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Charisma in times of normalcy: Leaders should prepare for crisis

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Resumo

A liderança carismática é essencialmente uma qualidade atribuída aos líderes pelos subordinados. Os estudos iniciais trataram-na desta forma, especialmente relacionada com crises, mas com o tempo o foco passou a tratá-la como uma causa, e não um resultado. Isso pode ser explicado por o processo de atribuição não ser teoricamente suportado em tempos de normalidade. Este estudo partiu do pressuposto de que, em tempos de normalidade, espera-se que os líderes preparem a crise, evitando emoções negativas (reativas a ameaças iminentes) que dificultariam a atribuição de carisma. Considerou-se insuficiente a preparação para a crise exigindo-se a simultaneidade de um risco percebido de ocorrência de uma crise, produzindo a noção de um sentido de urgência. Tal resultou num modelo de mediação moderada que foi testado com 247 empregados em tempo integral. Os resultados mostram um efeito indireto das emoções negativas entre a impreparação para a crise e as atribuições de carisma, enquanto, o efeito direto é observado apenas quando a estimativa subjetiva da probabilidade de crise no horizonte de um ano se aproxima de 50%. Os resultados são discutidos à luz da teoria e as conclusões retiradas quanto à atribuição de carisma em tempos de normalidade.

Palavras-chave: Liderança carismática, emoções negativas, sentido de urgência, impreparação para a crise

Abstract

Charismatic leadership is essentially an attribution by followers. Earlier research treated it in this manner, especially related to crises, but with time, the focus shifted to treating it as a cause, rather than an outcome. This might be explained by the attribution process not being theoretically supported in times of normalcy. This study departed from the assumption that in times of normalcy, leaders are expected to prepare for a crisis, preventing negative emotions (reactive to impending threat) that would hamper charisma attribution. Crisis preparedness was deemed insufficient to directly explain charisma attribution, and thus it requires a concomitant estimation that future crisis might be probable, producing the notion of a sense of urgency. This resulted in a moderated mediation model that was tested with 247 full-time employees. Findings support the indirect effect of negative emotions between crisis unpreparedness and charisma attributions, while the direct effect is only observed when the subjective estimation of crisis probability within a 1-year time horizon approaches the 50% probability. Findings are discussed at the light of theory and conclusions drawn as to charisma attributions in time of normalcy.

Keywords: Charismatic leadership, negative emotions, sense of urgency, crisis unpreparedness

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Introduction

The essence of organizational leadership is to influence and facilitate individual and collective efforts in achieving shared objectives (Yukl, 2012). It becomes especially important when organizations are facing conditions that threaten its functioning and jeopardize its existence as the normal procedures may not accommodate all required new answers to unseen challenges (Waldman et al., 2001). Charismatic leadership has been appointed as a specific type of leadership that emerges from such circumstances (Halverson et al., 2004).

It is well known what behaviors leaders must display to become acknowledged as charismatic (Boin et al., 2005) even if they must find unorthodox answers to exceptional situations. If such answers become effective, no matter how disruptive leaders' decisions were, there is a process favoring the recognition of being charismatic (Trice & Beyer, 1986). This process that highlights charisma's attribution to leaders is well researched under situations of crisis (Davis & Gardner, 2012). In a definition of charismatic leadership, Shamir et al. (1993) extend this process to a post-crisis situation. However, not much has been researched as regards this process of charismatic leadership attribution under normal situations. So, are charismatic leaders destined to fade out in normal times? What will preserve their charisma when organizational members no longer keep in mind their actions in times of crisis?

An answer might be found in the underlying psychological processes that trigger the need to search for safety in a leadership figure when facing a threat. Such processes are in its deepest form affective in nature, and a positive affect favors the perception of charismatic leadership (Naidoo & Lord, 2008).

Therefore, negative emotions are not favorable to attribution process of a charismatic leader as in times of crisis it is up to charismatic leadership to instill hope, a sense of collectivity and other cognitions that align with positive affect, so that, people in crisis seek control (Erez et al., 2008). Followers find it on the leader, to whom they attribute exceptional skills. Crises provide leaders with opportunities to take bolder actions, which are then interpreted by employees in charismatic terms, and may increase their willingness to see them as an example to follow (Pillai & Meindl, 1998).

However, in times of normalcy, followers' concern with crisis and what they can expect from their leaders, is the ability to anticipate the crisis, to prepare the organization for it, and to mitigate whatever negative impact crisis may create.

This study is set to analyze "how" and "when" perceived crisis preparedness might uphold the recognition of charismatic leadership in times of normalcy. As regards explanative

mechanisms (how), emotions are intrinsically implied in such psychological processes. Thus, we contend that they may act as a mediator between perceived crisis preparedness and charisma attributions. As regards boundary conditions (when), considering that in "times of normality" individuals always nurture an expectation regarding the current status, we contend that their anticipation of a crisis will interact with the perceived preparedness, creating a sense of urgency that might activate charisma attributions independently of the emotional states.

Chapter I – State of the art

State of the art aims to a better understanding of the topics under scrutiny and how theory helps to preview how they relate, focusing on explaining attributed charism. Firstly, the literature about organizational crises or threats will be explored to connect it to leadership and emotions. Secondly, the literature on charismatic leadership and crisis preparedness is analyzed to explore the relationship between the sense of urgency and charismatic leadership.

1.1. Organizational crisis / threat

An organizational crisis occurs whenever there is a need for a critical decision due to the emergence of a serious threat to the fundamental structures or values of a system (Boin et al., 2005). These authors contend that a crisis always entails three features: threat, uncertainty, and urgency.

A threat can target many aspects of life, among which are values that sustain society, namely security and protection, well-being and health, integrity, and justice. Surges of violence, destruction, harm, or other forms of adversity, be they natural or social, put pressure to change ways of living due to a sense of loss of values (Boin et al., 2005).

Uncertainty If there is a common denominator to crises, that is heightened uncertainty. Ever since Frank Knight established the roots in the 1920s to study uncertainty, scholars differentiate between uncertainty and risk. While risk is always a probability function, uncertainty is characterized by a context that prevents a decision-maker from knowing the probability distribution on outcomes of any given decision at the time of choice (Diebold et al., 2010). Uncertainty entails four components: ambiguity, inherent variability, event uncertainty, and systemic uncertainty (Ward & Chapman, 2011). Ambiguity concerns the lack of knowledge due to many reasons such as unclear objectives at the beginning of a situation, unpredictable behavior of players, or unknown sources. Inherent variability concerns the unknown magnitude of events that can threaten the status quo. Even uncertainty concerns a lack of capacity to anticipate the specific occurrence of events, conditions, circumstances, or scenarios, that cannot be foreseeable on a probability function. Systemic uncertainty concerns the unforeseeable consequences of complex interdependencies in a system.

Urgency The severity of the impending crisis depends on how strongly society puts the value of security, well-being, or even justice at the core of its identity. The more valued these are, the higher the magnitude of the threat is, which means it becomes a more pressing matter

that requires a quicker and resolute answer (Boin et al., 2005). The bottom line is that urgency is a key feature in crisis, as it enters the equation to anticipate a crisis magnitude. The more urgent it is, the higher the risks it entails.

Yin & Jing (2014) model on crisis threat converge on threat-uncertainty-urgency classification when they proposed four crisis relevant constructs: information ambiguity (incomplete information, excess noisy information, accurate information, or blocked information channels), environmental pressure (decision making with limited time, the uncertain context of actions, pressure from the public), coordination chaos (the breakdown of organizational routines, lack of proper procedures, and unclear assignment of work), and command incompetence (untimely authorization, resistance to procedures, improper command, decreased power of command, and complaints about leaders). The four constructs can be translated into "uncertainty + urgency + lack of preparedness + ineffective leadership" as a recipe for failed crisis management. This highlights the factors involved in understanding how urgency (threat, a conjoint of organizational preparedness to crisis and risk of crisis occurs in a short time) puts pressure upon leadership (command) to comply on time by making decisions and ensuring they are followed in the organization.

Decision making is crucial for crisis management, as it is known that ineffective decisions may worsen the impact of a crisis (Sommer & Pearson, 2007). A decision-making focused model, the 4Cs crisis management model (Comfort, 2007), established the basis for an effective response. The four Cs concern cognition, communication, coordination, and control. Cognition implies identifying the seriousness of the emerging risk and acting accordingly. Crisis managers then must communicate to update stakeholders on the crisis situation and what should be done. The main challenge is thus to create a shared meaning to align different decision-makers about what is happening and how they can converge into an effective response. A successful communication will enable the coordination process where interdependent agents mutually adjust to attain a shared objective. To ensure that all players are aligned with their focus, managers must guide that process by keeping control (Wolbers & Boersma, 2019).

Crisis management has been mostly a research subject in communication studies, although leadership plays a decisive role in such a context (Wooten & James, 2008). Indeed, the 4Cs model acknowledges the central role leadership plays, but it relegates to tacit nature the critical role emotions play in this situation. However, emotions are critical in leadership, especially in dealing with a crisis (Erez et al., 2008; Jin et al., 2012; Sayegh et al., 2004; Sommer et al., 2016). The following section will address these two issues intending to link them to the crisis: leadership, and emotions.

1.2. Leadership, emotions, and crisis

Leadership is usually defined as a social influence process where one individual behavior affects a group by clarifying what needs to be done, giving the tools and motivation to achieve common objectives (Babcock & Strickland, 2010).

During times of crisis, leaders must have skills that are critical in effectively dealing with the challenges. Leaders or policymakers must connect with stakeholders, identify what went wrong, explain their actions, motivate behaviors to comply, and reinstate a sense of normalcy (Boin et al., 2005). Hence, leading under a crisis situation implies being flexible and having a comprehensive knowledge of business to be able to work through all departments and organizational units, understanding that crisis will impact across all of them, including organizational reputation (Wooten & James, 2008). Research has been identifying some other leadership skills or attributes (Haddon et al., 2015) that can be classified as being of an ethical and moral nature (integrity, authenticity, self-awareness), political nature (influence, and participate decision-making), communicational (communication, providing sense-making), cognitive (intelligence, and vision) and emotional (charisma, and managing emotions). These are at the core of some of the most recent leadership theories such as authentic leadership, ethical leadership, shared leadership, servant leadership, new-genre leadership, or followership (Avolio et al., 2009), abusive or destructive leadership (Schyns & Schilling, 2013) as well as transformational leadership (Reuvers et al., 2008). Within the research that takes crisis as a context or as the target construct, charismatic leadership is the one that has been most studied (Sosik et al., 2002; Conger, 2014).

Charismatic leadership is defined as being based upon symbolic values and emotionally charged (Antonakis et al., 2016). Charismatic leaders are more sensitive to the needs of organizational members and know which activities are most suited to their individual development (Rowold & Laukamp, 2009). These leaders increase collective conscience and teams' willingness and motivation to achieve objectives (Den Hartog et al., 2007). Generally, leaders build in followers a sense of trust in their skills and explicitly show the behaviors needed to accomplish the organization's goals. Charismatic leaders provide a living example and take personal risks, costs and put energy into actions that make followers trust them (Conger, 2014) while demonstrating a sense of power and confidence (Walter & Bruch, 2009). Followers will most likely put effort into achieving these collective goals because charismatic leaders share a vision and describe why realizing it is so important (Banks et al., 2017). This stimulates

enthusiasm and commitment in followers (Mittal, 2015). They often show behaviors that are consistent with followers' values and involve in symbolic behaviors that are expected to foster followers' alignment with the leader's own values (Sosik, 2005).

A widely recognized feature of charismatic leadership pertains to emotions. Sy et al. (2018) proposed the Elicit-Channel model that postulates that the charismatic relationship is a circular course containing five phases. In the first stage, leaders involve in behaviors projected to cause emotions in their followers. In the second stage, emotion is shaped in followers, along with related goals and action inclinations. In the third stage, leaders participate in behaviors to channel the emotions that they have provoked in followers to cause action. In the fourth stage, followers act, and in the fifth stage, those actions lead to success or failure. This model gives emotions a critical role in enacting charismatic leadership influence.

The emotions leaders show condition employees' perceptions, which affect their behavior and performance (Sy et al., 2005). High-triggering emotions such as pride and challenge motivate followers to accomplish goals while low activating emotions such as contentment and happiness might increase satisfaction and liking but will be less effective in fostering initiative-taking and willingness to take on new tasks (Connelly & Ruark, 2010). Information on the leader's individual style, preferences, and behavior, in addition to information about the setting in which an emotional demonstration is made, contribute to follower insights of leader emotions. For example, knowledge of or involvement with the leader's attributes and overall approach to leadership can support followers to appraise whether the emotional display is characteristic or uncharacteristic with respect to how the leader usually behaves (Connelly & Ruark, 2010).

This emotional focus that charismatic leadership has, matches the important effect that crisis produces at an emotional psychological level. Crises most likely enact negative emotions in leaders such as anger and anxiety, and when feeling blame, leaders may focus on defending themselves or protecting their self-esteem (Brockner & Erika, 2008). This counter the focus upon the collective interest, which is more in line with the nature of charismatic leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1995). At the collective level, some fear-based behaviors may be reinforcing or self-fulfilling an impending crisis. Panic buying and bank runs are good examples of these irrational psychological processes. Panic buying is grossly defined as an impulsive buying where consumer hoarding behavior leads to an excessive-to-need buy resulting in supply shortages, thus reinforcing further panic buying. This can lead to a price surge (Jones & Hiller, 2017) due to the discrepancy between supply and demand (Shou et al., 2011). Likewise, bank runs follow a similar process where the fear of a bank's lack of liquidity hastens money

withdrawal behavior, which will effectively produce that lack of liquidity. In essence, the process has a contagion nature suggesting consumers will generalize from a single bank to all the banking system even when in the absence of evidence that such fear is reasonable (Greve & Kim, 2014).

By focusing on positive emotions, charismatic leaders can prevent such behaviors. The broaden and build model (Fredrickson, 2001) helps understanding why positive affect helps in building resources and cushioning the effects of stress. This model states that positive emotions, such as love, joy, pride, interest, and contentment, all expand people's momentary thought-action repertoires manifested in increased personal physical, psychological and social resources. Although negative emotions are known to facilitate instant adaptation when facing threats, positive emotions increase, in an enduring way, the scope of attention, action and cognition, and they shape intellectual, physical, and social resources (Fredrickson, 2001). Positive emotions' effect in broadening the scope and building personal resources has a self-reinforcing effect, which was named upward spirals (Fredrickson & Joiner, 2018). These upward spirals can also target the perception of the leaders themselves.

The romance leadership theory (Meindl, 1995) underlines the fundamental sense-making followers continuously produce about their organizational experiences, among which how they perceive their leaders. Since followers have a set of constructs on leadership that helps to make sense and create expectations, they will process information (e.g. speech and affective displays) to validate to which extent leaders behave according to their view of charismatic leadership (Antonakis et al., 2011). From a follower-centric perspective, only when leaders are perceived as charismatic, will they exert influence as such (Antonakis, 2012).

Charismatic leadership research has approached emotions from a leader-centric perspective, conceiving emotions as factors that facilitate or hinder the leader's influence, follower compliance, and leader self-regulation in dealing with the challenges crisis poses. However, acknowledging the attributed nature of charismatic leadership (Conger & Kanungo, 1987), a follower-centric approach will work on the premise that followers' emotional states may condition the attribution of charisma. This follower-centric research has been called for by several authors (e.g. Gooty et al., 2010; Nohe et al., 2013) and received attention in the last years (e.g. Carrington et al., 2019; Epitropaki et al., 2013) but mostly from a cognitive or value-laden point of view. These studies conceived the alignment between leaders' vision and followers' values as the main factor used to explained charisma attribution. This downplays the fundamental role emotions play, especially regarding charismatic leadership. This is not fully

explored, although it is expected to gain prevalence over cognitions as evidenced in the "post-truth era", where cognitions may quickly be discarded as fake news (Carsten et al., 2019).

Effective charismatic leaders are expected to lower anxiety related to future changes (Lee et al., 2011), and their inability to do so is seen as a failure that harms their charisma (Pillai & Meindl, 1998). This relationship between positive affect and perceived charismatic leadership received empirical support (Bono & Ilies, 2006) even after controlling for trait positive affect (Naidoo & Lord, 2008). From a broaden-and-build perspective (Fredrickson, 2001), positive emotions also increase the scope of attention followers can pay to a leader's behavior and predispose to positive evaluations. Conversely, negative affect was found to lower the attribution of charisma to leaders (Chen et al., 2013). Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H1: Negative emotions will decrease charismatic leadership perception.

1.3. Charismatic Leadership and Crisis preparedness

Crises have prevailed as the background against which charismatic leadership, in its genesis, process, or outcomes, has been studied. Likewise, leaders' behaviors in the post-crisis have also been explored. However, in a normal situation (where a crisis has not set in or has been long gone), crisis management can only be approached by focusing on the preparation and coordination to prepare for a potential disrupting event, which is also acknowledged as phases in crisis management (Herbane, 2013).

Other than mobilizing resources to deal with an ongoing crisis, where any action is better than no action (Brockner & Erika, 2008), leaders are expected to prepare organizations for potential future crises (Karim, 2016). An organization cannot implement an effective crisis management strategy if the top management does not give attention to crisis preparedness (Fragouli et al., 2013). Such top management involvement is necessary as primary problem identification, risk valuation, problem management, and resource allocation are strategic-level actions required for an effective crisis preparedness (Jaques, 2012).

According to Jin (2010), crisis preparedness is expected in order to favor better decision making when managing an ongoing crisis. It is useful not only to cushion the negative effects of a nefarious event but, with the appropriate planning and preparation, also to avoid preventable crises (James & Wooten, 2005). The more prepared an organization is, the fastest will be its response to a crisis event. Research has shown, repetitively, that the longer an

organization takes to answer to a crisis, the more it suffers in the judgments of the public and stakeholders (Marsen, 2020).

Lack of preparedness has been linked to costs for a firm's productivity, status, market position, and human resource management structures (Garcia, 2006). The scope of these negative effects extends to employees' perceptions. It hampers the perceived quality of the organization, as well as the confidence in its ability to respond successfully (Cloudman & Hallahan, 2006). Likewise, emotions surface with the anticipation of any organizational change, such as a crisis. These negative emotions, due to threatening events, are critical, as they also occur in organizational leaders, disturbing their capacity to make decisions (Wooten & James, 2008). **As regards employees,** crisis events often connote with feelings of anxiety, desolation, depression, and rage, so the emotions that accompany an organizational threat can leave members feeling disturbed or mistreated (James et al., 2011). Employees will experience positive emotions when they feel their happiness is boosted by a projected organizational change, but negative emotions when they feel their well-being is damaged by such potential change (Chen et al., 2013). An expected negative future status will foster negative emotions. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

H2: Crisis unpreparedness will increase negative emotions

In conceiving the relationship between crisis unpreparedness, emotions, and attributions of charismatic leadership, it is important to acknowledge that crisis preparedness is also seen as being dependent upon the leader's capacity (Wooten & James, 2008). These authors specify that leaders are expected to hold a comprehensive view of how a potential crisis can impact all organizational departments and business.

Crises have also been attributed not to sudden unexpected events, but mostly to latent problems caused by mismanagement (Jaques, 2012). Examples of mismanagement concerns leaders' denial, deficiently setting urgencies due to lack of experience (Fragouli et al., 2013), or wanting to make the crisis simply go away by covering up or using deception (James & Wooten, 2005). These same sub-optimal decisions can occur before a crisis, by neglecting preemptive responsibilities when leaders would be expected not to. Because individuals have such an expectation, they will hold leaders responsible for issues that stem from a lack of preparedness. Due to the strong emotional undertone that crisis entails, with negative emotions associated both to perceived lack of preparedness as well as to low charismatic leadership, we hypothesized that negative emotions play a mediation role as follows:

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H3: Negative emotions mediate the negative relationship between crisis unpreparedness and charismatic leadership.

It is important to acknowledge that, as in many issues pertaining to security and safety, preparedness is valued depending on how imminent a crisis is, i.e., how probable it is a potential crisis to becoming a real threat event.

1.4. Charismatic Leadership and Sense of urgency

As stated, crisis, by definition, entails three aspects: threat, uncertainty, and urgency (Boin et al., 2005). Urgency is a time-based construct pertaining to environmental pressures for timely decision-making during a crisis (Yin & Jing, 2014). It is also the anticipation of an impending crisis, thought of as a probability estimated in a time frame. The extent of disturbance crisis may entail to organizations require instant and urgent attention from them (Haddon et al., 2015).

As organizations cannot plan only based upon uncertainty, there is always an expectation concerning the probability of an impending crisis. Therefore, to understand urgency, the risk is more relevant than uncertainty and is conceived as a probability. Severe threats that postulate immediate problems induce an ample sense of crisis (Boin et al., 2005). Therefore, urgency is a product of the magnitude of the threat in interaction with the risk of crisis occurrence.

A sense of urgency, conceived as a combination of perceived imminent threat and lack of preparedness to deal with it, pushes employees into an uncertainty-reducing behavior trend (Wynen et al., 2020) which make them rely more on leader's decisions into a centralized control or decision-making within a small non-dissident group (Olsen & Sexton, 2009). This centralization of control is one of the consequences that Staw et al. (1981) postulated in the threat-rigidity thesis, and leadership is, quite naturally, expected to play an important role in centralizing control. According to Muurlink et al. (2012), this centralized-power seeking stems from self-perceived incapability to deal with the incoming crisis, be it real or not (false negative) converging with an expectation that the leader is capable even if it is not true (false positive). Crises are known to modify the power relations (Forsberg & Pursiainen, 2006), and centralized control plus the idea of "strong leader" are closely related to charismatic leadership (Blight et al., 2004). Evidence of this attribution linked to uncertainty occurs in both in laboratory studies (e.g. Pillai, 1996) and field research where the number of crisis experienced during a mandate correlated with the charisma attributions (House et al., 1991).

Therefore, this sense of urgency may favor the attributions of charisma to leaders, which could explain why leadership under a crisis condition tends to be perceived as more charismatic as compared to situations of normalcy (Halverson et al., 2004). We, therefore, hypothesize that:

H4: *Crisis probability moderates the relationship between crisis unpreparedness and charismatic leadership such that this relationship is stronger when crisis probability is higher than low.*

The integration of hypotheses is depicted in the conceptual model (Figure 1.1.).

Figure 1.1.

Conceptual model
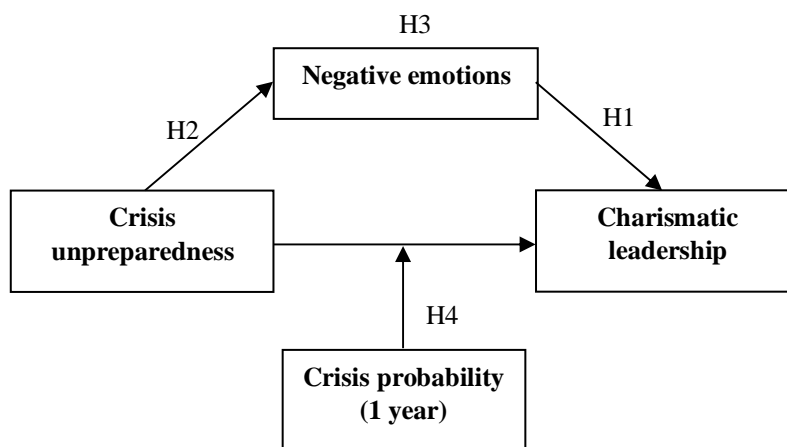
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Chapter II – Method

2.1. Sample

The sample comprises 247 employees, mostly feminine (72.5%) with averages ranging from 19 to 63 and averaging 35 years old (SD=10.9) and educated (81.4% have BSc or above). The larger share of participants works in organizations over 250 employees (42.9%) or sized between 51 and 249 (18.3%). Only 13.3% work in micro organizations (< 10 employees). Most of the participants report having a stable work contract (67.8%).

2.2. Procedure

This study is comprehended in a larger research project. An online questionnaire was set up in Qualtrics, and the resulting link was sent to individuals, specifically asking for participation only from those in active working status. The invitation with the link was distributed between December 2019 and the end of February 2020. The initial page contained an informed consent, and the statement concerning if the participant was working or not, included in the first page also as a question, immediately terminated the survey in case the participant stated they were in a non-active working situation. The invitation was sent to professional and social networks (Linkedin, Facebook) with a snowball approach, as the sample benefited from the widest diversity of occupations. The questionnaire was expected to require not more than 10 minutes. Data analysis was conducted with IBM SPSS Statistics 25, AMOS 25 Analysis of Moment Structures software, and Hayes's PROCESS Macro 3.2 (2018).

2.3. Data Analysis Strategy

Data analysis started by identifying possible inconsistent answers as well as those that have too many missing values. After screening such cases, we conducted psychometric quality testing via confirmatory factor analysis of all constructs in the measurement model. Solutions are acceptable based on Hu and Bentler (1999) threshold recommendations namely that: X^2/df falls below 3 with an expected significant p-value, Comparison Fit Index (CFI) > .95, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) > .95, Residual Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) < .06 and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SMRM) below .08. Additionally, constructs must be reliable (judged on Cronbach alpha at least .70) and show convergent validity (based on Fornell & Larcker's AVE, which should attain at least .500). Due to the relatively modest ratio of sample size versus estimated parameters in the full moderated mediation model, hypotheses testing is conducted with Hayes (2018) PROCESS Macro, which can simultaneously estimate

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paths as well as interaction effects resourcing to bootstrapping. As recommended by Hayes (2018), the number of extractions is set to 5000, and the interval confidence set to 95%. The specific model under analysis is identified by Hayes (2018) as number 5. Measurement models' comparison is judged upon p-values from ΔX^2 (Bollen, 1989) and 0.01 threshold from ΔCFI (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

2.4. Measures

2.4.1. Charismatic Leadership

Charismatic leadership was measured with Bass & Avolio (2000) MLQ5X that comprehends a four-item single factor (e.g. "Displays a sense of power and confidence", "Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group") that is both reliable (Cronbach alpha=.877) and shows convergent validity (AVE=.643). Respondents were asked to signal their answer on a 5-point frequency scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Always). This scale has been used precisely to measure charismatic leadership attribution and showed good reliability (Chen et al., 2007).

2.4.2. Negative Emotions

Negative Emotions were measured with the homologous short version PANAS-VRP (Galinha & Ribeiro, 2014), comprehending a five-item single factor (e.g. "Nervous", "Scared") that is both reliable (Cronbach alpha=.839) and shows convergent validity (AVE=.552). Respondents were requested to signal how frequently they felt the listed negative emotions in the workplace in a typical working day by using a five-point scale ranging from 1 (never or rarely) to 5 (frequently or extremely frequent).

2.4.3. Crisis Unpreparedness

Crisis unpreparedness was measured by adapting Jin (2010) "situational demands" subscale from the preparedness scale. The adaptation consisted of changing the focus of the response from the crisis itself (its magnitude, duration, etc.) to its extension to the organization (how intensely it would be felt, for how much time, etc.). The four items used were "The organization", "… would have difficulty in dealing with the crisis.", "… would feel that crisis for a long time", "… would severely feel the crisis", "… would not know exactly how to deal with the crisis". The scale is both reliable (Cronbach alpha=.870) and shows convergent validity (AVE=.635). The respondents were asked to signal their answer on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 6 (Strongly Agree).

2.4.4. Crisis Probability

Crisis probability was measured with a single item asking the respondents to indicate to which extent they consider probable the occurrence of an economic crisis in the coming year. Thus, they were requested to signal their expectation on a percentual scale ranging from (0% - zero chances of occurrence) to 100% (absolute certainty it will occur).

2.4.5. Control Variables

Control variables included gender (1=Male, 2=Female), age, education (1=9th year, 2=12th year, 3=Bachelor's Degree, 4= Master's Degree, 5=PhD), organization size (1=<10 employees, 2=11-50, 3=51-250, 4=250+), and stability of work contract (1=Stable, 2=Unstable).

2.5. Measurement model

The measurement model included preparedness for crisis, charismatic leadership and negative affect and has acceptable fit indices ($\chi^2(72)$=122.177, $p < .001$, χ^2/df=1.697; CFI=.970; TLI=.962; RMSEA=.053 CI90 [.036; .068] PCLOSE = .374; SRMR= .046) thus enabling further analysis (Table 1).

2.6. Common method / source variance

Common method bias was assessed via common latent factor (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The model showed valid fit indices (χ^2 (71)=122.177, $p < .001$, χ^2/df=1.721; CFI=.970; TLI=.961; RMSEA=.054 CI90 [.037; .069] PCLOSE = .341; SRMR= .046) and the paths were not significant, suggesting no common method bias

Table 2.1.

Measurement models comparison

Model	χ^2 (*df*) p value	CFI	TLI	RMSEA CI90, PCLOSE	SRMR	*Δ*X^2	*Δ*CFI
Base model	χ^2 (72) = 122.177, χ^2/*df* = 1.697, *p* < .001	.970	.962	.053].036, .068[.374	.046	-	-
Model 1 CU+NE, Ch, Cprob	χ^2 (75) = 626.955, χ^2/ *df* = 8.359, *p* < .001	.672	.602	.171].159, .184 [.000	.156	*Δ*χ^2 (3) = 504.778, *p* < .001	.298
Model 2 CU, NE+Ch, Cprob	χ^2 (75) = 579.189, χ^2/ *df* = 7.723, *p* < .001	.700	.636	.164].151, .176[.000	.137	*Δ*χ^2 (3) = 457.012, *p* < .001	.270
Model 3 CU+Ch, NE, Cprob	χ^2 (75) = 640.522, χ^2/ *df* = 8.540, *p* < .001	.664	.592	.173].161, .186[.000	.172	*Δ*χ^2 (3) = 518.345, *p* < .001	.306
Model 4 CU+NE+Ch+Cprob	χ^2 (77) = 1076.177, χ^2/ *df* = 13.976, *p* < .001	.406	.298	.227].215, .240 [.000	.196	*Δ*χ^2 (5) =954.000, *p* < .001	.564
Model 5 Independent model	χ^2 (78) = 171.342, χ^2/ *df* = 2.197, *p* < .001	.945	.935	.069].055, .083 [.014	.129	*Δ*χ^2 (6) = 49.165, *p* < .001	.025

CU = Crisis unpreparedness, NE = Negative emotions, Ch = Charismatic leadership, Cprob = Crisis probability

Chapter III – Results

Results are presented firstly concerning descriptive statistics and bivariate statistics to follow with hypotheses testing.

3.1 Descriptive and bivariate statistics

Table 2 depicts all descriptive statistics and correlations among the variables of the study. Participants have reported charismatic leadership as falling above the scale midpoint (*M*=3.21, *SD*=1.13) as tested with a t-student compared with the value 3 of the scale [*t* (246)=2.893, *p*=.004]. The sample also reports low values for negative emotions (*M*=1.60, SD=0.72), with most participants (93%) reporting experiencing negative emotions up to the midpoint of the scale. Lack of crisis preparedness averaged 3.39 (*SD*=1.14), which falls on the mathematical midpoint of the scale (3.5, *t* (246)=-1.555, *p*=.121), thus indicating the majority of participants feels their organization is moderately prepared for a crisis. Additionally, participants reported crisis probability to average 46.4% but with a substantial variation within the sample as suggested by the large standard deviation (*SD*=23.2). Figure 2 shows the frequencies by the probability of crisis where the mode is precisely on the midpoint indicating a 50/50 probability, while 43% chose below, and 34% opted to signal higher than 50% probability. Overall, participants report a reasonable expectation of an impending crisis.

Figure 3.1.

Crisis probability distribution
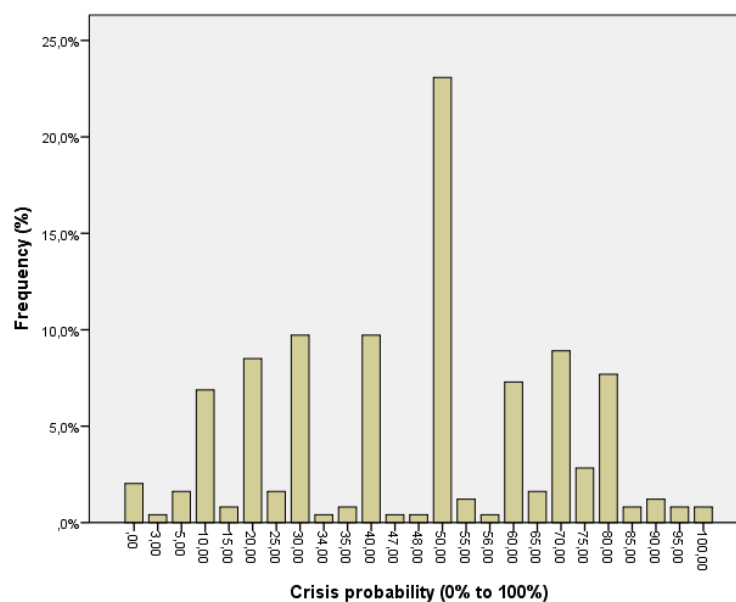
Table 3.1.

Descriptive and bivariate statistics

	Scale	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Gender	1-2	79% fem.	-	-							
2. Age	-	35.02	10.99	-.140*	-						
3. Education	1-5	81% univ.	-	.038	-.180**	-					
4. Organizational size	1-4	43% large	-	-.013	.110	.106	-				
5. Work Stability	1-2	68% stable	-	.076	-.421**	.231**	-.085	-			
6. Crisis Unpreparedness	1-6	3.39	1.14	.092	.006	.063	-.099	.008	(.870)		
7. Negative Emotions	1-5	1.60	0.72	.075	-.049	.090	.065	.015	.132*	(.839)	
8. Charismatic Leadership	1-5	3.21	1.13	-.039	-.046	.068	-.144*	.128*	-.152*	-.292**	(.877)
9. Crisis Probability	0-100	46.35	23.22	.002	.063	-.008	.036	-.026	.179**	.180**	-.117

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$, Cronbach alphas within parentheses at the diagonal cells.

Among the sociodemographic variables, only organizational size and work contract stability showed significant, albeit of low magnitude, correlations with model variables, namely, charismatic leadership. Findings suggest that individuals working in larger organizations tend to attribute less charisma (r=-.144, p=.026), while those with unstable contracts tend to attribute more charisma to their leaders [F (1, 240) =4.004, p=.047]. Correlations found within the model variables follow the expected directions with negative emotions correlating negatively with charismatic leadership (r=-.292, p<.001) and positive with crisis unpreparedness (r=.132, p=.039). Crisis unpreparedness is negatively associated with charismatic leadership attributions (r=-.152, p=.017). Crisis probability is not associated with charismatic leadership (r=-.117, p=.067), but it is positively associated with crisis unpreparedness (r=.179, p=.005) and to negative emotions (r=.180, p=.004).

3.2 Hypothesis Testing

Hypotheses testing originated from PROCESS Macro (Hayes, 2018) output tables that show coefficients for all established relationships in the model as well as bootstrapped confidence intervals for 95%.

The first hypothesis (H1) concerned a direct negative relationship between negative emotions and attributed charisma to leaders. Results showed a significant negative coefficient (-.468, p<.001 CI95 [-.666; -.270]), thus supporting the hypothesis.

The second hypothesis (H2) concerned the expected positive relationship between crisis unpreparedness and negative emotions. Findings also supported this hypothesis with a positive coefficient of .101 (p=.021 CI95 [.015; .186]).

The third hypothesis stated a mediation of negative emotions in the relationship between crisis unpreparedness and attributed charisma. Findings did show a significant indirect effect (-.0471, CI95[-.095; -.006]), thus supporting H3.

Lastly, the fourth hypothesis stated an interaction effect between crisis probability and crisis preparedness in explaining attributed charisma where the effect was expected to be stronger when crisis probability is higher as compared to lower. Findings supported the existence of the conditional direct effect (-.006, p=.027 CI95 [-.010; -.001]) with a negative valence when crisis probability reaches 48.5% (as depicted in Johnson-Neyman table 3). Thus, crisis unpreparedness will only negatively affect the attribution of charisma when crisis probability overcomes approximately 50% (Figure 3).

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Table 1.2.

Johnson-Neyman significance regions

Crisis Probab.	Conditional effect of focal predictor at values of the moderator					
	Effect	se	t	*p*	LLCI	ULCI
0%	.1384	.1321	1.0480	.2958	-.1219	.3987
5%	.1111	.1215	.9142	.3616	-.1284	.3506
10%	.0838	.1113	.7527	.4525	-.1356	.3032
15%	.0565	.1016	.5560	.5788	-.1437	.2566
20%	.0292	.0924	.3156	.7526	-.1529	.2113
25%	.0018	.0840	.0219	.9825	-.1637	.1674
30%	-.0255	.0767	-.3323	.7400	-.1766	.1256
35%	-.0528	.0707	-.7468	.4560	-.1921	.0865
40%	-.0801	.0664	-1.2057	.2293	-.2110	.0509
45%	-.1074	.0643	-1.6712	.0962	-.2341	.0193
48.5%	-.1264	.0641	-1.9712	.0500	-.2527	.0000
50%	-.1347	.0644	-2.0920	.0376	-.2617	-.0078
55%	-.1620	.0668	-2.4255	.0161	-.2937	-.0304
60%	-.1893	.0713	-2.6573	.0085	-.3298	-.0489
65%	-.2167	.0774	-2.7991	.0056	-.3692	-.0641
70%	-.2440	.0849	-2.8744	.0045	-.4113	-.0767
75%	-.2713	.0934	-2.9058	.0040	-.4553	-.0873
80%	-.2986	.1026	-2.9103	.0040	-.5008	-.0964
85%	-.3259	.1124	-2.8992	.0041	-.5475	-.1043
90%	-.3532	.1227	-2.8796	.0044	-.5950	-.1114
95%	-.3805	.1332	-2.8559	.0047	-.6432	-.1179
100%	-.4078	.1441	-2.8305	.0051	-.6919	-.1238

Note. For clarity sake, the non-centered values for the conditional variable (crisis probability) are shown in the table, although computation was made with centered values.

Figure 2.2.

Moderation graph
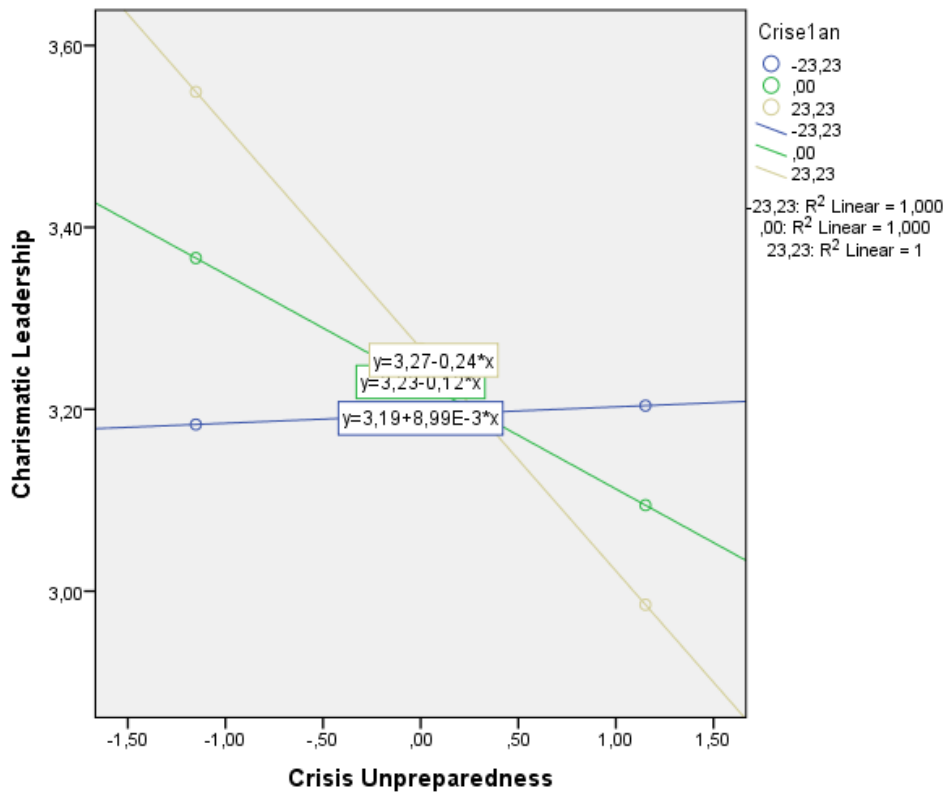
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Chapter IV – Discussion and Conclusion

Charismatic leadership is, in its essence, an affective-based attributed quality, which has been vastly researched attached to organizational crises. However, not much is known about its attribution to leaders in times of normalcy. Departing from the idea that organizations need not only to cope with an ongoing crisis but especially, to prepare itself for future ones, this study examined if the perceived crisis preparedness may uphold the recognition of charismatic leadership in times of normalcy, also considering the probability of an imminent crisis.

Bearing in mind the intrinsic affective nature of charisma attribution processes (Naidoo & Lord, 2008), the conceptual model took negative emotions as a central mediator in preventing the attribution of charisma, especially as it is known that negative affect stems from an expectation that the organization is not prepared for a crisis. Drawing on the notion of urgency (Boin et al., 2005) and conceiving it as a configuration of both a sense of lack of preparedness and imminent crisis, the study tests a moderated mediation model where negative affect mediates the relationship between crisis unpreparedness and attributed charisma, while imminent crisis interacts with crisis unpreparedness in its direct relationship with attributed charisma.

Having that said, our first hypothesis stated: negative emotions will decrease charismatic leadership perception. This hypothesis was supported, which is in line with Chen et al. (2013). This corroborates the emotionally charged nature of charismatic leadership (Antonakis et al., 2016), especially in enacting the charismatic leader influence at the early stages (Sy et al., 2018). Negative emotions should not be linked to a leader if, indeed, charisma attribution is a goal, especially because they go against the grain of broaden-and-build processes (Fredrickson, 2001), which help build resources and cushion detrimental effects due to stress.

Because negative emotions also stem from the anticipation of threats, or the perception that the organization is not doing what it is supposed to be in order to mitigate or prevent a threat (Chen et al., 2013), and leaders have the responsibility of preparing for future crisis (Karim, 2016), lack of crisis preparedness is taken as caused by neglect or incompetence from top decision-makers. This relationship is depicted in hypothesis two, which was also supported by findings. Such means that, once rooted due to perceived lack of preparedness, negative emotions will operate as a mediator between lack of preparedness and attributed charisma, which was the third hypothesis established in the conceptual model. As expected, findings supported the hypothesis by a significant indirect effect.

In further exploring the sense of urgency as an expression of the simultaneous occurrence of crisis unpreparedness and the estimated probability of an imminent crisis, the fourth hypothesis was found to be sound on the basis of a significant interaction effect. This result is of special relevance as in the literature, the sense of urgency has been equated in line with our conceptualization as risk (Boin et al., 2005) but not directly measured as an interaction. Indeed, urgent is, by definition, something that requires immediate attention. But underlying this idea is the tacit assumption that whatever requires urgent attention is deemed sufficiently important to deserve such attention. Regarding crisis preparedness, "important" translates the idea of the "magnitude of the threat". Thus, urgency cannot but be measured as the product of such magnitude of threat with a probability of occurrence.

This study offers some novel findings pertaining to charismatic leadership in times of normalcy. Firstly, studies with this scope are lacking, as charisma has been mostly conceived under the umbrella of crisis (ongoing or past), overlooking what occurs when a crisis is no longer on the immediate horizon of individuals but, instead, emerges as a mere expectation. Secondly, this study is in line with the research on crisis preparedness, which places emphasis on explaining why future crises may or not favor the emergence of novel charismatic leaders. In the research tradition, and when a charismatic leader is called to illustrate the phenomenon, most cases will lie on individuals that followers pushed up to the position of leaders amidst an ongoing crisis. Not so frequently are those cases where charismatic leaders were those already in place when the crisis started. Our findings suggest the latter case might be due to a good sense of crisis preparedness right before the crisis started. Thus, charismatic leadership can occur in times of normalcy by focusing not on a disturbing present but on preparing for such a scenario in the future. This is probably the most relevant contribution to the practice of leadership as a warrant against losing charisma.

These contributions must be taken with consideration for the limitations that the study has. The choice for negative emotions as the mediator variable might be taken as incomplete in the sense that positive emotions may also arise concomitantly. Therefore, the full emotional dimension was not covered in this study. Likewise, the option to target a 1-year time horizon when asking for the probability of a crisis is arbitrary as individuals may formulate different estimates if the time horizon is extended, e.g. to 2 or 3 years. However, one year seemed to be sufficiently close to determine a sense of urgency, although there are no studies backing up such an option.

The choice for a convenience sample always raises doubts about the external validity of findings, so future studies may benefit from adopting a random sampling procedure or at least

to sample participants from specific industries or simply organizations to account for possible variations in the model. Additionally, still regarding methodological options, a cross-sectional design leaves out possible dynamics across time that might matter in understanding how negative emotions fluctuate and anchor blaming games to the leaders.

Future studies may benefit from extending some options made regarding e.g. the type of leadership (e.g. ethical leadership) that can be studied from an attributional process point of view linked to crises. Likewise, the focus placed on the probability of an economic crisis is but one of the types of crises that can be studied. So, it leaves room to target other types of crises, such as the recent pandemics, which may lead to different findings. Therefore, in furthering research on leadership as an outcome (an attribution), the construct of sense of urgency may be considered, together with the affective pathways, in explaining the how and when of this phenomenon.

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Appendix A

Run MATRIX procedure:

**************** PROCESS Procedure for SPSS Version 3.4.1 ***************

Written by Andrew F. Hayes, Ph.D.   www.afhayes.com
Documentation available in Hayes (2018). www.guilford.com/p/hayes3

****

Model : 5
   Y : Char4it
   X : PCrisis4
   M : NA5it
   W : Crise1an

Covariates:
 Q22   Q23   Q24   Q28   Q29

Sample
Size: 223

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 NA5it

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,1952	,0381	,5363	1,4265	6,0000	216,0000	,2056

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	1,3865	,4168	3,3267	,0010	,5650	2,2079
PCrisis4	,1007	,0433	2,3246	,0210	,0153	,1861
Q22	,0877	,1212	,7238	,4700	-,1512	,3266
Q23	-,0043	,0049	-,8747	,3827	-,0140	,0054
Q24	,0333	,0618	,5388	,5906	-,0884	,1550
Q28	,0469	,0465	1,0086	,3143	-,0448	,1387
Q29	-,0331	,1181	-,2806	,7793	-,2659	,1996

****
OUTCOME VARIABLE:
 Char4it

Model Summary

R	R-sq	MSE	F	df1	df2	p
,4177	,1745	1,1243	5,0017	9,0000	213,0000	,0000

Model

	coeff	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
constant	3,6999	,6208	5,9598	,0000	2,4762	4,9236
PCrisis4	-,1180	,0640	-1,8420	,0669	-,2442	,0083
NA5it	-,4680	,1005	-4,6584	,0000	-,6660	-,2700
Crise1an	,0016	,0032	,4965	,6200	-,0047	,0078
Int_1	-,0055	,0024	-2,2334	,0266	-,0103	-,0006
Q22	,0240	,1789	,1343	,8933	-,3287	,3768
Q23	,0006	,0072	,0781	,9378	-,0136	,0147
Q24	,0973	,0895	1,0878	,2779	-,0790	,2737
Q28	-,1567	,0676	-2,3184	,0214	-,2898	-,0235
Q29	,2695	,1717	1,5701	,1179	-,0689	,6079

33

Product terms key:
Int_1   :   PCrisis4 x   Crise1an

Test(s) of highest order unconditional interaction(s):
       R2-chng   F   df1   df2   p
X*W   ,0193   4,9882   1,0000   213,0000   ,0266

   Focal predict: PCrisis4 (X)
       Mod var: Crise1an (W)

Conditional effects of the focal predictor at values of the moderator(s):

Crise1an	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-23,2332	,0089	,0861	,1039	,9173	-,1608	,1786
,0000	-,1180	,0640	-1,8420	,0669	-,2442	,0083
23,2332	-,2449	,0851	-2,8761	,0044	-,4127	-,0770

Moderator value(s) defining Johnson-Neyman significance region(s):
   Value   % below   % above
   1,5396   42,1525   57,8475

Conditional effect of focal predictor at values of the moderator:

Crise1an	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-46,9327	,1384	,1321	1,0480	,2958	-,1219	,3987
-41,9327	,1111	,1215	,9142	,3616	-,1284	,3506
-36,9327	,0838	,1113	,7527	,4525	-,1356	,3032
-31,9327	,0565	,1016	,5560	,5788	-,1437	,2566
-26,9327	,0292	,0924	,3156	,7526	-,1529	,2113
-21,9327	,0018	,0840	,0219	,9825	-,1637	,1674
-16,9327	-,0255	,0767	-,3323	,7400	-,1766	,1256
-11,9327	-,0528	,0707	-,7468	,4560	-,1921	,0865
-6,9327	-,0801	,0664	-1,2057	,2293	-,2110	,0509
-1,9327	-,1074	,0643	-1,6712	,0962	-,2341	,0193
1,5396	-,1264	,0641	-1,9712	,0500	-,2527	,0000
3,0673	-,1347	,0644	-2,0920	,0376	-,2617	-,0078
8,0673	-,1620	,0668	-2,4255	,0161	-,2937	-,0304
13,0673	-,1893	,0713	-2,6573	,0085	-,3298	-,0489
18,0673	-,2167	,0774	-2,7991	,0056	-,3692	-,0641
23,0673	-,2440	,0849	-2,8744	,0045	-,4113	-,0767
28,0673	-,2713	,0934	-2,9058	,0040	-,4553	-,0873
33,0673	-,2986	,1026	-2,9103	,0040	-,5008	-,0964
38,0673	-,3259	,1124	-2,8992	,0041	-,5475	-,1043
43,0673	-,3532	,1227	-2,8796	,0044	-,5950	-,1114
48,0673	-,3805	,1332	-2,8559	,0047	-,6432	-,1179
53,0673	-,4078	,1441	-2,8305	,0051	-,6919	-,1238

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

```
DATA LIST FREE/
  PCrisis4  Crise1an  Char4it  .
BEGIN DATA.
   -1,1515  -23,2332   3,1833
    ,0000  -23,2332   3,1937
   1,1515  -23,2332   3,2040
   -1,1515    ,0000   3,3662
    ,0000    ,0000   3,2303
   1,1515    ,0000   3,0945
   -1,1515  23,2332   3,5490
```

```
    ,0000   23,2332    3,2670
   1,1515   23,2332    2,9851
END DATA.
GRAPH/SCATTERPLOT=
 PCrisis4 WITH    Char4it  BY     Crise1an .
```

****************** DIRECT AND INDIRECT EFFECTS OF X ON Y ****************

Conditional direct effect(s) of X on Y:

Crise1an	Effect	se	t	p	LLCI	ULCI
-23,2332	,0089	,0861	,1039	,9173	-,1608	,1786
,0000	-,1180	,0640	-1,8420	,0669	-,2442	,0083
23,2332	-,2449	,0851	-2,8761	,0044	-,4127	-,0770

Indirect effect(s) of X on Y:

	Effect	BootSE	BootLLCI	BootULCI
NA5it	-,0471	,0227	-,0951	-,0060

*********************** ANALYSIS NOTES AND ERRORS ***********************

Level of confidence for all confidence intervals in output:
 95,0000

Number of bootstrap samples for percentile bootstrap confidence intervals:
 5000

W values in conditional tables are the mean and +/- SD from the mean.

NOTE: The following variables were mean centered prior to analysis:
     Crise1an PCrisis4

NOTE: Variables names longer than eight characters can produce incorrect output.
     Shorter variable names are recommended.

------ END MATRIX -----

Appendix B

No âmbito do Mestrado em Psicologia Social e das Organizações, no ISCTE-IUL- Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, foi criada uma equipa de investigação com o objetivo de compreender a relação chefia-colaborador dentro das organizações. Desta forma, vimos pedir a sua colaboração através do preenchimento de um questionário com a duração aproximada de 10 minutos.

As suas respostas sinceras são fundamentais para garantir a qualidade deste estudo.

O preenchimento do questionário garante o total anonimato dos participantes e confidencialidade dos dados. A sua participação é totalmente voluntária e não envolve qualquer despesa e/ou riscos.

Para qualquer esclarecimento por favor contacte: Prof. Nelson Ramalho (nelson.ramalho@iscte-iul.pt)

Agradecemos, antecipadamente, a sua participação.

Afonso Ferreira

Neste momento trabalha em alguma organização e tem uma chefia direta? ☐ Sim   ☐ Não

Q. Por favor, responda em que medida concorda ou discorda com as seguintes afirmações.

A minha chefia direta …

	Nunca				Sempre
Gera orgulho nos outros por estarem associados a ela. (1)	1	2	3	4	5
Vai para além dos seus interesses próprios para bem do grupo. (2)	1	2	3	4	5
Age de forma a incutir respeito por ela. (3)	1	2	3	4	5
Exibe um sentido de poder e de confiança. (4)	1	2	3	4	5

Q. Indique em que medida considera provável o surgimento de uma crise económica no próximo ano (apresente um valor entre 0% e 100%)

_____

Q. Na eventualidade dessa crise acontecer, indique em que medida concorda com as seguintes afirmações. A minha organização...

	DT					CT
Teria dificuldade em lidar com essa crise. (1)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Iria sentir essa crise durante muito tempo. (2)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sentiria a crise de forma severa. (3)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Não saberia exatamente como lidar com a crise. (4)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Nunca teria enfrentado uma crise deste tipo. (5)	1	2	3	4	5	6

Q. Num dia típico de trabalho, indique em que medida sente cada uma destas emoções no seu local de trabalho.

	Nunca ou raramente			Frequente ou extrem freq.	
Nervoso/a	1	2	3	4	5
Amedrontado/a	1	2	3	4	5
Assustado/a	1	2	3	4	5
Culpado/a	1	2	3	4	5
Atormentado/a	1	2	3	4	5

Para terminar, gostaríamos de lhe solicitar alguns dados apenas para questões de tratamento estatístico dos questionários:

1. Sexo: ☐ Masculino ☐ Feminino

2. Idade: _____ anos

3. Escolaridade: ☐ Ensino básico ☐ Ensino Secundário ☐ Licenciatura

☐ Mestrado ☐ Doutoramento

4. Vínculo laboral. Corresponde a um contrato de efetivo (sem termo): ☐ Sim ☐ Não

5. Qual a dimensão da organização?

☐ < 10 trabalhadores ☐ < 50 trabalhadores ☐ < 250 trabalhadores ☐ >= 250 trabalhadores

O questionário terminou! Muito obrigado pela sua colaboração preciosa para este estudo.

(por favor, pressione a seta para submeter as suas respostas)