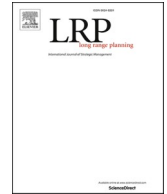




ELSEVIER

Contents lists available at [ScienceDirect](https://www.sciencedirect.com)

Long Range Planning

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/lrp

Emotion in strategic management: A review and future research agenda

Ethel Brundin^{a,*}, Feng Liu^b, Thomas Cyron^{a,c}

^a Jönköping University, Jönköping International Business School, Centre for Family Entrepreneurship and Ownership (CeFEO), P.O. Box 1026, 551 11, Jönköping, Sweden

^b Sobey School of Business, Saint Mary's University, 923 Robie Street, Halifax, Canada

^c Jönköping University, Jönköping International Business School, Media Management and Transformation Centre (MMTC), P.O. Box 1126, 551 11, Jönköping, Sweden

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords:

Emotion
Emotion constructs
Nonconscious influence of emotions
Emotion regulation
Collective emotions

ABSTRACT

Emotion in strategic management has attracted increasing scholarly interest during the past twenty-five years. Researchers have demonstrated the nature and significance of emotion in strategic management from a broad range of perspectives across different levels of analysis. Given the expanding research on the topic, the time is ripe to synthesize this diverse and multifaceted body of knowledge. In a thematic synthesis of the literature, we address the following questions: how does emotion influence strategic management, and how can the field be further developed? We review emotion constructs used in the extant literature and identify three themes related to how emotions influence strategic management: the nonconscious influence of emotions, emotion regulation, and collective emotions. Based on these themes and our analysis, we propose three areas of future research to inspire the field to develop further: (1) scope conditions of emotion research in strategic management; (2) capturing emotion in strategic management; and (3) the ethics, power and politics of emotions in strategic management.

1. Introduction

Emotion has long been overlooked in strategic management research, which traditionally did not focus on who strategists are, what they do, and how they think and feel. Instead, research has typically focused on understanding the content of strategy and its relationship to organizational performance (e.g., Chandler, 1962; Porter, 1980, 1985) and the processes of strategy formation and change at an organizational level (e.g., Mintzberg et al., 1976; Pettigrew, 1977). However, we have recently witnessed a shift of attention towards the interplay of cognitive, behavioral, and emotional dynamics of significant actors in strategic management (e.g., Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011; Jarzabkowski, 2008; Maitlis and Lawrence, 2003; Rouleau, 2005; Spee and Jarzabkowski, 2011). Acknowledging that strategic management consists of daily interactions (Jarzabkowski et al., 2007; Johnson et al., 2003; Pettigrew et al., 2006) has led to the recognition that emotion has a major bearing on strategic management processes and outcomes (Brundin

* Corresponding author.

E-mail addresses: ethel.brundin@ju.se (E. Brundin), Feng.liu@smu.ca (F. Liu), thomas.cyron@ju.se (T. Cyron).

<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2021.102144>

Received 22 March 2020; Received in revised form 30 August 2021; Accepted 7 September 2021

Available online 28 September 2021

0024-6301/© 2021 The Author(s). Published by Elsevier Ltd. This is an open access article under the CC BY license

(<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>).

Please cite this article as: Ethel Brundin, *Long Range Planning*, <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lrp.2021.102144>

and Liu, 2015).

Currently, the role of emotion in strategic management is an expanding research subject that has been addressed from multiple perspectives. For example, the bulk of the work in strategic management focusing on behavioral strategy¹ (Powell et al., 2011) has drawn on concepts, theories, and tools from the behavioral and social sciences to explicate the nature and significance of emotion in the analysis of strategic decision making and strategic change at both the individual and collective levels (see, for example, Fugate et al., 2002; George and Jones, 2001; Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011; 2018; Scheck and Kinicki, 2000). These streams of research have drawn on various branches of psychology—primarily the cognitive and social cognitive perspectives of emotion and behavioral economics but also, to a lesser extent, sociology and philosophy (see e.g., Fineman, 1996; Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011; Huy, 2002; 2011; Loewenstein, 2000; Powell et al., 2011; Samra-Fredericks, 2003; 2004; Vuori et al., 2018).

Our understanding of emotion in strategic management has been enhanced by these works, which draw on different theoretical approaches and different methods and have left a considerable mark on the work of strategy scholars and practitioners alike. For instance, research agendas have now expanded from top management position(s) to shared and multilevel emotions across different levels of the organization (e.g., Huy, 2002; Huy et al., 2014; Sanchez-Burks and Huy, 2009). Within this widening scope of research, we learn that emotions play a critical role in social interactions among a broad range of strategic actors. For example, studies in the strategy-as-practice literature have opened the door to board rooms and top management teams to allow the direct observation of the effect of emotion on what strategists do (e.g., Brundin and Melin, 2006; Brundin and Nordqvist, 2008; Liu, 2013; Liu and Maitlis, 2014).

The plethora of different approaches leaves readers with a scattered impression across levels and units of analysis and makes it difficult to synthesize this diverse and multifaceted body of knowledge into a more coherent and focused overview with a clearly articulated agenda for future work (cf. Durand et al., 2017). Our paper addresses these challenges in the form of a thematic synthesis of the existing literature on emotion² in strategic management. Given that the first studies were published more than twenty-five years ago (see Fineman, 1996; Vince and Broussine, 1996) and in light of increasing scholarly interest in the topic, a thematic synthesis of emotion in strategic management seems timely to answer the following questions: 1. how does emotion influence strategic management? and 2. how can the field be further developed?

Our review makes the following contributions. First, we integrate the findings of extant research by sorting them into the major strategic activities of strategic decision making, strategic planning, strategic change and implementation, and strategic failure and turnaround (see Appendix). Second, we discuss and disentangle the constructs and definitions of emotion previously used in the study of emotion and strategic management. From this, a synthesis of the literature enables us to identify three themes related to the way emotion influences strategic management, namely the nonconscious influence of emotions, emotion regulation, and collective emotions, all of which have an effect on strategic management. By organizing the literature into these three themes, we are able to observe valid opportunities for future work.

2. Review method

In line with our goal of synthesizing a body of literature that is scattered across different research approaches as well as different levels and units of analysis, we followed the recommendation by Hodgkinson and Ford (2014) to complement systematic review techniques with narrative elements. On one hand, systematic review techniques feature an explicit and transparent procedure that includes open communication about the search strategy, the criteria for excluding or including literature, and the research synthesis approach (Tranfield et al., 2003). The procedures allow independent readers and reviewers to identify potential omissions of relevant literature and remedy these in future work. On the other hand, merely reporting the outcomes of systematic reviews is unlikely to provide adequate theoretical contributions (Hodgkinson and Ford, 2014). Complementing narrative review elements can partially remedy these issues and allows us to abstract from the outcomes of individual studies and to build new theory, highlight conceptual and theoretical limitations in extant work, and illuminate future research directions (e.g., Hodgkinson and Healey, 2018). However, narrative reviews alone typically lack an explicit and transparent procedure that guides the inclusion and exclusion of relevant literature, so “the principal drawback of the narrative review is its inherent subjectivity” (Hodgkinson and Ford, 2014, p. S1). The transparent procedures of systematic reviews and the theory building affordances of narrative reviews thus complement each other.

Following common practice in management and organization studies, our review passed through three stages: (1) planning the review, (2) conducting the review, and (3) reporting and dissemination (Tranfield et al., 2003). Fig. 1 provides an overview of the three main stages and related activities.

Beginning with the planning stage, the third author performed an initial search of the literature building on a prior literature review about emotion in strategizing (Brundin and Liu, 2015). Our goal was to expand the prior review’s focus on strategizing and provide an “integrative synthesis” (Rousseau et al., 2008) of knowledge concerning the role of emotions in strategic management at large. Accordingly, we formulated the following review question: “How does emotion influence strategic management?” At this stage, our

¹ According to Powell et al. (2011), “behavioral strategy merges cognitive and social psychology with strategic management theory and practice. Behavioral strategy aims to bring realistic assumptions about human cognition, emotions, and social behavior to the strategic management of organizations and, thereby, to enrich strategy theory, empirical research, and real-world practice” (p. 1371).

² We use emotion as an umbrella term to include affect, mood, and emotion. In line with Barsade and Gibson (1998), we regard these as semantically similar terms for people’s feeling responses and suggest that strategic management involves intense affective states directed towards significant objects and therefore that “emotion” can be used generally (Huy and Guo, 2017).

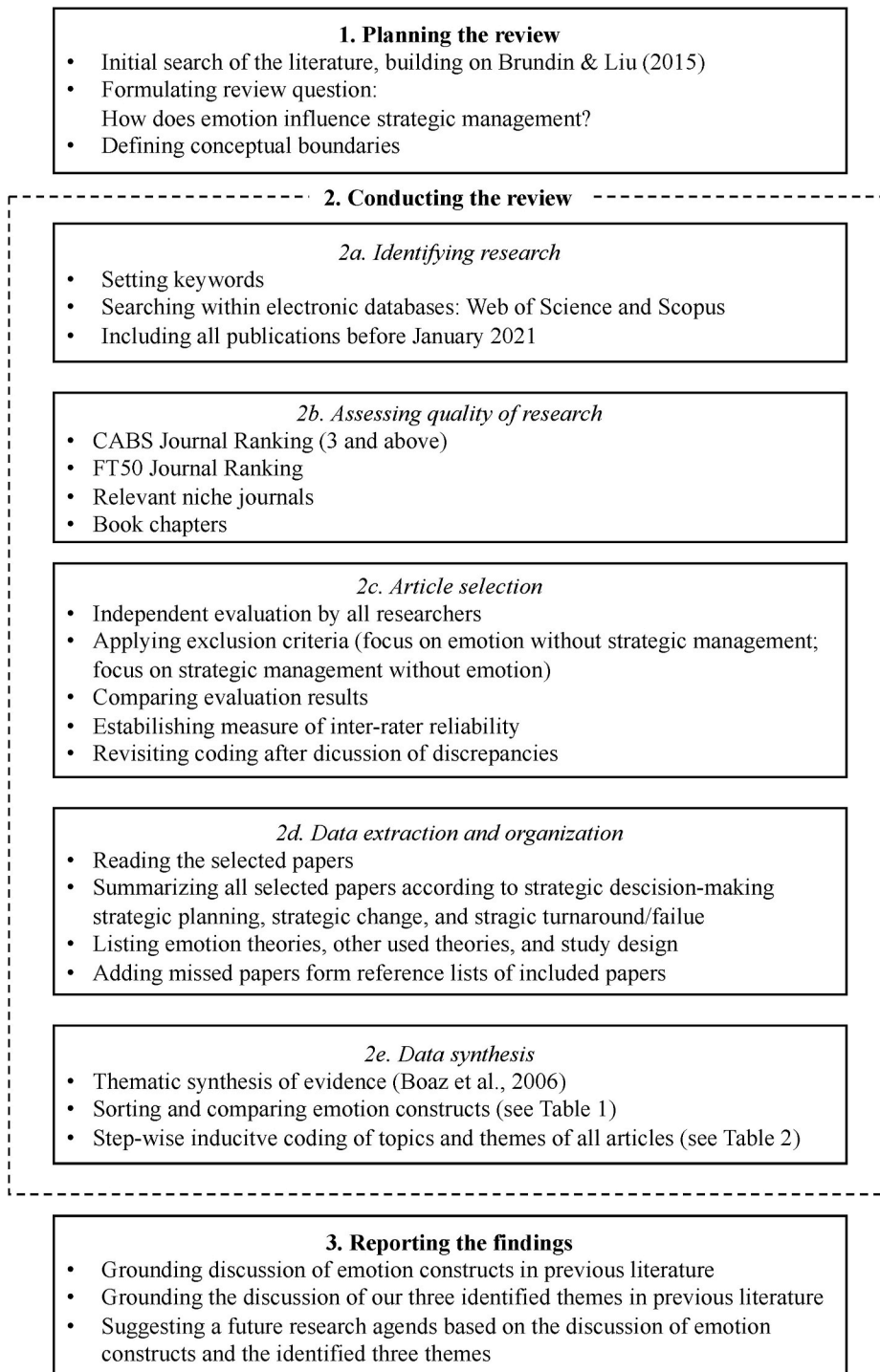


Fig. 1. Review summary.

primary aim was to create a list of keywords and refine the research question and not to identify relevant articles.

The second stage involved identifying research, assessing the quality of research, selecting research, data extraction and monitoring, and data synthesis (cf. [Tranfield et al., 2003](#)). We identified research through keyword searches. After several rounds of iterations, the final search syntax³ included “emotion” and related terms and synonyms, a list of six discrete emotions following Ekman⁴ (1992), and 15 affective experiences⁵ representing emotions following the circumplex model of affect ([Posner et al., 2005](#)). We combined these keywords with variants of strategy and strategic management as well as a list of common strategic activities (e.g., strategic decision-making, strategic change). We used the search syntax to identify research in the two databases Elsevier’s *Scopus* and *Clarivate Analytics* Web of Science™ Core Collection. These databases allowed us to search across journals and book chapters published by different publishers. The search was not limited to a specific timeframe, meaning that we included all possible entries.

Concerning quality assessment, we followed similar reviews and focused on top-tier journals, which allowed us to effectively identify major research trends in each subject field (e.g., [Atewologun et al., 2017](#); [Radaelli and Sitton-Kent 2016](#)). We used the Chartered Association of Business Schools’ (CABS) Academic Journal Guide 2018 and included all 3-, 4- and 4*-ranked journals related to general management, ethics, social responsibility, strategic management, entrepreneurship and small business management, organizational psychology, and organization studies. To ensure that we did not miss out on any relevant journals, we cross-checked the resulting journal list with the Financial Times ranking of the top 50 academic journals, excluding finance, accounting, economics, marketing, and operations/information systems journals. We did not identify additional relevant journals on the Financial Times ranking that were not already included in our journal list based on the CABS list. In addition to journal articles, book chapters were identified via the two databases using the same procedure. The selection of book chapters was not subject to specific quality restrictions; we included all book series that were listed in either of the databases. The total sample included 1663 journal articles and 460 book chapters.

For article selection, we decided to proceed in two steps. First, we checked and refined our selection criteria based on a subsample of abstracts, which each of the authors evaluated separately. All authors read the abstracts of 490 journal articles and 65 book chapters and classified the articles as “relevant,” “maybe relevant,” or “not relevant” based on their fit with our research question, that is, whether they had a pronounced focus on emotions and strategic management. We evaluated the interrater reliability by keeping each evaluation separate before a subsequent discussion and calculated three measures of interrater reliability. We performed Krippendorff’s alpha test ([Hayes and Krippendorff, 2007](#)), which showed borderline acceptable interrater reliability ($\alpha = 0.6717$). We calculated the one-way random intraclass correlation coefficient; the single measure of 0.717 with a 95% confidence interval from 0.681 to 0.751 ($F = 8.616, p < .000$) suggested moderate to good reliability ([Cicchetti, 1994](#); [Koo and Li, 2016](#)). Finally, we calculated Kendall’s coefficient of concordance. The value of 0.786 ($p < .001$) suggested a reasonable degree of reliability. Although the results were acceptable, there was some variance in ratings. Therefore, we jointly evaluated all articles marked “relevant” and “maybe relevant” by at least two of the authors. We then refined our inclusion and exclusion criteria and decided to exclude articles that discussed emotions and organizational behavior, industrial work psychology, or organizational change but did not draw specific connections to strategic management topics. We also excluded papers that focused exclusively on intuition or empathy or other similar emotion-related constructs but not emotion *per se*.

We then proceeded to the second step of our analysis. Following the refined criteria, we divided the evaluation of all remaining abstracts that were not included in the first subsample (1173 journal articles/395 book chapters) among the research team. Ultimately, we identified 140 articles and 25 book chapters for deeper reading. The reason for the high drop-out rate was that many articles either merely mentioned emotion or synonyms without conceptualizing or problematizing the concept or focused on managerial strategies that could not be classified as strategic management according to the definition in our review.⁶

The deeper reading further narrowed the selection to 51 articles and 6 book chapters. It also revealed an additional 16 articles and 4 book chapters that authors referenced in the topic area but that our database search failed to identify. After careful reading, we considered 78 entries (68 articles and 10 book chapters) relevant and hence within the scope of this review.

Before synthesizing the data, we summarized all entries in the Appendix and categorized the entries into strategic decision making (e.g., [Fodor et al., 2016](#); [Treffers et al., 2020](#)), strategic planning ([Dunk and Cutcher, 2019](#)), strategic change and implementation (e.g., [Erkama and Vaara, 2002](#); [Holstein et al., 2018](#)), and strategic turnaround (incl. failure) (e.g., [Mantere et al., 2013](#)). The reviewed

³ The full search syntax was as follows: (“emotion*” OR “mood*” OR “feeling” OR (“affect” AND “emotion”) OR “positive affect” OR “negative affect” OR “affective” OR “affectively” OR “anger” OR “disgust” OR “fear” OR “joy” OR “happiness” OR “happy” OR “sad*” OR “surprise” OR “alert” OR “excited” OR “elated” OR “contented” OR “serene” OR “relaxed” OR “calm” OR “bored” OR “depressed” OR “upset” OR “stressed” OR “nervous” OR “tense”) AND (“strategy” OR “strategic change” OR “strategic management” OR “strategi?ing” OR “organi?ational change” OR “strategic leader*” OR “strategic transformation” OR “strategic implementation” OR “strategic decision-making” OR “strategic planning”).

⁴ Ekman’s (1992) six basic/discrete emotions are love, joy, surprise, anger, sadness and fear. Although multiple lists of basic emotions exists, we decided to use the original list by Ekman, which is also the most common (and most cited) list. This list has also been thoroughly scrutinized since its origin in 1972.

⁵ The 15 affective experiences are alert, exited, elated, happy, contented, serene, relaxed, calm, bored, depressed, sad, upset, stressed, nervous, and tense. These affective experiences correspond with the fifteen of the 16 affective experiences of Barrett and Russell, 1998), and Russell and Barrett, 1999. In this way, we covered the fifteen overlapping affective experiences of all three circumplexes, except for lethargic in the former and fatigue in the latter. Sad and happy overlap with Ekman’s emotions of sadness and joy.

⁶ We rely on [Naq, Hambrick and Chen’s \(2007, p. 944\)](#) definition: “The field of strategic management deals with the major intended and emergent initiatives taken by general managers on behalf of owners involving utilization of resources to enhance the performance of firms in their external environments.”

Table 1
Emotion, emotion constructs, definitions, and article examples.

Emotion Construct	Subconstructs		Definition	Examples from the literature review
	Individual level	Collective level		
Affect			An umbrella term encompassing a broad range of feelings that individuals experience, including feeling states, such as moods and discrete emotions, and traits, such as positive and negative affectivity (all defined below) (Barsade and Gibson, 2007)	Hodgkinson and Healey (2011; 2014)
	Mood		Generally, mood assumes the form of a global positive (pleasant) or negative (unpleasant) feeling and tends to be diffuse rather than focused on a specific cause with a medium duration (from a few moments to a few weeks or longer) (Barsade and Gibson, 2007)	Garvin and Roberto (2005); Fodor et al. (2016)
	Discrete Emotion		Emotions focused on a specific target or cause that are relatively intense and short lived (Barsade and Gibson, 2007). Such emotions may be experienced (felt) as intrapsychic states or displayed, i.e., manifested in observable facial expressions, bodily gestures, tone of voice, or language (Bartel and Saavedra, 2000; Elfenbein, 2007; Rafaeli and Sutton, 1989). Examples of the discrete emotions examined include anger, frustration, happiness, sadness, fear, shame, guilt, and excitement	Brundin and Melin (2006); Brundin and Nordqvist (2008); Hodgkinson and Healey (2011); Huy (2011); Huy et al. (2014); Kiefer (2005); Kisfalvi and Pitcher (2003); Liu and Maitlis (2014); Mantere et al. (2013); Samra-Fredericks (2000, 2003, 2004); Vince (2006); Vuori et al. (2018).
	Dispositional (Trait) Affect		The overall personality tendency to respond to situations in stable, predictable ways. A person's "affective lens" of the world (Barsade and Gibson, 2007)	Delgado-García and De La Fuente-Sabaté (2010); Delgado-García et al., 2010; Kisfalvi and Pitcher (2003)
			Collective Emotion (Group or Organization)	The affective composition of the various affective attributes of a group's members (Barsade and Gibson, 2007)
Emotional Labor	Emotional Labor		The "effort, planning, and control needed to express organizationally desired emotions during interpersonal transactions" (Morris and Feldman, 1996, p. 987); the management or modification of emotions as part of the work role (Grandey, 2000)	Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006); Clarke et al. (2007)
Meta-emotional Abilities	Emotional Balancing		The ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, discriminate among these emotions and use this information to guide one's thinking and actions (Salovey and Mayer, 1990)	Huy (2002); Huy (2012b)
	Emotional Recognition		Individuals' attempts to "influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions" (Gross, 1998, p. 189)	Kim and Mauborgne (1998)
	Emotional Aperture		The (leader's) ability to recognize the composition of diverse emotions in a collective (e.g., group or business unit) (Sanchez-Burks and Huy, 2009, p. 22).	Sanchez-Burks and Huy (2009).
		Emotional Capability (Organization)	An organization's ability to acknowledge, recognize, monitor, discriminate, and attend to its members' emotions; emotional capability is manifested in the organization's norms and routines related to feelings (Schein, 1992)	Huy (1999); Huy (2005a)
Emotion-fueled Construct	Emotional Energy	Emotional Energy	Emotions are generated in social interactions and are built over time into emotional energy, which is a long-term feeling of attachment to a group. A continuum exists ranging from confidence, enthusiasm, and good self-feelings to depression, lack of initiative, and negative self-feelings (Collins, 1981, 1990)	Brundin and Nordqvist (2008)
	Emotional Ambivalence		Experiencing both positive and negative emotions simultaneously (Raza-Ullah, 2020)	Raza-Ullah (2020)

articles and book chapters focused on one of the four activities, mirroring the scope of the role of emotion in strategic management that we conceptualized. In the Appendix, we also list the strategic actors involved and the arenas in which they acted. Additionally, we list the emotion theories, other theories used, and study designs.

With regard to the literature synthesis, our review did not adopt a meta-analytic synthesis due to the lack of extensive, comparable quantitative data and common research questions and showed a diverse use of epistemological approaches and research methodologies (Denyer et al., 2008; Hodgkinson and Ford, 2014; Tranfield et al., 2003). We therefore performed a thematic synthesis of evidence (cf. Boaz et al., 2006) with the aim of producing a meta-level interpretation of a phenomenon by identifying its underlying higher-order themes, similar to other qualitative meta-synthesis approaches such as meta-ethnography (Noblit and Hare, 1988; see also Denyer and Tranfield, 2006; Denyer et al., 2008). Put differently, the goal was to achieve synthesis by “summarizing the findings of a group of studies” (Tranfield et al., 2003, p. 214). We started the coding procedure by sorting and defining the emotion constructs used in the strategic management literature. We then examined the topics and findings of each paper, searching for patterns. Table 2 summarizes the stepwise and iterative procedure, which moved from individual papers to first-level and second-level codes before eventually identifying the following three themes: nonconscious influences of emotion, emotion regulation, and collective emotions. The classification into themes was individually performed by the researchers. The individual classifications were compared, and the final decisions were based on joint discussions until agreement was achieved. This step and the associated reporting thus reflect the narrative element of our review.

3. Emotion constructs in strategic management

The diversity of emotion constructs that we found in the literature on strategic management is both a blessing and a curse. On one hand, a diversity of constructs can indicate the development of a field in terms of its sophistication. On the other hand, a lack of clear definitions, inconsistent definitions, and missing boundary conditions may lead to confusion and confounding effects (Suddaby, 2010). Clarity is especially important since the field comprises both qualitative and quantitative studies with different epistemological and ontological assumptions and inherent paradigm tensions (cf. Fineman, 2005). Researchers face the option of treating emotion in an essentialist way as an a priori concept or considering the meaning and social construction of emotion. Studies following a psychological approach are representative of the former approach in our review (e.g., Fugate et al., 2002; Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011; Netz et al., 2020). Such studies often use predesigned questionnaires, a circumplex model of affect, or laboratory experiments. Studies following social-psychological or sociological approaches represent the evolution of emotion in social interactions (e.g., Brundin and Nordqvist, 2008; Samra-Fredericks, 2004; Smollan, 2012; Vince, 2006), and interviews, real-time observations, and ethnographic and longitudinal studies are prominent.

Across the reviewed literature, the most commonly used construct is discrete emotions, i.e., emotions focused on a specific target or cause that are relatively intense and short lived (Barsade and Gibson, 2007); the individual’s interpretation of the target event determines how he or she will feel and behave (Fineman, 2003). Discrete emotions may be experienced (felt), disguised, or displayed, i.e., manifested in observable facial expressions, bodily gestures, tone of voice, and/or language (Bartel and Saavedra, 2000; Elfenbein, 2007; Rafaeli and Sutton, 1989). Examples of discrete emotions examined in the strategic management literature include anger, frustration, happiness, sadness, fear, shame, guilt, and excitement (e.g., Huy, 2011; Kisfalvi and Pitcher 2003; Liu and Maitlis, 2014; Samra-Fredericks, 2000, 2003). Additionally, secondary emotions that emerge from social interactions (Kemper, 1987) are represented in our review and are exemplified by pride, pity, and confidence (e.g., Brundin and Nordqvist, 2008; Harbour and Kisfalvi, 2014; Maitlis and Ozelik, 2004). Here, both the target and the nature of the interaction matter; that is, with whom the interaction occurs, the prevailing norms, the nature and extent of previous interactions, and the physical setup (e.g., the presence or absence of background noise).

Furthermore, the strategic management literature has borrowed predefined emotion constructs from psychology and organization theory. For example, the emotions experienced during the five stages of grief (Friedrich and Wüstenhagen, 2017) are a typical case that examines the relationship between an existing emotion construct and aspects of strategic management. Researchers have also created new emotion constructs inductively, building upon previous emotion literature. For example, *emotional aperture* describes a leader’s ability to recognize collective emotion (Sanchez-Burks and Huy, 2009), and *emotional balancing* is the ability to balance one’s own and others’ emotions by “(1) emotionally committing to personally championed change projects and (2) attending to recipients’ emotions” (Huy, 2002, p. 31). Huy and colleagues’ concepts thus contribute to organization theories concerning emotion.

Table 1 summarizes the emotion constructs used in the strategic management literature to date. In the application of this diverse set of constructs, we found some emerging problems. First, constructs are introduced to the strategic management field as broad umbrella constructs (Hirsch and Levin, 1999) to describe affective phenomena without clearly defining the construct used or differentiating between discrete emotions, dispositional traits/affect, or moods. The interchangeable use of “affect” and “emotion” in the strategic management literature is an example in which emotion, instead of affect, has become a construct that encompasses emotion, moods, and traits in many of the articles that we reviewed (cf. Barsade and Gibson, 2007, who use affect as an umbrella term and explain the relationships between the affective terms). For example, Stanley (2010) developed propositions about positive and negative emotions, although the ideas better match dispositional trait affects that differ in duration and in how they are experienced. Other researchers have extended the notion of emotion even further to include constructs such as commitment (e.g., Korsgaard et al., 1995). This development reflects that emotion at times has become an empirical and intuitive umbrella term used to describe affective phenomena in the strategic management literature.

The second issue is that researchers use the same emotion constructs to refer to different emotion phenomena. An example is the concept of emotional recognition. As part of their intellectual and emotional recognition theory, Kim and Mauborgne (1998) argue that

emotional recognition as part of proper human conduct entails making people feel appreciated for who they are and is a trait of emotional intelligence (cf. Petrides, 2010). In contrast, Huy (1999) defines emotional recognition as a set of abilities that entails perceiving one's own and others' emotions. Here, emotional recognition refers to a leader's skill rather than to a trait related to caring for and recognizing one's own and other people's emotions. An example of the use of different concepts for a similar phenomenon is when researchers seem to reinvent the wheel. In our review, we noted the use of the concept of *emotional ambivalence* by Raza-Ullah (2020) to refer to the simultaneous experience of positive and negative emotions. In the literature, similar concepts have been labeled emotional messiness (Brundin and Sharma, 2012) or emotional complexity (Rothman and Melwani, 2017), showing how confusion and possible confounding effects may occur if the relationship between concepts is not problematized or clarified (cf. Suddaby, 2010).

4. Three themes of emotion in strategic management

Our analysis of the extant research identified three overall themes that address how emotion influences strategic management. The first theme – *nonconscious influences of emotions and their effect on strategic management*– builds on the notion that emotions can be part of “automatic processes” that are less conscious yet have a significant impact on strategic management. The second theme – *emotion regulation and its effect on strategic management*– shows that emotion can effectively be managed or properly displayed and, at times, can also be a “useful tool” for strategic management. The third theme – *collective emotions and their effect on strategic management*– illustrates that when emotion is experienced by a group, it has the potential to be a strong driving force in strategic management. Table 2 summarizes our core arguments pertaining to each theme and cites relevant key references. Since the themes are not an exclusive way to sort the literature but rather a way to slice the literature in three different ways, in some cases, we categorized an article into more than one theme when the article explained how emotions influence strategic management in more than one way. In the following text, we summarize the literature in line with these three themes and thus create connections among separate foci of different strategic activities.

Table 2

Emotion themes in strategic management.

Emotion theme	Second-order code	First-order code	References
The influence of non-conscious emotions	Emotion affects decision-making and risk propensity	Happy managers in urgent situations produce fewer original and feasible strategic ideas and sad managers make better quality decisions	Treffers et al. (2020)
		Positive affective traits are associated with the adoption of a new strategy that further results in positive emotion A CEO's trait affective characteristics and displayed emotions have an impact on the TMT and can ease or delay decisions Positive emotions and positive emotional experiences in the start-up of family firms lead to lower levels of risk taking than in non-family firms External and internal affective events trigger emotions and moods and may influence information intake and risk propensity with the willingness to spend, e.g., more financial means Emotion helps to sense threats and opportunities in risky decision-making scenarios	Håkonsson et al. (2016) Kisfalvi and Pitcher (2003) Stanley (2010) Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2008) Hodgkinson and Healey (2011; 2014); Hodgkinson et al. (2015); Håkonsson et al. (2016) Delgado-García and De La Fuente-Sabaté (2010); Delgado-García et al. (2010) Fodor et al. (2016); Delgado-García et al. (2010) Fineman (1996)
	Emotions as an antecedent or mediator in strategic change	CEOs' negative affective traits lead to risk aversity, whereas positive affective traits make CEOs more creative Positive emotions lead to a higher level of risk taking (or do not influence), and negative emotions lead to risk aversity Solutions to institutional pressures on an organization about environmental issues are mediated by managers' emotional meanings of the issue Unfair treatment in a change process is an antecedent to negative emotions, which serves as a mediator for lack of trust or less commitment to the organization Employees' emotional valence and intensity go through different stages in a strategic change	Kiefer (2005); Smollan (2012) Kiefer (2002); Klarnar et al. (2011); Liu and Perrewé (2005); George and Jones (2001); Harris and Gresch (2010) Scheck and Kinicki (2000); Fugate et al. (2002)
		Strategic change can trigger employees' negative emotions, and employees address these dependent on how they are appraised in relation to their coping possibilities Employees' positive affect (as a mediator for psychological resilience) works as a mediator between organizational inducement and affective and normative commitment to strategic change Happiness, pride and relief are part of positivity and increase emotional attachment to the organization and strategic change	Shin et al. (2012) Raitis et al. (2017)

(continued on next page)

Table 2 (continued)

Emotion theme	Second-order code	First-order code	References
Emotion regulation	Managing own emotions	Emotional labor is a way to suppress inappropriate emotions in strategic change in order to not lose benefits	Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006)
		Managers' awareness of their own emotions will help them understand the role of emotions and ease strategic management	Huy (2002); Vince (2002); Vince and Broussine (1996)
		It is necessary to understand emotional and political tensions to understand change and that fear of change decreases the likelihood of change	Vince (2002)
		Discourses are forceful tools in change but can be regulated by emotional involvement by employees and then form powerful means in the change process	Garrety et al. (2003)
		Managers' rationalization of emotions eases their strategic management and helps them to justify a strategic failure	Vince (2006)
		Organizational members develop narratives and use metaphors as coping mechanisms to make sense of and manage their emotions	Mantere et al. (2013), Smollan (2014, 2017)
		Managers' masking of emotion can lead to misunderstandings and, ultimately, to strategic failure in an integration process	Vuori et al. (2018)
		Emotion management and managers' self-regulation of their emotional capacity (in addition to their cognitive capacity) allows them to better sense, seize and reconfigure opportunities and increases the organization's competitive advantage	Hodgkinson and Healey (2011; 2014) Healey and Hodgkinson (2017)
		Employees use different coping mechanisms to regulate negative emotions	Smollan (2017)
		Emotional exhaustion as a consequence of strategic change is mediated by personal control	Paulsen et al. (2005)
Managing others' emotions	Managing others' emotions	Top managers' own emotion regulation may be changed by other power groups' regulation of the top managers' emotions	Vuori and Huy (2021)
		Negative emotions during change are to be regulated by managers	Kiefer (2002); Smollan (2012)
		Managers need to manage employees' emotions and moods in failure	Garvin and Roberto (2005)
		Managers can help employees manage their emotions by letting them visualize them	Barner (2008)
Leading by managing emotions	Leading by managing emotions	A manager's ability to manage his or her own and employees' emotions in a change process eases the change process	Clarke et al. (2007); Gunkel et al. (2015); Garvin and Roberto (2005); Huy (2001, 2002); Huy et al., 2014
		Display of emotions shows priority to top management teams, and displays of emotion serve as a means to influence strategic choice and action	Samra-Fredericks (2000, 2003, 2004); Haag and Getz (2016); Liu and Maitlis (2014)
		Managers who regulate their own and others' emotions can mobilize human and social capital for a specific purpose	Huy and Zott (2019)
		Appealing to 'hope' can help with easing tensions between historical and new narratives in strategy development	Holstein et al. (2018)
		A strategic leader's authentic display of emotions supports the strategic change process	Brundin and Melin (2006, 2012); Haag and Getz (2016)
		High emotional energy creates power and status dynamics in groups, which makes strategic managers influential, whereas low emotional energy makes the strategic leader powerless	Brundin and Nordqvist (2008)
		Managers' commitment and ability to create positive emotions help employees to be committed to change	Kimberley and Härtel (2007)
		Support from managers' side during an M&A reduces the potential of negative emotions in employees	Gunkel et al. (2015)
		Leaders' attention and a fair process make team members more committed during the decision-making process	Korsgaard et al. (1995)
		Managers' ability in change processes to recognize emotion patterns in groups, considering psychological, cultural, and other contextual factors, eases the change process	Sanchez-Burks and Huy (2009)
Managers' meta emotional abilities, including emotional aperture and emotional recognition, facilitate strategic change for the individual as well as the organization as a whole	Huy (1999, 2002, 2005b, 2008, 2012a); Sanchez-Burks and Huy (2009)		
Middle managers' balancing of their own and others' negative and positive emotions eases their sensemaking of emotions and thereby eases the radical strategic change process on an organizational level	Huy (2002)		

(continued on next page)

Table 2 (continued)

Emotion theme	Second-order code	First-order code	References	
Collective emotions	Identity, trust and collective emotion	Emotion management can create a link between employees' emotions and organizational dynamic capabilities	Huy (2008)	
		In an emotionally capable organization, collective, contrasting emotions can be developed and can increase strategic agility	Huy (2008)	
		Emotional intelligence on the individual level interacts with emotional dynamics on the organizational level; together, they create commitment to change	Huy (1999)	
		Emotional capabilities on the organizational level can increase the effect of middle managers' emotion management as a link between top management and employees	Huy & Guo (2017)	
		Collective negative and positive emotions coupled with collective identity threats from 'outsiders' may obstruct change on a group level with implications between 'insiders' and 'outsiders'	Fiol and O'Connor (2002); Huy (2011)	
	Emotional contagion		Middle managers' perceptions of their top managers' legitimacy can lead to lack of trust and a threatened identity and result in resistance to change. Emotional censorship intensifies negative emotional reactions and resistance	Huy et al. (2014)
			Fair decision-making processes in TMTs affect idea- and knowledge sharing and lead to commitment and trust and improved team performance on different levels, whereas the opposite leads to anger and obstructive behavior and to decreased performance	Kim and Mauborgne (1998)
			Attention to group emotions and the sharing of emotions build trust and facilitate change; otherwise, tensions occur	Sloan and Oliver (2013)
			Shared fear among top managers can influence shared fear among middle managers and harm long term strategy/innovation/development if it is misaligned	Vuori and Huy (2016)
			Negative group emotions as part of toxic decision processes travel across decision makers and organizational members, whereas positive emotions create emotional attachment	Maitlis and Ozcelik (2004)
Emotional appeals from employees and media can mobilize resistance to change	Erkama and Vaara (2010)			
Expressed shared emotions of powerlessness on one level can lead to change on the organizational level	Kerosuo (2011)			
The intensity of emotional displays can spread to the whole group and lead to a uniform strategic direction	Liu and Maitlis (2014); Netz et al. (2020)			

4.1. Nonconscious influences of emotion and their effect on strategic management

Emotion may play a supportive or an obstructive role and can occur anywhere at any time in strategic management. Emotion can be an antecedent of strategic leaders' decisions and actions, and it can be a mediator or an outcome of strategic management. As such, emotions are not always easy for managers to foresee; they can change from one moment to the next, and they can be more or less easy to identify. Many of these processes occur within individuals, where the influence of emotion takes place in a nonconscious way and has an effect on strategic management. The literature on this theme mainly followed Fineman's (1999) position on emotion as either interfering with rationality when strategic leaders are not fully aware of their emotions or as serving rationality, that is, assisting the individual in starting to think about what is relevant or irrelevant. Emotion and rationality can be regarded as entwined when cognition and affect become one, for example, when strategic managers are worried and therefore simultaneously engage in problem solving. Research within this theme is largely grounded in psychological theories and methods.

4.1.1. Emotion affects decision-making and risk propensity

Studies show that emotion affects decision-making in general and risk propensity in particular. Strategic managers' discrete emotions can be difficult to observe and yet have a decisive effect on strategic processes. For instance, happy and sad managers under time constraints propose fewer original and feasible strategic ideas than neutral managers under no time constraints (Treffers et al., 2020). Self-reported and psychosociological measurements show that positive emotions of strategic leaders encourage the decision to adopt new strategies (Håkonsson et al., 2016). In addition to contemporary emotions that managers experience during a particular situation, past emotional experiences influence strategic decision making (Kisfalvi and Pitcher, 2003; Stanley, 2010). Research has illustrated how a CEO's past emotional experiences were so strong that colleagues during TMT (Top Management Team) discussions could not change the CEO's stance to either ease or delay decisions (Kisfalvi and Pitcher, 2003). This example underlines the complex interaction between affect, cognition, and behavior and its effects on strategic management.

Within this theme, past research has pointed to the effect of emotion on risk propensity as a particularly important decision-making variable in strategic management. For example, research on how trait affect influences strategic actors' risk propensity and decision

making suggests that individuals act according to emotions' valence: CEOs' negative affective traits or states, such as being distressed, upset, nervous, or afraid, render decision makers less prone to take financial risks and lead to more traditional strategic decisions with risk-averse behavior (Delgado-García and De La Fuente-Sabaté, 2010; Delgado-García et al., 2010; see also Barsade and Gibson, 2007). In contrast, positive affective traits and states, such as being interested, enthusiastic, proud, determined and attentive, do not lead to a higher level of risk taking (Delgado-García and De La Fuente-Sabaté, 2010) but affect the ability to think outside the box strategically (Delgado-García et al., 2010). Thus CEOs with positive affective traits take strategic paths that differ from those of their peers who lack such traits; therefore, CEOs with positive affective traits are inclined to adopt new strategies, which may lead to additional positively experienced emotions (Håkansson et al., 2016).

In addition to affective traits that tend to have a more long-term and stable effect, affective events can trigger emotion that affects risk taking and strategic adaptation. Thus, workplace events of a strategic character can trigger anger, sadness, joy, and happiness, making TMT members principally more inclined to take risks, whereas disgust, fear, and anxiety should make them less inclined to do so (Ashton-James and Ashkanasy, 2008). Sensing, seizing and reconfiguring opportunities are not only rational but also affective events as theorized in a couple of conceptual papers (Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011, 2014). In such situations, high anxiety may limit strategic managers' attention to sensing relevant opportunity signals, whereas being overly optimistic may lead managers to ignore them (Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011). Mental images of success may give rise to excitement and hope and may promote the seizing of opportunities, whereas negative images of failure may give rise to fear and feelings of uneasiness. Identity-related negative affective responses of strategic leaders and teams may be so strong that they impede the reconfiguration of the opportunity, whereas positive affective responses lead to the opposite effect. Thus, affective reactions can—at least in theory—increase a firm's competitiveness when handled correctly by strategic managers (Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011).

4.1.2. *Emotion as an antecedent or mediator of strategic change*

Studies have identified factors that interact with emotion during strategic change and have suggested that emotion, as an antecedent or mediator, combines with cognition, supporting the interpretation and sensemaking of change. For example, negative emotions can obstruct trust due to perceived injustice (Smollan, 2012), and daily perceptions of insecurity, inadequate working conditions, or unfair treatment in the organization can trigger negative emotions among employees (Kiefer, 2005). In a recursive relationship, these negative emotions further diminish employees' trust in management and perpetuate a negative cycle. Emotions of anger, resentment, sadness, and guilt can also work as mediators when employees experience a lack of control or coping efficacy in a strategic change situation, affecting their choice of coping strategy (Scheck and Kinicki, 2000). For employees who receive incentives such as career development opportunities and other perks, positive affective states work as a mediator between psychological resilience and affective and normative commitment to strategic change (Shin et al., 2012).

Similarly, employees' emotional appraisals play a large role in the merger and acquisition literature, although with different foci and results. Negative emotions such as anger, resentment, guilt, frustration, anxiety, distraction, worry, or helplessness have shown the potential to linger over time and remain the same from the initial to the final stage of the acquisition process, even if the negative appraisal of the merger changes over time (Fugate et al., 2002). In contrast, positive appraisals of happiness, pride, and relief, activated by personal and organizational growth expectations, trigger emotional attachment in employees as part of identification building during an acquisition and integration process (Raitis et al., 2017). However, mergers may also give rise to both positive and negative emotions simultaneously (Kiefer, 2002; Lawlor, 2013); for example, feeling happy about making change happen while at the same time feeling fear of a loss of status (Kiefer, 2002).

4.2. *Emotion regulation in strategic management*

The second major research theme related to emotion in strategic management is that emotions can be regulated. This theme addresses strategic managers' ability to manage or cope with their own emotions or those of others. An individual may or may not be aware of his or her own emotion regulation on a continuum from controlled and effortful awareness to awareness without reflection (Gross, 1998). Disguising one's emotions, displaying an emotion that one does not feel, or displaying what is regarded as an appropriate emotion for the occasion are examples of emotion regulation. However, emotion regulation is not limited to the strategic manager modifying his/her own emotion; emotion regulation can also target someone else's emotion (Gross, 2014), meaning that managers may strategically regulate other managers' and employees' emotions. Processes that regulate emotions may change the latency, intensity, and duration of an emotion or the emotion itself (Gross, 2014). In this theme, the psychological approach is prevalent in discussions of the intraindividual regulation of emotion. However, overall, social-psychological approaches are most common since this literature mainly involves emotion regulation in interindividual encounters.

4.2.1. *Employees' and managers' management of their own emotions*

During strategic change, employees may suppress the display of what they regard as inappropriate emotions, such as frustration, anger, and fear, because such displays could lead to the loss of decision-making power, career growth, and promotion opportunities (Bryant and Wolfram Cox, 2006). In such situations, managers can better understand their employees' emotions and their resistance to change if they become more reflective about their own emotions during change (Huy, 2002), for instance, by becoming aware of and managing their own fear and anxiety as part of emotional and political tensions (Vince, 2002; Vince and Broussine, 1996). Similarly, managers who, in response to an organizational change discourse, regulate their emotions and rationalize their defensive emotion of fear and self-conscious emotions such as shame and pride can change or reproduce power relations (Garrety et al., 2003). Managers who acknowledge change as something powerful rather than negative and are given time to manage emotional and relational issues

seem better suited for change (Vince and Broussine, 1996).

For strategic leaders, emotion can also serve as a regulatory mechanism to rationalize and justify the outcomes of strategic initiatives. For example, rationalizing strategic failure can make difficult emotions, such as anger, shame sadness, fear, and pain, more manageable (Vince, 2006). Rationalization is also a way for managers to avoid feelings about their own managerial responsibilities and the entrenched conflicts and company politics that can be triggered by the failure of a strategic initiative. These managers argue that it is legitimate to place oneself first to minimize their own emotional burden and to be able to carry on. Similarly, the strategic use of narratives and metaphors has been shown to be a successful way to manage intense negative emotions in response to strategic outcomes and therefore to understand failure (Mantere et al., 2013) or change in general (Smollan, 2014). The suppression or masking of managers' emotions as part of emotion regulation and emotional labor can also affect the success or failure of strategic initiatives. For instance, when both parties of an acquisition (i.e., managers of the acquiring and the target firms) mask their emotions of dissatisfaction, this may lead to misinterpretation by the opposite party, and strategic failure can occur when neither party communicates openly or addresses problematic issues (Vuori et al., 2018).

Self-regulation of emotion can also play a role in the competitive advantage of the firm. It has been argued that managers who can control their emotions in sensing and seizing opportunities and regulate their self-protective emotions in reconfiguration situations are managerially more dynamically capable, relative to their counterparts lacking such skills (cf. Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011). This capability could then be extended throughout the organization and lead to preparedness to sense and adapt in strategic change situations (Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011; 2014) where emotional mental processes (hot cognition) and cognitive processes (cold cognition) are balanced (Hodgkinson et al., 2015). The time aspect is also crucial since initial emotions may take a new shape during strategic change. Top managers who are embedded in boundary-spanning structures such as the board of directors, analytical teams, and strategic partners (Vuori and Huy, 2021) gain access to data and information over time. Such data intake may require top managers to self-regulate their initial emotions, altered by other group members' input in a process of socially distributed emotion regulation, leading to the top managers' reappraisal of the strategic situation. In turn, this reappraisal may influence the outcome and the company's competitive advantage.

4.2.2. Managers' management of others' emotions

In general, it is considered necessary for managers to regulate employees' negative emotions in organizational change processes (Kiefer, 2002; Garvin and Roberto, 2005), mainly because their emotions can obstruct change (e.g., Smollan, 2012). Managers therefore play a role in regulating employees' emotions during strategic change since managing and balancing employees' emotions can help to increase the likelihood of a positive outcome of the change process (Clarke et al., 2007; Huy, 2002).

There are several strategies that managers can use to regulate employee emotions. For instance, managers may regulate employees' negative emotions by addressing employees' concerns and fears during the change process (Gunkel et al., 2015). Managers can also regulate employees' negative emotions by letting them use metaphors as a tool to make sense of strategic change (Barner, 2008). Under such circumstances, strategic leaders can also ease the emotion regulation of organization members by (1) managing and balancing the ebb and flow of employees' emotions and moods, (2) finding a balance between positive and negative messages, (3) acknowledging feelings of depression while promoting positive feelings about the future, (4) providing time to grieve, and (5) conveying caring feelings that help employees understand and make sense of the process (Garvin and Roberto, 2005). In contrast, when top managers engage in "emotion censorship" to prevent middle managers from displaying fear or anger during an implementation, these middle managers react with disappointment (Huy et al., 2014), which can lead over time to a rejection of the top managers' authority.

4.2.3. Leading by managing emotions

The literature further demonstrates that managers can use emotions as part of their leadership strategies. The "deliberate use" of emotion regulation by strategic actors can influence others and facilitate strategic management outcomes. A manager's ability to know which emotions to express and when and how to express them can influence far-reaching strategic actions during apparently mundane interactions. For example, a TMT member who combines linguistic skills and the display of appropriate emotions can shape the team's interpretation of the importance of the strategic message being conveyed and the actions that should be prioritized (e.g., Samra-Fredericks, 2000, 2003, 2004). TMT members can emotionally engage colleagues, evoke sympathy in colleagues, and prompt a series of further actions and decisions by drawing on emotions such as frustration, worry, anger, despair, or exasperation and providing a logical and rational account of concerns and worries regarding the future (Samra-Fredericks, 2004). To pursue strategic opportunities, it can be useful for managers to regulate their own emotions to mobilize human capital resources in others, whereas their regulation of emotions of employees and external stakeholders mobilizes social capital (Huy and Zott, 2019). Top managers can also emphasize hope to regulate fear when they propose a new strategic direction (Holstein et al., 2018). This approach helps management resolve the tension between the two emotions of hope and fear among employees and indirectly functions as a regulatory measurement.

Middle managers' emotional balancing between organizational continuity and change is another way to lead with emotions (Huy, 2002). Middle managers' emotion-based abilities to buffer their negative emotions ease the strategic change process when they make sense of their own emotions and pay attention to the emotions of employees. Their emotional commitment and their ability to share feelings of disappointment and frustration motivate others, thereby avoiding chaos or inertia on an organizational level. Hence, attending to employees' emotions (e.g., Garvin and Roberto, 2005; Gunkel et al., 2015) and the balancing of emotions (Huy, 2002) supports inducing positive emotions or reducing negative emotions.

The choice managers make to lead via surface vs. deep acting can influence the level of trust in the strategic management team and have an impact on the success of how managers "lead with" emotions. Studies have shown that when a CEO engages in surface acting, emotions can be interpreted as inauthentic; employees may sense the discrepancy and become confused about how to act, which can

result in unintended strategic outcomes (Brundin and Melin, 2006). However, when the CEO engages in deep acting (congruence between displayed and experienced emotions), the trust between strategic leaders and employees increases, and the process of achieving the intended strategic result is facilitated (Brundin and Melin, 2006, 2012; Haag and Getz, 2016). This occurs regardless of whether the displayed emotions are positive or negative.

The regulatory aspect of emotion can be influenced by the body language associated with emotional energy. Brundin and Nordqvist (2008) present evidence of how emotional energy influences power and status dynamics during board meetings at times of strategic change. When managers express high emotional energy, displayed as commitment, satisfaction, or frustration, they are more likely to gain increased control during the change process, while expressions of low emotional energy, displayed as sadness or resignation, lead to the loss of power and status and alienation from discussions and decisions.

Emotionally skilled managers are thus essential for working towards a beneficial result for the organization as a whole (e.g., Brundin and Melin, 2006; Haag and Getz, 2016; Huy, 2002; Sanchez-Burks and Huy, 2009). Managers who possess meta-emotional abilities, such as emotional balancing (Huy, 2002) or emotional aperture (i.e., the skill of recognizing emotion patterns and regulating them; Sanchez-Burks and Huy, 2009), are supposedly better equipped to regulate and influence how their employees make sense of their emotions and interpret the strategic activities in which they participate. It is conceptually argued that an organization becomes emotionally capable through organization-based emotion management routines exercised by managers dealing with contrasting emotions (e.g., fear vs. pride; dissatisfaction vs. feelings of safety); in this way, strategic agility may be increased (Huy, 2008), and managers' regulation of emotions can be seen a link between top management and employees (Huy and Guo, 2017). Ultimately, these abilities supposedly facilitate the strategic change process (Huy, 1999, 2002, 2005b, 2008, 2012a; Sanchez-Burks and Huy, 2009).

4.3. Collective emotions in strategic management

Strategic management has become a collective effort with collective goals (Huy and Guo, 2017), and it is recognized that organizational life involves the emotional interdependence of individuals in groups (Elfenbein, 2007). Accordingly, "groups are emotional entities" (Barsade and Gibson, 1998, p.81); therefore, emotion is not only an intraindividual or interindividual phenomenon but also a collective phenomenon (Barsade and Gibson, 2007) that encompasses groups and organizational levels (Ashkanasy, 2003; Elfenbein, 2007). Collective emotions occur for different reasons, such as similar interpretations, experiences, and identities, a common organizational culture, strong identification with the organization, affective and cognitive control in the organizational culture, or emotional contagion (Huy, 2012b). The source of collective emotion differs depending on whether researchers adopt a top-down or bottom-up perspective (Barsade and Gibson, 2007). Top-down approaches stipulate that emotions first arise in a group as a group emotion and that each group member joins in with the emotion; bottom-up approaches stipulate that individual group members' emotions lead to collective emotions when others join in (Barsade and Gibson, 1998). These two approaches share similarities with the notion of emotional contagion, that is, the interpersonal transmission of emotions, mainly via complementary nonconscious and nonverbal clues (Barsade, 2002). However, other mechanisms underlying collective emotions may be the inclination to share emotions, the interaction *per se* among group members, the institutionalization of sharing the same emotions, and processes of identification (Menges and Kilduff, 2015).

4.3.1. Identity, trust, and collective emotions

One source of top-down dynamics of collective emotions is identity threats. Identities have been shown to be particularly ambiguous among groups and are triggered by emotions during strategic change (Fiol and O'Connor, 2002; Huy, 2011). Identity threats can trigger collective emotions that favor or disfavor strategic change. For example, within the same corporation, workers and local communities may be considered insiders and managers may be considered outsiders. Workers' and communities' beliefs about "who we are" may become contested by managerial outsider beliefs about "who they are," triggering collective emotional tensions between the two groups' collective identities (Fiol and O'Connor, 2002). Similarly, Huy (2011) study shows how senior executives' change implementation actions contested the collective identity of middle managers with a shared culture and professional identity. This led to top-down collective emotions among the middle managers when the implementation actions threatened certain aspects of their collective identity, such as their tenure-related social identities (organizational loyalty, experience, and competence) and their language-related social identities (French-speaking managers vs. English-speaking executives).

Paired with middle managers' lack of trust in top managers' legitimacy as change agents, identity threats can lead to frustration, disappointment, and anxiety and create collective resistance to change or dampen collective actions to implement change initiatives (Huy et al., 2014). In contrast, when top executives attend to middle managers' negative emotions, middle managers feel that their social identities are valued, positive emotions are generated, and middle managers become engaged in implementing strategic change. Trust and commitment can also be achieved or jeopardized through collective emotions depending on whether team members perceive decision-making processes as fair or unfair (Kim and Mauborgne, 1998). Similarly, if strategic leaders do not attend to group emotions and share emotions in the effort to build trust (Sloan and Oliver, 2013), tensions may occur that spill over among groups and across levels. The underlying aspects of power and a lack of trust can lead to the back-and-forth movement of negative emotions between two groups as a collective phenomenon that takes the form of fear and results in strategic myopia, i.e., short-term thinking at the expense of long-term strategic thinking. For instance, Nokia's struggle during the process of smartphone innovation demonstrates this role of shared group emotions when middle managers' and top managers' fears are attributed in completely opposite directions (Vuori and Huy, 2016). Top managers feared external competitors and shareholders and therefore placed substantial pressure on middle management to develop quick and adequate solutions. In turn, the middle managers' judgment was influenced by fears of negative consequences for their personal careers; therefore, negative information was kept from top management.

4.3.2. Emotional contagion and collective emotions

In contrast to the top-down group emotional dynamics triggered by identity and trust issues, emotional contagion describes a bottom-up process of how group emotions emerge. Emotional contagion can occur in informal settings, such as during small talk between managers or employees, and then escalate to encompass whole groups. For instance, a study reported that sensitive, ambiguous, and nonurgent issues triggered toxic decision-making processes in which negative emotions became widespread over time through recursive everyday activities, empathetic transmissions of emotions, and emotional clues (Maitlis and Ozcelik, 2004). These negative emotions influence organization members' interpretation of events and their subsequent behaviors, highlighting the detrimental effects of emotion in strategic management.

However, emotional contagion can also be a strong driving force for change, as in Erkama and Vaara's (2010) study where employees, the local community, and the media joined forces in emotional appeals to stop the shutdown of a local factory. The change force of emotional contagion is also illustrated by the case study of a surgical unit in which tensions between a growing waiting list of people who needed operations and the pressure of treating them properly triggered collective emotions that empowered the employees to implement new working processes, which improved the situation (Kerosuo, 2011). Among group members with the same occupation and collective mind, shared emotions of powerlessness can thus work as a force to transfer the situation from "I" to "we" and collectively facilitate change at the macro level of the organizational structure (Barsade and Gibson, 1998).

The intensity of emotion in a group can travel in many ways and can have important implications in strategic management (Menges and Kilduff, 2015). When multiple TMT members displayed intense positive or negative emotions in a dynamic and cyclical manner over time, these emotional dynamics influenced the process and outcome of the TMT's strategic decision making (Liu and Maitlis, 2014). These dynamics were influenced by the nature of the issues discussed (i.e., urgent vs. nonurgent), and they achieved their functions by either pulling the team members together or pushing them apart. Furthermore, in crisis decisions, the intensity of affective displays among group members of a crisis team was shown to be of importance to members without previous experience with business disruptions, whereas the valence of affective displays (positive vs. negative) played a more prominent role in teams with at least one member with previous experience (Netz et al., 2020). The affective reactions by each individual crisis team member thus shaped the interpretation of the group's displayed affectivity.

5. Future research directions

The subject of emotion in strategic management has received increasing scholarly attention. The extant literature has focused on relevant issues that have changed our view of who the strategists are, what they do, and – how they feel. Our review has shown that emotion can trigger or delay strategic decisions, make strategic managers favor or avoid adopting strategies, ease or obstruct strategic change, support or obscure communication, and grant or deny power to the strategic manager. Thus, emotions have a decisive impact on strategic management.

Despite the increasing knowledge about emotion in strategic management, there are topics that require further attention. Emotion in strategic management is often considered "a given," that is, something that strategic managers (or employees) have or something that is inherent or triggered by, for example, strategic change. Emotions themselves are less often addressed in relation to underlying organizational conditions or external factors that may play a role. It has long been argued that emotional reactions only make sense when placed in their spatial and temporal contexts (Mesquita and Frijda, 1992). However, based on our review, we note that the contextualization of emotion is limited. Cultural dimensions of emotions on the national level may be acknowledged during an M&A (Gunkel et al., 2015), but they are seldom explicitly addressed as having an influence on the organizational or the group level, with a few exceptions (e.g., Fineman, 1996; Huy, 2011; Klarner et al., 2011; Sanchez-Burks and Huy, 2009).

Furthermore, the implications of organizational boundary structures on emotion are in their infancy (Vuori and Huy, 2021). We have also observed that most strategic actors are top or middle managers, particularly in large organizations (e.g., Delgado-García and De La Fuente-Sabaté, 2010; Fineman, 1996; Haag and Getz, 2016; Holstein et al., 2018; Huy, 2011; Samra-Fredericks, 2003; Vuori et al., 2018), leaving room to focus on other strategic actors and other contexts. These aspects matter since strategic managers face different cultural and organizational settings due to increasing globalization and digitalization. A contextualized understanding of emotions and their valuation is thus crucial for strategic management. Strategic actors also face an increasingly stressful context where external critical incidents have an effect on how all employees, including strategic actors, feel. This was made painfully clear during these last two years when the pandemic caused a societal transformation of our way of working, with effects on emotions in strategic management in various organizational settings. For these reasons, we address this in our first future research avenue: *scope conditions of emotion research in strategic management*.

Research on strategic decision-making and its role in risk propensity has made much progress by showing how emotion interacts with cognition (e.g., Delgado-García et al., 2010; Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011; 2014). The literature has reached beyond the need to justify the emotive strategic manager. However, other challenges lie ahead. For example, emotion may vary from one minute to the next and may be only partially under control (Ashkanasy, 2003), may be contagious between individuals and may become collective (e.g., Liu and Maitlis, 2014), and may travel between levels of the organization (e.g., Ashkanasy et al., 2017). Since intraindividual emotions are less visible (e.g., Bryant and Wolfram Cox, 2006; Håkansson et al., 2016; Stanley 2010; Vuori et al., 2018) and the spread of emotions is difficult to follow, it remains challenging to trace cause-and-effect chains. Even when emotions are displayed and expressed (e.g., Barner, 2008; Erkama and Vaara, 2010; Garrety et al., 2003; Liu and Maitlis, 2014; Maitlis and Ozcelik, 2004; Treffers et al., 2020), in general, it is a challenge to capture them. More elaborate and novel methods as well as combinations of approaches may be helpful to address these challenges. We address these issues in our second future research avenue: *capturing emotion in strategic management*.

The theme of emotion regulation, describing how managers can influence which emotions to express, as well as when and under what circumstances to experience and express them, also raises concerns. For instance, the suppression of emotions and surface acting may be a way to protect oneself and one's self interests, either as an employee or a strategic manager. For strategic managers, this is a challenge since "change is a managed process, one which assumes that forces can be both under the control of, and beyond the control of managers at the same time" (Vince and Broussine, 1996, p. 2). However, research within the strategic management field has thus far not addressed such implications in detail for either employees or managers. Stress and well-being are contemporary worldwide concerns, and accepting the state of affairs without careful problematization may lead to an unwarranted emotional climate where the strategic outcome is prioritized rather than possible emotional side effects. Although strategic politics and power issues of emotion suppression and surface acting have been considered (Vince, 2002, 2006; Vince and Broussine, 1996), neither the ethical nor the health-related issues of regulating one's own and others' emotions are problematized at large and in relation to other practices of emotion regulation. Furthermore, novel approaches with a critical outlook are important because a field will not develop unless it is critically scrutinized. We turn to these concerns in our third research avenue: *the ethics, power and the politics of emotion in strategic management*. Fig. 2 presents a summary of our review, including identified issues and avenues for future research.

As shown in Fig. 2, the identified issues are compiled into three avenues of future research that emerged from the review: (1) the scope conditions of emotion research in strategic management; (2) capturing emotion in strategic management research; and (3) the ethics, power and the politics of emotions in strategic management. The suggested avenues are meant to provide inspiration rather than being exclusive.

5.1. Scope conditions of emotion research in strategic management

Our review of emotion constructs reveals that a majority of the entries did not consider the role of context. Following Suddaby (2010, p. 348), we agree that "few constructs in organization theory have universal application" and argue that it is essential to discuss space, time, and value constraints in the theorization of the emotion and strategic management literature. A contextualization of emotion should take into account space (cultural setting, type of organization), time (time scales, possible organizational fads), and values (taken-for-granted assumptions) (Suddaby, 2010).

Concerning space constraints, research on emotions in strategic management seems primarily limited to the Western discourse on emotions, which has consequences for the application of the research results. We know that emotions differ across cultures (Matsumoto et al., 2002) because they depend on culturally taught emotional behavior (Mesquita and Frijda, 1992). For example, emotions are considered more important in East Asia than in the West. However, even within the broader Western context, differences exist: Western Europeans are more analytic and sensitive, while North Americans appear to be more expressive of authentic emotions (Masuda et al., 2008). Strategic managers moving across different cultures must be sensitive to other contexts when displaying their emotions and interpreting the emotions of others. However, most of the reviewed research has been conducted in a Western context (Western Europe, North America, Australia, and New Zealand), with a few exceptions, including Guatemala (Fiol and O'Connor, 2002) and South Korea (Shin et al., 2012).

In addition to the Western context, future research concerning strategy and emotion should develop novel grounded theories related to the contextual effects on strategic management and emotions in other geographical and cultural contexts or should question existing theories. The key is not only to conduct research in different cultural settings but also to theorize and explicitly problematize how cultural dimensions of emotion affect strategic management. In the Ethiopian context, for example, the organizational culture is hierarchical, and the leadership approach is often regarded as "management by fear" (Beugré and Offodile, 2001), placing emotion and

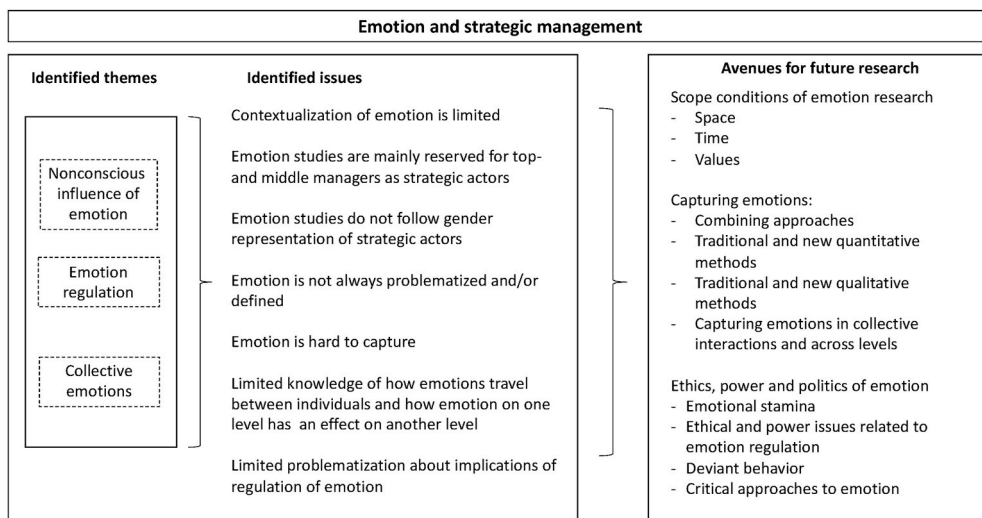


Fig. 2. From review to avenues for future research.

strategic management in an alternative light. Some exceptions in this review are Sanchez-Burks and Huy (2009) and Gunkel et al. (2015), who take cultural and psychological contextual factors into account.

Space constraints can also involve the type and size of an organization. Except for a few studies conducted in the context of medium-sized companies and/or family businesses (see Brundin and Melin, 2006; Brundin and Nordqvist, 2008; Liu and Maitlis, 2014), research has mainly focused on large or multinational companies, and much less effort has been made to investigate small businesses and family businesses. It can be assumed that such arenas offer rich opportunities for the study of emotions because, by necessity, the actors must cooperate in closer proximity to one another, and conflicts are more difficult to avoid or conceal. Future research concerning such arenas can closely focus on emotions and how they affect strategy not only at the interpersonal and group levels but also at the organizational level. Furthermore, a focus on different types of organizations can also include the ownership perspective. We know that different types of owners (e.g., family business owners vs. industrial owners) operate under different logics (Arregle et al., 2007; Brundin et al., 2014) that likely have implications for strategic practices related to ownership, including emotion patterns. However, research on emotion and strategic management thus far has not problematized the dimensions of ownership and size.

Time is an additional contextual factor that has captured less attention in the reviewed literature, although time can be a relevant dimension in connection to emotion (Fugate et al., 2002; Treffers et al., 2020). In situations characterized by time constraints and stress, team members are likely to react to their strategic leader's emotional expressions (Netz et al., 2020), which shape their judgments, decisions, and behavior (Van Kleef, 2009). For example, a strategic leader under stress who displays anxiety may trigger emotional contagion within the group. Such shared anxiety is likely to affect group behavior and can lead to paralysis or listlessness, thereby decreasing the possibility of adopting the best possible actions or decisions. Under other contextual conditions in which the strategic manager is able to allow team members time to process information and to become more familiar with the situation, a strategic leader's emotional expression of anxiety can lead to an inferential process in which the team members process the message of anxiety and then possibly engage in motivated action to support the leader. This is only one hypothetical example in which emotion and the time dimension may play a decisive role in the strategic outcome that can be further developed. The above reasoning builds on the EASI model (Emotion as Social Information; Van Kleef, 2009), which is a relevant tool to understand the role of emotions as affective signals or inferential processes, that is, whether time is provided to make sense of affective signals. In particular, contextual factors guide which of the two processes, affective signals or inferential processes, will develop (Van Kleef et al., 2012).

Finally, constraints of values are most difficult to identify because they refer to the underlying assumptions of the researchers (Suddaby, 2010). One issue we identified in the review is that strategic actors are most often white males of Western heritage. This portrayal is problematic because it risks discrimination and promotes a discourse of typical male attributes (cf. Ahl, 2004) instead of including other relevant representations of strategic actors. This creates an opening for future research to a) focus on a wider array of possible strategic actors other than Western white males and examine the role of their emotions when they conduct strategic activities and to b) apply emotion and gender theories that are contextually sensitive. Gender has been associated with differences in emotions due to men's and women's status and identity in their role performances (Kangas and Meyerson, 2008) and is therefore worthy of future research on the relationships among and between strategic actors.

Relatedly, we found that many papers indirectly assume that engagement in strategic activities is primarily reserved for the upper echelon of an organization (e.g., Haag and Getz, 2016; Kisfalvi and Pitcher, 2003; Samra-Fredericks, 2000), for middle management (e.g., Huy, 2002; 2012; Netz et al., 2020; Shin et al., 2012), or for both (e.g., Huy, 2011, 2014; Korsgaard et al., 1995; Vince, 2006; Vuori and Huy, 2016; Samra-Fredericks, 2000). An option for moving away from the assumption that strategic actors are members of top management would be to ascribe strategic responsibility to employees and explore how their emotions have an impact on strategic management in a more straightforward fashion (Jarzabkowski, 2005). This implies that any person in an organization is a strategic actor if his or her actions or behavior have an impact on the strategic outcome. Therefore, examining the emotions experienced and displayed by organization members other than top managers and designated strategic actors (cf. Kerosuo, 2011), who are not readily identified as strategic actors, could provide opportunities to identify processes in which emotions affect less-visible strategic actors and their activities that have a bearing on the organizational level.

5.2. Capturing emotion in strategic management

Searching, finding, and capturing elusive, short-term emotions that are affective, dramatic, and interruptive (Ekman, 1992; Collins, 2014) has been shown to be a challenge. As mentioned earlier in this review, it is further complicated by the different ontological and epistemological positions of different emotion researchers (Fineman, 1999), leading to differing (or a lack of) definitions of emotion. For instance, Kouamé and Liu (2021) observe that psychological perspectives tend to focus on within-person reaction(s) to a stimulus, the social-psychological perspective focuses on the social functions of emotions in daily interactions, whereas sociological perspectives focus on the social construction of emotion and the intersubjective and collective nature of emotions. Therefore, in addition to the obvious recommendation that researchers clearly define emotion and emotion constructs, we note researchers' efforts to combine approaches. For instance, a fruitful way forward could be to combine embodied cognition with embodied emotion (Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011; Healey and Hodgkinson, 2017). Here, social neuroscience is in focus with a critical realism approach that can inspire the reconciliation of two seemingly conflicting epistemological and ontological views. Whereas we appreciate these authors' innovative ways of combining approaches, we argue that, as Kouamé and Liu (2021) noted, researchers' different approaches are not "incommensurable"; rather, they capture and analyze different dimensions of a "multifaceted phenomenon" (Jakob-Sadeh and Zilber, 2019).

There are additional methodological concerns to be considered in future research for researchers following different approaches. Researchers who follow a psychological approach to studying *intra person felt* emotions have relied on experimental settings, verbal

accounts, or survey data, which can be subject to retrospective rationalization and other bias. However, emerging methods can offer researchers a way to “catch the unknowable” (Sturdy, 2003) in action. For example, Ashkanasy et al. (2017) suggest measuring physiological changes, such as heartbeat, blood pressure, sweating, and facial movements, to determine what is occurring emotionally. Others have suggested using functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) (Laureiro-Martínez et al., 2015) to scan and detect the brain activity of strategic managers while they make choices. Such methods can help to draw connections between emotion and behavioral strategy, answering recent calls for more “neurostrategy” research (e.g., Powell, 2011; Healey and Hodgkinson, 2017; Hodgkinson and Healey, 2014; 2018). Drawing upon neurological theories of emotion can contribute to examining intrapersonal processes in greater detail and increase reliability (e.g., Ashkanasy et al., 2017; Waldman et al., 2011). Such theories of emotion stipulate that emotions are related to certain activities in brain areas that direct attention, motivate behavior, and determine the significance of events (Healey et al., 2017; Laureiro-Martínez et al., 2015). Strategic management research can draw upon these theories to directly observe the interplay between cognition and emotion and explore how and why certain strategic managers tend to make specific decisions. By using the methods suggested above or similar methods, researchers can directly examine the current largely theoretical arguments to connect positive and negative emotions to the ability to sense opportunities and threats in the environment (Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011).

Academics with a research interest in intrapersonal emotions are encouraged to find additional methods to capture connections between emotions and the brain and/or physiological changes. For example, recent developments in machine learning and video technology allow for automated analyses of basic emotions as expressed through facial expressions (Lewinski et al., 2014). With increases in video resolution and storage capacities, it even becomes possible to use such automated analysis for naturalistic video (e.g., Jiang et al., 2019). Such technological advancements offer unique opportunities to capture subtle emotion in more naturalistic settings. Other technological advances make smaller gadgets readily available to capture individuals’ bodily changes (e.g., Apple watches capture changes in heart rate) and others’ activities and emotions (e.g., gadgets such as Google Glasses; see Lahlou, 2011). Methods that include novel techniques used for emotion research should be critically scrutinized from an ethical point of view, and questions related to philosophical and existential issues are not farfetched: how private are emotions, and how closely should researchers be allowed to come to an individual’s most private sphere?

The downside of experimental and laboratory settings and the use of technical equipment is that it is difficult in these settings to account for the contextual circumstances we have problematized in the previous section and that are prevalent in day-to-day organizational and managerial settings. A large proportion of the reviewed literature follows a social-psychological approach to emotion and uses qualitative methods such as video filming and audio recording (Liu and Maitlis, 2014; Samra-Fredericks, 2004), observations and diaries (Brundin and Nordqvist, 2008; Clarke et al., 2007), storytelling (Bryant and Cox, 2006), or drawings (Vince and Broussine, 1996) to examine how emotions play out interpersonally. Such methods have much more to offer, and we encourage researchers to be creative and daring by combining these methods, preferably in real-time studies, to “catch” emotions in context where and when they occur. For instance, Jarrett and Liu (2018) proposed a three-pronged, video-based approach for studying top management team interactions that can be used to study emotion. After recording top management team meetings, it is possible to “zoom in” to examine the detailed emotion displayed in strategists’ meetings, to “zoom out” to see patterns of displayed emotional dynamics across multiple meetings and explain how these emotional dynamics influence strategy management over time, and finally to “zoom with” the strategists by having them watch emotional episodes in which they are involved in the meetings to receive their own interpretations of the episodes including the contextual influence and effect of emotions.

Although many of the reviewed contributions suggest that emotion plays a role at different levels (e.g., Erkama and Vaara, 2010; Fiol and O’Connor, 2002; Huy, 2011; Kerosuo, 2011), knowledge is limited concerning how emotions at the micro level result in meso- and macrolevel outcomes, i.e., how emotion affects strategic management across different levels. In addition, little is known about how to capture collective emotions in an organization. Understanding the implications of the effects of emotions and the processes and dynamics between levels and among individuals is a challenging task, especially since emotion is personal and can vary from 1 s to the next (Ashkanasy, 2003).

Future research can consider using theories related to microsociology, which stipulates that aggregates of microevents translate to the macro level (e.g., Blumer’s, 1969 symbolic interaction theory; Collins’ interaction ritual chain theory, 1981; Schatzki’s practice theory, 2001). Such theories can help researchers conduct detailed research that “reveals the empirical realities of social structures as patterns of repetitive micro-interaction” (Collins, 1981, p. 985). Although scarcely represented in this review (cf. Brundin and Nordqvist, 2008; Liu and Maitlis, 2014; Netz et al., 2020; Samra-Fredericks, 2003), the application of the strategy-as-practice (SAP) perspective can capture and study the role of emotion across organizational hierarchies as well as among individuals, especially when combined with a processual perspective (Kouamé and Langley, 2018). SAP research stipulates that strategies evolve in the “detailed processes and practices which constitute the day-to-day activities of organizational life and which relate to strategic outcomes” (Johnson et al., 2003, p. 4). In addition, this perspective allows for a detailed focus on contextual factors.

Capturing collective emotions and how they travel when they occur in real time is an extremely challenging task methodologically. Researchers need to develop tools that capture when emotions are shared between individuals through interactions and mutual influence (Kouamé and Liu, 2021). Strategy researchers can borrow from institutional theory researchers’ practices, such as ethnographic investigations and direct observations, to capture collective emotions, as suggested by Zietsma et al. (2019). The authors propose using interviews as a complementary method; when direct observation is impossible, they use archival videos, texts, photos, and social media posts to reconstitute episodes of social interactions and to capture collective emotions that occurred in the past (e.g., Farny et al., 2019; Toubiana and Zietsma, 2017; Vuori, 2017). In line with these suggestions and the SAP approach, the “zoom in-out-and with” approach (Jarrett and Liu, 2018) in combination with refined technical equipment for emotion research has the potential to further uncover the complexity of emotion. An alternative is to use computer simulation models such as agent-based

modeling to better understand affect-cognition interactions across organizational levels (Healey et al., 2017).

The theoretical approaches and methods described above, or a combination of them, can also be used to study other complex patterns of emotions. For example, it is reasonable to think that individual actors experience different emotions not only at different points in time during the strategic process but also at the same point in time. Detailed accounts of microactivities and experienced emotions or affective reactions can help researchers understand how the emotions of strategic managers can be pointed in different directions. Emotions may be directed toward oneself (self-focused, e.g., sadness), toward specific members (other people-focused, e.g., anger), toward the group (group-focused, e.g., trust), toward the organization as such (organization-focused, e.g., frustration), and/or directed toward the content or the process of the strategy (strategy-focused, e.g., worry) (cf. Brundin and Härtel, 2013). Even if such emotions can be overlapping, disentangling the mix of emotions and affective reactions in this way can provide an understanding how they play out in different patterns in individuals or group settings having a bearing on the strategic outcome at the group and/or organizational level. These issues can be challenging for strategic managers and may require the management of emotional complexity not only for the well-being of others and that of the manager him- or herself but also to achieve strategic outcomes. Thus, future research that accounts for complex emotion patterns is warranted.

Emotions can also be approached in an alternative way, for example, by acknowledging the performative nature of emotion (Brundin and Melin, 2006; Latour, 1998). This means that emotion is not primarily something an individual *has*; rather, it depends on what other people decide to make of it. In essence, the interpretation is in the eye of the beholder. A strategic actor who screams is regarded as being angry when people in the environment interpret the scream as anger. Emotion is thus an effect rather than a means. All actors are therefore equally important, and it is in the social interactions of displayed and expressed emotions that emotions occur, are interpreted and are acted upon or not acted upon and therefore have implications for strategic management. Viewing emotions as performative can illuminate the dynamics of emotional processes and determine whose interpretations are granted preference and why and how such preferences are determined. Methodologically, this approach may be inspired by Brundin and Melin (2006): immediately before the meetings they observed, they asked all participants what they expected of themselves and of others attending the meeting; immediately afterwards, they asked all participants how they interpreted other members' emotions during the meeting and how they reacted/or intended to react to these emotions. Interpretations were thus made by the strategic actors involved.

5.3. Ethics, power and the politics of emotion in strategic management

From the review, we observe a need to address the dimensions of ethics, power, and politics, which emerged primarily from the literature that deals with the regulation of emotions. A large number of the entries included in the review describe how emotion is – and could be – regulated (e.g., Bryant and Wolfram Cox, 2006; Hodgkinson and Healey, 2011, 2014; Huy and Zott, 2019; Kiefer, 2005; Samra-Fredericks, 2003; Smollan, 2012; Vuori and Huy, 2021; Vuori et al., 2018). Regulation of emotion is a way to “use” emotion as a tool to manage and to control one's own emotion and attempt to manage others' emotion. This is often portrayed as positive, with the emotionally intelligent strategic manager supporting the achievement of strategic goals and the firm's success (e.g., Huy, 2008; 2011; Kerosuo, 2011; Sanchez-Burks and Huy, 2009).

Selfregulation of emotions can however lead to unwarranted consequences such as a depletion of energy or to selfregulatory fatigue (Baumeister et al., 2000). For example, a strategic manager's masking or suppression of emotions as part of his or her identity work (e.g., Bryant and Wolfram Cox, 2006; Clarke et al., 2007) in affective situations could be detrimental for the strategic manager. The reason may be that the strategic actor does not want to show weakness or lack of knowledge. If this continues, it may lead to a situation of emotional stamina, that is, the strategic manager's surface acting over a long period of time (Hochschild, 1983). This can harm his or her ability to express authentic emotions. A balance between “normal” and dysfunctional uses of surface acting may occur naturally among most strategic leaders; however, strategic actors may have difficulty finding a balance and may engage in emotional stamina as a regulatory act to grant them perceived power over the situation. Thus, emotional stamina may lead to illness or dysfunctional behavior in the worst case (Grandey, 2003). Further investigation of the presence of emotional stamina, the circumstances under which it occurs, and its implications is warranted.

The extant literature also raises several ethical questions. Is it ethical to up- or downregulate the feelings of others for the good of the business? Is it ethical to put restraints on one's own feelings? Huy and Guo (2017) touch upon the issue of ethics in managing groups during strategic change and refer to practical wisdom that builds on showing respect for other people's individual differences. This practical wisdom can provide a basis for middle managers to act ethically in their mediating role between employees and top managers in their endeavor to fulfil organizational strategic goals. From our review, we understand that both strategic actors and employees are influenced by norms, values, traditions, organizational culture, and morality. Social interaction, which is fluid and in constant flux, also creates possibilities to take advantage of these relationships and to exploit them. Vuori and Huy's (2021) model of socially distributed emotion regulation during strategy making shows how top managers regulate their emotions through the influence of governance, advisory and boundary-spanning structures over time. As noted by the authors, the effect of emotion regulation may be negative if there is no shared appreciation of emotion regulation. Such emotion regulation processes may be imbued by power plays and politicking for different reasons and may create ethical dilemmas. Explaining how emotions play out and work as power or submission mechanisms would add an alternative angle to emotion regulation. We thus see value in future research that explicitly addresses ethical and power issues related to emotion regulation.

Furthermore, individual or collective emotions may be colored by individuals' self-interests and special agendas that are not in sync with those of the organization. Politics may, to a greater or lesser degree, be part of the character of any organization, as suggested in studies by Liu and Maitlis (2014) and Vince (2006). However, when politics are of a psychodynamic nature, as in cases in which deviant behavior is rooted in emotions such as fear of the individual's identity, security, and self-worth (Fineman, 1999), strategic

managers may need to manage such politicking or to become aware of their own possible politicking. For instance, [Hodgkinson and Wright \(2002\)](#) illustrate how a strategic leader used politics in a dysfunctional manner in an effort to derail a strategizing workshop. [Fineman \(1999\)](#) notes that psychoanalysts have found that childhood experiences can lead to relived feelings of embarrassment, vulnerability and fear in group processes. Therefore, feelings of security and insecurity and threats to self-identity come and go in a group setting and may jeopardize strategic intents. In line with this reasoning, we believe that the politics of group behavior combined with an emotion perspective are worthy of future research endeavors. Such studies can address the emotional climate (the perceived emotional state or view of the group; [Ashkanasy, 2003](#)), which can provide answers to the questions of how subconscious experiences play out, lead to deviant behavior, and affect the emotional climate.

Finally, critical approaches to extant strategy research could be beneficial for a field that is reaching maturity. In the literature, emotion at times appears to be a commodity, “something that can be negotiated, manipulated or pushed aside” ([Fineman, 2008](#), p.1). A concrete example is the seemingly taken-for-granted concept of emotional intelligence (EI) (see, e.g., the works of Huy and colleagues). [Shields and Warner \(2008\)](#) claim that EI is gender biased because previously acknowledged female emotional competences are not captured by its measurement items; rather, the measurement is gender biased to favor men, who are already in a power position. This and similar critical scrutinizing of existing emotion research in strategic management studies would benefit not only gender research but also the entire strategic management field.

6. Concluding remarks

In this review, we addressed two research questions: how does emotion influence strategic management, and how can the field be further developed? We initially structured the role of emotions based on strategic activities, sorted the different emotion constructs used in the strategic management field, and identified three themes of emotion that influence strategic management. Finally, we suggested three research avenues. Taken together, the results show that emotion in strategic management is an exciting research field that deserves focused attention in the future.

The identified themes of emotion (i.e., nonconscious influences of emotions, emotion regulation, and collective emotions in strategic management) have both theoretical and practical implications for managers and organizations. Strategic managers need to be aware of emotions, anticipate their likely presence and effects, and manage the situation as necessary. Acknowledging the multifaceted role of emotion is a first step towards being more prepared. The regulative effect of emotions shows that emotions can be actively used as a means of achieving personal, group, and organizational goals; however, managers should pay attention to possible ethical dilemmas and/or power issues. For strategic actors who come across as inauthentic, emotion regulation can lead to uncontrollable negative and surprising outcomes. In contrast, strategic actors who express authentic emotions can create commitment and reduce emotional turmoil on and across all levels in an organization. We look forward to a plethora of future studies to widen the scope of topics and deepen our understanding of emotion in strategic management.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Ethel Brundin: Conceptualization, Method, Investigation, Resources, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Visualization, Supervision, Project administration. **Feng Liu:** Conceptualization, Method, Investigation, Resources, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Visualization. **Thomas Cyron:** Method, Formal analysis, Investigation, Resources, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing, Visualization, NA: software, validation, data curation, funding acquisition.

Acknowledgements

This manuscript benefitted greatly from two anonymous reviewers’ constructive feedback and the guidance from Tomi Laamanen as our acting editor.

We are also grateful to Michael Jarrett, Dean Shepherd, and colleagues at conference presentations for valuable comments on previous versions of this paper.

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial or non for profit sectors.

APPENDIX. Emotion and strategic management: Review summary

Reviewed Literature about Emotion and Strategic Planning (Total 1 entry)					
Discrete emotions (1 entry)					
Author/s	Actors	Arenas	Emotion approach Theoretical approach Affective phenomenon	Study design	Role of emotions
Dunk and Cutcher (2019) <i>Book chapter:</i>	Leaders and employees from 16	One large Australian university	Social-psychological Discourse theory	One-year longitudinal study of strategic planning process at a	Strategy documents make interwoven appeals to readers based

(continued on next page)

(continued)

<i>Contemporary Issues in Work and Organizations: Actors and Institutions</i>	faculties of the university			large Australian university	on logic, authority and emotion. Emotional reasoning and credibility considerations are similarly crucial for a persuasive argument.
Reviewed Literature about Discrete emotions (20 entries)	Emotion and Strategic Decision Making (Total 24 entries)				
Author/s	Actors	Arenas	Emotion approach Theoretical approach Affective phenomenon	Study design	Role of emotions
Ashton-James and Ashkanasy (2008) <i>Research on Emotion in Org.</i>	Top managers		Psychological Affective events theory Positive and negative emotions: anger, joy, sadness, fear, disgust, anxiety; Mood	Conceptual	Emotions caused by internal and external affective events give rise to affective reactions and have an effect on managerial perceptions for strategic decision making.
Friedrich and Wüstenhagen (2017) <i>Business & Society</i>	Senior executives	Energy plant (nuclear phase-out) Top managers	Psychological Institutional theory The five stages of grief	Conceptual with an illustrative case	The role of emotions related to a strategic issue changes over time concerning risk perception and decision making. Depending on their grief stage and when there is a general positive trend towards change in the field, managers are more or less willing to change their organization
Haag and Getz (2016) <i>Research on Emotion in Org.</i>	42 CEOs of the 100 largest publicly traded companies in France & seven board members	France	Social-psychological Intergroup Emotions Theory (IET) Authentic emotions and CEO's emotional intelligence	Theoretical model developed from case study vignettes	Builds the inBoard Emotional Contagion Model (BECM). In situations of affective events and discussions, an emotionally intelligent CEO can initiate an emotional contagion process to homogenize board members' shared sense-making, which increases the board's performance
Harbour and Kisfalvi (2014) <i>J. Business Ethics</i>	General managers	Five general managers of financial cooperatives in Montreal, Canada	Social-psychological Courage as a moral, philosophical, psychological, and managerial concept Negative emotions of anger, fear, anxiety; positive emotion of pride	Interviews & document analyses	Pride may be used to regulate the experienced negative emotions (fear, anger, anxiety) when faced with the challenges of exercising managerial moral courage in strategic decision making. Anticipation of positive and negative emotions may inspire the authors' developed concept of managerial moral courage.
Håkonsson et al. (2016) <i>Strategic Mgmt. J.</i>	Strategic decision-making teams	Denmark	Psychological Organizational decision-making theory Positive vs. negative emotions	Laboratory, quantitative experiments Russell's circumplex model of affect	Positive experienced emotion is associated with adoption of new strategy, which further results in positive experienced emotions.
Healey and Hodgkinson (2017)	Strategists and executives in general	Examples from different kinds of firms	Psychological A parallel between dynamic capabilities'	Conceptual with illustrative examples	Strategists' ability to regulate their own and others' emotions is

(continued on next page)

(continued)

California Management Review Hodgkinson and Healey (2011) <i>Strategic Mgmt. J.</i>		in different industries and countries	sensing, seizing and transforming and emotional mechanisms Psychological Dynamic capability theory Hot cognition = high affect Cold cognition = low affect	Conceptual	important for enhancing an organization's strategic adaptation. Affect is important to effectively sense opportunities and threats since it provides motivation for cognitive adaptation. Excessively high and low affect may lead the individual to neglect them; allowing for negative affect may lead to less over- commitment
Hodgkinson and Healey (2014) <i>Industrial Marketing Management</i>	Strategic actors in general		Psychological Dynamic capability theory	Conceptual	Cognitive approach to decision making is limited. Emotional capabilities of individuals and groups are important for successful radical innovation.
Hodgkinson and Healey (2018) <i>Book Chapter: The SAGE Handbook of Industrial, Work and Organizational Psychology</i>	Strategists and executives in general		Psychological Dynamic capability theory	Review paper	Emotion is important in every aspect of strategic management. Explains how emotion plays a role in main strategic management models.
Hodgkinson et al. (2015) <i>Book Chapter: Cognition and strategy</i>	Directors and senior managers	Small and medium sized businesses in UK, range of sectors	Psychological Social neuroscience Dynamic/managerial/ capability theory Personal construct theory	Semistructured interviews The repertory grid technique used in a series of questionnaire booklets Russell's circumplex model of affect	Emotion management is a dynamic managerial capability in strategic decision making. Information processing is manifestly driven by emotions.
Kim and Mauborgne (1998) <i>Strategic Mgmt. J.</i>	Senior team members	Formal or/and informal contexts Large firms	Psychological Justice theory Trust, confidence and commitment vs. anger, indignation and discontent	Empirical exploratory field study interviewing senior managers from different companies	The authors build the intellectual and emotional recognition theory: people's need to be recognized for their ideas and for their human value in strategic decision processes in order to experience them as fair. A fair process leads to trust and commitment; the opposite leads to not sharing ideas and induces emotional anger and foot-dragging.
Korsgaard et al. (1995) <i>Academy Mgmt. J.</i>	Teams of middle and upper level managers	Fortune 500	Psychological Procedural justice theory Commitment, attachment, and trust	Experiments in 20 intact management teams	Leaders' attention to team members' input in the decision-making process is perceived as fair; it makes the team more committed to the decision and leads to higher attachment among the members and higher trust in the leader.
Liu and Maitlis (2014) <i>J. Mgmt. Studies</i>	Top management team members	Medium-sized computer game company, Western Canada	Social-psychological Discourse theory Displayed positive and negative discrete emotions, e.g.,	Qualitative, video ethnography, real-time observations Strategy-as-practice Group level	Different kinds of strategic issues trigger different types of emotional dynamics among top team

(continued on next page)

(continued)

			excitement, contempt, annoyance		members. These emotional dynamics shape the process and outcome of the strategic issue discussions. Each phase of a toxic decision process is characterized by distinctive sets of negative emotions and interactions among decision makers and other organizational members and by emotions that shape and are shaped by these interactions.
Maitlis and Ozcelik (2004) <i>Org. Science</i>	Top managers and other organizational members	Formal as well as informal arenas Multiple symphony orchestras Great Britain	Social-psychological Decision process Displayed and experienced negative emotions Anxiety, fear, shame, anger, humiliation, pity, distrust, suspicion, guilt, embarrassment, and defensiveness	Ethnographic, longitudinal, qualitative, interview and observation	Middle management teams' affective reactions (both type and intensity) not only hinder but also aid crucial information exchanges between MMT and corporate levels while making strategic decisions under extreme time pressure during business disruptions due to unforeseen events.
Netz et al. (2020) <i>Long Range Planning</i>	Middle managers	A big international corporation	Social-psychological Strategy-as-practice Circumplex model	Observations of middle managers' simulation; interviews, documents analysis, and quantitative analysis. 39 crisis management teams (400 participants)	Paradoxical tension faced by senior managers creates a state of emotional ambivalence, which in turn contributes negatively to cooperative performance. This relationship is influenced by the organization's emotional capability and balancing capability.
Raza-Ullah (2020) <i>Long Range Planning</i>	Senior cooperative managers	High-tech manufacturing and knowledge-intensive services industries in Sweden, firms involved in the simultaneous pursuit of competition and cooperation with each other	Psychological Paradox theory Emotional ambivalence: experiencing both positive & negative emotions at the same time when facing paradoxical tension Emotional capability: Accept and allow the simultaneous existence of contradictory feelings	Quantitative questionnaires (404 firms)	Strategists' displayed negative emotions influence decisions made by the board.
Samra-Fredericks (2000) <i>Corporate Governance: An International Review</i>	Top managers/board members	Manufacturing company Large for-profit Great Britain	Social-psychological Linguistics and conversation analyses theories Displayed emotion in the form of rhetoric Frustration and anger Psychological – Experienced positive vs. negative emotions	Qualitative ethnography of talk-based interactive routines spanning between 5 and 12 months Real-time observations Conceptual	a) Positive emotions are hypothesized to lead to lower levels of risk-taking behavior during the start-up process of a company, b) family founders' positive emotional experiences lead to lower levels of risk-taking behavior than nonfamily founders, c) family founders' early emotional experiences influence the organization's culture, strategy, and decision-making processes.
Stanley (2010) <i>Entrepreneurship Theory & Practice</i>	Founders of family business	Family business Country N/A			

(continued on next page)

(continued)

Treffers et al. (2020) <i>Long Range Planning</i>	Managers		Psychological Affect infusion model Discrete emotions of sadness and happiness	Experiment, pretest with students and main study with 174 managers. Scenarios	Under time constraints, managers who are happy produce fewer original and feasible strategic ideas and worse original strategic choices compared to managers in a neutral emotional state under low time constraints. Compared to managers in a neutral emotional state under low time constraints, sad managers under high time constraints make better original strategic choices.
Vuori and Huy (2021) AMJ	Top managers Expert groups		Psychological Cognitive and emotion processual perspective Appraisal theory	Longitudinal Qualitative Interviews, informal discussions, emails	A model of socially distributed emotion regulation shows how top managers' initial emotional reactions during strategic decision making may change over time, regulated by information from board members, expert groups and/or potential external partners
Moods (1 entry)					
Fodor et al. (2016) <i>J. Managerial Psychology</i>	Entrepreneurs	Entrepreneurs selected from a Romanian entrepreneur club	Psychological Ecologically rational heuristics Positive vs. negative moods (affective states)	Field experiment	Entrepreneurs are influenced by affective appraisal dimensions: when they make strategic decisions and experience negative affective states, they prefer the safer option; when they experience positive affective states, they prefer the riskier option.
Affective traits (3 entries)					
Delgado-García and De La Fuente-Sabaté (2010) <i>Strategic Mgmt. J.</i>	CEOs	For-profit companies, banking industry Spain	Psychological Institutional theory Positive (e.g., determined, enthusiastic, proud) vs. negative (e.g., afraid, distressed, upset, guilty, nervous) trait affect	Quantitative cross-sectional survey	CEOs' negative affective traits lead to more conformist strategies with more typical performance, and positive affective traits promote more out-of-the-box performance.
Delgado-García et al. (2010) <i>British J. Of Mgmt.</i>	CEOs	For-profit companies, banking industry Spain	Psychological Upper echelon theory Positive vs. negative trait affect Emotional congruency of positive and negative trait affect	Quantitative cross-sectional survey	Negative affective traits lead to less risk taking, while positive affective traits do not influence risk taking one way or another.
Kisfalvi and Pitcher (2003) <i>J. Mgmt. Inquires</i>	CEO & TMT members	Poland	Social-psychological Decision making literature Power CEO displayed intense emotions Anger, excitement, anxiety	Observations and interviews	A CEO's trait affective characteristics forestall top management teams' participation in organizational decision making.

Reviewed Literature about Emotion and Strategic Change & Implementation (Total 49 entries)
Discrete emotions (displayed/experienced emotions) (37 entries)

(continued on next page)

(continued)

Author/s	Actors	Arenas	Emotion approach Theoretical approach Affective phenomenon	Study design	Role of emotions
Barner (2008) <i>Journal of Org. Change Mgmt.</i>	7 employees and managers of an operations team	Large US firm	Sociological Metaphors and sense-making Displayed and experienced emotions Frustration, anger, fear	Participant observation, visual metaphor, narrative analysis	Strategic change triggers negative emotions in employees. Managers should let employees express these emotions to ease the change process. Visualizing change through metaphors can help employees to express emotions and to make sense of the change.
Brundin and Melin (2006) <i>Int'l Journal of Work Org. & Emotion</i>	CEO	Medium-sized private manufacturer of furniture components, Sweden	Social-psychological Strategy-as-practice Emotional dissonance Emotional authenticity Confidence, frustration	Qualitative, longitudinal study of 18 months Interviews, observations, diaries Individual level	A persistent discrepancy between displayed and experienced emotions on the part of the dominant strategist counteracts strategic change activities; consistency between the two drives the change. Deep acting drives strategic work, whereas surface acting counteracts strategic work.
Brundin and Melin (2012) <i>Book chapter: The work of managers</i>	CEOs	Manufacturing & equipment developer	Social-psychological Strategy-as-practice Deep acting and surface acting of emotions	Illustrative qualitative cases	Employees' emotional labor serves to suppress inappropriate emotions in order to not lose decision power and opportunities for growth and promotion. Managers' ability to manage their own and other employees' emotion following a change process is important for a successful change process.
Bryant and Wolfram Cox (2006) <i>Journal of Mgmt & Org.</i>	Employees	Cross-industry Australia	Sociological Change management Emotional labor Frustration, anger and fear	Qualitative Story telling Retrospective	Employees' emotional labor serves to suppress inappropriate emotions in order to not lose decision power and opportunities for growth and promotion. Managers' ability to manage their own and other employees' emotion following a change process is important for a successful change process.
Clarke et al. (2007) <i>European Mgmt. J.</i>	Managers	Aerospace engineering company UK	Social-psychological Change management Emotional labor	Longitudinal Case study Observations, diaries, interviews	Employees, media, and local community's emotional appeal to human concerns helped to rally local support for resistance to the shutdown decision of a firm; however, it was inadequate to ultimately resist the shutdown.
Erkama and Vaara (2010) <i>Org. Studies</i>	Organizational members from all levels	Large for-profit bus body manufacturer, Finland	Social-psychological New rhetorical theory Experienced and displayed emotions (from lower-level employees and media).	Interviews, company documents, media reports	Implementation of a new strategy initiative can trigger different kinds of emotions in different organizations where external pressure and corporate culture are entwined to influence the kinds of emotions triggered in managers. These emotions, to a large extent, determine the organization's
Fineman (1996) <i>Org. Studies</i>	Top executives	Supermarkets, large for-profits UK	Sociological – Emotion related to a specific kind of strategy: greening	Interviews	Implementation of a new strategy initiative can trigger different kinds of emotions in different organizations where external pressure and corporate culture are entwined to influence the kinds of emotions triggered in managers. These emotions, to a large extent, determine the organization's

(continued on next page)

(continued)

Fiol and O'Connor (2002) <i>Org. Science</i>	Change recipients and change agents	Community development (Peace Corps) in Guatemala and a production plant of General Electric	Social-psychological Identity theory	Conceptual with reference to the empirical background under Arena	implementation of this new initiative. Emotions serve as both barriers and enablers to collective identity claims and thereby to change.
Fugate et al. (2002) <i>Personnel Psychology</i>	Employees	A national organization in the aerospace industry	Psychological adaptation literature Stress and coping model Negative emotions (anger, resentment, guilt, frustration, anxiety, distraction, worry and helplessness averaged out to form a negative emotion scale)	Survey at four stages of a merger	Employees experience constant level of negative emotions in four stages of a merger (anticipatory, initial change, final change, and aftershock stages) and use coping tactics to manage their negative emotions.
Garrety et al. (2003) <i>Human Relations</i>	Top executives and other employees	Large for-profit industrial plant, Australia	Social-psychological Discourse theory Symbolic interactionism Fear, embarrassment, shame, guilt, anger, pride	Two-year study Interviews, observations in meetings, participation in workshops Experienced emotion (recalled in interview) and displayed emotion (observed in different activities)	The power of discourses is mediated through an active, reflexive and often emotional engagement by individuals. By being involved, power relationships are reproduced, resisted or reconfigured. Social controls are mediated through emotions.
George and Jones (2001) <i>Human Relations</i>	Individuals facing organizational change	Not applicable	Psychological Individual sensemaking theory Positive and negative emotions; positive and negative moods	Conceptual	Affective and cognitive elements of sensemaking are sources of emotional reactions leading to potential resistance to change or to inertia.
Gunkel et al. (2015) <i>Int'l Business Review</i>	Employees in an acquisition	3 firms in Germany, The Netherlands, & Luxembourg that were acquired by one US firm	Psychological Managerial stimuli and Hofstede Dissatisfaction and insecurity	Questionnaire	Managerial support during the acquisition process reduces employees' feelings of dissatisfaction and insecurity and leads to less resistance behavior and lower employee turnover. [the authors follow earlier literature that considered dissatisfaction an emotion]
Harris and Gresch (2010) <i>Research on Emotion in Org.</i>	Branch managers, assistant managers and tellers	A merger between two banks	Psychological Change management Pleasure	Builds on Liu and Perrewé's (2005) model (see below)	Positive felt emotion (pleasure) mediates the relationship between cognitive appraisals of the change and attitudinal and behavioral relations.
Holstein et al. (2018) <i>Strategic Organization</i>	Senior management team, policy makers, functional heads, individual academic leaders, academics	2 UK universities	Social-psychological Strategy as narrative Fear, hope	Interview, text analysis	Strategic directions of universities are set in an emotional context of fear and hope: fear of losing (e.g., competitor countries were raising their game & loss of traditional university) and hope for the future (e.g., universities to improve quality of life and contribute to society). Hope resolves this tension by framing the strategic direction of

(continued on next page)

(continued)

Huy (2002) <i>Administrative Science Quarterly</i>	Middle managers & lower-level employees	Large for-profit technology service firm, Canada	Social-psychological Change management Emotional balancing	Observations Informal conversations Individual & group level	the university as a source of strength in the new knowledge-based economy and the protector of the fundamental value of knowledge creation for its own sake. Middle managers' ability to balance their own and other employees' emotions can facilitate organizational change; otherwise, inertia or chaos result
Huy (2011) <i>Strategic Mgmt. J.</i>	Top executives Middle managers	Large for-profit firm, Canada	Social-psychological Social identity theory Discrete displayed and felt emotions: anger, unhappiness, sadness, disappointment, fear contempt	Interviews Observations	Senior executives' strategy implementation actions can elicit individual-level, privately felt, group-focused emotions that are associated with middle managers' social identities (group-level constructs) and organization-level outcomes (strategy implementation success).
Huy (2012b) <i>Strategic Org.!</i>	Top mgmt. Middle managers Organizational groups	Organizations in general	Social-psychological Social identity theory Experienced emotions	Conceptual	An essay to suggest future research regarding collective emotions and organizational emotional capability in different organizational contexts, such as M&A, downsizing, new strategic alliances and other radical change. Collective emotions are formed through similar interests, experiences, identities, the organizational culture and/or emotional contagion.
Huy et al. (2014) <i>Academy of Mgmt. J.</i>	Top executives Middle managers	Large for-profit firm, Canada	Social-psychological Legitimacy theory Discrete displayed and felt emotions: disappointment, fear, anger Planned radical	Interviews Observations	Change agents' attributes and actions (e.g., relational, moral and judgment legitimacy) play an important role in the emotional reactions of change recipients. Top executives' lack of such attributes leads to middle managers' resistance to change.
Kerosuo (2011) <i>J. Org. Change Mgmt.</i>	Staff at the surgery unit	Health care, hospital, Finland	Social-psychological Activity theory Shared emotions	Interventionist & ethnographic observations Interviews, video	Team members' shared negative emotions (so-called double binds) are a driving force for organizational change.
Kiefer (2002) <i>Managing Emotions in the Workplace</i>	HR managers	M&A Service sector Switzerland	Psychological Change management Fear, joy, anger Management of emotions in change	Interviews	Emotions are natural in change and signal that the change is important to the individual and help the individual to make sense of what is

(continued on next page)

(continued)

Kiefer (2005) <i>J. of Org. Behavior</i>	Employees	For-profit German-speaking sample, online HR-services	Psychological Trust theory Negative emotions: feelings of insecurity, unfair treatment	Cross-sectional data with a follow up. A single organization where 115 respondents answered a questionnaire	happening. Both positive and negative emotions drive action in specific directions. Working conditions, personal situation/ future and organizational treatment mediate the experience of negative emotions with an outcome of lack of trust or withdrawal from the organization. Emotions should be seen as a process during repeated or sequential changes. The impact of coping behaviors on the change may differ in the different phases of the change and may be sequential or simultaneous.
Klarner et al. (2011) <i>Scandinavian J. Mgmt.</i>	Employees in repeated change	Organizations in general	Psychological Change management Mixed emotions	Conceptual	Organizational merger triggered positive and negative emotions in employees and a more pragmatic view on organizational change. Employees' emotions go through four sequential steps, primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, coping and outcome stages, that are distinguishable in the organizational change process, each characterized by different types and intensity of emotions. Three positive emotions triggered by acquisition and integration influence an individuals' self-concepts and strengthen their attachment to the organization.
Lawlor (2013) <i>Personnel Review</i>	Academic employees	Irish higher education institution	Social-psychological Change management	Qualitative Interviews Phenomenology	Organizational merger triggered positive and negative emotions in employees and a more pragmatic view on organizational change. Employees' emotions go through four sequential steps, primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, coping and outcome stages, that are distinguishable in the organizational change process, each characterized by different types and intensity of emotions. Three positive emotions triggered by acquisition and integration influence an individuals' self-concepts and strengthen their attachment to the organization.
Liu and Perrewé (2005) <i>Human Resource Mgmt. Review</i>	Change agents Employees	Organizations in general	Psychological Transactional model of stress and coping	Conceptual	Organizational merger triggered positive and negative emotions in employees and a more pragmatic view on organizational change. Employees' emotions go through four sequential steps, primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, coping and outcome stages, that are distinguishable in the organizational change process, each characterized by different types and intensity of emotions. Three positive emotions triggered by acquisition and integration influence an individuals' self-concepts and strengthen their attachment to the organization.
Raitis et al. (2017) <i>Emotions and Identity</i>	Employees who experienced an acquisition and integration process	For-profit firm, UK	Social-psychological Positivity identity theory Positive emotions: happiness, pride and relief	Interviews (face to face and Skype audio) with 32 employees	Organizational merger triggered positive and negative emotions in employees and a more pragmatic view on organizational change. Employees' emotions go through four sequential steps, primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, coping and outcome stages, that are distinguishable in the organizational change process, each characterized by different types and intensity of emotions. Three positive emotions triggered by acquisition and integration influence an individuals' self-concepts and strengthen their attachment to the organization.
Samra-Fredericks (2003) <i>J. Mgmt. Studies</i>	Top executives	Large for-profit firm, UK	Sociological Conversational analysis Display of discrete emotions Worry, frustration, concern, anger, despair, exasperation	Real-time observations, audio recording of strategists' daily interactions	Organizational merger triggered positive and negative emotions in employees and a more pragmatic view on organizational change. Employees' emotions go through four sequential steps, primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, coping and outcome stages, that are distinguishable in the organizational change process, each characterized by different types and intensity of emotions. Three positive emotions triggered by acquisition and integration influence an individuals' self-concepts and strengthen their attachment to the organization.
Samra-Fredericks (2004) <i>Human Relations</i>	Top executives	Large for-profit firm, UK	Sociological Conversational analysis Display of discrete emotions. Frustration, despair, anger and sympathy	Real-time observation, audio recording of strategists' daily interactions	Organizational merger triggered positive and negative emotions in employees and a more pragmatic view on organizational change. Employees' emotions go through four sequential steps, primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, coping and outcome stages, that are distinguishable in the organizational change process, each characterized by different types and intensity of emotions. Three positive emotions triggered by acquisition and integration influence an individuals' self-concepts and strengthen their attachment to the organization.
Scheck and Kinicki (2000) <i>J. of Org. Behavior</i>	Employees	High tech firm in southwest US	Psychological Lazarus-Folkman's cognitive-phenomenological coping	Survey	Organizational merger triggered positive and negative emotions in employees and a more pragmatic view on organizational change. Employees' emotions go through four sequential steps, primary appraisal, secondary appraisal, coping and outcome stages, that are distinguishable in the organizational change process, each characterized by different types and intensity of emotions. Three positive emotions triggered by acquisition and integration influence an individuals' self-concepts and strengthen their attachment to the organization.

(continued on next page)

(continued)

Shin et al. (2012) <i>Academy of Mgmt J.</i>	Middle managers and lower-level employees	Large for-profit IT company, South Korea	model of stress Sadness, anger Psychological Organizational inducement and psychological resilience Normative and affective commitment State positive affect	Longitudinal survey	which in turn influence their coping behaviors. Employees' psychological resilience is mediated by positive affective states and leads to affective and normative commitment to strategic change.
Sloan and Oliver (2013) <i>Org. Studies</i>	Multiple players from different organizations in a partnership Government officials, employees	For-profit, government, and aboriginal organizations	Trust theory Social-psychological Emotional engagement Examples: sadness, anger, shame, guilt, fear, confidence, trust	Case studies over six years Participant observations Interviews Videotaped group discussions	Trust building is a dynamic process in which emotionality plays a central role. "Emotional engagement practices" enable the partners to connect on an emotional level and can transform negative emotions into positive emotions.
Smollan (2012) <i>J. Org. Change. Mgmt</i>	Employees with varying experiences of functional roles, hierarchical levels, industries and organizations. Ethnic groups	Organizations in New Zealand	Social-psychological Trust theory Positive and negative emotions	Interviews with 24 participants from different organizations and hierarchical positions and with a variety of change experiences.	Positive and negative emotions are related to trust in the ability, benevolence and integrity of immediate supervisors and more senior change managers. Negative emotions of distrust are more intensive than the intensity of positive emotions and trust.
Smollan (2014) <i>J. Managerial Psychology</i>	24 participants. Senior/middle/junior managers & employees	Organizations in New Zealand, different functional departments, organizations and industries	Social-psychological Metaphors in discourse Fear, frustration, anger, guilt, irritation, sadness, anxiety, pleasure, excitement	Interviews	Employees on different hierarchical levels use different metaphors to make sense of change. These metaphors have emotional dimensions that are mostly negative.
Smollan (2017) <i>Int. J. Work Organisation and Emotion</i>	200 staff	Health authority in New Zealand, staff who went through significant organizational change	Social-psychological Stress coping theories Stress, anxiety, frustration, embarrassment, negative emotions.	Semistructured interview	Organizational change causes stress at different stages. Employees use different coping strategies, including managing their own negative emotions (optimism, locus of control, resilience and self-efficacy). High emotional intelligence employees manage stress better.
Vince (2002) <i>Human Relations</i>	Senior managers	Large for -profit infrastructure provider, Wales	Social-psychological Power theory Fear	Action research	Fear of change and the defenses created from fear decrease the likelihood of change. Thus, managers should be aware of emotion in order to manage the change process.
Vince and Broussine (1996) <i>Org. Studies</i>	Managers	Six public service organizations	Psychological Change management Pessimism, optimism anxiety, attachment	Participative research Visual drawings Observations of workshops	Managers who become aware of their own unconscious experienced emotions during change will be more successful in managing the change.
Vuori and Huy (2016) <i>Administrative Science Quarterly</i>	Top managers Middle managers	Nokia	Social-psychological Attention-based view of		Top and middle managers' shared fear during the smartphone

(continued on next page)

(continued)

			the firm Fear		innovation process caused cycles of behaviors that harmed both the process and its outcome. It resulted in a focus on short-term product innovation at the expense of long- term innovation development.
Wolfram Cox (1997) <i>Org. Studies</i>	Employees, across three shifts Management staff	Large for-profit manufacturing organization, Australian subsidiary of US company	Social-psychological Identity theory Loss and other related emotions. Regret, relief, return, release	Interviews among three shifts	Recall of experienced emotions in interviews. The retrospective analysis of the concept of "loss" and its different outcomes.
Meta-emotional abilities (9 entries)					
Huy (1999) <i>Academy of Mgmt. Review</i>	Individuals and the organization Multilevel	Organizations in theory	Sociopsychological Change management Emotional intelligence at individual level; emotional capability at organizational level	Conceptual	EI on the individual level interacts with emotional dynamics on the organizational level; however, the latter is not dependent on the former. Together they create receptivity and mobilization to change, leading to learning, which in turn affects receptivity and mobilization.
Huy (2001) <i>Harvard Business Review</i>	Middle managers	Organizations in general	Social-psychological Change management	Conceptual	A reflection on middle managers' role during radical change. Middle managers' role and potential during radical change are underestimated. Middle managers are equated to tightrope artists who can find the right balance between own and employees' emotions during radical change to balance between change and continuity and avoid inertia and chaos.
Huy (2005a) <i>Advances in Strategic Mgmt.</i>	Individuals and the organization	Organizations in theory	Social-psychological Emotion based dynamic capabilities Authenticity, sympathy, hope, fun, and attachment	Conceptual	Emotion can help organizations achieve renewal and growth. This ability is rooted in developing emotion- based dynamic capabilities that facilitate organizational innovation and change. These increase receptivity to change, organizational learning, collective mobilization, organizational creativity, and retention of key personnel.
Huy (2005b) <i>Emotions in Org. Behavior</i>	Middle managers and employees	Organizations in theory	Social-psychological Change management Emotional balancing and emotional capability	Conceptual Group & organizational level	Emotion management (emotional balancing at the group level and emotional capability at the organizational level) is critical to create organizational contexts

(continued on next page)

(continued)

Huy (2008) Book chapter: <i>Research Companion to Emotion in Organizations</i>	Organizations in general		Social-psychological Dynamic capability Emotion patterns and emotion management Fear vs. pride; dissatisfaction vs. feelings of safety	Conceptual Group & organizational level	that foster innovation and rapid change. Groups that experience contrasting emotions (e. g., fear vs. pride or dissatisfaction vs. feelings of safety) are more likely to contribute to organizations' strategic agility than feeling either type of emotional state alone. Requires emotional capability on the organization's side.
Huy, (2012a) Book Chapter: <i>Handbook of Positive Organizational Psychology</i>	Middle managers		Social-psychological Change management Emotional balancing and emotional capability Empathy, sympathy, authentic emotions, hope, playfulness, attachment	Conceptual Group level	A combination of managing change agents' and change recipients' emotional balancing (broad categories of emotions) and an organization's emotional capability (specific discrete emotions) is important for major change and innovation to be implemented. It also enhances learning during change.
Huy and Guo (2017) Book chapter: <i>Handbook of middle management strategy process research</i>	Middle managers	Organizations in general	Social-psychological Theories of emotion, strategy process and middle managers	Conceptual Group level	A conceptual model of middle managers' emotion management during the three sub processes of definition, impetus and determination of strategic and structural contexts. The model builds on middle managers' emotional balancing as change agents and change recipients and the organization's emotional capability.
Huy and Zott (2019) <i>Strategic Management Journal</i>	UK entrepreneurial firms, participants from all levels of the organizations		Social-psychological Dynamic managerial capability Emotion regulation (ER)	Longitudinal interviews with 29 founders (5 times in 7 years), 37 co-founders, senior executives, employees, chairmen of the board, middle managers, & investors in 26 firms	Managers' ER of the self helps them mobilize human capital resources by creating psychic benefits, whereas their ER of others helps mobilize social capital by facilitating legitimacy judgments. This further influences the extent to which they can mobilize resources to pursue market opportunities.
Sanchez-Burks and Huy (2009) <i>Org. Science</i>	Top and middle managers managing strategic change		Social-psychological Dynamic managerial abilities	Conceptual	An important role for managers in change processes is to develop the ability to recognize emotion patterns in groups. This ability needs to take into account psychological, cultural, and other contextual factors.

(continued on next page)

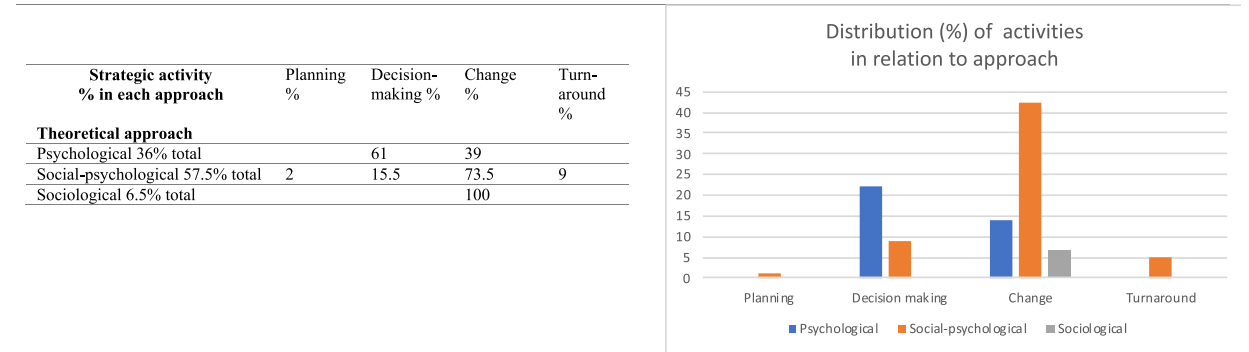
(continued)

Emotion fueled constructs (3 entries)					Develops the concept of emotional aperture.
Brundin and Nordqvist (2008) <i>Corporate Governance: An International Review</i>	CEO & board members	Family business Manufacturing Board room Sweden	Social-psychological Interaction ritual chains Emotional energy Joy, confidence, satisfaction, frustration, sadness, distrust	Longitudinal, board meetings over a period of 18 months Observations, interviews, diaries Individual & group level	A board member's emotional energy creates power and status dynamics between the CEO and the board. Depending on the interplay of emotional energy, this has an influence on the board's task performance and effectiveness.
Kimberley and Härtel (2007) <i>Research on Emotion in Org.</i>	Senior managers	Organizations in theory	Social-psychological Social exchange and justice theories Emotions as mediators for employee perceptions of justice and trust	Conceptual	Managers' commitment and supportive behavior and ability to create and sustain positive emotions prepare for a change-ready organization. Employees who perceive that their managers can create trust and justice will show positive emotions and positive behavior during change.
Paulsen et al. (2005) <i>Human Relations</i>	Lower-level employees	Health care, large psychiatric hospital, Australia	Psychological Personal control Emotional exhaustion	Three cross-sectional surveys: immediately before the announcement of the redeployment of staff, during the implementation of the downsizing, and towards the end of the official change program	Personal control mediates the relationship between job uncertainty and employee emotional exhaustion.
Reviewed Literature about Emotion and Failure & Turnaround (Total 4 entries)					
Moods (1 entry)					
Author/s	Actors	Arenas	Emotion approach Theoretical approach Affective phenomenon	Study design	Role of emotions
Garvin and Roberto (2005) <i>Harvard Business Review</i>	Leaders	Teaching hospital US	Social-psychological Change management Mood	Interviews	Leaders need to manage employees' emotions and moods in failure and explain the implications.
Discrete emotions (3 entries)					
Mantere et al. (2013) <i>J. Business Venturing</i>	Entrepreneurs, hired executives, employees	Three failed case organizations from Northern Europe	Social-psychological Grief theories Sadness, guilt, disappointment, shame	Interviews	Organizational members develop various narrative attributions to address the emotional process of grief recovery and the cognitive process of self-justification after failure.
Vince (2006) <i>J. Mgmt. Studies</i>	Top executives and senior middle managers	Big UK listed company Two firms in a merger	Social-psychological Power and politics Anger, shame, fear, sadness, pain, frustration	Interview	Managers rationalize their negative emotions triggered by strategic failure in order to make these negative emotions more manageable. These rationalizations trigger further emotions and political dynamics.

(continued on next page)

(continued)

Vuori et al. (2018) <i>Strategic Mgmt J.</i>	Top managers, middle managers, employees	Social-psychological Strategy as practice Negative emotions	Interviews, emails, Facebook pages, annual reports	Masking of negative emotions in one party leads to a belief of satisfaction by the other party. This is escalated by efficiency driven communication tools and leads to a failure of the integration process.
---	--	---	--	---



References

Ahl, H., 2004. The Scientific Reproduction of Gender Inequality: A Discourse Analysis of Research Texts on Women’s Entrepreneurship. *Liber*.

Arregle, J.L., Hitt, M.A., Sirmon, D.G., Very, P., 2007. The development of organizational social capital: attributes of family firms. *J. Manag. Stud.* 44, 73–95.

Ashkanasy, N.M., 2003. Emotions in organizations: a multilevel perspective. *Res. Multi-Level Issues* 2, 9–54.

Ashkanasy, N.M., Humphrey, R.H., Huy, Q.N., 2017. Integrating emotions and affect in theories of management. *Acad. Manag. Rev.* 42, 175–189.

* Ashton-James, C.E., Ashkanasy, N.M., 2008. Affective events theory: a strategic perspective. In: Zerbe, W.J., Härtel, C.E.J., Ashkanasy, N.M. (Eds.), *Emotions, Ethics and Decision-Making (Research on Emotion in Organizations, ume 4)*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley, UK, pp. 1–34.

Atewologun, D., Kutzer, R., Doldor, E., Anderson, D., Sealy, R., 2017. Individual-level foci of identification at work: a systematic review of the literature. *Int. J. Manag. Rev.* 19, 273–295.

* Barner, R., 2008. The dark tower: using visual metaphors to facilitate emotional expression during organizational change. *J. Organ. Change Manag.* 21, 120–137.

Barsade, S.G., 2002. The ripple effect: emotional contagion and its influence on group behavior. *Adm. Sci. Q.* 47, 644–675.

Barsade, S.G., Gibson, D.E., 1998. Group emotion: a view from top and bottom. *Res. Manag. Groups Teams* 1, 81–102.

Barsade, S.G., Gibson, D.E., 2007. Why does affect matter in organizations? *Acad. Manag. Perspect.* 21, 36–59.

Bartel, C.A., Saavedra, R., 2000. The collective construction of work group moods. *Adm. Sci. Q.* 45, 197–231.

Baumeister, R.F., Muraven, M., Tice, D.M., 2000. Ego depletion: a resource model of volition, self-regulation, and controlled processing. *Soc. Cognit.* 18, 130–150.

Beugré, C.D., Offodile, F.O., 2001. Managing for organizational effectiveness in sub-Saharan Africa: a culture-fit model. *Int. J. Hum. Resour. Manag.* 12, 535–550.

Blumer, H., 1969. *Symbolic Interactionism, Perspective and Method*. University of California Press, Berkeley.

Boaz, A., Ashby, D., Denyer, D., Egan, M., Harden, A., Jones, D.R., et al., 2006. A multitude of syntheses: a comparison of five approaches from diverse policy fields. *Evid. Policy A J. Res. Debate Pract.* 2, 479–502.

Brundin, E., Härtel, C., 2013. Emotions in family firms. In: Melin, L., Sharma, P., Nordqvist, M. (Eds.), *Handbook of Family Businesses*. Sage Publications, London, UK, pp. 529–548.

Brundin, E., Liu, F., 2015. Emotions and strategizing. In: Golsorkhi, D., Rouleau, L., Seidl, D., Vaara, E. (Eds.), *The Second Edition of the Cambridge Handbook Of Strategy As Practice*, pp. 632–646.

* Brundin, E., Melin, L., 2006. Unfolding the dynamics of emotions: how emotion drives or counteracts strategizing. *Int. J. Work. Organisat. Emot.* 1, 277–302.

* Brundin, E., Melin, L., 2012. Managerial practices in family-owned firms: strategizing actors, their arenas, and their emotions. In: Tengblad, S. (Ed.), *The Work of Managers*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK, pp. 55–71.

* Brundin, E., Nordqvist, M., 2008. Beyond facts and figures: the role of emotions in boardroom dynamics. *Corp. Govern.* 16, 326–341.

Brundin, E., Samuelsson, E.F., Melin, L., 2014. Family ownership logic: framing the core characteristics of family businesses. *J. Manag. Organ.* 20, 6–37.

Brundin, E., Sharma, P., 2012. Love, hate, and desire: the role of emotional messiness in the business family. In: Carsrud, A., Brannback, M. (Eds.), *International Perspectives on Future Research in Family Business: Neglected Topics and Under-utilized Theories Understanding Family Businesses*. Springer, New York, NY, pp. 55–71.

* Bryant, M., Wolfram Cox, J.R., 2006. The expression of suppression: loss and emotional labour in narratives of organisational change. *J. Manag. Organ.* 12, 116–130.

Chandler, A.D., 1962. *Strategy and Structure: History of the Industrial Enterprise*. MIT Press, Cambridge, MA.

Cicchetti, D.V., 1994. Guidelines, criteria, and rules of thumb for evaluating normed and standardized assessment instruments in psychology. *Psychol. Assess.* 6, 284–290.

* Clarke, C., Hope-Hailey, V., Kelliher, C., 2007. Being real or really being someone else? Change, managers and emotion work. *Eur. Manag. J.* 25, 92–103.

Collins, R., 1981. On the microfoundations of macrosociology. *Am. J. Sociol.* 86, 984–1014.

Collins, R., 2014. *Interaction Ritual Chains*. Princeton University Press, Princeton, NJ.

* Delgado-García, J.B., De La Fuente-Sabaté, J.M., 2010. How do CEO emotions matter? Impact of CEO affective traits on strategic and performance conformity in the Spanish banking industry. *Strat. Manag. J.* 31, 562–574.

* Delgado-García, J.B., De La Fuente-Sabaté, J.M., De Quevedo-Puente, E., 2010. Too negative to take risks? The effect of the CEO’s emotional traits on firm risk. *Br. J. Manag.* 21, 313–326.

- Denyer, D., Tranfield, D., 2006. Using qualitative research synthesis to build an actionable knowledge base. *Manag. Decis.* 44, 213–227.
- Denyer, D., Tranfield, D., Van Aken, J.E., 2008. Developing design propositions through research synthesis. *Organ. Stud.* 29, 393–413.
- * Dunk, S., Cutcher, L., 2019. 11 the politics of emotional credibility in the strategic planning process. In: Lansbury, R.D., Johnson, A., van den Broek, D. (Eds.), *Contemporary Issues In Work And Organisations: Actors And Institutions*.
- Durand, R., Grant, R.M., Madsen, T.L., 2017. The expanding domain of strategic management research and the quest for integration. *Strat. Manag. J.* 38, 4–16.
- Ekman, P., 1992. An argument for basic emotions. *Cognit. Emot.* 6, 169–200.
- Elfenbein, H.A., 2007. Emotion in organizations: a review and theoretical integration. *Acad. Manag. Ann.* 1, 315–386.
- * Erkama, N., Vaara, E., 2010. Struggles over legitimacy in global organizational restructuring: a rhetorical perspective on legitimation strategies and dynamics in a shutdown case. *Organ. Stud.* 31, 813–839.
- Farny, S., Kibler, E., Down, S., 2019. Collective emotions in institutional creation work. *Acad. Manag. J.* 62, 765–799.
- * Fineman, S., 1996. Emotional subtexts in corporate greening. *Organ. Stud.* 17, 479–500.
- Fineman, S., 1999. Emotion and organizing. In: Clegg, S.R., Hardy, C. (Eds.), *Studying Organization: Theory and Method*, pp. 289–310.
- Fineman, S., 2003. Understanding Emotion at Work. Sage.
- Fineman, S., 2005. Appreciating emotion at work: paradigm tensions. *Int. J. Work. Organisat. Emot.* 1, 4–19.
- Fineman, S., 2008. Introducing the emotional organization. In: Fineman, S. (Ed.), *The Emotional Organization. Passions and Power*. Blackwell Publishing, pp. 1–11.
- * Fiol, C.M., O'Connor, E.J., 2002. When hot and cold collide in radical change processes: lessons from community development. *Organ. Sci.* 13, 532–546.
- * Fodor, O.C., Curşeu, P.L., Fleştea, A.M., 2016. Affective states and ecological rationality in entrepreneurial decision making. *J. Manag. Psychol.* 31, 1182–1197.
- * Friedrich, E., Wüstenhagen, R., 2017. Leading organizations through the stages of grief: the development of negative emotions over environmental change. *Bus. Soc.* 56, 186–213.
- * Fugate, M., Kinicki, A.J., Scheck, C.L., 2002. Coping with an organizational merger over four stages. *Person. Psychol.* 55, 905–928.
- * Garrety, K., Badham, R., Murrigan, V., Rifkin, W., Zanko, M., 2003. The use of personality typing in organizational change: discourse, emotions and the reflexive subject. *Hum. Relat.* 56, 211–235.
- * Garvin, D.A., Roberto, M.A., 2005. Change through persuasion. *Harv. Bus. Rev.* 83, 104–112.
- * George, G.M., Jones, G.R., 2001. Towards a process model of individual change in organizations. *Hum. Relat.* 54, 419–444.
- Grandey, A.A., 2003. When “the show must go on”: surface acting and deep acting as determinants of emotional exhaustion and peer-rated service delivery. *Acad. Manag. J.* 46, 86–96.
- Gross, J.J., 1998. The emerging field of emotion regulation: An integrative review. *Rev. Gen. Psychol.* 2, 271–299.
- Gross, J.J., 2014. Emotion regulation: conceptual and empirical foundations. In: Gross, J.J. (Ed.), *Handbook of Emotion Regulation*. The Guilford Press, NY/London, pp. 3–20.
- * Gunkel, M., Schlaegel, C., Rossteutscher, T., Wolff, B., 2015. The human aspect of cross-border acquisition outcomes: the role of management practices, employee emotions, and national culture. *Int. Bus. Rev.* 24, 394–408.
- * Haag, C., Getz, I., 2016. The inboard emotional contagion model. In: Ashkanasy, N.M., Härtel, C.E.J., Zerbe, W.J. (Eds.), *Emotions and Organizational Governance (Research on Emotion in Organizations, ume 12)*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley, UK, pp. 143–167.
- * Håkansson, D.D., Eskildsen, J.K., Argote, L., Monster, D., Burton, R.M., Obel, B., 2016. Exploration versus exploitation: emotions and performance as antecedents and consequences of team decisions. *Strat. Manag. J.* 37, 985–1001.
- * Harbour, M., Kisfalvi, V., 2014. In the eye of the beholder: an exploration of managerial courage. *J. Bus. Ethics* 119, 493–515.
- * Harris, S.G., Gresch, E.B., 2010. The emotions of change: merger sentiments, pleasure, and emotional expression. In: Zerbe, W.J., Härtel, C.E.J., Ashkanasy, N.M. (Eds.), *Emotions and Organizational Dynamism (Research on Emotion in Organizations, ume 6)*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley, UK, pp. 189–220.
- Hayes, A.F., Krippendorff, K., 2007. Answering the call for a standard reliability measure for coding data. *Commun. Methods Meas.* 1, 77–89.
- Healey, M.P., Bleda, M., Querbés, A., 2017. Modeling affect and cognition: opportunities and challenges for managerial and organizational cognition. In: Galavan, R. J., Sund, K.J., Hodgkinson, G.P. (Eds.), *Methodological Challenges and Advances in Managerial and Organizational Cognition (New Horizons in Managerial and Organizational Cognition, vol. 2)*. Emerald Publishing Limited, Bingley, UK, pp. 23–57.
- * Healey, M.P., Hodgkinson, G.P., 2017. Making strategy hot. *Calif. Manag. Rev.* 59, 109–134.
- Hirsch, P.M., Levin, D.Z., 1999. Umbrella advocates versus validity police: a life-cycle model. *Organ. Sci.* 10, 199–212.
- Hochschild, A.R., 1983. *The Managed Heart: Commercialization of Human Feeling*. University of California Press, Berkeley, CA.
- Hodgkinson, G.P., Ford, J.K., 2014. Narrative, meta-analytic, and systematic reviews: what are the differences and why do they matter? *J. Organ. Behav.* 35, S1–S5.
- * Hodgkinson, G.P., Healey, M.P., 2011. Psychological foundations of dynamic capabilities: reflexion and reflection in strategic management. *Strat. Manag. J.* 32, 1500–1516.
- * Hodgkinson, G.P., Healey, M.P., 2014. Coming in from the cold: the psychological foundations of radical innovation revisited. *Ind. Market. Manag.* 43, 1306–1313.
- * Hodgkinson, G.P., Healey, M.P., 2018. The psychological foundations of strategic management: beyond cold cognition. In: Ones, D.S., Anderson, N., Sinangil, H.K., Viswesvaran, C. (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Industrial, Work and Organizational Psychology - Managerial Psychology and Organizational Approaches*. Sage, London, pp. 275–310.
- Hodgkinson, G.P., Wright, G., 2002. Confronting strategic inertia in a top management team: learning from failure. *Organ. Stud.* 23, 949–977.
- * Hodgkinson, G.P., Wright, R.P., Anderson, J., 2015. Emotionalizing strategy research with the repertory grid technique: modifications and extensions to a robust procedure for mapping strategic knowledge. In: Gavetti, G., Ocasio, W. (Eds.), *Cognition and Strategy (Advances in Strategic Management, vol. 32)*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley, UK, pp. 505–547.
- * Holstein, J., Starkey, K., Wright, M., 2018. Strategy and narrative in higher education. *Strat. Organ.* 16, 61–91.
- * Huy, Q.N., 1999. Emotional capability, emotional intelligence, and radical change. *Acad. Manag. Rev.* 24, 325–345.
- * Huy, Q.N., 2001. In praise of middle managers. *Harv. Bus. Rev.* 79, 72–79.
- * Huy, Q.N., 2002. Emotional balancing of organizational continuity and radical change: the contribution of middle managers. *Adm. Sci. Q.* 47, 31–69.
- * Huy, Q.N., 2005a. An emotion-based view of strategic renewal. *Adv. Strat. Manag.* 22, 3–37.
- * Huy, Q.N., 2005b. Emotion management to facilitate strategic change and innovation: how emotional balancing and emotional capability work together. In: Härtel, C.E.J., Zerbe, W.J., Ashkanasy, N.M. (Eds.), *Emotions in Organizational Behavior*. Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ, pp. 295–316.
- * Huy, Q.N., 2008. How contrasting emotions can enhance strategic agility. In: Ashkanasy, N.M., Cooper, C.L. (Eds.), *Research Companion to Emotion in Organizations*. Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, UK, pp. 546–560.
- * Huy, Q.N., 2011. How middle managers’ group-focus emotions and social identities influence strategy implementation. *Strat. Manag. J.* 32, 1387–1410.
- * Huy, Q.N., 2012a. Emotions and strategic change. In: Cameron, K.S., Spreitzer, G.M. (Eds.), *Handbook of Positive Organizational Psychology*. Oxford University Press, Oxford, UK, pp. 811–824.
- * Huy, Q.N., 2012b. Emotions in strategic organization: opportunities for impactful research. *Strat. Organ.* 10, 240–247.
- * Huy, Q.N., Corley, K.G., Kraatz, M.S., 2014. From support to mutiny: shifting legitimacy judgments and emotional reactions impacting the implementation of radical change. *Acad. Manag. J.* 57, 1650–1680.
- * Huy, Q.N., Guo, Y., 2017. Middle managers’ emotion management in the strategy process. In: Floyd, S.W., Wooldridge, B. (Eds.), *Handbook of Middle Management Strategy Process Research*. Edward Elgar Publishing, pp. 133–153.
- * Huy, Q., Zott, C., 2019. Exploring the affective underpinnings of dynamic managerial capabilities: how managers’ emotion regulation behaviors mobilize resources for their firms. *Strat. Manag. J.* 40, 28–54.
- Jakob-Sadeh, L., Zilber, T.B., 2019. Bringing “Together”: emotions and power in organizational responses to institutional complexity. *Acad. Manag. J.* 62, 1413–1443.
- Jarrett, M., Liu, F., 2018. “Zooming With” A participatory approach to the use of video ethnography in organizational studies. *Organ. Res. Methods* 21, 366–385.
- Jarzabkowski, P., 2005. *Strategy as Practice: an Activity Based Approach*. Sage.
- Jarzabkowski, P.A., 2008. Shaping strategy as a structuration process. *Acad. Manag. J.* 51, 621–650.

- Jarzabkowski, P.A., Balogun, J., Seidl, D., 2007. Strategizing: the challenges of a practice perspective. *Hum. Relat.* 60, 5–27.
- Jiang, L., Yin, D., Liu, D., 2019. Can joy buy you money? The impact of the strength, duration, and phases of an entrepreneur's peak displayed joy on funding performance. *Acad. Manag. J.* 62 (6), 1848–1871.
- Johnson, G., Melin, L., Whittington, R., 2003. Micro strategy and strategizing: towards an activity-based view. *J. Manag. Stud.* 40, 3–22.
- Kangas, N.L., Meyerson, D.E., 2008. The Gendering of Emotions and Perceived Work Time: Chicks and Geeks at I. Com.
- Kemper, T.D., 1987. How many emotions are there? Wedding the social and the autonomic components. *Am. J. Sociol.* 93, 263–289.
- * Kerosuo, H., 2011. Caught between a rock and a hard place: from individually experienced double binds to collaborative change in surgery. *J. Organ. Change Manag.* 24, 388–399.
- * Kiefer, T., 2002. Analyzing emotions for a better understanding of organizational change: fear, joy, and anger during a merger'. In: Ashkanasy, N.M., Härtel, C.E.J., Zerbe, W.J. (Eds.), *Managing Emotions in the Workplace*. M.E. Sharp, Armonk, NY, pp. 45–69.
- * Kiefer, T., 2005. Feeling bad: antecedents and consequences of negative emotions in ongoing change'. *J. Organ. Behav.* 26, 875–897.
- * Kim, W.C., Mauborgne, R., 1998. Procedural justice, strategic decision making, and the knowledge economy. *Strat. Manag. J.* 19, 323–338.
- * Kimberley, N., Härtel, C.E.J., 2007. Building a climate of trust during organizational change: the mediating role of justice perceptions and emotion. In: Härtel, C.E.J., Ashkanasy, N.M., Zerbe, W.J. (Eds.), *Functionality, Intentionality and Morality (Research on Emotion in Organizations, ume 3)*. Emerald Group Publishing Limited, Bingley, UK, pp. 237–264.
- * Kisfalvi, V., Pitcher, P., 2003. Doing what feels right—the influence of CEO character and emotions on top management team dynamics. *Journal of Management Inquiries* 12, 42–66.
- * Klarner, P., By, R.T., Diefenbach, T., 2011. Employee emotions during organizational change: towards a new research agenda. *Scand. J. Manag.* 27, 332–340.
- Koo, T.K., Li, M.Y., 2016. A guideline of selecting and reporting intraclass correlation coefficients for reliability research. *Journal of Chiropractic Medicine* 15, 155–163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jcm.2016.02.012>.
- * Korsgaard, M.A., Schweiger, D.M., Sapienza, H.J., 1995. Building commitment, attachment, and trust in strategic decision-making teams: the role of procedural justice. *Acad. Manag. J.* 38, 60–84.
- Kouamé, S., Langley, A., 2018. Relating microprocesses to macro-outcomes in qualitative strategy process and practice research. *Strat. Manag. J.* 39, 559–581.
- Kouamé, S., Liu, F., 2021. Capturing emotions in qualitative strategic organization research. *Strat. Organ.* 19, 97–122.
- Lahlou, S., 2011. How can we capture the subject's perspective? An evidence-based approach for the social scientist. *Soc. Sci. Inf.* 50, 607–655.
- Latour, B., 1998. *Artefaktens Återkomst. Ett Möte Mellan Organisationsteori Och Tingens Sociologi*. Nerenius och Santerus Förlag, Stockholm.
- Laureiro-Martínez, D., Brusoni, S., Canessa, N., Zollo, M., 2015. Understanding the exploration—exploitation dilemma: an fMRI study of attention control and decision-making performance. *Strat. Manag. J.* 36, 319–338.
- * Lawlor, J., 2013. Employee perspectives on the post-integration stage of a micro-merger. *Person. Rev.* 42, 352–367.
- Lewinski, P., den Uyl, T.M., Butler, C., 2014. Automated facial coding: validation of basic emotions and FACS AUs in FaceReader. *Journal of Neuroscience, Psychology, and Economics* 7, 227–236.
- Liu, F., 2013. *Emotion and Strategizing: Exploring Emotional Dynamics and Senior Team Strategizing in Meetings*. Doctoral dissertation, University of British Columbia.
- * Liu, Y., Perrewé, P.L., 2005. Another look at the role of emotion in the organizational change: a process model. *Hum. Resour. Manag. Rev.* 15, 263–280.
- * Liu, F., Maitlis, S., 2014. Emotional dynamics and strategizing processes: a study of strategic conversations in top team meetings. *J. Manag. Stud.* 51, 202–234.
- Loewenstein, G., 2000. Emotions in economic theory and economic behavior. *Am. Econ. Rev.* 90, 426–432.
- Maitlis, S., Lawrence, T.B., 2003. Orchestral manoeuvres in the dark: understanding failure in organizational strategizing. *J. Manag. Stud.* 40, 109–139.
- * Maitlis, S., Ozcelik, H., 2004. Toxic decision processes: a study of emotion and organizational decision making. *Organ. Sci.* 15, 375–393.
- * Mantere, S., Aula, P., Schildt, H., Vaara, E., 2013. Narrative attributions of entrepreneurial failure. *J. Bus. Ventur.* 28, 459–473.
- Matsumoto, D., Franklin, B., Choi, J.W., Rogers, D., Tatani, H., 2002. Cultural influences on the expression and perception of emotion. In: Gudykunst, W.B., Mody, B. (Eds.), *Handbook of International and Intercultural Communication*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 107–126.
- Masuda, T., Ellsworth, P.C., Mesquita, B., Leu, J., Tanida, S., Van de Veerdonk, E., 2008. Placing the face in context: cultural differences in the perception of facial emotion. *J. Pers. Soc. Psychol.* 94, 365–381.
- Menges, J.L., Kilduff, M., 2015. Group emotions: cutting the Gordian knots concerning terms, levels of analysis, and processes. *Acad. Manag. Ann.* 9, 845–928.
- Mesquita, B., Frijda, N.H., 1992. Cultural variations in emotions: a review. *Psychol. Bull.* 112, 179–204.
- Mintzberg, H., Raisinghani, D., Theoret, A., 1976. The structure of "unstructured" decision processes. *Adm. Sci. Q.* 21, 246–275.
- Naq, R., Hambrick, D.C., Chen, M.J., 2007. What is strategic management, really? Inductive derivation of a consensus definition of the field. *Strat. Manag. J.* 28, 935–955.
- * Netz, J., Svensson, M., Brundin, E., 2020. Business disruptions and affective reactions: a strategy-as-practice perspective on fast strategic decision making. *Long Range Plan.* 53, 101910.
- Noblit, G., Hare, R., 1988. *Meta-Ethnography*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA.
- * Paulsen, N., Callan, V.J., Grice, T.A., Rooney, D., Gallois, C., Jones, E., Jimmieson, N.L., Bordia, P., 2005. Job uncertainty and personal control during downsizing: a comparison of survivors and victims. *Hum. Relat.* 58, 463–496.
- Pettigrew, A., 1977. Strategy formulation as a political process. *Int. Stud. Manag. Organ.* 7, 78–87.
- Pettigrew, A.M., Thomas, H., Whittington, R., 2006. Strategic management: the strengths and limitations of a field. In: Pettigrew, A.M., Thomas, H., Whittington, R. (Eds.), *Handbook of Strategy and Management*. Sage, London, UK, pp. 3–30.
- Petrides, K.V., 2010. Trait emotional intelligence theory. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology* 3, 136–139.
- Porter, M.E., 1980. *Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analyzing Industries and Competition*. Free Press, New York, NY.
- Porter, M.E., 1985. *Competitive Advantage: Creating and Sustaining Superior Performance*. Free Press, New York, NY.
- Powell, T.C., 2011. Neurostrategy. *Strat. Manag. J.* 32, 1484–1499.
- Posner, J., Russell, J.A., Peterson, B.S., 2005. The circumplex model of affect: an integrative approach to affective neuroscience, cognitive development, and psychopathology. *Dev. Psychopathol.* 17 (3), 715.
- Powell, T.C., Lovallo, D., Fox, C.R., 2011. Behavioral strategy. *Strat. Manag. J.* 32, 1369–1386.
- Rafaeli, A., Sutton, R.I., 1989. The expression of emotion in organizational life. *Res. Organ. Behav.* 11, 1–42.
- Radaelli, G., Sitton-Kent, L., 2016. Middle managers and the translation of new ideas in organizations: a review of micro-practices and contingencies. *Int. J. Manag. Rev.* 18, 311–332.
- * Raitis, J., Harikkala-Laihinien, R., Hassett, M., Nummela, N., 2017. Finding Positivity during a Major Organizational Change: in Search of Triggers of Employees' Positive Perceptions and Feelings, Emotions and Identity (Research on Emotion in Organizations, vol. 13).
- * Raza-Ullah, T., 2020. Experiencing the paradox of cooptation: a moderated mediation framework explaining the paradoxical tension–performance relationship. *Long Range Plan.* 53 (1), 101863.
- Rothman, N.B., Melwani, S., 2017. Feeling mixed, ambivalent, and in flux: the social functions of emotional complexity for leaders. *Acad. Manag. Rev.* 42, 259–282.
- Rouleau, L., 2005. Micro-practices of strategic sensemaking and sensegiving: how middle managers interpret and sell change every day. *J. Manag. Stud.* 42, 1413–1441.
- Rousseau, D.M., Manning, J., Denyer, D., 2008. Evidence in management and organizational science: assembling the field's full weight of scientific knowledge through syntheses. *Acad. Manag. Ann.* 2, 475–515.
- * Samra-Fredericks, D., 2000. An analysis of the behavioural dynamics of corporate governance—a talk-based ethnography of a UK manufacturing 'board-in-action'. *Corporate Governance-An International Review* 8, 311–326.
- * Samra-Fredericks, D., 2003. Strategizing as lived experience and strategists' everyday efforts to shape strategic direction. *J. Manag. Stud.* 40, 141–174.
- * Samra-Fredericks, D., 2004. Managerial elites making rhetorical and linguistic 'moves' for a moving (emotional) display. *Hum. Relat.* 57, 1103–1143.

- * Sanchez-Burks, J., Huy, Q.N., 2009. Emotional aperture and strategic change: the accurate recognition of collective emotions. *Organ. Sci.* 20, 22–34.
- Schatzki, T.R., 2001. Introduction: practice theory. In: Schatzki, T.R., Knorr Cetina, K., von Savigny, E. (Eds.), *The Practice Turn in Contemporary Theory*. Routledge, London.
- * Scheck, C.L., Kinicki, A.J., 2000. Identifying the antecedents of coping with an organizational acquisition: a structural assessment. *J. Organ. Behav.* 21, 627–648.
- Shields, S.A., Warner, L.R., 2008. Gender and the emotion politics of emotional intelligence. In: Fineman, S. (Ed.), *The Emotional Organization. Passions and Power*. Blackwell Publishing, pp. 167–183.
- * Shin, J., Taylor, M.S., Seo, M.G., 2012. Resources for change: the relationships of organizational inducements and psychological resilience to employees' attitudes and behaviors toward organizational change. *Acad. Manag. J.* 55, 727–748.
- * Sloan, P., Oliver, D., 2013. Building trust in multi-stakeholder partnerships: critical emotional incidents and practices of engagement. *Organ. Stud.* 34, 1835–1868.
- * Smollan, R.K., 2012. Trust in change managers: the role of affect. *J. Organ. Change Manag.* 26, 725–747.
- * Smollan, R.K., 2014. The emotional dimensions of metaphors of change. *J. Manag. Psychol.* 29, 794–807.
- Smollan, R.K., 2017. Learning to cope with stressful organisational change. *Int. J. Work. Organisat. Emot.* 8, 148–167.
- * Spee, A.P., Jarzabkowski, P., 2011. Strategic planning as communicative process. *Organ. Stud.* 32, 1217–1245.
- * Stanley, L.J., 2010. Emotions and family business creation: an extension and implications. *Enterpren. Theor. Pract.* 34, 1085–1092.
- Sturdy, A., 2003. Knowing the unknowable? A discussion of methodological and theoretical issues in emotion research and organizational studies. *Organization* 10, 81–105.
- Suddaby, R., 2010. Construct clarity in theories of management and organization. *Acad. Manag. Rev.* 35, 346–357.
- Toubiana, M., Zietsma, C., 2017. The message is on the wall? Emotions, social media and the dynamics of institutional complexity. *Acad. Manag. J.* 60, 922–953.
- Tranfield, D., Denyer, D., Smart, P., 2003. Towards a methodology for developing evidence-informed management knowledge by means of systematic review. *Br. J. Manag.* 14, 207–222.
- * Treffers, T., Klarner, P., Huy, Q.N., 2020. Emotions, time, and strategy: the effects of happiness and sadness on strategic decision-making under time constraints. *Long. Range Plan.* 53, 101954.
- Van Kleef, G.A., 2009. How emotions regulate social life the emotions as social information (EASI) model. *Curr. Dir. Psychol. Sci.* 18, 184–188.
- Van Kleef, G.A., Homan, A.C., Cheshin, A., 2012. Emotional influence at work: take it EASI. *Organizational Psychology Review* 2, 311–339.
- * Vince, R., 2002. The politics of imagined stability: a psychodynamic understanding of change at Hyder plc. *Hum. Relat.* 55, 1189–1208.
- * Vince, R., 2006. Being taken over: managers' emotions and rationalizations during a company takeover. *J. Manag. Stud.* 43, 343–365.
- * Vince, R., Broussine, M., 1996. Paradox, defense and attachment: accessing and working with emotions and relations underlying organizational change. *Organ. Stud.* 17, 1–21.
- Vuori, T.O., 2017. An open-ended interview approach for studying cognition and emotion in organizations. In: Galavan, R.J., Sund, K.J., Hodgkinson, G.P. (Eds.), *Methodological Challenges and Advances in Managerial and Organizational Cognition (New Horizons in Managerial and Organizational Cognition, vol. 2)*. Emerald Publishing Limited, Bingley, UK, pp. 59–71.
- * Vuori, T.O., Huy, Q.N., 2016. Distributed attention and shared emotions in the innovation process: how Nokia lost the smartphone battle. *Adm. Sci. Q.* 61, 9–51.
- * Vuori, T.O., Huy, Q.N., 2021. Regulating top managers' emotions during strategy making: Nokia's socially distributed approach enabling radical change from mobile phones to networks in 2007–2013. *Acad. Manag. J.* Advance online publication. Advance online publication. <https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2019.0865>.
- * Vuori, N., Vuori, T.O., Huy, Q.N., 2018. Emotional practices: how masking negative emotions impacts the post-acquisition integration process. *Strat. Manag. J.* 39, 859–893.
- Waldman, D.A., Balthazard, P.A., Peterson, S.J., 2011. Leadership and neuroscience: can we revolutionize the way that inspirational leaders are identified and developed? *Acad. Manag. Perspect.* 25, 60–74.
- * Wolfram Cox, J.R., 1997. Manufacturing the past: loss and absence in organizational change. *Organ. Stud.* 18, 623–654.
- Zietsma, C., Toubiana, M., Voronov, M., Roberts, A., 2019. *Emotions In Organization Theory (Elements in Organization Theory)*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- *included in the review

Ethel Brundin is PhD. Professor in Entrepreneurship and Business Development at Jönköping International Business School, Jönköping University, and the Center for Family Enterprise and Ownership (CeFEO). She is standing visiting professor at Witten Herdecke University, Witten Herdecke, Germany and appointed extraordinary professor at the University of the Western Cape, Cape Town, South Africa. Her research interests lie primarily in the micro processes of strategic management and entrepreneurship and the meanings of ownership with a particular emphasis on the role of emotions. She publishes on a regular basis in international journals and book collections.

Feng Liu is PhD. Associate Professor in Strategic Management at Sobey School of Business, Saint Mary's University, Canada. Her research interests focus on board team and top management strategizing activities and emotion in organizations. Her research has been published in top-tier journals, such as *Journal of Management Studies* and *Organizational Research Methods*.

Thomas Cyron is PhD. Assistant Professor at Jönköping International Business School, Jönköping University. He is interested in the role of media for how organizations communicate with their stakeholders, studying phenomena such as online communities, new venture ideation, and business growth.