how followers' characteristics of emotion regulation influence the effects of SSL. In this regard, this research examines how emotional suppression, as an employee factor, shapes employees' perceptions of self-sacrificial leaders, thus contributing to a more comprehensive scholarly understanding of SSL.

#### *Practical implications*

The current research helps illustrate the nature of the leader–employee relationship during a time of crisis like the COVID-19 pandemic. First, managers should consider crises as windows of opportunity to earn employees' appreciation and recognition. It is in times of crisis that employees attend most closely to what leaders say and do (Madera & Smith, 2009). The messages that leaders deliver to employees in crisis situations often include emotional elements, and employees scrutinize the information contained in the messages and respond to it via their job attitudes, emotions, and behaviors (Brotheridge & Lee, 2008). For example, Guzzo et al. (2020) found that managers' messages that were aligned with the U.S. Centers for Disease Control and Prevention's recommendations during COVID-19 led hospitality employees to feel

657 grateful and develop more organizational trust. Leaders need to realize that they are perceived as  
658 representatives of the organization and their words and deeds can influence employees’  
659 attitudinal and behavioral reactions to the organization. Therefore, it is recommended that  
660 organizations implement leader communication training to help leaders develop communication  
661 skills with regard to offering assistance, controlling emotions, organizing work, and listening to  
662 employees (Raley et al., 2017). Given the importance of communication, it is necessary for  
663 organizations to develop an inclusive organizational communication strategy to cultivate mutual  
664 listening, understanding, and trust between themselves and employees during times of crisis  
665 (Jouany & Martic, 2022). First, CEOs and senior managers need to link communication to  
666 business strategy (i.e., vision and mission statements), thereby cultivating an organizational  
667 culture that recognizes the importance of communication. Second, human resources managers  
668 must take responsibility for encouraging all employees’ engagement and establishing effective  
669 voice channels within the organization to regularly collect employees’ feedback and suggestions.  
670 Finally, supervisors and team leaders must communicate daily with their followers, whether  
671 formally or informally, in order to understand their thoughts, possible concerns, and any negative  
672 emotions in a timely manner. In addition, organizations can organize mindfulness and meditation  
673 trainings for both leaders and employees. Studies have found that regular mindful meditation  
674 among teams are significantly advantageous to enhance empathy, improve collaboration,  
675 promote organizational identity, and increase emotion regulation ability (Sage, 2020). Leaders  
676 could schedule a brief mindfulness and meditation session once a day and encourage followers to  
677 participate in the session as a team. Doing so may help to weaken employees’ tendencies toward  
678 emotional suppression.

Second, hospitality leaders and employees, especially those working on the front lines, are expected to consistently demonstrate positive emotions and “to treat others as we’d wish to be treated ourselves” (as the “golden rule” of Four Seasons Hotels and Resorts indicates). The tendency to suppress genuinely experienced emotions is prevalent among hospitality employees (Shani et al., 2014). However, emotional suppression has been found to exert broad negative effects on individuals’ moods, self-assessment, cognitive functioning, social behaviors, and psychological well-being (e.g., Butler et al., 2007; Trougakos et al., 2011). According to the process model of emotion regulation (Gross, 2015), emotional suppression is the last step of emotion regulation and occurs after emotions have been generated. To reduce individual tendencies toward emotional suppression, organizations can provide resources to help employees shift their perceptions of certain events or reappraise situations, which may mitigate the generation of negative emotions. For instance, employers might offer a perspective-taking intervention in which managers provide guidance on how employees can show understanding and sympathy for customers’ situations using cognitive skills (Lee et al., 2020). Perspective-taking connotes an individual competence of understanding another person’s psychological viewpoint (Parker & Axtell, 2001). In service encounters, employees demonstrate sympathy toward customers through high levels of perspective-taking (Lee et al., 2020). It has been found that employees’ better understanding of customers’ situations effectively regulates employees’ emotions before suboptimal feelings are generated, thus mitigating employees’ tendencies to engage in emotional suppression (Rupp et al., 2008). In this regard, hospitality managers need to make efforts to enhance followers’ perspective-taking skills for the sake of reducing their emotional suppression intentions. More specifically, managers can conduct regular empathy trainings for employees that include role-playing activities encouraging them to consider the

perspective of customers. For instance, to improve its booking system, Carnival Cruise Line created a game in which employees acted as customers engaged in the organizational booking process (Henkel & Grant, 2018). As a result, a technologically sophisticated and team-based call center was created, which assisted in boosting organizational sales and improving customer satisfaction (Henkel and Grant, 2018). Supervisors should also attend to employees' emotional states and needs, recognize employees' efforts and achievements, and provide help when employees need to use emotion regulation to handle difficult customers.

Third, we chose to study SSL given its relevance to crisis situations occurring in the hospitality industry, and we examined its effectiveness in the particular context of COVID-19. The current research reveals that in the wake of the massive layoffs, furloughs, and salary cuts among hospitality employees due to the devastating financial impacts of COVID-19, leaders' self-sacrificial behaviors helped employees recognize their leaders' effectiveness and avoid engaging in NWOM about their organizations. The typical self-sacrificial behavior that was relevant during COVID-19 is the sacrifice of personal financial gains, given that most hospitality employees lost their jobs and financial stability. Other possible self-sacrificial behaviors include (1) sacrificing paid time off and privileges for the sake of one's organization, such as giving up vacation to help lead the organization out of the crisis; (2) advocating for employees' interests even though doing so may risk the leaders' own status and positions; and (3) helping employees in need even if it comes at a cost to the leaders themselves. Leaders should adopt an approach coping strategy characterized by active solution seeking and a future orientation as well as SSL in crisis situations in order to clearly signal their determination to ameliorate stressors instead of skirting around problems.

*Limitations and Future Studies*

In spite of its advanced design that encompasses both field and experimental studies, the current research has the following limitations. First, the research findings are based exclusively on U.S. samples. Future research should seek to replicate the results in Eastern cultural contexts where emotional suppression may be even more salient. Gross (2003) found that European Americans had significantly lower levels of emotional suppression than Latinx, Asian, and African Americans. Second, cognitive appraisal is another commonly used emotion regulation strategy. Unlike emotional suppression, cognitive reappraisal is a form of antecedent-focused emotion regulation that considers the cognitive reconstruction of affective events that may alter a person's emotional experiences (Feinberg et al., 2020). Research has shown that individuals differ systematically in their use of cognitive reappraisal as an emotion regulation strategy (Gross, 2005). It would be interesting to examine whether cognitive appraisal serves as a variable influencing employees' perceptions of leadership. Third, the current research investigated the effectiveness of SSL on employees' perceptions of leader effectiveness and NWOM via self-reported data. Future research might measure performance-related behavioral outcomes (i.e., task performance or problem-solving; Yukl, 2012) of SSL from supervisor ratings and eliminating social desirability bias caused by self-rating. Finally, another pathway to understanding the potential negative effects of SSL is that followers may experience emotional and cognitive pressure to reciprocate or imitate leaders' self-sacrificial behaviors, resulting in suboptimal outcomes (e.g., negative job performance and negligent behaviors) among followers. (Choi & Mai-Dalton, 1998; Yang & Chen, 2021). Future research should consider this potential disadvantage of SSL by investigating the effects of SSL from a social exchange perspective.



## References

- Achenbach, J. (2020, October 2). Coronavirus is harming the mental health of tens of millions of people in U.S., new poll finds. *Washington Post*.  
[https://www.washingtonpost.com/health/coronavirus-isharming-the-mental-health-of-tens-of-millions-of-people-in-us-newpoll-finds/2020/04/02/565e6744-74ee-11ea-85cb-8670579b863d\\_story.html](https://www.washingtonpost.com/health/coronavirus-isharming-the-mental-health-of-tens-of-millions-of-people-in-us-newpoll-finds/2020/04/02/565e6744-74ee-11ea-85cb-8670579b863d_story.html)
- Ahmad, S., Islam, T., Sohal, A. S., Cox, J. W., & Kaleem, A. (2021). Managing bullying in the workplace: A model of servant leadership, employee resilience and proactive personality. *Personnel Review*, 50(7/8), 1613-1631.
- Alarcon, G. M., Lyons, J. B., Schlessman, B. R., & Barelka, A. J. (2012). Leadership and coping among Air Force officers. *Military Psychology*, 24(1), 29-47.
- Anshel, M., & Anderson, D. (2002). Coping with acute stress in sport: Linking athletes' coping style, coping strategies, affect, and motor performance. *Anxiety, Stress & Coping*, 15(2), 193-209.
- Arnold, K. A., & Loughlin, C. (2010). Individually considerate transformational leadership behaviour and self sacrifice. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 31(8), 670-686.
- Arnold, K. A., Connelly, C. E., Walsh, M. M., & Martin Ginis, K. A. (2015). Leadership styles, emotion regulation, and burnout. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 20(4), 481-490.
- Ashkanasy, N. M., & Tse, B. (2000). Transformational leadership as management of emotion: A conceptual review. In N. M. Ashkanasy, C. E. Härtel, & W. J. Zerbe (Eds.), *Emotions in the workplace: Research, theory, and practice* (pp. 221–235). Quorum Books/Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Aspinwall, L. G., & Taylor, S. E. (1997). A stitch in time: Self-regulation and proactive coping. *Psychological bulletin*, 121(3), 417-436.
- Atik, Y. (1994). The conductor and the orchestra: Interactive aspects of the leadership process. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 15(1), 22-28.
- Awamleh, R., & Gardner, W. L. (1999). Perceptions of leader charisma and effectiveness: The effects of vision content, delivery, and organizational performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(3), 345-373.
- Bakker, A. B., Xanthopoulou, D., & Demerouti, E. (2022). How does chronic burnout affect dealing with weekly job demands? A test of central propositions in JD - R and COR - theories. *Applied Psychology*, 72(1), 389-410.
- Bal, M. P., Chiaburu, D. S., & Diaz, K. L. (2011). Does psychological contract breach decrease proactive behaviors? The moderating effect of emotion regulation. *Group & Organization Management*, 36, 722-758.
- Barger, P. B., & Sinar, E. F. (2011, April). *Psychological data from Amazon. com's MTurk: Rapid and inexpensive—But high-quality* [poster presented]. 26th Annual Conference for the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Chicago, IL.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*. Winter, 19-31.
- Batool, B. F. (2013). Emotional intelligence and effective leadership. *Journal of business studies quarterly*, 4(3), 84-94.

- Benita, M., Benish-Weisman, M., Matos, L., & Torres, C. (2020). Integrative and suppressive emotion regulation differentially predict well-being through basic need satisfaction and frustration: A test of three countries. *Motivation and Emotion*, 44(1), 67-81.
- Bout, D. (2013). *The impact of company grade officer self-sacrificial behavior on subordinate assessments of leader charisma* [Doctoral dissertation, Walden University]. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing. <https://www.proquest.com/docview/1426182518?pq-origsite=gscholar&fromopenview=true>
- Bowers, D. G., & Seashore, S. E. (1966). Predicting Organizational Effectiveness With a Four-Factor Theory of Leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 11(2), 238-263.
- Brandt, L. (2020, October 20). 13 business leaders who have cut their salaries to \$0 to help struggling workers as the coronavirus wreaks havoc on their industries. *Business Insider*. <https://www.businessinsider.com/list-of-business-leaders-giving-up-salaries-during-the-pandemic-2020-3>
- Breevaart, K., & Zacher, H. (2019). Main and interactive effects of weekly transformational and laissez-faire leadership on followers' trust in the leader and leader effectiveness. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 92(2), 384-409.
- Brotheridge, C. M., & Lee, R. T. (2008). The emotions of managing: An introduction to the special issue. *Journal of managerial psychology*, 23(2), 108-117.
- Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 97(2), 117-134.
- Butler, E. A., & Gross, J. J. (2009). Emotion and emotion regulation: Integrating individual and social levels of analysis. *Emotion Review*, 1(1), 86-87.
- Charbonnier-Voirin, A., Poujol, J. F., & Vignolles, A. (2017). From value congruence to employer brand: Impact on organizational identification and word of mouth. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences/Revue Canadienne des Sciences de l'Administration*, 34(4), 429-437.
- Chau, S. L., Dahling, J. J., Levy, P. E., & Diefendorff, J. M. (2009). A predictive study of emotional labor and turnover. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(8), 1151-1163.
- Cheng, B., Guo, G., Tian, J., & Shaalan, A. (2020). Customer incivility and service sabotage in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(5), 1737-1754.
- Chi, N. W., Grandey, A. A., Diamond, J. A., & Krimmel, K. R. (2011). Want a tip? Service performance as a function of emotion regulation and extraversion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(6), 1337-1346.
- Chi, S. C. S., & Liang, S. G. (2013). When do subordinates' emotion-regulation strategies matter? Abusive supervision, subordinates' emotional exhaustion, and work withdrawal. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24(1), 125-137.
- Choi, Y., & Mai-Dalton, R. R. (1998). On the leadership function of self-sacrifice. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 9(4), 475-501.
- Choi, Y., & Mai-Dalton, R. R. (1999). The model of followers' responses to self-sacrificial leadership: An empirical test. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(3), 397-421.
- Choi, Y., & Yoon, J. (2005). Effects of leaders' self-sacrificial behavior and competency on followers' attribution of charismatic leadership among Americans and Koreans. *Current Research in Social Psychology*, 11(5), 51-69.

- Chuang, A., Judge, T. A., & Liaw, Y. J. (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.
- Chung, A., Chen, I. H., Lee, A. Y. P., Chen, H. C., & Lin, Y. (2011). Charismatic leadership and self-leadership. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 24(3), 299-313.
- Cossette, M., & Hess, U. (2012). Emotion regulation strategies among customer service employees: A motivational approach. In *Experiencing and managing emotions in the workplace*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Coté, S. (2005). A social interaction model of the effects of emotion regulation on work strain. *Academy of management review*, 30(3), 509-530.
- Côté, S., Van Kleef, G. A., & Sy, T. (2013). The social effects of emotion regulation in organizations. In *Emotional labor in the 21st century* (pp. 99-120). Routledge.
- COVID-19 Series: Authentic Communication during Crisis - Marriott CEO Arne Sorenson. (2020, April 10). [Video]. Centre for Executive Education.  
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=X6af2IVfDDk>
- De Cremer, D. (2006). Affective and motivational consequences of leader self-sacrifice: The moderating effect of autocratic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(1), 79-93.
- De Cremer, D., & Van Knippenberg, D. (2004). Leader self-sacrifice and leadership effectiveness: The moderating role of leader self-confidence. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 95(2), 140-155.
- De Cremer, D., Mayer, D. M., Van Dijke, M., Schouten, B. C., & Bardes, M. (2009). When does self-sacrificial leadership motivate prosocial behavior? It depends on followers' prevention focus. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94(4), 887-899.
- De Cremer, D., Van Knippenberg, D., Van Dijke, M., & Bos, A. (2006). Self-Sacrificial Leadership and Follower Self-Esteem. *Group Dynamics*, 10(3), 233-245.
- Deluga, R. J. (1998). Leader-Member Exchange Quality and Effectiveness Ratings: The Role of Subordinate-Supervisor Conscientiousness Similarity. *Group & Organization Management*, 23(2), 189-216.
- DeWall, C. N., Baumeister, R. F., Stillman, T. F., & Gailliot, M. T. (2007). Violence restrained: Effects of self-regulation and its depletion on aggression. *Journal of Experimental social psychology*, 43(1), 62-76.
- Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: Meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 611-628.
- Edwards, M. R. (2005). Organizational identification: A conceptual and operational review. *International journal of management reviews*, 7(4), 207-230.
- Eisenberger, R., & Stinglhamber, F. (2011). *Perceived organizational support: Fostering enthusiastic and productive employees*. American Psychological Association.
- Eisenberger, R., Shanock, L. R., & Wen, X. (2020). Perceived organizational support: Why caring about employees counts. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 7, 101-124.
- Eisenberger, R., Stinglhamber, F., Vandenberghe, C., Sucharski, I. L., & Rhoades, L. (2002). Perceived supervisor support: Contributions to perceived organizational support and employee retention. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3), 565-573.
- Eisingerich, A. B., Chun, H. H., Liu, Y., Jia, H. M., & Bell, S. J. (2015). Why recommend a brand face-to-face but not on Facebook? How word-of-mouth on online social sites

- differs from traditional word-of-mouth. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 25(1), 120-128.
- Elliot, A. J., & Harackiewicz, J. M. (1996). Approach and avoidance achievement goals and intrinsic motivation: A mediational analysis. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 70(3), 461-475.
- Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (1999). The impact of relational demography on the quality of leader-member exchanges and employees' work attitudes and well-being. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72(2), 237-240.
- Grégoire, S., & Lachance, L. (2015). Evaluation of a brief mindfulness-based intervention to reduce psychological distress in the workplace. *Mindfulness*, 6(4), 836-847.
- Gross, J. J. (1998). The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review. *Review of general psychology*, 2(3), 271-299.
- Gross, J. J. (2013). Emotion regulation: taking stock and moving forward. *Emotion*, 13(3), 359-365.
- Gross, J. J. (2015). Emotion regulation: Current status and future prospects. *Psychological inquiry*, 26(1), 1-26.
- Gross, J. J., & John, O. P. (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.
- Gursoy, D., Boylu, Y. & Avci, U. (2011). Identifying the complex relationships among emotional labor and its correlates. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 30(4), 783-794.
- Guzzo, R. F., Wang, X., Madera, J. M., & Abbott, J. (2021). Organizational trust in times of COVID-19: Hospitality employees' affective responses to managers' communication. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 93, 102778.
- Halverson, S. K., Holladay, C. L., Kazama, S. M., & Quiñones, M. A. (2004). Self-sacrificial behavior in crisis situations: The competing roles of behavioral and situational factors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(2), 263-275.
- Hamblin, R. L. (1958). Leadership and crises. *Sociometry*, 21(4), 322-335.
- Hamstra, M. R. W., Yperen, N. W. V., Wisse, B., & Sassenberg, K. (2014). On the perceived effectiveness of transformational–transactional leadership: The role of encouraged strategies and followers' regulatory focus. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 44(6), 643-656.
- Hao, P., Zhou, R., & Long, L. (2014). I feel happy to speak up and make sacrifice: Roles of leader sacrifice and environmental uncertainty. In *Academy of Management Proceedings* (Vol. 2014, No. 1, p. 15703). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.
- Hassan, S. Y., Bashir, M., Abrar, M., Baig, S. A., & Zubair, A. (2015). The impact of transformational leadership on employee's creative self-efficacy: The moderating role of cognitive diversity. *International Journal of Information, Business and Management*, 7(3), 251-262.
- Haver, A., Akerjordet, K., & Furunes, T. (2013). Emotion regulation and its implications for leadership: An integrative review and future research agenda. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 20(3), 287-303.
- Henkel, E., & Grant, A. (2018, 28 September). *To Get Employees to Empathize with Customers, Make Them Think Like Customers*. Harvard Business Review. <https://hbr.org/2018/09/to->

- get-employees-to-empathize-with-customers-make-them-think-like-customers?registration=success
- Herman-Stabl, M. A., Stemmler, M., & Petersen, A. C. (1995). Approach and avoidant coping: Implications for adolescent mental health. *Journal of youth and adolescence*, 24(6), 649-665.
- Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: a new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American psychologist*, 44(3), 513-524.
- Hobfoll, S. E., Halbesleben, J., Neveu, J.-P., & Westman, M. (2018). Conservation of Resources in the Organizational Context: The Reality of Resources and Their Consequences. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 5(1), 103-128.
- Hochschild, A. R. (1979). Emotion work, feeling rules, and social structure. *American journal of sociology*, 85(3), 551-575.
- Hoffman, B. J., Woehr, D. J., Maldagen-Youngjohn, R., & Lyons, B. D. (2011). Great man or great myth? A quantitative review of the relationship between individual differences and leader effectiveness. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 84(2), 347-381.
- Hoogervorst, N., De Cremer, D., Van Dijke, M., & Mayer, D. M. (2012). When do leaders sacrifice?: The effects of sense of power and belongingness on leader self-sacrifice. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(5), 883-896.
- Hur, W. M., Won Moon, T., & Jun, J. K. (2013). The role of perceived organizational support on emotional labor in the airline industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 25(1), 105-123.
- Hutchins, H. M., Penney, L. M., & Sublett, L. W. (2018). What imposters risk at work: Exploring imposter phenomenon, stress coping, and job outcomes. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 29(1), 31-48.
- Iqbal, K., Naveed, M., Subhan, Q. A., Fatima, T., & Alshahrani, S. T. (2022). When Self-Sacrificial Leaders Induce Employees' Citizenship Behaviors? Uncovering the Nexus of Psychological Empowerment and Psychological Well-Being. *SAGE Open*, 12(1), 21582440221085257.
- Jacobson, C., & House, R. J. (2001). Dynamics of charismatic leadership: A process theory, simulation model, and tests. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12, 75-112.
- Joseph, D. L., & Newman, D. A. (2010). Emotional intelligence: An integrative meta-analysis and cascading model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1), 54-78.
- Jouany, V., & Martic, K. (2022, March 3). What is Organizational Communication and 9 Steps to Do It Right. *Haiilo*. <https://haiilo.com/blog/organizational-communication-9-steps-to-create-a-successful-strategy/>
- Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R., & Gerhardt, M. W. (2002). Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 765-780.
- Jung, H. S. & Yoon, H. H. (2014). Moderating role of hotel employees' gender and job position on the relationship between emotional intelligence and emotional labor. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 43, 47-52.
- Kafetsios, K., Nezlek, J. B., & Vassilakou, T. (2012). Relationships between leaders' and subordinates' emotion regulation and satisfaction and affect at work. *The Journal of social psychology*, 152(4), 436-457.
- Kim, E., & Yoon, D. J. (2012). Why does service with a smile make employees happy? A social interaction model. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97(5), 1059-1067.

- 974 Kim, M. S., & Duda, J. L. (2003). The coping process: Cognitive appraisals of stress, coping  
975 strategies, and coping effectiveness. *The sport psychologist*, 17(4), 406-425.
- 976 King, R. B., & Datu, J. A. D. (2018). Grateful students are motivated, engaged, and successful in  
977 school: Cross-sectional, longitudinal, and experimental evidence. *Journal of school*  
978 *psychology*, 70, 105-122.
- 979 Larsson, G., Kempe, C., & Starrin, B. (1988). Appraisal and coping processes in acute time-  
980 limited stressful situations: A study of police officers. *European Journal of Personality*,  
981 2(4), 259-276.
- 982 Lee, L., Guchait, P., & Madera, J. M. (2020). Negative affect, deep acting, and customer  
983 compensation as responses to customer mistreatment: The effect of customer-based  
984 perspective-taking. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 89, 102532.
- 985 Lee, S. B., & Suh, T. (2020). Internal audience strikes back from the outside: emotionally  
986 exhausted employees' negative word-of-mouth as the active brand-oriented deviance.  
987 *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 29(7), 863-876.
- 988 Li, H., Fan, J., Zhao, G., Wang, M., Zheng, L., Meng, H., ... & Lievens, F. (2022). The role of  
989 emotions as mechanisms of mid-test warning messages during personality testing: A field  
990 experiment. *Journal of applied psychology*, 107(1), 40-59.
- 991 Li, R., Zhang, Z. Y., & Tian, X. M. (2016). Can self-sacrificial leadership promote subordinate  
992 taking charge? The mediating role of organizational identification and the moderating  
993 role of risk aversion. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(5), 758-781.
- 994 Liu, Y., Prati, L. M., Perrewé, P. L., & Brymer, R. A. (2010). Individual differences in emotion  
995 regulation, emotional experiences at work, and work - related outcomes: A two - study  
996 investigation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 40(6), 1515-1538.
- 997 Liu, Y., Wang, M., Chang, C. H., Shi, J., Zhou, L., & Shao, R. (2015). Work-family conflict,  
998 emotional exhaustion, and displaced aggression toward others: The moderating roles of  
999 workplace interpersonal conflict and perceived managerial family support. *Journal of*  
1000 *Applied Psychology*, 100(3), 793-808.
- 1001 Lopes, P. N., Nezlek, J. B., Extremera, N., Hertel, J., Fernández-Berrocal, P., Schütz, A., &  
1002 Salovey, P. (2011). Emotion regulation and the quality of social interaction: Does the  
1003 ability to evaluate emotional situations and identify effective responses matter?. *Journal*  
1004 *of Personality*, 79(2), 429-467.
- 1005 Lopes, P. N., Salovey, P., Côté, S., Beers, M., & Petty, R. E. (2005). Emotion regulation abilities  
1006 and the quality of social interaction. *Emotion*, 5(1), 113-118.
- 1007 Lord, R. G., & Maher, K. J. (2002). *Leadership and information processing: Linking perceptions*  
1008 *and performance*. Routledge.
- 1009 Loton, D., Borkoles, E., Lubman, D., & Polman, R. (2016). Video game addiction, engagement  
1010 and symptoms of stress, depression and anxiety: The mediating role of  
1011 coping. *International Journal of Mental Health and Addiction*, 14(4), 565-578.
- 1012 Madera, J. M., & Smith, D. B. (2009). The effects of leader negative emotions on evaluations of  
1013 leadership in a crisis situation: The role of anger and sadness. *The Leadership*  
1014 *Quarterly*, 20(2), 103-114.
- 1015 Matsumoto, D., Yoo, S. H., & Nakagawa, S. (2008). Culture, emotion regulation, and  
1016 adjustment. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 94(6), 925-937.
- 1017 Matteson, J. A., & Irving, J. A. (2006). Servant versus self-sacrificial leadership: A behavioral  
1018 comparison of two follow-oriented leadership theories. *International Journal of*  
1019 *Leadership Studies*, 2(1), 36-51.

- Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of applied psychology*, 84(1), 123-136.
- Meindl, J. R. (1995). The romance of leadership as a follower-centric theory: A social constructionist approach. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(3), 329-341.
- Mostafa, A. M. S., & Bottomley, P. A. (2020). Self-sacrificial leadership and employee behaviours: An examination of the role of organizational social capital. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 161(3), 641-652.
- Muthén, L. K., & Muthén, B. (2017). *Mplus user's guide: Statistical analysis with latent variables, user's guide*. Muthén & Muthén.
- Nam, S., & Shin, H. C. (2017). How customer's display of emotions relates to task performance: social interaction model in hospitality. *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 11(3), 421-435.
- Newman, D. A., Joseph, D. L., & MacCann, C. (2010). Emotional intelligence and job performance: The importance of emotion regulation and emotional labor context. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, 3(2), 159-164.
- Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F. (2010). The impact of positivity and transparency on trust in leaders and their perceived effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(3), 350-364.
- Park, J. C., & Choi, H. J. (2018). A Study on the Structural Relationships between Self-Sacrificial Leadership, Employees' Workplace Spirituality, Supervisor Likeability and Innovation Behavior of Hotel Enterprise. *Culinary science and hospitality research*, 24(3), 177-187.
- Parker, S. K., & Axtell, C. M. (2001). Seeing another viewpoint: Antecedents and outcomes of employee perspective taking. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(6), 1085-1100.
- Patterson, K. A. (2003). *Servant leadership: A theoretical model*. Regent University.
- Pierce, J., & Newstorm, J. (2015). *The Managers Bookshelf*. Prentice Hall.
- Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: a critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of applied psychology*, 88(5), 879-903.
- Polman, R., Borkoles, E., & Nicholls, A. R. (2010). Type D personality, stress, and symptoms of burnout: The influence of avoidance coping and social support. *British journal of health psychology*, 15(3), 681-696.
- Prasad, K. D. V., & Vaidya, R. (2018). Causes and Effect of Occupational Stress and Coping on Performance with Special Reference to Length of Service: An Empirical Study Using Multinomial Logistic Regression Approach. *Psychology*, 9(10), 2457-2470.
- Raley, J., Meenakshi, R., Dent, D., Willis, R., Lawson, K., & Duzinski, S. (2017). The role of communication during trauma activations: investigating the need for team and leader communication training. *Journal of Surgical Education*, 74(1), 173-179.
- Rupp, D. E., Silke McCance, A., Spencer, S., & Sonntag, K. (2008). Customer (in) justice and emotional labor: The role of perspective taking, anger, and emotional regulation. *Journal of Management*, 34(5), 903-924.
- Sadeghi, A., & Pihie, Z. A. L. (2012). Transformational leadership and its predictive effects on leadership effectiveness. *International Journal of Business and Social Science*, 3(7), 186-197.
- Sage, L. (2020, August 3). Six Proven Benefits of Meditation In The Workplace. *Forbes*.  
<https://www.forbes.com/sites/forbesbusinesscouncil/2020/08/03/six-proven-benefits-of-meditation-in-the-workplace/?sh=467c841efa88>

- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. D. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, cognition and personality*, 9(3), 185-211.
- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The Motivational Effects of Charismatic Leadership: A Self-Concept Based Theory. *Organization Science*, 4(4), 577-594.
- Shani, A., Uriely, N., Reichel, A., & Ginsburg, L. (2014). Emotional labor in the hospitality industry: The influence of contextual factors. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 37, 150-158.
- Shin, J., & Shin, H. (2022). The Effect of Self-Sacrifice Leadership on Social Capital and Job Performance in Hotels. *Sustainability*, 14(9), 5509.
- Shin, Y., Kim, M. S., Choi, J. N., Kim, M., & Oh, W.-K. (2017). Does Leader-Follower Regulatory Fit Matter? The Role of Regulatory Fit in Followers' Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Journal of Management*, 43(4), 1211-1233.
- Shoss, M. K., Eisenberger, R., Restubog, S. L. D., & Zagenczyk, T. J. (2013). Blaming the organization for abusive supervision: The roles of perceived organizational support and supervisor's organizational embodiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 98(1), 158–168.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1950). Leadership, membership, and organization. *Psychological Bulletin*, 47(1), 1-14.
- Sverdlik, N., Oreg, S., & Berson, Y. (2020). When Do Leaders Initiate Changes? The Roles of Coping Style and Organization Members' Stability-Emphasizing Values. *Applied Psychology*, 69(4), 1338-1360.
- Sy, T., Horton, C., & Riggio, R. (2018). Charismatic leadership: Eliciting and channeling follower emotions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 29(1), 58-69.
- Tannenbaum, R., Weschler, I. R., & Massarik, F. (1961). *Leadership and organization: A behavioral science approach*. McGraw-Hill Company.
- Thompson, D. (2020, September). The Coronavirus is creating a huge, stressful experiment in working from home. The Atlantic. <https://www.theatlantic.com/ideas/archive/2020/03/coronavirus-creatinghuge-stressful-experiment-working-home/607945/>
- Tiedens, L. Z. (2001). Anger and advancement versus sadness and subjugation: the effect of negative emotion expressions on social status conferral. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 80(1), 86-94.
- Trougakos, J. P., Chawla, N., & McCarthy, J. M. (2020). Working in a pandemic: Exploring the impact of COVID-19 health anxiety on work, family, and health outcomes. *The Journal of applied psychology*, 105(11), 1234–1245.
- Trougakos, J. P., Jackson, C. L., & Beal, D. J. (2011). Service without a smile: Comparing the consequences of neutral and positive display rules. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(2), 350-362.
- Tsui, A. S. (1984). A role set analysis of managerial reputation. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34(1), 64-96.
- Turki Alshahrani, S. (2022). Impact of Self-sacrificial Leadership on Organizational Engagement: A Psychological Mechanism of Job Satisfaction. *International Journal of Organizational Leadership*, 11(1), 112-126.
- Uen, J. F., Ahlstrom, D., Chen, S., & Liu, J. (2015). Employer brand management, organizational prestige and employees' word-of-mouth referrals in Taiwan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 53(1), 104-123.



- Van Knippenberg, B., & Van Knippenberg, D. (2005). Leader Self-Sacrifice and Leadership Effectiveness: The Moderating Role of Leader Prototypicality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(1), 25-37.
- Von Gilsa, L., Zapf, D., Ohly, S., Trumpold, K., & Machowski, S. (2014). There is more than obeying display rules: Service employees' motives for emotion regulation in customer interactions. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23(6), 884-896.
- Vondey, M. (2010). The relationships among servant leadership, organizational citizenship behavior, person-organization fit, and organizational identification. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*, 6(1), 3-27.
- Wang, K. L., & Groth, M. (2014). Buffering the negative effects of employee surface acting: The moderating role of employee–customer relationship strength and personalized services. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(2), 341-350.
- Wang, L., Restubog, S., Shao, B., Lu, V., & Van Kleef, G. A. (2018). Does Anger Expression Help or Harm Leader Effectiveness? The Role of Competence-based versus Integrity-based Violations and Abusive Supervision. *Academy of Management Journal*, 61(3), 1050-1072.
- Weinberger, M. G., Allen, C. T., & Dillon, W. R. (1981). Negative information: Perspectives and research directions. *ACR North American Advances*.
- Williams, L. J., Cote, J. A., & Buckley, M. R. (1989). Lack of method variance in self-reported affect and perceptions at work: reality or artifact?. *Journal of applied psychology*, 74(3), 462-468.
- Wu, C. H., Weisman, H., Sung, L. K., Erdogan, B., & Bauer, T. N. (2022). Perceived Overqualification, Felt Organizational Obligation, and Extra - Role Behavior during the COVID - 19 crisis: The Moderating Role of Self - Sacrificial Leadership. *Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 983–1013.
- Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2007). The role of personal resources in the job demands-resources model. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 14(2), 121-141.
- Yang, F., & Chen, Z. (2021). What Creates a “Good Soldier”? Leader Self-Sacrifice, Subordinate Negligent Behaviors under Ambiguity. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 2021(1), 10821.
- Yang, F., Senewiratne, S., Newman, A., Sen Sendjaya, & Chen, Z. (2022). Leader self-sacrifice: A systematic review of two decades of research and an agenda for future research. *Applied Psychology*, 1-35.
- Yang, J., Wei, H., & Wu, Y. (2021). Influence of Self-Sacrificial Leadership on the Pro-Organizational Unethical Behavior of Employees: A Moderated Mediating Model. *Psychology Research and Behavior Management*, 14, 2245-2255.
- Yukl, G. (2008). How leaders influence organizational effectiveness. *The leadership quarterly*, 19(6), 708-722.
- Yukl, G. (2012). Effective leadership behavior: What we know and what questions need more attention. *Academy of Management perspectives*, 26(4), 66-85.
- Zhang, H., & Ye, M. (2016). A literature review of self-sacrificial leadership. *Psychology*, 7(9), 1205-1210.
- Zhang, J., Li, J., & Huang, J. (2020). How self-sacrificial leadership influences employee voice: Psychological safety as a mediator. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 48(12), 1-8.

Zhou, R., Long, L., & Hao, P. (2016). Positive affect, environmental uncertainty, and self-sacrificial leadership influence followers' self-sacrificial behavior. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 44(9), 1515-1524.

## Tables and Figures

Table 1. Study 1 Descriptive Statistics, Convergent and Discriminate Validity Test Results

Construct	Indicator	Loadings	Mean	SD	CCR	AVE
Self-sacrificial Leadership			4.81	1.43	0.92	0.71
	1	0.86				
<i>Cronbach's alpha</i> = .92	2	0.84				
	3	0.78				
	4	0.86				
	5	0.86				
Emotional suppression			4.08	1.42	0.82	0.54
	1	0.85				
<i>Cronbach's alpha</i> = .81	2	0.65				
	3	0.83				
	4	0.55				
Negative Word-of-mouth			2.17	1.25	0.90	0.76
	1	0.88				
<i>Cronbach's alpha</i> = .90	2	0.86				
	3	0.87				
Leader Effectiveness			5.18	1.46	0.95	0.75
	1	0.81				
<i>Cronbach's alpha</i> = .95	2	0.83				
	3	0.90				
	4	0.91				
	5	0.86				
	6	0.89				

*Note.* SD = standard deviation; CCR = composite construct reliability; AVE = average variance extracted

Table 2. Study 1 Mplus Path Analysis Results

	Leader Effectiveness	Negative Word of Mouth
Intercept	3.77***(.51)	5.16***(.18)
<i>Covariates</i>		
Age	.06 (.10)	-.08 (.14)
Tenure	.001 (.06)	-.01 (.08)
Cognitive Reappraisal (C)	-.02 (.05)	-.04 (.07)
A × C	-.03 (.05)	-.05 (.06)
<i>Main effects and interaction</i>		
Self-sacrificial Leadership (A)	1.22***(.05)	.07 (.13)
Emotional Suppression (B)	-.01 (.05)	.33***(.07)
A × B	-.09*(.05)	.14*(.07)
Leader Effectiveness		-.29**(.09)
R <sup>2</sup>	.22***	.72***

Note. Unstandardized path coefficients are presented. Standard errors are shown in the parentheses. \*  $p < .05$ ; \*\*  $p < .01$ ; \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

Table 3. Study 2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

	Mean	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3
1 Cognitive Reappraisal	5.30	1.02	(.87)		
2 Emotional Suppression	4.62	1.44	.10	(.87)	
3 Leader Effectiveness	5.02	1.02	.21**	-.08	(.78)

*Note.* *N* = 182. *SD* = standard deviation. Cronbach's alphas are reported on the diagonal.

\* *p* < .05; \*\* *p* < .01

Table 4. Study 2 Mplus Multigroup Analysis Results

	Approach Coping Condition	Avoidance Coping Condition
Intercept	3.77***(.33)	3.69***(.34)
<i>Covariates</i>		
Cognitive Reappraisal (C)	-.43 (.27)	-.04 (.36)
A × C	.47 <sup>†</sup> (.27)	-.36 (.35)
<i>Main effects and interaction</i>		
Self-sacrificial Leadership (A)	.09 (.22)	-.24 (.20)
Emotional Suppression (B)	-.22 (.31)	-.12 (.38)
A × B	-.63*(.31)	-.49 (.38)

*Note.* The dependent variable is leader effectiveness. <sup>†</sup> $p < .10$ , \*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*\*\*  $p < .001$ .

Figure 1. The conceptual models

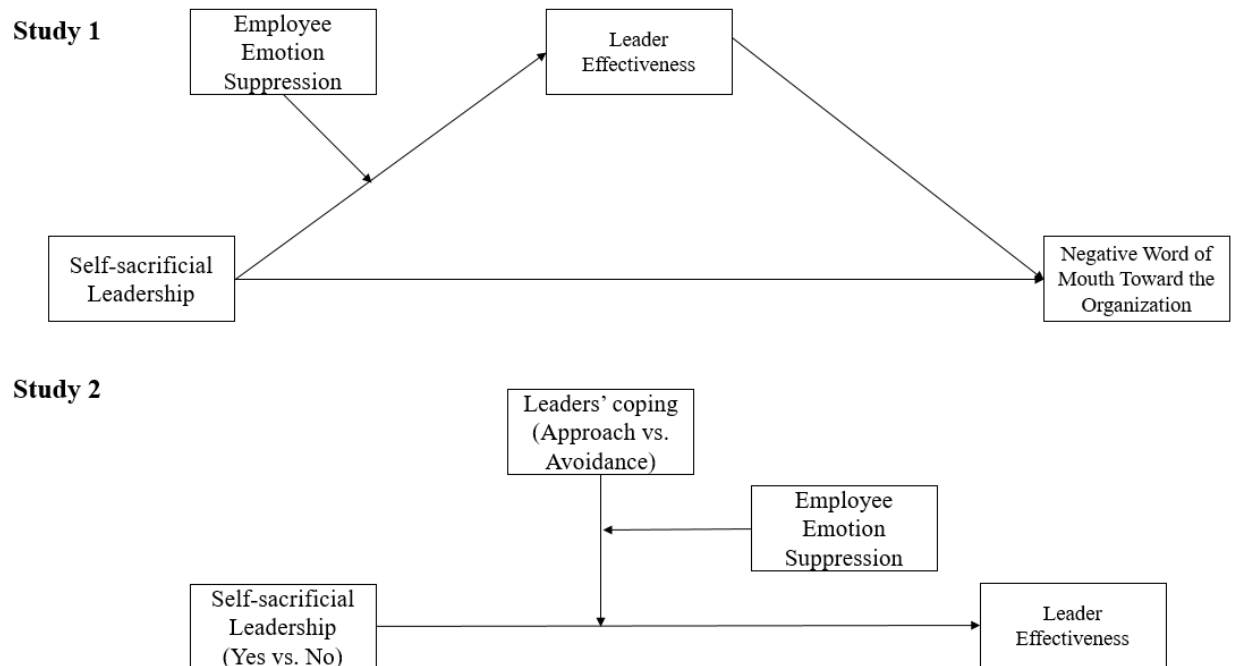


Figure 2. Interaction between self-sacrificial leadership and emotional suppression on leader effectiveness

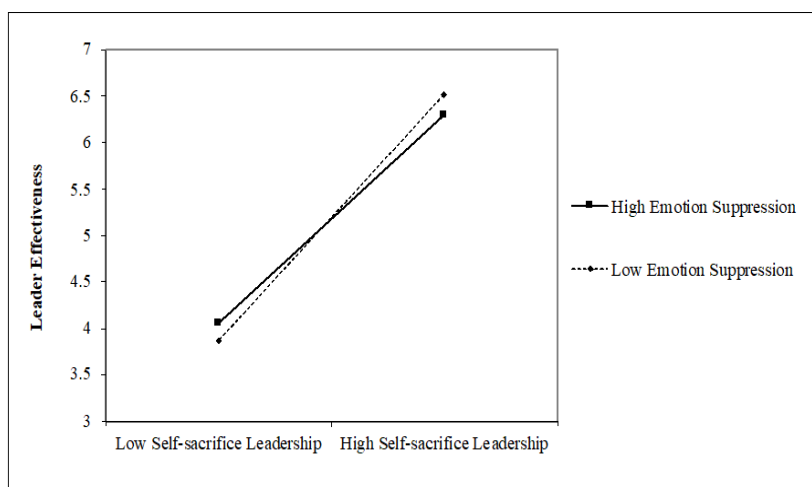
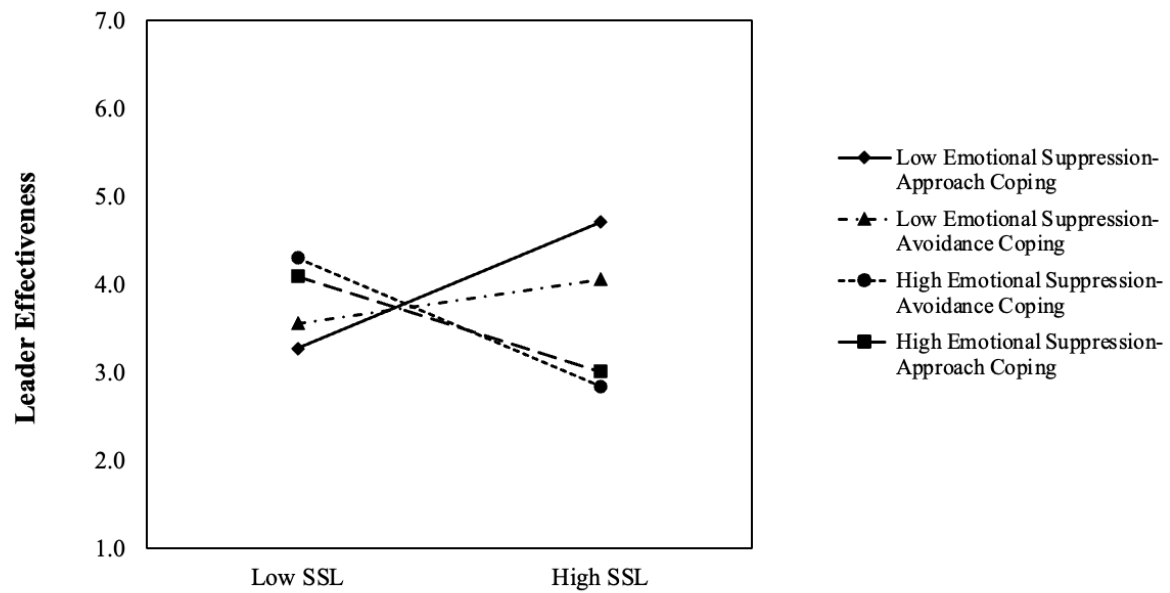


Figure 3. Three-way interaction among self-sacrificial leadership, emotional suppression, and coping strategies on leader effectiveness





1280 **Appendix**

1281 **Sample scenario with the presence of self-sacrificial leadership and avoidance coping**

1282 *Background:* Founded in 1950, the Buffardi Hotel International is an  
1283 American multinational diversified hospitality company that manages 25 brands with more than  
1284 5,000 properties in 135 countries and territories around the world.  
1285 The Buffardi Hotel International has 150, 000 employees by the end of 2019.

1286 During the COVID-19 pandemic, it's been reported that Buffardi Hotel International has **laid off**  
1287 **30%** employees whose jobs aren't necessary at this time.

1288

1289 Below is a message of support from Mr. Bob Buffardi, the CEO of the Buffardi Hotel, to all the  
1290 employees and stakeholders.

1291 Dear Fellow Employee,

1292

1293 The COVID-19 pandemic is having a devastating impact on the global and U.S. economies, and  
1294 it's hitting businesses like ours particularly hard.

1295

1296 In light of this, we are going to be implementing necessary measures designed to better position  
1297 us to weather these extraordinary challenges. Among them, **I have decided to forgo 100% of**  
1298 **my salary and will not receive any bonuses or legal benefits.**

1299

1300 At the same time, **I know that if we dwell on this unfortunate situation it will do no good.**  
1301 **I'm trying to maintain a positive attitude through it all and I would encourage you to do**  
1302 **the same. We still have many things to do. Don't let this situation interfere with them.**  
1303 **Don't let fear and anxiety become pandemics, too. You will get through this challenging**  
1304 **period and emerge even stronger.**

1305

1306 This is a trying period for all of us and as we navigate these challenging times together and make  
1307 adjustments in our daily lives, we're grateful for everyone's continued flexibility and  
1308 understanding.

1309

1310 Best,

1311 Bob

1312

1313