AN AFFECT-BASED MODEL OF RECIPIENTS' RESPONSES TO ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE EVENTS

AN AFFECT-BASED MODEL OF RECIPIENTS' RESPONSES TO ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE EVENTS

SHAUL OREG
The Hebrew University of Jerusalem

JEAN M. BARTUNEK
Boston College

GAYOUNG LEE
Boston College

BORAM DO
Wayne State University

Following a long period during which scholarly attention was paid predominantly to the role of change agents in organizational change, change recipients and their experiences have finally begun to take center stage. Yet the typical view of recipients has been as passive reactors to change. In this article we take steps toward highlighting the central, active roles change recipients play in organizational change events. We discuss and distinguish between dimensions of valence and activation and introduce a circumplex of recipients' affective and behavioral responses to change events. We describe the primary and secondary appraisal processes through which each response type emerges and discuss outcomes of each response type. We use our model to explain how change context and process variables affect recipients' responses to change. Finally, we discuss implications of our model for theory, research, and practice.

Consider the following description of undertaking a new initiative, very liberally adapted from McAvoy and Butler (2007). A project manager in a software development company decided to adopt a new software development approach that relied on descriptions of user experiences rather than traditional documentation as a way to gain feedback for development. Following the announcement of this change, the team members responded favorably to the idea and supported it, without raising any substantial questions or issues. To the satisfaction of the project manager, this led to a smooth launch of the change. But over the next months, as team members attempted to use the new approach, numerous problems with its implementation emerged that had not been considered. This ultimately led to the new program's cancellation and to the company's reverting to its previous software development approach. In retrospect, many of these problems

could have been identified and dealt with early on had the team given the introduction of the new approach greater scrutiny.

Although many such cases exist in practice, this is not the standard story of change told in the change literature, and it seems incongruent with the typical conclusion about the sources of success or failure of organizational change implementation. Contrary to resistance, which is often said to be responsible for the failure of organizational change (e.g., Battilana & Casciaro, 2013; Hon, Bloom, & Crant, 2014), change recipients' initial response to this change was entirely positive, and yet the change ultimately failed. Thus, aside from the favorable response recipients had to the change, something was missing when they tried to implement it. Accordingly, we propose that the distinction between positive (e.g., acceptance) and negative (e.g., resistance) responses to change fails to capture a meaningful component of recipients' responses to change that could have a strong impact on the organization, the change, and its recipients.

In this article we offer a nuanced elaboration of recipients' responses to change, explain the

meaningfulness of each response type, and delineate the processes through which they develop. Specifically, we challenge the strong tendency in much research on organizational change to focus almost exclusively on the valence of change recipients' responses—how positively or negatively they respond to change (Choi, 2011; Oreg & Goldenberg, 2015; Oreg, Vakola, & Armenakis, 2011; Rafferty, Jimmieson, & Armenakis, 2013)—and to largely ignore the degree of activation (i.e., passivity versus activity) involved in recipients' responses. Further, although multidimensional views of responses have been offered (e.g., Beaudry & Pinsonneault, 2010; Smollan, 2006), they have not been systematically linked with the antecedents and outcomes of these responses.

Our purpose is to develop a much more comprehensive understanding of the variety of change recipients' behavioral responses to change events. Specifically, we develop a model that includes valence and activation dimensions of both affect and behavioral intentions in response to organizational change, the cognitive appraisal processes that precede them, and their likely impacts. A better understanding of recipients' responses to change is important not only for top-down changes initiated from above, such as in our opening example, but also bottom-up changes, given that both change recipients and agents may be positioned anywhere in the organizational hierarchy (Plowman et al., 2007).

RECIPIENTS' RESPONSES TO ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE

Research has begun to yield insights about organizational change from change recipients' perspectives (e.g., Bartunek, Rousseau, Rudolph, & DePalma, 2006; Oreg, Michel, & By, 2013; Oreg et al., 2011), including some questioning of the usual role of resistance that is more or less implicitly assigned to them (e.g., Dent & Goldberg, 1999; Ford, Ford, & D'Amelio, 2008; Piderit, 2000). Such attention has culminated in at least three relatively recent literature reviews on the topic (Choi, 2011; Oreg et al., 2011; Rafferty et al., 2013). As discussed in these reviews, recognition of the range of recipient responses to change has been expanded beyond resistance per se (e.g., George & Jones, 2001; Oreg, 2006) to include

cynicism (Stanley, Meyer, & Topolnytsky, 2005), withdrawal behaviors (e.g., Martin, Jones, & Callan, 2005), readiness (e.g., Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts, & Walker, 2007), support (Meyer, Srinivas, Lal, & Topolnytsky, 2007), and commitment (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002), among others (for a list of the concepts often used for describing recipients' reactions, see Oreg et al., 2011).

These reviews have been very helpful in integrating multiple findings on change recipients' responses to change, and they reveal that most of the terms used to describe such responses derive from a view of recipients as resistant at worst to passive supporters at best, responding with readiness or openness to others' initiatives. Change recipients, as described with all of these terms, are implicitly if not explicitly passive. Even the term *resistance*, which Lewin (1947) originally used to describe the active application of a force to counter change, was later conceptualized and operationalized as a reactive passive attitude toward change (Oreg, 2006). Other terms that conceptually involve an active stance toward change, such as *active resistance* or *championing*, have been placed on a single continuum alongside a passive stance, such as *compliance* and *cooperation*, and treated as reflecting the degree to which a change is supported (Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002). Thus, even research models that address multiple types of responses to change, which are sometimes labeled "multidimensional" (e.g., Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002), typically position the multiple response types on a single valence dimension ranging from highly negative to highly positive.

In other words, regardless of whether the term used is resistance, readiness, or commitment, the focus has been almost exclusively on the valence of recipients' responses. Yet as we elaborate below, in addition to valence, individuals' responses to change events also vary in their degree of *activation*. In this article we draw on circumplex models of emotion (Russell, 1980) and their applications (Bartunek et al., 2006; Beaudry & Pinsonneault, 2010; Liu & Perrewé, 2005) to describe a circumplex of responses to change events, incorporating both valence and activation dimensions of change recipients' affective and behavioral responses. These responses, together with the cognitive appraisals that accompany them (Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Roseman, 2001), are the components of *emotional*

episodes (Frijda, 1993; Russell, 2003) triggered by change events.

CHANGE RECIPIENTS' RESPONSES TO CHANGE EVENTS AS EMOTIONAL EPISODES

We begin our discussion of affective responses to change by defining the concept of emotional episode. This concept is often used to link events with individuals' affective responses to them (Elfenbein, 2007; Russell, 2003). It has been described as "the sequence of affective processes which integrate the emotion, cognition, and behavior that arise in response to the triggering event or object" (Frijda, 1993: 382). More specifically, an emotional episode is a situation in which a single event of affective significance leads to the unfolding of a series of subevents, including (1) a feeling component, which can be either positive or negative and activated or deactivated, (2) an appraisal component, and (3) action tendencies—all of which are integrated with each other (Moors, Ellsworth, Scherer, & Frijda, 2013; Russell & Barrett, 1999; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In the context of organizational change, such events have been termed *change events* (such as the decision to use a new software development approach in our opening example) and refer to the particular events that occur during change (Pettigrew, Woodman, & Cameron, 2001: 698). Rather than focusing broadly on an overall change (e.g., the complete implementation of a new work procedure), we use "change event" to refer to the particular components, or subevents, that make up the overall change (e.g., the announcement of the new work procedure, the first attempt to implement it, etc.).

Change events (Huy, 2002; Matheny & Smollan, 2005; Pettigrew et al., 2001) trigger emotional episodes by evoking affective processes intertwined with cognitive appraisals that affect change recipients' behavioral responses to the change events. For example, when an employee hears an announcement of a substantial structural change to be implemented in her organizational unit, she may experience excitement. In this case, the announcement is a trigger of her emotional episode, which has excitement as its feeling component. Her excitement, however, is not a stand-alone, pure emotion. She may feel excited because she appraises the change as highly relevant to her and as likely to benefit her, the organization, or both. Her excitement may lead her to take some action, such as meeting with her direct supervisor to share some of her thoughts about how the change might be implemented more effectively.

To capture such responses comprehensively, we flesh out emotional episodes in response to change events by separately identifying the role of cognitive appraisal and the roles of affect and behavior, which we present in a circumplex (Russell, 1980). Lazarus (1999) suggested that although affect, cognitive appraisal, and motivation for behavior are always conjoined and interdependent in nature, they can be separated for the purposes of clarity of discussion.

A Multidimensional View of Affective Responses to Organizational Change

Affect plays a key role in organizational behavior, characterizing and influencing the responses of organization members in diverse organizational contexts and positions, such as leaders, followers, change agents, and change recipients, on whom we focus in this article. Among the numerous studies of reactions to change, several have highlighted the central role of affect in shaping change recipients' overall experience and behavior (for reviews of this literature, see Oreg et al., 2011, and Rafferty et al., 2013). Huy, for example, suggested that "emotions first serve as relevance detectors, focusing people's attention on change events, then as motivators of action" (2002: 34). A well-established conceptualization of emotion suggests that core affect or purely affective experiences are organized by two fundamental, independent dimensions: degree of pleasantness or positivity—*valence*—and degree of arousal—*activation* (Feldman, 1995; Kuppens, Tuerlinckx, Russell, & Barrett, 2013; Russell, 1980). The bipolar valence dimension ranges from unpleasant to pleasant (or negative to positive). Pleasantness, or positive affectivity, is an affective state characterized by feelings such as joy, elation, contentment, and happiness (e.g., Seo, Barrett, & Bartunek, 2004), whereas unpleasantness, or negative affectivity, is associated with feelings such as anger, anxiety, or sadness. The activation dimension refers to the energy associated with affect (Russell, 1980; Seo et al., 2004). It too is bipolar, ranging from high activation to deactivation. Examples of low activation affective responses include calm and apathetic, and examples of high activation responses include excited and angry (Seo et al., 2004).

Russell and Barrett (1999: 12) argued that these two dimensions form a circumplex structure of core affect, in which various types of emotions are "spread more or less evenly around the perimeter of the space" such that multiple types of affective experiences fit into each quadrant. The circumplex contains four quadrants of emotion types: negative and deactivated (e.g., depressed), negative and activated (e.g., anxious), positive and deactivated (e.g., satisfied), and positive and activated (e.g., excited).

In line with the predominant approach in studies of responses to change, most studies of emotional responses to change have focused on the valence dimension of the responses. A few studies, however, acknowledge both dimensions and, thus, provide a more complex and realistic view of recipients' affective experiences (Bartunek et al., 2006; Beaudry & Pinsonneault, 2010; Liu & Perrewé, 2005). Bartunek et al. (2006), for example, distinguished between the pleasantness (i.e., valence) and activation of recipients' emotional responses. They did not, however, distinguish between the predictors and outcomes of each. Both Beaudry and Pinsonneault (2010) and Liu and Perrewé (2005) used two-dimensional systems to classify recipients' emotional responses to innovation. Their models are important not only for distinguishing between emotion dimensions but also for linking emotions with the cognitive appraisal that evokes them. Neither model, however, gives sufficient attention to activation. In both models the emotional responses considered involve (implicitly, at least) moderate levels of activation, with little attention to the variance in the degree of activation these responses include. Furthermore, in discussing the antecedents of the emotional responses, both models lack a clear distinction between antecedents of valence and activation. We therefore extend the affective circumplex to more fully incorporate both of these dimensions and further use them as a basis for exploring the types of behaviors likely associated with them and the cognitive appraisal components that precede them.

A Circumplex Model of Recipients' Behavioral Responses to Change Events

It is widely recognized among emotion scholars that the elements of an emotional episode are congruent with each other (Frijda, 1993; Russell, 2003; Russell & Barrett, 1999). Accordingly, the valence and activation of individuals' emotions tend to correspond with the valence and activation of their behavioral responses. Positive emotions toward an event or object tend to be associated with behaviors aimed at supporting the object or event, and negative emotions toward the object/event tend to be associated with behaviors aimed at stymieing it. Similarly, the level of emotion activation will tend to correspond with the level of behavior activation. Indeed, Frijda (1986) argued that affective experiences represent experienced states of action readiness or unreadiness, and Russell noted that "high arousal states are preparations for action" (2003: 155). Empirical findings support this correspondence between affect and behavior or behavioral intentions. Anger and resentment, for example, both of which are activated emotions, trigger active behaviors, such as voice (Edwards, Ashkanasy, & Gardner, 2009; Harvey, Martinko, & Douglas, 2009). They are also more likely to prompt active behaviors than are deactivated emotions, such as boredom and contentment (Lang, 1995).[1]

Extending research that highlights the multidimensional nature of recipients' affective responses to change (e.g., Bartunek et al., 2006; Liu & Perrewé, 2005), we introduce a circumplex of behavioral responses to change that builds on Russell's (1980) affective circumplex (see Figure 1). Understanding the distinctions offered in this circumplex among the various behavioral responses is important because the responses correspond with distinct sets of implications for change recipients, for subsequent steps in the change, and for the organization.

We show four types of behavioral responses, along with the affect that generates them. We term these *change acceptance, change disengagement, change resistance,* and *change proactivity.* We introduce the affect and behavior in each quadrant below, along with the expected implications of each for recipients, the organization, and the change.[2]

---

[1] Certainly, emotion and behavior do not always correspond with each other, and some research addresses the conditions that moderate the emotion-behavior relationship (e.g., Jordan, Ashkanasy, & Hartel, 2002; Martin, Knopoff, & Beckman, 1998). Nevertheless, because they tend to be congruent and often reinforce each other, we focus here on those cases where the two are generally aligned (e.g., Frijda, 1987).

[2] Contrary to the valence of recipients' emotion, which is naturally considered from the recipients' perspective, the valence of behavioral responses can be considered from the perspectives of both the recipient and the change agent. To be consistent with how affective responses are treated, we refer here to recipients' perspectives and focus on *their* behavioral *intentions.*

FIGURE 1
Circumplex of Change Recipients' Responses to Change and Underlying Core Affect
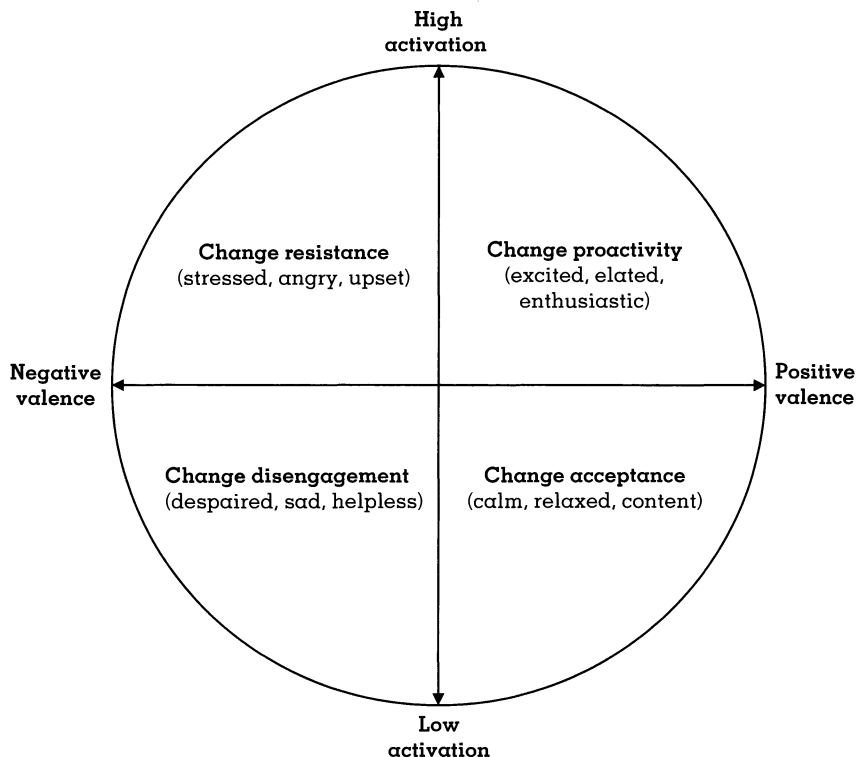
Change acceptance. As shown in Figure 1, change acceptance (such as in the case described in our opening example) involves the combination of *positive valence and low activation*. The types of emotions that characterize this *pleasant, deactivated quadrant* (Barrett & Russell, 1998) include calm, relaxed, and content. Change recipients' behavioral intentions associated with this quadrant—namely, their passive support of change—can be described in similar ways. For example, change recipients who feel content following the announcement of a new change may be passively supportive and exhibit behaviors such as attentive listening and unobtrusive compliance. Previous research has referred to this type of response using terms such as *change acceptance* (e.g., Paterson & Cary, 2002; Sagie & Koslowsky, 1994), *support willingness* (e.g., Miller, Johnson, & Grau, 1994), *readiness for change* (e.g., Armenakis, Harris, & Mossholder, 1993; Holt, Armenakis, Feild, & Harris, 2007), *openness to change* (e.g., Wanberg & Banas, 2000), and *intentions to support the change* (e.g., Daly & Geyer, 1994).

Given that much of the research on recipients' responses to change has focused on the valence of recipients' (implicitly passive) responses, scholars have a fairly good understanding of the outcomes of change acceptance. Employee acceptance of organizational change has been linked with positive outcomes for recipients (e.g., improved well-being; for a review of these outcomes, see Oreg et al., 2011), as well as a smooth implementation of change (e.g., Amiot, Terry, Jimmieson, & Callan, 2006; Holt et al., 2007; Logan & Ganster, 2007). Thus, change agents are likely to view it positively.

At the same time, whereas change acceptance may facilitate implementation of a proposed change, it is not likely to produce constructive feedback for change agents to modify or improve ongoing change (March, 1991). Change acceptance may therefore have a differential impact on the effectiveness of the change, depending on when acceptance is exhibited. Change acceptance will likely yield a smooth implementation of the change, but it will fail to yield meaningful feedback for change agents during planning (see Figure 2 and the opening example). Thus, the positive framing of change acceptance that has been adopted in the change literature (e.g., Paterson &

Cary, 2002; Sagie & Koslowsky, 1994) may obscure its potential disadvantages for the successful implementation of change (see Figure 2).

Change disengagement. Change disengagement involves the combination of *negative valence and low activation*. The types of emotions that characterize this *unpleasant, deactivated quadrant* (Barrett & Russell, 1998) include despaired, sad, and helpless. The action tendencies associated with these passive responses to change are comparable to withdrawal behavior (e.g., Farrell, 1983; Pinder & Harlos, 2001) and responses to job dissatisfaction (e.g., Farrell, 1983; Hirschman, 1970), such as being absent, doing nothing, and making errors. In the literature on voice, such passive negativity has been referred to with the terms *acquiescent silence*, as in withholding important information, and *acquiescent voice*, which involves "a disengaged voice based on resignation" (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003: 1372). As earlier studies of

reactions to change have suggested, when change recipients feel fatigued or bored by change events, such as a series of meetings and interventions, they may exhibit foot dragging, passivity, and feigned acceptance during the change (e.g., Oreg, 2006; Pierce & Dunham, 1992; Szulanski, 1996).

In contrast to the positive outcomes of change acceptance, change disengagement has been linked with negative outcomes for change recipients, including higher cynicism (e.g., Reichers, Wanous, & Austin, 1997), lower engagement in change efforts and negative job-related attitudes (e.g., Reichers et al., 1997; Stanley et al., 2005), and neglect behaviors (e.g., tardiness, absenteeism, errors; Farrell, 1983). Given the passive nature of change disengagement, however, recipients' negative responses are not overt and therefore may resemble change acceptance in their implications for the planning and implementation stages of the change (see Figure 2). In particular,

FIGURE 2
Implications of Change Responses on Recipients, the Organization, and the Planning and Implementation of the Change

Valence

		Negative	Positive
High		*Change resistance*	*Change proactivity*
	Recipient and organizational outcomes	Particularly negative recipient attitudes and behaviors and lower well-being	Particularly positive recipient attitudes and behaviors and higher well-being
	Impact on change planning	Feedback (albeit not necessarily constructive); slow process	Constructive; supportive approach, but process might be slow
	Impact on change implementation	Major setbacks; some potential for breakthrough ideas for improvement	Possible setbacks during implementation of the change; slow, but with possible breakthrough ideas for improvement
Low		*Change disengagement*	*Change acceptance*
	Recipient and organizational outcomes	Negative recipient attitudes and behaviors and lower well-being	Positive recipient attitudes and behaviors and higher well-being
	Impact on change planning	Limited feedback; smooth and fast process	Limited feedback; smooth and fast process
	Impact on change implementation	Some setbacks could be expected involving foot dragging	Smooth implementation of the change

Activation (vertical axis label, left side: High / Low)

little feedback can be expected in the planning stage of the change, thus preserving the status quo or any given inertia (Farrell, 1983) and losing opportunities for improving the design of the change. Implementation may be even less smooth than in the case of change acceptance, given possible foot dragging, but, as we discuss below, will likely be limited relative to the more active responses to change.

Change resistance. The change resistance quadrant combines *negative valence and high activation*. The types of emotions that characterize this *unpleasant, activated quadrant* (Barrett & Russell, 1998) include stressed, angry, and upset. The form of recipient action tendency most consistent with this quadrant is resistance to change as Lewin (1947) originally conceived it—as an active application of a force to counter change (e.g., Coch & French, 1948; Stewart, 1957). Active opposition is comparable to active responses to dissatisfaction, such as voice or exit (Farrell, 1983; Van Dyne et al., 2003). Despite the relative neglect of activated responses in the literature, several studies have considered negative activated affective responses to change, such as anger (e.g., Fugate, Kinicki, & Scheck, 2002; Kiefer, 2005), stress (e.g., Amiot et al., 2006; Bordia, Jones, Gallois, Callan, & Difonzo, 2006), and active aggression (e.g., Ramirez & Bartunek, 1989), as forms of resistance. Individual recipients who get angry, upset, or irritated by a change event (e.g., announcements and actions by change agents) may actively spread critical and debasing information and opinions about the change (Maynes & Podsakoff, 2014; Ramirez & Bartunek, 1989).

Activated change resistance may also be expressed in turnover (e.g., Fried, Tiegs, Naughton, & Ashforth, 1996; Fugate, Harrison, & Kinicki, 2011; Schweiger & Denisi, 1991). Such turnover may have significant negative consequences for change, because it incurs additional costs for recruiting and training new employees (e.g., Shaw, Delery, Jenkins, & Gupta, 1998) and poorer organizational and team performance (especially in knowledge-oriented organizations; Koys, 2001; Ton & Huckman, 2008). It also increases remaining employees' workload, lowers their work morale, and may have negative contagion effects (Bartunek, Huang, & Walsh, 2008; Felps et al., 2009).

Change resistance is therefore mostly detrimental, at least in the short term, to both the organization and its members (see Figure 2). It aims at disrupting the current change and can sometimes lead to disruptions of the organization's functioning, such as in the case of strikes (e.g., Kanter, Stein, & Jick, 1992). Following the aggressive behaviors described in the Ramirez and Bartunek (1989) study, for example, the change agent was no longer able to operate effectively, and some of the important and necessary changes expected to be accomplished had to be postponed indefinitely.

Yet alongside its negative implications, change resistance may also have benefits. First, recipients who actively express their disagreement with the change may find the expression of their resistance cathartic and stress relieving, as suggested in the literature on voice (Morrison, 2011). By voicing their objections, recipients may feel less need to withdraw from the organization (e.g., Batt, Colvin, & Keefe, 2002; Coch & French, 1948; Farrell, 1983). More important, recipients' open expression of their negative stance toward the change may benefit the planning stage of the change. The voiced expression of recipients' objections to a change event may include valuable information that can be used for improving the ongoing organizational change.

Further, although using different terms, Van Dyne et al. (2003) suggested that change agents may experience less ambiguity in understanding change recipients' resistant behaviors than in understanding their disengagement behaviors and will, thus, be more likely to accurately interpret recipients' reasons for having negative views of the change. Having a better understanding of change recipients' objections, change agents are more likely to consider necessary revisions or improvements in the organizational change.[3] Although this is more time consuming, and therefore possibly detrimental in the short run, redesigning the change to address recipients' early concerns and incorporate their interests may improve the change. It may ultimately alter the valence of recipients' responses to be more positive, thus lessening their resistance in the implementation stage of the change.

---

[3] Of course, whether voicing these concerns will result in effective organizational learning and improvements will depend on how change agents respond to recipients' initiatives (Ton & Huckman, 2008). Some research has shown that when concerns are voiced in a challenging (versus supportive) manner, as would likely be the case among active resisters, managers are less likely to endorse the concerns raised and more likely to negatively evaluate those voicing the concerns (Burris, 2012).

Change proactivity. The change proactivity quadrant combines *positive valence and high activation*. The types of emotions that characterize this *pleasant, activated quadrant* (Barrett & Russell, 1998) include excited, elated, and enthusiastic. The action tendencies associated with this quadrant are generally intended to positively influence the change and its implementation. Similar to other forms of proactive behavior, change proactivity is self-initiated (i.e., recipient-initiated), future focused, and oriented toward improvement (e.g., Morrison, 2011). Change proactivity, however, refers specifically to responses to (organizational change) events that are initiated by others. This is similar to self-determined autonomous forms of extrinsic motivation, such as identification or even integrated regulation, in which individuals' actions are internally driven but still perceived as having an external locus of causality (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In this form of proactivity, the individual change recipient works in response to change agents to promote successful change in a way that may foster interdependence and collaboration between agents and recipients. This may include expressing support for organizational change through actions such as speaking out in defense of change and/or further developing its design and implementation.

Change proactive responses will therefore be particularly valuable in the planning stage of the change (see Figure 2). Indeed, mood-creativity research indicates that the combination of positive and active emotions is the most likely to elicit creative solutions (e.g., Baas, De Dreu, & Nijstad, 2008). Similarly, proactive behaviors have proved beneficial for implementing new ideas in organizations (e.g., Dutton, Ashford, O'Neill, & Lawrence, 2001), for reconciling disagreements regarding a change approach, and for envisioning and promoting a different, better future for both the employee and the organization (Parker, Bindl, & Strauss, 2010). Accordingly, change proactivity in response to particular change events is likely to generate outcomes that enhance and improve the design, and thus long-term outcomes, of the change for both change recipients and the organization as a whole.

This does not mean that recipient change proactivity is always change agents' most desired response to a particular change event. Although change proactivity should result in more thoughtful planning for and implementation of the change, capitalizing on the abilities and perspectives of a larger set of individuals, it may also cause

planning to take longer than agents may have anticipated. Such responses will also require change agents to be willing to accommodate changes in their ideas and design for change, which may be particularly challenging. In this respect, change proactivity may be a double-edged sword because of what Campbell termed the *initiative paradox*—"employees are expected to use independent judgment and initiative, and simultaneously expected to think and act like their bosses" (2000: 57). Thus, although change proactive responses may be advantageous for the organization, they require change agents to be willing to accommodate changes in their initial ideas.[4]

Thus, each of the four types of responses to change has its advantages and disadvantages for the change, the organization, and change recipients (Figure 2). We next describe the mechanisms through which the responses to change are formed.

THE ROLE OF COGNITIVE APPRAISAL IN THE FORMATION OF AFFECTIVE AND BEHAVIORAL RESPONSES TO CHANGE EVENTS

Cognitive appraisal is the process through which individuals evaluate events and their potential impact on the self (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986; Lazarus, 1991). As such, it contributes to the types of affect and action tendencies that emerge in response to the events encountered (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Lazarus (1991) described a sequence of two appraisals: *primary appraisal*, through which people evaluate the event's relevance to the self, and *secondary appraisal*, through which people evaluate their options and resources for coping with the event. It is the combination of these appraisals that determines the affect that emerges.[5]

---

[4] Proactivity scholars have argued that supervisors sometimes see proactive behaviors as threats (Frese & Fay, 2001; Miceli & Near, 1994) or an ill-timed distraction (Chan, 2006), rather than potentially constructive behaviors. To benefit from change proactive responses, agents need to be open to reconsidering the processes and outcomes of the change they had envisioned. When implementing change under a tight schedule and stressful conditions, change agents may sometimes be unwilling or unable to accommodate the short-term disruptions that result from change proactivity, thus sacrificing its long-term benefits.

[5] The order in which cognitive appraisals and emotions influence one another has been debated (e.g., Lazarus, 1982; Zajonc, 1984). There is general agreement (e.g., Lazarus, 1999), however, that the influence is reciprocal, cyclical, and dynamic. For clarity of presentation, we discuss cognitive appraisals as antecedents of affect.

Although some differences exist across appraisal theories (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 2001; Scherer, 1984; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985), there is general agreement that primary appraisal involves two main, relatively independent assessments: (1) the degree to which the event is congruent with the individual's goals (i.e., *goal congruence*) and (2) the degree to which the event is relevant and significant for the individual (i.e., *goal relevance*). Secondary appraisal focuses on the individual's perceived ability to cope with the event (i.e., *coping potential*). Coping potential (also known as control or power; Moors et al., 2013) refers to the appraisal that the individual can control or modify the event experienced (Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

Appraisal theory has been used in a small number of studies to explain change recipients' reactions to change initiatives (Beaudry & Pinsonneault, 2010; Fugate et al., 2011; Liu & Perrewé, 2005; Smollan, 2006). The main argument in these studies has been that the conditions (e.g., change context and change process) that shape change recipients' affective responses to change do so by influencing their cognitive appraisals of it (e.g., Fugate, Prussia, & Kinicki, 2012). In most of these studies, however, cognitive appraisal is treated broadly, without distinguishing between appraisal components and their differential effects on the emotion dimensions. Where distinctions among components have been made (Liu & Perrewé, 2005), they are used for predicting differences only in the valence of the emotional response to change. We propose, however, that appraisal components can be used to predict the full response circumplex.

Appraisals and Valence

As noted above, primary appraisal is the process through which people evaluate the significance of events to the self. This involves determining the degree to which the event is aligned with one's personal goals (i.e., goal congruence) and is personally relevant (i.e., goal relevance). As we elaborate below, we propose that the two components have differential effects on change recipients' responses and that goal congruence is related to the valence of recipients' responses.

Appraisals of goal congruence in the change literature are represented by multiple terms, such as *perceived benefit/harm* (Oreg et al., 2011),

change content (Choi, 2011), and *personal valence* (Armenakis, Harris, & Feild, 1999). These appraisals are frequently used to refer to individuals' perceptions of *personal* benefit or harm. Overall, the degree to which an event is congruent with the individual's goals determines whether the individual judges the event as positive or negative (Elfenbein, 2007). Accordingly, in his description of primary appraisals, Lazarus (1991) linked goal congruence, which he also described as the degree of benefit or harm an individual perceives in an event, with the valence of the individual's affective response. Perceived harm yields negative affect, and perceived benefit yields positive affect. Thus, appraisal theories of emotion suggest that high goal congruence yields positive emotions and low goal congruence yields negative ones (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1984; Scherer, 2001; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

A positive association between goal congruence and valence is consistent with Liu and Perrewé's (2005) propositions about the distinction between excitement and fear during organizational change. Although Liu and Perrewé do not refer in their propositions to either valence or activation, we can nonetheless infer some predictions of valence from their predictions about these two emotions. They propose that goal (in)congruence will be positively associated with excitement (fear). Similarly, in an empirical study of the discrete emotions of joy, anger, and sadness, Nyer (1997) found that greater goal congruence was associated with more joy (positive valence) and with less anger and sadness (negative valence). Together, these findings support the notion that goal congruence is associated with the valence of recipients' response to the change.

Following our proposal that the behavioral response corresponds with the affective response, we suggest that the appraisal of goal congruence (incongruence) not only relates to the affective response but also motivates a positive (negative) behavioral response to a change event, aimed at supporting (preventing/stalling) the change. This type of pattern is suggested, for example, in a study of appeals to hope as part of an effort to take steps toward climate change prevention (Chadwick, 2015). In that study, appraisals of goal congruence predicted subjective feelings of hope (i.e., positive valence), which, in turn, led to greater interest in climate protection, as well as

perceptions that messages about climate change had been persuasive. We therefore propose the following.

> Proposition 1: Change recipients' appraisal of personal goal congruence will be positively related to the valence of their affect toward the change event and, correspondingly, to the valence of their behavioral response.

Beyond appraisals of personal benefit or harm, goal congruence may also refer to individuals' perceptions of the benefit or harm of an event to the organization. These involve the degree to which the change event is viewed as consistent with the organization's goals (Holt et al., 2007). All else being equal, a change recipient who perceives that a change is consistent with the goals of the recipient's organization is likely to experience positive emotions toward the change and to engage in corresponding positive (either accepting or proactive) behaviors, relative to a recipient who perceives the change as incongruent with organizational goals.

> Proposition 2: Change recipients' appraisal of organizational goal congruence will be positively related to the valence of their affect toward the change event and, correspondingly, to the valence of their behavioral response.

Although we propose that both personal and organizational goal congruence will be positively related to the valence of recipients' responses, we do not propose that the two will necessarily coincide. In other words, there may be cases where individuals appraise a change event as beneficial for the organization but personally detrimental, or vice versa. Such incongruence will likely yield ambivalence toward the change event (Oreg & Sverdlik, 2011; Piderit, 2000), constituting the simultaneous experience of positive and negative valence toward the event. Contrarily, the more congruent the two appraisals, the stronger the ultimate emotional and behavioral response to the change event will be. We thus argue that their effects are additive.

Appraisals and Activation

We argue that response activation is influenced by factors in both the primary and secondary appraisal stages. In primary appraisal, we propose that goal relevance—the degree to which an event has a "significant and demonstrable bearing on the well-being of the individual" (Scherer, 2013: 150), or the degree to which the individual is personally involved with the event (Nyer, 1997)—contributes to the degree of activation an individual will experience. Whereas goal congruence has to do with the types of implications (positive or negative) the event has, goal relevance is about the importance or centrality of these implications to the individual. A minimal level of goal relevance has been described as a prerequisite for the experience of any emotion, with increases of goal relevance associated with increases in the activation of the emotion experienced (Nyer, 1997; Smith & Kirby, 2009).

Goal congruence and goal relevance are relatively independent of one another; both congruent and incongruent events can be of high or low relevance. The two are said to jointly contribute to affective responses. Goal congruence determines its valence, and goal relevance determines its activation such that activation increases as the triggering event is more goal relevant (Kreibig, Gendolla, & Scherer, 2012).

Although relationships between goal relevance and dimensions of emotion have not been tested explicitly, a few studies support a relationship between goal relevance and emotion activation. In one study, goal relevance assessed through managers' appraisals of a task's importance was related to the activation of both negative and positive emotions experienced during the task (Fisher, Minbashian, Beckmann, & Wood, 2013). In another study, goal relevance was related to individuals' level of emotional arousal, as manifested in participants' heart rate acceleration (Aue, Flykt, & Scherer, 2007). Similarly, focusing on high activation emotions, Nyer (1997) found a positive relationship between the intensity of both negative and positive emotions and goal relevance. Accordingly, we propose the following.

> Proposition 3: Change recipients' appraisal of goal relevance will be positively related to the activation of their affect toward a change event and, correspondingly, to the activation of their behavioral response.

In secondary appraisal, we propose that *perceived coping potential*, which reflects controllability (Folkman, 1984) and modifiability (Frijda, Kuipers, & Ter Schure, 1989), also influences the level of emotion activation. When encountering an event, individuals, after determining the event's personal relevance and degree of congruence with their goals, assess the degree to which they can cope with the event and control its outcomes. This appraised coping potential influences the level of activation in individuals' emotional response to the event (Frijda et al., 1989). High activation emotions, including enthusiasm and exuberance (positive), as well as anger and annoyance (negative), have all been traced back to high levels of controllability or modifiability, whereas low activation emotions, such as sadness or helplessness, have been traced back to low levels of controllability (Frijda et al., 1989).

As another example, in a study of the concept of *interest*, conceptualized as an activated emotion, participants' appraisals of their ability to cope with complex material were positively associated with their interest in the material (e.g., complex poems; Silvia, 2005). In an experience sampling study, individuals' appraisals of their control over and ability to cope with events were associated with the activation of the emotions they experienced during these events (Kuppens et al., 2012). These findings also correspond with affect control theory, which distinguishes between emotions that involve varying degrees of perceived control, such as anger—high activation—and sadness—low activation (e.g., Heise, 1979; Robinson & Smith-Lovin, 1999). We therefore propose the following.

> *Proposition 4: Change recipients' appraisal of their coping potential will be positively related to the activation of their affect toward a change event and, correspondingly, to the activation of their behavioral response.*

Both Propositions 3 and 4 involve the activation of recipients' responses to change; one highlights primary appraisal (goal relevance), and the other highlights secondary appraisal (coping potential). We do not propose, however, that goal relevance and coping potential will necessarily coincide in the direction of their effect. There could very well be situations in which a change is appraised as relevant (thus yielding

high response activation) but coping potential is low (thus yielding low response activation), or vice versa (although in this opposite case at least a minimal level of relevance would be necessary for any emotion to emerge, as discussed above; cf. Smith & Kirby, 2009). We thus propose that their cumulative impact is additive. We further address this point in the discussion section.

This discussion leads us back to the four quadrants of the behavioral responses to change events (Figure 1). Based on Propositions 1 through 4, *change acceptance* is likely to occur when there is high goal congruence, relatively low goal relevance, and relatively low perceived coping potential; *change disengagement* will likely occur when goal congruence, goal relevance, and perceived coping potential are low; *change resistance* will likely occur when goal congruence is low but goal relevance and coping potential tend to be high; and, finally, *change proactivity* will likely emerge when all cognitive appraisal components—goal congruence, goal relevance, and coping potential—are high. Thus, if an employee appraises a change event as congruent with their personal interests or vision for the organization, such as better serving its community, the employee's responses will likely be supportive. It is the perceived relevance of the change event and the employee's perceived coping potential that determine whether the employee's supportiveness will be in the form of change acceptance or change proactivity. Given appraisals' role in the formation of the affective and behavioral response to change, we next propose that appraisals can be used to explain the effects of the change context and change process on change recipients' responses.

The Roles of Appraisals in Explaining Effects of External Factors on Change Responses

We described the core of our model above: change recipients' emotional episodes in response to change events include corresponding appraisals, affect, and behavioral responses. We propose that this core helps explain many of the relationships previously established between attributes of organizational change and recipients' responses. Based on extensive reviews of change studies, we focus here on aspects of the *change process* (Oreg et al., 2011) through which

particular change events come about, along with aspects of the *change context* (Choi, 2011; Oreg et al., 2011), involving the attributes of the environment in which change events occur. We propose that many of the factors that have been shown to predict responses to change have their effects through one or more of the appraisal components. We discuss here how change process and change context influence response valence, response activation, or both by means of their impacts on appraisal.

To specify the types of process and context factors that are relevant for predicting each appraisal component, we return to the appraisal components' definitions and set criteria to be met by the predictors. These criteria are the key attributes that variables should include if they are to predict a given appraisal component. We follow with examples of predictors that meet these criteria.

Predictors of goal congruence. As noted above, goal congruence represents the degree to which an individual appraises an event as being aligned with their own interests. In the context of an organizational change event, goal congruence depends on the degree to which the change recipient perceives the change as aligned with their interests. Accordingly, the more change agents are aware of and care about recipients' interests, the more likely they will construct change events to be congruent with recipients' goals. A key criterion for predictors of goal congruence would therefore be that they pertain to recipients' perceptions of the degree to which their interests are accounted for by the change agent.

For example, one predictor that constitutes part of the change context (Oreg et al., 2011), and that should directly influence recipients' perceptions that their interests are accounted for, is organizational trust. Recipient trust has been shown to be a strong and consistent predictor of the valence of recipients' responses to change (see Oreg et al., 2011). Indeed, a key definition of trust is the possession of positive expectations regarding another's conduct (Lewicki, McAllister, & Bies, 1998: 439), based on individuals' expectations that their interests will be protected and promoted (Real, 1962). In any change event, recipients' expectations that their interests will be protected by the change agent should therefore be directly related to their appraisals of the change event's goal congruence.

As our core model suggests, this effect of trust on goal congruence, in turn, affects the valence of recipients' responses. Thus, goal congruence constitutes a psychological mechanism that underlies the well-established relationship between trust and the valence of recipients' response to change events.

A prominent aspect of the change process that influences recipients' perceptions that their interests are accounted for is participation in change. In many studies participation in the change is positively linked with the valence of recipients' reactions to it (for a review see Oreg et al., 2011). Participation has been defined as the degree of "perceived influence a given individual may exert within a particular decision domain" (Nurick, 1982: 418); it provides "individuals an opportunity to influence the goal that is ultimately established" (Lind, Kanfer, & Earley, 1990: 953). As such, one means through which participation yields positively valenced responses to change events is by allowing recipients to directly ensure that their interests are accounted for. In other words, one way through which participation influences the valence of recipients' responses to change is its influence on goal congruence. We therefore propose the following.

> *Proposition 5a: Factors that increase change recipients' perceptions that their interests are accounted for (e.g., trust, participation) will increase appraisals of goal congruence.*

> *Proposition 5b: Goal congruence will mediate the relationship between factors that increase perceptions of accounted interests and the valence of change recipients' responses.*

Predictors of goal relevance. As noted above, goal relevance is the degree to which the implications of an event are meaningful and important to an individual (Lazarus, 1991; Moors et al., 2013). Others have termed this *personal involvement* (Nyer, 1997). Higher goal relevance of a change event to a change recipient therefore means that the recipient is more personally involved with the event.

A meaningful way to understand goal relevance is through the concept of psychological distance (Trope & Liberman, 2010). Given that psychological distance is egocentric, whereby the reference point for determining distance is the

"self in the here and now" (Trope & Liberman, 2010: 440), smaller psychological distances reflect closer proximity to the self—in other words, higher goal relevance. Thus, factors that decrease recipients' psychological distance from the organizational change should increase the change's goal relevance.

The construal-level theory of psychological distance (Trope & Liberman, 2010) and the empirical research supporting it outline factors that predict the psychological distance of an object or event (e.g., an organizational change). These include the object's hypotheticality (i.e., how hypothetical versus concrete the object is) and its temporal, physical, and social distance from the individual. Changes that are concrete, set to take place next week, are within the recipient's department, and involve the recipient or their friends should likely yield higher appraisals of goal relevance (and, ultimately, higher response activation) than should a hypothetical change that may take place in two years, will occur in another department, and involves employees with whom the recipient is not personally familiar.

Some variables previously linked with responses to change can be classified into the social distance category. For example, organizational identification has to do with the social distance between an individual and the organization (Kreiner & Ashforth, 2004) and is a predictor of recipients' responses to change (e.g., Oreg et al., 2011; Seppälä, Lipponen, Bardi, & Pirttilä-Backman, 2012; van Knippenberg, Martin, & Tyler, 2006). Organizational identification involves a "perceived oneness with an organization" (Mael & Ashforth, 1992: 110)—the greater an individual's identification with the organization, the smaller the psychological distance between the individual and the organization. Accordingly, the greater an individual's organizational identification, the higher the individual's appraisal of the change event's goal relevance will be.

As another example, through its influence on recipients' identification with the organization and involvement with their jobs, charismatic and transformational leadership can serve to reduce the psychological distance between change recipients and the organization (e.g., Atwater & Carmeli, 2009; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998). For example, charismatic leadership can increase social identification with the organization (i.e., decrease the distance between the

employee and the organization) by raising the salience of the organization's collective identity in employees' self-concepts (Shamir et al., 1998). This is achieved by emphasizing ideology and shared values (Shamir et al., 1998) and by priming organizational members' collective selves (Kark & Shamir, 2002). Correspondingly, transformational leadership has been empirically linked with followers' identification with their organization (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005).

Although both identification (e.g., Ullrich, Wieseke, & Dick, 2005) and leadership styles (e.g., Oreg & Berson, 2011; van Dam, Oreg, & Schyns, 2008) have been linked with recipients' responses to change, the studies that established these links did not distinguish between the valence and activation of recipients' responses. We propose that such factors influence responses to change by decreasing the psychological distance between the recipient and the change, thus increasing goal relevance. This will, in turn, influence the activation of recipients' responses.

Proposition 6a: Factors that decrease the psychological distance between the change recipient and the organization (e.g., organizational identification, transformational leadership) will increase recipients' appraisals of goal relevance.

Proposition 6b: Goal relevance will mediate the relationship between distance-decreasing factors and the activation of change recipients' responses.

Predictors of coping potential. As noted, *coping potential* refers to individuals' perceived ability to cope with an event (Folkman & Lazarus, 1985; Smith & Kirby, 2009)—particularly, in our model, a change event. This appraisal component has been studied extensively in the occupational stress literature (Vagg & Spielberger, 1998), where coping is described as an interaction between individuals' internal resources and external environmental demands and coping appraisal reflects the individuals' perception or evaluation of how well they can deal with the situation at hand (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). *Coping resources* are those resources that people draw upon to deal with a given situation. They have been shown to predict individuals' (secondary) appraisal of the situation and their ability to effectively cope with it (e.g., Callan, Terry, &

Schweitzer, 1994; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Terry, Callan, & Sartori, 1996).

Two of the most consistent and significant resources linked with individuals' perceived coping potential are social support and perceptions of control (e.g., Skinner, 1995; Viswesvaran, Sanchez, & Fisher, 1999). Both incorporate an active coping approach, which is oriented toward problem solving, versus a more passive approach, which focuses on the emotions that accompany stress (Ashford, 1988; Carver, Scheier, & Weintraub, 1989; Folkman & Lazarus, 1980). More specifically, social support may facilitate change recipients' coping potential by increasing recipients' self-esteem (La Rocco & Jones, 1978), and their change-related self-efficacy through social persuasion and/or vicarious learning (e.g., Bandura, 1982). Similarly, perceived control increases coping potential by enhancing individuals' internal locus of control (Folkman, 1984). Change recipients are thus more likely to focus on what they can do during the change process, instead of blaming others or complaining about what they cannot do (Callan et al., 1994).

Change process and context factors that pertain to the social support and perceived control recipients experience are likely to increase recipients' perceived coping potential. For example, a supportive environment during the change likely enhances change recipients' change-related self-efficacy. In one study, change recipients' supportive social network helped their adaptation to a technology-induced change by increasing their self-efficacy (Bruque, Moyano, & Eisenberg, 2008). In another study, social support during an organizational change (in the form of supervisor support and open communication) increased change recipients' perceived control and decreased their levels of stress (Shaw, Fields, Thacker, & Fisher, 1993).

Further, beyond its impact on goal congruence (see above), participation in the change process also increases perceived control and, in turn, enhances change recipients' coping potential. Several explanations of the benefits of participation in the workplace focus on its positive impact on employees' general needs for control (Argyris, 1957; Spector, 1986). In change contexts in particular, participation in decision making during the change lowers perceived uncertainty, thus increasing perceived control (Bordia, Hobman, Jones, Gallois, & Callan, 2004). Participation therefore influences not only the valence of recipient responses (through its effect on goal congruence) but also the activation of their response (through its effect on recipients' perceived coping potential). We propose the following.

> *Proposition 7a: Factors that increase perceived control and support (e.g., a supportive environment, participation) during a change event will increase change recipients' appraisals of their coping potential.*

> *Proposition 7b: Coping potential will mediate the relationship between factors that increase perceived control and support and the activation of change recipients' responses.*

DISCUSSION

Our goal in this article has been to bring forward a much broader spectrum of recipient responses to change than has been offered before and to describe the underlying mechanisms that explain these responses. To this end, we have presented a comprehensive model of the core mechanisms through which recipient responses to change events occur as emotional episodes, including appraisal, affect, and behavior as an integrated whole. We have shown how recipients' experiences of change events as emotional episodes can be represented in four quadrants that reflect an affective and behavioral circumplex. In Figure 3 we summarize our theoretical model of responses to change events and their predictors. Below we delineate some of our framework's contributions and limitations and propose next steps in research.

Theoretical Contributions

First, we have highlighted a crucial component of organizational change: the emotional episodes through which recipients respond to change events. Our conceptualization of such emotional episodes as composed of cognitive appraisals, the valence and activation dimensions of affect, and behavioral intentions, along with our discussion of their antecedents and outcomes, gives a much fuller picture than has been previously developed of responses to organizational change. Specifically, we have delineated the complex form that recipients' responses can take, the conditions that bring them about, and multiple ways through which they might affect directions of change.

FIGURE 3
A Theoretical Model of Responses to Change Events and Their Predictors

Predictor criteria
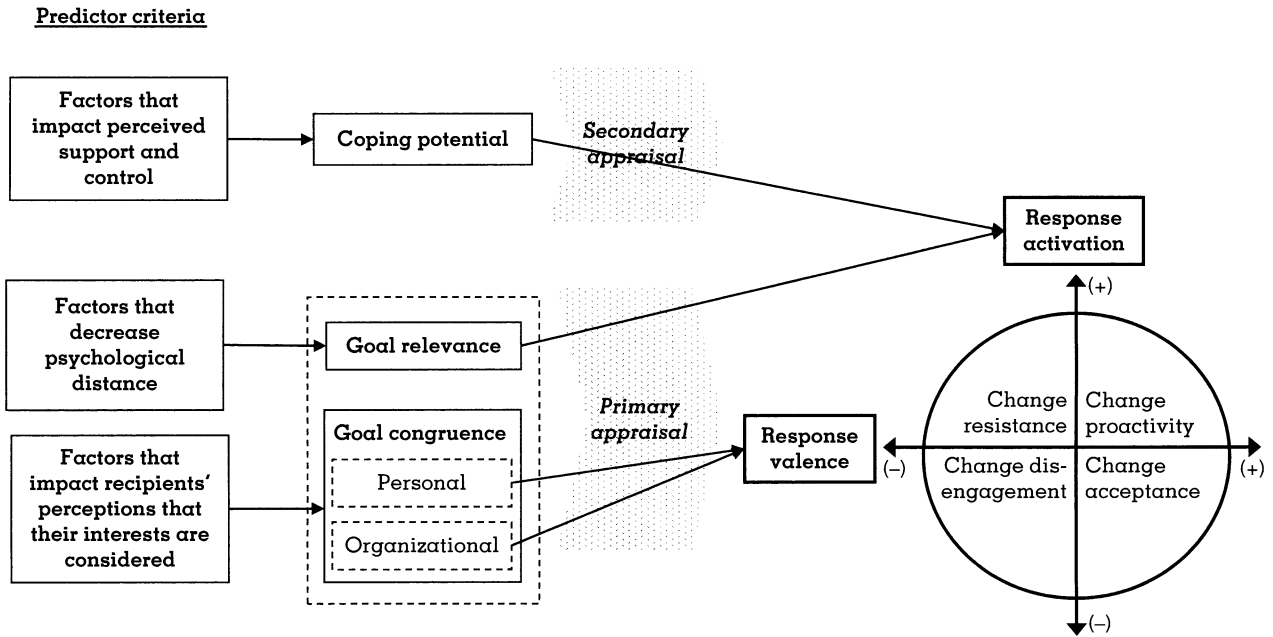
Second, we have attempted to better portray prior understandings of recipients' responses to change by identifying the role of activation. A considerable amount of research on organizational change, especially research ignoring the role of activation or confounding it with valence (e.g., Choi, 2011; Oreg et al., 2013; Rafferty et al., 2013), is inadequate. The same can be said of scales and items constructed to measure responses to change that confound valence and activation (e.g., Fedor, Caldwell, & Herold, 2006; Fugate et al., 2002; Herscovitch & Meyer, 2002; Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999; Oreg, 2006). We have provided a conceptual basis for more adequate measures of responses to change.

Third, much prior research has been based on the assumption that acceptance of change is, by definition, good, whereas resistance is bad (e.g., Battilana & Casciaro, 2013; Hon et al., 2014). However, by means of our circumplex, we have shown how this distinction is simplistic and inaccurate. By distinguishing the activation of the response to change from its valence, we have explained how passive responses, even if positive, may retard change, whereas active responses, even if negative, may sometimes facilitate it in the long run by clarifying problems with the change. As an example, the acceptance of change in the

example opening this article meant that some serious issues regarding the new software development approach were not surfaced. Proactive responses on the part of team members would likely have driven more attention to the new approach early on. They would likely have slowed down the change but would have prompted long-term benefits in implementing it. Our model makes evident the need for a more complete consideration of the meanings of particular combinations of valence and activation in responses to change.

Fourth, we have defined key criteria for factors that should influence the three appraisal components responsible for the valence and activation of recipients' responses. Existing studies focusing almost entirely on the factors that influence the valence of recipients' responses, such as their personal concerns (e.g., Liu & Perrewé, 2005), are not adequate for predicting responses to change events. As such, the insights they provide are not sufficient for effectively implementing organizational change. For example, even when recipients' concerns are well addressed, if the change process fails to reduce the psychological distance between recipients and the change, or to increase recipients' perceived control and support during the change, recipients' responses are likely to remain passive. By adopting a full range

of cognitive appraisal components that include not only goal congruence but also goal relevance and perceived coping potential, we have provided a more comprehensive framework of responses to organizational change (e.g., Fiss & Zajac, 2006; Kotter, 1996).

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

We recognize several limitations in our work. First, although many of our arguments have some grounding in empirical research, they should nevertheless be followed by empirical studies of the complete set of propositions included here. Testing the mediated links we have proposed will provide a more integrative view of change contexts, change agent processes, their effects on recipients' responses, and the possible impacts of these responses. Future empirical research should also explore the four distinct response categories we highlighted and how differentiated these are.

Second, because we focused mostly on change recipients' responses, our model does not fully capture how change agents respond to recipient behaviors. For example, consistent with our argument that change agents' interpretations of recipients' actions may not necessarily correspond with recipients' intentions, there may be times when change proactivity takes a form that change agents label as resistance, especially when the change recipients' proactive behavior is not in accordance with change agents' intentions, regardless of how (truly or intendedly) helpful to the change this behavior is (Courpasson, Dany, & Clegg, 2012). How change agents respond to change recipients' responses to change is important, because these responses influence recipients' subsequent responses to change, creating a feedback loop between change agents and recipients. Our work suggests the value of exploring change leaders' responses to the responses of change recipients. This type of interaction has yet to be adequately addressed in studies of change.

Third, we have operated on an implicit assumption that organizational change is initiated by those who are higher in the organizational hierarchy, as in the example opening the article. This, of course, corresponds with the predominant assumption in most theories of change that change is initiated from above (cf., Livne-Tarandach & Bartunek, 2009; Plowman et al.,

2007). In cases where change is initiated from below, however, organization members serve as the change agents, and leaders serve as the recipients. Although we expect that our general theoretical model will hold regardless of the source of change events, there may be components in it that nevertheless differ (e.g., the likelihood that goals will be experienced as congruent and relevant, differing appraisals of those in different parts of the hierarchy). These other possibilities should be explored in further research.

Fourth, we recognize the need for further exploration of emotional responses to change. A disadvantage of circumplex models of emotion is that they fail to sufficiently differentiate among emotions within a given quadrant. In particular, different types of emotions within a given quadrant may lead to different behaviors. Both anger and anxiety, for example, are activated emotions with negative valence, yet their behavioral responses may vary substantially (e.g., Lazarus & Cohen-Charash, 2001). It will be important in future research to explore in more detail how differences among particular emotions within a given quadrant play out with respect to types of behavioral responses (and possible impacts). Moreover, it will also be necessary to explore shared emotions that change recipients may experience collectively (e.g., Barsade, 2002; Elfenbein, 2007, 2014; Huy, Corley, & Kraatz, 2014). Because shared emotions often contain the same core cognitive and behavioral components as individual emotions (Barsade, 2002), we can expect a corresponding response circumplex of recipients' shared emotions. Future research may also explore collective processes that take place at the group or organizational level, such as emotional contagion, emotional norms, and cooperative behaviors (e.g., Barsade, 2002; Kelly & Barsade, 2001; Martin et al., 1998).

Finally, we proposed that the impact of personal congruence and organizational congruence on valence will be additive, and we similarly proposed that the impact of goal relevance and coping potential on activation will be additive. Yet it is certainly possible that the different components have different weights in their effects. For example, for some people, personal goal congruence may override the effects of organizational congruence. With respect to goal relevance and coping potential, a distinction can be made based

on the stage at which each occurs: appraisals of goal relevance occur first, as part of the primary appraisal process, and appraisals of coping potential follow, as part of the secondary appraisal process (e.g., Lazarus, 1991). Appraisals of coping potential, thus, are more proximal to the emotional response relative to the more distal relevance appraisals, and so may have a more prominent effect. These possibilities should be considered and empirically tested in future research.

Implications for Practice

Our work has a number of implications for the practice of organizational change. First, it has implications for change agents, who may unduly downplay recipients' responses to their initiatives. We highlight the importance of paying considerable attention to recipients' appraisals of particular change events, their feeling about them, and their resulting behavioral responses to them. In particular, change agents should appreciate the potential long-term benefits that may result from recipients' activated responses and should accordingly view the possible short-term delays in a more positive light.

Second, our work has implications for managing change, especially transitions between stages of change. In addition to Kotter's (1996) work referenced above, there are a number of contemporary planned change interventions, such as appreciative inquiry (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005; Cooperrider & Srivastva, 1987), future search (Weisbord & Janoff, 1995), and world café (Brown & Isaacs, 2005), that include multiple phases to be implemented in order. Their descriptions focus on the actions change agents should undertake at each stage. Yet our framework demonstrates that how participants respond affectively and behaviorally at each phase may have significant impacts on subsequent change processes and outcomes, whether change agents are aware of this or not. Thus, change agents need to give greater consideration to the variety of possible recipient responses.

CONCLUSION

Responses to organizational change comprise a much broader range of cognitions, emotions,

and behaviors than typically considered. In particular, affective and behavioral responses are characterized not only by their valence but also by their degree of activation. Change takes place in change episodes over time, not all at once. Considering responses this way has the potential to open up a very different perspective on how change develops, how it is experienced by its recipients at different times, and how these experiences play a central role—one well beyond "resistance" in the overall unfolding of the change.

REFERENCES

Amiot, C., Terry, D., Jimmieson, N., & Callan, V. 2006. A longitudinal investigation of coping processes during a merger: Implications for job satisfaction and organizational identification. *Journal of Management,* 32: 552–574.

Argyris, C. 1957. *Personality and organization.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Armenakis, A. A., Bernerth, J. B., Pitts, J. P., & Walker, H. J. 2007. Organizational change recipients' beliefs scale: Development of an assessment instrument. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 43: 495–505.

Armenakis, A. A., Harris, S. G., & Feild, H. S. 1999. Making change permanent: A model for institutionalizing change. *Research in Organizational Change and Development,* 12: 97–128.

Armenakis, A. A., Harris, S. G., & Mossholder, K. W. 1993. Creating readiness for organizational change. *Human Relations,* 46: 681–703.

Ashford, S. J. 1988. Individual strategies for coping with stress during organizational transitions. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 24: 19–36.

Atwater, L., & Carmeli, A. 2009. Leader-member exchange, feelings of energy, and involvement in creative work. *Leadership Quarterly,* 20: 264–275.

Aue, T., Flykt, A., & Scherer, K. R. 2007. First evidence for differential and sequential efferent effects of stimulus relevance and goal conduciveness appraisal. *Biological Psychology,* 74: 347–357.

Baas, M., De Dreu, C. K., & Nijstad, B. A. 2008. A meta-analysis of 25 years of mood-creativity research: Hedonic tone, activation, or regulatory focus? *Psychological Bulletin,* 134: 779–806.

Bandura, A. 1982. Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist,* 37: 122–147.

Barrett, L. F., & Russell, J. A. 1998. Independence and bipolarity in the structure of current affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 74: 967–984.

Barsade, S. G. 2002. The ripple effect: Emotional contagion and its influence on group behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 47: 644–675.

Bartunek, J. M., Huang, Z., & Walsh, I. J. 2008. The development of a process model of collective turnover. *Human Relations,* 61: 5–38.

Bartunek, J. M., Rousseau, D. M., Rudolph, J. W., & DePalma, J. A. 2006. On the receiving end: Sensemaking, emotion, and assessments of an organizational change initiated by others. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 42: 182–206.

Batt, R., Colvin, A. J., & Keefe, J. 2002. Employee voice, human resource practices, and quit rates: Evidence from the telecommunications industry. *Industrial & Labor Relations Review,* 55: 573–594.

Battilana, J., & Casciaro, T. 2013. Overcoming resistance to organizational change: Strong ties and affective cooptation. *Management Science,* 59: 819–836.

Beaudry, A., & Pinsonneault, A. 2010. The other side of acceptance: Studying the direct and indirect effects of emotions on information technology use. *MIS Quarterly,* 34: 689–710.

Bordia, P., Hobman, E., Jones, E., Gallois, C., & Callan, V. J. 2004. Uncertainty during organizational change: Types, consequences, and management strategies. *Journal of Business and Psychology,* 18: 507–532.

Bordia, P., Jones, E., Gallois, C., Callan, V. J., & Difonzo, N. 2006. Management are aliens!: Rumors and stress during organizational change. *Group and Organization Management,* 31: 601–621.

Brown, J., & Isaacs, D. 2005. *The world café: Shaping our future through conversations that matter.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Bruque, S., Moyano, J., & Eisenberg, J. 2008. Individual adaptation to IT-induced change: The role of social networks. *Journal of Management Information Systems,* 25: 177–206.

Burris, E. R. 2012. The risks and rewards of speaking up: Managerial responses to employee voice. *Academy of Management Journal,* 55: 851–875.

Callan, V. J., Terry, D. J., & Schweitzer, R. 1994. Coping resources, coping strategies and adjustment to organizational change: Direct or buffering effects? *Work and Stress,* 8: 372–383.

Campbell, D. J. 2000. The proactive employee: Managing workplace initiative. *Academy of Management Executive,* 14(3): 52–66.

Carver, C. S., Scheier, M. F., & Weintraub, J. K. 1989. Assessing coping strategies: A theoretically based approach. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 56: 267–283.

Chadwick, A. E. 2015. Toward a theory of persuasive hope: Effects of cognitive appraisals, hope appeals, and hope in the context of climate change. *Health Communication,* 30: 598–611.

Chan, D. 2006. Interactive effects of situational judgment effectiveness and proactive personality on work perceptions and work outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 91: 475–481.

Choi, M. 2011. Employees' attitudes toward organizational change: A literature review. *Human Resource Management,* 50: 479–500.

Coch, L., & French, J. R. P., Jr. 1948. Overcoming resistance to change. *Human Relations,* 1: 512–532.

Cooperrider, D., & Whitney, D. D. 2005. *Appreciative inquiry: A positive revolution in change.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Cooperrider, D. L., & Srivastva, S. 1987. Appreciative inquiry in organizational life. *Research in Organizational Change and Development,* 1: 129–169.

Courpasson, D., Dany, F., & Clegg, S. 2012. Resisters at work: Generating productive resistance in the workplace. *Organization Science,* 23: 801–819.

Daly, J. P., & Geyer, P. D. 1994. The role of fairness in implementing large-scale change: Employee evaluations of process and outcome in seven facility relocations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 15: 623–638.

Dent, E. B., & Goldberg, S. G. 1999. Challenging "resistance to change." *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 35: 25–41.

Dutton, J. E., Ashford, S. J., O'Neill, R. M., & Lawrence, K. A. 2001. Moves that matter: Issue selling and organizational change. *Academy of Management Journal,* 44: 716–736.

Edwards, M. S., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Gardner, J. 2009. Deciding to speak up or to remain silent following observed wrongdoing: The role of discrete emotions and climate of silence. In J. Greenberg & M. S. Edwards (Eds.), *Voice and silence in organizations:* 83–109. Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.

Elfenbein, H. A. 2007. Emotion in organizations: A review and theoretical integration. *Academy of Management Annals,* 1: 315–386.

Elfenbein, H. A. 2014. The many faces of emotional contagion: An affective process theory of affective linkage. *Organizational Psychology Review,* 4: 326–362.

Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. 2005. The moderating role of individual differences in the relation between transformational/transactional leadership perceptions and organizational identification. *Leadership Quarterly,* 16: 569–589.

Farrell, D. 1983. Exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect as responses to job dissatisfaction: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal,* 26: 596–607.

Fedor, D. B., Caldwell, S., & Herold, D. M. 2006. The effects of organizational changes on employee commitment: A multilevel investigation. *Personnel Psychology,* 59: 1–29.

Feldman, L. A. 1995. Valence focus and arousal focus: Individual differences in the structure of affective experience. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 69: 153–166.

Felps, W., Mitchell, T. R., Hekman, D. R., Lee, T. W., Holtom, B. C., & Harman, W. S. 2009. Turnover contagion: How coworkers' job embeddedness and job search behaviors influence quitting. *Academy of Management Journal,* 52: 545–561.

Fisher, C. D., Minbashian, A., Beckmann, N., & Wood, R. E. 2013. Task appraisals, emotions, and performance goal orientation. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 98: 364–373.

Fiss, P. C., & Zajac, E. J. 2006. The symbolic management of strategic change: Sensegiving via framing and

decoupling. *Academy of Management Journal,* 49: 1173–1193.

Folkman, S. 1984. Personal control and stress and coping processes: A theoretical analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 46: 839–852.

Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. 1980. An analysis of coping in a middle-aged community sample. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior,* 21: 219–239.

Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. 1985. If it changes it must be a process: Study of emotion and coping during three stages of a college examination. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 48: 150–170.

Folkman, S., Lazarus, R. S., Dunkel-Schetter, C., DeLongis, A., & Gruen, R. J. 1986. Dynamics of a stressful encounter: Cognitive appraisal, coping, and encounter outcomes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 50: 992–1003.

Ford, J. D., Ford, L. W., & D'Amelio, A. 2008. Resistance to change: The rest of the story. *Academy of Management Review,* 33: 362–377.

Frese, M., & Fay, D. 2001. Personal initiative: An active performance concept for work in the 21st century. *Research in Organizational Behavior,* 23: 133–187.

Fried, Y., Tiegs, R. B., Naughton, T. J., & Ashforth, B. E. 1996. Managers' reactions to a corporate acquisition: A test of an integrative model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 17: 401–427.

Frijda, N. H. 1986. *The emotions.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Frijda, N. H. 1987. Emotion, cognitive structure, and action tendency. *Cognition and Emotion,* 1: 115–143.

Frijda, N. H. 1993. Moods, emotion episodes, and emotions. In M. Lewis & J. M. Haviland (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions:* 381-403. New York: Guildford Press.

Frijda, N. H., Kuipers, P., & Ter Schure, E. 1989. Relations among emotion, appraisal, and emotional action readiness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 57: 212–228.

Fugate, M., Harrison, S., & Kinicki, A. J. 2011. Thoughts and feelings about organizational change: A field test of appraisal theory. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies,* 18: 421–437.

Fugate, M., Kinicki, A. J., & Scheck, L. C. 2002. Coping with an organizational merger over four stages. *Personnel Psychology,* 55: 905–928.

Fugate, M., Prussia, G. E., & Kinicki, A. J. 2012. Managing employee withdrawal during organizational change: The role of threat appraisal. *Journal of Management,* 38: 890–914.

George, J. M., & Jones, G. R. 2001. Towards a process model of individual change in organizations. *Human Relations,* 54: 419–444.

Harvey, P., Martinko, M. J., & Douglas, S. C. 2009. Causal perceptions and the decision to speak up or pipe down. In J. Greenberg & M. S. Edwards (Eds.), *Voice and silence in organizations:* 63–82. Bingley, UK: Emerald Group Publishing.

Heise, D. R. 1979. *Understanding events: Affect and the construction of social action.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Herscovitch, L., & Meyer, J. P. 2002. Commitment to organizational change: Extension of a three-component model. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 87: 474–487.

Hirschman, A. O. 1970. *Exit, voice, and loyalty: Responses to decline in firms, organizations, and states.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Holt, D. T., Armenakis, A. A., Feild, H. S., & Harris, S. G. 2007. Readiness for organizational change: The systematic development of a scale. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 43: 232–255.

Hon, A. H., Bloom, M., & Crant, J. M. 2014. Overcoming resistance to change and enhancing creative performance. *Journal of Management,* 40: 919–941.

Huy, Q. N. 2002. Emotional balancing of organizational continuity and radical change: The contribution of middle managers. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 47: 31–69.

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. *Academy of Management Journal,* 57: 1650–1680.

Jordan, P. J., Ashkanasy, N. M., & Hartel, C. E. 2002. Emotional intelligence as a moderator of emotional and behavioral reactions to job insecurity. *Academy of Management Review,* 27: 361–372.

Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Pucik, V., & Welbourne, T. M. 1999. Managerial coping with organizational change: A dispositional perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 84: 107–122.

Kanter, R. M., Stein, B., & Jick, T. 1992. *The challenge of organizational change: How companies experience it and leaders guide it.* New York: Free Press.

Kark, R., & Shamir, B. 2002. The dual effect of transformational leadership: Priming relational and collective selves and further effects on followers. In B. Avolio & F. Yammarino (Eds.), *Transformational and charismatic leadership: The road ahead:* 67–91. Stamford, CT: JAI Press.

Kelly, J. R., & Barsade, S. G. 2001. Mood and emotions in small groups and work teams. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes,* 86: 99–130.

Kiefer, T. 2005. Feeling bad: Antecedents and consequences of negative emotions in ongoing change. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 26: 875–897.

Kotter, J. P. 1996. *Leading change.* Boston: Harvard Business Press.

Koys, D. J. 2001. The effects of employee satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, and turnover on organizational effectiveness: A unit-level, longitudinal study. *Personnel Psychology,* 54: 101–114.

Kreibig, S. D., Gendolla, G. H., & Scherer, K. R. 2012. Goal relevance and goal conduciveness appraisals lead to differential autonomic reactivity in emotional responding

to performance feedback. *Biological Psychology,* 91: 365–375.

Kreiner, G. E., & Ashforth, B. E. 2004. Evidence toward an expanded model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 25: 1–27.

Kuppens, P., Sheeber, L. B., Yap, M. B., Whittle, S., Simmons, J. G., & Allen, N. B. 2012. Emotional inertia prospectively predicts the onset of depressive disorder in adolescence. *Emotion,* 12: 283–289.

Kuppens, P., Tuerlinckx, F., Russell, J. A., & Barrett, L. F. 2013. The relation between valence and arousal in subjective experience. *Psychological Bulletin,* 139: 917–940.

Lang, P. J. 1995. The emotion probe: Studies of motivation and attention. *American Psychologist,* 50: 372–385.

La Rocco, J. M., & Jones, A. P. 1978. Co-worker and leader support as moderators of stress-strain relationships in work situations. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 63: 629–634.

Lazarus, R. S. 1982. Thoughts on the relations between emotion and cognition. *American Psychologist,* 37: 1019–1024.

Lazarus, R. S. 1991. Cognition and motivation in emotion. *American Psychologist,* 46: 352–367.

Lazarus, R. S. 1999. The cognition-emotion debate: A bit of history. In T. Dalgleish & M. Power (Eds.), *Handbook of cognition and emotion:* 3–19. Chichester, UK: Wiley.

Lazarus, R. S., & Cohen-Charash, Y. 2001. Discrete emotions in organizational life. In R. L. Payne & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Emotions at work: Theory, research and applications for management:* 45–81. Chichester, UK: Wiley.

Lazarus, R. S., & Folkman, S. 1984. *Stress, appraisal, and coping.* New York: Springer.

Lewicki, R. J., McAllister, D. J., & Bies, R. J. 1998. Trust and distrust: New relationships and realities. *Academy of Management Review,* 23: 438–458.

Lewin, K. 1947. Frontiers in group dynamics: Concept, method and reality in social science; social equilibria and social change. *Human Relations,* 1: 5–41.

Lind, E. A., Kanfer, R., & Earley, P. C. 1990. Voice, control, and procedural justice: Instrumental and noninstrumental concerns in fairness judgments. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 59: 952–959.

Liu, Y., & Perrewé, P. L. 2005. Another look at the role of emotion in the organizational change: A process model. *Human Resource Management Review,* 15: 263–280.

Livne-Tarandach, R., & Bartunek, J. M. 2009. A new horizon for organizational change and development scholarship: Connecting planned and emergent change. *Research in Organizational Change and Development,* 17: 1–35.

Logan, M. S., & Ganster, D. C. 2007. The effects of empowerment on attitudes and performance: The role of social support and empowerment beliefs. *Journal of Management Studies,* 44: 1523–1550.

Mael, F., & Ashforth, B. E. 1992. Alumni and their alma mater: A partial test of the reformulated model of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 13: 103–123.

March, J. G. 1991. Exploration and exploitation in organizational learning. *Organization Science,* 2: 71–87.

Martin, A. J., Jones, E. S., & Callan, V. J. 2005. The role of psychological climate in facilitating employee adjustment during organizational change. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology,* 14: 263–283.

Martin, J., Knopoff, K., & Beckman, C. 1998. An alternative to bureaucratic impersonality and emotional labor: Bounded emotionality at The Body Shop. *Administrative Science Quarterly,* 43: 429–469.

Matheny, J. A., & Smollan, R. K. 2005. Taking change to heart: Exploring emotions experienced through change events. In N. M. Ashkanasy, W. F. Zerbe, & C. E. J. Härtel (Eds.), *The effect of affect in organizational settings:* 173–210. Oxford: Elsevier.

Maynes, T. D., & Podsakoff, P. M. 2014. Speaking more broadly: An examination of the nature, antecedents, and consequences of an expanded set of employee voice behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 99: 87–112.

McAvoy, J., & Butler, T. 2007. The impact of the Abilene paradox on double-loop learning in an agile team. *Information and Software Technology,* 49: 552–563.

Meyer, J. P., Srinivas, E., Lal, J. B., & Topolnytsky, L. 2007. Employee commitment and support for an organizational change: Test of the three-component model in two cultures. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* 80: 185–211.

Miceli, M. P., & Near, J. P. 1994. Whistleblowing: Reaping the benefits. *Academy of Management Executive,* 8(3): 65–72.

Miller, V. D., Johnson, J. R., & Grau, J. 1994. Antecedents to willingness to participate in a planned organizational change. *Journal of Applied Communication Research,* 22: 59–80.

Moors, A., Ellsworth, P. C., Scherer, K. R., & Frijda, N. H. 2013. Appraisal theories of emotion: State of the art and future development. *Emotion Review,* 5: 119–124.

Morrison, E. W. 2011. Employee voice behavior: Integration and directions for future research. *Academy of Management Annals,* 5: 373–412.

Nurick, A. J. 1982. Participation in organizational change: A longitudinal field study. *Human Relations,* 35: 413–429.

Nyer, P. U. 1997. A study of the relationships between cognitive appraisals and consumption emotions. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 25: 296–304.

Oreg, S. 2006. Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology,* 15: 73–101.

Oreg, S., & Berson, Y. 2011. Leadership and employees' reactions to change: The role of leaders' personal attributes and transformational leadership style. *Personnel Psychology,* 64: 627–659.

Oreg, S., & Goldenberg, J. 2015. *Resistance to innovation: Its sources and manifestations.* Chicago & London: University of Chicago Press.

Oreg, S., Michel, A., & By, R. T. (Eds.). 2013. *The psychology of organizational change: Viewing change from the employee's perspective.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Oreg, S., & Sverdlik, N. 2011. Ambivalence toward imposed change: The conflict between dispositional resistance to change and the orientation toward the change agent. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 96: 337–349.

Oreg, S., Vakola, M., & Armenakis, A. A. 2011. Change recipients' reactions to organizational change: A sixty-year review of quantitative studies. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science,* 47: 461–524.

Parker, S. K., Bindl, U. K., & Strauss, K. 2010. Making things happen: A model of proactive motivation. *Journal of Management,* 36: 827–856.

Paterson, J. M., & Cary, J. 2002. Organizational justice, change anxiety, and acceptance of downsizing: Preliminary tests of an AET-based model. *Motivation and Emotion,* 26: 83–103.

Pettigrew, A. M., Woodman, R. W., & Cameron, K. S. 2001. Studying organizational change and development: Challenges for future research. *Academy of Management Journal,* 44: 697–713.

Piderit, S. K. 2000. Rethinking resistance and recognizing ambivalence: A multidimensional view of attitudes toward an organizational change. *Academy of Management Review,* 25: 783–794.

Pierce, J. L., & Dunham, R. B. 1992. The 12-hour work day: A 48-hour, eight-day week. *Academy of Management Journal,* 35: 1086–1098.

Pinder, C. C., & Harlos, K. P. 2001. Employee silence: Quiescence and acquiescence as responses to perceived injustice. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management,* 20: 331–370.

Plowman, D. A., Baker, L. T., Beck, T. E., Kulkarni, M., Solansky, S. T., & Travis, D. V. 2007. Radical change accidentally: The emergence and amplification of small change. *Academy of Management Journal,* 50: 515–543.

Rafferty, A. E., Jimmieson, N. L., & Armenakis, A. A. 2013. Change readiness: A multilevel review. *Journal of Management,* 39: 110–135.

Ramirez, L. I., & Bartunek, J. M. 1989. The multiple realities and experiences of internal organisation development consultation in health care. *Journal of Organizational Change Management,* 2: 40–57.

Real, W. H. 1962. Upward communication in industrial hierarchies. *Human Relations,* 15: 3–15.

Reichers, A. E., Wanous, J. P., & Austin, J. T. 1997. Understanding and managing cynicism about organizational change. *Academy of Management Executive,* 11(1): 48–59.

Robinson, D. T., & Smith-Lovin, L. 1999. Emotion display as a strategy for identity negotiation. *Motivation and Emotion,* 23: 73–104.

Roseman, I. J. 1984. Cognitive determinants of emotion: A structural theory. *Review of Personality & Social Psychology,* 5: 11–36.

Roseman, I. J. 2001. A model of appraisal in the emotion system: Integrating theory, research, and applications. In K. R. Scherer, A. Schorr, & T. Johnstone (Eds.), *Appraisal processes in emotion: Theory, methods, research:* 68–91. New York & Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Russell, J. A. 1980. A circumplex model of affect. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 39: 1161–1178.

Russell, J. A. 2003. Core affect and the psychological construction of emotion. *Psychological Review,* 110: 145–172.

Russell, J. A., & Barrett, L. F. 1999. Core affect, prototypical emotional episodes, and other things called emotion: Dissecting the elephant. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 76: 805–819.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. 2000. Self-determination theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation, social development, and well-being. *American Psychologist,* 55: 68–78.

Sagie, A., & Koslowsky, M. 1994. Organizational attitudes and behaviors as a function of participation in strategic and tactical change decisions: An application of path-goal theory. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 15: 37–47.

Scherer, K. R. 1984. Emotion as a multicomponent process: A model and some cross-cultural data. *Review of Personality & Social Psychology,* 5: 37–63.

Scherer, K. R. 2001. Appraisal considered as a process of multilevel sequential checking. In K. R. Scherer, A. Schorr, & T. Johnstone (Eds.), *Appraisal processes in emotion: Theory, methods, research:* 92–120. New York & Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Scherer, K. R. 2013. The nature and dynamics of relevance and valence appraisals: Theoretical advances and recent evidence. *Emotion Review,* 5: 150–162.

Schweiger, D. M., & Denisi, A. S. 1991. Communication with employees following a merger: A longitudinal field experiment. *Academy of Management Journal,* 34: 110–135.

Seo, M. G., Barrett, L. F., & Bartunek, J. M. 2004. The role of affective experience in work motivation. *Academy of Management Review,* 29: 423–439.

Seppälä, T., Lipponen, J., Bardi, A., & Pirttilä-Backman, A. M. 2012. Change-oriented organizational citizenship behaviour: An interactive product of openness to change values, work unit identification, and sense of power. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* 85: 136–155.

Shamir, B., Zakay, E., Breinin, E., & Popper, M. 1998. Correlates of charismatic leader behavior in military units: Subordinates' attitudes, unit characteristics, and superiors' appraisals of leader performance. *Academy of Management Journal,* 41: 387–409.

Shaw, J. B., Fields, M. W., Thacker, J. W., & Fisher, C. D. 1993. The availability of personal and external coping resources: Their impact on job stress and employee attitudes during organizational restructuring. *Work & Stress,* 7: 229–246.

Shaw, J. D., Delery, J. E., Jenkins, G. D. J., & Gupta, N. 1998. An organization-level analysis of voluntary and

involuntary turnover. *Academy of Management Journal,* 41: 511–525.

Silvia, P. J. 2005. What is interesting? Exploring the appraisal structure of interest. *Emotion,* 5: 89–102.

Skinner, E. A. 1995. *Perceived control, motivation, & coping.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Smith, C. A., & Ellsworth, P. C. 1985. Patterns of cognitive appraisal in emotion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology,* 48: 813–838.

Smith, C. A., & Kirby, L. D. 2009. Putting appraisal in context: Toward a relational model of appraisal and emotion. *Cognition and Emotion,* 23: 1352–1372.

Smollan, K. R. 2006. Minds, hearts and deeds: Cognitive, affective and behavioural responses to change. *Journal of Change Management,* 6: 143–158.

Spector, P. E. 1986. Perceived control by employees: A meta-analysis of studies concerning autonomy and participation at work. *Human Relations,* 39: 1005–1016.

Stanley, D. J., Meyer, J. P., & Topolnytsky, L. 2005. Employee cynicism and resistance to organizational change. *Journal of Business and Psychology,* 19: 429–459.

Stewart, M. 1957. Resistance to technological change in industry. *Human Organization,* 16(3): 36–39.

Szulanski, G. 1996. Exploring internal stickiness: Impediments to the transfer of best practice within the firm. *Strategic Management Journal,* 17(Supplement 2): 27–43.

Terry, D. D. J., Callan, V. J., & Sartori, G. 1996. Employee adjustment to an organizational merger: Stress, coping and intergroup differences. *Stress Medicine,* 12: 105–122.

Ton, Z., & Huckman, R. S. 2008. Managing the impact of employee turnover on performance: The role of process conformance. *Organization Science,* 19: 56–68.

Trope, Y., & Liberman, N. 2010. Construal-level theory of psychological distance. *Psychological Review,* 117: 440–463.

Ullrich, J., Wieseke, J., & Dick, R. V. 2005. Continuity and change in mergers and acquisitions: A social identity case study of a German industrial merger. *Journal of Management Studies,* 42: 1549–1569.

Vagg, P. R., & Spielberger, C. D. 1998. Occupational stress: Measuring job pressure and organizational support in the workplace. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology,* 3: 294–305.

van Dam, K., Oreg, S., & Schyns, B. 2008. Daily work contexts and resistance to organizational change: The role of leader-member exchange, perceived development climate, and change process quality. *Applied Psychology: An International Review,* 57: 313–334.

Van Dyne, L., Ang, S., & Botero, I. C. 2003. Conceptualizing employee silence and employee voice as multidimensional constructs. *Journal of Management Studies,* 40: 1359–1392.

van Knippenberg, B., Martin, L., & Tyler, T. 2006. Process-orientation versus outcome-orientation during organizational change: The role of organizational identification. *Journal of Organizational Behavior,* 27: 685–704.

Viswesvaran, C., Sanchez, J. I., & Fisher, J. 1999. The role of social support in the process of work stress: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 54: 314–334.

Wanberg, C. R., & Banas, J. T. 2000. Predictors and outcomes of openness to changes in a reorganizing workplace. *Journal of Applied Psychology,* 85: 132–142.

Weisbord, M. R., & Janoff, S. 1995. *Future search: Finding common ground for action in organizations.* San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler.

Weiss, H. M., & Cropanzano, R. 1996. Affective events theory: A theoretical discussion of the structure, causes and consequences of affective experiences at work. *Research in Organizational Behavior,* 18: 1–74.

Zajonc, R. B. 1984. On the primacy of affect. *American Psychologist,* 39: 117–123.

Shaul Oreg (oreg@huji.ac.il) is an associate professor of organizational behavior at the School of Business Administration of The Hebrew University of Jerusalem. He earned his Ph.D. at Cornell University. Among his research interests is the study of individual differences in the context of organizational change.

Jean M. Bartunek (bartunek@bc.edu) is the Robert A. and Evelyn J. Ferris Chair and Professor of Management and Organization at Boston College. She received her Ph.D. in social and organizational psychology from the University of Illinois at Chicago. Her research interests center on organizational change and academic-practitioner relationships.

Gayoung Lee (gayoung.lee@bc.edu) is a Ph.D. candidate in the Management and Organization Department at Boston College's Carroll School of Management. She received her BBA and MS in organizational behavior from Yonsei University. Her research focuses on proactive work behavior, social networks, and leveraging mindfulness and emotions to create positive relationships at work.

Boram Do (boram.do@wayne.edu) is an assistant professor of management in the Ilitch School of Business at Wayne State University. She received her Ph.D. in management and organization from Boston College. Her research interest lies in exploring emotions within complex, dynamic organizational contexts, such as organizational change and development, learning, and helping.