

Crisis, Emotions and Contradictions

Organizational Crisis: Emotions and Contradictions in Managing Internal Stakeholders

Oluremi B. Ayoko* and Andrew A. Ang^a

UQ Business School

The University of Queensland

Australia

Ken Parry

Deakin Graduate Business School

Deakin University

Australia

**Author to whom correspondence should be addressed*

Oluremi B. Ayoko

UQ Business School

The University of Queensland

St Lucia, QLD 4072

Ph 61 + 7 3346 8145 Fax 61+ 7 3346 6188

E- mail: r.ayoko@business.uq.edu.au

^a A.A. Ang worked on this paper while at the UQBS.

Abstract

Little research has focused on the impact of organizational crisis on their internal stakeholders-the employees. In this article, we fill this void by examining the impression management strategies employed by senior managers in managing their employees during organizational crisis and the impact of these strategies on employees. We collected qualitative data from three organisations and we employed multiple analytical lenses (such as thematic, content and trope) to explore patterns in senior managers' management of employees during crisis. Emerging patterns in the data revealed that the emotional state and reactions of employees (individual and collective) during crisis include anger, fear, shame, depression and shock. Additionally, data revealed two major contradictions (tensions) in managing employees during crisis: maintaining and compromising standard, managers' wants versus employees' desire in the way organization crisis is managed. Based on these preliminary findings and using Affective Event Theory and the theory of Collective Emotions as a frame, we built a conceptual model that depicts the relationship between organizational crisis, impression management and emotion-driven employee attitudes and behaviors. A major limitation in the current research is that our data is largely composed of text (e.g. from newspaper and websites). Nevertheless, the textual data were based on actual interviews with stakeholders and victims and have more than compensated for the limitation. Theoretically, by examining the emotional states and reactions of internal (rather than external) stakeholders to organizational crisis, we extend the literature in the area of organizational crisis and crisis management while the testable propositions in our conceptual model have a potential to open up new pathways for studying organizational crisis. Practically, it is imperative for managers to have skills to identify and manage key employees' emotional states and reactions to crisis. Managers should align their words and actions during crisis management to increase employees trust. Also pre-crisis planning should

include specific guidelines on how to identify and manage employees' individual and collective emotions during crisis. Our study demonstrates that beyond emotions of employees during crisis, there are contradictions and tensions in the senior manager's management of their employees during crisis. Also, outcomes of a quantitative test of the conceptual model developed from the current study should improve the generalizability of our results.

Keywords - Organizational crisis, emotions, contradictions and impression management

Introduction

“...we are disappointed that Org B has not committed to relocating its operations....the failure of management to commit to relocation of the site is a betrayal of the employees trust in management to guarantee a safe and healthy work environment” (Representative Staff, Organization B)

The above quote indicates an employee’s frustration and disappointment about the way his organization managed the employees during a crisis. Research in organizational crisis reveals that contemporary organizations have suffered an increase in the magnitude and frequency of crisis (Mitroff 2005; Seeger, Sellnow & Ulmer, 1998). In the current article, we define organizational crisis as a sudden, unexpected and unplanned event that has adverse effects on the organization’s bottom line (Fink 1986; Hooghmiestra, 2000), challenges and upsets organizational basic assumptions (Pauchant & Douville, 1993) and threatens its survival (Kovoor-Misra, Zammuto, & Mitroff, 2000). Also, given its potential negative consequences (Coombs, 2012), organization crisis has the potential to trigger circumstances where opportunities to engage coping strategies may be distant (Weick, 1988) and thus threatening organizational legitimacy and performance.

More specifically, empirical studies indicate that crises negatively impact not only organizational legitimacy but also organizational image, reputation and relationships with its important stakeholders (see also King III, 2002). Therefore, to manage stakeholders’ impressions during crisis, senior managers often target external stakeholders (Mitroff, 2005) but largely ignore their employees (Landen, 2003). Yet, Maier (2002) in his article reflecting on “the challenger syndrome” suggests that organizational senior managers and leaders can learn from past crises by involving their stakeholders (including employees). This is because employees are a key audience to the organization (Wolfenbarger & Gilly, 1998) and, in many ways, more valuable to the organization than its other stakeholder groups (Barton, 2001).

A review of organizational crisis literature also reveals that much of the studies in this area are inherently qualitative using a single research paradigm at a time and thereby underutilizing the opportunities presented by multi-paradigm inquiry to organizational crisis research (see Lewis & Kelemen, 2002). Nevertheless, we are aware that organizational studies are replete with diverse perspectives that may enrich our understanding (Lewis & Kelemen, 2002) and are capable of facilitating our knowledge of organizational crisis and its management.

According to multi-paradigm supporters (e.g. Lewis & Grimes, 1999; Scherer, 1998), divergent paradigm lenses can assist in contrasting varied representations while exploring plurality and paradox (see also Ybema, 1996) and contradictions can reveal an obscure organizational phenomena (Knights, 1997). In the present research, we use multiple lenses to examine the strategies used to manage employees during crises. To do this, we pose four main research questions namely: 1) What strategies do senior managers use in managing employees' impression during a crisis, 2) What are the employees' perceptions about the impression management strategies used by senior managers to manage employees during organization crisis? 3) What are the emotional states of the employees during a crisis and, 4) What are the employees' emotional reactions to the senior managers' strategies to manage their employees' impression during crisis? Answers to the above questions should facilitate a better understanding of the nature of employees' emotional states, their reactions during organizational crisis and the strategies employed by senior managers to manage these issues during crisis.

The current research makes four key contributions to literature. First, rather than focus on the reactions of external stakeholders as with prior literature, we examine internal stakeholders' (i.e. employees) emotional states and reactions to organizational crisis. Secondly, building on the work of Mitroff (2005), we extend impression management literature by examining the employees' emotions (states and reactions) to the impression management strategies employed by their senior managers during crisis. Thirdly, we use multiple lenses to examine some

contradictions and or tensions that may accompany crisis management for the internal stakeholders. Fourthly, based on Affective Event Theory (AET) (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), Collective Emotions (CEs) (Jarymowicz & Bar-Tak, 2006; von Scheve & Ismer, 2013) and outcomes of a qualitative study, we build a conceptual model of the relationship between employees' emotions, organizational crisis, impression management and outcomes.

Affective Event Theory (AET), Collective Emotions (CEs) and Crisis Management Strategies

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996)'s Affective Events Theory (AET) proposes that the workplace environment is a source of discrete, affective events that generate feelings or emotions and that employees' emotional responses to these events determine their subsequent attitudes and behaviors. Although studies have previously used AET as a theoretical anchor to understand affective reactions such as anger during crisis (e.g. McDonald & Härtel, 2000), these studies are however focused solely on external stakeholders and exclusively on the emotion of anger. Thus, little attention has been paid to the investigation of the internal stakeholders (employees) and the other five basic emotional categories of fear, sadness, surprise, love and joy (Shaver, Schwartz, Kirson & O'Connor, 1987).

Additionally, we borrow from the concept of Collective Emotions (CEs) (Jarymowicz & Bar-Tak, 2006; von Scheve & Ismer, 2013). CE's are described as emotions that are shared by a large number of individuals in a certain society (Stephan & Stephan 2000). These collective emotions are predicated on the assumption that groups and societies may develop a collective emotional orientation (Jarymowicz & Bar-Tak, 2006) similar to how individuals have dominant emotions. Thus, collective emotions may arise due to particular societal conditions, common experiences, shared norms and socialisation in a society (Kitayama & Markus, 1994). For example, Bar-Tal (2001) notes that where there is a societal condition of intractable conflict (e.g. crisis), the dominance of a collective fear orientation is not an exception but the rule.

Related to the concept of collective emotions is group based emotions which are defined as emotions felt by individuals given their membership in a group or society (Smith, 1993). Specifically, group emotion refers to the similarities in group members' emotional experiences or behaviours and a convergence in emotional responses (e.g. to a crisis) based on membership in a social collective (Parkinson, Fischer & Manstead, 2005; von Scheve & Ismer, 2013) such as working for the same organisation. It is postulated that the similarity in emotional responses in a group may occur due to the exposure to identical eliciting events, regular interactions with other group members, mutual influence on each other's appraisals as well as sharing of common values and norms, identification as group members and appraisals of group-relevant events (Parkinson et al., 2005). In this respect, group emotions are emotions felt by individuals on behalf of a social collective or other member of a collective (Smith, 1993).

The concepts of individual and collective emotions suggest that individuals may experience emotions not necessarily as a response to their personal life events but also in a reaction to collective or societal experiences (Bar-Tal, Halperin & de Rivera (2007). Altogether, both collective and group based emotions are socially shared emotions that are not just an aggregation of individual emotions, but represent "unique holistic" qualities of social collectives (Bar-Tal, 2001, pg. 605). Taken together, we use both AET and CEs as theoretical anchors to examine organizational internal stakeholders' (i.e. employees) emotions to organizational crisis and related impression management strategies as espoused by senior managers.

Organizational crisis and impression management

The study of organizational crisis is still largely at a developmental stage (Simola, 2005). Consequently, researchers (e.g. Barton, 2001; Pearson & Clair, 1998; Simola, 2005) call for more empirical studies in organizational crisis. We have previously established that organizational crisis is a sudden, unexpected and unplanned event that has adverse effects on the organization's bottom line (Hooghmiestra, 2000). Impression management may also be

defined as the behaviors employed to create and protect self-images, impressions and especially, to influence the way that one is perceived by significant others (Hooghiemstra, 2000). Consistently, organizational senior managers rely on Benoit (1995)'s strategies for comprehensive crisis management guidelines (Benoit, 2004). Based on Benoit's strategies, some top managers manage their organizational crisis using *denial, evasion of responsibility, reducing the offensiveness of the event, corrective action and mortification*. A *denial* strategy is used when senior management simply denies committing the act. Senior managers may also use *evasion of responsibility* where the management claims a lack of control over the situation. Specifically, *evasion of responsibility* includes provocation, defeasibility, accident and good intentions. For example, provocation is used when organizational senior managers attempt to justify that their action is merely in response to another's offensive act while defeasibility is when the organization alleges about a lack of information and control over important elements of the situation. Due to this lack of information or control, the organization feels that it should not be held completely responsible for the crisis. In addition, the organization attempts to claim innocence by blaming the occurrence of the crisis on an accident or, the organization could claim that although the crisis occurred, the organization had good intentions and that the crisis was due to unforeseen circumstances.

Along the same line, senior managers' use *reducing the offensiveness of the event*, that is, they generate positive feelings among stakeholders to offset negative feelings connected with the wrongful act. Within this strategy, there are six sub-strategies for the organization to choose in order to reduce the organization's involvement within the crisis. The sub-strategies are: bolstering, minimization, differentiation, transcendence, attacking one's accuser and lastly compensation. Bolstering is used when the organization attempts to strengthen their stakeholders' positive feeling towards the organization in order to offset the negative feelings connected with the wrongful act. Although the amount of negative affect towards the

organization remains, the organization hopes that through the increased positive feelings within stakeholders, it may offset the negative feelings. In the same vein, organizations may also attempt the use of minimization to minimize the negative feelings associated with the crisis by making the crisis look less offensive than when the crisis event first occurred. The differentiation strategy is applied by the organization to distinguish their crisis event from other similar but more offensive crisis events, in the hope of winning some sympathy for the organization. With transcendence strategy, organization may attempt to place the crisis within a more favorable context which may lessen the apparent offensiveness of the crisis event. Alternatively, the organization may choose to reduce the offensiveness of the crisis by attacking the credibility of the source of the crisis. Finally, organization may choose to compensate or reimburse their victims in the hope of mitigating the negative feelings from the crisis and reduce the offensiveness of the situation.

Furthermore, top managers employ *corrective action* by attempting to correct the problems caused by the crisis (Benoit, 2004) *mortification* is used to manage stakeholders' impressions in a crisis by seeking forgiveness (Benoit, 2004) through the offering of apology for the crisis. Thus, mortification is an attempt by the organization to restore its image by not disputing the charges, but seeking the stakeholders for forgiveness (Benoit, 2004; Hargie, Stapleton & Tourish, 2010). Overall, we reason that senior managers may use similar or dissimilar strategies to manage their internal stakeholder (i.e. employees) during crisis. This leads us to the first research question.

(RQ1): What strategies do senior managers use in managing employees' impression during a crisis?

Organizational crisis and appropriate impression management strategy

One of the major repercussions of organizational crisis is the destruction of an organization's face, image or reputation. Benoit and Brinson (1999) suggest that just as a

person's image and reputation is crucial to his/her emotional wellbeing so is image or reputation important for organizational survival. In this respect, image is the "perception of a person or an organization, or a government by other persons, organizations or governments" (Zhang & Benoit, 2009: Pg. 240). Benoit and Brinson (1999) further assert that an organization's image may also be influenced by the words and actions of its representatives (e.g. senior managers) as well as the discourse and behaviors of others and by extension the internal stakeholders such as the employees. Consequently, organizations facing crisis are motivated to repair the damage done to their reputation and restore their face and image by using the Benoit (1995) strategies. This is because an organization's principal asset (Fishman, 1999) is its reputation and damage to an organization's reputation has a potential to negatively impact its bottom line (Fink, 1986; Hooghmiestra, 2000).

Studies in crisis management suggest that the impression management strategies (e.g. by Benoit, 1995) may not always be appropriate. Benoit however, suggests that for an effective image restoration after a crisis, organizations should engage in persuasive discourse. For example, Coca Cola responded to Pepsi's accusations appropriately using a clearly identified and prominent company spokesperson (Benoit, 1995). Additionally, Benoit (1995) suggests that image restoration or impression management strategies that are appropriate include: admitting a fault if the company is at fault, indicating if factors responsible for the crisis are beyond one's control (which may alleviate responsibility to restore a tarnished image), report plans to correct, and /or prevent a recurrence of the problem while organizations avoid *minimization* of a crisis event because attempts to trivialize a serious problem may create a backlash.

Borda and Mackey-Kallis (2004) suggest that inappropriate strategies could escalate the crisis leading to disastrous effects while the success of certain strategies is dependent on how stakeholders view the strategy (Benoit, 2004). For example, an offensive strategy such as denial may work if the audience accepts the rationale of the organization while a strategy like

mortification would fail should the audience question the apology. Overall, the success of image restoration strategies employed during crisis depends on the perception of the stakeholders. In the case of this research, the success of the impression management strategies employed to manage internal stakeholders during crisis will depend on their perceptions on how well they think they have been managed during the crisis. This leads us to the second research question.

(RQ2): What are the employees' perceptions about the impression management strategies used by senior managers to manage employees during organization crisis?

Organizational crisis, impression management and internal stakeholders' emotions

Coombs (1999) indicates that employees may play key roles that may determine organizational success or failure in managing the crisis. For example, employees may provide valuable insights into the crisis through their intimate knowledge of the organization and may be a source of valuable suggestions in restoring organizational image and credibility (Barton, 2001). This, in turn, may provide organizational leaders with possible reasons as to why the crisis occurred as well as ways to prevent a similar crisis from reoccurring (Barton, 2001; Mitroff et al., 1996). In spite of the above, prior literature suggests that due to the haste and pressures faced during crisis, organizational leaders can be so focused on the problem at hand that they tend to overlook their employees and undervalue their contributions in a crisis (Barton, 2001; Wallace & Webber, 2004). Therefore, it is quite common for employees to receive information and updates about their organization's crisis situation indirectly from media reports rather than directly from their organization (Ruff & Aziz, 2003).

Researchers indicate that organizational crisis is highly correlated with negative emotional states (Lord, Klimoski & Kanfer, 2002). For instance, we are aware that the use of various impression management strategies may invoke different emotional reactions (Benoit, 2004) from organizational stakeholders. For example, *denial* and the *evasion of responsibility*

may escalate negative emotional reactions to the organization (Benoit, 2004) while the strategies of *corrective action* and *mortification* may lower negative responses to the organization.

Furthermore, studies show that the greater the perceived involvement of an individual with the organization, the greater the impact of the crisis on the individual (McDonald & Härtel, 2000). Indeed, Mitroff & Pearson (1993) argue that because of employees' connection to the organization with crisis, they may be placed under severe emotional strain during this time. The emotional strain or experience might culminate into collective or group based emotions given the intensity of the crisis in their organization. Parkinson and colleagues (2005) suggest that based on their organizational membership, employees' similar emotional experiences or behaviors may converge into similar responses (Parkinson, et al., 2005) to a crisis event. This is because of the collective memory of the crisis, the exposure to identical eliciting crisis events and regular interactions with other group members. In sum, we expect that employees' emotions (individual and collective) will be more severely impacted when compared to other stakeholders.

Previous literature categorizes basic emotions in various ways (see Izard, 1992; Plutchik, 1980; Shaver et al., 1987). However, in their discussion of the framework of AET, Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) employ the categories of basic emotions devised by Shaver and colleagues (1987) namely: anger, fear, sadness, surprise, joy and love. The above-named basic emotions are similar to those identified in the area of collective emotions (see Bar-Tal, 2001; von Scheve & Ismer, 2013). So far, researchers have focused their attention predominantly on the study of anger in a crisis event, ignoring the other emotional states suggested by Shaver and his colleagues (1987). Given that depression and stress are common among stakeholders during crisis events (Mitroff, 2005; Wallace & Webber, 2004); we argue that such affective states would result in individuals' experience of powerlessness, helplessness and impotence which may, in turn, result in fear and sadness (Lord et al., 2002; Shaver et al., 1987). Therefore, we further argue that as a result of an organizational crisis,

employees will not only experience the negative emotional state of anger, but also associated emotions such as sadness, fear and surprise. This leads us to our final research questions.

RQ3: What are the emotional states of the employees during a crisis?

RQ4: What are the employees' emotional reactions to the senior managers' strategies to manage employees' impression during a crisis?

Research Objectives

This study is driven by five key research objectives. First, we aim to investigate the impression management strategies that are directed towards internal stake holders (i.e. employees) during an organizational crisis. Hitherto, organizational crisis literature has largely focused on external stakeholders and has ignored the effect of crisis on internal stakeholders (the employees). Second, we aim to better understand internal stakeholders' emotional states and reactions (individual or collective) both to the crisis event and the impression management strategies that are employed to manage them by the senior managers. Third, and connected with objective two, this study aims to determine the internal stakeholders' perceptions of the appropriateness of the impression management strategies employed to manage them during crisis. Fourth, we aim to use multiple lenses in studying crisis management for employees to facilitate a deeper understanding of how employees could be better managed in crisis. Finally and based on the outcomes, this research aims to develop a conceptual model and testable propositions of the link between organizational crisis, impression management and emotion-driven employee attitudes and behaviors.

Methodology

Research Design

We undertook qualitative research rather than the positivist or scientific (Kempster & Parry, 2011) research that is normally found in research about emotions in organizations. Kempster and Parry's advocacy of critical realist grounded theory guided our research. Grounded

theory is a flexible method for developing substantive theory that traditionally emphasizes understanding of social processes, although it is also recognized for its utility in explaining broader phenomena (Charmaz, 2006, Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Additionally, grounded theory aims to “generate credible descriptions and sense-making of people’s actions and words that can be seen as applicable” (Kemster & Parry, 2011: pg 106) while the analytical strategies are expected to be “relaxed, flexible and driven by insight gained through interaction with the data...” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008: pg.12).

Kemster and Parry (2011) argue that these analytical strategies move the empirical data to a hierarchy of levels of abstraction. The levels of abstraction are aligned with the philosophical foundation of the critical realist (Kemspter & Parry, 2011). Critical realism is predicated on the assumption that the phenomena exist independent of an individual. Specifically, the realist focuses on describing the general mechanisms that operate in the world that culminate in events that may be observed. Reflecting the critical realist paradigm, we collected data for the current research using multiple methods. Specifically, the current study employs a multi-method approach to discover identity, describe and analyse the impression management strategies and the emotional states and affective reactions of employees that are involved in a crisis event.

Research settings

We simultaneously examined the discussions of crisis in three Australian organizations (A, B, C) that had undergone a crisis in the six months preceding our research. These organizations were chosen as data collection sites. Organization A was a major sporting body that lost several matches in the season and faced a crisis when two of its players were apprehended in separate incidents in a week. Organization B was a media organization where employees experienced an alarming number of a life-threatening disease while Organization C

was an educational institution that faced a crisis after a spate of other life threatening diseases were diagnosed in their employees.

Data

To answer our research questions, and in order to triangulate data, we collected qualitative data from multiple sources. Specifically, for accuracy and validity, we followed McDonald and Härtel (2000) and collected data less than six months after each of the crises discussed in this research. In particular, we conducted a major interview to collect data from one of the three participating organizations and we followed the suggestion of Simola (2005) and Barton (2001) to collect textual data from the remaining two participating organizational websites. We also collected textual data from newspaper articles on all the three organizations studied in this research. It is important to note that the majority for the secondary textual data collected for this research were based on interviews conducted by the media journalists with significant players in the crisis events (e.g. CEOs, board members and workers representatives).

Organization A. We conducted a major semi-structured but in-depth interview with a key informant. This major interview which lasted three hours was audio taped and later transcribed into 9,264 words. Although we made several attempts (letters, phone calls and personal visits) to interview employees in the participating organizations, the remaining two organizations denied our request to interview their employees. One might think that one interview from Organization A is an insufficient quantum of data. However, given the nature of the crisis, and of the reticence to converse that this crisis engenders, getting access to even this one key informant was quite an achievement. Moreover, this one person was a trusted and key informant. This person spoke for a long time, covered much territory, and provided an in-depth assessment of what had been happening. Kempster and Parry (2011) suggest that for qualitative research like the current study, a critical appraisal of events, provided by a trusted informant, is extremely valuable. We suggest the interviewee in Organization A is one such informant. Moreover, because we were

researching the phenomenon of impression management, rather than researching a population, then this one very productive informant is sufficient in this case.

Organization B. We visited Organization B's website regularly for a period of 6 weeks. We collected 25 articles with about 15000 words. Furthermore, we read a 3,761-word document about the crisis in Organization B. In sum, we collected data totaling about 18,761 words from Organization B.

Organizations C. Similarly, in Organization C, we collected 21 short articles of about 11786 words from their website and we visited a blog with 12 postings with another 900 words. Altogether, the data from Organization C's website came to a total of 12,686 words. The articles from the web sites included reports of interview with significant players in the crisis event. Additionally, we read a twelve-page report of an investigation into the crisis in Organization C.

We collected secondary textual data for five major reasons. First, over the last decade, there is an unprecedented expansion in the number of sources of potential secondary data and the ease of gaining access alongside the growth of internet and mobile phones (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2015). These sources store data that may be crucial and useful in providing answers to research questions (Saunders et al., 2015). Second, textual data are known to constitute the most accessible, readily available and unobtrusive method of social research and may provide a more accurate reflection of the construct being studied (Kellehear, 1993). Third, secondary data are also advantageous for time and cost savings. In this respect, secondary datasets (e.g. media) are attractive information sources because of their greater external validity while the overall quality of secondary datasets may be higher and include a more representative sample than primary data (Heafner, Fitchett & Knowles, 2016). Fourth, given that crisis has a potential to have adverse effect on the organization's image, reputation and survival (Coombs, 2012; Kooor-Misra et al., 2000) and based on the experiences of Simola (2005) and Barton (2001), we know that the senior managers of organizations experiencing crisis are usually unwilling to discuss the crisis scenarios

with researchers (see also Sturges, 1994). Fifth, secondary datasets are often de-identified (Smith, 2008) while separating the researcher from the participants and respondents. This is advantageous for the researcher seeking to minimize social desirability bias often present in primary data (Heafner et al., 2016) while such data are more open to public scrutiny (Sunders et al., 2015) and may increase the validity of the research findings.

Based on the above and given that in the context of organizational crisis, textual data may provide a more accurate reflection of the construct being studied (Barton, 2001; Kellehear, 1993), we followed the method adopted by Simola (2005) and Barton (2001), that is, to collect textual data from newspapers and relevant organizational websites. We have established that the data sourced from newspapers articles were written by journalists who had themselves interviewed relevant legitimate individuals who were qualified to comment on the crisis events currently under discussion. In addition, the organizations involved in the crises set up different websites to discuss the crises and to tell the public what the organizations were doing to manage each of the crises. Overall, we expect that data collected from these sources should improve the accuracy and validity of our results (Taylor & Bogdan, 1998).

Data Analytical Strategies

We employed multiple strategies (or lenses) to analyze our data. For example, we used both thematic and content analysis to reinforce each other and in so doing strengthened the theoretical validity (Yin, 2003) of our results.

Thematic analysis. For the thematic analysis, two coders who were familiar with Benoit's 1995 strategies but blind to the aims of the research went through the transcripts and identified the characteristics of the impression management strategies employed (cf. Van De Vliert et al., 1999). Inter-coder agreement on emerging themes was 80%.

Content analysis. We also employed content analysis to analyze our data for theory emergence. Content analysis is a research method that uses a set of procedures to make valid

inferences from text (Lee & Peterson, 1997; Riaz, Buchanan & Bapuji, 2011). As a research tool, content analysis is used to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within texts, helping researchers to quantify and analyze the presence, meanings and relationships of such words and concepts. Content analysis focuses on concepts rather than simply words, and on semantic relationships, helping the researcher to examine the semantic content in the textual data (Berelson, 1971; Kellehear, 1993; Lee, 2000). This allows the researcher to develop an in-depth understanding and to derive meanings about the messages within the texts, providing a window on a particular organizational phenomenon (Berelson, 1971; Cooper & Schindler, 2003; Harris, 2001).

Also in content analysis, written documents are examined and an objective analysis of messages is accomplished by means of explicit rules (Harris, 2001). These rules, which are determined by the researcher, are used to classify the signs occurring within the text into a set of appropriate categories (Cooper & Schindler, 2003; Harris, 2001). Although there is no universal way in doing this, we employed the following steps: (a) identifying the research questions and constructs and (b) specifying the unit of analysis and determining the various categories that are to be used in the analysis (Harris, 2001; Lee, 2000). To achieve this, Kellehear (1993) suggest that the researcher looks at the frequency of the words appearing throughout the text while Lee (2000) argues that the frequency of the words appearing throughout the interview is a reflection of their salience in the text. However, it is also important to look at the context in which the words are used (Kellehear, 1993). Kellehear (1993) also recommends that in content analysis the researcher should develop various categories prior to searching for them in the data. We followed Kellehear (1993)'s recommendation in coding the data for the present research.

Specifically, for the content analysis, we developed the coding categories in four stages. First, we examined the frequencies of the word appearing in the data (Kellehear, 1993) to

develop categories prior to searching for them in the data. Secondly, we pre-determined the categories (see Krippendorf, 2004) of basic emotions as used by Shaver and colleagues. Again, two coders who were blind to the aim of the research but exposed to Shaver et al., 1987 emotional categories developed the coding frames for data analysis. Coding frames experienced three reiterations. Inter-rater reliability was 90%. Thirdly, we employed Leximancer software to generate codes directly from the data (Smith & Humphreys, 2006). Studies employing Leximancer as content analytical tool is on the increase (see Chen & Bouvain, 2009; Dann, 2010).

Leximancer is a computer-assisted, content analytical tool that follows the conventions of content analysis by codifying text into various groups or categories depending on selected criteria (Krippendorf, 2004). Leximancer also provides the researcher with a good overview of the data as it ceaselessly extracts out the main concepts within the data, providing a conceptual map to illustrate the relationships between various themes and concepts (Leximancer nd.). This allows the researcher to visualize the emerging frequencies of thematic distributions and key words within the data (Smith & Humphreys, 2006).

Moreover, Leximancer provides the researcher the flexibility of changing parameter and thematic settings, allowing the researcher to customize the concepts that are to be extracted according to the individual's field of study (Smith & Humphreys, 2006) and propositions developed apriori to the research. This is useful in identifying the themes that are crucial in understanding the research phenomenon and leaving out themes that are unnecessary and redundant in studying this research phenomenon (Krippendorf, 2004). Finally, Leximancer subjects the research to a more rigorous and objective computer-assisted analysis, overcoming the researcher's biasness towards the organizations as Leximancer limits the human element in its data analysis and results (Smith & Humphreys, 2006). Overall, we set apriori the categories/concepts that were important to answer the research questions. Then, we used the user-defined

features of Leximancer to extract coding frames. The overlap between raters' and Leximancer's coding frames was 85%. Finally, we manually fed (hand-seeded) the coding frames of emotional categories into Leximancer. In the current research, we engaged Leximancer as an analytical method of comparison to confirm or disconfirm the manual content and thematic analysis that is conducted (Krippendorf, 2004).

Trope analysis. Finally and still aligned with our aim to engage data using multiple lenses, we borrowed from organizational trope literature (e.g. Oswick, Keenoy & Grant, 2002) and use the metaphor of paradox/irony as a lens to analyze our data. In so doing, we expect to have a deeper understanding of the management of employees during organizational crisis. Tropes are figures of speech (e.g. metaphors, irony/paradox) in which a word is used in a sense other than the conventional one for which it is intended (Cameron, 1986; Gibbs, 1993). Oswick and colleagues (2002) makes no distinction between irony and paradox (Hoyle & Wallace 2008). Both are categorized as one trope that works on the bases of dissimilarity and are based on apparent juxtaposition of opposites (Brown, 1997: 174). It involves the use of the inappropriate in order to describe something in a paradoxical and /or contradictory way. According to Hoyles and Wallace (2008) both irony and paradox occur when two ostensible contraries co-exist with a potential to hold two opposing positions concurrently. Both of these constructs assist us to interrogate our data beyond the superficial to liberate our conventional wisdom on the management of employees during crisis.

Results

Research question (RQ) 1: What impression management strategies do senior managers use in managing employees during a crisis? We employed thematic analysis to answer RQ1. Results revealed the following themes:

Evading Responsibility. Analysis of the textual data showed that managers in Organizations B and C attempted to evade responsibility for the crisis event by using the strategy of

'defeasibility'. For example, managers in both Organizations B and C claimed that because the previous investigations showed no link between location and the cluster of the life-threatening diseases, employees cannot be relocated.

Reducing offensiveness of the crisis. We have found this to be one strategy employed by managers to manage employees during a crisis. For example, senior managers in Organization A attempted to reduce the offensiveness of the crisis by shifting the focus of the stakeholders from the misbehavior of players to the organization's act of sacking the players. Also, a key informant reported that:

"... Organization A is an integral part of the fabric of the X community and we do all that we can to fulfill our role within the community. At Organization A, we set high standards and we expect those standards to be met. For that, I do not apologize. We have a duty to demonstrate to our players, our staff, our corporate partners and our fans that we will not stand for unacceptable behavior."

Additionally, senior managers in Organization C reduced offensiveness by using "bolstering" strategy (Benoit, 2004) to increase stakeholders' positive feeling to offset the negative effect of the crisis. In this regard, Organization C established a website which stressed the positive and immediate steps the senior management took to manage the crisis such as closing the 'affected' floor, allowing employees to work from home- all to reiterate Organization C's senior management's focus on protecting their employees (internal stakeholders). The senior managers of Organizations B and C offered to compensate victims and other employees with free counselling and medical check-up. These efforts were used to reduce the animosity and offensiveness of the crisis.

Corrective Actions. Another strategy appears to be to take corrective action. We found through the textual analysis that all three organizations responded to the respective crises by taking corrective actions. Organization A responded by sacking the two players while Organizations B and C conducted two rounds of investigations each to uncover the cause for the cluster of diseases presented in their employees. Organization C demonstrated corrective action

by showing concerns about the health and safety of their staff noting that this was their “*first priority and will therefore leave no stone unturned in investigating the causes if there are any common causes behind these cases*” (Report of the Health Investigation). Overall, although the senior managers in the organizations avoided the use of strategies of denial and apology (mortification) in managing the crises, nevertheless, they employed the strategies of evading responsibility, reduction of the seriousness of the crisis and corrective actions to restore their organizations’ image after the crisis.

Research question (RQ) 2: What are the employees’ perceptions about the impression management strategies used by senior managers to manage them during organization crisis? Given Benoit’s (2004) assertion that the effectiveness of crisis management depend on the audience’s perception, Organization B’s strategy of reducing offensiveness appeared to be inappropriate. Organization B adopted ‘corrective actions’ during the crisis (e.g. offering compensation, free counselling service to staff) while announcing the formation of another independent investigation of the crisis. However, based on the reactions of the employees, these strategies worsened the crisis situation and invoked more negative emotional responses from the employees. Thus, while the employees welcomed “*the comprehensive investigation that organization B is proposing*”, they were “*disappointed that it has not committed to relocating its operations*” (Thematic analysis of texts from Organization B website).

Corroborating the above finding, text analysis from newspaper report also revealed that Organization B refused on three occasions to meet employees to discuss relocation plans. The use of this impression management strategy resulted in employees taking extreme measures such as holding a one-hour stop-work meeting and seeking legal action to force senior management to meet them to discuss the relocation of the studio operations.

In contrast, Organization C evacuated employees from affected floors and allowed employees to work from home until the investigations were completed. While employees in

Organization C reacted favorably to the impression management strategies targeted towards them, the employees in Organization B reacted negatively and collectively planned to cause disruption to organizational activities. Altogether, employees' perceptions about the impact of strategies used to manage them during organizational crisis vary from one organization to another. Similarly, the result demonstrates that employees' judgment of a given strategy as inappropriate has the capability to evoke organizational strikes. For example, on the one hand, reducing offensiveness and corrective actions (which did not permit evacuation of staff from the crisis location) were perceived as inappropriate and were negatively perceived by employees. On the other hand, the senior managers' strategy of evacuating employees from affected floors and allowing employees to work from home until the investigations were completed were more favorably perceived by the employees.

Research questions 3 and 4: What are the emotional states of the employees during a crisis and what are the employees' emotional reactions to the senior managers' strategies to manage employees' impression during a crisis? To answer research questions 3 and 4, we employed thematic and content (Leximancer) analytical strategies to analyze interview and textual data. For example, for the content analysis, we employed Shaver et al., 1987's basic emotions categories to assist us in developing the coding categories and to organize the employees' emotional states/reactions that emerged (See Table 1). The analysis revealed all the basic categories of emotions as identified by Shaver and colleagues (1987). These categories were captured by a variety of words such as "frustrating", "horrible" for anger and "scare", "alarming", "nervous" for fear, "shocked" and disbelief" for surprise, "love" for love and "exciting", "wonderful" and "happy" for joy.

Table 2 presents the emotional concepts (e.g. shame, depression, desperate, shocked) that represent the emotional state and reactions of employees in Organization A. Also, the thematic analysis of data from Organization A revealed that the players in Organization A were angry but

ironically, their anger seemed to spur them to a good match immediately after the crisis. These findings from content and thematic analyses suggest that employees from Organization A experienced emotional states of desperation, frustration, and shame. Also based on emotional words such as *shock*, we can infer that they also experienced surprise. Content analysis revealed that the players reacted to Organizational A's impression management strategy with *shock*. This was corroborated by the results from a thematic analysis on Organization A:

"... We're all a bit stunned and shocked by what's happened but we're all trying to get our heads around a very big game on Sunday."

INSERT TABLES 1 and 2 ABOUT HERE

Content analysis revealed the most frequently used emotional words in Organization B (see Table 3). Results showed that employees from Organization B were mostly scared since the word "scare" had a relative count of 36.5%. Similarly, they were also concerned (27.8%) and fearful (9.6%). Overall, given that scare and fear are connected, we can deduce that fear was a dominant emotion felt by employees from organization B. The issue of fear was corroborated by the results of our thematic analysis. Specifically, results of the thematic analysis suggest that employees in Organization B had *fear*. One victim of the disease described her state of fear and disbelief:

"You wake up in the morning and the first thing you think is, 'Oh my God, I've got XXX' (names the disease). There's that disbelief that goes along with it. And the fear that is so real, you can almost taste it. It stays with you"

Also thematic analysis suggested that employees' collective reaction to crisis was *anger*. Employees' collective emotions of anger were revealed when the employees contemplated strike action, legal action and demanded their office be relocated.

INSERT TABLE 3 ABOUT HERE

For Organization B, content analysis indicated that employees' most frequently used words as a reaction to Organization B's impression management strategies include *amazement* (10%), *horrible* (11%), *uncertainty* (12%), *disappointment* (10%) and *devastation* (11%). Data also revealed that senior managers managed the crisis by discussing the main concerns with staff, meeting with media and hiring experts on the disease to investigate the organization's physical site and determining if there was a link between environment and the disease. Managers also arranged for free medical check-up and free counselling for staff while they released findings from previous investigations about the possible cause of the cluster of the disease. However, results of the thematic analysis showed employees' reactions to the above impression management strategies were mixed. For example, some employees reacted positively and noted "*it's reassuring to know that something will be done about it*" but others threatened to go on strike. These reactions suggest anger, frustration and disappointment with the organization's management of the crisis. Overall, there was a general negativity about the impression management strategies as revealed by a representative employee:

"I was disappointed with the SGovt investigation and would have liked more testing to have been done... they never tested the air, the soil or water..."

Similarly, thematic analysis of the textual data from Organization C revealed that internal stakeholders (the employees) in Organization C were *scared* of the crisis and the way the crisis was managed. An informant thought "*It's spooky; everyone is a little shaken...*". Table 4 presents the most frequent emotional concepts that emerged from Organization C's data using Leximancer and on the top of the list were 'disturbing', 'mystified', 'concerned', 'nervousness' and 'sacred'. In terms of the way the crisis was managed, employees in Organization C were also *shocked* to find out that their organization was previously aware of similar problems in the past but did not make it public to them.

INSERT TABLE 4 ABOUT HERE

Like Organization B, Organization C also employed impression management strategies such as closing the affected floor of the building, allowing staff to work from home, calling for another review of the worksite to check for any potential medical threats and provided free health checks, counselling, mailed all staff and opened help lines to answer questions from employees, students and their parents. Thematic analysis of transcripts of data from Organization C's website indicated that the employees' reactions were also varied. Some employees reacted negatively to the impression management strategies. Specifically, they were frustrated that no conclusive evidence emerged from the investigations. According to the respondents, this management strategy bears similarity to the "*.... asbestos... the safety standards don't address prolonged exposure; they only test immediate effects. What happens if you spend 10-15 years in a room with elevated levels?*" Overall, evidence from Organizations A, B and C indicates that employees' reactions to their senior managers' impression management strategies were predominantly negative.

Evidence of collective emotional reactions

Given that organizational crises affect most organizational groups; our data revealed that beyond impression management, there were instances of collective/group emotions. For example, content and thematic analyses revealed that the players reacted to Organizational A's impression management strategy with collective shock, "*we are all a bit stunned and shocked by what's happened but we're all trying to get our heads around a very big game on Sunday.*". Similarly, the thematic analysis revealed that anger was felt collectively and seemed to have spurred the players in Organisation A to play better immediately after the crisis event. For example, the key informant of organisation A indicated that even though the organization was in crisis, the players performed their best in the games during the following weekend:

“the team played its best, in two months after that... but I think the incident made everyone sit up and take notice and everyone was hurting, I mean and the players and everyone had to pull their head in a bit...”(Interviewee-Key Informant).

Corroborating the above, another player described how the intensity of the following training sessions (a collective behaviour) was at an all-time high after the incidents. These collective thoughts were also reflected in many media interviews with a representative but senior player who described the incident as below:

“This incident made us draw a line in the sand in the lead up to that game and it proved a defining moment in the season.” (Media Report).

Likewise in the interview, when asked about his emotional state with regards to the crisis, the key informant in organization A stated, *“... at this point in time you’ll feel a bit sad that you’ve probably let yourself down and you’ve let the club down, because you’ve failed to achieve what you wanted to achieve.”*(Interviewee 1: Key informant). This statement is consistent with what the key informant’s interview as reported by the media where he also admitted that the decision to sack the players triggered a collective emotional state of sadness for the club: *"This is a very sad day for this great club and the decision we have made was not taken lightly"* (News Media Interview Report).

Thematic analysis of data from Organization B also revealed evidence of collective or group based emotional reactions (i.e. disappointment and shock) to the crisis in this organization. For example, speaking on behalf of the employees in organisation B, a staff representative stated:

“...we are disappointed that Org B has not committed to relocating its operations....the failure of management to commit to relocation of the site is a betrayal of the employees

trust in management to guarantee a safe and healthy work environment”

(Representative Staff , Organization B)

Similarly, in organisation C, content analysis revealed that employees and students were both individually and collectively ‘*scared*’, ‘*shaken*’ and ‘*nervous*’ as revealed below: “*I think everybody's pretty scared ...*” (Newspaper report). Another employee mentioned “*It's spooky, everyone is a little shaken... I think it will freak out full-time students, especially if they have been here a long time*” (News Media Interview Report). The above suggests that the crisis triggered emotions felt both in the individual and collective sense.

Emerging Contradictions. In order to get a further understanding of the phenomenon under study, we wanted to know more about the dialogue between management and employees during crisis. To do this, we examined the paradoxes and ironies that emerged as the senior managers navigated the management of crisis with their employees and two major contradictions emerged. *The contradiction or tension between maintaining and compromising standard.* In Organization A, the senior managers claimed that the players were sacked to maintain a standard and to let the other players know that certain misbehaviors would “*harm the organizational reputation*” and should not be tolerated in the team. However, it is paradoxical that the same players that were sacked by Organization A were to receive some large benefits at the end of the season. Also, it was ironic that the sacked players were quickly absorbed by organizations in the same industry.

Besides, data revealed that there were several incidents that occurred prior to the sacking of the players. For example, the players have lost many games in the preceding seasons and have been “*heavily criticized for their three match losing streak*”. Similarly, there were external pressures to satisfy the players’ sponsors as revealed by a key informant in Organization A:

We are not benchmarks or heroes, we just want to make sure that the message gets across to our guys...the penny will drop one day, we have got a number of sponsorships we service which we take seriously... I would not like to be taken the wrong way but for \$300,000 a year for 3 years and the iconic brand of (names Organization A’s jersey) and the high profile players we provide to deliver their message is a good deal... ”.

Altogether, it is paradoxical that the sacking of the players is most likely related to the need to satisfy the sponsors rather than the need to satisfy the community and maintain a standard as previously claimed by senior managers who noted that “...*We have a duty to demonstrate to our players, our staff, our corporate partners and our fans that we will not stand for unacceptable behavior.*”

The contradictions between what managers want and employees desire in managing organizational crisis (Organizations B and C). The relocation of staff was a major issue in the crisis that emerged in both Organizations B and C. In Organization B for example, employees wanted to be relocated to a different building as a way of managing the crisis but senior managers took a different approach. Rather than being relocated, the senior managers decided to carry out investigations as to why there were a spate of the disease in the first instance. This approach further aggravated the employees as indicated by one staff representative (see opening vignette).

Similarly, the employees were frustrated and lost faith in the senior management's plans to investigate the causes of the crisis:

“...It may be well there is an answer and that we are just unlucky... but as a journalist... you think what is going on?, when only 5% of the population under 40 has <mentions disease>anyway, the numbers just don't stack up...but as many experts will attest, one of the frustrations associated with investigating this and other apparent <names the disease> clusters is that proving anything either way can sometimes be very difficult indeed... some are easier to assess than others.... The initial findings have done little to dampen staff concern.... I was disappointed with XX investigations and would have liked more testing to be done... we gave them a list of what to potentially test for including PCBs but they said 'we don't know what to test/look for, so we are not going to look' that just don't make sense...”

Furthermore, employees in Organizational C were skeptical about the investigations to the diseases as a means of managing the crisis. A representative employee expressed an expectation that Australian Radiation Protection and Nuclear Safety Agency would be asked to visit the site, take readings and decide whether or not levels were safe. The above suggest

skepticism of the employees about the way the organization attempted to manage their impressions during crisis.

Discussion

The development of a conceptual model of relationship between organizational crisis, impression management strategies, employees's emotions and outcomes.

Based on the above findings, we make a significant theoretical contribution by proposing a conceptual framework of the impact of crisis and impression management strategies on employees' emotional states, reactions and behaviors. In particular, we propose that an organizational crisis will lead senior managers to employ a variety of impression management strategies to restore its organizational image with internal stakeholders - the employees. Given affective event theory (AET, Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and the theory of collective emotions (Jarymowicz & Bar-Tak, 2006; von Scheve & Ismer, 2013), we anticipate that an organizational crisis will trigger some affectivity in the employees (individual and collective). We also expect that the impression management strategies employed by the organization will have a potential to elicit employees' individual and collective emotions. The emotional states that the employees experience and their emotional reactions (e.g. individual and collective) to both the crisis and the impression management will culminate in emotionally-driven behaviors such as turnover (or turnover intention) and an altered state of trust towards the organization. In the following section, we discuss our results and the aspects of the model in greater details (See Figure 1)

INSERT FIG 1 HERE

We have established that given organizational crisis, organizations will make an attempt to repair their image by employing some impression management strategies (Mohamed &

Gardner, 2004). Our results support prior findings in this area. Our research confirms that the three organizations studied employed some impression management strategies directed towards the internal stakeholders (employees) to ameliorate the pejorative consequences of the crisis on their image. Specifically, our results revealed that the participating organizations employed the strategies of *evading responsibility*, *reduction of the seriousness of the crisis* and *corrective actions* to restore their organizations' image after the crisis. Thus, we build a conceptual model (see Fig. 1) that depicts organizational crisis as leading to impression management strategies and we propose that organizations that experience crisis will employ some strategies to manage the impression of their employees about the crisis:

Proposition 1: In a crisis, senior managers will employ strategies of denial, evasion of responsibility, reducing crisis and corrective action to manage the impressions of their employees about the crisis.

Furthermore, our findings suggest that the employees (i.e. individual and collective) experienced emotional states of *anger*, *fear*, *surprise* and *sadness* following an organizational crisis. This further confirms Shaver and colleagues' categories of basic emotions. Results also revealed that the majority of the emotional reactions to the crisis from the studied organizations were negative and included frustration, disappointment, confusion, shock and surprise. These findings support Weiss and Cropanzano (1996)'s AET that proposes that workplace endogenous factors (e.g. organizational crisis) produce emotions (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996).

Our findings also support the theory of collective emotions. We found that the crisis in the organizations studied evoked not only individual but collective emotions and emotional reactions. These results suggest that group emotions were felt by individuals on behalf of a social collective (i.e. organizational employees) (Smith, 1993). Parkinson and colleagues (2005) argue that collective emotions may be triggered by an exposure to the same eliciting crisis events, regular interactions with other group members and the reiteration of each other's appraisals

(Parkinson et al., 2005). Employees' regular interaction and the reiteration of each other's appraisal of the crisis may have spurred collective emotions. Based on our findings, we argue that organizational crisis will lead to employees' (i.e. individual and collective) negative emotions after a crisis. Therefore, we propose that:

Proposition 2: Organizational crisis will elicit negative emotional reactions from employees (individual and collective).

Our results further indicate that some impression management strategies elicited positive emotions (e.g., amazement) in some employees (individual and collective) while others elicited negative emotions (e.g., sadness). A further examination of our data revealed that the employees who reacted positively to impression management strategies were not direct victims of the crisis. There is a possibility that employees' reactions to manager's impression management strategies may be dependent on how much they have been personally affected by the crisis. For example, research into the area of organizational trauma also suggests that the degree of exposure to strain is a key factor (Norris, Perilla, Riad, Kaniasty & Lavizzo, 1999) in the extent of trauma experienced by individuals. For example, in a study of the Oklahoma bombing disaster, those who were more closely connected to the disaster experienced greater symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (Tucker, Pfefferbaum, Nixon & Dickson, 2000).

Furthermore, our results revealed that some strategies produced positive reactions in employees in one organization but negative reactions in another organization. Although our finding corroborates the findings of Benoit (2004) and Hooghiemstra (2000) that the use of various impression management strategies can invoke different emotional reactions, it also suggests that context may be a key driver of how employees perceive and react to organizational crisis. In addition, Benoit (2004) suggests that the successful use of impression management strategies during crisis may also depend on the stakeholders' perceptions of the organization's application of the strategy. Based on the fore-going discussion and our results, we propose that:

Proposition 3a: Employees' emotional state and reactions (individual and collective) to a crisis will depend partly on the types of impression management strategies employed by the senior managers and the organizational context in which the crisis is located.

Proposition 3b: Employees' emotional state and reactions (individual and collective) to a crisis will depend partly on the employees (individual and collective)'s perceptions of the appropriateness of the impression management strategies used by senior managers during the crisis.

Proposition 3c: Employees' emotional state and reactions (individual and collective) to a crisis will depend partly on the extent of employees' proximity to the crisis.

The workplace environment influences employees' thoughts, feelings and actions (Brief & Weiss, 2002). Similarly, employees' (*e.g. individual and collective*) thoughts and feelings and actions impact the organizations in which they work (Brief & Weiss, 2002). For example, we know that negative emotional states make people aware that their current situation is problematic and this awareness motivates them to take action (Clore, Schwarz & Conway, 1994). Such actions include turnover and withdrawal. While turnover has the capacity to purge the organization of employees who are unproductive and disruptive (Dalton & Todor, 1993), turnover also has a potential to trigger employee withdrawals (absenteeism and turnover) that are toxic and costly for organizations (see Martocchio, 1992).

Prior literature also suggests that the downsizing and change (*e.g. that may result from organizational crisis*) deeply affect how the survivors feel toward the organization (Brockner, Tyler & Cooper-Schneider, 1992). Further, research shows that stressors are associated with absenteeism (Bryon & Peterson, 2002). In this case, our results showed that employees threatened a strike action that may eventually lead to turnover or turnover intentions. Based on our findings and the literature in this area, we argue that when impression management of an organizational crisis does not elicit positive emotional reactions from the employees (individual

and collective), there is a high likelihood that the employees will perceive the organization as not committed to them. This perception may reduce employees' willingness to remain with the organization (see also Niehoff, Moorman, Blakely & Fuller, 2001) and become less attached. We know that a reduction in organizational attachment is a powerful driver of voluntary turnover (Mitchell & Lee, 2001). Based on the above, we argue that employees' (individual and collective) negative emotions will trigger employee withdrawal (turnover and absenteeism) after an organizational crisis. Therefore, we propose that:

Proposition 4a: Employees' negative emotional reactions (individual and collective) to impression management after organizational crisis will be positively related to employee withdrawal such as turnover and absenteeism.

Additionally, emotional events in the workplace can have important attitudinal and behavioral consequences (Weiss, 2002). Similarly, the collective memory of a significant crisis event (e.g. conflict) may trigger a collective emotional orientation (Bar-Tal, 2001) or emotional climate (George, 1990). Moreover, the consequences of emotional events at work may include a "tyranny of distance" (McCabe, 2015) between the employees and senior managers, and decreased employees' trust and affective commitment (See Buono & Bowditch, 1989). We concur with Shockley-Zalabak, Ellis & Winograd (2000) that workplace trust be defined as the positive expectations that individuals have about the intent and behaviors of multiple organizational members based on organizational roles, relationships, experiences and interdependencies. We are also aware that trust is socially constructed and created between parties to produce greater predictability (Atkinson & Butcher, 2003). Given AET and CEs theories, we anticipate that employees' emotional reactions to discrete, affective events such as organizational crisis may have an impact on the existing, constructed trust between employees and their organization. Thus, a negative emotional reaction may jeopardize the existing trust

between employees and their organizations while positive emotional reactions may strengthen the trust between employees and organization.

Furthermore, affective reactions such as anger and disappointment (e.g., induced by crisis) influence how people (individual and collective) evaluate their feelings for, attachment to and trust in others (Jones & George, 1998). Williams (2001) also reports that people who experience negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, contempt and disgust) may also be less motivated to trust others. Given the above and also based on our findings, we argue that negative emotions will negatively impact employees' trust in the organization. Consequently, we propose that:

Proposition 4b: Employees' negative emotional reactions (individual and collective) to the organizational crisis will be associated with decreased employees' trust in the organization.

Finally, we have established that organizational crisis and impression management will elicit emotional states and emotional reactions in the employees. We have also discussed the relationship between employees' emotional reactions (individual and collective) and outcomes of turnover, absenteeism and trust in the organization. In addition, given that employees' feelings and emotions drive both their attitudes and behaviors (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), we anticipate that the employees' attitude and behaviors after crisis will be largely driven by their emotional states and reactions such that the more negative emotions that employees experience as the result of a crisis, the greater the turnover, absenteeism and decrease in trust in organization.

Consequently, we propose that:

Proposition 5: Both employees' negative emotional reactions (individual and collective) to organizational crisis and impression management will mediate the relationship between organizational crisis and impression management strategies and employees' turnover, trust in the organization and organizational aggression behaviors

Theoretical and Practical Implications

Altogether, our study makes five key theoretical contributions. First, by examining the emotional states and reactions of internal (rather than external) stakeholders to organizational crisis, we extend the literature in the area of organizational crisis and crisis management. Second we build on the work of Mitroff (2005) and employ multiple paradigmatic lenses to examine contradictions and tensions in crisis while extending impression management literature by examining the employees' emotional states and reactions to the impression management strategies employed by their senior managers during crisis. Third, our research findings support the robustness of AET and CEs in studying employees' individual and collective emotional reactions to a crisis event. Fourth, by developing a conceptual model of the relationship between organizational crisis, impression management strategies, employee emotional reactions and outcomes, we do not only extend the theoretical frontiers of the crisis literature but also deepen the insight into the intersection between crisis and employees reactions. The testable propositions in our model have a potential to open up new pathways for studying organizational crisis.

Our findings also have several practical implications. Based on our results, we know that inappropriate impression management strategies may worsen employees' (individual and collective) emotional states and reactions during crisis; therefore it is imperative for managers to have skills in identifying key employees' emotional states and reactions to crisis and the impression management strategies appropriate in managing them. A training that sharpens managers' emotional intelligence will be helpful in managing the emotions of employees (individual and collective) during crisis. Also, our results indicate paradoxes/ironies in the way senior managers managed their employees during crisis, senior managers' words and behaviors during crisis need to be synchronized to engender employee's trust while the managers' strategies for managing employees need to be aligned with employees' expectations for effective crisis management. Additionally, our findings have implications for pre-crisis planning. Pre-

crisis planning should include specific guidelines on how to identify and manage employees' individual and collective emotions during crisis.

Given the reluctance of organizations to volunteer information during crisis, we collected interview data from only one key informant but a large textual data from newspapers and relevant organizational web sites. This is a limitation of the study. However, the textual data were based on actual interviews with important stakeholders who were involved in the crisis, including the victims (Lee, 2000; Kellehear, 1993). Therefore, our textual data have more than compensated for the reported limitation and have a strong potential to produce valid results as demonstrated in the current research. Additionally, given that we studied employees' emotions and emotional reactions during a sudden event like crisis, we were not able to compare employees' pre-crisis, crisis and post-crisis emotions. Future research should engage in a longitudinal study of employees' emotions during the different stages of an organizational crisis. Finally, for purposes of generalization, we believe that our conceptual model in the present study should pave the way for future research to use quantitative approaches to further explicate the relationship between organizational crisis impression management and employees (individual and collective) emotions.

Conclusion

Using affective events theory (AET) and the theory of collective emotions, the present study examined the emotional states and reactions of employees during an organizational crisis. As far as we are aware, this is one of the first few attempts to examine employees' individual and collective emotions to crisis and impression management strategies during crisis. Our study has further illuminated the process of managing organizational crisis beyond Benoit's strategies to include employee counselling, compensations and the choice of working from home. Examining the data with multiple analytical lenses as employed by the current research has allowed insight into more categories of emotional states during crisis such as fear, sadness and surprise.

Moreover, we have additional insights into the need to align both employees (individual and collective) and management impression management strategies for effective crisis management. A dominant theme in our study is that the employees' emotional reactions (individual and collective) to crisis and the impression management strategies are mostly negative. We theorize that if unmanaged, these negative emotions may in the short term lead employees to strikes and litigation and in the long term to employee turnover, absenteeism and decreased trust in the organization. Overall, our research has extended theory and practice on crisis, emotions and impression management.

REFERENCES

- Atkinson, S. and Butcher, D. (2003), "Trust in managerial relationships", *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 18 No. 4, pp. 282-304. DOI: 10.1108/02683940310473064.
- Bar-Tal, D. (2001), "Why Does Fear Override Hope in Societies Engulfed by Intractable Conflict, as It Does in the Israeli Society?" *Political Psychology*, Vol. 22, No. 3, pp. 601-627.
- Bar-Tal, D., Halperin, E. & de Rivera, J. (2007), "Collective emotions in conflict situations: societal implications", *Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. 63, No. 2, pp. 441-460.
- Barton, L. (2001), *Crisis in organizations II* (2nd Ed.), South-Western College Publishing, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- Benoit, L.M. (1995), *Accounts, excuses and apologies: A theory of image restoration*, State University of New York Press, Albany.
- Benoit, W.L. (1997), "Image repair discourse and crisis communication", *Public Relations Review*, Vol. 23 No. 2, pp. 177-186. DOI: 10.1016/S0363-8111(97)90023-0.
- Benoit, W.L. (2000), "Another visit to the theory of image restoration strategies", *Communication Quarterly*, Vol. 48, pp. 40-43. DOI: 10.1080/01463370009385578.
- Benoit, L.M. (2004), "Image restoration discourse and crisis communication" in Millar, D.P. and Heath, R.L. (Eds) *Responding to a crisis: A Rhetorical approach to Crisis Communications*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey, pp. 263-280.
- Benoit, W.L. and Brinson, S.L. (1999), "Queen Elizabeth's image repair discourse: Insensitive royal or compassionate queen?", *Public Relations Review*, Vol. 25 No. 2, pp. 45-160. DOI: 10.1016/S0363-8111(99)80159-3.
- Brockner, J., Tyler, T.R. and Cooper-Schneider, R. (1992), "The influence of prior commitment on reactions to perceived unfairness: the higher they are, the higher they fall", *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 37, pp. 241-261. DOI: 10.2307/2393223.

Brief, A.P. and Weiss, H.M. (2002), "Organizational Behavior: Affect in the workplace", *Annual Review of Psychology*, Vol. 53, pp. 279-307. DOI: 10.1146/annurev.psych.53.100901.135156.

Brown, R.H. (1997), *A poetic for sociology*, Cambridge University Press, New York.

Bryon, K. and Peterson, S. (2002), "The impact of a large-scale traumatic event on individual and organizational outcomes: Exploring employees and company reactions to September 11, 2001", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 23, pp. 895-910. DOI: 10.1002/job.176.

Buono, A. and Bowditch, J. (1989), *The human side of mergers and acquisitions*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Borda, J. L. and Mackey-Kallis, S. (2004), "A model for crisis management", in Millar, D.P. and Heath, R.L. (Eds) *Responding to a crisis: A Rhetorical approach to Crisis Communication*, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, New Jersey, pp. 117-138.

Burson, H. (1985), "Damage control in a crisis", *Management Review*, Vol. 74, pp. 42-45.

Cameron, K.S. (1986), "Effectiveness as a paradox: Consensus and conflict in conception of organizational effectiveness", *Management Science*, Vol. 32 No. 5, pp. 539-553. DOI: 10.1287/mnsc.32.5.539.

Charmaz, K. (2000), "Grounded theory and methodology: Objectivist and constructivist methods", In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of Qualitative Research* (2nd ed.). London: Sage.

Charmaz, K. (2006), "Measuring pursuits, marking self: Meaning construction in chronic illness", *International Journal of Qualitative Health and Well-Being*, Vol 1, No 1, 27-37.

Chen, S. and Bouvain, P. (2009), "Is Corporate Responsibility Converging? A Comparison of Corporate Responsibility Reporting in the USA, UK, Australia, and Germany", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 87 No. 1, pp. 299-317. DOI: 10.1007/s10551-008-9794-0.

Clore, G.L., Schwarz, N. and Conway, M. (1994), "Affective causes and consequences of social information processing", in Wyer, R.S. Jr. and Srull, T.K. (Eds) *Handbook of Social Cognition*, Vol 1, Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, NJ, pp. 323-418.

Coombs, W.T. (1999), *Ongoing crisis communications*, Sage Publications, London.

Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. L. (2008). *Basics of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dalton, D.R. and Todor, W.D. (1993), "Turnover, transfer, absenteeism: An independent perspective", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 19 No. 2, pp. 193-219. DOI: 10.1177/014920639301900202.

Dann, S. (2010), "Redefining social marketing with contemporary commercial marketing definitions", *Journal of Business Research*, Vol. 63, pp. 147-153.

- Fink, S. (1986), *Crisis management: Planning for the inevitable*, AMACOM, New York.
- Fishman, D.A. (1999), "ValuJet Flight 592: Crisis communication theory blended and extended", *Communication Quarterly*, Vol. 47 No. 4, pp. 345–375. DOI: 10.1080/01463379909385567.
- George, J. M. (1990), "Personality, affect, and behavior in groups". *Journal of applied psychology*, vol 75, No 2, 107-116.
- Gibbs, R.W. (1993), "Process and Products in making sense of tropes," In Ortony, A. (Ed) *Metaphor and thought* (2nd ed), Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 252-276.
- Hargie, O., Stapleton, K. and Tourish, D. (2010), "Interpretations of CEO public apologies for the banking crisis: attributions of blame and avoidance of responsibility", *Organization*, Vol. 17 No. 6, pp. 721–742. DOI: 10.1177/1350508410367840.
- Heafner, TY.L. Fitchett, P.G. & Knowles, R.T. (2016), "Using Big Data, Large-Scale Studies, Secondary Datasets, and Secondary Data Analysis as Tools to Inform Social Studies Teaching and Learning", In A.R. Crowe, A. Cuenca (eds.), *Rethinking Social Studies Teacher Education in the Twenty-First Century*, Springer International Publishing Switzerland, pp. 359-383. DOI 10.1007/978-3-319-22939-3_19
- Hoyle, E. and Wallace, M. (2008), "Two Faces of Organizational Irony: Endemic and Pragmatic", *Organization Studies*, Vol. 29 No. 11, pp. 1427–1447. DOI: 10.1177/0170840607096383.
- Hooghiemstra, R. (2000), "Corporate communication and impression management – New perspectives why companies engage in corporate social reporting", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 27, pp. 55-68. DOI: 10.1023/A:1006400707757.
- Izard, C.E. (1992), "Basic emotions, relations among emotions, and emotion-cognition relations", *Psychological Review*, Vol. 99, pp. 561-565. DOI: 10.1037/0033-295X.99.3.561.
- Jamal, M. (1985), "Relationship of job stress to job performance: A study of managers and blue-collar workers", *Human Relations*, Vol. 5, pp. 409- 424. DOI: 10.1177/001872678503800502.
- Jarymowicz, M., & Bar-Tal, D. (2006), "The dominance of fear over hope in the life of individuals and collectives". *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 36, 367–392.
- Jones, G.R. and George, J.M. (1998), "The experience and evolution of trust: Implications for cooperation and teamwork", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 23, pp. 531-546. DOI: 10.5465/AMR.1998.926625.
- Kitayama, S. & Markus, H. R., (Eds). (1994). *Emotion and culture: Empirical studies of mutual influence*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Kellehear, A. (1993), *The unobtrusive researcher: A guide to methods*, Allen and Unwin, Crows Nest, Australia.
- Kempster, S. & Parry, K.W. (2011), "Grounded theory and leadership research: A critical realist perspective". *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22, pp. 106-120. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.12.010

- King, G. III. (2002), "Crisis management and team effectiveness: A closer examination", *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 41, pp. 235–249. DOI: 10.1023/A:1021200514323.
- Knights, D. (1997), "Deconstruction: Dualism, gender, and postmodernism revisited", *Organization Studies*, Vol. 18 No, 1, pp. 1–19. DOI: 10.1177/017084069701800102.
- Krippendorff, K. (2004), *Content analysis: An introduction to its methodology*, Sage, Oaks, California
- Landen, M. (2003), "Citizenship or careerism? Perceptions and impressions of goodness", *Tamara: Journal of Critical Postmodern Organization Science*, Vol. 2 No. 3, pp. 17-27.
- Lee, R.M. (2000), *Unobtrusive methods in social methods*, Open University Press, Buckingham.
- Lord, R.G. and Kanfer, R. (2002), "Emotions and organizational behaviour", in Lord, R.G., Klimoski, R.J. and Kanfer, R. (Eds) *Emotions in the workplace*, Jossey-Bass, San Francisco, pp. 5-20.
- Landeweerd, A.J. and Boumans, N.P.G. (1994), "The effect of work dimensions and need for autonomy on nurses' work satisfaction and health", *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 67 No. 3, pp. 207-217. DOI: 10.1111/j.2044-8325.1994.tb00563.x.
- Lewis, M.W. and Kelemen, M.L. (2002), "Multiparadigm Inquiry: Exploring Organisational Pluralism and Paradox", *Human Relations*, Vol. 55 No. 2, pp. 251-275. DOI: 10.1177/0018726702055002185.
- Lewis, M.W. and Grimes, A.J. (1999), "Metatraingulation: Building theory from multiple paradigms", *Academy of Management Review* Vol. 24 No. 5, pp. 672-690. DOI: 10.5465/AMR.1999.2553247.
- Luscher, L.S. and Lewis, M.W. (2008), "Organizational change and managerial sensemaking: Working through paradox", *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 51 No. 2, pp. 221- 240. DOI: 10.5465/AMJ.2008.31767217.
- Maier, M. (2002), "Ten years after a major malfunction: Reflections on the 'The challenger Syndrome'", *Journal of Management Inquiry*, Vol. 11 No. 3, pp. 282-292. DOI: 10.1177/1056492602113013.
- Manning, P. (1979), "Metaphors of the field: Varieties of Organizational Discourse", *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 24 No. 4, pp. 660-671. DOI: 10.2307/2392371.
- Martocchio, J.J. (1992), "The financial cost of absence decisions", *Journal of Management*, Vol. 18 No. 1, pp. 133-152. DOI: 10.1177/014920639201800109.
- McCabe, D. (2015), "The Tyranny of Distance: Kafka and the problem of distance in bureaucratic organizations", *Organization*, Vol. 22 No. 1, pp. 58–77. DOI: 10.1177/1350508413501936.

McDonald, L. and Härtel, C.E.J. (2000), "Applying the involvement construct to organizational crises", in *Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy Conference Proceedings, Visionary Marketing for the 21st Century: Facing the Challenge*, Gold Coast, AUS, 28 November – 1 December, pp. 799-803.

Mitroff, I.I. (2005), *Why some companies emerge stronger and better from a crisis: Seven essential lessons for surviving disaster*, AMACOM, New York.

Mitroff, I.I. and Person, C.M. (1993), *Crisis Management: A diagnostic guide to improving your organization's crisis preparedness*, Jossey-Bass: San Francisco.

Mitchell, T.R. and Lee, T.W. (2001), "The unfolding model of voluntary turnover and embeddedness: Foundations of a comprehensive theory of attachment", *Research in Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 23, pp. 189-246. DOI: 10.1016/S0191-3085(01)23006-8.

Mohamed, A.A. and Gardner, W.L. (2004), "An exploratory study of inter-organizational defamation: An organizational impression management perspective", *Organizational Analysis*, Vol. 12 No. 2, pp. 129–145. DOI: 10.1108/eb028989.

Niehoff, B.P., Moorman, R.H., Blackey, J. and Fuller, J. (2001), "The influence of empowerment on employee loyalty in a downsizing environment", *Group and Organizational Management* Vol. 26 No. 1, pp. 91-114. DOI: 10.1177/1059601101261006.

Norris, F.H., Perilla, J.L., Riad, J.K., Kaniasty, K. and Lavizzo, E.A. (1999), "Stability and change in stress, resources and psychological distress following natural disaster: findings from Hurricane Andrew", *Anxiety, Stress and Coping*, Vol. 12, pp. 363-399. DOI: 10.1080/10615809908249317.

Oswick, C., Kenoy, T. and Grant, D. (2002), "Metaphor and analogical reasoning in organization theory: Beyond Orthodoxy", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 27, pp. 294-303. DOI: 10.5465/AMR.2002.6588045.

Parkinson, B., Fischer, A. H., & Manstead, A. S. R. (2005), *Emotion in social relations: Cultural, group, and interpersonal processes*. New York, NY: Psychology Press.

Pearson, C.M. and Clair, J.A. (1998), "Reframing crisis management", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 23, pp. 59-76. DOI: 10.5465/AMR.1998.192960.

Plutchik, R. (1980), *Emotion: A Psycho evolutionary Synthesis*", Harper and Row, New York.

Riaz, S., Buchanan, S. and Bapuji, H. (2011), "Institutional work amidst the financial crisis: emerging positions of elite actors", *Organization*, Vol. 18 No. 2, pp.187–214, DOI: 10.1177/1350508410389630.

Ruff, P. and Aziz, K. (2003), *Managing communications in a crisis*, Gower Publishing Limited, Hampshire, England.

Saunders, M.N.K., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2015). "Research Methods for Business Students". Pearson

Seeger, M.W., Sellnow, T.L. and Ulmer, R.R. (1998), "Communication, organization and crisis", in Roloff, M.E. and Paulson, G.D. (Eds) *Communication Yearbook*, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Scherer, A.G. (1998), "Pluralism and incommensurability in strategic management and organization theory: A problem in search of a solution", *Organization*, Vol. 5 No. 2, pp. 147–68. DOI: 10.1177/135050849852001.

Shaver, P., Schwartz, J., Kirson, D. and O'Connor, C. (1987), "Emotion knowledge: Further exploration of a prototype approach", *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* Vol. 52 No. 6, pp. 1061–1086. DOI: 10.1037/0022-3514.52.6.1061.

Shockley-Zalabak, P., Ellis, K. and Winograd, G. (2000). "Organizational trust: What it means and why it matters", *Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 18 No. 4, pp. 35-49. Available at: <http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/2001-14037-002>

Simola, S.K. (2005), "Organizational crisis management: Overview and opportunities", *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, Vol. 57 No. 3, pp. 180-192. DOI: 10.1037/1065-9293.57.3.180.

Smith, A.E. and Humphreys, M.S. (2006), "Evaluation of unsupervised semantic mapping of natural language with Leximancer concept mapping", *Behavior Research Methods*, Vol. 38 No. 2, pp. 262–279.

Smith, E. R. (1993), "Social identity and social emotions: Toward new conceptualizations of prejudice", In D. M. Mackie & D. L. Hamilton (Eds.), *Affect, cognition, and stereotyping* (pp. 297–315). San Diego, CA: Academic Press

Smith, E. (2008), Pitfalls and promises: The use of secondary data analysis in educational research. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 56 (3), 323–339.

Stephan, W. G., & Stephan, C.W. (2000), An integrated threat theory of prejudice. In S. Oskamp (Ed.), *Reducing prejudice and discrimination* (pp. 225–246). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Sturges, D.L. (1994), "Communicating through crisis: A strategy for organizational survival", *Management Communication Quarterly*, Vol. 7 No. 3, pp. 297-316. DOI: 10.1177/0893318994007003004.

Taylor, S.J. and Bogdan, R. (1998), "Introduction: Go to the people", in Taylor, S.J. and Bogdan, R. (Eds) *Introduction to qualitative research methods: A guidebook and resource*, Wile, New York, pp. 3-23.

Tucker, P., Pfefferbaum, B., Nixon, S. and Dickson, W. (2000), "Predictors of post-traumatic stress symptoms in Oklahoma City: Exposure, social support, peri-traumatic responses", *The Journal of Behavioral Health Services and Research*, Vol. 27, pp. 406-416. Available at: <http://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/BF02287822#>

Van De Vliert, E., Nauta, A., Giebels, E. and Janssen, O. (1999), "Constructive conflict at work", *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, Vol. 20, pp. 475-491.

von Scheve, C., Ismer, S. (2013), *Emotion Review*, Vol. 5, No. 4, pp. 406–413

DOI: 10.1177/1754073913484170

Wallace, M. and Webber, L. (2004), *The disaster recovery handbook*, AMACOM, New York.

Wolfenbarger, M. and Gilly, M.C. (1998), "Advertising internal audience", *Journal of Marketing* Vol. 62 No. 1, pp. 69-88. DOI: 10.2307/1251804.

Weiss, H.M. and Cropanzano, R. (1996), "Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes, and consequences of affective experiences at work", *Research in Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 18, pp.1-74. Available at: <http://psycnet.apa.org/psycinfo/1996-98665-001>

Williams, M. (2001), "In whom we trust: Group membership as an affective context for trust development", *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 25, pp. 377-396. DOI: 10.5465/AMR.2001.4845794.

Ybema, S.A. (1996), *A duck-billed platypus in the theory and analysis of Organisations: Combinations of consensus and dissensus*, in Koot, W., Sabelis, I. and Ybema, S. (Eds), *Puzzling over Paradoxes in Contemporary Organizations*, VU University Press, Amsterdam

Yin, R.K. (2003), *Case study research: Design and methods*, Sage, London.

Figure 1: The conceptual model of the relationship between organizational crisis, impression management strategies, employee emotional reactions and outcomes

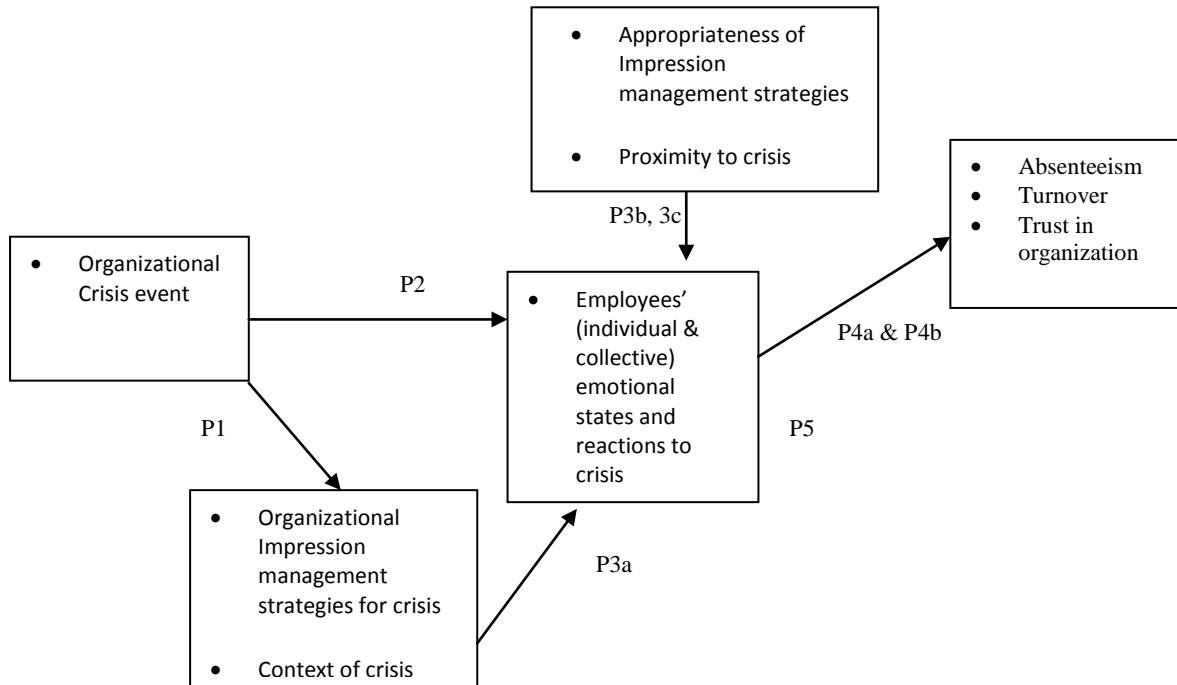


Table 1: Data revealed emotional words within Shavers et al. (1987) basic emotional categories

Anger	Fear	Sadness	Surprise	Love	Joy
Frustrating Horrible Disbelief Confused Hate	Desperate Depression Scare Alarming Fear Nervousness Disturbing Mystified Concerned Distressing Shame	Disappointing Depression Woe Sad Distressing Concerned	Shock Disbelief	Love	Exciting Funny Wonderful Happy

Table 2: Emotional Concepts in organization A from a relevant website

Concept		Absolute Count	Relative Count
1	shock	15	24.2%
2	desperate	15	24.2%
3.	disappointing	14	22.6%
4.	depression	12	19.4%
5.	woes	2	3.2%
6.	difficult	2	3.2%
7.	shame	2	3.2%
	Total	62	100%

Table 3: Ranked list of emotional concepts related to employees in Organization B

Employees		
Emotional Concept	Absolute Count	Relative Count
scared	42	36.5%
concerned	32	27.8%
fear	11	9.6%
disbelief	11	9.6%
concerns	9	7.8%
disappointed	4	3.5%
sad	2	1.7%
distressing	2	1.7%
horrible	2	1.7%
Total	115	100%

Table 4: Ranked list of emotional concepts related to employees in Organization C

Employee		
Concepts	Absolute Count	Relative Count
disturbing	29	10.8%
mystified	28	10.4%
concerned	27	10.1%
nervousness	18	6.7%
frustrating	18	6.7%
concern	17	6.3%
scared	16	5.9%
confused	15	5.6%
overwhelming	15	5.6%
horrified	15	5.6%
shaken	15	5.6%
confident	12	4.5%
disbelief	10	3.7%
concerns	10	3.7%
distressing	9	3.4%
scared	8	2.9%
shock(ed)	6	2.2%
Total	268	100%