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Emotional Dynamics in Organizational Change: a study in the context of Crisis Management

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Index

Introduction 3

1. Organizational Crisis 4

1.1 Time is a critical aspect in crisis management 5

1.2 Preventing by comprehending the primary variables that contribute to risk 5

1.3 Managing Organizational Crises: Strategies for Resilience 6

1.3.1 Type of Organizational Crisis 9

1.3.2 Respond to type of Organizational Crisis 11

1.4 Impact of Organizational Crisis on organization 14

1.5 Emotions during the Organizational Crisis 18

1.6 Organizational Change and Crisis Management 20

2. Emotions 23

2.1 Plutchik's Wheel of Emotions: Exploring the Emotion Wheel 25

2.2 Understanding Emotions vs. Feelings: Implications for Self-awareness and Empathy 28

2.3 Emotional Management in Organizational Leadership: Strategies, Challenges, and Implications 29

2.4 Navigating Organizational Change: From Concept to Practice 31

2.4.1 Unfreezing: Preparing for Change 34

2.4.2 Transformation: Implementing Change 34

2.4.3 Refreezing: Incorporating Change 35

3. Conceptual Framework and Methodology 37

3.1 Methodology 38

3.1.2 Design and procedure 39

3.1.3 Results 40

3.2 Discussion 41

3.2.1 Managerial implications 41

3.2.3 Suggestions for Future Research 42

Conclusion 44

Bibliography: 45

Appendix 50

Introduction

Recent events, in particular the crisis caused by the COVID-19 pandemic, have highlighted once again the need to train companies' ability to interface with and best manage an organizational crisis. In a situation often characterized by dynamism, confusion and unexpected events, with related consequences, reactions and actions can be varied, as can the effects on people in organizations. Emotions, for example, can play a significant role in influencing not only people's immediate reactions, but people's propensity for change, which is often necessary during a crisis. However, emotions can intervene at different times: in choosing the next steps to take, in strategic planning, in a necessary and immediate reaction. And, furthermore, in the internal dynamics between people in the organization, even at different hierarchical levels. Communication in these cases can have, both in a narrow and broader context, an effect on people's feelings, ambitions and beliefs in a given type of organizational crisis, with consequences on their actions or their propensity to act. This is why, given the increasingly pressing need to investigate often overlooked aspects of organizational crises at a personal level, I wanted to dedicate this master's thesis to the role of emotions in influencing the propensity to change of company personnel. And, specifically, I wanted to do so in a specific situation: communication between managers and their 'subordinates', to shed new light on how these dynamics can significantly (or not) influence the reactions and changes of an organizational entity in response to a crisis event. In my study, in particular, I focused on two emotions that often emerge in critical situations, anger and fear, embedded in managers' communication to subordinates and trying to understand how a different type of crisis can moderate this effect. The insights from this research not only contribute to the literature on organizational crises and change, but have the potential to significantly inform organizational managers on how to communicate effectively with their teams in delicate moments such as those experienced in financial or natural crises, understanding in an objective - and probably counterintuitive - way which stimuli can contribute to a real change implemented by the company. This thesis is structured as follows: I begin by providing a review of the relevant literature on the concept of organizational crisis, emotions and organizational change. Then, I illustrate my conceptual model, methodology and the results of the study. Finally, I conclude by identifying the managerial and theoretical contributions of this research.

1. Organizational Crisis

Organizational crisis refers to a low-probability, high-impact situation that is perceived by organization members to be threatening, ambiguous, urgent, and indecisive (Nan & Lu, 2014). It is a situation that can occur as a result of either internal or external factors. Depending on the extent of the issue, there might be significant repercussions that may even threaten the company's ability to maintain uninterrupted production. Crises within an organization cause major disruptions to its operations (Maitlis & Sonenshein, 2010)[1]. Management must promptly take a position on these types of concerns, especially by implementing urgent processes aimed at protecting the brand's reputation and ensuring uninterrupted firm output (Business Coaching, 2023).

It is noteworthy that in the event of a corporate crisis, any proactive and consequential strategy that management fails to sufficiently prepare for may be rendered ineffective. Similar to numerous other domains, this particular situation demands the ability to recognize preliminary indications of an impending crisis and make appropriate preparations, with particular emphasis on the most dire offenders. Actually, structures are unable to provide an effective response when the crisis has already materialized, and achieving effective internal communication is difficult. The organization must possess the capability to initiate premeditated protocols that facilitate a successful reaction to the challenge, optimizing the utilization of all accessible resources (Fearn-Banks, 2016). As reported by Sarkar & Osiyevskyy, citing the work of Dutton (1986)[2], three characteristics can be considered essential for any type of crisis: the immediacy, that “reflects the perception of the firm's available time window for making and implementing the decision in response to the threat”; the trait of "uncertainty", which is defined as a managerial perspective on the business issue, where diagnosing and evaluating the situation is challenging and typically involves unclear and poorly defined outcomes; the importance,

[1] Maitlis, S., & Sonenshein, S. (2010). Sensemaking in crisis and change: Inspiration and insights from Weick (1988). *Journal of management studies*, *47*(3), 551-580.

[2] Dutton, J. E. (1986). The processing of crisis and non-crisis strategic issues. *Journal of Management Studies*, *23*(5), 501-517.

referring to the perceived severity of the negative consequences if corrective measures are not implemented.

1.1 Time is a critical aspect in crisis management

Almost every firm in the world has experienced a moment of severe crisis, which may have been triggered by an adverse global economic situation or the advent of a highly competitive rival capable of outshining its offerings. The causes can be manifold, but what distinguishes the outcome is the company's capacity, and consequently the management's ability, to anticipate these circumstances in a timely manner and handle them effectively (Sarkar & Osiyevskyy, 2018). In the first place, effective crisis management necessitates prompt answers and the highest possible level of efficiency. In order to emerge from the crisis in the best possible manner, management and the whole organizational structure of the firm need to be able to handle communication flows inside the company and supply the required professional and technical resources.

It is crucial to have in mind that in a critical circumstance where time is crucial, the promptness of the company's reaction might be essential. By "naturally," it is meant that one should not act hastily and commit grave errors, but instead have a well-prepared and efficient strategy ready to be implemented in the event of certain circumstances (Business Coaching, 2023). Frequently, firms that sufficiently plan for crisis management encounter an unforeseen opportunity for reassessment and objective improvement in such situations, resulting in even more substantial outcomes in the medium to long run. Effectively managed, a crisis can serve as a catalyst for growth for the organization, bringing to light crucial concerns that need to be addressed promptly.

1.2 Preventing by comprehending the primary variables that contribute to risk

Economists and historians have compiled a significant list of events that serve as risk factors and have the potential to spark a crisis for any organization. An instance of a natural calamity, such as an earthquake or a tsunami, poses a potential threat to the stability of a corporation (Tomastika, et al., 2015).

Additional factors that have historically posed the risk of leading to a complicated crisis to handle include errors in evaluating situations, such as investments, failures in

machinery that challenge the entire production system, deliberate acts of sabotage by competitors, attempts to extort the company, instances of corruption, restructuring of the organizational framework and management, political and labor issues, and numerous other possibilities. Particularly in recent years, there is a tangible danger that must be taken into account in several industries, including the proliferation of fake news. Disseminating inaccurate information that undermines a brand's reputation might result in unforeseen and severe problems (Business Coaching, 2023).

A positive development in crisis management must be able to be guaranteed by professionals, and the information that restores the good name of the company in the eyes of the customer must be disseminated through all of the channels that are currently available to the organization. These channels include the internet, television, radio, press, and so on. One can get ready with a series of quick steps in the event that the problem is of a certain kind. This is because it is typically not feasible to forecast all conceivable assaults that could take place as a result of disinformation and other similar scenarios. Simply said, one needs to make sure that the crisis communication plan includes a framework that is efficient, which will provide the outside world with a sense of calm and an understanding of the capabilities that are there (Sarkar & Osiyevskyy, 2018).

1.3 Managing Organizational Crises: Strategies for Resilience

Scholarly arguments in management typically revolve on the term "crisis," which is frequently associated with emotive adjectives like "scandals," "disasters," "threats," or "failures." This language highlights the complex and detailed process of identifying and promptly addressing crises in organizational environments (Pearson & Clair, 1998). A crisis is commonly defined as an unforeseen and abnormal event or a series of incidents characterized by unpredictability and peril, leading to a disruption in the stability of established business operations and potentially creating major consequences for both the company and its stakeholders. According to James and Wooten (2010), a crisis is an infrequent yet influential occurrence that leads to very negative outcomes for businesses and their stakeholders. Organizational leaders need to quickly and decisively take corrective action in these instances to minimize the negative impact and steer the organization through the crisis. This notion highlights the need of a deliberate and well-

organized organizational reaction that addresses immediate challenges and establishes the groundwork for long-term resilience and recovery. According to Spillan and Hough (2003), crises can cause significant harm to an organization by endangering its physical assets, financial stability, reputation, and brand value, all of which are crucial in today's interconnected and competitive business world.

Crises stem from a range of variables like as technology improvements, competitive pressures, and ethical lapses like the Volkswagen emissions scandal. These triggers can result in rapid and significant shifts in market dynamics, resulting in sudden declines in market share or stock prices, which can place immense pressure on the organization's financial stability and long-term viability. Organizations may encounter existential risks including company shutdowns, insolvencies, or the withdrawal of operational permits. This underscores the significance of crisis management and readiness in contemporary corporate governance and strategy. Crises are characterized by a sense of urgency and the expectation of bad outcomes if immediate corrective measures are not implemented, regardless of their origins or catalysts (Dutton, 1986). Organizational leaders and stakeholders must show agility, foresight, and adaptability due to the dynamic and unpredictable nature of crises, which increases the urgency. A crisis entails evaluating the gravity of adverse outcomes in the absence of action (importance) and determining the timeframe for decision-making and execution (immediacy) amidst extensive uncertainty and ambiguity (Dutton, 1986).

Roux-Dufort (2009) and Pearson & Clair (1998) propose that crises are not sporadic events but might be a result of ongoing issues stemming from underlying weaknesses and structural flaws inside the organization. Vulnerabilities may manifest through structural inefficiencies, governance deficiencies, cultural difficulties, and ethical flaws. Together, they increase the likelihood of organizations encountering crises and exacerbate the impact of these crises. These vulnerabilities might diminish an organization's capacity to adjust and bounce back, rendering them more susceptible to extensive shocks and disruptions that surpass traditional boundaries and frameworks. This emphasizes the necessity of an all-encompassing and forward-looking plan to prevent and minimize the consequences of crises.

Scholars have provided many definitions for organizational crises. Pearson and Clair (1998) defined an organizational crisis as a rare occurrence with significant consequences

that endangers the survival of an organization. It is marked by uncertainty regarding its source, effects, and how to resolve it, and the idea that choices need to be taken quickly. Snyder et al. (2006) described an organizational crisis as an exceptional situation that disrupts and harms the current functioning of an organization. Fearn-Banks (2016) described a crisis as a significant event that might have a negative impact on a company, affecting its public image, goods, services, or reputation, and disrupting its usual business operations. Fink (1986) defined an organizational crisis as a situation that has the potential to escalate in severity, attract government or media attention, endanger the positive public image of an organization, or disrupt regular business operations, potentially affecting financial performance. The most essential and unifying aspect of all crises is their capacity to cause immense damage to a company and its image, regardless of their unique qualities. Organizational crises, when neglected or mishandled, jeopardize the competitiveness and longevity of a company and require more focus. Organizational crises, although described in various ways, typically share common characteristics: they are highly ambiguous in terms of causes and effects, have a low likelihood of happening but pose a significant risk to the organization's survival, allow little time for response, and involve strategic decision-making dilemmas that can impact the organization's survival. Crises have basic traits but differ in degree and length. Crises can be either acute and short-lived or gradual and enduring. They can either have a broad impact on an organization and extend outside it, or they might be limited to a specific area. Crises can vary in terms of how often they occur and the likelihood of happening again. With the growing significance of crisis management in organizational functions, it is logical for crisis management research to elevate its level of rigor (Coombs & Holladay, 2002). While crisis research is expanding as an area of study, it is still in its early phases of growth. It is mostly based on rules and guidelines and lacks strong theoretical foundations. Existing research on crisis communication mostly relies on established knowledge gained from firsthand experience with crises and case studies. Thus, it is crucial to analyze how firms handle crises by developing and selecting effective tactics.

The term "uncertainty" is defined as a managerial approach to analyzing complicated business issues that often result in new and ambiguous conclusions, as described by Dutton (1986). Uncertainty compels senior management to explain the cause of the issue and implement the required activities to remedy it. The impression of uncertainty

influences how a business problem is framed, indicating a lack of trust in a decision maker's capacity to forecast and express how the external environment will evolve in the future. Gundel (2005) highlighted the significance of "predictability" as a crucial aspect of crisis analysis, which is inversely linked to uncertainty.

1.3.1 Type of Organizational Crisis

There are a number of factors that need to be taken into consideration when classifying crises according to their origins. These include the examination of the many shapes that crises can take, the amount of urgency that is necessary for a successful response, and the complicated contextual dynamics that are present in crisis scenarios. Rike (2003) and Pearson and Mitroff (1993) are two instances of academics who have sought to construct typologies in order to describe the different origins and forms of crises that occur in organizational contexts. Additionally, Rike (2003) is an example of a researcher who has attempted to develop typologies. Both the intricacy and the variety of these typologies are characteristics that define them.

In view of the fact that Coombs and Holladay (2002) have brought to light, it is of the utmost importance to underline the fact that typologies that concentrate on crisis occurrences are distinct from those that deal with crisis response strategies. In light of this, it is essential to have a comprehensive framework that is able to successfully combine specific emergencies with suitable response strategies that are also applicable to the environment in which they occur. In the currently available typologies, there is no distinction made between crises that are caused by internal factors and those that are caused by external factors. This demonstrates the need of having a framework that takes into consideration not just the intricate dynamics of processual crises but also the spectacular happenings that are brought about by the settings that are outside.

In spite of the challenges that are brought about by the persistently shifting global organizational environment, the major purpose of our analysis is to uncover and explore comparable characteristics along two significant dimensions that have been described in previous research. This forms the fundamental basis that will substantially impact the following reactions of the organization, and it will have a considerable influence. According to Pearson and Mitroff (1993), the first component is concentrated on the

investigation of the perceived roots of crises, which involves a comparison of technical and economic crises with human and social crises. These crises can be defined by occurrences such as significant drops in market share or substantial product faults, in addition to being referred to as "marketplace" crises. In addition, technical and economic crises can be characterized by these kinds of events. Examples of problems that might be categorized as human or social crises include acts of sabotage, sexual harassment, acts of terrorism, and harm to the environment. Others include environmental degradation.

According to Sarkar and Osiyevskyy (2018), a number of people believe that accurately and comprehensively representing real-world circumstances may be accomplished by differentiating between "technological/economic" and "human/social" components within clearly defined categories to successfully describe the scenarios. This is in spite of the fact that use a binary framework to categorize the factors that lead to crises may result in an oversimplification of a complicated matter. Based on the findings of Sarkar and Osiyevskyy (2018), the second component of crisis progression acknowledges the distinction between crises that are brought on by severe causes (also referred to as "cataclysm") and processual crises, which are characterized by latent causes that culminate in crisis proportions (also referred to as "endangerment").

Instances such as natural disasters and massive political revolutions are examples of the sorts of events that have the potential to trigger catastrophic occurrences, which are crises that are unanticipated and bring about disruption. According to Sarkar and Osiyevskyy (2018), processual crises are defined by a progressive loss of stability that happens as a consequence of disruptive technologies that replace market leaders or demographic trends that have an influence on the consumer base. Both of these factors might have an impact on the customer base.

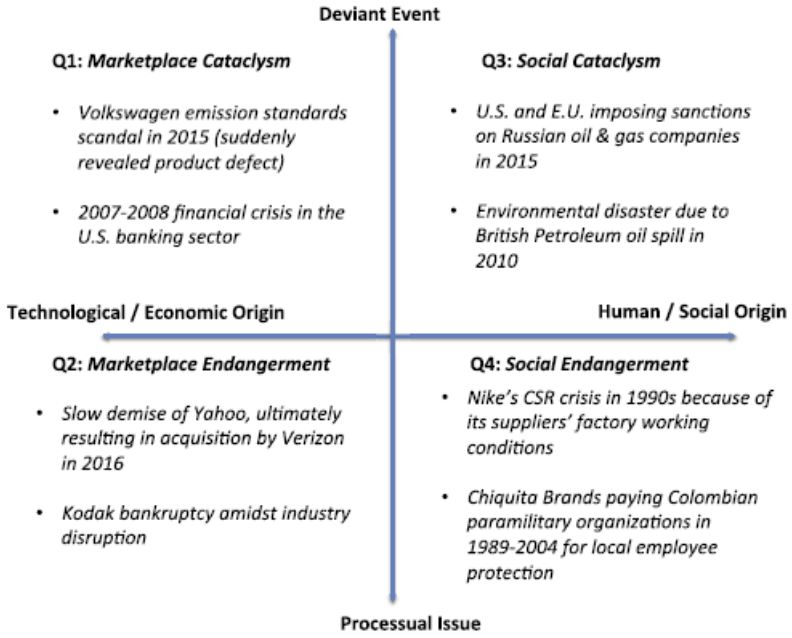


Fig. 1. The classification of crises.

1.3.2 Respond to type of Organizational Crisis

The comprehensive elucidation of the intricate process of organizational response to crisis logically stems from the insights offered in the interpretative studies of organizational decision-making (e.g., Barr, et al., 1992; Daft & Weick, 1984; Dutton & Jackson, 1987; Thomas & McDaniel, 1990). In this perspective, a crisis acts as a catalyst (Billings, et al., 1980), commencing the process of organizational cognition and sensemaking, which aims to understand the central external or internal event as a stimulus (Dutton & Jackson, 1987). Organizational cognition, also known as Process 1, results in the development of distinct views of the situation among top-level decision makers in an organization. These perceptions often take the form of either recognizing an opportunity or seeing a danger, as described by Jackson & Dutton (1988) and Thomas & McDaniel (1990). The outcome of this process serves as the input for Process 2, which involves decision-making. In this process, managers' mental representation of the situation influences their decision-making, leading to the formation of specific intentions to either take action or refrain from taking action in response to the events that caused the crisis. (Chattopadhyay, et al., 2001;

Dutton & Jackson, 1987; Osiyevskyy & Dewald, 2015). Ultimately, the established intentions are transformed into organizational activities during the succeeding Process 3 (implementation). The core of our ensuing argument relies on the claim that these three sequential interconnected processes dictate the character and structure of the connection between adversity and any kind of organizational activities, such as change or rigidity, in their intricate nature. In this context, the objective crisis, which can arise from external or internal sources, is depicted in one of the four quadrants shown in Figure 1. This crisis serves as the input for the subsequent subjective interpretation and decision-making processes, which ultimately lead to objective organizational actions or inaction. Therefore, accurately categorizing the initial objective crisis based on its time and origin aspects (as shown in Figure 1) will play a vital role in determining the appropriate reaction plan. Within the next three subsections, we thoroughly examine the current body of research, closely examining the paradox known as the "threat-rigidity" from the perspective of each of the three processes. In the next section, we will examine the important previous research that are relevant to each of these interconnected processes. Additionally, we will enhance this analysis by including speculations regarding the specific factors that this study focuses on, namely the temporal dimension and the roots of crises.

Process 1 has been extensively studied in the field of organizational cognition and sensemaking. This research examines how managers' perception and interpretation of a situation influence their understanding of objective reality, which in turn affects all subsequent organizational actions. Sensemaking is initiated when individuals within an organization are faced with events, circumstances, or actions that are unexpected or perplexing (Maitlis, 2005, p. 21). “A crisis can initiate the process of sensemaking, leading to decision-making and activities that are intended to prevent or reduce its occurrence and effect” (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014, p.72). In this research, Daft and Weick (1984) suggested examining organizations from the perspective of interpretative systems. They argued that interpreting the environment is a fundamental necessity for both individuals and organizations. They also stated that this process is influenced by factors such as the desired answer, the characteristics of the environment, the questioner's previous experience, and the method of acquiring information (Daft & Weick, 1984). The interpretation process has a significant impact on organizational structure, strategy, and

decision-making, which is crucial for our study. The authors convincingly support the latter argument, demonstrating that organizational decision-making is a component of a broader interpretive process. Ford and Baucus (1987) were the first to thoroughly analyze the issue of how organizations respond to adversity by interpreting external events. They argued that managers' shared interpretations of the situation, which develop through social interaction, drive organizational adaptation to underperformance. Events are inherently ambiguous and lack intrinsic meaning. They need interpretation to determine their implications and the actions that organizations are currently taking, desire to take, or should take (Ford & Baucus, 1987). According to Daft and Weick (1984), during a crisis, senior management plays a crucial role in interpreting the situation, by translating occurrences and fostering common understandings among team members. They provide meaning to the data gathered.

The collective interpretation of the crisis is influenced by various factors such as the perception of its origins and nature, organizational structure, strategy, culture, and individual managers' orientation towards the existing organizational contexts. This interpretation then determines the type of organizational response, which can be either active (involving domain defense, offense, creation, or abandonment, as well as internal operative or administrative structures) or passive (involving anger, denial, alteration of importance, or resignation). Interpretation provides an explanation for the fundamental inquiry, "What is happening in this situation?" (Weick, et al., 2005) argue that reality is not an external factor for decision makers. “Instead, they suggest that reality is shaped through social processes, where interpretations are proposed, validated, adjusted, or discarded based on their alignment with the views of others” (Ford & Baucus, 1987, p. 367). Ocasio (1995) expanded on the argument for interpretive understanding of how organizations respond to adversity. He proposed that the threat-rigidity paradox can be resolved by examining organizational cognition and sensemaking. He also argued that the actions taken by organizations during difficult times are influenced by the socially constructed mental models held by managers involved in group decision-making, as well as by the organizational institutional logic. The author contends that when examining threatened organizations, it is important to analyze their ability to adapt or remain inflexible. This analysis should focus not on their behavioral response to external stimuli, but rather on their interpretive process of how they perceive and interact with their

environment. This includes how they allocate attention, structure their operations, form groups and coalitions, and construct social identities. Ocasio (1995) identified the familiarity of innovation as the primary contingency element that determines the sort of organizational reaction to adversity. This conclusion was based on his analysis of organizational memory and mimetic isomorphism phenomena. This moderator will assess the likelihood of the innovation being adopted, based on the firm's previous experience with similar programs or options (organizational memory) or the adoption of such programs by other firms in the same industry (mimetic isomorphism). Familiar programs and options are more likely to be embraced compared to unfamiliar ones. The author clearly asserts that previous successful experience in managing a certain type of change will significantly influence the inclination to innovate, as well as the combined impact with perceived hardship. Cognitive frameworks and the resulting emotions, whether good or negative, may greatly impact top management's response to a crisis, as claimed by Dutton and Jackson (1987) and James et al. (2011). “Decision makers should transcend initial emotional reactions to threats, such as fear, worry, and denial, and progress beyond ordinary problem-solving methods for resolution” (James, et al., 2011, p. 459). When abnormal crisis occurrences trigger emotions like wrath, worry, guilt, or despair (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985), these emotions might influence the way senior management reacts to the crisis. For example, if an organization feels guilty for causing a crisis like a large oil spill, decision makers may become focused on protecting themselves (James, et al., 2011). Alternatively, this guilt may motivate top executives to take responsibility and take immediate action to resolve the crisis. Some claim that crisis occurrences can evoke unpleasant emotions, which can then spark alternative ways of making meaning of the situation based on individual or group identity. Organizations are more inclined to participate in sensemaking when they see a danger to their individual or collective identity, as these factors do not offer protection during a crisis (Maitlis & Christianson, 2014).

1.4 Impact of Organizational Crisis on organization

Improperly implemented reforms might lead to employee resistance. Therefore, the purpose of this paragraph is to comprehend such conduct. Studies on the cognitive-

behavioral realm are wide and complicated. Resistance to change is a complex and dynamic concept that is subject to many interpretations in literature (Waddell & Sohal A., 1998; Oreg, 2006). “The word refers to the collection of characteristics that contribute to establishing the stability of social systems or personality, with the purpose of simplifying the thesis” (Cohen, et al., 1973, p. 246).

To have a comprehensive knowledge of the concept of "forces," it is necessary to create an engraving. Kurt Lewin formulated the "Theory of Forces" throughout the 1960s under this particular framework. This theory provides a theoretical framework for understanding the processes that drive change, namely by examining the attitudes of individuals (Martin, 2003). Figure 2 displays the schematic representation of the hypothesis discussed above.

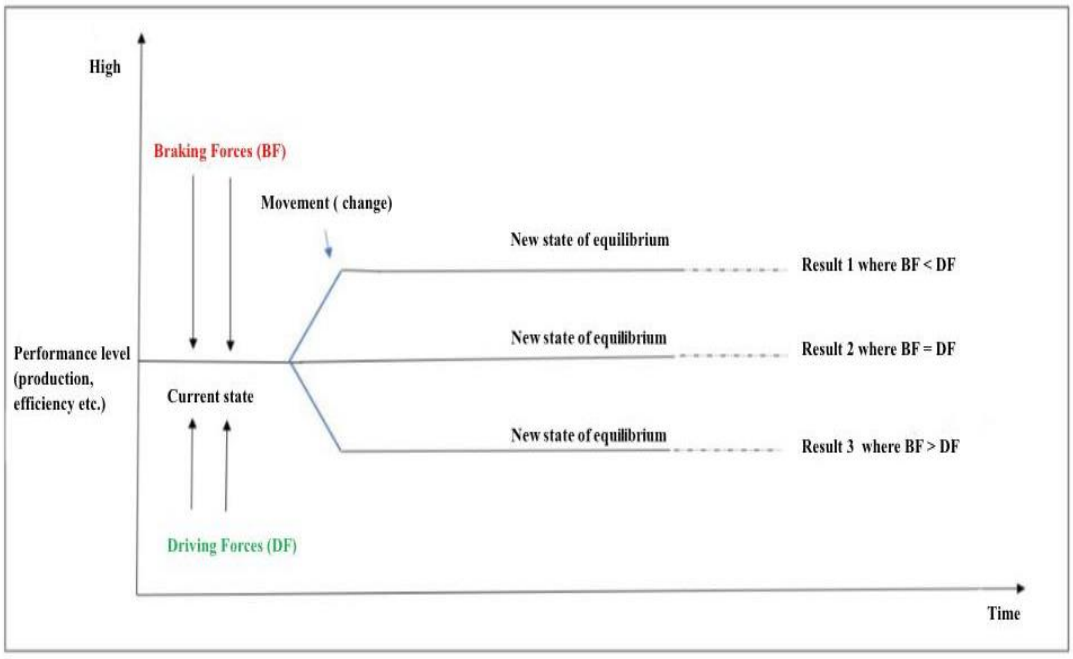


Fig. 2: The resistence according to Kurt Lewin

Lewin asserts that individuals are driven by certain objectives in their lives, which in turn shape their behavior. The collection of forces depicted by the vertical arrows in the graph mostly impacts the latter. These forces operate concurrently by executing propulsive

activities (which encourage activity) and inhibitory actions (which discourage action) while producing distinct degrees of performance. Based on this hypothesis, individuals are likely to have a preference for stability. Reduced stability or movement triggers an overall re-balancing that is influenced by the magnitude of the forces applied (Burnes, 2004). There are three potential results. The first scenario arises when the propelling forces surpass the retarding forces, resulting in superior performance. The second objective is to preserve the initial equilibrium, when the forces of traction and brakes exert equal and unchanging force, so ensuring consistent performance. Based on the latter, the braking forces exert greater pressure than the pulling forces, resulting in decreased performance.

Therefore, this approach may be utilized to succinctly encapsulate an essential factor. Every person exhibits a distinct behavior that is shaped by a "field of forces" which propels them, either positively or negatively, to constantly seek equilibrium. When a resistance situation arises, it is mostly due to the greater force applied by the braking forces compared to the driving forces. After elucidating the notion of resistance and its impact on human behavior, you may go into a comprehensive analysis of the aforementioned factors that impede motion. Research indicates that resistance is an inherent aspect of the human reaction to change. The domain of an individual's personality consists of three distinct sections (Oreg, 2006):

- Emotions,
- Cognitive processes,
- Dispositions

The emotional aspect reflects an individual's attitude towards change and can be evident through emotions such as worry, wrath, fear, and so on. The perception of this shift is the cognitive aspect. The behavioral element refers to the manner in which a transition is managed (Oreg, 2006). It is crucial to highlight the correlation between these components.

Hence, it is logical to deduce that enhancement treatments should prioritize the cognitive domain in order to impact following phases and thereby diminish resistance.

An assessment of the cognitive domain might reveal a practical characteristic. Humans possess two unique cognitive systems: System 1, which is intuitive and automatic, generates the majority of ideas and behaviors. “System 2, on the other hand, is reflective and logical, enabling self-control and problem-solving for tasks that the first system is unable to handle.

The first system operates on instinct and operates quickly, but lacks the ability to engage in reflective thinking like the second system" (Thaler, 2008, pp. 31-32).

"System 1 is the main origin of the beliefs and decisions of System 2 since it needs less cognitive effort to process via the first system compared to activating the second system. This leads individuals to frequently rely on spontaneous reasoning" (Kahneman, 2012, pp. 20-26). Nevertheless, the first system often functions effectively as it reduces exertion while maximizing efficiency. Currently, we are discussing "cognitive heuristics," which enable us to make accurate short-term predictions and respond promptly and appropriately to challenges (Kahneman, 2012). However, in certain instances, when an individual encounters cognitive illusions, these mental shortcuts cause them to interpret reality inaccurately, resulting in incorrect predictions. The phenomenon of cognitive dissonance refers to the occurrence of these distortions, which might happen without the individual's awareness. "Cognitive biases commonly arise when individuals find themselves in unfamiliar circumstances, facing significant potential losses, and without sufficient time to gather further knowledge" (Kahneman, 2012, p. 70). These dynamics have a strong correlation with the characteristics that arise from organizational changes. Indeed, in such circumstances, individuals tend to form conjectures regarding future events, their own emotions, and the perspectives of others. These events occur randomly, compelling individuals to act in accordance with their convictions (Bovery & Hede, 2001, pp. 372-373). Overall, it has been demonstrated that humans contain a repertoire of factors that have the capacity to either initiate or impede change. Specifically, when a modification is implemented, it might cause a decrease in speed. The human cognitive system exerts a substantial influence on this inhibitory force, as it processes the experience through the more primal system (System 1) and, contrary to a cognitive illusion, distorts it in a systematic manner. This resistance arises as a result. The upcoming chapter will explore cognitive dissonances in the context of organizational transformation to analyze their specific characteristics, following a comprehensive comprehension of these dynamics.

1.5 Emotions during the Organizational Crisis

During a corporate crisis, individual employees may experience high levels of stress and an excessive amount of information, which can come from many sources such as managers, colleagues, and informal conversations.

These factors have a clear influence on both individuals and groups, leading to feelings of shock, perplexity, and a sense of instability (Dutta & Pullig, 2011). However, not simply that. The response of individuals to a business crisis is highly diverse and intricate. Each person's reaction to the crisis is influenced by factors such as its unique attributes, their occupation or position, their level of emotional sensitivity, and, naturally, their personality composition (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

Regardless, it is feasible to discern some prevalent psychological and emotional responses that individuals exhibit when confronted with a moment of crisis in their professional lives. These are the most prevalent ones.

Anger. The primary relationship issue that fuels anger is the feeling of an assault directed at oneself and one's own interests. During a crisis, individuals perceive the organization as being "under assault," endangering both their own welfare and that of all its staff. A prevalent belief is that the organization bears responsibility for the erroneous choices that led to the crisis, choices that might have been managed or averted (Tonelli, 2021).

Fear. An emotion characterized by a feeling of apprehension or dread. The core issue of dread is the basic link between facing an existential and unknown threat. We are experiencing fear due to the ambiguity around the future and the unknown outcomes that may arise. Additionally, we feel insecure as we find ourselves in unfamiliar territory, making it hard to compare our current circumstance with earlier experiences. Accurate projections or planning are not feasible due to the uncertainty surrounding the magnitude, progression, and resulting circumstances of the shift (Tonelli, 2021).

Anxiety. It is an affective condition that emerges as a result of heightened alertness, often surpassing the actual circumstances, and is triggered by psychological systems that respond to stress. During times of crisis, individuals actively search for knowledge in order to comprehend their available choices and assess their beliefs, with the aim of alleviating

anxiety. Irrespective of the veracity of the information presented, individuals may opt for a more familiar source over a less known one (Tonelli, 2021).

Sadness. Sadness is frequently seen as a sensation of detachment, indicating a form of individual impairment that hinders one from fully capitalizing on chances and generating fresh ones. Regard it as a state that enables you to comprehend and analyze events in a deliberate and thoughtful manner is of greater significance. However, it might result in extreme seclusion (Tonelli, 2021).

Positive emotions. The positive emotions that employees feel throughout a transition are essential since they are associated with heightened creativity, spontaneity, and receptiveness to stimuli. These emotions also influence how individuals seek innovative approaches to address the new challenges that arise from the evolving circumstances. The good feelings that arise in these situations are typically correlated with confidence (which is connected to a favorable appraisal of one's own effectiveness), optimism (the belief that things will improve in the future), and desire (Tonelli, 2021).

Psychological reactions can develop in individuals in a spontaneous, instinctive, and sometimes surprising manner. The psychological and emotional effects are determined by several interconnected aspects that are not always readily recognized. Consequently, it is quite probable that individuals would exhibit varying actions and feelings when faced with same challenges (Dutta & Pullig, 2011).

The most effective approach to crisis management is to primarily focus on regulating the emotions of the individuals involved in the situation. Hence, leaders must possess a receptive mindset towards the team and consistently and attentively address the emotional and psychological, hence human, side. The leader must engage in active listening, with the objective of comprehending and addressing the emotions of others. It is crucial for the leader to have a close and personal connection with every team member in order to build and sustain a genuine relationship (Cohen, et al., 1973).

Acquiring this profound comprehension necessitates a significant investment of time and money from the leader, however it is a crucial element of effective team management. It is crucial during a crisis and may significantly impact an organization's recovery. Indeed, it provides employees with practical resources to alter their perspectives and empowers them to make informed decisions and adopt habits that are both mindful and therefore impactful.

1.6 Organizational Change and Crisis Management

Change is a tangible event that is inherently linked to the passage of time. The concept of change is typically associated with the transition from one state to another, whether it be a state of being, a process, or an event. This statement implies that change is a process that has a clear starting point and a clear ending point. These points are defined by a specific set of conditions and criteria. Change may be categorized into two distinct characteristics: content, which refers to the outcome of the change, and transformative, which refers to the process of change itself. The organization, as the aim of management, possesses certain distinctive traits. Firstly, it is important to note that these adjustments and adaptations are complicated and ongoing, affecting all parts of the organization's activities, such as individual personalities, groups, and the organization as a whole. Furthermore, these elements are influenced by both external and internal forces, and it is imperative to adhere to the interests of certain individuals and groups. In order to effectively manage, it is necessary to establish suitable objectives and employ proper strategies for making alternative decisions. This situation is a significant challenge in many instances, as the modifications typically involve loosely defined matters and potential risks. The eventual success of these adjustments largely relies on the skill of the team responsible for carrying them out. Multiple modifications are implemented within the organization. They can be categorized according on the manner in which they are executed: Planned change involves activities that are based on a thorough analysis of the necessary actions and the challenges, risks, and opportunities associated with them. Reactive change, on the other hand, is a response to issues, threats, or opportunities that have already arisen. The speed at which these changes are implemented differs between the two. Gradual change - a change that is executed with caution, without rushing, carefully evaluating each subsequent step and its repercussions. A swift transition refers to a rapid and very significant transformation.

Crises are both transformative processes and outcomes of change. A common crises may be characterized as a transition from a state of balance to a state of imbalance, or the emergence of dominance of certain elements over others (Tomastika, et al., 2015). The need for immediate actions to address these challenges is emphasized, since they provide a significant obstacle for organizational management teams. "Crises are now a prevalent and integral aspect of contemporary society, rather than being abnormal, infrequent, arbitrary, or

marginal. They are inherent in the fundamental structure and essence of contemporary society." (Mitroff & Anagnos, 2001, p. 5). The crisis can be attributed to either the organizations' improper actions or unexpected changes in the business environment (Hutzschenreuter, 2006). Pearson and Clair emphasize the necessity of an interdisciplinary approach to studying crises. They define an organizational crisis as a rare but highly impactful event that poses a threat to the organization's survival. This type of crisis is characterized by uncertainty regarding its cause, effect, and resolution methods, as well as a belief that prompt decision-making is essential (Pearson & Clair, 1998).

The frequency of crisis situations in recent years has risen. Crisis is commonly perceived as an inherent phase in the life cycle of contemporary organizations (Adizes, 2014). The organization has both negative and positive outcomes as a result (Todericiu, et al., 2009).

In recent years, the importance of crisis management in terms of predicting, slowing down, and minimizing crises has grown. It offers possibilities to effectively handle the steps involved in resolving crises and minimizing their negative outcomes. S. Fink provides a concise definition of crisis management as the strategic process of preparing for a critical event or a pivotal moment. It involves mitigating a significant portion of the potential risks and uncertainties, so enabling individuals or organizations to exert greater influence over their future outcomes (Fink, 1986, p. 15). Good managerial practices necessitate the establishment and effective execution of crisis management procedures that assist managers in effectively developing organizations. Regarding this matter, it is important to note that crisis management encompasses four interconnected elements: prevention, preparedness, response, and revision (Fink, 1986).

When harmonizing choices in change management and crisis management, it is important to consider the many challenges associated with accomplishing their objectives. It is inevitable that certain authors have devised "seven myths" about change management (Jarrett, 2003). It is important to consider that implementing organizational changes is a highly challenging undertaking, with a failure rate of 70% for change programs. Modifications elicit strong emotional responses, including hesitation and anxiety, and subsequently generate resistance that may be exceedingly challenging to surmount. In the present day, organizations undergo a cyclical process of development, characterized by alternating periods of relative stability and times of rapid and profound changes. It is difficult to predict the exact outcomes of the changes, and it is important to provide assistance to the factors that are causing the changes

in order to obtain the intended results. Regarding this matter, it is important to note that the accountability, versatility, and agility of organizations are crucial in successfully navigating through turmoil and catastrophe. An effective approach is to begin with a little task and concentrate one's attention on that specific objective.

The threat-rigidity paradox is a concept that is clearly articulated in the specialized literature. Organizations can exhibit two sorts of reactions: recognizing the necessity for change and adopting appropriate measures, or stubbornly adhering to old business practices. The organizations' reaction consists of three main steps: organizational cognition and sensemaking, decision-making, and execution (Sarkar & Osiyevskyy, 2018).

The life cycle model developed by L. Greiner is relevant to the current issue being discussed. The author states that the organization's life cycle consists of a series of evolutionary and revolutionary stages. The duration of each stage is limited to a maximum of 15 years. As the organization evolves, the demands placed on its management sub-system also alter. L. Greiner's model consists of several stages: 1. Growth through creativity, which is a period of creativity that is occasionally disrupted by a crisis in leadership. 2. Growth through directive management, which is a period of managing with clear instructions that is occasionally disrupted by a crisis in autonomy. 3. Growth through delegation, which is a period of delegating tasks that is occasionally disrupted by a crisis in control. 4. Growth through coordination, which is a period of coordinating activities that is occasionally disrupted by a crisis in confidence due to increased bureaucracy. 5. Growth through cooperation, which is a period of working together that is occasionally disrupted by a crisis of "organizational fatigue". Greiner did not offer a response to the inquiry on the precise details of the subsequent phase of the life cycle. The presented model demonstrates the existence of causal connections between the distinct phases. Each level of the organization may have progressed to different phases of the life cycle. Conversely, it is conceivable for features that are characteristic of multiple phases to be maintained at a certain moment (Greiner, 1972; Greiner, 1998). To summarize, it is important to note that the activities related to change management and crisis management are interconnected. By doing so, businesses may explore ways to overcome crisis occurrences and ensure their continued development.

2. Emotions

In this chapter, I start the examination of the conceptualization of emotions by referencing the linguistic expertise offered by the Oxford Learner's Dictionaries. Based on the information provided by the source, a strong feeling such as love, fear or anger; the part of a person's character that consists of feelings. However, a simple analysis of words alone is insufficient in completely understanding the wide range of meaning and conceptual importance of emotions. Therefore, I will now focus on a thorough examination of the interpretations offered by distinguished researchers in the subject.

William James, an American philosopher, was the first academic to examine emotions. In 1884, he introduced the "Peripheral or Visceral Emotion Theory," which suggests that the awareness of body sensations triggers the identification of emotion. According to James and Lange (1884, 1885; as stated in Grazzani, 2014, p. 19), emotion may be described as the subjective assessment of an individual regarding their own neurophysiological responses to a particular occurrence. Furthermore, to the authors, the elicitation of emotions is attributed to the physiological alterations and sensory experiences that our body detects within a certain context.

Nevertheless, this explanation fails to elucidate the reasons behind the persistence of specific emotions even after the cessation of these physiological changes. Therefore, it is apparent that emotion possesses a higher level of complexity, and our objective is to examine it by means of a sequence of critiques, interconnections, and amalgamation of diverse ideas.

In his critique of the theory put forth by James and Lange (1927, as cited in Grazzani, 2014), Walter Cannon presented objections and subsequently formulated a novel hypothesis known as "the central theory of emotions." This theory posits that certain subcortical structures have a crucial function in the transmission of emotions, thereby emphasizing the significance of the central nervous system in the perception of emotions.

During the 1960s, there was a significant focus on the topic of emotions in cognitive psychology. The cognitive theory of emotions is often seen as having its origins in the seminal experiment conducted by Schachter and Singer in 1962 (Papanicolau, 2004). In the conducted experiment, the researchers examined the emotional impacts of specific information presented to the participants. This investigation made a valuable contribution

to the advancement of a cognitive-activational theory, also known as a two-factor theory (biological and cognitive). This theory posits that emotion arises from the interplay between physiological and psychological factors within an organism. Consequently, emotion is conceptualized as a complex process comprising multiple components. Based on this theoretical framework, the subject's physiological reaction serves as an indication of an ongoing event, even in the absence of a clear definition. Upon perceiving a physical alteration, the subject is prompted to engage in an automatic cognitive assessment of the events and the surrounding environment. Subsequently, a label is assigned to the sensation based on the cognitive evaluation conducted.

According to Grazzani (2014, p. 27), Darwin (1872) made the initial scientific endeavor to investigate emotions via an evolutionary lens. This approach was grounded on the notion that emotions play a crucial role in maintaining the survival of the individual. In his seminal work titled "The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals," Charles Darwin, in contemplation of the significance of emotions in the process of species evolution, posed two fundamental inquiries: the manner in which emotions are manifested in both humans and animals, and the evolutionary origins of emotions. He underscored the resemblance between the emotional expressions exhibited by adult humans and those observed in animals and children. The concept of the universality of the manifestation of certain emotions has established the foundation for differentiating between main and secondary emotions, which will be further explained in subsequent sections.

The contributions of these writers have resulted in the existence of different definitions, which complicates the formulation of a singular theoretical perspective that accurately describes an emotion and includes diverse study findings. One might endeavor to provide a broad explanation of emotion by employing the following definition: emotion can be understood as a subjective response to a significant occurrence, of brief duration, distinguished by physiological, experiential, and behavioral alterations (Sroufe, 1995).

Based on Darwin's premise, emotions have an adaptive purpose by enabling us to respond to external environmental stimuli and contribute to our survival. Emotions can be elicited by either external or internal stimuli. However, it is often challenging to determine their temporal progression. In certain instances, emotions are evident and maintain a consistent level of intensity, while in others, they are difficult to define due to their inconsistent intensity patterns.

Hence, emotions, by their role in self-regulation, exhibit distinct characteristics that set them apart from theoretically like phenomena like mood and sentiment. Mood, in contrast to emotion, exhibits a protracted duration and is distinguished by a diminished level of intensity. Sentiment is defined by an object or someone rather than an occurrence, in contrast to emotions. Additionally, sentiment is a more consistent and long-lasting phenomena.

According to Vianello, Gini, and Lanfranchi (2012), it is possible to detect fixed components in emotions:

- The existence of a stimulus that initiates a response, which may manifest as an event or a thought;
- The assessment of the circumstances that would prompt the evaluation of the emotional state;
- The manifestation of specific physiological reactions;
- A behavioral response that encompasses the entirety of the body.

Furthermore, emotions can be attributed to three distinct functions:

- The organism is activated by emotion, which makes the individual more likely to encounter a difficult situation;
- Emotion also serves as a means of communication with the external environment, serving a social purpose;
- Additionally, emotion allows the individual to communicate with themselves by providing them with information about the situation they are facing and the changes caused by their behavior.

2.1 Plutchik's Wheel of Emotions: Exploring the Emotion Wheel

Typically, emotions are categorized as either main or secondary emotions. Basic emotions, sometimes referred to as primary emotions, do not need intricate cognitive processing of the occurrence. The emotions encompassed are fear, rage, pleasure, disgust, and sadness, frequently supplemented by surprise. These characteristics are inherent in every individual. However, secondary emotions, which are often referred to as complex

emotions, are introspective feelings that emerge in connection with others. The aforementioned emotions encompass shame, remorse, pride, nostalgia, disappointment, envy, resignation, and several other affective states.

The paradigm for describing emotions, known as "The Wheel of Emotions" (1980), was developed by Robert Plutchik. This model comprises eight fundamental feelings, namely joy, trust, fear, surprise, sorrow, anticipation, anger, and disgust (see Figure 3). The identification of fundamental emotions in the wheel is based on two criteria: similarity and polarity. Similarity refers to the degree of resemblance between main emotions, while polarity indicates the degree of oppositeness between emotions. Plutchik posits that the generation of a secondary emotion is contingent upon the intensity with which the eight fundamental emotions are experienced. Joy, a fundamental feeling, may induce ecstasy when experienced with great intensity, yet when experienced with lesser intensity, it might result in tranquility. Both feelings are classified as secondary. In addition, the author also characterizes combinations, which refer to the feelings that arise from the amalgamation of one fundamental emotion with another. For example, the combination of the main emotion of pleasure and the emotion of trust gives rise to the emotion of love, which Plutchik characterizes as a sophisticated emotion resulting from a primary dyad. However, it is more accurate to classify this as a sentiment rather than an emotion. The second dyad, which is not depicted in the image, comprises fundamental emotions that exhibit a certain level of detachment. For instance, feelings of grief and anger might materialize as desires, whereas feelings of pleasure and rage can materialize as pride. Additionally, a third dyad can be created by the amalgamation of fundamental emotions with two levels of differentiation, such as fear and disgust giving rise to shame.

Plutchik's approach is employed to examine emotions in a more comprehensive manner, with the objective of facilitating emotion education to equip individuals with a solid basis for adaptability and in the context of interpersonal connections. Moreover, this methodology fosters the development of empathy and self-awareness by facilitating the recognition and comprehension of emotions.

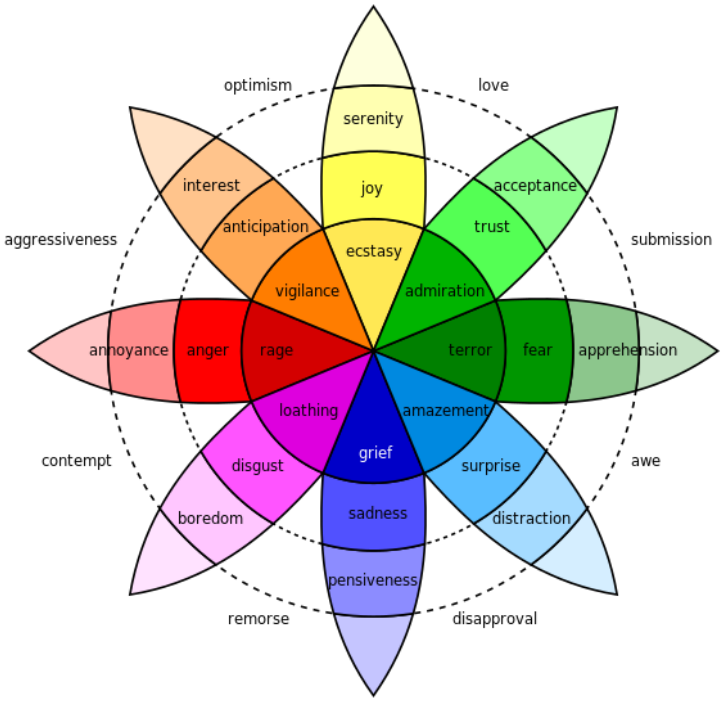


Fig. 3: The Wheel of Emotions – Robert Plutchik

Now, let us ascertain the basic emotions using specific stimulus words extracted from the book "The Compass of Emotions" (Pellai & Tamborini, 2019):

- SADNESS: Sadness might be likened as a barrier that separates two gardens;
- FEAR: Fear gives rise to adversaries, adversaries generate defenses, and defenses generate attacks. You develop a propensity for violence, perpetually vigilant, towards all individuals. It is important to comprehend that if you experience fear, you are in opposition to everyone;
- DISGUST: Disgust is a diluted and watery manifestation of animosity;
- ANGER: I harbored intense anger against my pal. I expressed my anger, and it ultimately subsided. I was furious at my adversary: I denied it, but my anger intensified;
- SURPRISE: The purpose of every experience is to impart knowledge to us, and this is achieved through the element of surprise;
- JOY: Joy is a positive emotion that brings happiness to the heart; it is the most powerful force that men possess.

2.2 Understanding Emotions vs. Feelings: Implications for Self-awareness and Empathy

When examining emotions and feelings, an important differentiation arises between these two essential facets of human experience. Emotions are typically characterized as immediate and powerful responses to stimuli from either the outside world or within oneself, whereas feelings are considered to be more enduring and intricate emotional experiences that arise through a more intricate cognitive process.

In order to completely comprehend this differentiation, it is important to take into account several aspects that define emotions and sentiments (Esneca, 2023).

First and foremost, the duration and strength of emotions and feelings are significant factors. Emotions tend to be short-lived but have a strong impact, whereas feelings can endure for a longer period, growing and gradually changing based on individual circumstances and experiences (Esneca, 2023) .

Emotions are often believed to arise as an immediate reaction to a stimulus, whether it be from the outside world or within oneself. This stimulus can be a perceived threat or an unanticipated opportunity. On the other hand, feelings are formed via a more complex process of interpreting and assigning meaning to emotional events. This entails engaging in more profound cognitive processes, such as contemplating previous events, assessing individual values, and pondering future consequences (Esneca, 2023).

From an expressive standpoint, emotions are frequently conveyed through conspicuous physical cues, such as facial expressions, gestures, and body postures, so rendering them readily recognizable and comprehensible to external observers. On the other hand, emotions can exist within a person's inner realm, which might make them less obvious and more open to personal interpretations (Esneca, 2023).

Another notable distinction lies in the fact that emotions are universally experienced, whereas sensations are more individualistic in character. Common human emotions, like pleasure, sadness, fear, and rage, are widely accepted as universal and shared throughout all nations and communities. This implies that there is a shared biological foundation for these emotional experiences. Conversely, emotions are profoundly shaped by individual encounters, societal customs, cultural influences, and personal principles, illustrating the intricate and varied nature of human existence (Esneca, 2023).

Ultimately, self-awareness is crucial in distinguishing between emotions and feelings. Emotions are often felt in a more instinctual and instantaneous way, whereas feelings include a greater degree of self-reflection and self-awareness. Feelings demand a deeper comprehension of one's emotional experiences, values, and desires (Esneca, 2023).

To summarize, emotions and feelings are two essential and interrelated components of the human emotional experience. Emotions serve as quick and adaptive reactions to cues from the environment, while feelings have a longer-lasting effect on our emotional identity and how we see the world.

Gaining a clear understanding of the difference between emotion and feeling can provide valuable insights into the intricate nature of human experience. This understanding can lead to increased self-awareness and empathy towards oneself and others. Additionally, it can help individuals effectively navigate emotional difficulties by adopting a perspective of understanding and compassion.

2.3 Emotional Management in Organizational Leadership: Strategies, Challenges, and Implications

Every single interaction that we have on a daily basis is deeply tied to the complex world of human emotions. This has an impact not just on our professional lives, but also on our personal lives, our social lives, and our family lives. Particularly in the context of corporate organizations, the concept of an atmosphere that is absolutely devoid of feelings is just unattainable. In addition to experiencing their own feelings, managers are also required to cope with and exert control over the feelings of the teams that they are responsible for supervising (Malara, 2021).

Having the ability to effectively control one's emotions is of the highest importance in this environment. When a leader takes on the dual roles of leading and coaching at the same time, they not only assist their team members in expressing their thoughts, but they also recognize the indications of probable negative emotions that might have an impact on the happiness and motivation of the team.

These aspects are vital not only for the personal well-being of employees but also for the creation of a positive cycle that is beneficial to the company as a whole and leads to increased productivity (Malara, 2021). For this reason, it is absolutely necessary for

managers to be able to demonstrate the ability to carefully monitor and evaluate the emotional dynamics that are present.

The preparation of one-on-one meetings is a very effective method for identifying and managing factors that may prevent individuals from expressing their full personal potential (Malara, 2021). This strategy has shown to be quite beneficial. The manager-coach has the opportunity to actively listen to the thoughts and concerns of team members during these one-on-one conversation sessions. Additionally, the manager-coach is able to recognize non-verbal cues that may reveal emotional states that have been disguised.

The establishment of a safe and all-encompassing environment that enables employees to openly express their sentiments, regardless of whether those feelings are positive or negative, is of fundamental importance. We may be able to gain a more thorough understanding of the unique factors that drive each individual's motivation and identify the conditions that may hamper their ability to concentrate and perform effectively if we engage in this conversation such that it is honest and transparent (Malara, 2021).

A research that was conducted in 1997 by Cynthia Fisher, who was a Professor of Management at Bond University in Australia, throws light on the most common negative emotions that are experienced in the workplace. The author of the book "Emotions at Work: What Do People Feel, and How Should We Measure It?" discovered that the most prevalent negative emotions that workers feel are frustration, worry, nervousness, anger, antipathy, and disappointment. She also found that these emotions are experienced by workers.

Managers are able to feel a wide range of emotions in a variety of situations. These situations may involve their relationships with their work team, superiors, or other colleagues in management, as well as challenges related to managing their workload and the pressures they face at work (Malara, 2021).

As a result of the fact that managers regularly face the requirement to deal with high workloads and demanding expectations, which originate from both the company and their own personal standards, the ability to effectively handle pressure is an essential component. Understanding how to effectively manage this strain is absolutely necessary in order to maintain a robust and productive working environment (Malara, 2021).

2.4 Navigating Organizational Change: From Concept to Practice

The concept of change is a phenomena that is inherent to all forms of organisms, including corporations, communities, and individuals. The fundamental notion of existence is intricately linked to that of movement, metamorphosis, and alteration. Change is an enduring aspect of any existence, and confronting and handling alterations is sometimes an intricate, demanding procedure, and in certain instances even overwhelming.

Managing organizational transformation has been a common strategy for firms. The multitude of pressures arising from the environment, encompassing both internal and external factors, necessitates the need to effectively handle this issue. Uncontrollable elements such as new laws, rivals, markets, changes in customer behavior patterns, and new technology have a significant impact on the direction of change.

The presence of disappointing economic outcomes, the occurrence of alterations in the characteristics of individuals, or even the reaction of managers to their own personal tactics can all result in a substantial amount of pressure towards change (Tosi & Pilati, 2008).

It is the responsibility of those who are designing the organization to be able to manage change in such a turbulent and ever-changing environment. This can be accomplished by acting on the appropriate levers, which will allow all stakeholders to progress along the paths that have been laid out by management. This will allow them to keep up with the changes that are occurring in the context in which they operate. In the event that organizations lacked the capacity to drive and manage change, they would go through a process of involution, which would push the structure toward aging and eventually extinction (Mercurio & Testa, 2000). Therefore, people who plan to lead organizational issues must have a fundamental grasp of the dynamics of change in order to build the process of organizational change. This has become a need and a vital resource for those individuals.

The decade of the 1950s saw the beginning of research on change, particularly organizational change, in the academic literature. For the purpose of successfully implementing and managing change, several academic fields and disciplines have endeavored to get a profound understanding of the phenomenon. There are a great number of theories and models of organizational change that have been developed as a

consequence of these investigations. None of these theories and models are exhaustive or adequate replacements for the others; rather, they should be addressed in a complementary manner. In point of fact, every model is founded on a distinct interpretive theory, and it concentrates its attention solely on particular aspects of organizational development. Some people have concentrated on defining the various types of change, others have adopted models for analyzing change, others have developed rules for managing the change process, still others have focused on resistance to change and how to address it, still others have connected learning and change at both the individual and the collective level, and still others have investigated change leadership and the tools that are available to support it (Ambrosini, 2010).

Historically, classical organizational literature failed to fully grasp the significance of change, regarding it as a highly rational process. According to this perspective, the responsibility of company leaders was to restore the optimal internal organization by strategically managing this phenomenon. Change was perceived as a phenomena that could be effectively controlled by management.

This approach was influenced by classical economic philosophy, which saw change as an uncommon occurrence, almost like a disruption or a brief stage induced by external events that impact the system. In a typical and natural state, the system is in a state of equilibrium. The perspective on change during the 1950s was influenced by the socio-economic conditions of that time. Companies experienced relatively predictable and stable transformations, leading managers and technicians to focus on only certain aspects of the change process. This approach overlooked the complex nature of change and relied on reductionist methods (Mercurio & Testa, 2000).

According to this vision, the organization was viewed as a closed system, and change was regarded as an intended consequence of the organization's pursuit of ever-greater efficiency with the goal of preserving a certain level of stability and ensuring that it performs well.

During the period from the late 1950s to the early 1970s, there was a rise in modernistic theories that challenged the classical rational model. These theories presented a new perspective on how to understand the relationship between organizations and their environment. According to this perspective, organizations were seen as open systems that could be objectively observed and analyzed. Although separate from their environment,

organizations were heavily influenced by it. Over the course of these years, change was perceived as a deliberate and logical process, with the goal of effectively adapting to the ever-evolving external environment by making lasting adjustments.

Starting in the late 1970s, a symbolic-interpretative paradigm emerged, which saw organizations as social constructs. In this perspective, individuals interact, negotiate, and subjectively interpret the entire organizational environment. The perspective presented here suggests that change occurs through an ongoing and active process, with the goal of preserving the identity of the organization that has been shaped by collectively held values and assumptions. Change is the outcome of the ongoing process of humans constructing and reconstructing the organization and reality (Ambrosini, 2010).

Contemporary modernists have incorporated aspects of the symbolic-interpretative perspective into their framework by integrating characteristics of increased dynamism, openness, and subjectivity. Challenging reasonable assumptions promotes the growth of self-awareness. By explicitly articulating the underlying assumptions of an organization's strategy and engaging in dialogue about them, businesses may cultivate a shift in perspective, imagine potential future scenarios, and formulate hypotheses on potential adjustments.

Enterprises are facing a growing demand to handle transformation activities of different levels of difficulty, as a result of fast and significant changes in the technical, political, and social environment. Managers are now expected to possess the abilities to oversee periods of change and adjustments to strategy and organizational frameworks. At the same time, corporate individuals are also under growing demand to swiftly adapt their culture, attitude, and professionalism (Mercurio & Testa, 2000).

Theories of organizational change often use a fundamental model credited to Kurt Lewin (1951), which elucidates the process of change and how organisms adjust, providing a framework for understanding change management.

Lewin characterizes change as a transient state of instability that impacts the current state of equilibrium, and regards his model primarily as a theory focused on stability rather than change (Lewin, 1951). Change is an intricate process that involves several phases, which can often overlap or even occur simultaneously in a very short period of time, but nevertheless maintain fundamental conceptual differences.

2.4.1 Unfreezing: Preparing for Change

Lewin's model states that in order for a corporation to undergo a change, it must go through three distinct phases: unfreezing, transformation, and refreezing.

During every stage, there are crucial interpersonal procedures that must be overseen by different change agents. Each phase necessitates specific and separate duties, and it is not the same individual who must fulfill them.

The initial stage is known as unfreezing, during which the organization makes preparations for the impending transition. Unfreezing takes place when it is recognized that the current state of equilibrium has been disrupted, and one must address the conflicting forces of motivation and resistance in order to bring about change. Organizational change necessitates individuals to acquire unfamiliar abilities, which can lead to resistance to change. This resistance arises when previous processes, which individuals are accustomed to, are no longer in use, while the new procedures provide a challenge to their existing competences. Hence, it is imperative throughout this stage to facilitate, support, and disseminate change (Tosi & Pilati, 2008).

Managers are expected to promote a positive attitude towards change in order to encourage workers to respond in a constructive manner. This is because changes in individuals, roles, structure, and technology are essential for the success of the change project (Ambrosini, 2010). Implementing change inside a firm may not be challenging, but effectively managing it is very tough. This difficulty arises from the unpredictable outcomes, the complex emotions of the individuals involved, and the resistance typically encountered when seeking people's cooperation. Unfreezing results in the liberation of the individuals engaged in the process from previous actions and mentally predisposes them towards embracing new ideas and viewpoints.

2.4.2 Transformation: Implementing Change

The second phase, known as transformation, is when the actual implementation of change takes place and the situation begins to undergo significant changes. This transition may be facilitated by employing two separate mechanisms: selecting a role model to emulate or creating a situation that allows for active participation in the surroundings to explore novel opportunities (Tosi & Pilati, 2008). During this phase, it is important to select and

implement the suitable change methodology, as it is evident that not all methodologies are equally efficacious.

2.4.3 Refreezing: Incorporating Change

The final stage is refreezing, which involves the process of incorporating the changes into the organization. This step involves evaluating the actual occurrence of the change and the possibility of rejecting it, which refers to the case where the change has not occurred and previous conditions are reinstated. Refreezing is the process of integrating newly learned information with the existing ties individuals have with their colleagues inside the firm. Lewin categorizes refreezing as two distinct types: personal and relational.

Personal refreezing involves facilitating individuals' adaptation to the new behavioral model necessary for successful change. To achieve this, it is essential to establish conditions that enable individuals to link the new behavior demanded by the organizational change with their self-concept. Relational refreezing pertains to the formation of new relationships inside the organization. An innovative strategy will establish fresh connections between individuals and different workgroups, and it is important to guarantee that these connections are in line with the expectations of other relevant parties (Tosi & Pilati, 2008).

After the refreezing phase concludes, a new equilibrium is created, including the new elements and changes as an integral and enduring component of the organization. John Kotter presented an eight-stage model as an alternative approach for organizational change (Kotter, 1996).

As can be seen in Figure 4, the model is comprised of eight stages, each of which must be completed before going on to the subsequent one in accordance with a deterministic and normative framework. The author has defined a series of phases that serve as guidance for the implementation of a change process. These steps are based on the fundamental characteristics of corporate management, including strategic objectives, mission and vision, internal communication, and responsibility.

The first five stages of Kotter's model correlate to Lewin's unfreezing phase, points six and seven correspond to the transformation phase, and the final phase corresponds to the refreezing action. These eight phases are a direct result of Lewin's model.

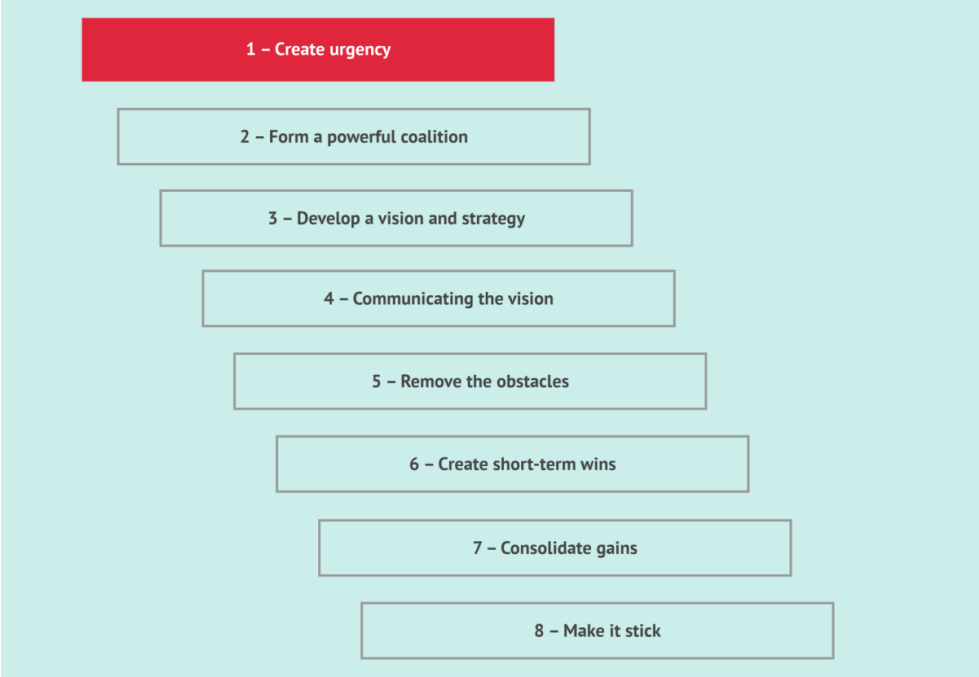


Fig. 4: Kotter's 8-Step Change Model

The stages that Kotter discusses provide specific recommendations on behaviors that should be adopted in order to successfully manage change. Both the Lewin model and the Kotter model demonstrate the intricacy of the process that we are discussing. Specifically, putting them into practice requires addressing various aspects of change, including the management of psychological factors that influence reactions to change and possible resistance, the management of learning processes, the redesigning of roles, functions, and associated responsibilities, and finally, the measurement of the performance of the change process.

3. Conceptual Framework and Methodology

In the previous chapters I have illustrated the main literature regarding the concepts of organizational crisis, emotions and organizational change, highlighting especially the delicate and relevant emotions from both a theoretical and managerial perspective. In particular, I have identified which factors have had the greatest impact on the literature for crisis management, how emotions can positively or negatively influence people's reactions and behaviors during a crisis, which emotions can emerge from an organizational crisis and, finally, how these are interrelated to change during an organizational crisis. In order to conduct a study that derives rigorously from the literature exposed and that is equally applicable to managerial practice, I decided to focus on the impact of emotions perceived by employees of an organization in an organizational crisis. In particular, since my focus is on how emotions in an organizational crisis can stimulate real change in the organization, the independent variable will be two central emotions during crises, anger and fear, while my dependent variable will be the openness to change. The goal of the experiment will therefore be to understand how the perception of these two emotions can lead to a significant effect on the openness to change. In particular, given the literature reported on emotions, I hypothesize that fear may have a greater effect than anger in eliciting openness to change. Formally:

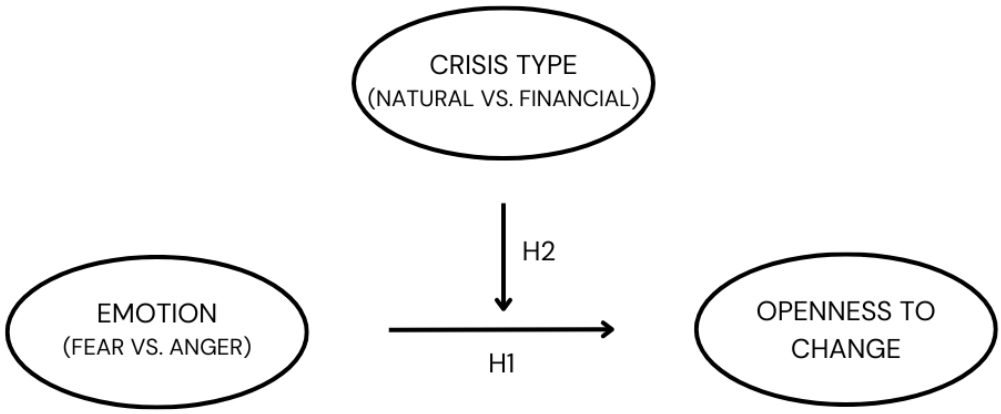
H1: Fear has a positive and greater effect than anger on the openness to change in an organizational crisis.

However, "not all crises are created equal". It could indeed happen that companies facing different types of crises may witness equally different effects of emotions on the propensity to change of their people. Given recent events, I will analyze the moderating effect of the crisis type on the relationship between perceived emotion and propensity to change by focusing on the types of financial and natural crises. While COVID-19 is certainly the crisis most present in people's memory, in fact, the economic consequences and the recent and sudden financial crises deserve equal attention. In particular, given the particularity of the typology of a natural crisis, which is caused by an event not related (in a direct way) to a human activity (unlike what one might perceive regarding a financial crisis), I hypothesize a moderating effect capable of inverting the relationship between

fear and anger. That is, I hypothesize that being in a financial crisis rather than a natural crisis may make anger more relevant than fear, whereas, instead, in a natural crisis fear may have a greater effect than anger. Formally:

H2: In the context of a financial crisis, rather than a natural one, anger has a greater positive effect on openness to change.

From these hypotheses and the illustrated relationships I derive my conceptual framework, illustrated in Figure 1.



3.1 Methodology

In order to analyse the effects of the expression of emotions such as fear and anger, and the moderating effect exerted by the type of crisis, on the propensity to change of certain individuals within a work context, I conducted a scenario-based study. Specifically, participants in a survey were exposed to different stimuli, imagining receiving a message from their manager during an organisational crisis. This scenario-based approach made it

possible to simulate hypothetical but realistic crisis situations in order to assess how different types of emotional expressions of the leader could influence employees' readiness to accept change in a transforming professional environment. The decision to focus on communication between managers and subordinates was motivated by the frequency with which this dynamic occurs within organisations. In particular, this form of interaction is a crucial factor in determining the emotional and behavioural responses of employees, especially in crisis situations or times of uncertainty. During unforeseen and unpleasant organisational events, the ways in which leaders convey messages, not only in terms of content but also in terms of emotional tone, can significantly influence employees' attitudes towards company decisions and the resulting transformations.

Before proceeding with the hypothesis tests, I performed an analysis to check the validity and reliability of the measures used. The KMO (0.74) and Bartlett's test ($\chi^2 = 344.398$, df = 3, $p < .001$) confirm the validity of the assumptions for factor analysis (FA). The FA results show the existence of two constructs, which explain 81.20% of the cumulative variance, as also shown by the scree plot, where only two values exceed the eigenvalue>1. In addition, all items show communalities above the threshold of 0.50 and saturations (matrix of rotated components, VARIMAX) above 0.70. With regard to the reliability analysis, Cronbach's alpha coefficient exceeds the recommended value of 0.70 (0.883 for openness to change). Consequently, the reliability of the measurements is also supported.

3.1.2 Design and procedure

Data were collected in US through the Prolific platform. A total of 210 participants took part in the study, with a marked presence of the female gender (N=115, 54,8%) compared to the male gender (N=84, 40%). A very small minority indicated a non-binary/third gender (N=3, 1,4%) or other (N=8, 3,8%). The age of the participants was very diverse, ranging from 25 to 71 years.

Procedurally, the study was a scenario-based study in which participants were asked to imagine themselves as employees of a company who received an email regarding a recent crisis, either financial or natural, with the message expressing fear or anger. Thus, it was a 2x2 between-subjects design study in which participants were randomly assigned to one

of the following four conditions: natural crisis & fear; natural crisis & anger; financial crisis & fear, financial crisis & anger. After exposure to the email, participants' openness to change was measured using a scale adapted by Sinval et al. (2021). The scale was a Likert scale with 3 items measured from 1-7 (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree): “I would consider myself "open" to the changes to my work”, “I would look forward to the implementation of changes in my work”, “From my perspective, the implementation of changes in my work will be for the better”. Finally, participants answered demographic questions.

3.1.3 Results

I conducted the statistical analysis using the SPSS software. As specified, the independent variable was represented by the emotion expressed in the email by the manager (fear vs. anger), the dependent variable by openness to change, and the moderator by the type of crisis (financial vs. natural).

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the openness to change between employees exposed to expressions of fear and those exposed to expressions of anger during an organizational crisis. Results indicated that there was a significant difference in openness to change between the two groups, with the fear group reporting higher openness ($M = 4.9$, $SD = 1.5$) compared to the anger group ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.5$); $t\ (208) = 3.91$, $p < .001$. This suggests that fear has a stronger positive impact on openness to change than anger in the context of an organizational crisis.

Then, a moderation analysis was conducted using PROCESS Model 1 to assess whether the relationship between the emotions (fear vs. anger) (X) and openness to change (Y) was moderated by the type of crisis, either natural or financial (W). The results revealed that the interaction between the emotions and type of crisis was not statistically significant ($b = 0.35$, $SE = 0.12$, $p = .468$). These findings indicate that the type of crisis did not significantly moderate the effect of emotional expressions on employees' openness to change. Consequently, the influence of fear versus anger on openness to change remains consistent irrespective of whether the crisis is categorized as financial or natural.

3.2 Discussion

The aim of the present study is to examine the impact of leaders‘ emotional expressions on employees’ openness to change in the context of an organisational crisis. In particular, two main hypotheses were formulated to guide the research. The first hypothesis (H1) postulates that the leader's expression of fear exerts a positive and more pronounced effect than anger on employees' openness to change during an organisational crisis. This hypothesis is based on the idea that fear, unlike anger, can induce greater reflection and a more favourable predisposition in employees to accept change in situations of uncertainty. The second hypothesis (H2), on the other hand, argues that in the context of a financial crisis, rather than a natural crisis, the leader's expression of anger may have a positive effect on openness to change. Here, I hypothesise that anger, in the context of an economic crisis, may trigger a more energetic and proactive response from employees, especially when the crisis is perceived to be the result of management decisions rather than uncontrollable external events.

The results of my experimental study indicate that Hypothesis H1, which states that fear has a positive and greater effect than anger on openness to change in an organisational crisis, was significant. However, Hypothesis H2, which suggests that anger has a greater positive effect than anger on openness to change in financial versus natural crises, did not show significance.

3.2.1 Managerial implications

The managerial implications that emerged from the results of this study provide important insights into organisational crisis management and more effective leader-employee communication.

With reference to hypothesis H1, the results show that leaders’ expression of fear has a positive and greater impact than anger on employees’ openness to change. This suggests that, during an organisational crisis, the expression of fear by managers may encourage employees to think more deeply and become more aware of the need to adapt to change. At the managerial level, this implies that leaders should not be afraid to manifest a certain degree of emotional vulnerability, as fear, if expressed in a controlled manner, may induce in employees a clearer perception of the urgency of the situation and encourage a

collaborative attitude towards organisational change. In particular, this emotion can be perceived as a sign of authenticity and awareness, which in turn stimulates a greater commitment in employees to face the challenges of change.

With regard to hypothesis H2, the results do not support the idea that the leader's expression of anger has a significant positive effect on openness to change in the context of a financial crisis, compared to a natural crisis. This result suggests that, contrary to the hypothesis, anger may not activate a proactive, change-oriented response in employees, as had been predicted.

Evidence from the study underlines the importance of strategic management of emotions expressed by leaders during an organisational crisis. The expression of fear, if properly managed, can act as a lever to foster openness to change, while anger may not prove to be an effective tool, especially in contexts of financial crisis. These findings offer valuable insights for managers, suggesting a calibrated and deliberate emotional approach in crisis communications.

3.2.3 Suggestions for Future Research

Future research in this area could benefit significantly from exploring a broader set of variables that influence openness to change in crisis contexts. The present study focused primarily on the effect of emotions expressed by leaders, such as fear and anger, in an organisational crisis context, but there are multiple other factors, both contextual and individual, such as other emotions, that could significantly influence these dynamics.

An important direction for future research could be to investigate how contextual factors, such as organisational culture and leadership style, may moderate or mediate the relationship between leaders' expression of emotions and employees' openness to change. Organisational culture, in fact, can play a crucial role in determining the emotional response of employees. In strongly hierarchy-oriented organisational environments, for example, the leader's expression of emotions may have a different impact than in more horizontal and collaborative contexts. Likewise, future research could investigate how different types of leadership, such as transformational or transactional, influence leaders' ability to manage emotions during crises, and consequently, employees' openness to change. Furthermore, individual employee

variables, such as level of resilience, personality (e.g. level of uncertainty tolerance or openness to experience), and their degree of trust in the leader, could be explored to understand how they influence the response to emotions expressed by leaders in crisis contexts. For example, employees with a more resilient personality might be more inclined to see fear as a challenge, while those with a low tolerance for uncertainty might interpret the same emotion as a threat, thus reducing their openness to change. Investigating these individual differences could provide a more complete picture of the dynamics that develop in such contexts.

Another promising area for future research concerns the exploration of different types of crises and their influence on openness to change. The present study focused on a limited number of scenarios, but future studies could benefit from the inclusion of a larger and more varied number of crisis types. For example, it might be interesting to further investigate the distinction between crises of an internal nature (such as financial or management crises) and external crises (such as natural disasters or pandemics), in order to understand how these differences influence the emotions expressed by leaders and the openness to change on the part of employees. Indeed, each type of crisis presents unique characteristics that may require different emotional and management responses. In this context, more detailed simulations, or even the analysis of real corporate crisis cases, could provide more concrete and realistic data, thus helping to clarify the nuances of each type of crisis and their emotional impact on employees. The use of real cases of corporate crises could also make it possible to explore how leaders, in practical situations, manage emotions and which strategies prove most effective in promoting openness to change among employees. In this sense, longitudinal analysis could offer valuable insights into how leaders' emotional communication and attitudes evolve over time and in response to different moments of crisis, thus offering a dynamic and time-sensitive perspective on emotion management in crisis contexts.

In summary, the field of study concerning the impact of managers’ expressions of emotions on openness to change in crisis contexts presents numerous possibilities for expansion and deepening. Exploring contextual and individual variables, delving into the differences between crisis types, and adopting diverse methodological approaches are all opportunities to broaden the understanding of these complex organisational dynamics, while offering new perspectives on more effective crisis management.

Conclusion

This study aims to clarify the impact of leaders‘ emotional expressions -specifically fear and anger- on employees’ openness to change during organisational crises, focusing on how the type of crisis can moderate these effects. The results offer significant insights into the role of emotions in shaping employees' responses to change in the face of crises. The results confirm hypothesis H1, which posited that leaders' expression of fear had a more pronounced positive effect on openness to change than anger. This result underlines the notion that fear, if managed appropriately, can foster deeper reflection and a more favourable disposition towards change in situations of uncertainty. In contrast, the expression of anger does not provoke the same level of openness to change, probably due to its more confrontational and less constructive nature. This result aligns with theoretical perspectives that suggest that fear, even if properly managed, can lead to greater acceptance of necessary changes in organisational environments.

On the other hand, Hypothesis H2, which proposed that anger had a greater positive effect on openness to change during a financial crisis than during a natural crisis, was not supported by the data. This result indicates that the type of crisis-whether financial or natural-does not significantly alter the impact of anger on employees' willingness to embrace change. It appears that the influence of anger on openness to change is consistent across different crisis contexts, suggesting that the emotional response of anger may not necessarily lead to a more proactive or energetic reaction, even when the crisis is perceived as resulting from managerial decisions.

These findings contribute to the broader understanding of emotional dynamics in organisational crises by emphasising the differential effects of fear and anger on readiness for change. They offer practical implications for managers seeking to manage organisational change during crises. In particular, fostering an environment in which fear is constructively communicated could improve employees' adaptability and openness to change. Conversely, relying on anger as a motivational tool might be less effective and could hinder the change process.

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Appendix

Factor Analysis

Matrice di correlazione

		Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would consider myself "open" to the changes to my work.	Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would look forward to the implementation of changes in my work.	Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - From my perspective, the implementation of changes in my work will be for the better.
Correlazione	Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would consider myself "open" to the changes to my work.	1,000	,704	,691
	Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would look forward to the implementation of changes in my work.	,704	1,000	,758
	Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - From my perspective, the implementation of changes in my work will be for the better.	,691	,758	1,000

Test di KMO e Bartlett

Misura di Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin di adeguatezza del campionamento.		,741
Test della sfericità di Bartlett	Appross. Chi-quadrato	344,398
	gl	3
	Sign.	<,001

Comunalità

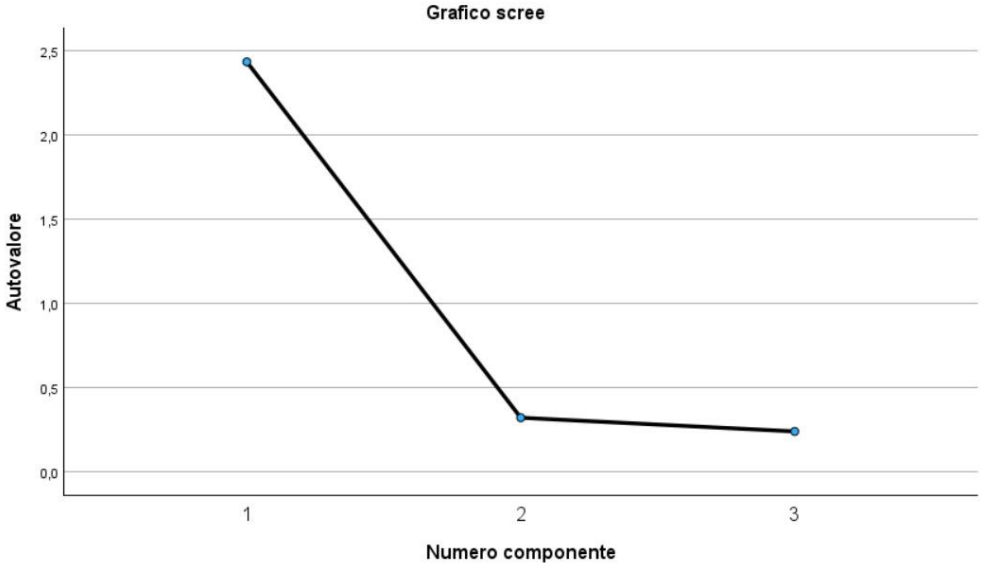
	Iniziale	Estrazione
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would consider myself "open" to the changes to my work.	1,000	,781
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would look forward to the implementation of changes in my work.	1,000	,832
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - From my perspective, the implementation of changes in my work will be for the better.	1,000	,823

Metodo di estrazione: Analisi dei componenti principali.

Varianza totale spiegata

	Autovalori iniziali			Caricamenti somme dei quadrati di estrazione		
Componente	Totale	% di varianza	% cumulativa	Totale	% di varianza	% cumulativa
1	2,436	81,200	81,200	2,436	81,200	81,200
2	,323	10,757	91,957			
3	,241	8,043	100,000			

Metodo di estrazione: Analisi dei componenti principali.



Matrice dei componenti[a]

	Componente 1
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would look forward to the implementation of changes in my work.	,912
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - From my perspective, the implementation of changes in my work will be for the better.	,907
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would consider myself "open" to the changes to my work.	,884

Metodo di estrazione: Analisi dei componenti principali.

a. 1 componenti estratti.

Reliability Analysis

Riepilogo elaborazione casi

		N	%
Casi	Valido	210	100,0
	Escluso[a]	0	,0
	Totale	210	100,0

a. Eliminazione listwise basata su tutte le variabili nella procedura.

Statistiche di affidabilità

Alpha di Cronbach	Alpha di Cronbach basata su elementi standardizzati	N. di elementi
,883	,884	3

Matrice di correlazione tra gli elementi

	Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would consider myself "open" to the changes to my work.	Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would look forward to the implementation of changes in my work.	Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - From my perspective, the implementation of changes in my work will be for the better.
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would consider myself "open" to the changes to my work.	1,000	,704	,691
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would look forward to the implementation of changes in my work.	,704	1,000	,758
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - From my perspective, the implementation of changes in my work will be for the better.	,691	,758	1,000

Statistiche elemento-totale

	Media scala se viene eliminato l'elemento	Varianza scala se viene eliminato l'elemento	Correlazione elemento-totale corretta	Correlazione multipla quadratica	Alpha di Cronbach se viene eliminato l'elemento
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would consider myself "open" to the changes to my work.	8,26	11,101	,744	,554	,862
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - I would look forward to the implementation of changes in my work.	9,16	9,380	,796	,637	,815
Rate from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) how much you agree with the following statements. - From my perspective, the implementation of changes in my work will be for the better.	8,99	9,742	,787	,624	,822

T-test

Statistiche gruppo

	1 = anger, 0 = fear	N	Media	Deviazione std.	Errore standard della media
mean_WTC	,00	93	4,8530	1,45086	,15045
	1,00	117	4,0427	1,52472	,14096

Test campioni indipendenti

		Test di Levene per l'eguaglianza delle varianze		Test t per l'eguaglianza delle medie							
						Significatività				Intervallo di confidenza della differenza di 95%	
		F	Sign.	t	gl	P unilaterale	P bilaterale	Differenza della media	Differenza errore std.	Inferiore	Superiore
mean_WTC	Varianze uguali presunte	1,133	,288	3,908	208	<,001	<,001	,81031	,20734	,40155	1,21908
	Varianze uguali non presunte			3,930	201,357	<,001	<,001	,81031	,20617	,40379	1,21683

Dimensioni effetto campioni indipendenti

		Standardizzatore[a]	Stima del punto	Intervallo di confidenza 95%	
				Inferiore	Superiore
mean_WTC	D di Cohen	1,49250	,543	,265	,820
	Correzione di Hedges	1,49791	,541	,264	,817
	Delta di Glass	1,52472	,531	,250	,811

a. Il denominatore utilizzato per stimare le dimensioni dell'effetto.
La d di Cohen utilizza la deviazione standard raggruppata.
La correzione di Hedge utilizza la deviazione standard raggruppata, piu un fattore di correzione.
Il delta di Glass utilizza la deviazione standard del campione del gruppo di controllo (ovvero il secondo).

Process

```
  Run MATRIX procedure:

*************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 4.2 beta ***************

      Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.      www.afhayes.com
  Documentation available in Hayes(2022). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

**************************************************************************
Model  : 1
   Y  : mean_WTC
   X  : Emotions
   W  : Crisi

Sample
Size:  210

**************************************************************************
OUTCOME VARIABLE
mean_WTC

Model Summary
       R     R-sq      MSE       F      df1      df2        p
   ,3304    ,1092    2,1508   8,4155   3,0000  206,0000    ,0000

Model
         coeff      se        t        p      LLCI     ULCI
constant  5,2177    ,2095   24,9047    ,0000   4,8046   5,6307
Emotions  -,9158    ,2906   -3,1509    ,0019  -1,4888   -,3428
Crisi     -,7707    ,3046   -2,5304    ,0121  -1,3712   -,1702
Int_1      ,2970    ,4086    ,7268     ,4682   -,5086   1,1025

Product terms key:
 Int_1    :       Emotions x      Crisi

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
     R2-chng       F      df1      df2        p
X*W    ,0023    ,5282   1,0000  206,0000    ,4682
----------
   Focal predict: Emotions (X)
      Mod var: Crisi    (W)

Data for visualizing the conditional effect of the focal predictor:
Paste text below into a SPSS syntax window and execute to produce plot.

DATA LIST FREE/
  Emotions   Crisi     mean_WTC   .
BEGIN DATA
    ,0000     ,0000    5,2177
   1,0000     ,0000    4,3019
    ,0000    1,0000    4,4470
   1,0000    1,0000    3,8281
END DATA
```